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TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE WORLD WIDE WEB AND THE REPRESENTATION OF CULTURE WITHIN THE ELT CONTEXT
Maryam Sharif and Mostafa Zamanian ................................................................. 11

WORD-FORMATION: A SYSTEMATIC WAY TO ENRICH WORD POWER OF MEDICAL STUDENTS
Akbar Solati ........................................................................................................... 20

EXPLICITATION IN SUBTITLING AND DUBBING: A CASE STUDY OF TWO HARRY POTTER’S MOVIES
Marzieh Bagheri, Azadeh Nemati and Jamal Abdolrahimzade ................................ 34

THE EFFECT OF PROVIDING BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND PREVIEWING QUESTIONS ON IMPROVING LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF EFL LEARNERS
Mohamad Sadegh Bagheri and Mohamad Mahdi Bahadori .................................... 47

COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN ELT CONTEXTS
Ghasem Barani .................................................................................................... 57

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES AND THEIR READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY
Giti Mousapour Negari and Ezzat Barghi ............................................................ 67

A SURVEY OF THE APPROACHES EMPLOYED IN TEACHING LITERATURE IN AN EFL CONTEXT
Hoda Divsar .......................................................................................................... 74

THE EFFECT OF USING PICTOGLOSS ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY
Azra Khoshkar and Ali Asghar Eshagh Nimvari .................................................... 86

MODELS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN SLA AND THE ROLE OF INTELLIGENCE
Abdorreza Tahriri, Maryam Danaye Tous and Amin Majouri .................................. 104

TOWARDS THE INCORPORATION OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN ELT MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT: A SURVEY ON THE IRANIAN TEACHERS AND UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS’ ATTITUDES
Hamideh Marzban and Mostafa Zamanian ........................................................... 114

THE EFFECT OF GROUP WORK INSTRUCTION ON WH-QUESTION MAKING
Azadeh Nemati and Jamileh Deltalab .................................................................... 133

THE EFFECT OF LEXICAL FREQUENCY KNOWLEDGE ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ SPEAKING ABILITY
Masoumeh Shahrestanifar and Ramin Rahimy .................................................... 146

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT’S LEARNING STYLES AND THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES
Shiva Farajolahi and Ali Asghar Eshagh Nimvari .................................................. 157

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES, LEARNING STYLES AND GENDER
Zahra Ahanbor and Firooz Sadighi ....................................................................... 176

EMP STUDENTS’ USE OF READING STRATEGIES AND THE IMPACT OF STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON MEDICAL TEXT COMPREHENSION
Maryam khoshbouei Jahromi .................................................................................. 185
A SOCIOLINGUISTIC STUDY OF GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PERSIAN WRITTEN PERFORMANCE
Yahya Keikhai and Javad Shirvani ................................................................. 209

DYNAMIC AND FORMAL EQUIVALENCE IN PERSIAN TRANSLATION OF ENGLISH IMPERATIVES IN MOVEI SCRIPTS
Elham Moghtadi and Gaffar Tajalli .............................................................. 228

DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF MATERIALS FOR ISOLATED FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION
Jessie S. Barrot .............................................................................................. 267

A NEEDS ANALYSIS STUDY FOR THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM AT THE TEACHING STAFF TRAINING PROGRAM IN A TURKISH UNIVERSITY
Abdullah Arslan and Abdullah Coskun ......................................................... 283

THAT-ClausEs IN NATIVE AND NONNATIVE ACADEMIC WRITING
Abdurrahman Kilimci .................................................................................. 301

THE EFFECT OF READING-BASED WORD-GENERATION TECHNIQUES ON WRITING PROFICIENCY OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS
Mostafa Zamaniyan and Zahra Asvad ......................................................... 318

THE IMPACT OF PORTFOLIO WRITING ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ AUTONOMY
Zahra Jafari and Hamid Gholami ................................................................. 328

ON THE VALIDITY OF IELTS WRITING COMPONENT; DO RATERS ASSESS WHAT THEY ARE SUPPOSED TO?
Masoud Azizi and Khadijeh Majdeddin ....................................................... 337

THE IMPACT OF SELF-ASSESSMENT ON SELF-REGULATION AND CRITICAL THINKING OF EFL LEARNERS
Parvaneh Kahrizi, Majid Farahian and Seifodin Rajabi .................................. 353

A READER-RESPONSE APPROACH TO READING: DOES IT HAVE AN EFFECT ON METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES?
Majid Farahian and Majid Farshid ............................................................ 371

L’EFFET DU RÉSUMÉ DE TEXTE SUR L’APPRENTISSAGE DE LA LECTURE
Farzaneh Bagheri and Maryame Soudipour ............................................. 384
THE WORLD WIDE WEB AND THE REPRESENTATION OF CULTURE WITHIN THE ELT CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
Today, the Internet has proven to be quite useful in language programs, and English has established itself as the unifying language of the World Wide Web. Since culture is considered as the integral part of the language instruction, the cultural content of ELT materials needs to be selected with extreme caution. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to put the cultural content of the online ELT materials under close scrutiny in order to verify the degree to which culture has been represented appropriately. To this end, 60 web pages on four websites presenting online reading materials were selected from among myriad of websites designed for EFL/ESL students around the world, and a content analysis of the reading materials was carried out following Aliakbari's (2004) model along with Ramirez and Hall’s (1990) categorization. The results of the analysis revealed that there seems to be an inclination towards the culture of the Inner Circle countries in the reading materials in question, and that the ‘religion, arts, and humanities’ sphere has dominated other cultural themes. Hence, the representation of culture on the Web needs to be reexamined if English language is aimed to be used as a means of intercultural communication in the era of globalization.

KEY WORDS: culture, globalization, content analysis, ELT websites, online reading materials

1. Introduction
The close interrelation between language and culture cannot be denied. In fact, language and culture can be regarded as the two sides of a coin (Rashidi & Najafi, 2010). “Culture thus shapes and is shaped by language” (Kulkarni, Rajeshwarkar, & Dixit, 2012, p.15).

Due to the unquestionable significance of culture in language programs, attempts have been made throughout the years to inject culture into language lessons. However, the integration of culture into language programs is by no means easy (Sharif & Yarmohammadi, 2013), and “prior to the injection of culture into the language classroom, sound decisions must be made regarding the cultural content of language materials and the manner culture is going to be presented” (Sharif & Yarmohammadi, 2013, p. 13452).
Crotazzi and Jin (1999), as cited in McKay (2003), have distinguished between three types of cultural content that can be specified in language materials: source culture which draws upon the learner’s home culture, target culture that focuses on the culture of Inner Circle countries whose first language is English, and international culture which relies on the culture of different countries around the globe. Aliakbari (2004) speaks of another type of cultural content which he refers to as neutral with little or no interest in culture; materials discussing science, history, geography, morphology, etymology, grammatical features, etc. are culturally neutral (Ur, 1996).

As McKay (2003) puts it, the question of which cultural content to present in language materials has induced a large body of research, investigating the cultural content of ELT textbooks at secondary, institutional, and even tertiary levels (see Aliakbari, 2004; Khajavi & Abbasian, 2011; Rashidi & Najafi, 2010; Ziaei, 2012; Juan, 2010; and Sharif & Yarmohammadi, 2013).

Before the invention of the computer, the cultural content of ELT materials could be considered “one of the best resources for introducing culture knowledge” (Juan, 2010, p. 138). Nowadays, with the advent of the computer and the Internet, the World Wide Web has become a reliable source for the online presentation of ELT materials. In essence, “…textbook writers and publishers, in order to appear more innovative and flexible, have embraced technology and adapted materials and methods accordingly, including CD’s, DVD’s, downloadable content and media as well as extensive web support for teachers and students” (Reimann, 2009, p. 86).

Studies analyzing the cultural content of ELT textbooks abound, yet published studies investigating the cultural content of online ESL/EFL materials are scarce. This paucity aroused the researchers in this study to probe into the nature of the cultural content of ELT materials which appear on the World Wide Web in order to find out whose culture is being represented on the Web and what cultural themes/topics have been introduced. Therefore, this study strives to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. Whose culture is being represented on EFL/ESL websites and to what extent?
2. What cultural themes and topics are presented on EFL/ESL websites?
3. Are these ELT websites a congruent and effective medium for instructing the target and international cultures at the era of globalization and, at the same time, revering learners’ national identity and home culture?

2. The World Wide Web and ELT Materials

Thanks to the widespread use of the Internet today, e-learning and online instruction have been facilitated. This process has especially been fostered with the advent of the World Wide Web, a system of hypertext documents for accessing and viewing online information (Richards & Renandya, 2002). As a matter of fact, the World Wide Web, which developed in the mid 1990s, is “an international on-line database that allows the sharing of linked multimedia documents” (Carter & Nunan, 2001, p. 208).

“The ease with which Web documents can be created, as well as their worldwide accessibility, multimedia capabilities, and interactive functions, make the
Web an attractive environment for carrying on computer-based instruction” (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 374). The numerous advantages of the Web in the instruction of a second language have also been reported in the literature. According to Harmer (2001), “almost any website has potential for students of English” (p. 148) e.g., L2 learners of English can read authentic materials on different topics in English while surfing the net; they have also shown a growing interest in the use of social networks like facebook and twitter by means of which they can improve their communicative ability; students are also able to individualize their practices and can progress at their own pace using the Web. In addition to the websites which provide information in different areas of specialty through the medium of English, there have been a plethora of websites designed especially having language learners in mind, and there are also myriads of websites for ESL/EFL teachers. A number of researchers consider the Web as “an extension of an L2 culture or society” (Carter & Nunan, 2001, p. 208). That is to say, all these websites have the potential to mirror the culture of the society in question (Kulkarni et al., 2012).

The literature has already documented the investigation of the cultural content of the Web by different scholars (Kulkarni et al., 2012). However, these websites have focused, for the most part, on the impact of culture on web design and marketing strategies (see Würtz, 2005; Ali & Lee, 2011), and the investigation of culture as represented on ELT websites has been neglected. Therefore, this study aims at conducting a cultural content analysis on ESL/EFL websites to investigate how culture is represented on the Web.

3. Method
3.1. Materials/Websites

For the present study, the cultural content of 60 ELT web pages designed for adult language learners was put under investigation. In fact, the corpus for this study was selected from among a total of 30 ELT websites with reading sections published from 1998 to date. Out of this corpus, the following 4 websites whose reading materials had been graded were analyzed:


The websites, called website 1, website 2, website 3, and website 4 hereafter for the ease of discussion, were presenting their materials in 3, 5, 3, and 7 levels of language proficiency respectively (see Table 1 for more details). To keep consistency, only the intermediate level was analyzed due to the fact that “intermediate-level learners seem to be the audience who can profit most immediately from the web-based courseware. Beginners need the carefully graded and structured material already provided by textbooks and may find it difficult to use the Web at all, because their English is too limited to cope with the operating instructions of the browser programs. Nor is there a pressing need to develop special materials for advanced ESL learners because one can easily find many Web documents that are interesting and appropriate” (Richards & Renandya, 2002, pp. 374-375).
The websites included 20, 19, 419, and 19 lessons respectively. For the sake of consistency, the first 15 passages on each website were analyzed. It must be noted that the intermediate level on website 2 contained merely 5 passages; thus, in order to select the 15 texts required, the lower and upper intermediate levels were also taken into consideration for analysis. Likewise, the reading materials on website 3 had been arranged in 6 categories; to select passages from all categories, the first passage from each category was selected, followed by the second passage from each category, followed by the third passage until number 15 was served.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Website 1</th>
<th>No. of Texts</th>
<th>No. of Levels</th>
<th>Type of Materials</th>
<th>Supplementary Materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Website 1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Level 1&lt;br&gt;Level 2&lt;br&gt;Levels 3</td>
<td>text documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website 2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Level 1: upper&lt;br&gt;beginner&lt;br&gt;Levels 2: lower&lt;br&gt;intermediate&lt;br&gt;Levels 3: intermediate&lt;br&gt;Levels 4: upper&lt;br&gt;intermediate&lt;br&gt;Levels 5: advanced</td>
<td>Stories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website 3</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Level 0&lt;br&gt;Level 1&lt;br&gt;Levels 2&lt;br&gt;Level 3</td>
<td>news excerpts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website 4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Level 0: elementary&lt;br&gt;Level 1: elementary plus&lt;br&gt;Levels 2-4: pre-intermediate&lt;br&gt;Level 5: intermediate&lt;br&gt;Level 6: upper intermediate</td>
<td>news excerpts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Model of Analysis

The reading passages on the selected websites were analyzed based on Aliakbari’s (2004) model of analysis which is a modification of Ramirez and Hall’s (1990) model. In his model, Aliakbari (2004) has specified 8 categories to represent
cultural references including reference to English speaking countries (H), reference to Western countries whose official language is not English (I), reference to Eastern countries (L), cross-national comparison (M), reference to Iran (N), reference to Islam or Islamic values (O), general texts which have to do with science, biographies, historical events, life stories, etc. (J), and texts wherein cultural references have, intentionally or unintentionally, been dropped (K).

In addition, in order to investigate the cultural themes presented in the reading sections of the above-mentioned websites, Ramirez and Hall’s (1990) categorization of major cultural themes was used; the categorization embraces 5 major themes (i.e., social; personal; religion, arts, humanities; political systems/institutions; environmental), each of which consists of several subthemes.

3.3. Content Analysis Procedure

As part of the procedure of web analysis, content analysis was conducted since it is one of the earliest methods utilized in web analysis (Herring, 2010). According to Herring (2010), traditional models of content analysis rely on “notions such as comparable units of analysis, fixed coding schemes, and random sampling to fit the requirements of web research” (p. 11). Thus, as the first step, ‘theme’ was selected as the unit of analysis. “An instance of a theme might be expressed in a single word, a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph, or an entire document” expressing an idea (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009, p. 3).

As for the second step, a coding scheme had to be designed. As Zhang and Wildemuth (2009) put it, coding schemes can be derived from the data, earlier studies, and theories. “The adoption of coding schemes developed in previous studies has the advantage of supporting the accumulation and comparison of research findings across multiple studies” (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009, p. 4); therefore, in the case of this study, the categories were labeled (H), (I), (L), (M), (N), (O), (J), and (K) after Aliakbari’s coding scheme wherein the labeling process was arbitrary.

Finally, the frequency and percentage for each category were calculated and the results were tabulated in Table 2. The frequency and percentage of cultural themes and subthemes depicted within our corpus were also calculated, the results of which appear below in Table 3.

4. Results

Table 2: Frequency and Percentage of cultural references to each category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Website 1</th>
<th>Website 2</th>
<th>Website 3</th>
<th>Website 4</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>6 (40%)</td>
<td>5 (33.3%)</td>
<td>3 (20%)</td>
<td>6 (40%)</td>
<td>20 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1 (6.8%)</td>
<td>1 (6.8%)</td>
<td>5 (33.3%)</td>
<td>4 (26.6%)</td>
<td>11 (18.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>7 (46.4%)</td>
<td>2 (13.1%)</td>
<td>2 (13.4%)</td>
<td>3 (20%)</td>
<td>14 (23.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>1 (6.8%)</td>
<td>1 (6.8%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>6 (40%)</td>
<td>5 (33.3%)</td>
<td>2 (13.4%)</td>
<td>13 (21.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Direction:
H, Reference to English speaking countries
I, Reference to non-English speaking Western countries
J, General texts
K, Texts whose identity has been dropped
L, Reference to eastern countries
M, Cross-national comparison
N, Reference to Iran
O, Reference to Islam and Islamic countries

As Table 2 makes it explicit, the four websites showed slight variation in the extent they adhered to each of the eight categories specified in Aliakbari’s model. Yet considering the total number of references to each category, H (reference to English speaking countries) came first with 33.3%, J (general texts) with 23.3% ranked second, followed by L (reference to Eastern countries) with 21.7%, followed by I (reference to non-English speaking Western countries) with 18.3%. This is while category K, with only 3.4%, did not receive much attention, and no cases of reference to categories M, N, and O were observed.

It is noteworthy that, amongst the Inner Circle countries highlighted in this study, merely America and England were referred to, and there was no mention of other English-speaking countries. As for the European countries, there were frequent references to Spanish-speaking countries; likewise, there were instances of reference to Germany and Italy. Finally, the eastern countries depicted within our corpus included Russia, Turkey, China, and Saudi Arabia.

The frequencies and percentages in Table 3 also revealed that among major cultural themes, ‘religion, arts, and humanities’ (40%) outnumbered other themes, followed by social category (21.3%), followed by environmental sphere with 18.3%. There was less emphasis on political (11.6%) and personal (8.4%) themes, however.

Within the ‘religion, arts, and humanities’ category, literature/music/arts (75%) dominated other subthemes. Whereas within the social sphere, the subtheme leisure was underscored with 53.9%, and, within the environmental themes, the greatest emphasis went to weather (45.4%).

### Table 3: Frequency and percentage of major cultural themes and subthemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Theme</th>
<th>Website 1</th>
<th>Website 2</th>
<th>Website 3</th>
<th>Website 4</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13 (21.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population/Nationality</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Class</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5 (8.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating/Shopping</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Relationships</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Discussion

This study aimed at probing into the cultural content and cultural themes of online EFL/ESL materials. Drawing upon the results of the content analysis, the research questioned posed earlier in the study will be answered below:

In reference to the first research question (i.e., whose culture is being represented on EFL/ESL websites and to what extent?), it must be pointed out that the websites under investigation showed a 33.3% inclination towards English-speaking countries, particularly the U.S. and the U.K., and a 18.3% interest in Western countries, especially Spanish-speaking countries. Of course, this is in line with Blinka et al.'s (2012) findings who maintain that “extant research on youth online content and culture is mostly based on U.S. and Western context” (p. 277). Despite the fact that there were a few instances of reference to Eastern countries, Islamic countries (except for one reference to Saudi Arabia) and Iran had no place on the analyzed websites. This fact has been reported by a number of studies carried out by Iranian authors focusing on ELT textbooks used in Iran.

As for the second research question (i.e., what cultural themes and topics are presented on EFL/ESL websites?), it must be noted that, among various cultural themes, ‘religion, arts, humanities’, social, and environmental spheres had the greatest number of references respectively; in contrast, political and personal spheres were undervalued in comparison with other categories. This is consistent with Ramirez and Hall’s (1990) findings that the political/institutional category showed the least amount of representation. It is worth mentioning that, within our corpus, ‘religion, arts, humanities’, social, and political spheres combined made up 73.3% of the total themes, which all indicate ‘large C culture’¹, where as the total percentage of environmental and personal spheres representing ‘small c culture’ reached 26.7%. Hence, it can be concluded that the ELT websites under scrutiny adhere to large C culture. These
findings contradict what Juan (2010) observed that materials referring to small c culture are abundant, whereas large C culture materials are insufficient.

With respect to the third research question (i.e., are these ELT websites congruent for instructing the target and international cultures and revering learners’ home culture?), it is worth mentioning that the treatment of culture on ELT websites seems to be inappropriate since, as McKay (2003, p. 1) puts it, this illusion that “the cultural content for ELT should be derived from the cultures of native English speakers” needs to be changed at the age of globalization, and as there were no references to Islamic traditions and Iran, conclusions can be drawn regarding the inadequacy of the cultural content of ELT materials in promoting the learners’ sense of national identity.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, there appears to be a great tendency both towards English-speaking countries, especially the U.S. and the U.K., and towards general texts among ELT website designers. This inclination towards English-speaking countries could, of course, be justified by the facts that online ESL/EFL materials are usually prepared within the Inner Circle countries, and educators often find them motivating to language learners (McKay, 2003). On the other hand, at times, ELT website designers avoid cultural points and try to remain as neutral as possible with respect to culture since ELT materials are often marketed worldwide, and they have to generalize in terms of cultural topics and content (Reimann, 2009).

Also, from the analysis of cultural themes and subthemes, it follows that cultural references are restricted to titles or chapter units (Reimann, 2009). This biased and superficial representation of culture on ELT websites must be avoided as it might result in generalization and stereotypes (Aliakbari, 2004).

Note

From anthropological point of view, culture is defined as "the way people live" (Chastain, 1988, p. 302). This definition is referred to as small c culture. Another definition of culture, often called large C culture, focuses on "the economic, social, political history and the great politicians, heroes, writers, and artists of the country" (Chastain, 1988, p. 303).

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WORD-FORMATION: A SYSTEMATIC WAY TO ENRICH WORD POWER OF MEDICAL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
Communication is an important thing in human's life. Every time and everywhere people do it to get their needs. They use language as the main tool in this process of communication. Every language is in constant need for new words. In fact, when it comes to medical language, it is no exceptions. This is mainly because of the development in the technological field. By learning new medical words, medical students can improve their comprehension, production and communication in foreign language. In the early days, it may seem difficult, confusing and an onerous task for them because of the length of medical words and complex process of forming new words, but once they learn the word-formation process, the process by which new words are created, the words become easier to read and understand. Following Bauer (1983) and Plag (2003) word-formation process, this study attempts to offer a detailed analysis and description of the affixes to emphasize the important role they play in the acquisition of medical terminology. For the purpose of this study, the roots, prefixes and suffixes have been divided into twelve, nine and ten sets, respectively to: facilitate medical terms learning, improve their medical vocabulary and deepen their understanding of medical terms.

KEY WORDS: Word-formation, Affixation, Medical terminology, Medical student.

Introduction
For effective and accurate communication, the health sciences have developed their own jargon, labeled “medical terminology”. In fact, medical terminology is a science-based vocabulary for describing the human body and its associated conditions, components, and processes. As most medical terms are based on terms of Greek and Latin languages, medical terminology is consistent and uniform throughout the world. Mainly, the terms related to diagnosis, surgery and procedures have Greek origins, whereas anatomical terms have Latin origins. As maintained by Cohen and DePetris (2014), "medical vocabulary is vast, and learning it may seem like learning the entire vocabulary of a foreign language. Moreover, like the jargon that arises in all changing fields, it is always expanding (p. 4)". Therefore, this study is going to acquaint medical students with the word parts and processes from which most medical terms are formed. When students have used these processes to learn the medical terms, they will have the tools to learn other medical terms in the same way; by understanding the word parts than just memorization of the whole. In the main, the language of medicine makes accurate use of its roots, prefixes and suffixes that keep the same meaning when
they appear. By learning these meanings, students can analyze and remember many words. With a little effort, students’ vocabulary will grow quickly, and they will be able to make sense of thousands of new words.

**Words and their parts**

Words are meaning-bearing units which make sentences, paragraphs, and ultimately texts. They consist of one or more parts which are called morphemes. In order to understand the structure of a word, we have to understand what a morpheme is. A morpheme is the smallest unit of language that has a meaning or a grammatical function. Words are formed from one or more morphemes. For example, the word "hyperlipemia" consist of three morphemes: "hyper-", "lip", and "-emia". We know that "system" can be used by itself, but "hyper -" or "-emia" cannot be used by themselves; they should be attached to those morphemes that can be used alone. Therefore, morphemes are divided into two categories: free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morphemes can have meaning in isolation and can stand by themselves. Bound morphemes, however, cannot stand by themselves. They have to be added to free morphemes to form new words.

**Word-formation processes in English**

The term word-formation, as the name suggest, is dealing with the formation of word. Word-formation as defined by Plag (2003) is "the study of the ways in which new complex words are built on the basis of other words or morphemes (p. 17)". Furthermore, Yule (1996) states:

"In linguistics, word-formation is the creation of a new word. Word-formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The line between word-formation and semantic change is sometimes a bit blurry; what one person views as a new use of an old word, another person might view as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form" (p. 53).

According to Yule (2006), word-formation processes are "the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language" (p. 64). On the word of him, word-formation processes include compounding, coinage, borrowing, blending, clipping, back-formation, conversion, acronyms, derivation, infixes, prefixes, suffixes, and multiple processes (ibid). Bauer (1983) & Quirk et al (1985) put word-formation process into two main groups. The first one includes affixation, compounding and conversion, but the second one includes clipping, blending, acronyms, etc. On the other hand, Plag (2003, p. 9) describes word-formation processes in a more complex classification. According to him, word-formation consist of two kinds of processes, they are derivation and compounding. Furthermore, he divides derivation into two subcategories; those are affixation, which is included: prefixation, suffixation, and infixation; and non-affixation, which is included: conversion, truncation, and blending.

The present study focuses on affixes, and their importance in learning medical terminology. In other words, the study tries to offer a detailed analysis and description...
of the affixes to emphasize the important role they play in the achievement of medical terminology.

**Affixation**

Words are formed in different ways. One of the methods of forming words is adding bound morphemes to the beginning or to the end of free morphemes. This kind of word derivation is called affixation. According to Yule (2006, p. 70) it is the most common word-formation process accomplished by means of a large number of small "bits" of the English called affixes.

An affix is a bound morpheme which is attached to the beginning or to the ends of a base, root or stem to make new derivations (Plag, 2003). A base, root or stem, is the free morpheme in a word which carries the principal meaning. According to their position in the base, root or stem, affixes can be classified into three types:

1. **Prefix:** it is an affix attached to the beginning of a root, stem, or base like in- which appears in words such as incapable, invalid.
2. **Infixed:** it is an affix inserted into the root itself. Infixeding is somewhat rare in English.
3. **Suffix:** it is an affix attached to the end of a root, stem, or base like -ly which appears in words such as happily, quickly.

In forming new English words, only prefix and suffix are used. In other words, in English word-formation, infixes do not occur. Shaffer (2000, p. 2) points out that the use of prefixes and suffixes has been and remains one of the main and most productive methods through which the stock of English words has grown and developed.

**Medical terminology word parts**

Most medical terms are made of word parts combinations. These word parts are used to define specific information about anatomy, physiology, diagnoses, conditions, status, and treatments. Understanding word parts and their meanings; simplifies learning medical terminology. As Jones (2011) states:

"It is impossible to memorize thousands of words over the course of one or two quarters or semesters. It is possible, however, to memorize the word parts and the rules that will enable you to build the thousands of words you will need to function effectively as a health care professional" (p. 2).

Word parts used to create medical terminology are: root, prefix, suffix, combining vowel, and combining form, defined below.

**Root**

Root is the main part or foundation of each medical word that establishes the basic meaning of the word. It can be combined with a prefix or suffix. All medical terms have one or more roots; usually Greek or Latin origins. According to Radu (2008), "in medical English, 98% of medical terms have Latin and Greek origins and have their own rules of word building with distinctive characteristics"(p.145). They appear anywhere within the term: at the beginning (e.g., urinalysis), in the middle
(e.g., *prognosis*) and at the end (*neoplasm*). In medical terminology, the root usually, but not always, indicates a body part or body system or colors.

The following tables include the most commonly used roots in medical terminology and an example for each. Roots are separated from their combining vowel with a slash (/). For the purpose of this study the roots have been divided into the following twelve sets.

1. Roots for cells and tissues.
2. Roots for body chemistry.
3. Roots for regions of the head and trunk
4. Roots for the extremities
5. Roots for disease
6. Roots for physical forces
7. Roots pertaining to drugs
8. Roots for heart
9. Roots for blood vessels
10. Roots for the lymphatic system
11. Roots for blood and immunity
12. Roots for chemistry

### Table 1.1 Roots for cells and tissues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reticul/o</td>
<td>Network</td>
<td>reticulum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aden/o</td>
<td>Gland</td>
<td>adenoma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papill/o</td>
<td>Nipple</td>
<td>papilliform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>myx/o</td>
<td>Mucus</td>
<td>myxadenitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muc/o</td>
<td>mucus, mucous, membrane</td>
<td>mucorrhea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somat/o</td>
<td>Body</td>
<td>somatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blast/o</td>
<td>immature cell, productive cell, embryonic cell</td>
<td>leukoblast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
<td>origin, formation</td>
<td>genetics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phag/o</td>
<td>eat, ingest</td>
<td>phagocyte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phil</td>
<td>attract, absorb</td>
<td>acidophilic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plas</td>
<td>formation, molding, development</td>
<td>hyperplasia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trop</td>
<td>act on, affect</td>
<td>chronotropic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troph/o</td>
<td>feeding, growth, nourishment</td>
<td>atrophy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1.2 Roots for body chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hydr/o</td>
<td>water, fluid</td>
<td>hydrophilic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gluc/o</td>
<td>Glucose</td>
<td>glucosuria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glyv/c/o</td>
<td>sugar, glucose</td>
<td>hyperglycemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sacchar/o</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>polysaccharide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amyl/o</td>
<td>Starch</td>
<td>amyloid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lip/o</td>
<td>lipid, fat</td>
<td>lipogenesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adip/o</td>
<td>Fat</td>
<td>adipocyte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steat/o</td>
<td>Fatty</td>
<td>steatorrhea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prote/o</td>
<td>Protein</td>
<td>protease</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.3 Roots for regions of the head and trunk

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cephal/o</td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>microcephaly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cervic/o</td>
<td>Neck</td>
<td>cervicofacial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thorac/o</td>
<td>chest, thorax</td>
<td>extrathoracic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abdomin/o, celi/o</td>
<td>Abdomen</td>
<td>intra-abdominal, celiac</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lapar/o</td>
<td>Abdominal wall</td>
<td>laparoscope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lumb/o</td>
<td>lumbar region, lower back</td>
<td>thoracolumbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>periton, peritone/o</td>
<td>Peritoneum</td>
<td>peritoneal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.4 Roots for the extremities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acro</td>
<td>extremity, end</td>
<td>acrodermatitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brachi/o</td>
<td>Arm</td>
<td>antebrachium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dactyl/o</td>
<td>finger, toe</td>
<td>polydactyly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ped/o, pod/o</td>
<td>Foot</td>
<td>dextropedal, podiatric</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.5 Roots for disease

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alg/o-</td>
<td>Pain</td>
<td>algesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carcin/o-</td>
<td>cancer, carcinoma</td>
<td>carcinogen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cyst/o-, cyst/i-</td>
<td>filled sac or pouch, cyst, bladder</td>
<td>cystic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lith-</td>
<td>calculus, stone</td>
<td>lithiasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>onc/o-</td>
<td>Tumor</td>
<td>oncogene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>path/o-</td>
<td>Disease</td>
<td>pathogen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>py/o-</td>
<td>Pus</td>
<td>pyocyst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pyr/o-, pyret/o-</td>
<td>fever, fire</td>
<td>pyretic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scler/o-</td>
<td>Hard</td>
<td>sclerosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tox/o-, toxic/o-</td>
<td>Poison</td>
<td>exotoxin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bacill/i-, bacill/o-</td>
<td>Bacillus</td>
<td>bacilluria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bacteri/o-</td>
<td>Bacterium</td>
<td>bactericide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>myc/o-</td>
<td>fungus, mold</td>
<td>mycosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vir/o-</td>
<td>Virus</td>
<td>viremia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1.6 Roots for physical forces

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aer/o</td>
<td>air, gas</td>
<td>aerobic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bar/o</td>
<td>Pressure</td>
<td>barotrauma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chrom/o, chromat/o</td>
<td>color, stain</td>
<td>achromatous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chron/o</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>synchronous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cry/o</td>
<td>Cold</td>
<td>cryoprobe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electro/o</td>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>electrolysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erg/o</td>
<td>Work</td>
<td>synergistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phon/o</td>
<td>sound, voice</td>
<td>phonograph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phot/o</td>
<td>Light</td>
<td>photography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radi/o</td>
<td>radiation, x-ray</td>
<td>radioactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son/o</td>
<td>Sound</td>
<td>ultrasonic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>therm/o</td>
<td>heat, temperature</td>
<td>hypothermia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1.7 Roots pertaining to drugs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alg/o, algi/o, algesi/o</td>
<td>Pain</td>
<td>algesic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chem/o</td>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>chemotherapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypn/o</td>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>hypnosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>narc/o</td>
<td>Stupor</td>
<td>narcotic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pharmac/o</td>
<td>Drug</td>
<td>pharmacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pyr/o, pyret/o</td>
<td>Fever</td>
<td>antipyretic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tox/o, toxic/o</td>
<td>poison, toxin</td>
<td>toxic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1.8 Roots for heart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cardi/o-</td>
<td>Heart</td>
<td>cardiomyopathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atrio/-</td>
<td>Atrium</td>
<td>atriotomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ventricul/o-</td>
<td>cavity, ventricle</td>
<td>supraventricular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valv/o-, valvul/o-</td>
<td>Valve</td>
<td>valvectomy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1.9 Roots for blood vessels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>angi/o-, vas/o-, vascul/o-</td>
<td>vessel, duct</td>
<td>angiopathy, vasodilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arter/o-, arteri/o-</td>
<td>Artery</td>
<td>endarterial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arteriol/o-</td>
<td>arteriole</td>
<td>arteriolar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aort/o-</td>
<td>Aorta</td>
<td>aortoptosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ven/o-, ven/-i, phleb/o-</td>
<td>Vein</td>
<td>venous, phlebectasia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1.10 Roots for the lymphatic system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lymph/o</td>
<td>lymph, lymphatic system</td>
<td>lymphoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lymphaden/o</td>
<td>lymph node</td>
<td>lymphadenectomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lymphangi/o</td>
<td>lymphatic vessel</td>
<td>lymphangioma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>splen/o</td>
<td>Spleen</td>
<td>splenomegaly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thym/o</td>
<td>thymus gland</td>
<td>athymia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tonsill/o</td>
<td>Tonsil</td>
<td>tonsillar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.11 Roots for blood and immunity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>myel/o</td>
<td>bone marrow</td>
<td>myelogenous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hem/o, hemat/o</td>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>hemorrhage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erythr/o, erythrocyt/o</td>
<td>red blood cell</td>
<td>erythrocytosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leuk/o, leukocyt/o</td>
<td>white blood cell</td>
<td>leukopoiesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lymph/o, lymphocyt/o</td>
<td>Lymphocyte</td>
<td>lymphoblast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thromb/o</td>
<td>blood clot</td>
<td>thrombolytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thrombocyt/o</td>
<td>platelet, platelet</td>
<td>thrombocytopenia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immun/o</td>
<td>Thrombocyte</td>
<td>immunization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.12 Roots for chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>azot/o</td>
<td>nitrogen compounds</td>
<td>azoturia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calc/i</td>
<td>calcium</td>
<td>calcareous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ferr/o, ferr/I, sider/o</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>ferric, sideroblast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kali</td>
<td>potassium</td>
<td>hypokalemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>natri</td>
<td>sodium</td>
<td>natriuresis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ox/y</td>
<td>oxygen</td>
<td>hypoxemia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 1.1 to 1.12 show twelve common sets of roots. They have been put in sets for convenience in study and to help students make associations. Examples are listed to help them learn the roots.

Prefix
Prefix is a word part added before a root to change its meaning and usually, but not always, indicates number, location, time, or status. The following tables include the most commonly used prefixes in medical terminology and an example for each. For the purpose of this study the prefixes have been divided into the following nine sets.

1. Prefixes for numbers
2. Prefixes for colors
3. Negative prefixes
4. Prefixes for degree
5. Prefixes for size and comparison
6. Prefixes for time and position
7. Prefixes for position and direction
8. Prefixes for disease
9. Prefixes pertaining to drugs

Table 2.1 Prefixes for numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>primi-</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>primitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mono-, uni-</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>monocular, unicellular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hemi-, semi-</td>
<td>half, one side</td>
<td>hemisphere, semisolid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bi-, di-</td>
<td>two, twice</td>
<td>Bicuspid, dimorphous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diplo-</td>
<td>Double</td>
<td>Diploid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tri-</td>
<td>Three</td>
<td>Triplet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quadri-, tetra-</td>
<td>Four</td>
<td>quadrant, tetrahedron</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multi-, poly-</td>
<td>many, much</td>
<td>multiple, polysaccharide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2 Prefixes for colors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cyano-</td>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>cyanosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erythro-</td>
<td>Red</td>
<td>erythrocyte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leuko-</td>
<td>White, colorless</td>
<td>leukoplakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>melano-</td>
<td>black, dark</td>
<td>melanin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xantho-</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>xanthoderma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3 Negative prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a-, an-</td>
<td>not, without</td>
<td>aseptic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anti-, contra-</td>
<td>against, opposite</td>
<td>antidote, contraception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-</td>
<td>down, without</td>
<td>depilatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>absence, separation</td>
<td>dissect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-, im-, non-, un-</td>
<td>Not</td>
<td>Insignificant, noninfectious, unconscious</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.4 Prefixes for degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hyper-</td>
<td>over, excess, abnormally high,</td>
<td>hyperventilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypo-</td>
<td>under; below</td>
<td>hypoxia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oligo-</td>
<td>few, scanty</td>
<td>oligomenorrhea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pan-</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>panacea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super-, supra</td>
<td>above, excess</td>
<td>supernumerary, suprarenal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ultra-</td>
<td>beyond or excessive</td>
<td>ultrasonic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2.5 Prefixes for size and comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>equi-, iso-</td>
<td>equal, same</td>
<td>equilateral, isograft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eu-</td>
<td>good, normal</td>
<td>euthanasia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hetero-</td>
<td>other, different, unequal</td>
<td>heterosexual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homo-, homeo-</td>
<td>same, unchanging</td>
<td>homothermic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>macro-, mega-, megalo-</td>
<td>large, abnormally large</td>
<td>macrocyte, megacolon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>micro,</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>microscopic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neo-</td>
<td>New</td>
<td>neonate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>normo-</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>normovolemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ortho-</td>
<td>straight, correct, upright</td>
<td>orthotic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poikilo-</td>
<td>varied; irregular</td>
<td>poikiloderma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pseudo-</td>
<td>False</td>
<td>pseudoplegia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2.6 Prefixes for time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>brady-</td>
<td>slow</td>
<td>Bradycardia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tachy-</td>
<td>fast</td>
<td>Tachycardia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante-, pre-, pro-</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>antenatal, predisposing, prognosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-</td>
<td>after, behind</td>
<td>postmenopausal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>again; back</td>
<td>regurgitation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2.7 Prefixes for position and direction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ab-</td>
<td>away from</td>
<td>Abduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ad-</td>
<td>toward; near</td>
<td>Adhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dia-, per-, trans-</td>
<td>through</td>
<td>dialysis, percutaneous, transfusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dextro-</td>
<td>right</td>
<td>dextrocardia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sinistero-</td>
<td>left</td>
<td>Sinistral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>es-, ec-, ex</td>
<td>out or away</td>
<td>edentia, eccentric, excise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extra-, ecto-, exo-</td>
<td>outside</td>
<td>extracellular, ectoderm, exocrine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en-, endo-, intra-</td>
<td>In, within</td>
<td>encapsulate, endoscope, intrauterine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meso-</td>
<td>middle</td>
<td>mesencephalon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syn-, sym-</td>
<td>together</td>
<td>Synapse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tele-, telo-</td>
<td>end</td>
<td>Telangion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum-, peri-</td>
<td>around</td>
<td>circumoral, perivascular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>epi-</td>
<td>on, over</td>
<td>Epithelium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infra-, sub-</td>
<td>below, under</td>
<td>infrapatellar, sublingual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inter-</td>
<td>between</td>
<td>Intercostals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>juxta-, para-</td>
<td>near, beside</td>
<td>juxtaposition, parasagittal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retro-</td>
<td>backward</td>
<td>retroperitoneal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 2.1 to 2.9 show nine sets of prefixes. They have been put in sets for convenience in study and to help students make associations. Examples are listed to help them learn the prefixes.

**Suffix**

Suffix is a word part added at the end of a root. It gives essential meaning to the root or merely changes its grammatical function, i.e., create a noun or an adjective. A suffix usually, but not always, indicates procedure, condition, disease, or disorder. The following tables include the most commonly used suffixes in medical terminology and an example for each. For the purpose of this study, suffixes have been divided into the following ten sets.

1. Suffixes that mean "condition of"
2. Suffixes that mean "pertaining to" or "resembling"
3. Suffixes pertaining to drugs
4. Suffixes for medical specialties
5. Suffixes for body chemistry
6. Suffixes for disease
7. Suffixes for diagnosis
8. Suffixes for surgery
9. Suffixes for blood
10. Word for disease used as suffixes

### Table 2.8 Prefixes for disease

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dys-</td>
<td>abnormal, painful, difficult</td>
<td>dysplasia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mal-</td>
<td>bad, poor</td>
<td>maladaptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pachy-</td>
<td>Thick</td>
<td>pachyemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xero-</td>
<td>Dry</td>
<td>xerosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>staphylo-</td>
<td>grapelike cluster</td>
<td>staphylococcus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strepto-</td>
<td>twisted chain</td>
<td>streptobacillus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2.9 Prefixes pertaining to drugs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anti-</td>
<td>Against</td>
<td>antidote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contra-</td>
<td>Against</td>
<td>contraceptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter-</td>
<td>opposite, against</td>
<td>countercurrent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.1 Suffixes that mean "condition of"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ia,-ism,-sis,-y</td>
<td>condition of</td>
<td>phobia, alcoholism, acidosis, tetany</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3.2 Suffixes that mean "pertaining to" or "resembling"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ac, -al, -ar, -ary, -ic, -ical(ic + al), -ory, -ous, -ile</td>
<td>pertaining to</td>
<td>cardiac, skeletal, muscular, dietary, metric, anatomical, respiratory, venous, febrile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-form, -oid</td>
<td>like or resembling</td>
<td>muciform, toxoid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.3 Suffixes pertaining to drugs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-lytic</td>
<td>dissolving, reducing, loosening</td>
<td>anxiolytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-mimetic</td>
<td>mimicking, simulating</td>
<td>sympathomimetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tropic</td>
<td>acting on</td>
<td>inotropic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.4 Suffixes for medical specialties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ian, -ist</td>
<td>specialist in a field of study</td>
<td>physician, cardiologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-iatrics, -iatry, -ics</td>
<td>medical specialty</td>
<td>geriatrics, podiatry, orthopedics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-logy</td>
<td>study of</td>
<td>physiology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.5 Suffixes for body chemistry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ase</td>
<td>Enzyme</td>
<td>Lipase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ose</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
<td>lactose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.6 Suffixes for disease

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-algia, -algiesia</td>
<td>Pain</td>
<td>cephalgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-cele</td>
<td>hernia, localized, dilation</td>
<td>hydrocele</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-clasis, -clasia</td>
<td>Breaking</td>
<td>osteoclasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-itis</td>
<td>Inflammation</td>
<td>meningitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-megaly</td>
<td>Enlargement</td>
<td>hepatomegaly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-odynia</td>
<td>Pain</td>
<td>urodynia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-oma</td>
<td>Tumor</td>
<td>blastoma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-pathy</td>
<td>any disease of</td>
<td>cardiopathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-rhage, -rhapsia</td>
<td>bursting forth, profuse, flow, hemorrhage</td>
<td>hemorrhage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-rhea</td>
<td>flow, discharge</td>
<td>mucorrhea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-rhexis</td>
<td>Rupture</td>
<td>amniorrhexis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-schisis</td>
<td>fissure, splitting</td>
<td>retinoschisis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3.7 Suffixes for diagnosis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-graph</td>
<td>instrument for recording data</td>
<td>polygraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-graphy</td>
<td>act of recording data</td>
<td>radiography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-gram</td>
<td>a record of data</td>
<td>sonogram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-meter</td>
<td>instrument for measuring</td>
<td>audiometer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metry</td>
<td>measurement of</td>
<td>ergometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-scope</td>
<td>instrument for viewing or examining</td>
<td>endoscopy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-scopy</td>
<td>examination of</td>
<td>laparoscopy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.8 Suffixes for surgery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-centesis</td>
<td>puncture, tap</td>
<td>thoracentesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-desis</td>
<td>binding, fusion</td>
<td>pleurodesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ectomy</td>
<td>excision, surgical removal</td>
<td>hysterectomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-exy</td>
<td>surgical fixation</td>
<td>cystopexy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-plasty</td>
<td>plastic repair, plastic surgery, reconstruction</td>
<td>rhinoplasty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-rhaphy</td>
<td>surgical repair, suture</td>
<td>herniorrphaphy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stomy</td>
<td>surgical creation of an opening</td>
<td>colostomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tome</td>
<td>instrument for incising (cutting)</td>
<td>microtome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tomy</td>
<td>incision, cutting</td>
<td>tracheotomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tripsy</td>
<td>Crushing</td>
<td>lithotripsy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.9 Suffixes for blood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-emia, -hemia</td>
<td>condition of blood</td>
<td>pachyemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-penia</td>
<td>decrease in, deficiency of</td>
<td>leukopenia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-poiesis</td>
<td>formation, production</td>
<td>hemopoiesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.10 Word for disease used as suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dilation, dilatation</td>
<td>expansion, widening</td>
<td>vasodilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ectasia, ectasis</td>
<td>Dilation</td>
<td>bronchiectasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edema</td>
<td>accumulation of fluid, swelling</td>
<td>lymphedema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lysis*</td>
<td>separation, loosening, dissolving, destruction</td>
<td>dialysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malacia</td>
<td>Softening</td>
<td>splenomalacia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necrosis</td>
<td>death of</td>
<td>osteonecrosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ptosis</td>
<td>dropping, downward, displacement, prolapse</td>
<td>blepharoptosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spasm</td>
<td>sudden contraction, cramp</td>
<td>bronchospasm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stasis*</td>
<td>suppression, stoppage</td>
<td>menostasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stenosis</td>
<td>narrowing, constriction</td>
<td>arteriostenosis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tables 3.1 to 3.10 show ten sets of suffixes. They have been put in sets for convenience in study and to help students make associations. Examples are listed to help them learn the suffixes.

**Combining vowel**

Combining vowel is a single vowel, usually an “o” and occasionally "a, e, u or i", that connect roots to suffixes and roots to other roots. It is used to make the term easier to pronounce but do not influence the meaning of a root word.

**Combining form**

Combining form is the combination of the root and combining vowel. It has no meaning of its own; root with a combining vowel attached (e.g. lip/o-); joins a root to another root or to a suffix. For example, in the word "radiology", the combining form is "radi/o".

**How to identify medical terms**

To identify medical terms take the following steps:
1. Identify the suffix.
2. Identify the root.
3. Identify the prefix.

Remember that most terms have only two parts so do not think you will find all three all the time. A few terms only have one part. For example, in "pericardial",

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{Suffix (1)} \quad \text{root (2)} \quad \text{prefix (3)} \\
&-al \quad \text{cardi} \quad \text{peri-} \\
\end{align*}
\]

According to steps mentioned above, "-al", "cardi" and "peri-" are suffix, root and prefix, respectively.

**How to define medical terms**

To define medical terms take the following steps:
1. First start with the suffix. Find out what it means.
2. Next, go to the beginning of the word. It will be either a prefix or a root. Find out what it means.
3. Then, if there is another part, it will be a root.
4. Last, once you have all the meaning put them together. For example, in "polyadenoma",

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{Word parts:} \quad \text{prefix} \quad \text{root} \quad \text{suffix} \\
&\text{poly-} \quad \text{aden/o} \quad -oma \\
&\text{Meaning:} \quad \text{many} \quad \text{gland} \quad \text{tumor} \\
&\text{suffix meaning (1) + prefix meaning (2) + root meaning (3) = term's meaning (4)} \\
&tumor \quad + \quad \text{many} \quad + \quad \text{gland} \quad = \text{tumor of many glands}
\end{align*}
\]
According to steps mentioned above, the meaning of “polyadenoma” will be “tumor of many glands”. In fact, you can figure out the meaning of a term by putting together the meaning of each word part.

**Conclusion**

Medical terminology is the basic part in the learning of medical English. In fact, terminology-centered learning proves to be an efficient way to bring the students into medical English world (Radu, 2008, p. 145). According to this study, we may draw the following conclusion:

1. One of the essential skills that medical students need to master is to identify and define the commonly used roots, combining forms, suffixes, and prefixes introduced in this study.
2. Learning medical terminology will be much easier once students understand how word parts work together to form medical terms.
3. Using the knowledge of word parts to analyze unfamiliar medical terms made the process of learning medical term easier.
4. In spite of the significance of affixes (word parts) to medical students, processes of word-formation are often neglected in English for Medical Students (EMS) in classrooms and teaching materials.

To put it briefly, as students expand their knowledge of medical terminology, they will be able to: understand medical record documentation, communicate more effectively with other health care team members, and perform work responsibilities.

**REFERENCES**


EXPLICITATION IN SUBTITLING AND DUBBING: A CASE STUDY OF TWO HARRY POTTER’S MOVIES

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ABSTRACT
The present work aimed at investigating explicitation strategies pointed out by Klaudy (2008) with special reference to movie subtitling on the one hand, and movie dubbing on the other. In this regard, a Harry potter’s movie, namely “Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets” was selected to be studied. First, the movie was watched carefully in search for the explicitation strategies applied by the translators. These included 1) obligatory, 2) optional, 3) pragmatic, and 4) translation inherent explicitations. Then, each and every strategy was placed in its corresponding category based on the model introduced. In search for any statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the strategies applied in both versions of the movie, the Chi-square procedure was carried out. The results of the study indicated that there were statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the strategies applied, comparing the subtitled vs. the dubbed versions. The researcher argued that these differences might be due to the limitations the act of movie dubbing contains, as opposed to movie subtitling.

KEY WORDS: Dubbing, Subtitling, Explicitation strategies, Harry Potter, Klaudy’s Model.

1. Introduction
Doubing is the post-production process of recording and replacing voices on a motion picture or television sound track subsequent to the original shooting. The term most commonly refers to the substitution of the voices of the actors shown on the screen by those of different performers, who may be speaking a different language. The procedure was sometimes practiced in musicals when the actor had an unsatisfactory singing voice, and remains in use to enable the screening of audio-
visual material to a mass audience in countries where viewers do not speak the same language as the original performers. Dubbing also describes the process of an actor re-recording lines spoken during filming in order to improve audio quality or reflect dialog changes.

On the other hand, subtitling is a way of presenting the audience with the written translated text of the material being spoken and happening in a film or a movie. While dubbing is the act of interpreting, subtitling is in fact translating. Concerning subtitling, there must be a lot of additional issues taken into account. The script background, font family, font size, font color, etc., are just some of these examples (Karamatiroglu, 2000).

With the growing pace of technology, the number of movies made, dubbed and/or subtitled rises each and every day. The translators of the scripts tend to use several translation strategies. These strategies, as Yule (1996) believes, are related to the natures and closeness of the languages families. In terms of the strategies picked up by translators, it would be important to mention that all have met specific ends. Explicitation and implicitation (Vinay and Darbelnet 1995, Blum-Kulka 2001, Baker 1993, Klaudy 2008, etc.), domestication and foreignization (Venuti, 2004), etc., are all among the various translation strategies used while translating a text from a source to a target language.

Concerning these translation strategies, the present study attempted to clarify and describe dubbers’ and subtitlers’ tendency in using explicitation strategies during translation process, using Klaudy’s (2008) model, in a Harry Potter movie with its corresponding dubbed and subtitled versions. The extent to which the instance of translation strategies might be considered as manifestations of explicitation in dubbing and subtitling versions of the movie was the main concern of this work. In other words, the frequencies of the so-called strategies and the significance of the differences in question was the leading purpose of the present study, which aimed at providing an answer to the following research question:

- Considering translations of *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets* movie from English into Persian, which one is more explicit: the dubbed version or the subtitled one?

In technical terms, film translation is called language transfer. In other words, audiovisual language transfer denotes the process by which a film or a television program is made comprehensible to a target audience who is unfamiliar with the original Source Language (SL). There exist several forms of audiovisual language transfer. The main forms of language transfer are ‘subtitling’ and ‘dubbing’. “Subtitling is defined as supplementing the original voice sound track by adding written text on screen, and dubbing is replacing the original voice sound track with another voice in another language” (O’Connell, 2007, p. 169). In fact, “The role of subtitles is to facilitate access to audiovisual products in a foreign language” (Kapsaskis, 2008, p. 42).

Many scholars have provided definitions for subtitles. Subtitling is defined as the rendering of the verbal message in filmic media in a different language, in the shape of one or more lines of written text, which are presented on the screen in synch
with the original verbal message (Gottlieb, 2004). In addition, subtitling is defined in Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997, p. 161) as “the process of providing synchronized captions for film and television dialogue.”

Traditionally, there existed two types of subtitles: ‘inter-lingual’ subtitles, which imply transfer from an SL to a Target Language (TL), and ‘intra-lingual’ subtitles, for which there is no change of language (Díaz Cintas, 2003). Karamitraoglou (2000) defines subtitling as translation of the spoken/written source text of an audio-visual product into a written TT which is added on to the images of the original product at the bottom of the screen. Gottlieb (1994) also presents two general categories for subtitling. He uses the model of translation initiated by Jackobson (1959/2004) and categorizes subtitling as ‘inter-lingual’ and ‘intra-lingual’. While in intra-lingual subtitling, the target language is the same as the source language, it is viewed different from the source language in inter-lingual (diagonal) subtitling. Gottlieb (1994) further argues that subtitle translators should be wary of not only dialogue, background voices, and sometimes even lyrics, but also of the superimposed titles and written signs on the screen. He asserts that since the translator is working on a poly-semiotic text much of the authenticity of the original dialogue is lost due to the requirements to construct the poly-semiotic whole.

In “An analysis Persian into English subtitling strategies employed in Iranian feature films”, Marashi and Poursoltani (2009) tried to investigate common subtitling strategies from Persian into English employed in Iranian feature films and determine which strategy was the most frequent and which one was the least. In line with the goal of the study, the researchers selected twelve Iranian films of different genres made by different directors in the years between 1992 and 2003. The films were made by three authorized companies including ‘visual media’, ‘Javaneh Pooya’, and ‘Jahaneh Tassvir’. The films were Minoo’s Tower directed in 1996 by Ebrahim Hatamikia, The Pear Tree directed in 1997 by Daryoosh Mehrjuyi, Laylee is with Me directed in 1995 by Kamal Tabrizi, The Party directed in 1996 by Saman Moghadam, The Actor directed in 1992 by Mohssen Makhmalbaf, Layla directed in 1996 by Daryoosh Mehrjuyi, The Red Ribbon directed in 1377 by Ebrahim Hatamikia, The Color of God directed in 1998 by Majid Majidi, The Red directed in 1997 by Fereydoon Jayrani, Pari directed in 1997 by Daryoosh Mehrjuyi, Under The Moon Light directed in 2000 by Seyyed Reza Mirkarimi, and The Lizard directed in 2003 by Kamal Tabrizi. The logic behind researcher’s selection was to have a richer variety of topic and context which would in turn provide a larger variety of translation and subtitling strategies. Each subtitle was edited by two professional editors. For each film they reported year of production, director, running time, subtitling company, number of frames, and word count. They transcribed the dialogues of selected frames of each film as well as the pertinent subtitle. For each frame, the Persian utterance of the frame and also the English subtitle were transcribed for the sake of easier comparison. They adopted Gottlieb’s (1994) classification of inter-lingual subtitling strategies for the comparison. They used frame as the unit of analysis. Gottlieb’s (ibid.) classification consisted of expansion, paraphrase, transfer, imitation, transcription, dislocation, condensation, decimation, deletion and resignation. They reported the frequency and percentage of each translation strategy for each film. The result of the study showed that all
Gottlieb’s (ibid.) criteria in inter-lingual subtitling were applicable to Persian into English subtitling of Iranian feature films. The most frequent strategy used in subtitling was transfer and the least frequent one was deletion. They concluded that concise subtitles are more desirable than subtitles containing word-by-word translation of what one may hear in the film.

The present study attempted to clarify and describe dubbers’ and subtitlers’ tendency in using explicitation strategies during translation process, using Klaudy’s (2008) model on a Harry Potter movie with its corresponding dubbed and subtitled versions. As Klaudy (ibid., p.80) believes “Explicitation is the technique of making explicit in the target text information that is implicit in the source text.” According to Klaudy and Karoly (2003, p.11), Explicitation takes place, for example, when a source language (SL) unit of a more general meaning is replaced by a target language (TL) unit of a more special meaning; the complex meaning of an SL word is distributed over several words in TL; the new meaningful elements appear in TL text; one sentence in the SL is divided into two or several sentences in the TT; or, when SL phrases are extended or developed into clauses in the TL, etc.

Klaudy (2008) assumes four different kinds of explicitation in translation, explained as followings (instances of the four types of explicitation strategies detected in the dubbed and subtitled versions of the movie are available in Appendices A and B):

1) **Obligatory explicitations (S1)** are caused by grammatical differences between source and target languages. They occur when the translator is forced by these differences to spell things out explicitly that are only implicit in the source text.

2) **Optional explicitations (S2)** are the result of “differences in text-building strategies [...] and stylistic preferences between languages. Such explicitations are optional in the sense that grammatically correct sentences can be constructed without their application in the target language, although the text as a whole will be clumsy…” (Klaudy, 2008, p. 106).

3) **Pragmatic explicitations (S3)** are due to differences in cultural and/or world knowledge that members of source and target language communities share. They typically occur when a translator needs to add linguistic material to explain a concept specific to the source culture.

4) **Translation-inherent explicitation (S4)** “can be attributed to the nature of the translation process itself” (Klaudy, 2008, p. 107).

2. Method

2.1. Materials of the Study

In this study, “Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets” was chosen to be investigated. In addition, the two corresponding Persian dubbed and subtitled translated versions were compared to the original movie. *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets* is a 2002 fantasy film directed by Chris Columbus and distributed by Warner Bros. Pictures. It is based on the novel with the same name by Rowling (2002). The film, which is the second instalment in the Harry Potter film series, follows Harry
Potter's second year at Hogwarts as the Heir of Salazar Slytherin opens the Chamber of Secrets, unleashing a deadly monster that petrifies the school's pupils. The movie was chosen because both the dubbed and subtitled versions in Persian were available on the market. Besides, to the best knowing of the researcher, little is done on dubbing and subtitling translations of Harry Potter movies. In addition, these movies have so many specific expressions and neologisms to be studied.

2.2. Data Collection Procedure

After watching each version of the movie, the ST was compared with the Persian dubbed and subtitled versions. In order to analyse the data, Klaudy's (2008) classification of explicitation was employed. As mentioned before, this classification introduces four strategies (optional, obligatory, pragmatic, and translation-inherent). Having found the cases of explicitation in each TT version, the frequencies of explicitation items in the dubbed version were compared to those of the subtitled one in order to find out which version was more explicitly rendered. Searching for the significance of the differences among the frequencies of these strategies was another purpose of the study, which was done through Chi-square procedure.

2.3. Inter-rater Reliability

In order to obtain better results out of the collected data, inter-rater reliability was used during the process of data analysis. In other words, the data were double-checked with another researcher holding an M.A in Translation Studies. In case the researchers would not come to a conclusion, a third rater was asked to interact.

3. Results and Findings

As the beginning part of the research, the dubbed and subtitled versions of the movie were carefully watched. Then, each of the explicitations occurred within the process of translation were highlighted and further placed in four different explicitation strategies pointed out by Klaudy (2008). Instances of the strategies detected relating to the dubbed and the subtitled versions are presented in Appendices A and B respectively. In order to provide the readers with a general overview of the strategies counted out, the data are presented from a descriptive perspective as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. A General Overview on the Frequencies of the Explicitation Strategies Pointed Out by Klaudy (2008): Insights From Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Type</th>
<th>Frequency in Dubbed Version</th>
<th>Frequency in Subtitled Version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>146</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the results of the first stage of the study revealed, the total number of strategies used within the subtitled version of the movie was basically more than that in the dubbed version. This is illustrated in a descriptive procedure in Figure 1.

![Graph showing comparison between dubbed and subtitled versions](image)

**Figure 1. A Descriptive Overview on the Collected Data**

In line with the obtained results, it could be claimed that the subtitled version of the movie under investigation enjoyed a higher level of explicitation, as compared with the dubbed ones. In other words, the subtitled version of the movie was more explicit in nature. In search for any statistically significant differences among the frequencies of the movie translations, the Chi-square technique was applied. To begin with, Table 2. presents the readers with some basic information.

**Table 2. Basic Statistical Information on the Frequencies of Explicitation Strategies Pointed Out by Klaudy (2008): Insights From Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Observed N</th>
<th>Expected N</th>
<th>Residual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>-51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>189</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Accordingly, Table 3. presents the Chi-square test results for the movie under investigation.
Table 3. Chi-Square Test Results for the Differences Among the Frequencies of Explicitation Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>56.132&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the results of the Chi-Square test revealed, concerning *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*, the differences among the frequencies of explicitation strategies introduced by Klaudy (2008) were statistically significant. That is to say that there existed statistically significant differences among the frequencies of strategies in the dubbed and subtitled versions of the movie. In other words, translation for dubbing enjoys different strategies as compared with translation for subtitling. In addition, as shown in Table 1., the first strategy (i.e., obligatory explicitation) was the most frequent strategy used.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

As mentioned under the results and findings section, the subtitled versions of both movies under investigation had higher frequencies as compared with the dubbed ones. This could be due to a series of reasons discussed in this section. One of the main reasons for such a phenomenon might be related to the voiceovers while dealing with the act of dubbing the movies. It is important to voiceover a segment (i.e., a word, phrase, sentence, etc.), synched to the original ST. In other words, a voiceover should dub the translated version of a segment in a parallel position compared to the ST. Thus, it would not be possible for a voiceover segment to interfere the following segment. As a possible result, the explicitation would play a significant role while dealing with the act of dubbing a movie. This is due to the additions these strategies usually make to the length of a segment they adhere to.

Another possible reason for the higher rate of use of the explicitation strategies in the subtitled version could go back to the pace of the subtitles provided. To put it in other words, the pace (i.e., the tempo) of a subtitled segment can be set out by the watchers of a movie. Thus, it would not be important to use as many explicitation strategies as desired. This is totally in contrast with the act of dubbing a movie, where the voiceovers are expected not to interfere with the other following segments.

All in all, it could be stated that the subtitled version of movies investigated showed higher frequencies of explicitation strategies, as compared with the dubbed versions. As mentioned before, this could be related to the limitations dubbing holds while dealing with the translated versions of the movies. That is to support the results of De Linde and Kay’s (1999) work on dubbing and subtitling. According to their paper, subtitling is often assumed to be a solely linguistic operation which involves the translation of dialogue into written captions. However, from a viewer’s perspective subtitled productions include more than just linguistic information. In addition to subtitles, viewers have to process film images in order to establish a coherent...
narrative. Both types of information must be received through the same visual channel. In addition De Linde and Kay (ibid.) examined a number of significant linguistic and non-linguistic features of subtitles and film which potentially affected the way viewers watch subtitled productions. Non-linguistic features were then examined in the context of recent studies on eye-movement behavior, including a comparative study involving deaf and hearing viewers conducted by the authors.

Subtitling is often assumed to be a solely linguistic operation which involves the translation of dialogues into written captions (De Linde & Kay, 1999). However, from a viewer’s perspective, subtitled productions include more than just linguistic information. In addition to subtitles, viewers have to process film images in order to establish a coherent narrative. Thus, both types of information must be received through the same visual channel. On the other hand, Dubbing is assumed to be something more simplified, as many considerable elements are conveyed through the voiceovers’ tone of voices.

As the results of the present work revealed, obligatory explicitation was at the highest frequency of use compared with the other three types of strategies. This might partly be due to the nature of languages (Brown, 1980). In klawdy’s definition (2008, p. 106), these strategies are “caused by grammatical differences between source and target languages. They occur when a translator is forced by these differences to spell things out explicitly, while they are only implicit in the source text.” Thus, it might be concluded that this type of strategy was the most frequent one due to the grammatical differences among English and Persian.

All in all, it could be concluded that the subtitled versions of the movies investigated showed higher frequencies of explicitation strategies, as compared with the dubbed versions. A series of reasons were listed before. Thus, it could be generalized that the dubbed versions of movies tend to show lower frequencies of explicitation strategies and are mostly implicit ones which might be, in turn, due to the limitations faced while being dubbed.

REFERENCES


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Appendix A  Instances of the Explicitation Strategies Detected in *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets* (Dubbed Version)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Text</th>
<th>Translated Text</th>
<th>Strategy Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 He’s in there</td>
<td>عموم اینجاست</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Freaky</td>
<td>عجیب و غریب</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Not now</td>
<td>حالا نه کدو تنبل</td>
<td>S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 the Masons</td>
<td>خانواده میسون</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Which should be any minute</td>
<td>می‌خواهد ممکنه مر برسن</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 I’ll be waiting to open the door</td>
<td>منتظرم تا در رو باز کنم اونا باز کلن</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Too right</td>
<td>اینو درست گفتی</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 such an honor it is</td>
<td>چه افتخاری برای من</td>
<td>S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 to have a house-elf in my bedroom</td>
<td>پذیرایی از یک جن خانگی در اتاقم</td>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Dobby serves</td>
<td>دابی به اونا خدمت میکنه</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line</td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I understand. You can't say</td>
<td>نمیتونی اعماش یکی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>my friends haven't been writing to me</td>
<td>دوستانی که به هری پاتر نامه نمی نویسن</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Beds empty</td>
<td>تختخواب ها خالی بودن</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>it was on the cat</td>
<td>تو جای گربه بود</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>that'll be Errol</td>
<td>باید جغدنامه رون باشه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I definitely need to remember that one</td>
<td>لازمه این ورد رو بخاطر بسپارم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>What did you do to your glasses?</td>
<td>چه پلاستی سر عینکت اومد؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>what an extraordinary moment this is</td>
<td>یکی از لحظه های شگفت انگیز زندگی منه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Your scar is legend</td>
<td>جای زخمون افسانه اییه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>We've missed it</td>
<td>از قطار جا موندیم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>it did more damage to us</td>
<td>اون درخت بید بیشتر به ما خسارت وارد کرده</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>in Slytherin</td>
<td>در کروه اسیترین</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>these boys have flouted the Decree for the Restriction of Underage Wizardry</td>
<td>این پسرها قوانین نظام مدرسه انطباطی مدرسه هاگوارتز را نقض کردن</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Headmaster</td>
<td>اقای مدیر</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I will be writing to your families tonight</td>
<td>من امشب براي خانواده هردوتون نامه میفرست</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Your father and I are so proud.</td>
<td>من و بابات به تو افتخار می کنی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>At least no one on the Gryffindor team had to buy their way in</td>
<td>بازیکنان گریفندور براز ورود به تیم ندادن</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>hearing voices isn't a good sign</td>
<td>شنیدن صداهایی که کسی نمیتونه بشنو</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>until that time when his own true Heir returned to the school</td>
<td>و تا زمان به چراغ نواده واعیش به مدرسه این در باز نمیشه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Dobby had to iron his hands</td>
<td>دابی برای این کار دستهای خودتو اتو کرد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Dobby gets them five times a day at home.</td>
<td>توي خونه روزی پنج بارتهبدی میشه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>When did this happen before</td>
<td>این اتفاق قبلا گی پیش اومد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>you're his great-great-great grandson</td>
<td>تو نوه ی نوه ی نوه ی اسیترینی</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>I suppose Dumbledore is trying to hush it all up</td>
<td>حتماً دامبلدور نگذاشته خبرش درز پیدا کنه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>any who meet this giant serpent's eye</td>
<td>اما باسیلیسک چه طویری توي قلعه پرشه میشه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>How's a basilisk been getting around</td>
<td>چه طویری توي قلعه پرشه میشه</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B Instances of the Explicitation Strategies Detected in Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets (Subtitled Version)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Text</th>
<th>Translated Text</th>
<th>Strategy Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Out</td>
<td>بیای بیرون</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Out</td>
<td>بیرون</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  So you can send secret messages</td>
<td>یا بیاین از این راه نهایی ها محرمانه برای</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  To your freaky little friends?</td>
<td>عجب و غریب</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  No, sir.</td>
<td>نه نمیشه آقا</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  All summer</td>
<td>تمام طول تابستان</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  of our hearts</td>
<td>صادقانه هرچی از دستمون برادر انعام دادیم</td>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  the Masons</td>
<td>آفا و خانم میسون</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  Which should be any minute</td>
<td>که هر لحظه معکنه اونا بیان</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 the lounge</td>
<td>سالن پذیرایی</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to welcome them graciously to our home</td>
<td>تا صمیمانه ورودشون رو خوش آمد بگی</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 to have a house-elf in my bedroom</td>
<td>که از یک جان تبی آتام پذیرایی کمم</td>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 It is difficult</td>
<td>گفتنش سخته</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Dobby serves</td>
<td>دابی به اونا خدمات میکنه</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 I've got friends</td>
<td>چند تا دوست دارم</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Friends who don't write to Harry Potter</td>
<td>همون دوست هایی که حتی براي هری پاتر نامه هم ننوشتن؟</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 I expect they've been</td>
<td>حتنه یه مکلی</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 How do you know my friends haven't been writing to me</td>
<td>از چگا قم پیدی دوستام برام نامه ننوشتن؟</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Beds empty. No note. Car gone.</td>
<td>تختخواب های خالی بودن، هیچ بادافشته نبود ممکن ناپیده شده بود</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 There were bars on his window</td>
<td>روی یک چرخ افسانه میله بود</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 time for a spot of breakfast</td>
<td>وقت صرف سباحتست</td>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 thinks they're fascinating</td>
<td>میشود: به ان دسته ارد افراد که ان واقع‌هاي جادوگری ندارند میشته میشود</td>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 muggles</td>
<td>مَشَنگ: به آن دسته از افراد که توانایی یابند</td>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24 Soury

سوري: محله اي در جنوب غربی لندن

25 This lot won't come cheap

اینا خیلی ارزون نمیشن

26 are expensive

خیلی گرونگ

27 don't forget to speak very, very clearly

بادت نره که مقصدت رو خیلی خیلی واضح بگی

28 I thought he did

فكر كنم همین رو کفت

29 They're ruining all the school cabbages

مر چی کلم تو مردمه بود رو نایبد کردن

30 What did you do to your glasses

چه چیزی سر عینکت اومده

31 Oculus Reparo

پرای روناده "رسناه‌های-ی-روز" عضو می‌کنم

32 This is for the Daily Prophet

بیه لبخند حسابی بزن هری، عکس من و تو قراره بره تو صفحه اول

33 It can't be

تمنی ننه درست باشه

34 Nice big smile, Harry. Together, you and I rate the front page

یه لبخند حسابی بزن هری، عکس من و تو قراره بره تو صفحه اول

35 free of charge

بصورت رایگان بهش تعلق میکرده

36 without making the front page

عکس رو صفحه اول نده

37 Lucius Malfoy

من لوسیوس مالفی هستم

38 Fear of a name only increases fear of the thing itself

ترسیدن از اسم هر چیز، فقط ترس از خود اون چیز رو بیشتر می‌کنه

39 You must be the Weasleys

تو باید یکی از ویزلي ها باشه

40 all those extra raids?

با اون همه پرورش چیکار میکین؟

41 I do hope they're paying you overtime

خدا كنه اقلا اضافه کاری بهت بدن

42 I'd say not

به منه میگم بهت نخیادین

43 I thought your family could sink no lower

فكر کنم به همین خاطره که انقدر صفحه خانواده پایین

44 1:58

ساعت 58 دقیقه

45 you first

اول شما بید

46 Okay

خب، برو

47 The invisibility Booster must be faulty

فكر کنم سیستم نامرئی کنده ماین خراب شده

48 Hold on

خدت رو نگه دار!

49 ! Up

برو بالا

50 This night might well be the last you spend in this castle

امشب مکنننه آخرين باری باشه که پاهانون رو توه این فله میگذاری

51 How serious this is?

این مسئله چقدر جدی هست
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>They are not</td>
<td>اونا نیستن</td>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Headmaster</td>
<td>آقای مدر</td>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Not today</td>
<td>امروز اخراج نمی‌کنیم</td>
<td>S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>I will be writing to your families tonight</td>
<td>من امشب بای خانواده هردوتون نامه می‌فرستم</td>
<td>S1,S2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE EFFECT OF PROVIDING BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND PREVIEWING QUESTIONS ON IMPROVING LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study investigated the effects of two kinds of advance organizers: previewing questions and providing background knowledge on listening comprehension of EFL learners. 60 advanced EFL learners were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups and listened to eight listening conversations. Before listening to each conversation, one group previewed questions, a second group was provided with necessary background knowledge about each conversation, and a third group received both the previewed the background knowledge treatments. The fourth group listened to the conversations without any pre-listening assistance. Multiple-choice posttests results revealed positive effects of previewing questions, providing background knowledge, and combined treatments.

KEYWORDS: Advance Organizer, Listening Comprehension, Preview Question, Background Knowledge.

1- Introduction
Listening as an independent and essential component of language learning has come into focus after a significant debate in the L2 literature about its importance. In the 1970s, more attention was paid to listening comprehension, and the status of listening changed from being incidental and peripheral to a status of utmost importance. Scholars paid more attention to this neglected skill and changed their view about listening as a passive skill rather than an active skill. According to Nunan (1998, p.1), "listening is the basic skill in language learning, without listening skill, learners will never learn to communicate effectively". While listening, many EFL learners have difficulty in comprehending spoken English. Lots of factors such as dominancy of their first language, limited knowledge of vocabularies, fast speech, and limited exposure to English outside of the classroom play an important role in this process (Buck, 2001; Anderson, & Lynch, 1988; Richards, 2008).

Such limitations led Listening to be regarded as a passive skill for many years. Therefore, many scholars now try to unveil such limitations. For instance, Chastain (1988) believes that many teachers and students tend to overlook the importance of listening comprehension henceforth LC). According to him, they do so because their...
attention is fixed so completely on their ultimate goal, speaking, that they fail to recognize developing functional listening comprehension skills as a perquisite to developing speaking skill. Recently, studies show many internal and external factors which have a considerable effect on second language listening comprehension. Factors such as background knowledge, listeners' characteristics such as age, gender, language proficiency level, motivation, and especially cognitive strategy seem to affect listening comprehension to a large extent. Teachers can also use various types of Advance Organizers (henceforth AOs) activities such as pre-teaching of key vocabularies, previewing questions, providing background knowledge, previewing main ideas, aural descriptions, and introducing culturally unfamiliar concepts and so forth to help learners to increase their listening comprehension proficiency. Mendelson (1995) believes that these kinds of activities enable learners to provide a context for interpretation and learners will use this knowledge as a basis of their hypothesis information, prediction, and inferencing. Therefore, focusing listeners' attention on specific aspects of the listening task will prevent them from using ineffective listening strategies that might negatively affect their listening comprehension such as listening for every word to get the main idea.

With respect to the above mentioned points, this study tries to investigate the impacts of providing background knowledge and previewing questions (henceforth PQs) on the Comprehension of the content of English listening materials.

2. Review of literature
The first part of review of literature focuses on theoretical framework in the area of listening comprehension. The importance of listening comprehension can never be ignored among other language skills. In fact, LC precedes production in all cases of language learning. According to Nicholas and Stevens (1957) adults spend about 45% of communication time for listening, 30% speaking, 16% reading, and 9% writing. Also, Asher (1982) states that by the time a child reaches age 6, he has listened to his native language for a minimum of 17,520 hours, equivalent to more than 50 years of college instruction. Past research has indicated that listening is the most important skill for language learning because it is the most widely used language skill in normal daily life (Morley, 2001; Rivers, 1981; Rost, 2001), and it develops faster than the other three skills and also fosters the emergence of the other language skills (Oxford, 1990). Gary (1975) highlighted the importance of listening and LC, especially in the early phases of second language learning and teaching. He believes that focusing on LC in the early stages of learning leads to four types of advantages: cognitive, efficacy, utility, and affective. Further, Buck (2001) mentions that listening comprehension is a very complex process which involves both linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge. Linguistic knowledge includes phonology, lexis, syntax, semantics and discourse structure while non-linguistic knowledge as applied to listening comprehension involves knowledge about the topic, context, and general knowledge about the world and how it works. He also states that these different types of knowledge do not occur in a fixed sequence but are supposed to work simultaneously or in any convenient order while listeners receive and try to interpret the aural message coming into their ears.
Another important factor which plays a vital role in listening comprehension process relates to the students' prior knowledge "schemata". Brown and Yule (1983a) describe schemata as "organized background knowledge which leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of discourse" (p. 248). They believe that listeners' background knowledge and prior experiences predispose them to construct expectations about seven areas: speaker, listener, place, time, genre, topic, and co-text which refer to discourse interpretation (Brown and Yule, p. 45).

Nunan (1998) believes that during the listening, the learner's mind involves many cognitive processes mainly, bottom-up (data-driven) and top-down (conceptually-driven) process. The bottom-up processing involves constructing meaning from the smallest unit of the spoken language to the largest one in a linear mode, and the top-down processing relates to interpreting meaning as intended by the speakers by the means of schemata or structures of knowledge in the mind (Nunan, 1998).

Moreover, another view of Top-down processing and bottom-up processing is defined by Rost. Rost (2002) describes bottom-up processing in which listeners first attend to individual phonological units, and decode a larger unit of input in hierarchical order, from vocabulary to structures, and arrive at the meaning of the discourse. In top-down processing, listeners make inferences on the basis of background information, contextual information and expectation.

In the following part of literature review, the focus is only on practical studies that have investigated the effects of AOs on L2/FL listening comprehension. Chen and Graves (1995) studied the effects of previewing vocabularies and providing background knowledge on Taiwanese collage students' comprehension of American short stories and their attitudes toward the treatments. Approximately 240 college freshman were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups and read two short stories. Before reading each story, one group listened to a 200-word preview, a second group listened to a 200-word presentation of background knowledge presentation. The fourth group read each story without any pre-reading activities. Results on short-answer and multiple-choice posttests revealed strong positive effects of the previewing and combined treatments and weaker positive effects of the background knowledge treatment. Also, regarding students' attitude, results from responses to a semantic differential and an open-ended attitude questions showed that they generally responded positively to all experimental treatments.

In another study, Elkhafaifi (2005) compared the effects of two types of advance organizers: vocabulary and question preview on the listening comprehension performance of adult learners of Spanish as a foreign language, and Arabic as a foreign language respectively. Two experimental groups were included; one that completed a vocabulary preview and another that completed the question preview. The vocabulary preview activity required the students to study a list of words along with their L1 corresponding definitions. Students in question preview activity were asked to study the questions and possible answers that made up the comprehension test. A control group completed a distracter activity. The result revealed that participants who completed the question preview scored higher than those who carried out the vocabulary activity.
Recently, Sadighi and Zare (2006) studied the effect of background knowledge on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The participants were upper-intermediate to advanced level learners who were preparing for their TOEFL exam. The students in the experimental group were asked to work on the topics to be examined using different resources such as the Internet before coming to class. The students in the control group took the listening test without any prior preparation. Comprehension test results revealed a significant difference between the groups where the experimental group scored higher than the control group on the comprehension test. Such results enhance further support to the importance of background knowledge in LC.

3. Research questions
1- Does providing background knowledge have any effect on students' LC?
2- Does providing previewing questions have any effect on students' LC?
3- Does providing both background knowledge and previewing questions have any effect on students' LC?

4. Methodology
4.1. Participants
Sixty Iranian EFL learners (60 female) ranging in age from 20 to 25 years participated in this study. The participants in this study were randomly divided into four groups, three experimental groups and one control group. Each group contained 15 students.

4.2 Instruments
Eight conversations from the Interchange Placement and Evaluation Package were chosen to see the effect of PQs and providing background knowledge on listening comprehension for two weeks (see appendix A). Each conversation lasted about three minutes. All of them were tape recorded. The reliability of the tests was obtained through Kudar-Richardson Formula 21. The reliability coefficient for the tests is : 0.87. Each conversation has four or five multiple choice questions, and each MCQ has three or four options only.

4.3. Design
A true experimental design (Pretest Posttest Control Group Design) with second listening comprehension as a dependent variable and previewing questions and providing background knowledge as independent variables was used in this study.

5. Experimental Procedures
All the participants in the present study were required to take part in four different testing situations; the previewing questions group, the background knowledge group, the previewing and background knowledge group, and the control group. In order to make sure about the homogeneity of students in listening comprehension ability, a pretest was performed. In order to do this, four conversations from Interchange placement and evaluation package (3rd ed.) were administered and scored (Lasley et al., 2008). A one-way ANOVA indicated that the differences in the means of the participants were not significant, F (3, 56) = 1.9, p=.12. Then, a treatment and a posttests were performed for eight weeks, one session per week. At the end of each
session participants in the experimental groups were required to listen to each conversation and answered questions. The first experimental group was allowed to preview sixteen questions prior to listening for five minutes for four conversations. For the next sessions they listened to the other four conversations which contained seventeen questions. They listened to listening conversations twice. It is noteworthy to mention that no effort was made to slow delivery or pause excessively during listening. This is consistent with Krashen's (1982) recommendation that comprehensible input should be that which is just one step beyond the interlanguage of the learner.

The second experimental group received all the necessary background knowledge about each conversation. The third experimental group received both previous treatments, previewing questions and background knowledge. The same process was performed for this group too, but with more time for preparation. Participants in the control group did not engage in any activity before listening (previewing questions and providing background knowledge). They were required to listen to the conversations twice. Then, they answered MCQs immediately after each listening.

6. Data Analysis

Students' listening comprehension performance was measured by a thirty-three-item multiple-choice test. The test was scored in the following procedure: one point was rewarded to each right answer and no point or zero for wrong answers for a total of thirty-three points. The obtained data from multiple-choice questions were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 19. The obtained scores on the four test groups were subjected to the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

6.1. Quantitative results:

Before the study began, a pre-test was administered in order to evaluate learners' L2 listening proficiency. Table 6.1 shows descriptive statistics of pre-test result. Also, the results of one-way ANOVA showed that there was not statistically significant difference among the groups in the pre-test, F (3, 56) = 1.9, p = .12. Table 6.2 shows the results of one-way ANOVA in pre-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preview</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.2667</td>
<td>1.90738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background knowledge</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.7333</td>
<td>2.71153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preview+Background</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.2667</td>
<td>3.17280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.3333</td>
<td>1.71825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.1500</td>
<td>2.50981</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After the analysis of pre-test, the collected data from posttest results were analyzed by the researcher. Descriptive statistics for the four groups on the post-listening comprehension test are presented in Table 6.3.

### Table 6.3 Descriptive statistics of posttest results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preview</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19.2000</td>
<td>3.94968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background knowledge</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.4667</td>
<td>3.44065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preview+Background knowledge</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.4667</td>
<td>3.29213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.0667</td>
<td>2.18654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>19.0500</td>
<td>4.41655</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to the calculation of descriptive statistics of posttest results, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effect of AOs on learners' listening comprehension and to explore if there were any significant differences between the experimental and control groups. Table 6.4 shows that the effect of AOs was significant on the listening comprehension between the four groups of learners, \( F(3, 56) = 16.97, (p < .001) \).

### Table 6.4 One-way ANOVA run for the comparison of the study groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.839</td>
<td>1.972</td>
<td>.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>6.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But it was not yet known which of the conditions had a statistically significant contribution to the listening comprehension performance of the learners. Therefore, in the next stage of data analysis, pairwise comparisons were made with Tukey HSD.
procedure. As a result of the effect of background knowledge on LC, post hoc comparisons revealed a significant difference among background knowledge group and control group, ($p<.001$). Also, there was no statistically significant difference between this group and the other two experimental groups. Table 6.5 shows this result.

**Table 6.5 post hoc comparison between background knowledge group and other groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) group</th>
<th>(J) group</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background knowledge</td>
<td>Preview</td>
<td>2.26667</td>
<td>1.19801</td>
<td>.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preview+Background</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>1.19801</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>7.40000*</td>
<td>1.19801</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2. Findings of previewing questions group

The results of the post hoc comparison between previewing questions group and control group confirmed a significant effect. In other words, there was a statistically significant difference between previewing questions group and control group, ($p<.001$). Also, there was no statistically significant difference between previewing questions group and the other experimental groups, ($p>.24$). Table 6.6 shows these results.

**Table 6.6 post hoc comparison between previewing questions group and other groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) group</th>
<th>(J) group</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preview</td>
<td>Background knowledge</td>
<td>-2.26667</td>
<td>1.19801</td>
<td>.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preview+Background</td>
<td>-2.26667</td>
<td>1.19801</td>
<td>.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>5.13333*</td>
<td>1.19801</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 6.7 shows, the combined treatment group: the group who received both background knowledge and previewing questions treatment performed in a statistically significant way in comparison to the control group, ($p<.001$).
According to Tables 6. 5, 6. 6, and 6. 7, all types of pre-listening activities as advance organizers had facilitative effects on listening comprehension of EFL learners.

7. Discussion
The present study investigated whether Iranian EFL learners’ listening comprehension performance would vary as a function of being exposed to two different types of advance organizers; PQs and providing background knowledge, which were given to them before to an unfamiliar text, to activate their background knowledge and facilitate their comprehension. The results were straightforward and made a strong argument in favor of using AOs prior to listening activities. The differences in tests scores among the four groups indicated that those who received the three pre-instructional treatments and then answered listening comprehension questions did indeed comprehend better than students in the control group. The findings of the present study are in line with some of the studies done on listening comprehension and applying advance organizers (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Sadighi and Zare, 2006; Chen and Graves, 1995) which have proved the facilitative effects of AOs.

8. Conclusions and implication of the study
The findings of the present study showed that pre-listening activities in form of AOs have facilitative effect on listening comprehension. The results of the one way ANOVA confirmed that exposure to previewing questions and providing background knowledge enhanced listening comprehension of EFL learners in a noticeable way.
Given the fact that our aim is to teach EFL students to be efficient and independent listeners, then our task becomes finding ways and factors which enhance their listening skill. Thus, the present study attempted to reveal the extent to which listening to a foreign language would be affected by previewing questions and providing background knowledge prior to the listening.
The study made it apparent that both previewing questions and providing background knowledge play a relatively substantial role in the better comprehension of English listening passages. So, it is recommended that EFL learners be provided with pre-listening activities so that they comprehend English passages
better. The purpose of pre-listening activities is to motivate the students to listen attentively and to prepare them to be able to comprehend listening passages. Prepared students can understand the listening materials with less effort and are able to participate in class activities more fully and with greater satisfaction. Prepared students rapidly gain confidence in their ability to learn a second language, and they tend to be highly enthusiastic. Pre-listening activities provide a listener with the necessary background to organize the activity and to comprehend materials.

8. Limitations of the study
The results of the current study should be interpreted in light of two major limitations. The sample size was small. The findings of this study may be, to some extent, different with a much larger sample size, therefore future research should include more participants in order to be able to accurately evaluate the effectiveness of the pre-listening activities on L2 learners' listening comprehension. Furthermore, the sample consisted of only female students.

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COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN ELT CONTEXTS

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ABSTRACT
The rapid spread of computers has been spurred by intensive development in the field of computer technology. Now computers have become much more powerful, yet smaller in size, more adaptable, more flexible, and easier to use. In addition, they are much more inexpensive than those of the last ten years. 'Computer literacy' becomes a big issue which is the knowledge about computers and computing when schools and governments have devoted resources to it. We are living today in what some people call the digital age, meaning that computers have become an essential part of our lives. Young people who have grown up with PCs and mobile phones are often called the digital generation. Computers help students to perform mathematical operations and improve their math skills. They are used to access the internet, to do basic research and communicate with other students around the world. Teachers use projectors and interactive whiteboard to give presentations and teach sciences, history or language course. PCs are also used for administrative purposes-schools use word processors to write letters, and databases to keep records of students and teachers. A school website allows teachers to publish exercises for students to complete online. Students can also enroll for courses via the website and parents can download official reports (InfoTech; Cambridge, 2008).

KEYWORDS: CALL; Language learning; Multimedia; ELT; The internet

Preliminaries
With the development of new technologies, there has been an attendant interest in applying these new technologies in the educational arena, and in making predictions of how they would affect the educational future of our classrooms and students. Although most people associate the birth of educational technology with the 1970s and 1980s, the history of educational computing actually goes back to the 1940s. Writers such as Bush (1945) foresaw a future in which communication and science would be enhanced with hyperlinked systems of information: Consider a future device for individual use, which is a sort of mechanized private file and library. In needs a name and to coin one at random, 'memex' will do. A memex is a device in which an individual stores all his books, records, and communications, and which is mechanized so that it may be consulted with exceeding speed and flexibility. It is an enlarged intimate supplement to his memory (cited in Celce-Murcia, 2002).
As Kenning, M. -M and Kenning, M. J. (1990) state CALL arose from the combination of two separate factors: educational needs and technological means. Developments in CALL can be traced back to the 1960's: the PLATO project, a large system developed at the University of Illinois, and the computer-based foreign-language-teaching project at Stanford University, led the way in the evolution of CALL. Over the last few years, there has been a flurry of largely unrelated activity in CALL. All of these are prompted by the emergence of inexpensive microcomputer systems. Although the computer's educational potential was being discussed as far back as the late 1940's, it took some time for educators to begin to assess the educational nature of the computer, and the ways in which it could be adapted to, and integrated into, learning programs and curricula.

Modern CALL is the result of the convergence of several lines of research into the use of computers in handling language. Except the work directly concerned with language teaching and the history of the component of CALL, there are three other lines of research which have had an important influence on the evolution of CALL: experiments in programmed instruction, developments in computational linguistics and work on machine translation. Developments in computational linguistics and machine translation had an indirect but important influence on CALL. Ahmad et al. (1985) comments, "... since research efforts in the two fields clearly determine the 'limit' of computer usage in literary and linguistic research and so by implication also define the 'limits' of computer usage in language teaching and learning."

The Computer

Computer is a device that processes information with great speed and accuracy. Computers process information by helping to create the information itself, by displaying, storing, recognizing, and communicating information to other computers. In general they process numbers, words, still or moving pictures, and sounds. The computer has changed the way people work, learn, communicate, and play. It is used by students, teachers, and research scientists as a learning tool all over the world, as well as by individuals at home to study, work and entertain.

The History of CALL

Although computers have been used since the first half of the 20th century, they were not used for educational purposes until the 1960s. The 1970s witnessed the evolution of CALL as a result of development in research related to the use of computers for linguistic purposes and for creating suitable language learning conditions. In America the computer based introductory courses in the 1960s were pioneering projects in CALL, and were referred to as computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) The 1980s have witnessed the spread of computers both in educational institutions and in people's homes. Since the beginning of the '80s computers have also found their way into many schools. CALL software has also become more readily available on the market (Ittelson, 2000).
The emergence of inexpensive computer technology and mass storage media, including optical videodiscs and compact disks, has given instructional technologists better tools to work with. Compact disks are used to store large amounts of data, such as encyclopedias or motion pictures. In CALL centres with computers and software such as CD-ROM, CD-I, or videodiscs, a student who is interested in a particular topic can first scan an electronic encyclopedia, then view a film on the subject or look at related topics at the reach of a button. Thus, such learning centers present students with the advantages of reference materials and popularize computer-aided instruction. The computer laboratory has become an integral component of foreign-language programs in most educational institutions. Computers have been used for language teaching for more than three decades. According to Warschauer & Healey (1998) the history of CALL can be divided into three stages: behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL and integrative CALL. Each stage corresponds to a certain pedagogical approach.

Computers in ELT
To fully understand the impact that computers are currently having on ELT, it is firstly necessary to step back and consider how their role has developed (Layton, 1993).

Pre-Internet
In pre-Internet days' computers in ELT could be viewed from one of two perspectives. Firstly, computer assisted language learning (CALL) developed and concerned itself with the pedagogical applications of the technology. Students used the computer to develop and practice their English. CALL is, of course, still with us today but in pre-Internet times rather limited text-based provisions were something of a novelty for both students and enthusiastic practitioners; this novelty factor has, of course, long since gone for many who use computers as part of their day-to-day life. A second perspective was in the use of computers for assisting and understanding of what constitutes the English language and how it works. Corpus linguistics and the arrival of lexis as an item to be included within the syllabus began in the 1980s with Sinclair (1987) and others, and work of this type continues today.

As Winsor (1990) says, this statistical analysis of language, initially analysis of written language, but more recently spoken language, has allowed us to examine the frequency of words and this has informed the profession from several perspectives. It has given us insights into the most useful vocabulary to teach and facilitated the emergence of the lexical syllabus. It has also allowed us to look at form-based words and this has given us insights into the grammar that we teach. One positive outcome from all this has been the arrival of a range of publications for teachers and students - such material can now be based on how the language is actually used rather than what the traditional grammar book prescribes.

The Internet and a Changing Language
The Internet (of which CMC forms a major aspect) is changing the language partly because it gives rise to new vocabulary, but more importantly because the medium
and its users drive the language in certain directions (Crystal, 2001). The following verbs are just one illustration of the influences on vocabulary, they all either meant different things, or did not exist, only a few years ago; to … email, text, boot, chat, surf, bookmark, e-shop, Google, etc. More fundamentally, the Internet is changing language, a 'Netspeak' and a 'Netiquette' is emerging, the former refers to a language variant, the latter to the conventions which surround its use. This changing language is rapidly evolving and does not have a long history to inform syllabus designers and ELT practitioners. Emails do not have, and arguably do not need, to follow punctuation conventions. Typos and spelling mistakes are also, depending on context, more acceptable with this medium (Asian EFL Journal, 2009).

To what extent should we allow this to influence the language content of emails in our teaching? Furthermore, synchronous emails, those in real time chat forums (e.g. MSN), are a kind of unique text version of spoken English and the language generated from this, along with text messaging on mobile phones, is at times completely different to anything else that we have hitherto known.

The Advantages of Using Computer in Language Teaching and Learning

One of the most important advantages of the growth of CALL is that software vendors no longer feel bound to grammar practice as the main goal of computer use in the language classroom. The movement towards communicative teaching with computers is clearly expanding. The vocabulary software has started to be contextualized and to incorporate graphics, audio recording and playback, and video. More sophisticated error-checking can provide students real help in the feedback they receive, directing them to further practice or moving them to the next stage. Those who need extra help with those aspects of language that improve with practice can use small, focused programs to give them additional time and assistance outside the regular class time. The writing process is another area where computers have added a great deal of value. Some programs help students in the pre-writing stage to generate and outline ideas. Most word-processors now come with spelling checkers, giving weak spellers some help in finding their errors and recognizing the correct spelling from a list of options. Further, according to Higgins (1995) pronunciation work in particular has benefited from CALL. Most pronunciation programs now incorporate some sort of voice recording and playback to let students compare their recording with a model. Most computer programs stimulate some discussion among group of learners even if oral practice is not the main purpose of the activity. Higgins suggests that the computer's main value is as an environment which allows language experiments to be carried out. Most drills now include games, as well, using the power of the computer and competition for collaboration toward a goal, the fun factor, to motivate language learning. These programs provide a varying amount of instruction along with the games. The other advantages of CALL are:

- Multimodal practice with feedback,
- Individualization in a large class,
- Pair or small group work on projects,
- The fun factor,
- Variety in the resources available and learning styles used,
o Exploratory learning with large amounts of language data,

On a more general note, CALL programs, besides teaching a foreign language, will provide the learner with some sort of computer literacy, which is becoming essential in our modern society and which could be of great help in future training and career prospects. The difference between the computer and other pieces of equipment, such as tape recorders and film projectors is its interactive capability as highlighted in the quotation below (cited in Kenning & Kenning, 1983):

"The unique property of the computer as a medium for education is its ability to interact with the student. Books and tape recording can tell a student what the rules are and what the right solutions are, but they cannot analyze the specific mistake the student has made and react in a manner which leads him not only to correct his mistake, but also to understand the principles behind the correct solution."

The computer gives individual attention to the learner and replies to him. Traditionally it acts as a tutor, assessing the learner's reply, recording it, pointing out mistakes, giving explanations;
- It guides the learner towards the correct answer;
- It offers interactive learning; it can assess the learner's response;
- It can repeat an activity without any of the errors arising from repetition by humans;
- It can handle a very large volume of interaction and can deliver to the student feedback;
- It can accommodate different speeds of learning; limits can be imposed on the time available for answering questions (for testing purposes).

**Language Needs Analysis**

We need to take into account what learner ultimately wants to do through the language, and to think the course objectives to the kind of language interaction which the learner's purpose is likely to entail. Since the 1970s, the clarification of aims and objectives have been a major preoccupation of linguistics and language specialists. Among these, Stern (1983), cross-tabulates four wide categories of objective: proficiency, knowledge, affect, and transfer, with four equally broad content categories: language, culture, communication, and general language education. He states that 'the table merely provides a map' and that 'the actual circumstances of teaching require the interpretation of these categories in order to decide which objectives and content categories to give priority to'(Stern, 1983). Wilkins (1976) recommends adapting a semantic approach which focuses on the types of meaning learners will want to express and proposed a framework for categorizing what speakers communicative through language. He thinks that defining objectives is the first step in the construction of any language syllabus or course. For example, the Threshold Level Project, which seeks to define language learning objectives as exactly as possibly in terms of what the learner will need to do with the language.
The Internet

By the mid-1990's, experts estimated that more than fifty million computers were linked to the information superhighway by way of a network called the Internet (Net). The internet is a computer-based worldwide information network. It is composed of a large number of smaller interconnected networks called internets. These internets may connect tens, hundreds or thousands of computers, enabling them to share information through a series of fibrotic cables (Encarta, 2000).

With a 'Personal Computer' (PC) you can get connected to the internet via a 'Modem' (Modulator- Demodulator) which is a very small device and can be attached to your computer. It connects your computer to another or other computers over communication/telephone lines. The internet is made up of a combination of various software applications, each with its own unique function. However, in order to take advantage of the greatest Internet software like the Netscape Navigator for exploring the Web you will need a late-model Macintosh or PC running Microsoft Windows or Windows. Once on the Net you will be able to get access to:

- E-mail: Electronic mail which allows you to instantly send and receive messages from all over the world;
- WWW: World Wide Web;
- Chat: a way to communicate in real time to others.

On the Internet, there are databases that contain information on every branch of human knowledge and enterprise- from the most serious scientific topics to catalogues of jokes. Due to advances in the worldwide telecommunication systems, the Internet has become a global network and universities, businesses, and individual users in virtually every nation are on the Net.

The Internet and ELT

English teachers are in a constant need of additional teaching materials; therefore, the internet is an invaluable recourse for them. Since the most common objective for language learners is better communication, the internet will improve their communication skills. For the teacher aiming to provide the desirable dynamic learning environment, the need for appropriate and stimulating resources and experiences are never greater, and it is here that the Internet can make a significant and unique contribution. A teacher can get access to English teaching support of many kinds through the WWW sites specialized in English teaching; download a wealth of realia from newspapers, tourism and hobby-based WWW sites to use in class (Blackie, 1999).

The internet also widens the students' horizons, provides regular confirmation of the usefulness of proficiency in the language and gives powerful stimulus to the broader education process. Although the internet is a terrific resource for accessing full-text newspapers, magazines, journals, reference works and even books, there is the problem of where to begin, which might be overwhelming for novice users; for, there is an infinite amount of information and recourses. However, there are tools such as
Search Engines, Directories, Libraries and Online Encyclopedias that can help find the information you are looking for, whether it is a particular EFL software or information on CALL (Encarta, 2000).

The rise of computer-mediated communication and the Internet has reshaped the uses computers for language learning at the end of the 20th century. With arrival of the Internet, the computer—both in society and in the classroom—has been transformed from a tool for information processing and display to a tool for information processing and communication (Sperling, 1998). For the first time, learners of a language can now communicate inexpensively and quickly with other learners or speakers of the target language all over the world. This communication can be either synchronous (with all users logged on and chatting at the same time) or asynchronous (with a delayed message system such as electronic mail) (Warshauer, 1995). With the World Wide Web, learners of many languages have access to an unprecedented amount of authentic target-language information, as well as possibilities to publish and distribute their own multimedia information for an international audience. Dudeney (cited in Sperling, 1998) enthusiastically reports that the internet is like a library which is five minutes old. Similarly, Gray (cited in Sperling, 1998) states that the internet is such an amazing seemingly infinite collection of resources that with access to all this information teachers can be more creative and up-to-date.

In sum, the internet enables students of English to:
- Correspond in English by e-mail with other classes in other parts of the world;
- Develop individual pen-pals to write to them;
- Communicate in real-time chat rooms;
- Share opinions and ideas across cultures on sports, music, food, hobbies, etc.;
- Conduct international surveys for class work;
- Read and listen to up to date news.

Multimedia

Multimedia computing, the Internet, and the World Wide Web provide an incredible boost to Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) applications. First ignored, CALL is finally achieving the recognition it deserves thanks in large part to these developing technologies (Duber, 2000). Personal computers enable users to interact with multimedia programs—that is, users become active participants rather than passive observers. Many computer programs combine several types of media, such as text, graphics, animation, and sound. However, most programs do not offer television and film clips or digital stereo sound. Such high-quality video and audio distinguish multimedia from other programs. Desktop computers are now able to play natural human speech together with full screen interactive video which was impossible just a few years ago. Users can now communicate and interact with one another in real-time (Duber, 2000).

The advantage of CD-ROM is that it can offer books, videos, audio-cassettes, language labs and computer language games as individual methods of study all together, in
such a small package. However, it takes time for sound and pictures to appear on the screen, so the more video or audio it has, the longer everything is going to take. In today's world people are too impatient and not willing to wait any longer than two seconds before they expect something to happen.

The fun and the learning potential of the CD-ROM is that it enables individuals (or at most two or three students on one computer) control their own learning. Before buying and using CD-ROMs, it is worth understanding what you can expect and what you want and evaluate this form of material.

The Future of CALL
Because computer use in instruction is at a relatively early stage of development, evaluation of computer-assisted language learning necessarily includes general and observable features such as whether the programs work, the screen displays are pleasing, adequate instructions are given, and answers are judged appropriately. Initially, the research and development in CALL is focus on what teachers are told to look for the effectiveness in reviewing CALL materials. Especially there are driven by two forces; advances in technology and the ability of language teach to exploit existing technology to the very fullest. But, at present CALL must be examined with an eye toward the curriculum of a particular language program and the learners for whom it is intended (Fox, J. et al. (eds.) (1990).

CALL will reach this state when computers are used every day by language students and teachers as an integral part of every lesson, like a pen or a book. Teachers and students will use them without fear or inhibition, and equally without an exaggerated respect for what they can do. They will not be the centre of any lesson, but they will play a part in almost all. They will be completely integrated into all other aspects of classroom life, alongside course books, teachers and notepads. They will go almost unnoticed (Bax, 2003).

Conclusion
CALL has got important role in English language teaching. If used properly with clear educational objectives, CALL can interest and motivate learners of English. CALL can increase information access to the learner, provide flexibility to instruction and thereby better serve the individual's learning pace, cognitive style and learning strategies. CALL allows learners to control their own learning process and progress. Using effective and suitable software applications, CALL can provide communicative meaningful language learning environments. Good quality and well-designed CALL software can offer a balance of controlled practice and free communicative expression to the learners, including immediate feedback. In the future, with the advance of computer technologies, it is expected that CALL will be able to absorb some teaching functions. The effectiveness of CALL relies on how CALL is utilized to meet language learning goals for individualized learners in specific educational settings.

The role of computers in language teaching has changed significantly in the last three decades. Previously, computers used in language teaching were limited to text. Simple
simulations and exercises, primarily gap-filling and multiple-choice drills, abounded. Technological and pedagogical developments now allow us to integrate computer technology into the language learning process. Multimedia programs incorporating speech-recognition software can immerse students into rich environments for language practice. Concordance software with large language corpora provides students with the means to investigate language use in authentic contexts. And the Internet allows for a great number of opportunities to communicate in the target language, access textual and multimedia information, and publish for a global audience.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES AND THEIR READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT  
Oxford (2003) believes that learning styles are the general approaches that learners utilize in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subjects. Different scholars identify different categories for learning styles. Willing (1988) identifies the four types of learners as concrete learners, analytical learners, communicative learners and authority-oriented learners. The present study aims at investigating the significant relationship (if any) between Iranian EFL learners’ learning style preferences and their reading comprehension ability. To this end ninety Iranian EFL students were selected. They were from University of Sistan and Baluchestan and Islamic Azad University of Zahedan. The data was collected through a learning style questionnaire and a TOEFL reading comprehension test. Willing’s learning style questionnaire is a four-point Likert scale consisting of four categories (Communicative, Concrete, Authority-Oriented, and Analytical learners) with 24 items modified based on the Iranian EFL university students’ learning. Its reliability using Cronbach Alpha was proved to be 0.844 (Shirini Bidabadi & Yamat, 2010). The other instrument used for this study was a TOEFL reading comprehension test including six passages with 30 multiple-choice questions. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 19, was applied for data analysis. The Pearson Product-moment Correlation analysis showed that there were statistically significant association between Iranian EFL learners’ learning styles and their reading comprehension ability at p<0.01 significant level. The Pearson correlations for communicative, concrete, authority-oriented, and analytical learning style were 0.592, 0.519, 0.402, and 0.394 respectively. The results of the present study have many pedagogical implications which can be beneficial for teachers, syllabus designers and learners.

KEYWORDS: learning style preferences; reading comprehension ability; efl learner.
Introduction
Language learning styles appear to be among the most important variables influencing performance in a second language. Keefe (1979, p.4) defines learning styles as “cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment”. Seif (2001) believes that individuals acquire learning styles and techniques according to their individual differences like other abilities through experience. Besides, Carson and Longhini (2002) believe learning styles indicate that how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the environment. It is worth mentioning that the identification of learner's learning styles helps educational planners and teachers provide learners with necessary educational support and supplies because learning styles are influential factors in learners' learning (Anderson, & Elloumi, 2004).

Willing’s Learning Style
According to Willing (1988), learning style is inherent and pervasive and is a blend of cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements. Willing (1988) stressed that an individual’s learning style is an intrinsic and innate behavior that individual has in him which is influenced by several factors in their life that has caused them to have a particular learning style or preferences.

Willing’s (1988) learning style questionnaire is the most suitable one to investigate the language learners’ learning style. The four types of learners identified by Willing through the questionnaire are concrete learners, analytical learners, communicative learners and authority-oriented learners. Nunan (1991) identified different kinds of tasks that these four types of learners prefer. According to Nunan, concrete learners tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs and practicing English outside class. Analytical learners like studying grammar, studying English books and reading newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes and working on problems set by the teacher. However, communicative learners prefer to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English and watching television in English, using English out of class in shops, trains, etc., learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversations. Finally, authority-oriented learners prefer the teacher to explain everything, like to have their own textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

Fleming (2001, p.58) asserts that “concrete learners are clearly right-brained with a tendency toward kinesthetic information processing modality; analytical learners are completely left-brained with a strong “read or write” information processing orientation; communicative learners seem to be aural in information processing modality; and the authority oriented learners appear to rely on their visual modality.

Learning Style and Reading Comprehension Ability
Williams (2010) focusing on reading comprehension, demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between kinesthetic, auditory, visual sensory learning styles
and reading comprehension. Besides, they illustrated that teachers could offer different activities that fit learners’ learning styles.

Tsai (2012) conducted a study to investigate the correlations among three major dimensions of individual differences, learning styles, motivation and strategy use in reading English as a foreign language on 422 Taiwanese undergraduate students from different levels who were classified into two groups according to their reading performance. The researcher adapted three questionnaires from various researchers and revised for measuring students’ learning styles, motivation and reading strategies. Significant differences were found between skilled and less-skilled readers on visual style and reflective style. The correlation analysis revealed that there was a strong correlation between motivation, reading strategy use and reading performance, whereas no correlation between learning styles and reading performance was confirmed. Moreover, learning styles, motivation and reading strategies were intercorrelated with each other.

Method

Participants
A group of 90 Iranian EFL senior students majoring in English Literature, English Translation, and English Teaching at the University of Sistan and Baluchestan, and Azad university of Zahedan, were selected. The sampling process was based on convenience, due to availability and practicality reasons.

Instruments
The researcher needed two kinds of instruments to conduct this research, a questionnaire of learning style and a reading comprehension test.

One of the instruments of this research is Willing’s (1988) learning style questionnaire. This four-point Likert scale questionnaire consists of four categories (Communicative, Concrete, Authority-Oriented, and Analytical learners) with 24 items modified based on the Iranian EFL university students’ learning. The reliability Cronbach’s Alpha of this instrument is 0.844 (Shirani Bidabadia, Yamata, 2010). The reading comprehension ability of the participants is determined through TOEFL Reading Comprehension test. This test consists of six passages, each having five multiple-choice questions; so the test contains thirty questions. The range of scores can be between 0 and 30.

Data analysis
Using two different instruments; namely, Learning Style Questionnaire and the TOEFL Reading Comprehension Test, subsequently, the data were subjected to statistical analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 19, was applied for this purpose. The descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) were calculated primarily to determine the EFL learners’ learning style preferences. Since the research aimed to find out the relationship (if any) between learning style preferences and reading comprehension ability, Pearson’s product-moment correlation test was used.
Results
Descriptive Statistics for Different Learning Style preferences and Reading Comprehension

In order to achieve a conclusive finding, a descriptive analysis was conducted by calculating the mean and standard deviations (SD) for the types of learning style preferences among Iranian EFL learners and reading comprehension ability. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the four types of learning style preferences and reading comprehension test.

1: Basic Descriptive Statistics for Learning Style Preferences and reading comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Style Preference</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicative</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.84</td>
<td>3.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concrete</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17.91</td>
<td>3.337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16.73</td>
<td>2.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority-Oriented</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16.51</td>
<td>3.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16.79</td>
<td>5.155</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = Number; Std = Standard

As it is shown in Table 1, the highest mean value belongs to the communicative learning style with the mean score of 18.84 and the standard deviation of 3.735 followed by concrete learning style (M = 17.91, SD = 3.337). Analytical learning style is in the third place (M = 16.73, SD = 2.735). Finally, the authority-oriented learning style obtained the lowest mean value with the mean score and standard deviation of 16.51 and 3.205 respectively. Besides, the minimum reading comprehension test score of the participants is 6, which implies that only six questions were answered correctly, while the maximum score is 27 which reveals that 27 out of 30 questions were answered correctly. The mean and standard deviation of reading comprehension test scores turned out to be 16.79 and 5.155 respectively.

Analysis of the Relationship between Learning Style preferences and Reading Comprehension

In order to understand whether there is any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ learning style and their reading comprehension ability, a Pearson correlation coefficient is calculated using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 19. The results are illustrated in Table 4.3 below.

Table 2: Pearson Product-Moment Correlations between Learning Style preferences and Reading Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Style Preferences</th>
<th>Communicative</th>
<th>Concrete</th>
<th>Authority Oriented</th>
<th>Analytical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson</td>
<td>.592**</td>
<td>.519**</td>
<td>.402**</td>
<td>.394**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As illustrated in Table 4.3, there is a moderate positive and significant relationship between all types of learning styles and reading comprehension of the participants. That is, communicative learning style has the highest correlation with reading comprehension at $p = .00 < .01 (r = .592)$ followed by concrete learning style at $p = .00 < .01 (r = .519)$. Authority-oriented and analytical learning styles’ correlations with reading comprehension are $p = .00 < .01 (r = .402)$, and $p = .00 < .01 (r = .394)$ respectively. Therefore, it is demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ learning style and their reading comprehension ability.

Discussions
The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship (if any) between Iranian EFL learners’ learning style preferences and their reading comprehension ability. As the results revealed all types of learning styles are successful in reading comprehension ability. Those who got low scores in different learning styles did not have good marks in reading comprehension test, too. Students find learning easier if the learning material matches their learning styles (Ehrman & Leaver, 2003; Chang, 2005). It clarifies the importance of making students aware of different types of learning styles and guiding them to find their learning style preference and providing different activities and learning tasks related to all types of learning styles to have successful learners in reading comprehension skill. Liu (2008) asserted that the learners from different English proficiency levels have various characteristics while learning a second language. He believes that the more proficient learners are likely to be more flexible than the less proficient learners in their learning styles. Researches done to investigate learning styles and reading comprehension ability are very limited; while the relationship between learning styles and listening strategies is investigated by Bidabadi and Yamat (2010). The results of their study revealed that there was a significant positive relationship between the communicative learning styles and meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective listening strategies with correlation coefficients ($r$) of $0.554 (p<0.01)$, $0.504 (p<0.01)$, and $0.310 (p<0.01)$ respectively. The results of this study confirm what Bidabadi and Yamat (2010) have reported in the reality that communicative learners are successful learners in both listening and reading skills. Moenikiaa and Zahed-Babelan (2010) investigated the relationship between learning styles and language skills (listening, writing, structure, reading). The mean score of reading comprehension test of different learning styles is as follows: verbal=16.8, social=16.2, solitary=13.7, visual=12.8, physical=12.3, logical=11.8, and aural=11.4. Verbal (linguistic) learners who prefer using words in speaking and writing and Social (interpersonal) learners who favour learning in groups or with other people were the most successful learners in reading comprehension skill. These two learning styles have characteristics similar to Willing’s communicative learning style. The results of the present study report Moenikiaa and Zahed-Babelan’s (2010) findings to some degree.
extent. The research done by Williams (2010) showed that there is a significant relationship between kinesthetic, auditory, visual and sensory learning styles and reading comprehension ability. The finding of his study also supports the finding of the present study although different tools for determining learning style preferences were applied. However, for generalization of the findings of this study, further investigations are needed.

**Conclusion and Implications**

The main goal of the present study was to investigate if there is any significant relationship between the learners’ learning style and their reading comprehension ability. The data were gathered through the application of two instruments of Willing’s Learning Style Questionnaire and TOEFL Reading Comprehension Test. The obtained data were analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test used to discover the relationship between learning style preferences and reading comprehension ability of the Iranian EFL learners. The results showed that there is a moderate and positive significant relationship between different types of learning style preferences and reading comprehension ability. In fact, communicative, concrete, authority-oriented, and analytical learning styles are significantly correlated with reading comprehension.

Many researchers such as (e.g. Claxon & Murrell, 1987; Willing, 1988) suggest that learning methods that match with learning style preferences of students lead to academic gains. Claxton and Murrell (1987) believed inventories of learning style and other processes can be used to help make students aware of their own preferences and strengths. In fact, it is a promising strategy to help students understand more about their own preferences for learning and to suggest ways for them to cope more effectively in courses taught in ways consistent or inconsistent with their style. They believed by doing so, students can learn to take increasing charge of their own learning and be more active in the process (Claxton & Murrell, 1987). As the results of this study indicate, all types of learners can be successful EFL readers. Therefore, guiding the learners to learn through their own style and preparing enough techniques and activities for each learning style becomes a crucial responsibility for teachers if they want to have successful EFL learners.

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A SURVEY OF THE APPROACHES EMPLOYED IN TEACHING LITERATURE IN AN EFL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
This study was carried out to investigate the approaches and strategies employed by teachers in teaching literature in an EFL context. It also aimed to identify the problems and obstacles in the way of implementing those approaches in an EFL context. To gather the data, questionnaire, classroom observation and interview were used. 100 teachers responded to a written questionnaire and 5 of them were randomly selected to be observed for 10 sessions and 10 teachers were also interviewed. The findings revealed that information-based approaches and paraphrastic approach are popularly used by teachers while language-based and stylistic approach are least used. The findings also indicated that the approaches of teaching literature are greatly under the influence of teachers’ knowledge of methodology and literature as well as their teaching experience, students' language proficiency level, and final exam.

KEY WORDS: Survey, Literature, Teaching, Approach, EFL.

1. Introduction
Teaching literature in an EFL context is always associated with both theoretical and practical questions about how best literature can be taught to provoke students’ interest and involvement and get the maximum results. This raises a few pertinent questions about the approaches used in literature courses in EFL context in universities. How literature courses are carried out in classes? How far are teachers familiar with teaching English literature methodology? Do they contribute to a more developed understanding of critical thinking?

One determining factor in answering the above mentioned questions is the way in which the learners are exposed to literature. Learners exposed to positive experiences with literature, and are given opportunities to read literature and reflect on it, will benefit both linguistically and enjoy the experience of reading literary texts. (Hirvela, 1996). The paper surveys the approaches that are used in teaching literature in EFL context.

2. Significance of the study
This study provides a ground for the teachers to reflect on their teaching techniques and approaches used so far when teaching literature. The discussion of the approaches
exercised in the class with their associated strengths and weaknesses broaden teachers’ perspectives and help them choose better and more appropriate approaches and strategies for their classes. Moreover, teachers will get information on how other teachers of English are administering their literature lessons.

3. Purpose of the study
This study aims to gain a general overview of the approaches and strategies employed by teachers in teaching literature in EFL context. It was also conducted to find out the obstacles and the difficulties teachers encounter in teaching literature in EFL classes. The research questions for this study are as follows:

1) What are the approaches teachers apply in teaching literature in EFL context?
2) What are the activities teachers utilize in teaching literature in an EFL context?
3) Why do teachers employ such approaches?
4) What are the obstacles in the way of teaching literature?

4. Review of literature
There are different approaches to teach literature such as language-based approach, information-based approach, personal response approach (Lazar, 1993; Carter & Long, 1991) paraphrastic approach, moral-philosophical approach and the stylistics approach (Hwang & Embi, 2007) each of which has its own associated contributions as well as limitations.

In the language-Based approach, the foremost emphasis is on language of the literary text, vocabularies, structures, and styles. Literary texts are perceived as means of helping students' expand and develop their language proficiency. Lazar (1993) stated that a language-based approach focuses on techniques and procedures that are concerned largely with the study of the language of the literary text itself. Students then will have the opportunity to develop and enhance their language manipulation and contribution. Literary texts expose them to the varied creative uses of the language (Hwang & Embi, 2007). As Maley and Duff (1990) claimed that the primary purpose of this approach is “quite simply to use literary texts as a resource for stimulating language activities”. In language-based approach the focus is on the language awareness in the learners. (Too Wei Keong, 2007)

The second approach, literature as content or Information-based approach focuses on the associated implications about literature as cultural and creative legacy. What are significant in this approach are the historical, social background of the text as well as the characteristics of literary school and the rhetorical devices. It is like teaching about literature rather than teaching literature and perceiving literature as a source of information and knowledge rather than a source of aesthetic beauty and its appreciation. “It requires a large input investment from the teacher” (McRae, 1991). It describes the study of literature as “aesthetically patterned artifact endowed with the knowledge potentials philosophy, culture, morality, and humanities” (Ganakumaran, 2007, p. 2). In this approach, the teacher tries to offer extra information and explanation
about the “critical schools and literary movement, biographical facts about authors and various synopses” (McKay, 1982).

The third approach is Personal Enrichment proposed by Carter and Long in 1991. This approach highlights students’ personal engagement in and contribution to reading literary text. The aim is to develop language competence and literary competence and is better depicted in terms of the pleasure and individual fulfillment which is due to the reading of literary texts and making them to be one’s own (McKay, 1982). The teacher’s role is a facilitator who has to prepare a ground for knowledge transmission and students’ critical awareness and thinking. Literature is considered as a tool to involve students in discussion and get students to reflect on their personal experiences and understanding in their interpretation (Byrne, Flood & Willis, 2004). In this approach, students are active participants rather than just information receiver who both intellectually and emotionally engage in the process of learning English and evaluating literary text. Rosli (1995) claims that this approach motivates and encourages students to read by making a connection between the themes of the texts studied and their personal life experiences.

In Paraphrastic approach, teachers try to simplify the original text through less complicated structure and easier words. Therefore, the main focus remains in the surface structure rather than deep meaning and use modified sentence structures compared to the original complicated ones in the texts. Teachers modify or sometimes translate some words or sentences into other languages.

Moral-philosophical approach goes beyond the surface layer of the text to integrate moral and philosophical implications. Students are to work on ethic and moral values and philosophical considerations behind the lines.

Stylistics approaches is rather similar to language-based approach in that both focus on language of the literary text itself. However, stylistic approach goes one step ahead in incorporating literary criticism as well as linguistic consideration. As Lazar (1993) puts out, stylistic approach pursues two objectives simultaneously. First, like language based-approach it develops students' knowledge and awareness of the literary language through getting students to scrutinize a literary text by marking certain linguistic features, getting students to look at the language features, extracting possible clues which contribute to the meaning and interpretation of the text (Carter, 2007). Second, it helps students to go beyond the surface meaning to catch deep evaluation and understanding of a literary text and arrive to meaningful interpretations.

5. Methodology

5.1. Research design

The present study benefits from both quantitative and qualitative methodologies in data analysis and data collection. The collected data were based on the triangulation of questionnaire, class observation of 5 teachers and interview of 10 teachers.
5.2. Participants
The study was conducted in Azad University, Rasht, Iran. The participants of the study consisted of the English language teachers who had taught literature from 5 to 10 or more years. Among the teachers, five teachers were selected randomly to be observed and 10 to be interviewed.

5.3. Instruments
The questionnaire was adapted from Rashid, Vethamani and Abdul Rahman (2010). The questionnaire was revised to fit the context under investigation. The questionnaire consists of two 5 main parts: the first part was Information-Based Approach, the second part was Paraphrastic Approach, the third part was Moral-Philosophical Approach, the forth one was personal-response approach and the last part was stylistic approach each of which has its own related activities. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated through Cronbach alpha with reliability of .78 suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency and functioned well in terms of consistency. Regarding the validity of the questionnaire, two experts in the field inspected the questionnaire and confirmed its validity. It took teachers approximately 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

For classroom observation, a checklist adapted from Banerjee (1995) was used. The checklist was modified to meet the objectives of this research. The present checklist included types of approaches teachers used, the activities they practiced, the sequence of activates teachers used in the class, the time devoted to each activity and what the teacher does. The checklist was then summarized, compared and interpreted in order to identify the main approach and activities used by each teacher.

The interview questions included questions about the type of teaching approaches and activities teachers used employed, the factors that influence teachers’ selection of those approaches and activities, and finally the obstacles on the way of teaching literature. The interviews were audio taped, transcribed and interpreted.

5.4. Procedure
The study required both quantitative and qualitative data analyses. The primary data collected from the questionnaire were quantified and analyzed. Descriptive statistical analysis for the quantification of data was done through SPSS to organize and keep a record of all the data gathered. Content analysis was used for analysis of the data received from class observation and interview.

6. Findings
6.1. Approaches employed by teachers
The findings of the questionnaire revealed that paraphrastic approach (mean = 6.2) and the information based approach (mean 5.00) are the most used approaches by teachers. After these two approaches, teachers tended to use the moral-philosophical approach (mean = 4.60). The personal-response approach (mean = 2.9), the language-based approach (mean = 2.4) and the stylistic approach remains the lowest (mean = 2.00). 93% percent of the respondents reported that they paraphrased and reworded
the literary text into a simpler language. 92% percent of the respondents stated that they explained the content of the text as well as the literary figures to the class. 82.4 of respondents reported that they asked questions to check students’ understanding from what they have taught.

Paraphrastic and Information Based Approach were popular among teachers and the technique of exploring the characters, setting or objects referred to in the literary texts, identifying the characters, were the techniques much used by teacher to help students to arrive to a better understanding of the literary text and also assist them in answering their examination questions on poetry better.

Stylistic Approach was the approach that the teachers preferred least in their teaching. Since the linguistic devices involved are not tested in the examinations, the teachers prefer not to bring the students through the process of analyzing them.

The classroom observations of the teachers revealed a high tendency of using paraphrastic and information-based approach in teaching English Literature. They asked students to read the literary text aloud to the whole class. Then, the teachers presented some information about the social, political and historical background of a text, the literary genres and rhetorical devices and figurative devices. One of the observed teachers (teacher A), however, read aloud the text himself, discussed unfamiliar words, and talked about the literary devices that the text employed. Further social, political and historical information was given after the text had finished. Teacher B explained summarized and simplified the entire text in simple language after covering the text. He gave detailed explanation about the literary figures and then discussed the moral and theme of the text collaboratively.

However, all of the five observed teachers shared paraphrasing and rewording the text into simpler language. At the end of each session the social, political, moral and philosophical implications of the literary text were discussed either monotonously carried out greatly by teachers or collaboratively with students. The operationalization of each approach was adopted from Rezuwan Rashid, Edwin Vethamani and Abdul Rahman (2010). However, some modification had been exerted to include stylistic approach. Below (Table 1) the Frequency and the Mean score and standard deviation of approaches in teaching the literature component in English are depicted.

Most of the teachers followed paraphrasing immediately after reading the literary text. They did it either monotonously or by involving students in the process. The moral lesson of the text as well as the theme was discussed at the end of the session. Integrating effectively some activities from different approaches was directly pertinent to the teachers’ experience, their knowledge of methodology and students’ interest and cooperation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Frequency and mean of approaches in teaching literature</th>
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<td>Item</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Paraphrastic approach</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide a written paraphrased version as a complementary reading text</td>
<td>75</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teach solely using a paraphrased version of the text</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guide students to paraphrase the text</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Explain figurative and ambiguous language used in simple words</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use simple terms to explain what the story is about to tell students</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Re-tell the text to students to help them understand</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students retell the story to the class in simpler language</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Read the text in a control pace</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rephrasing text using simple words</td>
<td>75</td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Information-based approach</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>Explain the content of the lesson in detail.</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension questions exercises</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecture sessions on historical and cultural background</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read notes from workbooks/handouts with students</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide students to identify and read informative extracts in the story</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>2.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide specific details about the literary elements found in the text</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elicit information from students about the text</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>Explain the main content of the text to the class</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide students with background information</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask questions to check students’ knowledge based on what they have read</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Moral-philosophical approach</strong></th>
<th>68</th>
<th>2.4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incorporate moral values</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell students directly about the moral values</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ask students to value what they have learned</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guide students to find out the moral of the text themselves</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raise students awareness of values implied in the text</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reflective sessions</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conduct self-evaluation activities</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discussions on moral dilemmas</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2.1</td>
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**Personal response approach**
- Motivate students to mix their own experience
- Relate the literary content with real life situations or happenings.
- Writing about feelings/reactions towards an issue
- Guide students to relate the themes to personal experiences
- Ask students to compare the text to any text they have read earlier
- Elicit students’ response to a text
- Encourage students to express feeling towards the issues raised in the text

| Motivate students to mix their own experience | 30 | 1.00 |
| Relate the literary content with real life situations or happenings. | 35 | 1.2 |
| Writing about feelings/reactions towards an issue | 30 | 1.4 |
| Guide students to relate the themes to personal experiences | 45 | 1.6 |
| Ask students to compare the text to any text they have read earlier | 40 | 1.4 |
| Elicit students’ response to a text | 30 | 1.00 |
| Encourage students to express feeling towards the issues raised in the text | 35 | 1.2 |

**Language-based approach**
- Language activities (cloze, jigsaw puzzle, prediction exercises)
- Debates
- Performance activities (drama, role play, poetry recital)
- Guide students to infer meanings from clues in the text
- Guide students to read between lines
- Asking students to make predictions about what will happen next at key points of a story
- Guide students to express opinion towards a text
- Generate language practice using the text dramatic activities

| Language activities (cloze, jigsaw puzzle, prediction exercises) | 40 | 1.4 |
| Debates | 35 | 1.1 |
| Performance activities (drama, role play, poetry recital) | 20 | .7 |
| Guide students to infer meanings from clues in the text | 40 | 1.4 |
| Guide students to read between lines | 20 | .7 |
| Asking students to make predictions about what will happen next at key points of a story | 35 | 1.2 |
| Guide students to express opinion towards a text | 30 | 1.1 |
| Generate language practice using the text dramatic activities | 41 | 1.3 |

**Stylistic approach**
- Identify linguistics features (eg. vocabulary, tenses)
- Discuss different meanings of a text
- Extract examples from a text that describe a setting
- Identify adjectives that describe a character
- Students are given three different critical opinions of a play or novel they have read. They have to decide which they find the most convincing or accurate.
- Write a critical paper
- Introduce students to the linguistic and discourse-analytical approaches to style in literary works, and to relate stylistic features to the teaching of

| Identify linguistics features (eg. vocabulary, tenses) | 40 | 1.00 |
| Discuss different meanings of a text | 40 | 1.00 |
| Extract examples from a text that describe a setting | 25 | 1.00 |
| Identify adjectives that describe a character | 25 | .9 |
| Students are given three different critical opinions of a play or novel they have read. They have to decide which they find the most convincing or accurate. | 15 | .5 |
| Write a critical paper | 15 | .5 |
| Introduce students to the linguistic and discourse-analytical approaches to style in literary works, and to relate stylistic features to the teaching of | 20 | .7 |

| Introduce students to the linguistic and discourse-analytical approaches to style in literary works, and to relate stylistic features to the teaching of | 39 | 1.9 |
Help students make meaningful interpretations of the text itself
Expand students’ knowledge and awareness of the literary language in general
Enable students to reach an aesthetic appreciation of a text which connects its specific linguistic features with intuitions about its meanings.
Help students to uses linguistic analysis to understand how messages are conveyed.
Develop a series of questions which alert students to these features, and encourage them to reach an interpretation or appreciation of the text bearing these features in mind.

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<td>10</td>
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6.2. Types of activities used in the class
The most popular activities employed by teachers in teaching the Literature were respectively corresponded with the hierarchy of the employed approaches. The activities related to paraphrastic approach got the highest mean of 2.8. It was followed by information-based activities with the mean of 2.5, moral-philosophical activities with the mean of 2.4, personal-response activities with the of mean 2.0, language-based activities with the mean of 1.4 and finally stylistic activities such as discourse analysis, aesthetic appreciation of a text, discussing different meanings of a text, and linguistic analysis and literary criticism with the mean of 1.3 remains the lowest.

Paraphrastic activities such as rephrasing the text, asking students to retell the literary text in their own words and information based activities such giving lectures on the historical and cultural content of the text and asking comprehension question to check out students’ perception were among the most used activities conducted in the literature classroom. However, explanation of text to students was the activity most practiced by teachers (with the mean of 2.5) in the literature classroom. Asking students to work on the aesthetic effect of the text or writing a critical paper on that with significance of .56 remain the least used activities practiced by teachers.

Dramatic activities which are a technique advocated under the Language Based Approach is not favored or utilized by teachers in the class. This is because the implementation of dramatic activities demand teachers’ extra effort and time.

Teachers C and D also revealed similar findings. Both teachers displayed some preferences to use information-based and paraphrastic approaches and their associate activities. Teacher C used three activities that were accompanied with his selected approaches. First he himself read the text aloud and sometimes by the students. Then he paraphrased the already read text in simplified language. In fact, the class was managed and controlled in a kind of passive mode. Sometimes he asked the meaning...
of some difficult words, comprehension questions about the text, its meaning and the used devices. Although he asked questions about the text, but most of the time he gave the students the answers to his questions. The exercises were carried out individually and no group discussions were spotted.

Teacher D used approximately similar type of activities throughout his teaching. However, on the contrary to teacher C, he would get students to read the paragraphs of the text and give the class the summary of that part to the class. Sometimes the meanings of the difficult words were checked by the teacher. Further explanation and clarification was given at the end of the session like teacher C. the so-called correct answers to the aroused question were dictated by him to the class.

The findings presented in the Table 1 depict the nature of activities carried out in the literature classroom. In sum, among all the proposed activities, paraphrasing, using simpler language and words, reading aloud, comprehension questions and teacher retelling and explaining the literary text in simplified language and even sometimes mother tongue were the activities manifested to all the classroom observations.

The findings go along with the previous conducted studies by Hwang and Embi (2007) who found that stylistic approach is the least used approach among teachers while information based-approach(mean = 4.04) and paraphrastic approach (mean = 4.05) followed by the information-based approach and the moral-philosophical approach (mean = 3.93).

Like Bridget Lim Suk Han and Suhaida Omar (2007), the researcher found out that that the paraphrastic Approach was the most preferred while the Stylistic Approach was the least preferred one and consequently the techniques associated with stylistic approach are the least used ones totally. Zamrudah (2001) also found that the techniques advocated under the language-based activities and personal-response activities were especially low in number.

6.3. Why teachers employ such approaches?
The data gathered from the interview revealed that teachers had their own justifications for their choice of specific approaches and activities in teaching literature in their classrooms. Most of them had consensus that paraphrastic approach as well as information-based approach most outfit their classes.

Time limitation, the objectives of the final exam, the necessity to prepare students for the final exam, teachers’ lack of experience with teaching literature methodologies, students’ level of proficiency and sometimes lack of interest were among the reason that lead teachers follow certain limited types of approaches and activities.

Besides, the space of the class, the number of students, their attitude and interest, were some of teachers’ reluctance in applying or using certain techniques such as debates, dramatization, aesthetic evaluation and presentation in their literature lessons.
Most teachers believed that the proficiency level of the students was the key reason in their decision upon choosing paraphrastic approach and the associated activities. They assumed that it was a good way of helping students understand literary text in a limited time period. As far as retelling and explaining the text is concerned, teachers also believe that students would not get the meaning of the text and cannot appreciate it fully again due to their low proficiency level.

Comprehension exercises were frequently used to check her students’ understanding. The selection of this activity was first because of the students’ proficiency level and second due to their examination purposes. N the time of the exam, students should write the correct interpretations, paraphrases and answers and since students wanted to get good grades in that specific course or at least just passed the course, they had to make their best to write the correct ones. That was why they did not appear to show any interest in conducting dramatization because they felt that it was only further burden on their shoulder. Therefore, comprehension questions were replaced because they are very easy questions for the weak class so it is easy for them to understand the story more.

7. Conclusion
The present study hoped to find the approaches used by teacher in an EFL context as well as the associated activities utilized in those classes. The analysis of data gained from the questionnaire and observation reveal that the paraphrastic approach and the information-based approach were among the most preferred approaches in the literature classroom. The findings confirmed by the qualitative data through the observation of five classes. In these classes, the teacher was the governing figure who reads the story, paraphrased the text, retells the story, explains, summarizes and simplifies the text and gives students the necessary associated information about the text. Many of teachers teach literature for the purpose of examination, not understanding or appreciating. Their main concern is only to make sure the students know how to answer the exam questions.

The findings of the class observation also revealed that language-based approach and the stylistics approach and their associated techniques fall at the bottom of the list and are rarely utilized. The findings show that teaching literature in Iran EFL context is by far away from enhancing students’ proficiency in the English Language or literary criticism. Neither of the activities was related to language nor triggered students’ literary response. Activities like debates, Identify linguistics features and critical criticism were not popular among the respondents of this study.

The class observation manifested that it is the teacher who always control most of the class time in dealing with students' comprehension and explanation of the literary text. One reason for this was students’ reluctance to hold debates in the classroom because of lack of confidence in themselves in expressing their own ideas and feelings and partly was due to the lack of good command of English and other social implications.
These findings were in line with Suriya Kumar (2004) and Siti Norliana’s (2003). They concluded that most of the activities included in these classes were of a passive mode such as abundant listening, individual exercises and following the dictation of the teacher and copying the right answers.

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THE EFFECT OF USING PICTOGLOSS ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
The present study aimed to investigate the effect of using pictoglosses as a classroom activity in teaching English reading comprehension skill on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. The questions this study tried to answer were 1) whether using pictoglosses might enhance a more acceptable reading comprehension performance in Iranian learners of English at university level, 2) whether there was a difference between the means of the experimental (treated) group and the control (placebo) group of the study across the participants' sex. To answer the questions, 60 (30 male and 30 female) junior undergraduate translator trainees participated in the experiment of the study. They were randomly selected from among a population of translator trainees via an OPT test score of at least one standard deviation below the mean. They were then divided into two groups of 30 and were randomly assigned to an experimental (+Pictogloss) and a control group (-Pictogloss). A pretest of English reading comprehension was administered to both groups, then, they were taught reading comprehension for 10 sessions but with different methodologies: the experimental group received a treatment of pictoglosses while the control group received a placebo. A posttest of reading comprehension was then administered to both groups. The data of the study were analysed using the two-way ANCOVA to indicate the groups mean difference. The results indicated that the Iranian EFL learners in the experimental group received higher reading comprehension score after being treated with 10 sessions of pictoglosses.

KEY WORDS: Pictogloss, Reading Comprehension Ability, Iranian EFL Learners, OPT, Methodology
Introduction

Reading is a process of finding meaning in text and is the active and thinking process of understanding print and graphic texts. In the reading uses many ways to convey the meaning of words and concepts. These clues include definitions, examples, descriptions, illustrations, clarification, notes, comparison and elaboration. Most reading texts use a variety of visual, graphic and text features to organize information, highlight important ideas, illustrate key concepts, and provide additional information.

Theoretical framework

The impression of the researcher is to investigate the effect of pictorial reading on the learner’s reading comprehension, because if the students can get the picture, often they have got the concept, and help them focus, remember and use their learning in new situations. When students do not get those pictures in their heads, the teacher may need to think aloud and talk them through the idea in the text, explaining the pictures that come to mind. According to Levin (1981) and Levie and Lenz (1982), pictorial text may facilitate comprehension and performance on all aspects of the text, because texts with pictures may be more enjoyable to read. Therefore, the use of verbal and pictorial gloss would enter the cognitive system through those two channels.

Harmer (2001) stated that picture are useful for a variety of communication activities such as, where one students draw and describe a picture and the other classmate draw the same picture without looking at the original. He also stated that pictures can be used in multiplicity of ways such as drills, communication (games), understanding, ornamentation, prediction, discussion. Pictures can also be used for creative language use, whether they are in a book or on cue cards, flashcard, or wall pictures. According to Yunus (1981) pointed out picture can motivate the students to take part and pay attention everything they want. Pictures are useful for presenting new grammatical and vocabulary items and it is also presenting for meaningful practice structures.

Pictorial material is easy to collect, to make and to transport. They can help you to prevent and correct disconcertation. Pictures are kinds of non-verbal communication instruction might be used to develop language skills and plays an essential role in conversation. Non-verbal communication consists of all the messages other than words that are used in communication. Non-verbal communication is understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless message such as, gesture, touch, by body language or posture, by facial expression and eye contact. According to Friesen, Wallace and Hagar (2002), non-verbal communication includes all forms of communication that are not part of the language we speak or write. Non-verbal communication provides individuals and groups with many options for presenting their messages such as, to repeat and reinforce what is said verbally (kinesics), to express emotion beyond the verbal elements (kinestics, vocalic), to promote honest communication by detecting or conveying deception (kinesics, oculesics). In order to understand the ways that fluent readers employ to comprehend a text, one way is to study the some components of process involved in reading.
According to Baker et al (1992), stated that Lower-level processing play an important role in terms of several processes. The recognition of the orthographic structure (recognizing letter shapes and line forms), the recognition of processing of phonemic information. The phonemic coding of the visual input seems to play an important role in word recognition and keeping information in working memory. Bottom-up processing models are data-driven, on the other hand, the researcher or listener focuses on individual words and phrase, and achieves understanding by stringing these detailed elements together to build up a whole. Some theorists believe that meaning reside in the text itself and they believe that text-based factors determine meaning like pictorial text implies that the proper approach in teaching students to read is to teach the language forms they will need to know to be able to comprehend the reading. The text-based approach is referred to as bottom-up processing (Bernhardt, 1984).

According to National Reading Panel (NRR, 2000), defined comprehension as intentional thinking which meaning is constructed between the reader and text content, motivation to read that text, and strategies to construct meaning. Here, there are some strategies one of which is using graphic organization because, comprehension is an abstract process. It has to become visible in order for students to learn how to construct meaning from text. Graphic organizers can help students organize information and identify how ideas are related to each other. These organizers can take the form of charts, graphs, pictures, or other graphics that help students organize information. The other one is visualizing, this involves students making mental images of the text they read (e.g., processes, events). Creating images that relate to the setting, characters, or plot of a narrative text can help students better recall what they have read.

Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

Even though reading is an essential skill, many language learners experience failure in reading and do not reach the desired level of proficiency in this respect. Reading failure and breakdown is the most significant reason that are assigned to special education, or given long-term remedial services (Saeidi, 2006). The reason is that traditionally, in L2 research, reading has been viewed as a single unitary construct and is measured through global tests of comprehension.

Bearing in mind as an interactive cognitive process between the reader and the text (Chastain, 1988), the failure of most students seems to be attributable to two major factors: the first problem, as it seems to be the case, has the root in text-based factor i.e. existence of unknown and unfamiliar words in the text and inadequate understanding of those words. Different ways has been suggested by different studies regarding what to do when encountering new words in a passage while reading it. Stopping the process of reading and looking up the meaning of every unknown word in a dictionary is one of the ways.
Almost everybody knows that this is a very time-consuming and boring method and, additionally, it distracts the readers' attention from what is being read. Since there are often several meanings in a dictionary for each single word, there is the possibility that the reader chooses the wrong and inappropriate meaning (Hulstijn, Hollander and Greidanus, 1996). One more way is to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context clues. The problem with guessing is that readers frequently make erroneous guessing and accordingly they learn words incorrectly. In view of the limitations of incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension advancement, considerable concerns have arisen over the applications of glosses. Although glossing of words meaning removes the above-mentioned problems to a great extent, evidently, it has not been well appreciated at least in Iranian schools and universities or it has not been appreciated to the individual learner's needs and differences.

The second sources of difficulties which contribute to the students' stoppage in achieving reading goals, is the lack of the attention to individual variables. As Saeidi (2006) stated, numerous EFL teachers in their educational systems employ the traditional and common (teacher-fronted) methods in teaching reading and ask all students to follow the method without paying any attention to the fact that the method may not be proper for all students. Put it simply, when learning to read, diverse groups of L2 learners are likely to encounter different problems driving from their multiple characteristics, including different ages, disparate L1 background, different types of intelligence, varying L2 proficiency, and so on. However, there is little attention to individual differences among (male and female) learners. The type of treatment designed for them is significant, but unfortunately, a common treatment is used for them. In relation to Birjandi and Noroozi (2008), there is strong evidence that the traditional modes of learning are often ineffective. A reading lesson, today, looks like and sounds much the same as it did in the 50's. On the other hand, the target population today is much more different from the classroom of the 50'.

However, the existence of unknown words in a reading passage is a major building block in developing reading comprehension; thus, there must be some suggestions for appropriate and efficient techniques to overcome this problem. For accomplishing this goal, the study aims to test the effectiveness of certain types of glosses (pictorial) on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. Second, the study is supposed to investigate whether or not the performance of Iranian male and female EFL learners on a test of reading comprehension differ significantly if they are instructed reading using picto-glosses.

**Significance and Justification of the Study**
This study intends to investigate the impact of pictorial glosses on improving the reading comprehension skill. It is hypothesized that pictorial gloss may help to generate (or reinforce) inferences, as types of mental activity (Glenberg, Mayer, & Lindem, 1987; Johnson-Laird, 1983). It may also serve to repeat important information, have large effects on memory (Glenberg, 1979; Greene, 1989), may facilitate
comprehension, and facilitate performance on tests of information. It may also be important in the retention, construction and management of mental activities in the working memory.

Levie and Lenz (1982) have investigated that the presence of visuals as pictures improved comprehension due to the four major functions that pictures serve in reading: first, they substantially overlap the text or repeat the text’s content, second, they improve the coherence of the text, third, they provide readers more concrete information, and finally, they not only demonstrate the text content, but develop the readers interest in material. They combined the effect of these four functions of pictures to facilitate the comprehension of the text.

Research Questions of the Study
Based on the literature that was reviewed here that represents the multiplicity of the research studies regarding the two variables of the study, this study aims to investigate the answer to the following questions:

RQ1: Does using picto-gloss affect Iranian EFL learners’ (male) reading comprehension ability?

RQ2: Does using picto-gloss affect Iranian EFL learners’ (female) reading comprehension ability?

As comes from the research questions of the study, the first and the second research questions have targeted the impact of using picto-gloss as an innovative technique in improving Iranian EFL learners both males and females; this means whether or not there may be any progress in the participants’ degree of ability in reading comprehension after treating the subjects of the study with the picto-gloss in the experimental group and applying a placebo in the control group of the study.

Hypotheses of the Study
Based on the mentioned research questions, that were asked here, this study aims to test the following hypotheses:

H1: Using picto-glosses does not affect Iranian EFL learners’ (male) Reading Comprehension Ability.

H2: Using picto-glosses does not affect Iranian learners’ (female) Reading Comprehension Ability.

Review of Literature
The purpose of this section is to review and to explore how the present study is aligned with current views in the field. This part of this chapter is to investigate the effect of different types on reading comprehension. Therefore, some essential fundamental aspects, which provide information on characteristics and theoretical aspects of some terms related to this study, need to be highlighted in this section.
**Language Manifestation**  

**Verbal Communication**

Communication can be classified as verbal or nonverbal. Both verbal and nonverbal communication can be divided into either vocal or non-vocal. Much of the communication happens between people is verbal; that is, it is language-based.

- Verbal communication of the vocal category includes spoken language.
- Non-vocal verbal communication involves written communication as well as communication that are transmitted through sign language, finger spelling, Braille, or other similar alternative to verbal language.

**Nonverbal Communication**

While verbal communication is much studied and is much applied attention in areas ranging from journalism to governance to entertainment, the fact is that human beings communicate more through nonverbal means. Nonverbal communication also is limited to culture. In particular, there are differences among cultures and nationalities about the relative value of speech against silence, the relative value of talk against action, the social role of small talk and the role of animation, rhyme and exaggeration in speech because of differences, the study of verbal and nonverbal communication always must be done within a social or cultural context.

Nonverbal communication is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless message, language is not the only source of the communication, there are other means also. Nonverbal communication can be communicated through gesture and touch, by body language or posture, by facial expressions and eye contact. Nonverbal communication is important for another reason as well; it can be efficient from both the sender’s and the receiver’s standpoint. You can transmit a nonverbal message without even thinking about it, and your audience can register the meaning unconsciously. When you have a conscious purpose, you can often achieve it more economically with a gesture than you can with words. A wave of the hand, a pat on the back, a wink—all is streamlined expressions of thought.

1) Facial expression and other body movements such as gestures, posture, and eye behavior are referred to as kinesics. Gestures and body movements are often associated with leadership display in groups. Eye contact is particularly important in group setting because it regulates who will talk next. When group members are willing to talk, they are more likely to look at the current speaker or at the leader or facilitator, clearing their intention to communicate. Group members often use facial expressions to demonstrate their agreement or disagreement of the topic being discussed or the person making the presentation. 2) Proxemics, or the use of space, is particularly important in group interactions because where group members sit relative to one another affects the flow of the conversation.
3) Haptics, or touch, is the use of the nonverbal signals that show conceptions of the warmth and liking. Group members can touch one another on the hands, shoulders, and arms to demonstrate their connection with one another. Handshakes are a common nonverbal signal used at the begging and end of meetings.

As noted above, nonverbal communication may be vocal (focusing on vocal characteristics such as pitch, rate, and so on) or nonverbal (focusing on body language, environments, attire and the like). According to Friesen, Wallace and Hagar (2002), non-verbal communication consists of all the messages other than words that are used in communication. In oral communication, these symbolic messages are transferred by means of intonation, tone of voice, vocally produced noises, body posture, body gestures, facial expressions or pauses. To have a successful business and to create your successful interpersonal relationships body language is essential, because many times we do not express in words exactly what we feel. But our bodies forward what we feel and so clearly reveal the secret of our thoughts or our feelings that can be ‘read’, decoded by those around us and may be used against us. Therefore, very often, it is pointed out the importance of deciphering nonverbal communication, especially in the business area. Any extra information, no matter how small it is, even a firm handshake, not watching in the eye, rubbing pen, a ring or a watch (often involuntary actions), describe accurately what is the interior ‘struggle’ or emotions of the person in front of us. The business environment is a very difficult one that is why it’s important to Gain an advantage by any means. The solution that is at hand for everyone is learning how to interpret the most important elements of non-verbal communication.

Verbal and nonverbal according to the Dual Coding Theory (Pavio, 1986), they are two different systems exist for information storage in human memory. Information in a symbolic representation is stored in the verbal system, while nonverbal information is stored is stored in the other system. The two systems are independent and allow for better recall if information is coded in both systems.

In a similar Chun and Plass (1996) report that words annotated with both verbal and visual modes were learned better than words annotated with verbal ones because learners were able to construct referential connections between two forms of mental representation, the verbal and the visual. They explain that ‘organizing information in working memory seems to be aided by learners making connections between the verbal and visual systems and this helps in linking information to components of the mental model in long term memory’ (pp:517). Kost et al (1999) and Jones (2004) also founded support for the hypothesis that subjects utilizing a combination of text and pictures in the gloss added to parts of their reading passages outperform subjects helped by non-pictorial gloss on the recognition of target words for both short-term memory and retention. The neuro-cognitive mechanism of this superiority has to do with the claim that the ways human brains store information is similar to the way visual images represent information, i.e., both utilize analogies, while verbal information is symbolic (Chun and Plass, 1997).
Using Pictures in Teaching Language Skills
Pictures and Images

Harmer (2001) stated that teachers have always used pictures of graphic-whether drawn, taken from books, newspapers and magazines, or photographs-to facilitate learning. Pictures can be used in a multiplicity of ways, as the following examples show: 1) Drills, with lower level students a traditional use for pictures-especially flashcard-is in cue response drill. We hold one up (the cue) before nominating a student and getting a response. Then we hold up another one, and nominate a different and so on. Flashcard is particularly useful for ‘drilling’ grammar items, for cueing different sentences, or practicing vocabulary. Some times teacher use larger wall pictures, where pointing to a detail of a picture will elicit a response such as there’s some milk in the fridge or John’s swimming in the pool, etc.

2) (Communication) games, pictures are extremely useful for a variety of communication activities, especially where they have a game-like feel, such as describe and draw activities where one student describes a picture and a paired classmate has to draw the same picture without looking at the original. We can also divide a class in to four groups (A, B, C, and D) and give each group a different picture that shows a separate stage in a story. Once the members of the group have studied their picture, we take it away. New groups are formed with four members each-one from group A, one from group B, one from group C and one from group D. By sharing the information they saw in their pictures, they have to work out what story the pictures together are telling.

3) Understanding, one of the most appropriate uses for pictures is for the presenting and checking of meaning. An easy way of explaining the meaning of the word aeroplane, for example, is to have a picture of one. In the same way it is easy to check students’ understanding of a piece of writing or listening by asking them to select the picture (out of, say, four) which best corresponds to the reading text or the listening passage. 4) Ornamentation, pictures of various kinds are often used to make more appealing. In many modern course books, for example, a reading text will be adorned by a photograph which is not strictly necessary, in the same way as in newspaper and magazine articles. The rationale for this is clearly that pictures enhance the text, giving readers (or students) a view of outside world. 6) Prediction, pictures are useful for getting students to predict what is coming next in a lesson. Thus students might look at a picture and try to guess what it shows (are the people in it brother and sister, husband or wife, and what are they arguing about – or are they arguing? etc). They then listen to a tape or read a text to see if it matches what they expected on the basis of the picture. This use pictures is very powerful and has the advantage of engaging students in the task to follow.

7) Discussion, pictures can stimulate question such as: What is it showing? How does it make you feel? What was the artist’s photographer’s purpose in designing it in that way? Would you like to have this picture in your house? Why? Why not? How much would you pay for the picture? Is the picture a work of art? Pictures can also be used
for creative language use, whether they are in a book or on cue cards, flashcard, or wall pictures. We might ask students to write a description of a picture; we might ask them to invent the conversation taking place between two people in a picture, or in a particular role-play activity, ask them to answer question as if they were the characters in a famous painting. The most important thing for pictures in the end is that they should be visible. They have to be big enough so that all our students- taking in to account where they will be sitting- can see the necessary detail.

Advantages of Picture Use
Following are some opinion concerning with the advantages of using pictures. According to Gerlach: 1) They are inexpensive and widely available. 2) They provide common experience for entire group. 3) The visual detail make it possible to study subject, which would turn back to be impossible. 4) The visual detail make it possible to study subject, which would turn back to be impossible. 5) They can help you to prevent and correct disconcertion. 6) They offer a stimulus to further study, reading and research visual evidence is power tool. 7) They help to focus attention and to develop critical judgment. 8) They are easily manipulated.

Disadvantages of Picture Used
There are some disadvantages of pictures used in teaching and learning process, such as: 1) Students pay attention on the picture more than on learned material. 2) It takes time and costs much to provide attractive pictures. 3) Small and unclear pictures may arouse problems in the teaching learning process since the students may understand about the pictures.

Pictures in Foreign Language Teaching
As Hill (1990) pointed out ‘the standard classroom’ is usually not a very suitable environment for learning languages. That is why teachers search for various aids and stimuli to improve this situation. Pictures are one of these valuable aids. They bring ‘images of reality in to the unnatural world of the language classroom’. (Hill 1990:1) pictures bring not only images of reality, but can also function as a fun element in the class. Sometimes it is surprising, how pictures may change a lesson, even if only employed in additional exercises or just to create the atmosphere.

Pictures meet with a wide range of use not only in acquiring vocabulary, but also in many other aspects of foreign language teaching. Wright (1990:4-6) demonstrated this fact on an example, where he used one complied picture and illustrated the possibility of use in five very different language areas. His example shows employing pictures in teaching structure, vocabulary, functions, situations, and all four skills. Furthermore he pointed out that ‘potential of pictures is so great that only a taste of their full potential can be given’ in his book. (Wright 1990: 6) to be more specific, beside lessons where pictures are in main focus, they might be used just as a ‘stimulus for writing and discussion, as an illustration of something being read or talked about, as background to a topic and so on’ (Hill 1990: 2).
However, ‘pictures have their limitations too’. (McCarty 1992: 115) for example in teaching vocabulary, pictures are not suitable for demonstrating the meaning of all words (McCarthy 1992: 115; Thornbury 2004: 81). It is hard to illustrate the meaning of some words, especially the abstract ones such as ‘opinion’ or ‘impact’. Therefore, in some cases, other tools are used to demonstrate the meaning, or alternatively pictures might be supplemented by other tools.

There are many reasons for using pictures in language teaching. As Wright (1990: 2) pointed out they are motivating and draw learners’ attention. This fact will be repeatedly demonstrated in the Practical Pare of this thesis. Furthermore, Wright (1990: 2) refers to the fact that they provide a sense of the context of the language and give a specific reference point or stimulus. Pictures, being suitable for any group of learners independently on age or level, can be used in lots of various ways. As Hill (1990: 2) stated, ‘what is done is limited only by the preparation time available, the visuals to hand and the imagination of the individual teacher’.

Hill (1990: 1) listed several advantages of pictures, such as availability (one can get them in any magazines, on the interest, etc); they are cheap, often free; they are personal (teacher selects them); flexibility – easily kept, useful for various types of activities (drilling, comparing, etc.), they are ‘always fresh and different’, which means they come in a variety of formats and styles and moreover the learner often wonders what comes next (Hill 1990: 1). From my experience, learners always pay attention and are curious about what are they going to do with the pictures shown. However, there is always a downside: it can be quite time consuming to find the right pictures for a specific type of activity for a beginning teacher who lacks his or her own collection. Still on the whole, this drawback is greatly outweighed by the above-mentioned pros. Furthermore, when the collection of pictures is once made; it can serve for a long time.

Another matter is the question of how to use pictures effectively. It counts as general methodological knowledge that in learning language, students should perceive the input through as many channels as possible. Therefore it is important to include variety of stimuli in teaching. It is important to find a balance and not to use pictures or visuals only but to combine them with other techniques and different types of stimuli (movement, verbal stimuli, sound, etc). Moreover, pictures used for demonstration of the meaning should be repeatedly connected with the spoken and subsequently also written form of the word or chunk of language.

Method
Design of the Study
The methodology of this study contained a number of steps: first, the participants of the study were selected via administering a proficiency test of OPT and assigned into four groups; then, the participants took a pretest of reading comprehension, so that the researcher had access to a set of reading scores for comparison. The third step was the treatment of the participants on using of the picto-gloss in the experimental groups of the study and applying a placebo to the control groups. Finally, the participants took
the posttest of reading comprehension the scores of which were compared with the pretest scores through statistical calculations.

Participants
The participants of this study were 60 B.A. students from the Islamic Azad University (Tonekabon Branch) majoring in teaching (30 males and 30 females). They were between 20 to 22 years of age and they were randomly selected from among 100 B.A in translation students via administering a proficiency test of OPT. The proficiency test consisted of 20 grammar and 20 vocabulary questions as well as 10 reading and 10 writing. These items evaluated both recognition and production skills of learners. The participants of this study then were those whose scores were at least one standard deviation below the mean. The rationale behind such a selection was that the target participants had to be weak in reading comprehension ability to be able to show possible progression as a result of being treated with pictogloss. Over-the-mean participants might be able to receive high scores in reading comprehension tests that would hinder the justification about the possible effect of using pictoglosses. Then, the male groups were divided into two subgroups of 15, one experimental and one control; also, the female groups were divided into two subgroups of 15, one the experimental and the other the control.

Materials (Instrumentation)
The proficiency test of OPT administered to select 60 (30 males and 30 females). The test contained 60 questions (20 grammar, 20 vocabulary, 10 reading comprehension and 10 writing) and assessed both recognition and production skills of the learner. The pretest of reading comprehension administered to the four groups of the study including experimental and the control groups for males as well as the experimental and the control groups for females. This test contained two reading comprehension passages and 20 multiple-choice or false/true reading comprehension questions. To investigate the possible effect of the treatment of the study (using picto-gloss), the posttest of the study administered. The characteristics of the posttest of the study resemble those of the pretest with minor modifications that made the posttest rather parallel to the pretest. The difficulty level of the reading comprehension passages calculated via the Edward Fry formula of Readability and was indicated to be appropriate since the resulting score did not fall inside the gray area in the formula; also, the reliability of the tests of this study calculated via applying the KR-21 formula of reliability estimation and was shown to be 0.65.

Procedures
This study examined reading comprehension performance in relation to picto-gloss texts. To achieve this goal, the subjects, were divided into two groups (30 males and 30 females). The participants took a pretest of reading comprehension; then, the next step was the treatment of the participants on using of the picto-gloss in the experimental groups of the study and using a placebo to the control groups. Finally, the participants took the posttest of reading comprehension the scores of which were compared with the pretest scores through statistical calculations.
Results

The Descriptive Analysis of the Data

This section focuses on the descriptive analysis of the obtained data in this study. Such analysis was done using the SPSS software. Table (4.1) shows the descriptive analysis for the pretest and the posttest of reading in the +pictogloss group of the study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Pictogloss</th>
<th>POSReading</th>
<th>PREReading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>+pictogloss</td>
<td>Mean 16.5333</td>
<td>9.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N=15)</td>
<td>Std. Deviation .91548</td>
<td>1.81265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance .838</td>
<td>3.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-pictogloss</td>
<td>Mean 6.0667</td>
<td>5.2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N=15)</td>
<td>Std. Deviation .96115</td>
<td>.41404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance .924</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(N=30)</td>
<td>Mean 11.3000</td>
<td>7.1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation 5.40211</td>
<td>2.32453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance 29.183</td>
<td>5.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>+pictogloss</td>
<td>Mean 9.5333</td>
<td>8.2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N=15)</td>
<td>Std. Deviation 2.44560</td>
<td>1.78085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance 5.981</td>
<td>3.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-pictogloss</td>
<td>Mean 6.3333</td>
<td>4.7333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N=15)</td>
<td>Std. Deviation .72375</td>
<td>.45774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance .524</td>
<td>.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(N=30)</td>
<td>Mean 7.9333</td>
<td>6.4667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation 2.40593</td>
<td>2.17721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance 5.789</td>
<td>4.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>+pictogloss</td>
<td>Mean 13.0333</td>
<td>8.6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation 3.99554</td>
<td>1.81184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance 15.964</td>
<td>3.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-pictogloss</td>
<td>Mean 6.2000</td>
<td>4.9667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation .84690</td>
<td>.49013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance .717</td>
<td>.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean 9.6167</td>
<td>6.7833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation 4.48006</td>
<td>2.25563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Variance 20.071</td>
<td>5.088</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As is indicated in table (1), the number of participants has been 30 in the male group ($N_{PRM+P} = 15; N_{PRM-P} = 15$), and there has been no missing value (Missing Value = 0.00) which means that all selected participants participated in the experiments of the study. The mean score for the PRM+P (pretest of reading for the male group with Pictogloss) was shown to be 9.00 ($\bar{X}_{PRM+P} = 9.00$) as compared to the mean score for the PoRM+P (posttest of reading for the male group with pictogloss) which was 16.53 ($\bar{X}_{PoRM+P} = 16.53$). As for the standard deviations obtained for the +Pictogloss group, there seems to be more variability among the PREReading scores than the scores in the POSReading. This may give an image of the participants’ posttest scores being more homogenous after conducting the treatment of the study (treating with pictogloss).

Similarly, the number of participants has been 30 in the female group ($N_{PRF+P} = 15; N_{PRF-P} = 15$), and there has been no missing value (Missing Value = 0.00) which means that all selected participants participated in the experiments of the study. The mean score for the PRF+P (pretest of reading for the female group with Pictogloss) was shown to be 8.20 ($\bar{X}_{PRF+P} = 8.20$) as compared to the mean score for the PoRF+P (posttest of reading for the female group with pictogloss) which was 9.53 ($\bar{X}_{PoRF+P} = 9.53$). As for the standard deviations obtained for the +Pictogloss group, there seems to be more variability among the POSReading scores than the scores in the PREReading. This may give an image of the participants’ posttest scores being more homogenous before conducting the treatment of the study (treating with pictogloss).

In addition, the mean score for the PRM-P (pretest of reading for the male group without Pictogloss) was shown to be 5.20 ($\bar{X}_{PRM-P} = 5.20$) as compared to the mean score for the PoRM-P (posttest of reading for the male group without pictogloss) which was 6.06 ($\bar{X}_{PoRM-P} = 6.06$). The mean score for the PRF-P (pretest of reading for the female group without Pictogloss) was shown to be 4.73 ($\bar{X}_{PRF-P} = 4.73$) as compared to the mean score for the PoRF-P (posttest of reading for the female group without pictogloss) which was 6.33 ($\bar{X}_{PoRF-P} = 6.33$).

The Inferential Analysis of the Data

This section focuses on the inferential analysis of the obtained data of this study. Such analysis was done using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) from which the ‘General Linear Model’ was selected and used to calculate the two-way ANCOVA. Table (2) illustrates the summary of the data for the inferential analysis (Two-Way ANCOVA) of the study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>1150.325(^a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>287.581</td>
<td>467.149</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>22.479</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22.479</td>
<td>36.515</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREReading</td>
<td>81.875</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>81.875</td>
<td>132.998</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>109.147</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>109.147</td>
<td>177.299</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.763</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Corrected Total 1184.183          59

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>58.973</th>
<th>95.796</th>
<th>.000</th>
<th>0.635</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sex * Pictogloss</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>180.786</td>
<td>293.670</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.858</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>6733.000</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2) indicates that differences between two groups (males and females) which were treated using pictures in reading comprehension and were not. The Sex*Pictogloss dichotomy shows that the significance level was calculated to be 0.00 (Sig=0.00), thus, since this level is lower than 0.05, the mean differences can be claimed to be significant and not by chance. In addition, the sex*pictogloss relationship was shown through large effect size (Eta=0.842), and the F value (F=293.670; p<0.005) was high enough to indicate the significant difference between the means of the targeted groups. In the third and fourth rows the significance is also lower than 0.05 which indicate that the mean differences between males and females groups were not by chance; this means that for sex there was a large size (Eta=0.763) with F value of 177.299 (p<0.005) which was high enough to confirm the difference between the means in both male and female groups.

Discussion

General Discussion

The present study is motivated by the need to shed some light on one of the main issues in TEFL, namely developing reading skill by removing obstacles which most teachers and students encounter in EFL classrooms. One of those obstructions has the root in text-based variables as existence of unknown and unusual words in a reading text. The second problem refers to the lack of the attention to the individual learners’ wants, needs and inherent abilities in designing classroom reading activities. Pertaining to these issues, the study was set up to explore the effect of two types of particular glosses .i.e., textual vs. pictorial as leading factors to overcome the problems and make the major advancement in reading comprehension achievement of the EFL learners. Types of glosses would affect students’ reading comprehension ability and readers utilizing pictorial gloss were expected to outperform those using textual gloss on reading comprehension test. To explore the factors that account for the efficacy of pictorial and textual (L1 meaning-given) glosses on reading comprehension, the fundamental features of pictorial and textual (L1 meaning-given) glosses should be explained.

There are several factors that can account for usefulness of these glosses. Pictorial glosses, as Chun Pan and Ching Pan (2009) state, can present crucial information more concisely than equivalent textual statements and facilitate mental model-building. They engage learners in cognitive and mental processes as recognition, graphic decoding, and intratextual perception which facilitate readers’ comprehension of not only simpler texts but also more difficult texts (Lomika, 1998; Mayer, 2001). Textual (L1-meaning-given) glosses play the role of dictionaries but unlike dictionaries which
distract readers’ attention from what is read and are time consuming, they lessen distraction and help readers to focus just on what is in a passage and refer to the in-text equivalents instantly during reading without being distracted by looking back and forth between words in the text and read the text as fast as they can. According to Cheng and Good (2009) subjects receiving the textual (L1 meaning-given) glosses can be viewed as engaging in three recurring tasks during reading, which also encourage text comprehension. Subjects read the text and encountered unfamiliar words. Then, they referred to the glosses and noted the meanings. Keeping the meanings in mind, they then had to return to the text and recall what they had just read to match the meanings with the textual information.

In current study textual (L1 meaning-given) glosses were somehow more effectual than pictorial gloss when scores of textual and pictorial glosses were compared although the difference was not statistically considerable. The most striking difference refers to the nature of pictorial glosses. In line with Yanguas (2009) pictures are less explicit than definitions and somehow open to interpretation and readers find it harder to get suitable meaning from some pictures accessed in the gloss. In current study, participants repeatedly claimed that the pictures were not helpful, even distracting and they had trouble comprehending some of the pictures. The other groups complained about the quality of the print and claimed that some pictures are unclear and indistinguishable in print. All in all, students who received pictorially-glossed passages believed that it would be superior to provide supplementary pictures or to provide textual and pictorial glosses collectively to refuse the confusion. This matter was a support for Dual Coding Theory (DCT) which focuses upon the interaction between visual and verbal systems. Conversely relating to the textually-glossed groups which received textual (L1 meaning-given) glosses and gained better result than pictorially-glossed group, there was no demand for adding extra information. For the reason that, as Yoshii (2006) states textual (L1 meaning-given) glosses are apparent enough that addition of picture which conveys the same information as the textual information may not be required. As a result, adding up of a picture does not come into view to particularly enhance the learners’ understanding of the words’ meaning.

The second factor which leads to the minimal differences, is when students come across unknown and un-glossed words and they struggle to decipher the meaning of those words making incorrect guesses and inferences which in turn lead to the misunderstanding and poor comprehension. The third factor refers to the students’ lack of syntactic knowledge or general reading ability even if the glosses are provided.

Results of Hypotheses Testing
In this section, the results of testing the hypotheses of the study have been presented and elaborated. In order to give a detailed analysis, attempts were made to take advantage of the results of the study (see chapter 4) as evidence to determine the rejection or support of the hypothesis. In addition, the rejection or support of the hypothesis was justified by explaining the consequences of such rejection or support,
i.e. what would happen if the hypotheses of the current study was rejected or supported. Before analyzing the hypothesis, they will be repeated below:

**Hypothesis 1 (H0):** Using Picto-glosses does not affect Iranian EFL learners’ (male) Reading Comprehension Ability.

**Hypothesis 2 (H0):** Using Picto-glosses does not affect Iranian EFL learners’ (female) Reading Comprehension Ability.

The hypotheses of the study which targeted the effect of using picto-glosses on Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension ability were both rejected. Evidence from the findings of the study could help to verify the rejection. The results of the descriptive analysis of the study (see table 4.1) could be employed to confirm this analysis, accordingly, the mean scores of the reading comprehension test in the pretest and the post test of the study were shown to be different in the +picto group as compared in the -picto group both in the male and the female groups of the study. However, the degree of progress from the pretest to the post test of the study was not identical in the male and the female groups: the males participants were more different in their scores of the posttest of reading as compared with the retest of reading, and as compared with the female group.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

This study investigated the effectiveness of glossing technique on reading comprehension ability of EFL learners. In the view of the current study, the following area may be explored further: 1) In this study there was a lack of measurement for the time spent on reading comprehension task by each group. It seemed that students receiving pictorially-glossed passages needed extra time on reading than students who received textually-glossed passages. The reason is that some pictures were vague for some students and they needed more time processing the meaning of the message in the pictures. The suggestion for coming studies is to measure the time spent by subjects on reading comprehension and to investigate how much this factor affects students’ performance plus result of the study.

2) As was stated earlier, glosses bring about the long-term retention and easier retrieval of target words. The study measures the impacts of glosses just on reading comprehension and there was no opportunity to measure their effects on vocabulary acquisition. Whereas vocabulary learning is a prerequisite for reading comprehension, they have been shown to have different effects on reading comprehension and long-term retention of vocabulary items in different ways (Yoshii, 2006). Consequently, it is suggested that other studies make use of appropriate vocabulary tests to measure the immediate and long-term effects of glosses on vocabulary acquisition and retention.

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MODELS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN SLA 
AND 
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ABSTRACT
This paper reviewed the most prominent studies on individual differences (ID) in the realm of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). To this end, three major ID models were explained and critically evaluated. The models reviewed in the present study were ‘the Model of School Learning’, ‘the Good Language Learner Model’ and ‘the Monitor Model’. Next, the individual variables were classified based on the literature to shed light on the existing controversies. From among these variables, the concept of intelligence, with respect to the proposed models and previous studies, was elucidated in detail. In particular, the problems of defining and testing intelligence were enumerated and the need for studies on individual variables was highlighted.

KEY WORDS: Individual Differences, SLA, Intelligence.

1. Introduction
Successful second language acquisition (SLA), an obvious goal of anyone in the field of language learning, is a great concern to applied linguists. In fact, in a class with similar facilities, the students progress differently. While some students learn faster, others might face hardship during learning and sometimes some of them fail to succeed at all. There are neurolinguistic, cognitive, and social factors which influence learning greatly; however, individual factors also play an important role in successful SLA. Second language (L2) learning “demands a level of personal engagement unlike … any other subject-matters studied in academic settings” (Horwitz, 1995, p. 573). Brown (2007) found self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, anxiety, empathy, and motivation as the main individual factors which influence successful SLA.
Dörnyei (2005) defines individual differences (IDs) as “enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree” (p.4). It means that anything that makes an individual distinct from others should be focused on. The importance of considering IDs in SLA has been given a great attention in most language teaching books and journals. It is undoubtedly true that different characteristics are brought to language classrooms by different individuals. The study of IDs has a great history that predates the beginning of SLA as a field of enquiry (Ellis, 2008).

The beginning of IDs studies, first introduced by psychologists, can be traced back to the end of 19th century. These studies grew constantly until 1950s when the seminal work Differential Psychology by Anastasi (1958) flourished in this field of study and since then, lots of researches in this field have been carried out. Early studies on IDs and SLA, in the 1960s, were product-oriented like Carroll’s model of school learning, but in 1970s most studies focused on more process-oriented approaches like Good Language Learner model.

2. Models related to individual differences and SLA
Model-making has always been considered as a good way of finding relationships between variables in every science. As such, models in SLA have always been welcomed. Some models investigating the relationship of IDs and SLA have been proposed. Three of these will be discussed.

2.1 The Carroll model of school learning: an interactional model
The Carroll model for school learning was proposed in the early 1960s (Carroll, 1963). This model (Figure 1) consists of two major classes of variables (instructional factors and individual differences) and each of these is sub-categorized.

![Diagram of the Carroll model](Skehan, 1989)

**Figure 1.** The Carroll model of school learning: an interactional model (Skehan, 1989)

Time is the first instructional factor which refers to the spending time of learning; the greater the time, the greater the learning. Excellence of instruction is the next one. Since the publication of Carroll’s model, a lot of changes have taken place in terms of
good teaching and now there is not such a thing as a good method of teaching. However, we can consider this factor as being successful in teaching or not.

The first variable in individual differences is intelligence. Carroll defined intelligence as the learner’s capacity to analyze and understand instructions in order to get what is required of him in learning situations and a talent for not wasting one’s effort. Next variable is aptitude which some scholars like Teepen (2005) find as intelligence. Nonetheless, the correlation between aptitude and intelligence is undeniable (Skehan, 1989). The last variable is motivation which is related to learner’s willingness for being successful.

Skehan (1989) stated that Carroll’s model ignored some variables like learning strategies, context of learning and process of learning, although it is of interest because it attempts to be more than a static listing of influences. This model tries to specify the nature of interaction between variables and how a change in one variable affects the others. As an example, he believes that having a group of high intelligent students can compensate for time pressure, or vice versa.

2.2 The Good Language Learner (GGL) model
Some years after Carroll’s model, good language learner (GLL) model has been proposed by Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978).

This model (Figure 2) consists of five boxes - presenting different classes of variables. Teaching, the learner, and the context are the first three independent variables which are subdivided further. Intelligence is one factor in the learner box. Learning is the next box in the dependent variable of the model and which is also subdivided. The last box, outcome, is made of some measures like errors or affective reasons.
This model covered the lacks of Carroll’s model, and considered teaching, learner, and context simultaneously. Skehan (1989) found three advantages in this model. First, it informs us about the range of potential effects on language learning success. It proves the difficulty of studying just one variable in isolation, and it tells us what range of variables should be controlled. The second advantage is the quantification of different effects. It means that just demonstrating an effect is not enough. How important the effect is must also be assessed. The last advantage of the model refers to interaction influences. As an example, methodology and personality interact, as introvert learners do well in teacher-led classroom, extrovert learners match well with communicated oriented classrooms, and both groups fail to learn when exposed to an inappropriate methodology.

2.3 The ‘Monitor’ model

Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) proposed the following model:

Considering the five components of the model, in three general areas variation is important. The first one is input where quantity and quality of comprehensible input are involved. Affective filler is the second source of variation. Krashen (1985) suggests that this could be raised or lowered. Learners’ intelligence or motivation may differ, and this component will determine how much input is let through. Potentially, this is the most related part of the model to IDs. The last one is monitor use and the notion of ‘over-users’ and ‘under-users’ proposed by Krashen. He defined over-users as learners whose constant striving for correctness inhibits output, whereas under-users are learners whose lack of concern with correctness leads to garrulous but less grammatical performance.

‘Monitor’ in this model has been criticized for not being related to other components of the model by many scholars. As this model focuses on process rather than product, Skehan (1989) argued that monitor is concerned with on-the-spot performance, but the rest of the model deals with the process of learning over a longer time. One of the biggest problems of the model is its explanation of variations. McLaughlin (1987b) questioned the notion of variation in this model. He pointed out that not enough
attention is paid to how the affective fillers change level, or the model does not explain how comprehensible input can be specified without circularity.

Dornyei (2005) studied Carroll’s model and GLL model and came to the conclusion that besides a high degree of language aptitude and motivation, other individual factors like students’ own active and creative participation in the learning process can help learners to excel. Skehan (1989) also discussed all these three models in his book, and considering all positive and negative points of each model, he found GLL model more appropriate as a guiding framework in this area. He also proposed a classification of IDs items based on these models.

3. Classifications of Individual Differences

Most studies on IDs and SLA tried to develop a classification of IDs through listing items. These lists or classifications have changed during the development of IDs researches. Some of the most important types are discussed here briefly.

Based on Gardner (1985), there are four types of IDs which influence SLA directly: intelligence, language aptitude, motivation, and situational anxiety. He also added some other factors as major variables such as cognitive and affective factors and some as subconstructs of them like personality.

Skehan (1989) listed language aptitude, motivation, language learning strategies, and cognitive factors as four IDs factors influencing learning. In this classification the last factor, cognitive and affective factors, is subdivided to extroversion/introversion, risk-taking, intelligence, field independence, and anxiety.

Robinson (2002) considered six factors, intelligence, motivation, anxiety, language aptitude, working memory, and age. As the important role of age in SLA is obvious to nearly all linguists, considering it as an IDs factor was a little bit surprising. An example which can prove the importance of age is Ellis (2008) who integrates age in about every chapter of his book and did not list it as an IDs factor.

Ellis (2004) categorized factors responsible for IDs in SLA. In this classification, there are four categories and in each category some factors are involved. First category is abilities that intelligence, working memory, and language aptitude are considered as its factors. Learning style, motivation, anxiety, personality, willingness to communicate are five factors which go under the second category, namely, propensities. The third category is learner cognition about L2 learning that refers to learner beliefs. The last one is learner actions; and learning strategies is considered as its factor.

Dörnyei (2005) outlined the IDs factors which influence SLA. He named personality, language aptitude, motivation, learning cognitive styles, and language learning strategies as major factors and identified anxiety, creativity, willingness to communicate, self-esteem, and learners belief as peripheral factors which have been placed under the category of other learner characteristics.
As it was noted earlier, different researchers list different factors to take into account while studying SLA, but one factor that has always played a crucial role in IDs is intelligence, whether as a major factor or as a subdivision of affective factors. Intelligence is one of the individual factors which should be taken into consideration. According to Teepen (2005), there is a strong relationship between intelligence and SLA. He stated that “higher IQ scores correlated with better performance on academic aspects of second language acquisition” (p. 8). McLaughlin (1987a) also believed in intelligence as one of the most important factors in SLA.

4. Intelligence

Over the past few decades, research on different factors that affect foreign language learning and teaching has been the focus of attention for many researchers. Intelligence is a topic about which many articles and books have been written, but still most researchers continue to feel confused about its definition.

4.1 Definition of Intelligence

People usually define intelligence as a general problem-solving skill, but is it that much simple? A lot of definitions in this field have been proposed which can be classified into three categories: dictionary definitions, psychologists’ definitions and definitions from researchers in artificial intelligence.

As most dictionary definitions are sourced from other dictionaries, this study has tried to list the original sources. The American Heritage Dictionary (2000) defines it as the capacity to acquire and apply knowledge. Longman Dictionary (2009) defines it as the ability to learn, understand, and think about things. But some dictionaries like Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2005) have more comprehensive definitions; it defines it as the ability to learn, understand and make judgments or have ideas which are based on reason. All Words Dictionary also defined intelligence as the ability to use memory, experience, knowledge, imagination, reasoning, understanding and judgment in order to solve problems and adapt to new situations.

Since not all psychologists’ definitions are available and useful, only some of them are listed below. It seems that the first logical definition of intelligence in psychology was given by Binet (In Binet & Simon, 1905). He believes that in intelligence there is a fundamental faculty, the alteration or the lack of which, is of the utmost importance for practical life. This faculty is judgment, otherwise called good sense, practical sense, initiative, the faculty of adapting one’s self to situations. But later on, Henmon (1921) simply defined it as the capacity for knowledge, and knowledge possessed. Thurstone (1924) did not find intelligence as simple as Henmon; he considered intelligence as a mental trait which is the capacity to make impulses focal at their early, unfinished stage of formation. So intelligence, an inhibitory process, is the capacity for abstraction. Drever (1952) believed that intelligence is present in its lowest terms where the individual animal, or human being, is aware of the relevance of his behavior to a goal. Many definitions of what is indefinable have been attempted by psychologists, of which the least unsatisfactory are: 1. the capacity to meet novel situations, or to learn to do so, by new adaptive responses and 2. the ability to perform tests or tasks,
involving the grasping of relationships, the degree of intelligence being proportional to
the complexity, or the abstractness, or both, of the relationship. Piaget (1963) defined
intelligence as being assimilation to the extent that it combines all the given
information of experience within its own framework. Undoubtedly, mental life is also
accommodation to the environment. Assimilation can never be pure because by
incorporating new elements into its earlier schemata the intelligence constantly
modifies the latter in order to adjust them to new elements. The last psychologist
whose definition is taken into account is Gardner (1993). He found intelligence as the
ability to solve problems, or to create products, that are valued within one or more
cultural settings. He also proposed different kinds of abilities that lie under
intelligence and named it *Multiple Intelligences*. These different kinds are linguistics
(involved in reading, listening, writing and talking), musical (involved in playing,
composing, singing and conducting), logical-mathematical (involved in solving logical
puzzles, deriving proofs, and performing calculation), spatial (involved in moving
from one location to another or determining one’s orientation in space), bodily-
kinesthetic (involved in using one’s body to perform skillful and purposeful
movement), interpersonal (involved in understanding of others or one’s relations to
other), intrapersonal (involved in understanding of oneself and having insight into
one’s own thoughts, actions and emotions). Later in 1999, he added one more type to
it, namely, naturalistic intelligence which involves understanding and working
effectively in natural world.

Researchers in artificial intelligence have also tried to define intelligence in their own
sense. Most of these researchers mentioned “environment” in their definitions. Newell
and Simon (1976) stated that in any real situation behavior appropriate to the ends
of the system and adaptive to the demands of the environment can occur, within some
limits of speed and complexity. Albus (1991) defined intelligence as the ability of a
system to act appropriately in an uncertain environment, where appropriate action is
that which increases the probability of success, and success is the achievement of
behavioral subgoals that support the system’s ultimate goal. Poole, Mackworth and
Goebel (1998) described an intelligent agent as a person who does what is appropriate
for its circumstances and its goal; it is flexible to changing environments and changing
goals; it learns from experience, and it makes appropriate choices given perceptual
limitations and finite computation. Another scholar who mentioned environment in its
definition is Nakashima (1999). He believes that intelligence is the ability to process
information properly in a complex environment. The criteria of properness are not
predefined and hence not available beforehand. They are acquired as a result of the
information processing. McCarthy (2004) defined intelligence as the computational
part of the ability to achieve goals in the world. Varying kinds and degrees of
intelligence occur in people, many animals and some machines.

All these definitions (dictionary definitions, psychologists’ definitions and definitions
from researchers in artificial intelligence) have some features in common. Legg and
Hutter (2006; p. 8) tried to consider all these features to find the best definition and
they defined it as “intelligence measures agent’s ability to achieve goals in a wide
range of environments." On the other hand, most SLA researchers like Skehan (1989) and Teepen (2005), with respect to psychologists, have defined intelligence differently. They defined it as something that can be measured from the performance of individuals on a standardized test. Therefore in SLA intelligent learner is the one who performs better on IQ tests. As intelligence in SLA depends on standard tests, these tests should be given enough credit.

4.2 Testing Intelligence
Most IQ tests measure some common abilities like verbal ability, reasoning ability, and memory simultaneously. However, only a few of these abilities are considered to be effective in SLA. The first intelligence test was designed by Binet and Simon (1905) to separate slow and fast learners in school programs. This test and the notion of intelligence test itself were not popular until the construction of Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT).

Carroll and Sapon (1959) proposed MLAT based on the idea that people have fixed amount of ability for being successful at language learning. According to them, this test could predict one’s success at learning a second/foreign language, and there is evidence to confirm its predictive value.

Vernon (1964; cited in Williams & Burden, 1997) tried to break intelligence to three parts, Intelligence A, Intelligence B, and Intelligence C. He defined Intelligence A as an inborn ability which varies from individual to individual for genetic reasons. Due to the fact that we are all affected by our environment from birth, Intelligence A can never be measured. Intelligence B refers to the intelligence we display in our everyday lives which is constantly changing and is context-bound. Intelligence C is what IQ tests measure. Therefore, based on this triple intelligence, what is measured through an IQ test is only a tiny part of the real intelligence.

Gardner (1983) argued that instead of viewing intelligence as a unitary item, we should consider different kinds of intelligences. As it was noted earlier, he identified eight kinds of intelligence that only one of them refers to linguistic ability. Despite his logical idea of intelligence, still some fundamental questions can be asked. Is intelligence something fixed or can it be improved? How can these kinds of intelligence be assessed? Do teachers need to use different methods for the learners with different IQ?

Overall, “conventional IQ tests have been found to be quite (but not very) good at predicting academic success, including success at learning languages” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 19). The two main types of IQ tests are verbal intelligence tests and non-verbal intelligence tests.

Verbal intelligence tests include analyzing information and solving problems using language-based reasoning. It means that in these kinds of tests which are usually presented in forms of missing letters, missing numbers or figures, word formation, and multiple choices, linguistic ability plays a crucial role. On the other hand, non-verbal
intelligence tests assess intelligence without placing any language demand on either examinee or examiner. These kinds of tests that have nothing to do with language are usually presented in forms of matrix and series of pictures. Non-verbal intelligence tests are usually preferred to be used in SLA researches, because the insufficient knowledge of language does not harm the performance of examinee in intelligence tests.

5. Conclusion
All studies, models, and theories which were discussed and reviewed in this study show the paramount role of individual differences in SLA. With respect to all factors affecting SLA, individual differences factors and particularly intelligence seem to play a crucial role in SLA. Therefore, individual factors should be considered as important part of any study in SLA. Due to the controversies over defining and assessing intelligence, further studies are recommended.

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TOWARDS THE INCORPORATION OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN ELT MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT: A SURVEY ON THE IRANIAN TEACHERS AND UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS’ ATTITUDES

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ABSTRACT
Curriculum in Critical Pedagogy turns around the idea that through humanizing the whole educational system, critical consciousness is to be fostered in the students’ mind with the result of challenging the status quo in the society. Critical pedagogy (CP) as a new trend in ELT, seeks to lead both teachers and learners towards emancipation. In the way that they tend to scrutinize the present value system and ideologies with the purpose of reform whenever there is a call for that. However, despite the growing enthusiasm towards this new trend, few studies have been conducted in this regard, particularly in terms of materials development in CP. Since materials are regarded as the most influential elements in ELT programs, the present paper attempted to offer some guidelines for ELT materials development based on previous studies at both school and tertiary level according to the major tenets of critical pedagogy. To this end, a questionnaire survey was conducted on 44 institute teachers and University Professors, inspecting their attitudes towards the principles of CP. The differences between the institute teachers and university professors’ attitudes were investigated across a number of variables including gender, major, degree, type of institute and professional seniority making use of “A Critical Pedagogy Attitude Questionnaire” developed by Pishvaei and Kasaian (2013). In terms of data analysis, t-test and ANOVA were used. The findings revealed no significant differences between the institute teachers and university professors concerning the mentioned variables. Furthermore, both groups seemed to approve of the principles of critical pedagogy in their answers to the questionnaire. Despite that, still there seems to be
a long path to be paved in order to implement the principles of CP in Iranian educational systems.

**KEYWORDS:** ELT programs, Emanicipation, Critical pedagogy, Curriculum, Humanizing.

1. **Introduction**

“Critical” or “resistance” pedagogy can be regarded as a relatively new trend in the domains of teaching and learning. This approach was born out of a movement calling for an anti-establishment revolution in the schools that seemed to question all the predefined educational standards. Critical pedagogy emerged by the thinking and pedagogic practice of Antonio Gramsci along with the works of key thinkers of Frankfurt school and finally flourished in the writings of the Brazilian educator and social activist, Paulo Freire. As the so-called father of CP, Freire’s voice was fully recognized through his outstanding work “Pedagogy of the Oppressed” in 1970. Major authors associated with CP include Paulo Freire, Wolfgang Klafki, Michale Apple, Peter McLaren, Ira Shor, and Henry Giroux.

As a new perspective towards education in the postmodern era, CP seeks to assign transformative roles to both teachers and students in the society and to raise their consciousness in order to fill the gaps. According to Rust (1991), postmodernism puts into question the continuing relevance in the “postmodern” age of education systems which were designed to fit “modern” purposes, i.e., when “schools served as universalizing institutions, promoting unifying ideals”.

As Norton and Toohey (2004) contend, in CP education is looked at through a political enterprise window. Consequently, the learners’ critical consciousness is to be revised in order to be aware of their sociopolitical surroundings and fight against the status quo and inequalities in the classroom and society with the intention of transformation.

Justifying the significance of social change, Noroozisiam and Soozadefar (2012), state that when we focus on social transformation, education proves to be considered as a political issue in need of being politically dealt with. Such education instigates everything including curriculum, materials, teachers and learners. Since the classroom is a locus for a non-threatening environment where CP can be implemented devoid of any superiority of a dominant policy. As a result, due to the fact that language learning classrooms are far removed from historical and political conditions (Okazaki, 2005), many researchers apt for CP implementation in language classrooms in order to investigate the sociohistorical and political angles of language learning (Benesch, 2001; Canagarajah, 1992, 2002; Morgan, 1998; Norton, 1997; Norton & Toohey, 2004; Pennycook, 1999, 2001; Ramanthan, 2002).

What is more, as Heras (1999) claims, failures and successes of an educational system are attributed to the people’s linguistic and socio-cultural interaction which
are under the influence of dominant ideology, institutional practice and social relations. Along the lines of Heras, Sadeghi and Ketabi (2009), also assert that CP seeks to foster some sort of critical consciousness in the students with the purpose of challenging the domination and frustration that may dictate particular modes of thought and action. CP, in deed, as Kessing-styles (2003) points out, is a way of confronting and resisting inequalities and oppressive power relations witnessed in educational institutions educationally. It is crystal clear that, the wish cannot be accomplished if language learning equals just language skills and communicative competence acquisition at the cost of ignoring the cultural and sociopolitical context in which it occurs.

In terms of English Language Teaching (ELT), due to the tenets of CP, cultural and political neutrality of English makes no sense. From Sadeghi’s (2009) perspective, CP asserts that social and cultural values and inequities are embodied in English language teaching, though, indirectly. CP inspired several studies which have probed disparate angles of EFL/ESL such as “seeking critical classroom practices”, “educating teachers for change”, “seeking critical research practices”, critical assessment”, “challenging learners’ identities”, “creating and adapting materials for critical pedagogies”, etc (Norton & Toohey, 2004). In terms of the last topic, Crookes (2009) claims that critical L2 pedagogy could be amended practically in case more assorted sample materials which touch upon theories of language in critical L2 pedagogy classrooms were in access.

Despite the significance of materials development in language learning programs as Richards (2010) points out, not many studies have been conducted in CP in this regard. Consequently, due to the absence of a comprehensive framework to develop materials on critical pedagogy (Rashidi & Safari, 2011), in an endeavor to investigate the possibility for adopting CP in the Iranian context in terms of ELT materials development and to the extent to which teachers and professors support implementing such an approach, the present study aims to explore professors and teachers’ attitudes towards CP across a number of variables including gender, major, degree, type of institution and professional seniority. With such purposes in mind, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. Do Iranian university professors and institute teachers support the principles of CP?

2. Is there any difference between university professors and institute teachers with regard to the principles of CP?

3. Is there any difference between teachers and professors’ views on the principles of CP according to their gender, the level they teach, major, degree and professional seniority?
2. Literature Review
As an offspring of the postmodern era, CP has recently gained momentum in educational systems. As McLaren (2003) puts forward, “CP is a way of thinking about, negotiating and transforming the relationship amongst classroom teaching, the production of knowledge, the institutional structures of the school and the social and material relations of the wider community, society and nation-state” (p.35). According to Kincheloe (2005), CP is there in order to bring about some changes in power relations that leads to the “dichotomy of oppressers and oppressed” (Rashidi & Safari, 2011 in the society.

In the same vein, Kincheloe (2008), touches upon the following tenets as the basic themes in CP: identifying sources of power, the political nature of education, the understanding of the politics of knowledge, justice and equality in education, the rejection of economic determinism, the lessening human suffering, change in relationship between student and teacher and the promotion of emancipation and intellectual growth as central characteristics of CP.

Some scholars focused their efforts on the evaluation and justification of CP and the clarification of its themes. Some of them (Arnett, 1993; Hooks, 1994; Popkewitz, 1997; & Schutz, 1998) have written on the potential and merits of the use of dialogue as one principle of CP in critical approaches to teaching. Milner (2003), highlighted the significance of CP in enhancing racial awareness by considering the students as complete persons. Put it differently, he concentrated on moving towards humanizing the whole educational system, the very concept called upon in CP.

CP has been considered beneficial not only in education but also in other fields. For instance, teacher training (Bartolome, 2004; Kessing-styles, 2003), intercultural studies (Hovey, 2004), post modernity (Giroux, 2004; James, 2008), and technology (Holst, 2003, as cited in Yilmaz, 2009). Shor (1996), elaborated on his experiences with CP while trying to implement and practice it in his classroom. In addition, Horan (2004), reported the merits and demerits of operationalizing CP in her classroom context.

In terms of the teachers’ awareness in CP, a good number of studies have been conducted. Abdelrahim (2007), enquired into the relationship between gender and experience with teachers‘ awareness of CP. Findings of his study revealed that there is no significance difference between gender and experience in teachers‘ awareness of CP.

Hollstien (2006), assessed the extent to which preservice social studies teachers at Ohio University, understood and made use of CP. According to the results, due to the lack of immersion, the participants lacked an understanding of CP. Second, they could not implement the principles of CP in their classroom. Third, they misunderstood the aims of CP for the sole purpose of social activism for change.
Despite the proliferation of CP principles by a Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire, the study by the Brazilian scholars, Cox and Assis-Peterson (1999), exploring the Brazilian English teachers’ awareness of CP in ELT represented that, in fact, they were unaware of CP. However, a recent study by Jorge (2009), indicated the teachers’ familiarity with the concept but exclusively amongst the elite sectors in Brazil.

Yilmaz (2009), investigated the teachers’ views towards CP across a number of variables, e.g., gender, education, seniority and place of school. Based on the findings of the study, the teachers were moderately in agreement with the principles of CP. There was a significant difference among their views in terms of educational background, professional seniority and the environment of the school where they worked. However, no significant difference was reported between the teachers’ views towards CP regarding their gender.

According to Canagarajah’s (2005) outlook, ELT programs suffer from some ethical issues and through English teaching, language policies can penetrate into the educational systems in the third world countries. He claims that around the cold war, ELT transformed into a far-reaching activity served as a pathway to practice hegemony. Not unlike other scholars, Pennycook (1990) points out that, ideological goals of ELT and simulating materials are presented to the world through linguistic principles.

With regard to operationalizing CP in ELT, Canagarajah (2005), believes in the transformation of the abstract themes of CP into some practical techniques so that both the teachers and students can make due use of it in order to bring about changes in the society in general and in the classroom in particular. Furthermore, Akbari (2008), asserts that “the discourse of CP is the discourse of liberation and hope” (p.277).

Many a scholars have criticized ELT and in particular ELT materials on a number of grounds. For instance, Brown (1990) claims that “best sellers are increasingly marketed to Westernized young adult” (p.13). Rinvolucri (1999) is also against the content of ELT course books. Since through ELT, some sort of Utopia is portrayed free from the subtleties of real life for the learners, in the way that the learners’ own culture is put under question and the defects are exaggerated.

CP disapproves of using commercially produced textbooks in the classroom as according to Crawford (1978), this way the learners are in danger of losing their creativity in the process of English language learning. Consequently, as Crookes (2009) contend, “fully worked out sample materials” have to be used in order to contribute to the practicality of critical L2 pedagogy.
In line with the aforementioned body of research, the present study sets out to shed more light on first, the basic principles of CP in terms of ELT programs and second, teachers and professors' views towards CP across a number of variables.

Based on Rashidi and Safari (2011), 11 principles can be taught in terms of the incorporation of CP in ELT materials development:

**Principle 1:** Learners’ communicative abilities in line with their critical consciousness have to be promoted through ELT materials.

**Principle 2:** By means of ELT materials, learners have to accomplish two wishes, language mastery and social development.

**Principle 3:** ELT topics are to stimulate abundant cooperation and discussion on the part of the learners.

**Principle 4:** Some sort of needs analysis has to be conducted in order to find about learners’ needs and interests that can be used in ELT materials development.

**Principle 5:** Gradation has to be taken into account in presenting the content.

**Principle 6:** Through thought-provoking activities, tasks, and audiological practices, English should be taught.

**Principle 7:** ELT materials are mostly derived from source culture rather than target culture.

**Principle 8:** The teacher’s role is as a co-learner and coordinator regarding ELT materials.

**Principle 9:** In ELT materials, teachers are expected to bring their awareness of the implications of the internationalization of English.

**Principle 10:** ELT materials should pay due attention to the learner’s role as a decision-maker and subject of the act.

**Principle 11:** Regarding evaluative activities, the students are expected to enhance their critical consciousness in line with their language mastery.

As for the second phase of the study, a quantitative method was called upon, i.e., questionnaire administration in order to identify and examine Iranian ELT university professors and institute teachers’ attitudes towards CP.
3. Methodology
Participants
The participants of the second phase of the study composed of English institute teachers. This study also addressed English university professors due to the importance of CP at tertiary level in our educational system. The respondents were English professors and teachers holding BA, MA, or PhD degrees in different English majors including Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), English Literature, Translation and General Linguistics. Their characteristics are provided in the following tables:

Participants’ Characteristics
Frequencies

Table 1 Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Major

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>teaching</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>translation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>linguistics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>88.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>literature</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 TI (Type of Institute)
Table 5 PS (Professional Seniority)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>institute</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instrument
This quantitative study made use of a Critical Pedagogy Attitude Questionnaire which is a likert-type measure. This questionnaire developed by Pishvaei and Kasaian (2013), encompasses 24 items. The Cronbach Alpha Cioefficient of the scale turned out to be .93. Based on Hatch and Lazaraton (1991), this index is acceptable and strong in educational research. In addition, picking Principal Component Analysis, the questionnaire was confirmed in terms of construct validity as well. The scale was answered as follows: 5—Strongly Agree, 4—Agree, 3—Neutral, 2—Disagree, 1—Strongly Disagree. Total scoring of the answers showed the extent to which participants agreed with the principles of CP. This scale has been devised by Pishvaei and Kasaian (2013), exclusively to be used in Iranian context.

Procedure
Data Collection
The researcher distributed the questionnaire through face-to-face contact or e-mail. In each questionnaire, namely, the paper version and the electronic one, the purpose of the study and a request for participants were stated. The data were collected over a 4-week period.

Data Analysis
Having administered the questionnaire, the data were used as input to get the results for data analysis. Descriptive statistics were estimated and t-test and one-way ANOVA were also run in order to compare the means. Moreover, the nominal data of the questionnaire were transformed into interval data by assigning 5 to 1 to the scales on the questionnaire. Finally, the sum of the numbers were regarded as the total score of the questionnaire.

4. Results
Investigation and Analysis of the Responses to Question 1:
The first research question was “Do Iranian university professors and institute teachers support the principles of CP?” As clearly shown in Table 6, teachers and university professors’ perceptions of the principles of critical pedagogy in general indicates a relatively high mean. So, it can be said that Iranian school teachers and university professors support critical pedagogy principles.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>76.00</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>82.1136</td>
<td>4.33062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Investigation and Analysis of the Responses to Question 2:

The second research question was “Is there any difference between university professors and institute teachers with regard to the principles of CP? In order to answer this question, an independent samples t-test was run.

Table 7 T-test Results of the comparison of the Institute Teachers and University Professors’ Views about the Principles of Critical Pedagogy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>TI</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CP institute</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>82.8947</td>
<td>4.78301</td>
<td>1.09730</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>81.5200</td>
<td>3.94884</td>
<td>.78977</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Std. Error Difference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.37474</td>
<td>1.31666</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td>1.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>1.017</td>
<td>34.530</td>
<td>.316</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it has been shown in the table, the Sig. (2-tailed) shows value the value of .30, that is greater than .05 at p<.05 level. So, it can be concluded that the difference is not significant and there aren’t any differences between university professors and institute teachers with regard to the principles of CP.

3.3. Investigation and Analysis of the Responses to Question 3:
The third research question was “Is there any difference between teachers and professors’ views on the principles of CP according to their gender, the level they teach, major, degree and professional seniority?” In order to answer this question, one t-test and two ANOVAs were run.

Table 8 T-test Results of the comparison of the Institute Teachers and University Professors’ Views about the Principles of Critical Pedagogy According to their Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>81.1667</td>
<td>4.00724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>83.2500</td>
<td>4.52915</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independent Samples Test
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CP</th>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Equal variances not assumed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.808</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 ANOVA Results of the comparison of the Institute Teachers and University Professors' Views about the Principles of Critical Pedagogy According to Major

ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CP</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>71.539</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.846</td>
<td>1.298</td>
<td>.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>734.893</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>18.372</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>806.432</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 ANOVA Results of the comparison of the Institute Teachers and University Professors' Views about the Principles of Critical Pedagogy According to Degree

ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CP</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>18.757</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.378</td>
<td>.488</td>
<td>.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>CP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tukey B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subset</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for alpha = 0.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>81.4000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>82.6250</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>82.7500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Table 11 ANOVA Results of the comparison of the Institute Teachers and University Professors’ Views about the Principles of Critical Pedagogy According to Professional Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>9.151</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.050</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>797.281</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>19.932</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>806.432</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post Hoc Tests Multiple Comparisons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) PS</th>
<th>(J) PS</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Confidence Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>-1.3360</td>
<td>1.60695</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-4.4409</td>
<td>4.1737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>-1.21053</td>
<td>1.97395</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>-6.5015</td>
<td>4.0805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16 years and</td>
<td>-1.81053</td>
<td>1.97395</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>-6.5015</td>
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<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>1.3360</td>
<td>1.60695</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-4.1737</td>
<td>4.4409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the findings reveal, the Sig. (two-tailed) values for the t-test and the three ANOVAs are respectively .1, .2, .6, and .9, which at p<.05 level, are not significant. Therefore, teachers and professors’ views towards the principles of critical pedagogy do not differ across none of the variables as gender, major, degree, type of institute and professional seniority.

4. Discussion
Thanks to the growing interest in the field of CP and the small number of studies carried out in this regard, the present research aimed to investigate the institute teachers and university professors’ attitudes towards the principles of critical pedagogy. Moreover, the differences between the two groups were also examined across the variables of gender, major, degree, type of institute and professional seniority.

Homogeneous Subsets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>11-15</th>
<th>16 years and above</th>
<th>1-5 years</th>
<th>6-10 years</th>
<th>16 years and above</th>
<th>16 years and 1-5 years above</th>
<th>6-10 years</th>
<th>11-15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.07692</td>
<td>2.09300</td>
<td>.955</td>
<td>-6.6871</td>
<td>4.5332</td>
<td>-6.7692</td>
<td>2.34939</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>1.21053</td>
<td>1.97395</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>-4.0805</td>
<td>6.5015</td>
<td>1.07692</td>
<td>2.09300</td>
<td>.955</td>
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<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>.40000</td>
<td>2.61416</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>-6.6070</td>
<td>7.4070</td>
<td>.67692</td>
<td>2.34939</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 years and above</td>
<td>.81053</td>
<td>2.24398</td>
<td>.984</td>
<td>-5.2043</td>
<td>6.8253</td>
<td>.67692</td>
<td>2.34939</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
Due to the results of the study it was shown that both institute teachers and university professors supported the principles of critical pedagogy. Furthermore, the attitudes of the two groups did not differ across any of the variables.

The findings of this study were in opposition with that of Yilmaz (2009) research conducted in Turkey. In his study, he concluded that teachers supported the principles of CP. However, in contrast with this study, he found out that the teachers views differed in terms of educational background, professional seniority and the environment of the school where they worked, as was observed none of such differences were pinpointed between the two groups in this study. It is crystal clear that the specific contexts of these two studies count for such discrepancies.

In the same vein, the findings of this study were in concert with the ones in another study conducted in Iran by Aliakbari and Allahmoradi (2012). In their study, they investigated the teachers’ views towards the principles of CP according to certain variables including age, gender, and the level they teach. Based on the results, it was shown that the teachers supported the principles of CP and their views did not differ in this regard except for gender. Anyway, gender did not prove to bring about any changes in the teachers and professors’s attitudes in this study and that is where the difference lies.

In lines with the findings of this study, the ones of Davari ,Iranmehr and Erfani’s (2012) research, which surveyed the Iranian ELT community’s attitudes to CP, revealed that CP is going to receive due attention amongst ELT community little by little.

5. Conclusions
On the way to become a rival for ideal educational systems through out the world, we are to be completely aware of the latest trends and approaches in all fields. As one of the widely accepted and used approach, CP happens to be flourishing day by day. Since, the core end of education is to raise enlightened individuals who can bring about due changes in societies with the purpose of freeing the world from injusties and inequalities. Consequently, the utmost importance of CP as an approach cannot be taken for granted in any educational systems including ours. This study was an attempt to elucidate teachers and university professors’ attitudes towards the principles of CP and examine the roles of certain variable including gender, major, degree, type of institute and professional seniority with regard to this approach. Furthermore, some guidelines were also provided in order to be used for ELT materials development that can benefit the whole ELT community. Thus, according to what has been done, hopefully, if the chance pops up, such an influential approach can find a position in our educational system gradually. Put it differently, although thanks to the rapid flow of globalization, we have to learn English in order not be lagged behind compared with other nations, the practice of English language learning should not be solely restricted to vocabulary and
grammar acquisition. We, as policy makers, educators and teachers involved in this enterprise have to move towards incorporating CP both in materials development and teaching so as to raise students who are critical thinkers in order to protect them from ideological dangers inherent and implied in Western books and materials. However, there are still a number of possible issues and impediments to be considered.

REFERENCES


Toohey (Eds.), Critical pedagogies and language learning (pp. 1-17). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.


### Appendix

**In His Most Enduring Name.**

**A Critical Pedagogy Attitude Questionnaire**

**Dear Professors and Teachers**

This Questionnaire has been developed in order to evaluate Iranian ELT community’s critical attitude towards ELT industry.

Please read each item and show your level of agreement with it by choosing one of the five choices given.

**SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender:</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Major:</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>Translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree:</td>
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<td>MA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Type of Institution:</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Professional Seniority:</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In today’s world, learning English is necessary for every body.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>International ELT books reinforce particular worldviews.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>An English teacher should be able to speak like a native speaker.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>ELT books tend to show that Western culture is more appreciable.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>English should only be taught through English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ELT industry has traces of promoting Western culture.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>To learn authentic English, one should trust ELT materials designed by native speakers.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>ELT books should not be considered as ideological.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Non-native English teachers can be perfect teachers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>ELT materials can be used as tools to promote Western ideologies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>For political and ideological reasons, Third-World countries should design their own ELT materials.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>It seems strange that some English teachers mistrust internationally marketed ELT books.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Students should be expected to pronounce English words like a native speaker.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>ELT industry seems to be pursuing hidden goals.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>If non-native speakers design their own ELT materials, they will lose authenticity.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>English teachers should look critically at ELT industry.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Non-native speakers can communicate internationally with no need to speak like native-speakers.</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>ELT books designed by Third-World countries will fail to teach good English.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>English-speaking countries try to promote Western culture through their ELT books.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>ELT materials designed by native speakers are more dependable than the ones designed by non-native speakers.</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>ELT books shouldn’t be mistaken for Western policies.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Designing local ELT materials is a waste of time.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Due to our cultural differences with the West, we should design our own ELT books.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Instead of accusing ELT books, English teachers should focus on language teaching.</td>
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</table>
THE EFFECT OF GROUP WORK INSTRUCTION ON WH-QUESTION MAKING

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ABSTRACT  
The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of using group work to practice grammar on male and female students. The participants of this study were 91 kid students of Iran Language Institute, Shiraz branch, of two genders. They were randomly selected into two groups of control and experimental. The material was a standard test, prepared by the researcher to evaluate the grammar level of the students which included 20 production test questions, testing the students’ identification of WH words. The students of both groups took the test before the treatment, as a pretest. In experimental group, the teacher applied the group work method for internalizing the grammar points for the learners. Then the post test was given to both groups. To find the effect of group work instruction on improving scores, the researcher used the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The results of this study showed that there was a significant (p<0.001) linear relationship between the pre-test and the post-test scores for WH-question making. Thus it was legitimate to consider the pre-test as a moderator variable in the analysis to incorporate individual differences existed before training. The second result was the main effect of the group which was significant on scores in the post-test after controlling for the effect of the pre-test (F=201.69, df=1, 88, P<0.001). The researcher also concluded that boys and girls do not significantly differ in performing the WH-question making using the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). It is hoped that through the results of this study, we can help both EFL teachers and learners.

KEY WORDS: group work, WH question making, group work teaching, group learning

Introduction  
It is absolutely essential that children understand and be able to ask and answer WH questions. Some simple tasks lay the groundwork for children to participate in conversations, demonstrate knowledge, and collect information about themselves and
their world. When children are learning to process and answer WH questions, they usually follow a developmental and predictable sequence.

One of the parts of teaching grammar is the WH-question making. WH-questions are those questions that require specific information in the answer, rather than just agreement or disagreement. The nature of the information required is determined by the particular WH-question word that fronts the question (e.g. what, where, when, who, why, which, how, whatever or whose).

WH-questions, in the case of open-ended questions, are believed to be particularly useful for developing student’s cognitive skills, as these questions can encourage students to express and elaborate upon their thinking, and to provide rationales for their thoughts.

These simple questions may be difficult for some children to answer; however, there are some strategies parents or teachers can use to help their children or learners learn them. Hints or cues can help the students answer questions or respond appropriately to a situation. The teacher can use visual cues to help children understand and formulate WH questions. These visual cues may include showing photographs whose effects we are going to in this research.

**Definition of group work**

As a generic term, grouping is “...a way of organizing students for teaching and learning.” (Freiberg & Driscoll, 1992: 32). Many teachers think that grouping helps them internalize the learning subjects for the learners or individualize or match their teaching to individual learners, while others see grouping as a way of reducing the student crowds in the classrooms.

Various names have been given to this form of teaching, and there are some distinctions among these: cooperative learning, collaborative learning, collective learning, learning communities, peer teaching, peer learning, reciprocal learning, team learning, study circles, study groups, and work groups. But all in all, there are three general types of group work: informal learning groups, formal learning groups, and study teams (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 1991).

According to Hawkins (2000), teaching with the aim of covering the curriculum is easy, but to actually teach so that pupils learn is an art. Moreover, he connects this art to the act of listening to the kids, searching for necessary clues about when, how and to what degree the teacher should intervene, or carry on. Interactive, constructivist teaching approaches take into account the kids’ own understanding.

The students can be divided into groups in order to practice the language better. In this respect, the practice can be controlled or cued, as in a drill, or more creatively, as in role-play or discussion, where the focus is on communication rather than language practice (Gower & Walters, 1983). Having set up the practice, the
teacher can then withdraw and monitor what is going on, giving help only when necessary.

There are teacher centered versus learner centered classroom that almost the second one is preferred.

In the teacher centered classroom, the teacher is the focus and takes responsibility for everything, analyzing ideas, organizing information, explaining rules and correcting mistakes. On the contrary, in learner centered classroom, the students work independently, more responsible for activities, focus on communicating with each other and the teacher.

According to Frey, Nancy (2004) in The Effective Teacher’s Guide, 50 ways to engage students and promote interactive learning, learner centered classrooms are better because just listening to the teacher doesn’t prepare students enough to use English’ the students practicing English in pairs and groups will help them understand and remember new information better; and just listening to the teacher all the time is boring. Students lose motivation.

**Definition of WH questions**

WH-questions are information or open-class questions that require specific information in the answer, rather than just agreement or disagreement. The nature of the information required is determined by the particular WH-question word that fronts the question (e.g. what, where, when, who, why, which, how ,whatever or whose). These WH-words do not belong to a specific word class but are sub-types of different word classes, all of which serve different functions. For example, what, who and where are WH-pronominals that stand for a missing constituent and require an answer that gives information about this constituent (e.g. what are you doing? requires the answer I’m doing a picture; where are you going? requires the answer I’m going to Lauren’s house). WH-sententials such as why, how and when do not stand for a missing constituent but ask for information about the semantic relations of the sentence (e.g. why did you do that? - I did it because I wanted to; when are you going? - I’m going on Thursday). Which and whose are adjectival forms that specify something about a constituent (e.g. which book do you want? requires an answer such as I want the green book; whose banana is it? requires an answer such as it is Amy’s banana).

**Review of literature**

As researchers turned to the systematic exploration of group life, different foci for attention emerged. Some social psychologists, for example, looked at the ways in which, for example, working in the presence of others tend to raise performance (Allport 1924). Others looked at different aspects of group process. Kurt Lewin (1948), for example, found that nearly all groups were based on interdependence among their members - and this applied whether the group was large or small, formally structured or loose, or focused on this activity or that. In a famous piece Lewin wrote, ‘it is not similarity or dissimilarity of individuals that constitutes a group, but interdependence
of fate’ (*op. cit.*: 165). In other words, groups come about in a psychological sense because people realize they are ‘in the same boat’ (*Brown* 1988: 28). However, even more significant than this for group process, *Lewin* argued, is some interdependence in the goals of group members. To get something done it is often necessary to cooperate with others.

From this exploration we want to highlight three foci for groupworkers (*McDermott* 2002: 80-91). The learners need to ‘think group, attend to purpose, and stay in touch with themselves. For the worker working with a group entails ‘thinking group’ (*McDermott* 2002: 80-91). ‘Thinking group’ means focusing on the group as a whole – ‘considering everything that happens in terms of the group context (also the wider context in which it is embedded – social, political, organizational) because this is where meaning is manifest’ (*op. cit.*:81-2).

Groups change over time. There is a real sense in which they are living things. They emerge, they exist, and they die. This phenomenon has led to the formulation of a version of model; *Tuckman’s*, which includes forming, storming, norming and performing.

In the scope of *WH*- questions, only a few studies have been conducted. Luis *Bloom*, Susan *Merkin* and Janet *Wootten* have worked on *WH*- Questions: linguistic factors that contribute to the sequence of acquisition. (*Bloom, Luis; Merkin, Susan; and Wootten, Janet.: WH- Questions linguistic factors that contribute to the sequence of acquisition. Child Development, 1982, 53*).

*Karin Stromswold* examines the acquisition of subject and object *WH*-questions by English-speaking children. The acquisitional predictions of several recent linguistic descriptions of subject and object questions are described and tested experimentally using the CHILDES transcripts of 12 English-speaking children. Analyses of these transcripts revealed that, contrary to previous reports and the prediction made by the *WH*-subject In Situ and Small Clause Hypotheses, object questions were acquired, at the same age or earlier than subject questions.

**Materials and Method**

**Participants**
The participants of this study were the kid students of ILI (Iran Language Institute) Shiraz branch, of two genders. They are between 8 to 10 years old. The participants include approximately 91 students, 49 boys and 42 girls, 6 classes; each class contains 10 to 16 students. They will be randomly selected into two groups of control and experimental. This institute was chosen because the students are supposed to be homogenous to somehow. Choosing these participants was also convenient for the researcher as she is a full time teacher in this institute.

**Materials**
The material is a test, prepared by the researcher to evaluate the grammar level of the students which include 20 production test questions, testing the students’
identification of WH words (Appendix 1). The teacher assigned the test questions according to the students’ future knowledge about WH-question making and also materials which would be covered during a three-semester term.

The students are given 20 sentences including one or some words underlined, in which they are supposed to make and write specified WH questions for the underlined words of the sentences. The students would take this test before and after the treatment, as a pretest and post test.

The group work method would be done on the pictures of students’ books, named “Up and Away” published by Oxford University, which are the current books which are being taught to the students of IILI.

**Research Questions**

1. What is the effect of group work instruction on WH-question making by EFL intermediate students?
2. Do EFL intermediate boys and girls perform differently in group work instruction?

**Design of the Study**

The design of this study is true experimental group with intact design since it seeks to find the effectiveness and impact of learning in a group and the learners’ making WH-questions. True experimental design includes more than one purposively created group, common measured outcome(s), and random assignment. Note that individual background variables such as sex and ethnicity do not satisfy this requirement since they cannot be purposively manipulated in this way. (Gribbons, Barry & Herman, Joan (1997).

The strongest comparisons come from true experimental designs in which subjects that are students, teachers, classrooms, schools, etc. are randomly assigned to program and comparison groups (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). It is only through random assignment that evaluators can be assured that groups are truly comparable and that observed differences in outcomes are not the result of extraneous factors or pre-existing differences. There are several types of true experimental design:

**Procedure**

The procedures of data collection include administration and scoring procedure. They can be categorized under four steps.

**Step one:** the kid English learners of both male and female groups of Iran Language Institute are given the test. To guarantee the homogeneity of each group’s members, the researcher chose the participants among those studying Step Up 4 level. The production test consisting of 20 sentences as a pretest, in which the students are
supposed to make the relevant WH questions for the underlined words. It tests the grammatical points of the book that are going to be taught in the current semester.

**Step two;** the participants are randomly assigned into two groups of experimental and control. The whole 6 classes were divided into two groups of 3, 3 classes in intact group and 3 classes in experimental group.

**Step three;** the treatment is started. In experimental group, the teacher applies the group work method for internalizing the grammar points for the learners. In group work method, the students are assigned into groups of two or three. Each student is supposed to make one sentence and one question for the picture assigned, and then consults with other members of the group. After the given time is finished, they express their sentences and questions in order. The group which all the members made correct sentences and question according to grammar and their level of difficulty, is the winner and would face an encouragement prize.

The teacher starts the treatment and covers the mastering of making WH-questions during the sessions. Each session she uses one or two new WH- question word in addition to reviewing the previous materials. She uses these questioning models using the student books’ illustrations or pictures for practicing and mastering WH questions and answers. In the beginning sessions she works on some previously taught question words and questions; like “What is he? What is he doing? Who is he? What color are his socks?

In the following sessions the teacher uses some more WH-questions like; Where is he going? When is his birthday? Why is he angry?” How many boys are in the class? Then she moves on the newer WH- questions like When does he come back? Whose jacket is purple? How much are those candies?

While practicing these types of questions, the teacher uses some story telling like; “The girl went to the store. Where did you go today? She is tying her shoes. What do you do when you put on your shoes? She came home from the store after lunch. Where do you go after lunch?”

As homework, the students are assigned to make some general and specified questions and also some sentences about the pictures. The next session, they are asked to work in groups and have a picture description, using their prior homework.

**Step four;** post test is given to both control group and experimental group.

The students’ understanding and formulation of simple WH questions lays a foundation for developing skills in communicating, generalizing, and processing information in his/her environment. Teachers have countless opportunities to give children practice in questioning and answering techniques. The mastery of these simple questions is invaluable to the early learner.
The whole program would be done during one term of three months, 20 sessions of 90 minutes, in which at least 20 minutes of each session is specified to this research. The students will be given the pretest again at the end of the treatment in which they answer the same questions of the pretest; 20 production tests which include 20 sentences, in which the students are supposed to make the relevant WH questions for the underlined words.

The students can be asked to create questions about the pictures with *Who*, *What*, *When*, *Where*, or *Why* as the first word of their question. Children learn from these prompts and will begin using these comprehension strategies while working in groups.

In control group, the participants are not aware of the experiment. The teacher asks students to prepare parts of the story at home, in the classroom, she asks them to read some parts silently. Then she asks them some comprehension questions. In this section the WH question making is not much emphasized as in the experimental group.

**Data Analysis**

In order to analyze the data, the 16th version of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used. To find the relationship between learning in a group and the learners’ making WH-questions, a series of correlation was run.

**Table 1: Means and standard deviations of the WH-question making scores in control and experimental groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Control (N= 44)</th>
<th>Experimental (N= 47)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>5.26 2.987</td>
<td>6.40 3.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>7.65 3.371</td>
<td>16.06 2.164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table 1, the score mean of the experimental group was 6.40 in the pre-test and 16.06 in the post-test, which shows a considerable increase in scores in contrast to the control group which increased moderately from 5.26 in pre-test to 7.65 in the post-test.

**Table 2: Means and standard deviations of the WH-question making scores in males and females**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Male (N=49)</th>
<th>Female (N=42)</th>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Vol. 4, Issue 1, March 2014
Table 2, shows that score means in pre-test for the male and female groups were 5.26 and 6.54, respectively. In the post-test score means were 11.50 and 12.57 for males and females, respectively. This shows that means for men and women were close to each others.

1. What is the effect of group work instruction on WH-question making by EFL students?

To answer this question, we examined the homogeneity of two groups in the pre-test. This was done by the independent t-test presented in the following table. The result of independent t-test as presented in table 3 shows that there was no significant difference between two groups in pre-test (p=0.125>0.05). This indicated that control and experimental groups’ scores were statistically the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>2.987</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>-1.14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>3.945</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0.125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find the effect of group work instruction on improving scores, instead of a simple comparison between the experimental and control groups in the post-test, we used the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) as reported in Table 4. In ANCOVA we incorporated individual differences which were inevitable, by including the pre-test scores as covariate variable in the ANCOVA where comparison of post-test between two groups can be done including the modifying the role of pre-test.

The results of ANCOVA presented in table 4 and can be interpreted like an ANOVA result. In an ANOVA table, dependent variable is compared between different groups. In contrast, in the above ANCOVA table, two important results were reported. Firstly it showed that there was a significant (p<0.001) linear relationship between the pre-test and the post-test scores for WH-question making. Thus it was legitimate to consider the pre-test as a moderator variable in the analysis to incorporate individual differences existed before training. The second result was the main effect of the group which was significant on scores in the post-test after controlling for the effect of the pre-test (F=201.69, df=1, 88, P<0.001). This implies that scores differed significantly between the case and control groups (controlling for the
pre-test effect). This was the main result of ANCOVA which gives an affirmative answer to the research question.

Table 4: The ANCOVA for the effect of group work instruction on WH-question making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>272.036</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>272.036</td>
<td>55.386</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group</td>
<td>1361.277</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1361.277</td>
<td>277.151</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>432.227</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>4.912</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15399.490</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consequently, it can be inferred from the analysis that the group work instruction leads to increasing of the WH-question making scores by EFL students.

Consequently, it can be inferred from the analysis that the group work instruction leads to increasing of the WH-question making scores by EFL students.

Fig 1. Mean scores of two groups in pre- and post-test

2. Do boys and girls perform differently in group work instruction?

To answer this research question, we examined the homogeneity of two groups male and female in the pre-test. This was done by the independent t-test presented in the
following table. The result of independent t-test as presented in table 5 shows that there was no significant difference between two groups in pre-test (p=0.088>0.05). This indicated that boys and girls scores were statistically the same in the pre-test.

Table 5: The independent t-test for comparison of scores between boys and girls groups in pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistics Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>3.309</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td>-1.27</td>
<td>-1.72</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>3.719</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For analyzing the second research question, in addition to the effects of pre-test and the group work instruction we include the gender as an independent factor to the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) as reported in Table 6. As presented in table 6, for effects were analyzed. Firstly in agreement with the research question 1, the effects of pre-test and group (control and experimental groups) were significant (p<0.001). Secondly the effect of gender on the post-test (again considering the modifying role of pre-test) was included and found to be not significant (p=0.988>0.05). In addition, the interaction between group and gender was not significantly effective on post-test scores (p=0.395>0.05). This means that boys and girls with or without group work instruction do not significantly perform differently in the WH-question making test. Finally we conclude that boys and girls do not significantly differ in performing the WH-question making.

Table 6: The ANCOVA for the effect of group work instruction and gender on WH-question making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>263.757</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>263.757</td>
<td>52.934</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group</td>
<td>1340.439</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1340.439</td>
<td>269.017</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group * gender</td>
<td>3.711</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.711</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>0.391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>428.514</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>4.983</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15399.490</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion
This study aimed at finding the relationship between Groupwork and WH-question making. Moreover, the researcher tried to find the impact of the learners’ sex on their learning proficiency. The participants of this study were 91 kid students of ILI (Iran Language Institute) Shiraz branch, studying Step Up 4 level (intermediate). Half of these students were male and the other half were female. They were between 8 to 10 years old. One test, prepared by the researcher to evaluate the grammar level of the students which include 20 production test questions, is given to the students. It tests the students’ identification of WH words (Appendix 1). To find the quality of learning WH-question making before, during and after groupwork theory, the researcher used the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). In ANCOVA, the individual differences which were inevitable, were incorporated by including the pre-test scores as covariate variable in the ANCOVA where comparison of post-test between two groups can be done including the modifying the role of pre-test. The results also showed that two groups of males and females were the same in pre-test and post-test (Fig 4.3). Since two lines in the diagram were parallel, we argue that the improvement of males and girls performances were almost the same. The statistical significance of this observation is studied in the following analysis. For analyzing the second research question, in addition to the effects of pre-test and the group work instruction, we include the gender as an independent factor to the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA).

This research has also used the basic components and definitions of Cooperative Learning. As stated in Wikipedia, Cooperative Learning is an approach to organizing classroom activities into academic and social learning experiences. Students must work in groups to complete tasks collectively toward academic goals. Unlike individual learning, which can be competitive in nature, students learning cooperatively capitalize on one another’s resources and skills which includes asking one another for information, evaluating one another’s ideas, monitoring one another’s work, etc. (Chiu, M. M., 2000). Students’ learning goals may be structured to promote cooperative, competitive, or individualistic efforts. In every classroom, instructional activities are aimed at accomplishing goals and are conducted under a goal structure. A learning goal is a desired future state of demonstrating competence or mastery in the subject area being studied. The goal structure specifies the ways in which students will interact with each other and the teacher during the instructional session. Each goal structure has its place (Johnson & Johnson, 1989, 1999). In the ideal classroom, all students would learn how to work cooperatively with others, compete for fun and enjoyment, and work autonomously on their own. The teacher decides which goal structure to implement within each lesson. The most important goal structure, and the one that should be used the majority of the time in learning situations, is cooperation. Cooperation is working together to accomplish shared goals. In the late 1940s, one of Lewin’s graduate students, Morton Deutsch, extended Lewin’s reasoning about social interdependence and formulated a theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949, 1962).
The findings of this study can make the researchers, managers, material designers, and the teachers aware of how groupwork could influence WH-question making skill by the learners which are studying the intermediate level of Iran Language Institute. This encourages them to take the necessity of using a variety of ways in teaching into a more careful consideration. The teachers are more likely to care about the strength and weakness of different situations in a groupwork. Being exposed to a variety of teaching ways, the percentage of learning will definitely increase. Knowing how to work in a group, the students themselves would also know how to improve themselves most efficiently through using different types of groupwork techniques best. Moreover, by being aware of the strategies used in an effective groupwork used by the students, both teachers and students would know which strategies are almost learned and used most and which strategies need more emphasis and practice which is going to help improve the students’ writing.

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THE EFFECT OF LEXICAL FREQUENCY KNOWLEDGE ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ SPEAKING ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
This study examines how knowledge of high frequency words affects speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. The participants of this study are junior B.A. students of English translation, studying at the Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon. In order to examine the focus of the study different instruments were used. 60 students were selected out of 100 ones, based on their scores in OPT test. This test was conducted to measure students’ proficiency level and to homogenize them. The second test was lexical frequency test, which was two-choice test. It was conducted to measure participants’ lexical frequency knowledge. Based on the obtained scores of this test, participants were divided into two groups. One of these groups referred to as +LF, that is; a group with higher knowledge of high frequency words. And the other group referred to as –LF, which is the group with lower knowledge of high frequency words. After that, both groups were interviewed orally to test their speaking abilities. Independent sample t-test was used to measure t-observed. Comparing t-observed with t-critical, it is clear that knowledge of lexical frequency has a positive effect on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners.

KEY WORDS: Frequency, High frequency words, Low frequency words, Speaking, Speaking ability, Knowledge

1. Introduction
According to M. Muzikant (2007), language is one of the means of communication among people. It helps them understand each other, share their knowledge, express their opinions and attitudes. What is more, it enables them to communicate things and phenomena they would never be capable of without a language. Geaney (1996, p.p. 26) states that 99 per cent of English use is speech. The paradox is that there was only a little research of everyday speech. Lexicographers still have a tendency to consider the occurrence of a word in print a chief or sole criterion for its inclusion in the dictionary. Grammarians rarely venture beyond the safe confines of the sentence, a unit that is of doubtful value in the description of casual speech. The fact is that people use spoken language every day – in all kinds of conversations, discussions.
Huebner (1960) said “language is essentially speech, and speech is basically communication by sounds”. And accordingly, speaking is a skill used by someone in daily life communication whether at school or outside. The skill is required by much repetition; it primarily a neuromuscular and not intellectual process. It consists of competence in speaking and receiving messages. So speaking is a mean of expressing ideas, opinions, or feelings to others.

1.1. Theoretical Framework
Language is primarily speech, and knowing a language is often defined as the ability to understand and speak the language. It has also been noted that the development of other skills, namely reading and writing would be comparatively easy if they are based on oral foundation.

Speaking is a crucial part of second language and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teachers teach speaking just a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues.

According to Geaney (1996, p. 24) 99 per cent of English use is speech. This might be for this reason that people like conveying information among themselves especially with friends and relatives they feel comfortable with. Another reason might be that conversation can be about nothing in particular, whereas written language usually conveys some information.

According to Bygate (1987, p.3), there are two aspects to be considered in order to achieve a communicative goal through speaking – knowledge of the language, and skill in using this knowledge. It is not enough to possess a certain amount of knowledge, but a speaker of the language should be able to use this knowledge in different situations. Being able to decide what to say on the spot, saying it clearly and being flexible during a conversation as different situations come out is the ability to use the knowledge ‘in action’, which creates the second aspect of speaking - the skill, Bygate notes (p.4).

1.2. Statement of the Problem
Despite of many attempts which were made to improve students’ (EFL learners’) speaking ability, most of them still have problems in speaking. They are not able to convey their meaning.

According to Asaeei (2011), a large number of the world’s language learners study English to develop proficiency in speaking, because speech is the most basic means of human communication, perhaps the most difficult aspect of spoken English is that. It is almost always accompanied via interaction with at least other speaker.

According to Chastain (1988), speaking is an important element in developing each language skill and conveying culture knowledge. Students view speaking as an essential skill for functioning in another country, and enroll in language classes with speaking as one of their principal goals. Chastain (1988) stated that like any language skill, foreign language learners need explicit instructions in speaking. Language students need to learn to speak the language in order to communicate with each other.

Bailey and Savage (1994, pp.6-7) believed that “speaking a second foreign language has often viewed as the most demanding of the four skills” (pp.6-7).
1.3. Significance of the Study

1) Theoretical importance:
   a) It is important to get an insight into the effect of lexical frequency knowledge on EFL learners’ speaking ability.
   b) The finding of this study would add something new to the previous theories.

2) Practical importance:
   This study would lead to the improvement of EFL learners’ speaking ability

1.4. Research Question

Does knowledge of high frequency words have any effect on the speaking ability of the Iranian EFL learners?

1.5. Hypothesis

Knowledge of high frequency words does not affect Iranian EFL learners’ speaking ability.

1.6. Definition of Key Terms

1.6.1. Frequency

Frequency is the number of occurrences of a repeating event per unit time. It is also referred to as temporal frequency.

1.6.2. High Frequency Words

High-frequency words are the words that appear most often in printed materials.

1.6.3. Low Frequency Words

Low frequency words are words that appear less often in printed texts and are not often used.

1.6.4. Speaking

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking.

1.6.5. Speaking Ability

The ability to speak in a language is called speaking ability. Speaking and the art of communications is a productive skill. Good speaking skills is the act of generating words that can be understood by listeners. A good speaker is clear and informative.

1.6.6. Knowledge

According to Webster’s Dictionary, knowledge is "the fact or condition of knowing something with familiarity gained through experience or association".
2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Lexical frequency

According to Laufer et al (1995), vocabulary is not usually learned for its own sake. An important aim of a vocabulary program is to bring learners’ vocabulary knowledge into communicative use. Where learners are in a situation where there are demands upon them to make use of what they know, we would expect to see a relationship between direct measures of learners’ vocabulary in their language production.

Vocabulary is of primary importance in language teaching and in linguistic communication, but it has not always been adequately emphasized or adequately highlighted. In particular, the nature of words and its contribution and role in the building of meaning has not been correctly evaluated by most teaching methods. In the last two decades, though, the importance of vocabulary knowledge has been brought to the forefront, especially in the field of vocabulary acquisition research and assessment (Laufer & Hulstijn 2001; Nagy & Scott, 2000; Nation, 2001; Read, 2000, etc.). This movement in favour of vocabulary is rooted in the assumption that the knowledge of words improves the communicative potential, linguistic fluency and accuracy.

Lexical frequency is often equated with lexical richness. Most frequency indices depend on frequency lists and are based on the hypothesis that a higher lexical proficiency results in the use of less frequent words (Meara and Bell, 2001). Word proficiency has traditionally been assigned to the breadth of knowledge category, but this categorization is debatable. Ellis (2002), for instance, argues that the production and comprehension of words is a function of their frequency of occurrence in language. Under this approach, word frequency helps determine lexical acquisition because each repetition of a word strengthens the connections between the word and its meaning categorization. As learners are exposed to frequent words, there is a reduction in processing time because the practice time with the word increases. Such a model of lexical acquisition is supported by studies that demonstrate that high frequency words are named more quickly than low frequency words (Balota and Chumbly, 1984), are processed more quickly in reading tasks (Kirsner, 1994), are judged more quickly to be words in lexical decision tasks (Forster, 1976), and have faster response latencies (Glanzer and Ehrenreich, 1979).

2.2. Experiments on Lexical Frequency

Laufer and Nation (1995) argue that it might be possible to use lexical frequency profile to gauge the extent of the productive vocabulary available to non-native speakers of English, an idea which Nation (2001, p.362) pursues further. The fundamental assumption underlying Laufer and Nation’s approach is that people with larger vocabularies generate texts which reflect this larger vocabulary, and this suggests that it ought to be possible to simulate the underlying experimental data by generating ‘texts’ from different sized vocabularies according to some rule (Meara, 2005, p.3).

The word frequency effect in speech production was discovered by Oldfield and Wingfield (1965). In a picture-naming task, they found that pictures with low-frequency (LF) names (such as syringe) took longer to name than pictures with high-
frequency (HF) names (such as basket). Wingfield (1968) established this effect as a genuinely lexical one. The effect was not due to differential speeds of object recognition but to naming itself.

According to Zhao et al (2008), lexical factors such as usage frequency affect production at the supra-segmental level as well as the segmental level. Words of the same tone but of different usage frequency differ significantly in pitch height. LF words are hyper articulated and produced with relatively higher pitch. The tone space of LF words is more expanded than that of their HF counterparts; in other words, tones are more dispersed in this acoustic space.

Frequency of collocation determines the growth of lexical phrases. These play out as frequency effects within the realm of idioms, too. High-frequency idioms are easier to comprehend than less familiar ones because their figurative meanings are known and these, by dint of practice, have become more salient than their literal ones (Giora, 1997; Nippold & Rudzinski, 1993).

2.3. Speaking

Speaking is so much part of daily life that we tend to take it for granted. However, learning speaking, whether in a first or other language, involves developing subtle and detailed knowledge about why, how and when to communicate, and complex skills for producing and managing interaction, such as asking a question or obtaining a turn. One of the most important aspects of everyday talk is that it always takes place in cultural and social activities and, although we may not always be consciously aware of doing so, we attune our language and meanings we wish to exchange to our specific purposes for speaking in that context (Schmitt, 2002, p. 211).

Spoken interaction involves producing and negotiating language rather differently from the way it is used in writing. Speakers and listeners are involved simultaneously in both producing and processing spoken interactions (Schmitt, 2002, p.212).

Baily and Savage (1994), stated that speaking is a task that requires the incorporation of many systems. All those factors must be integrated, making speaking a second language a terrifying task for language learners. However, for many people, speaking is viewed as the central skill.

Chaney (1998), however, considered speaking a process: “speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal or non-verbal symbols in a variety of contexts” (p.13). Sharing the same viewpoint, Florez (1999) added that speaking is an “interactive” process, which consists of three main stages “producing, receiving and processing information.” (p.1)

2.4. Experiments on the speaking Skill

According to Levelt (1999), the generation of words in speech involves a number of processing stages. There is, first, a stage of conceptual preparation; this is followed by stages of lexical selection, phonological encoding, phonetic encoding and articulation. In addition, the speaker monitors the output and, if necessary, self-corrects. Major parts of the theory have been computer modelled. The paper concentrates on experimental reaction time evidence in support of the theory.
Central to the skill of speaking is our ability to select words that appropriately express our intentions, to retrieve their syntactic and phonological properties and to compute the ultimate articulatory shape of these words in the context of the utterance as a whole (Levelt, 1989).

To effectively improve learners speaking it is important to look at the structure and grammar of spoken interactions (Burns and Joyce, 1999, p.92). Grammar teaching for speaking purposes has largely focused around structured sentence grammar. This however, is of limited use to learners as spontaneous speech is produced in clause length, rather than sentence length, segments (Thornbury, 2008, p. 33).

According to Adams (1980) and Higgs and Clifford (1982), there seems to be a close relationship between vocabulary as part of overall speaking performance and overall speaking performance at low levels than at intermediate and advance levels.

3.0. Methods of Research

3.1. Design of the Study

The design of the present study was quasi-experimental design. It is shown in the following figure:

3.2. Participants

The participants of this study were junior (third-year) B.A students of English translation, studying at the Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon, Iran. The total of 60 students out of 100 students were selected to participate in this study based on their...
scores in OPT (oxford placement test). That is, the students whose scores were one standard deviation under the mean score were selected. The gender was not considered. They were both males and females. The ages of the participants ranged from 19 to 27.

3.3. Materials

Three sets of tests were administered in this study. The first test was OPT (Oxford Placement Test) version 1.1, which was printed by Oxford University Press in 2001. This test was applied to 100 students to homogenize the population. The test is composed of 61 questions which fall into different categories. Five questions were sign and notion questions, fifteen questions were colze-test questions, twenty questions were grammar questions, twenty were vocabulary questions, the last one question was writing. The participants were required to answer the questions within 70 minutes. 60 students whose scores were one standard deviation under the mean score were selected. This test was divided into three parts. These parts are as the following:

- Part One: Questions 1-40
- Part Two: Questions 41-60
- Part Three: Question 61

In the first and second parts, questions were multiple-choice item, but the third part included one question in which participants were asked to write a well-organized paragraph of 150-200 words on a given topic. This test included 60 multiple-choice questions and 1 production question. Students were given about one hour to answer the questions.

The second test was lexical frequency test which was two-choice test, and consisted of forty questions. This test was applied to measure participants’ knowledge of high frequency words. Participants were asked to decide whether the given word is of high frequency word or low frequency word. Twenty of these words were of high frequency words, and twenty of them were of low frequency words. The inter-rater reliability of the test was estimated 0.7. It was written. Participants were given ten minutes to answer the test.

Finally, participants were interviewed orally to measure their speaking ability. The speaking test included ten questions, 9 wh-questions and one yes-no question (the speaking test of Asaei, 2011). The questions were personal questions. All of these ten questions were about the participants’ themselves.

3.4. Procedures

OPT was administered to measure the degree of the participants’ proficiency and to homogenize the population. It was a paper-and-pencil test. Participants were expected to answer in specific answer sheets. Allowed time was 70 minutes. The second test was lexical frequency test which included two-choice item. The test was applied to measure participants’ knowledge of high frequency words. Based on their scores in lexical frequency test, participants were divided into two groups of control group and experimental group. 30 participants with higher scores in lexical frequency test were in experimental group, and the other 30 participants formed the control group. This test
was also a paper-and pencil test, and participants had to answer the questions in specific answer sheets. Ten minutes were allowed for the test. The speaking test was administered; it was an oral interview, which consisted of 10 questions. The time allocated for the speaking interview was about 15 minutes for each participant. The questions were asked and the answers were heard and scored. In lexical frequency test, 0.5 point was considered for each item. So the total point of the test was 20. For interview, 2 points was allocated to each question. 1 point for understanding the question and the content of the answer and 1 point for correct pronunciation which included correct intonation and stress. The participants were scored by inter-rater scoring method.

3.5. Methods of Analyzing Data
The data were analyzed to produce the findings of this study. The analysis was based on participants’ scores in lexical frequency test and speaking test. The data was analyzed through SPSS software, version 16, using independent sample t-test in order to compare performances of the participants in control and experimental group in control and experimental group in speaking interview.

4.0. Results and discussion
The results showed that knowledge of high frequency words have some effects on the speaking ability of the Iranian EFL learners. And there was considerable difference between mean scores of speaking interview in experimental group (students who got higher marks on lexical frequency test) and control group (students who got lower marks on lexical frequency test). Experimental group is shown by +LF and control group is shown by -LF (See table 4.1).

Group statistics is reported below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LF</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking +LF</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.366</td>
<td>1.479</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-LF</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.300</td>
<td>1.578</td>
<td>.288</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table, +LF stands for a group of students with higher knowledge of high frequency words, and -LF stands for a group with lower knowledge of high frequency words.

T-test was observed through independent sample t-test. The obtained value of T-test is shown in the following table (table 4.2):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LF</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Vol. 4, Issue 1, March 2014
The table of 4.2 shows that $t_{observed}$ is 5.232, and by comparison of this $t$ with $t_{critical}$ it is concluded that the null hypothesis of the study is rejected. That is, knowledge of high frequency words enhances speaking ability of EFL Learners ($t_{critical}$ is already computed and it is found in Research Design And Statistics book by Hatch & Farhady).

### 4.2. Results of Hypothesis Testing

Research question of this study which was mentioned in chapter one, is as follow:

Does knowledge of high frequency words have any effects on the speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners?

To answer this question, the following assumption was formulated:

$H_0$: Lexical frequency knowledge does not affect Iranian learners’ speaking ability

Based on the findings of the present study, the hypothesis is rejected.

### 5.1. General Discussion

The findings of present study showed that knowledge of high frequency words has a positive effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. The result of this study lends support to findings of several studies that indicate that lexical frequency has some effect in different aspects of language.

The word frequency effect in speech production was investigated by Oldfield and Wingfield (1965), who found that pictures with low-frequency (LF) names (such as syringe) took longer to name than pictures with high-frequency (HF) names (such as basket). Wingfield (1968) established this effect as a genuinely lexical one. The effect was not due to differential speeds of object recognition but to naming itself.

According to Dell (1990), LF words with an HF homophone (such as wee with homophone we) are as little prone to induced phonological errors as are their high-frequency twins. That is, an LF homophone profits from sharing its word form with an HF word. Although this seems to indicate that frequency is coded at the lexeme level, not at the lemma level (homophones share their lexeme but not their lemmas), Dell argued for a lemma-level explanation within his interactive model. He assumes that lemmas with high-frequency values have resting levels of activation higher than lemmas with low-frequency values, and as a consequence the former lemmas reach the selection threshold faster than the later. As a consequence the speed with which lexical selection takes place depends, to some extent, on the word’s frequency value.

Fidelhotz (1975), for example, showed that low-frequency words like for fend were less likely to have as schwa vowel in the first syllable than high-frequency words like forget. Rhodes (1992) showed that $t$ in low-frequency words were less likely to flap than /t/ in high-frequency words.
5.2. Implication of the Study
This study aimed at examining the effect of lexical frequency knowledge on students’ speaking ability. The results of this study showed that knowledge of high frequency words can facilitate students’ speaking skill. These results were of great importance and could interest researchers, language teachers, and language learners.

One of the aspects of improving speaking ability is to enrich vocabulary. Scholars such as Allen (1983) and Bowen (1985) have shown that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; in other words, communication breaks down when people do not use the right words. Therefore, there is an increased interest in vocabulary as a component of every language. Therefore, teachers could benefit from the results of the present study; that is, they could focus more on high frequency words to help students improve their speaking ability. Researchers can also benefit from the results of this study. They could use results of this study to do other research on related topics.

5.3. Suggestion for Further Research
Although there are a lot of studies about speaking and related topics, there are some issues that have not been considered. Thus, this study gives suggestions for further studies.

It is recommended that a replication of this study be done on:
1) Specific age groups of learners such as teenage language learners.
2) Specific gender, either on male or female learners
3) Different variables influencing speaking ability of language learners

REFERENCES


Meara, P. M., & Bell, H. (2001). *P_Lex: A simple and effective way of describing the lexical characteristics of short L2 texts*.


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT' LEARNING STYLES AND THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT
The present study aimed to investigate the relationship between students’ learning styles and strategies in Iranian EFL learners. The questions this study tried to answer were 1) what are learning style and strategy preferences of Iranian learners of English at university level, 2) whether there is a relationship between learning styles and strategies of learners 3) is there a difference in learning style and strategy preferences learners. To answer the questions, 140 students were randomly selected by coin-tossing to complete two questionnaires. One was used to identify students’ learning styles and the other was used to identify students’ learning strategies. In addition, think aloud protocols were held to determine cognitive and metacognitive strategies students used while reading in order to support quantitative results. The results of descriptive statistics revealed that kinesthetic, tactile, and auditory learning fall into the major learning styles. The data analysis of the second questionnaire revealed that metacognitive, social and cognitive strategies were favored the most. The results indicated that visual styles with affective, the auditory styles with metacognitive, the kinesthetic styles with cognitive, the tactile styles with cognitive, the individual learning styles with metacognitive, the group learning styles with metacognitive strategies had significant relationships, and none of the learning styles had a significant relationship with compensation and memory strategies. Based on the results obtained from MANOVA it concluded that gender of participants had a significant effect on their learning styles and strategies and female participants outperformed the male participants. Think aloud protocols revealed that participants used various cognitive and metacognitive strategies.
KEY WORDS: Language learning strategies, learning styles, auditory learner, visual learner, tactile learner, kinesthetic learner, group learning, individual learning

Introduction

From the early 1970s, some researchers in the field of learning and teaching changed the focus from the language teaching methodology to the language learner and the variables that affect language learning. Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and learning styles have been considered as the most popular aspects that affect language learning and teaching. Oxford (1990) defined learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. Dunn and Dunn (1979 as cited in Reid 1987) defined learning style as “a term that describes the variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience”.

Theoretical framework

Nowadays language learning is one of the most important needs of people and many of them are trying to learn a second language. Therefore, from the early 1970s, some researchers in the field of learning and teaching have been trying to find out teaching methods, classroom techniques, and instructional materials that will promote better language instruction. However, in spite of all the efforts it has been noticed that learners have not progressed as much as it was expected, because there are individual differences in language learning such as gender, age, social status, motivation, attitude, aptitude, culture, etc.; what works for one learner might not work for another (for some overviews see R. Ellis, 2004). Therefore, none of the methods and techniques has proved that they can work all the time, in all classes, with all students. As a result, based on Grenfell and Harris’ (1999) statement “Methodology alone can never be a solution to language learning. Rather, it is an aid and suggestion” (p. 10).

After reaching this conclusion, some other people in the field changed the focus from the language teaching methodology to the language learner and the variables that affect language learning. This shift has led to studies regarding learner characteristics and foreign or second language learning. Cohen (1998) defined such a shift when he states, “one potentially beneficial shift in teacher roles is from that of being exclusively the manager, controller and instructor to that of being a change agent – a facilitator of learning, whose role is to help their students to become more independent and more responsible for their own learning.

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been one of the most popular aspects that researchers have focused on. Especially variables such as gender, achievement, motivation, career orientation, national origin, aptitude, learning styles, etc. have been taken into consideration to find out the relationship between the LLS choice and variables. Based on Oxford (1989) “little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style” (p. 241).
Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

As stated above, the shift of focus from the language teaching methodology to the language learner and the variables has led studies carried out regarding learner characteristics and foreign or second language learning, and Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been one of the most popular aspects researchers have focused on. There is no doubt that students take in and comprehend information in different manners, and the language learning strategies they prefer to use are different. However, sometimes conflicts might arise because of a mismatch between the teachers' teaching style and learners' learning styles, which might have negative consequences on the part of both the learner and teacher. For this reason, as Stebbins (1995) asserts teachers should know the general learning style profiles of the whole class, which will enable them to organize and employ instructional materials accordingly.

Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to answer the question of whether there is a relationship between students' learning styles and their language learning strategies and find the effect of gender on these two variables.

Significance and Justification of the Study

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

Raising students’ awareness regarding their learning styles and strategies might make them not only more prepared for learning but also more analytic about their learning styles and the strategies they use. Knowledge of one’s own learning style is essential in “learning to learn” (Smith and Associates 1990). Teachers should help students discover their own learning preferences and provide constructive feedback about the advantages and disadvantages of various styles. Also, teachers should respect the learners’ present preferences and encourage their development, while at the same time creating opportunities for students to experiment with different ways of learning. Reid (1995) states that developing an understanding of learning environments and styles “will enable students to take control of their learning and to maximize their potential for learning”.

This study might also prove useful to the curriculum developers and material producers, as knowing students’ general preference tendencies might enable material developers to produce materials that would match students’ learning styles and would also help students to manipulate beneficial strategies.

Research Questions of the Study

In this study the research questions are stated as follow:
1. What are learning style and language learning strategy preferences of EFL learners of Azad University of Bandar Abbas?
2. Is there a relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies of EFL learners of Azad University of Bandar Abbas?
3. Is there a difference in learning styles and learning strategies of EFL learners of Azad University of Bandar Abbas based on their gender?

Review of Literature
The purpose of this section is to review and to explore how the present study is aligned with current views in the field. Therefore, some essential fundamental aspects, which provide information on characteristics and theoretical aspects of some terms related to this study, need to be highlighted in this section.

Reid’s Classification of Learning Styles
In this research Reid’s classification is taken as a basis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptual Learning Styles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinesthetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Oxford’s Classification of Language Learning Strategies
Among all the existing learning strategy taxonomies Oxford (1990) provides the most extensive classification of LLS developed so far. Generally speaking, Oxford’s taxonomy consists of two major LLS categories, the Direct and Indirect Strategies. In this research Oxford’s classification is taken as a basis:

Direct strategies are divided into three subcategories: Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies.

Memory Strategies: Oxford and Crookall (1989) define them as “techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later”. They are particularly said to be useful in vocabulary learning which is “the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language” (Oxford, 1990).

Cognitive Strategies: The second group of direct strategies are the cognitive strategies, which are defined as “skills that involve manipulation and transformation of the language in some direct way, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note taking, functional practices in naturalistic settings, formal practice with structures and sounds, etc.” (Oxford and Crookall, 1989).
Compensation Strategies: Compensation strategies help learners to use the target language for either comprehension or production in spite of the limitations in knowledge. They aim to make up for a limited knowledge of grammar and, particularly vocabulary. When learners are confronted with unknown expressions, they make use of guessing strategies, which are also known as inferencing. When learners do not know all the words, they make use of a variety of clues either linguistic or non-linguistic so as to guess the meaning. Compensation strategies are not only manipulated in the comprehension of the target language, but they are used in producing it. They enable learners to produce spoken or written expressions in the target language without complete knowledge of it.

The second group of strategies, that is, indirect strategies, consist of three subcategories: Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies.

Metacognitive Strategies: Metacognitive strategies are defined as “behaviors used for centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating one’s learning. These ‘beyond the cognitive’ strategies are used to provide ‘executive control over the learning process’” (Oxford and Crookall, 1989).

Affective Strategies: Oxford and Crookall (1989) define affective strategies as “techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to the language learning.”

Social Strategies: Since language is a form of social behavior, it involves communication between and among people. They enable language learners to learn with others by making use of strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.

Research on Learning Styles
Reid (1987) conducted a research with respect to the learning styles of ESL learners. The overall results of the research indicated that ESL learners strongly preferred kinesthetic and tactile learning styles when compared to audio and visual. In addition, most groups showed a negative preference for group learning. The general findings offered by Reid (1987) are as the following:

1. The learning styles of ESL learners differed significantly in several ways from native speakers of English. For instance, native speakers of English were less tactile in their learning styles than all non-native speakers.
2. The learning styles of ESL learners from different languages, and different educational and cultural backgrounds differed significantly from each other. For instance, the Korean students were found to be significantly more visual than the US and Japanese learners.
3. In the analysis of results with respect to level of education and gender, it was found that graduate students showed a significantly greater preference for visual and tactile learning than the undergraduates.
4. The data obtained from the study also indicated that as ESL learners adapt to the US academic environment, some changes and extensions of learning styles might take place. For instance, the longer the students had lived in the United States,
the more auditory their preference became. This finding indicates that learners adapt
their learning styles to the learning environment they are involved.

Stebbins (1995) replicated Reid’s (1987) study in order to obtain more
information about the similarities and differences in learning styles between ESL
learners and Native English Speakers (NESs). Stebbins lists the areas in which the
results were similar to Reid’s results:
• Kinesthetic and tactile learning styles were strongly preferred by ESL students when
compared to NESs;
• Group learning was again chosen as the least preferred mode by most NESs and ESL
students;
• Spanish speakers repeated their strong preference for kinesthetic mode;
• Arabic and Korean students showed stability in their choice of multiple learning
styles;
• Japanese students again did not strongly identify any style preferences.

Research on Language Learning Strategies
In the 1970s scholars in the field noticed that there were learners who were
successful no matter what teaching method or classroom instruction was used.
Therefore, the primary concern of most research in the field has been on “identifying
what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or
in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language”
(Wenden and Rubin, 1987).

Rubin (1975) started doing research focusing on strategies of successful
learners and stated that, so that, such strategies could be made available to less
successful learners so they could increase their success rate. Based on her findings, she
suggested that “the good language learner” is a willing and accurate guesser; has a
strong persevering drive to communicate; is often uninhibited and willing to make
mistakes in order to learn or communicate; focuses on form by looking at patterns;
takes advantage of all practice opportunities; monitors his or her own speech as well as
that of others; and pays attention to meaning.

Oxford (1989) stated not all language learners use the same LLS even if they
study the same material, in the same classroom, under the same conditions. That is,
some other variables, such as motivation, gender, the proficiency level, age, career
orientation, and learning styles influence the choice of strategies.

Gender is one of the factor that has taken the constant attention of research in
the field. A vast number of studies have been conducted with respect to gender-related
differences in LLS use. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found that females reported
significantly greater use of language learning strategies in four categories: general
study strategies, functional practice strategies, strategies for searching for and
found that females, when contrasted with males, used language-learning strategies
significantly more often in three of five strategy factors: formal rule-based practice
strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input elicitation strategies.
Data Collection Techniques for Language Learning Strategies

In the body of research on language learning strategies, various researchers have made use of numerous methods for the identification of the patterns of strategy use among language learners ranging from questionnaires to computer tracking. Among these methods, two methods that are used in this study are presented as below:

1. **Think aloud protocols:** Think aloud protocols are obtained by having participants report verbally what their thoughts are while performing a task. However, they are not expected to analyze their behavior as in introspection (Cohen, 1987). It is the closest way to get to the cognitive processes of learners.

2. **Questionnaires:** Making use of questionnaires in a research study is one of the most commonly used techniques to collect data since they “can be objectively scored and analyzed” (Oxford, 1990, p. 199). A good example of a structured learning strategy questionnaire is the SILL developed by Oxford and has been used in many parts of the world with the learners of many different languages. The SILL has 50 items grouped under 6 sections. Its 5-point scale ranges from “never or almost never” to “always or almost always.”

Research on the Relationship between Learning Styles and Language Learning Strategies

Oxford (1989) claims “it is likely that a strong relationship exists between the individual’s use of learning strategies and the individual’s learning style... Sadly little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style.”

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

This study conducted regarding Reid’s research about learning styles and Oxford’s research about learning strategies to investigate style and strategy preferences of EFL learners. As it was stated earlier, Oxford (1989) claims “it is likely that a strong relationship exists between the individual’s use of learning strategies and the individual’s learning style... Sadly little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style.” This was another theory upon which this study has been founded.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) point out that making use of different types of data collection methods may lead to different results since every assessment method has its own advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, some researchers have made use of multiple approaches to data collection. According to the above researches, think...
aloud protocols and questionnaires were two data collection approaches used in this study.

Method
Design of the Study
This is a descriptive study conducted for the purpose of making descriptive information about some population. This study aims at finding out the learning styles, the learning strategies, and investigating the relationship between the learning styles and language learning strategies. Also this study aims at defining the effect of gender on the learners' learning styles and learning strategies preferences.

In this study both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. The former were collected through questionnaires, one of which aimed to identify students' learning styles and the other aimed to find out the strategies students prefer to use. The qualitative data were collected through the think aloud protocols, which aimed to find what strategies students actually made use of while reading texts and support quantitative results. The participants of this study were EFL learners of Azad University of Bandar Abbas.

Participants
The participants of this study were students who study English as a foreign language in Azad university of Bandar Abbas. There were a total of 211 intermediate level students that 140 learners (4 classes) were chosen randomly by coin-tossing. The age of the learners ranged between 21 and 27. In order to measure and determine the learners' level of general English language proficiency and ensure their homogeneity, the learners were required to do the standard Nelson's intermediate level test. Thus, test 200 D of Nelson test battery was used as the language proficiency test in this study (Fowler & Coe). At each level, the passing score is intended to be 30 (60%). Therefore 100 students were selected based on the results of Nelson test as the participants of the study. For the think aloud protocols 6 students, 3 males and 3 females, who had almost the same ages and the same educational backgrounds, were selected based on their strategies and their ability to express themselves.

Materials (Instrumentation)
The first instrument that was used in the current study is the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) developed by Reid (1987). The questionnaire, which was designed and validated for non-native speakers, consists of five statements on each of the six learning styles to be measured: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning. The participants responded on the basis of a five point Likert-scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The second instrument used in this study is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning developed by Oxford (1990). It is a self-report, paper and pencil survey. It contains 50 items. The SILL (Version 7.0) consists of six subsections and each section represents one of the six categories of LLS, which the learners do not know at the time of taking the questionnaire. The students respond on 5 point Likert-scale ranging from 1 ‘Never or almost never true of me’ to 5 ‘Always or almost always true of me’. The think aloud protocols were used to gather qualitative data with respect to
the actual strategies student used while reading. The length of the text was almost 353 words. While performing the task they were asked to report the strategies they were using while reading and comprehending the passage.

**Procedures**

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) were administered to the participants during class time. The students were required to respond to the questions in 15 minutes. The time was determined according the results obtained from the pilot study. To increase the credibility of the responses the researcher reminded the students that they should be sincere in their answers. The questionnaires were collected and the responses were entered into the computer for data analyses.

The second questionnaire Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was completed after an interval of a week during their class time. The students were required to fill in the questionnaire in 20 minutes. The time for the completion of the questionnaire was also determined according to the pilot study results. Again before answering this questionnaire, the researcher reminded the students to answer the questionnaire sincerely and that they shouldn’t hesitate or change their responses. The responses students gave to each question in the SILL were entered to the computer for data analyses.

Before conducting the real protocols, some piloting sessions were conducted with two other students (one male and one female) to detect some potential problems that might occur during the real protocols. One problem was that while one of the students was ready for audio recording his sound just after the first session, the other student expressed her readiness after the fourth session. This indicated that there were some individual differences between the students in terms of the level of self-confidence. On average the protocols took nearly 25 minutes, around 10 minutes talking about general issues to lessen the student’s tension and nearly 15 minutes reporting their ideas and practicing. Some general information and guidelines were informed to the students. They were explained what they were supposed to do and how to do it. Moreover, the participants were told that the protocols would be tape-recorded. At the end of the session a schedule was prepared based on their readiness and an appointment was given to each to record their voices. The data obtained from the actual think aloud protocols were transcribed and analyzed by another coder other than the researcher using an adapted version of coding index developed by Chamot and E-Dinary(1999) and a list of the definitions of the strategies adapted from Chamot and Kupper(1989).

**Results**

**The Analysis of the Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire Results**

This section focuses on the descriptive analysis of the obtained data in this study. Such analysis was done using the SPSS software. Table (1) shows the descriptive analysis of Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire. The Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire was used to assess the students’ learning styles. The
questionnaire consisted of 30 questions designed to diagnose the major and minor learning styles of students.

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics Concerning Learning Styles (N = 100)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEARNING STYLES</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KINESTHETIC</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>19.8800</td>
<td>3.11490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTILE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>19.1900</td>
<td>2.22790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUDITORY</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>18.4800</td>
<td>1.88819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VISUAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>17.6900</td>
<td>2.51338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GROUP</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>16.4200</td>
<td>2.60217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDIVIDUAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>15.0400</td>
<td>2.86363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the responses that the participants gave to the questionnaire mentioned above were analyzed, it seemed that the mean scores of three learning styles, kinesthetic, tactile, and auditory learning, being 19.88, 19.19 and 18.48 respectively fall into the major learning styles category, and the remaining three styles which are visual, group, and individual learning show lower means.

**The Analysis of the Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies**

The purpose of using the Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies was to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the students who participated in this study. The questionnaire consisted of 50 items, which identified the strategies of the respondents.

**Table 2: Descriptive Statistics Concerning Language Learning Strategies Preferences (N=100)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>METACOGNITIVE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.33</td>
<td>27.33</td>
<td>22.3399</td>
<td>2.96262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>19.8400</td>
<td>4.89840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COGNITIVE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.86</td>
<td>25.71</td>
<td>19.4068</td>
<td>3.15197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPENSATORY</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>19.0800</td>
<td>3.48062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFFECTIVE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>18.6700</td>
<td>4.00014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEMORY</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.33</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>17.6065</td>
<td>3.58308</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the descriptive statistics conducted to identify the strategies of the participants in this study, indicated that the most preferred strategy category of all, with a mean score of 22.33 was the one related to metacognitive strategies. Social strategies ranked the second with an average of 19.84. The third place in the ranking order was taken by the cognitive strategies with a mean score 19.40. Compensatory strategies are ranked in the fourth place with an average of 19.08, and although the
The mean scores of the affective strategies and memory strategies are 18.67 and 17.60 respectively, the latter category ranked the fifth and the former the sixth, the least preferred strategies.

The Analysis of the Relationship between Learning Styles and Language Learning Strategies

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MEMORY</th>
<th>COGNITIVE</th>
<th>COMPENSATORY</th>
<th>METACOGNITIVE</th>
<th>AFFECTIVE</th>
<th>SOCIAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VISUAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.095</td>
<td>.205*</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.244*</td>
<td>.282**</td>
<td>-.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUDITORY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>.245**</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KINESTHETIC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>.329**</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.301**</td>
<td>.212*</td>
<td>.294**</td>
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<td>P</td>
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<td>.093</td>
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<tr>
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The results revealed that the visual learning styles significantly correlated with affective, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies at p < .05 significance value with Pearson correlation being 0.282 (p=0.004), 0.244 (p=0.014), and 0.205 (p=0.041) (see Table 3). This implies that visual learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned. The visual learners also know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyze input logically and to make meaning out of it. The visual learners know how to control their emotions...
and attitudes about learning that may influence their language learning process positively since it will make learning more effective and enjoyable.

The auditory learning styles significantly correlated with metacognitive strategies at $p < .05$ significance value with correlation coefficient being 0.245 ($p=0.043$) (see Table 3). This implies that auditory learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned.

It was found that kinesthetic style category significantly correlated with the cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective strategies at $p < .05$ significance level, the correlation coefficient $r$ was found 0.329 ($p= 0.001$), 0.301 ($p=0.002$), 0.294($p=0.003$) and 0.212($p=0.34$) respectively (Table 3). Therefore the results show that kinesthetic learners know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyze input logically and to make meaning out of it. As stated earlier this implies that kinesthetic learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned. Kinesthetic learners know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning that may influence their language learning process positively since it will make learning more effective and enjoyable. Kinesthetic learners can also ask questions without any hesitation. They are also good at cooperating with others. What is more, it can be added that they can empathize with others.

It was also found that there was a significant relationship between the tactile learning style category and the cognitive strategies at $p < .05$ significance level, the correlation coefficient $r$ was found 0.275 and $p=0.006$. As it was stated earlier, this implies that tactile learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned.

It was found that individual style category significantly correlated with metacognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies at $p < .05$ significance level, the correlation coefficient $r$ was found 0.355($p= 0.000$), 0.321 ($p=0.001$), 0.319($p=0.001$) and 0.212($p=0.34$) respectively (Table 3). Therefore the results show that individual learners know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyze input logically and to make meaning out of it. As stated earlier this implies that individual learners are capable of thinking about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned. Individual learners know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning that may influence their language learning process positively since it will make learning more effective and enjoyable.

The results indicated that the group learning styles significantly correlated with metacognitive, social, and cognitive strategies at $p < .05$ significance value with Pearson correlation being 0.366($p=0.000$), 0.307($p=0.002$), and 0.205($p=0.046$) respectively (see Table 3). This implies that group learners are capable of thinking
about their learning process, planning for learning, monitoring their learning task, and evaluating how well they have learned. The group learners also know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyze input logically and to make meaning out of it. Group learners can also ask questions without any hesitation. They are also good at cooperating with others. What is more, it can be added that they can empathize with others.

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

The Analysis of Gender Effect on Language Learning Strategies and Learning Styles
A multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) was run to compare the mean scores of the male and female students on the learning styles and strategies. As displayed in Table (4), the F-observed value for the effect of the gender of the students on their learning styles and strategies was 59.81. This amount of F-value was higher than the critical value of 3.09 at 2 and 97 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that gender of the students had a significant effect on their learning strategies and styles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Value</th>
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<th>Error df</th>
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<td>97</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

The protocols were conducted with the students separately and the number of the training sessions differed according to the performance and the level of readiness of the students. During the final protocol all the students were asked to read the same text in order to be able to see what strategies students used while reading the same text.
piece of reading. After the protocols were finished, the records were transcribed. The data were coded by a coder other than the researcher. The coder was provided with the coding index and a list of the definitions of the strategies. The definition list was adapted from Chamot and Kupper (1989), and it was very useful because it was possible for the coder to refer to the definitions when necessary. The coder was informed that the dots in the transcriptions indicated the short intervals when students kept silent, and the bold letters indicated their stress on a special word or pronunciation.

First, the coder coded the transcripts independently by writing the name of the strategy in the spaces between the lines of the transcriptions and underlying the relevant parts on the sheets. Then, the coder and the researcher came together to compare their codes and to resolve their disagreements in their coding. The differences in the coding were resolved through discussions, by referring back to the coding scheme and clarifying the definitions of categories by referring to the definitions list when necessary.

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

Another very important characteristic revealed by the analysis of the transcripts was that students guessed the meaning or usage of an unfamiliar word by using the context or by dividing it into familiar meaningful parts. They were quite successful in making use of this. This was also parallel to the responses students gave to item 24(strategy inventory for language learning questionnaire), which states “To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses”. For example ‘traffic jam’:

Fatemeh: ‘jam’ means ‘moraba’ so ‘traffic jam’ would be .... traffics that are so thick like jam and people can’t move in these traffics.

"jam” حتماً ... ترافیک هایی که مثل "traffic jam" مربا غلیظند مردم نمی تونن بخوره از تو این ترافیک ها "

The results also revealed that students did not frequently attempt to translate the text word for word into their own native language. Rather, they preferred to give the overall meaning of a sentence or group of sentences. This was also parallel to the points students assigned to item 22, which states “I try not to translate word for word”, because they assigned 3 points for this item which means “somewhat true of me” rather than 5, which means “always or almost always true of me”. For example,

Ahad: ‘You can use a library near your home’ .... It is said that you can use the library that is near your home and you can borrow books from there in order to read, any book that you like.

کتابه شما می تونید از کتابخانه نزدیک خونتون استفاده کنید و کتاب رو از اونجا فارغ بگیرید تا بتونید بخوانید. هر کتابی که دوست داشتین باشید
However, when they reached unknown words or structures, in order to facilitate their comprehension of the text, they had the tendency to decode the sentences word by word. For instance:

Ahad: ‘reading’ ‘khandan’, ‘the first’ ‘avalin’, ‘cheap’ ‘arzan’, ‘the cheapest’ ‘arzantarin’, ‘the most useful activity’ ‘active’ ‘fa-aal’ ‘activity’ ‘fa-aliat’ it’s a kind of noun, ‘the most useful’ ‘por kar bord tarin’

“Reading” “یعنی” "ارزان ترین" "خوندن" "اولین" "پر کاربرد ترین"

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

Mostafa: probably it’s about holiday and advises what to do during the holiday.

امتحاناً درباره تعطیلات و یه مشت نصیحت که کلیم.

It was also observed that in general the students were consistent with item 31(strategy inventory for language learning questionnaire) in the questionnaire “I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better’, which focuses on monitoring strategies. The students stated that the item was always or almost always true of them, while two of them stated that it was usually true of them. Actually, students were found to be making use of a lot of monitoring strategies. A case in point is:

Farzaneh: ‘honking’.... Because of ‘busy days’ it can be said it is ‘exhaustion’....’honking the horn’ oh no, ‘horn’ is ‘boogh’ so ‘honking’ doesn’t mean exhaustion, such a mistake .... I think it means ‘boogh zadan’.

“honking” .... "به خاطر .... "busy days" .... ‘honking the horn’ .... "boogh" .... "horn"

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

Fatemeh:” junk” .....” junk food” ....." هله هوله" .....
As it can be seen from the examples provided above, when reading a text, students employed a lot of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to comprehend the reading material. The examples above are not only examples of beliefs about what students do, but also they are sound evidence showing what the students actually do while reading a text.

Discussion

In total, the results showed that most preferred learning styles of participants were kinesthetic, tactile, and auditory style categories. The most preferred language learning strategies of participants were metacognitive, social, and cognitive strategy categories. These results support the previous studies. For example Reid (1987) conducted a research with respect to learning styles of ESL learners. The overall results of the study indicated that ESL learners strongly preferred kinesthetic and tactile learning styles.

The overall results of this study regarding the relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies support the previous studies. As it was stated earlier, Oxford (1989) claims “it is likely that a strong relationship exists between the individual’s use of learning strategies and the individual’s learning styles. One of these studies was conducted by Oxford et al. (1991 as cited in Swanson, 1995). Its results also indicated strong relationship between LLS use and the sensory preferences of the learners, which are regarded as a dimension of learning styles. Their findings indicated that visual learners had the tendency to use strategies involving reading alone, in a quiet place or paying attention to blackboards, movies, computer screens, and other forms of visual stimulation. The auditory learners were found to be at ease without visual input and often manipulated strategies that encouraged conversation in a noisy, social environment with numerous sources of aural stimulation. The kinesthetic students were found to be in need of movement strategies and the tactile ones needed strategies that required the manipulation of real objects in the learning environment. Yet, both kinesthetic and tactile learners were found to need to use the strategy of taking frequent breaks. As it was shown in the current study a significant relationship exists between learning styles and strategies.

Finally, regarding the effect of gender on learning styles and strategies the results showed that female participants outperformed the male participants. One of the researches that can be considered as a support for this result was conducted by Ehrman and Oxford (1989). They found females reported significantly greater use of language learning strategies. Green and Oxford (1995) are the other researchers who also reported the same results.

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:
1. What are the learning styles and language learning strategies of the students?
2. Is there a relationship between learning styles and the language learning strategy use of the students?
3. Is there a difference in students’ styles and strategies based on their gender?

In order to answer the first research question, the data obtained from the learning styles questionnaire mentioned above were analyzed. It was found that the mean scores of three learning style preference categories, kinesthetic, tactile, and
auditory learning fitted into the major learning style preferences category. The remaining three styles which are visual, group, and individual learning show lower mean. The fact that the students were mainly kinesthetic learners was surprising because the participants’ language instructors stated that they were individual learning learners and they employed teaching techniques that cared for the needs of the individual learners mostly, which indicated a mismatch between the teaching styles of the instructors and the learning styles of the participants.

The answer for the first research question was that the most preferred strategy category of all was the one related to metacognitive strategies. Social strategies ranked the second place. The third place in the ranking order was taken by the cognitive strategies. Compensation strategies are ranked in the fourth place. The affective strategies ranked the fifth place and the memory strategies were the least preferred strategies.

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

To answer the second research question, the Pearson correlation was used to find whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the learning styles and the language learning strategies of the students. While the results indicated that none of the styles had a statistically significant relationship with the compensation strategies, it was found that:

- the visual learning styles had a significant relation with affective, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies
- the auditory learning styles had significant relationships with metacognitive strategies
- the kinesthetic learning styles had a significant relationship with the cognitive, metacognitive, social, and the affective strategies
- and it also seemed that there was a significant relationship between the tactile learning styles and the cognitive strategies
- the individual learning styles had a significant relationship with the metacognitive, cognitive, and the affective strategies
- the group learning styles had a significant relationship with the metacognitive, social, and the cognitive strategies

Concerning third research question, a multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) was run to compare the mean scores of the male and female students on the learning styles and strategies. It was found that the female students outperformed the male students on learning styles and language learning strategies.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

The further research on the relationship between learning styles and strategies might focus on the factors such as motivation, career orientation, performance, and the
length of exposure to the language which might influence the learning styles and the language learning strategy use of the language learners.

REFERENCES


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES, LEARNING STYLES AND GENDER

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Firooz Sadighi
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ABSTRACT
This study aimed at investigating the relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligences in order to examine whether a combination of them could improve students’ learning or not. The underlining framework of this study was based on the Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory by Gardner (1983). Results indicated that all male and female students who took part in the study had linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal as well as naturalist intelligences. As for the difference between males and females in terms of the types of intelligences, results demonstrated that males and females do not differ in terms of linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, body-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and naturalist intelligences. However, a significant difference was noticed between males and females with regard to intrapersonal intelligence. Besides, statistically significant relationship was observed between male and female students’ learning styles and their multiple intelligences.

KEY WORDS: Multiple intelligences; Learning styles; Gender; EFL achievement.

Introduction
The extensive body of literature on learning styles and multiple intelligences signifies their important role in higher education learning. The notions refer to different individual’s preferences and strengths in learning which can stimulate new ways of learning which can be considered as a stimulus for developing new ways of learning. Many researchers have worked on the individual’s learning styles which can increase their learning achievements (Moran, 1991). Honey and Mumford (1983) considered learning styles as a continuous process in learning that act as a spiral coil that wind continuously. Claxton and Murrell (1988) explained that the identification of learning style of students will enhance a better and more effective learning environment, but it all depends on the suitability on each individual (Irving and William, 1995).

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligences of EFL students. The main focus of this study was to identify the relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligences in order to examine whether a combination of them could improve students’ learning or not.
This investigation is based on the Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory by Gardner (1983), and was an attempt to explore the types of intelligences held by male and female high school students of one of the educational districts of Shiraz. The research examined different manifestations of multiple intelligences in males and females. Therefore, gender differences with regard to multiple intelligences were also a byproduct of the present study. In addition, this investigation aimed at examining the preferred learning style(s) of these students, to specify their learning style(s), and further to examine whether the variable of gender is a factor in the learning style preferences or not.

Definition of Important Terms

The key terms and expressions used in the study are as follows:

Learning style:

The term ‘learning style’ has been used to describe an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills (Oxford, 1998). In other words, it is the way people prefer to learn and process information. Learners have clear preferences for how they go about learning new material in the classroom. The growing interest in learning styles is in recognition of the fact that learners differ in ways that need to be taken into account when teachers make decisions about course content and teaching methodology.

Multiple Intelligence:

Multiple Intelligences theory has come as a reaction to the classical outlook upon the human intelligence; it is a revolutionary theory which came at the same time when many theories appeared so as to explain the human intellectual abilities. Gardner (1983) claimed that intelligence cannot be characterized by a single quantifiable test score and consists of several discrete abilities. This new outlook on intelligence differs greatly from the traditional view which usually recognizes only two intelligences, verbal and computational. They are more than a score on a typical standardized pencil-and-paper test used to predict success in school.

For a potential to be identified as intelligence, Gardner defines intelligence as "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural setting" and as: a bio-psychological potential of our species to process certain kinds of information in certain kinds of ways (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). As such, it clearly involves processes that are carried out by dedicated neural networks. No doubt, each of the intelligences has its characteristic of neural processes, and most of them are similar across human beings. Some of the processes might prove to be more customized to an individual (Gardner, 1999).

Using biological as well as cultural research, Gardner (1999) formulated a list of seven intelligences and proposed the theory of multiple intelligence. The seven intelligences that Gardner defines are:

- **Logical-Mathematical Intelligence** - consists of the ability to detect patterns, reason deductively and think logically. This intelligence is most often associated with scientific and mathematical thinking (Berman, 1998).
Linguistic Intelligence- involves having a mastery of language. This intelligence includes the ability to effectively manipulate language to express oneself rhetorically or poetically. It also allows one to use language as a means to remember information.

Spatial Intelligence- gives one the ability to manipulate and create mental images in order to solve problems. This intelligence is not limited to visual domains—Gardner notes that spatial intelligence is also formed in blind children.

Musical Intelligence- encompasses the capability to recognize and compose musical pitches, tones, and rhythms. (Auditory functions are required for a person to develop this intelligence in relation to pitch and tone, but it is not needed for the knowledge of rhythm) (Berman, 1998).

Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence- is the ability to use one's mental abilities to coordinate one's own bodily movements. This intelligence challenges the popular belief that mental and physical activities are unrelated (Berman, 1998).

The Personal Intelligences- includes interpersonal feelings and intentions of others- and intrapersonal intelligence- the ability to understand one's own feelings and motivations (Berman, 1998). These two intelligences are separate from each other. Nevertheless, because of their close association in most cultures, they are often linked together (Gardner, 1999).

Capuis (2003) states that although the intelligences are anatomically separated from each other, Gardner claims that the seven intelligences very rarely operate independently. Rather, the intelligences are used concurrently and typically complement each other as individuals develop skills or solve problems. Later on he added two more intelligences to his list; naturalist intelligence -as the ability to recognize and classify objects- and existential Intelligence-as the intelligence of understanding in a large context or big picture- which we will discuss about them in details in the following chapter.

Method
Setting
The present study was carried out at four high schools in educational district one in Shiraz, southwest Iran, of which two were girls’ high schools and the other two were boys’. From four educational districts exist in Shiraz, educational district one ; from all the high schools exist in this district, four high schools; and from each high school, 30 students were chosen randomly. The study was conducted during the 2012 fall semester.

Participants
The participants of this research study were 160 high school girl and boy students of grades 1,2 and 3 in the in the school year 2012-2013 which were selected from four high schools of one education district of Shiraz randomly. Eighty boys and
eighty girls were enrolled in this study of which forty were excluded from the study because they did not fill the questionnaires completely. The final population consisted of 60 boys and 60 girls.

**Instruments and Materials**

Of the two questionnaires we employed in our study, the first one was Reid 30-item Perceptual Learning-Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) that was adapted and used to identify participants’ perceptual learning style preferences. The PLSPQ examines four perceptual (auditory, visual, tactile and kinesthetic) and two social (group and individual) learning style preferences. It was nominated for this study because it has been reviewed by non-native speaker informants and United States consultants in the fields of linguistics, education, and cross-cultural studies (Reid, 1995). Additionally, it was the most widely used learning styles instrument for non-native speakers of English (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2004). It has become one of the popular instruments to examine ESL/EFL students’ learning styles, which is related to the present study.

The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part identified the participants’ demographic information such as gender, age, fields of study, school grade, and length of English education. The second part comprised 30 items of learning strategy statements classified into 6 categories: Auditory Learning, Visual Learning, Tactile Learning, Kinesthetic Learning, Group Learning, and Individual Learning. Each category provides information on how individuals prefer to learn a language. The type of response scale is based on the Likert scale containing five items with regard to the degree of agreement or disagreement. That is, the participants were asked to indicate: (1) strongly agree; (2) agree; (3) neutral; (4) disagree; and (5) strongly disagree. The questionnaire was piloted prior to the actual data collection and the reliability Cronbach’s Alpha was obtained at 0.873. The reliability statistics results using Cronbach's Alpha is presented in Table 1 below.

<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second questionnaire which was employed included survey questions targeted at eight intelligences proposed by Gardner (1983). In order to assess the students’ IQ, the multi-sided intelligence questionnaire was used which was based on the Farsi translation of the questionnaire by Herms and Nial Dougld. The questionnaire consisted of 8 subscales and 80 items on a two-choice scale which measured each of the intelligence types mentioned by Gardner. In order to check the reliability of the questionnaire Cronbach’s Alpha was utilized. The result indicated Alpha level of .80 which indicated that the questionnaire enjoys a high level of reliability. The result of reliability statistics is presented in Table 2 below.
Finally, the scores of students being studied in English lesson related to various multiple intelligence items were derived. All the collected information from the completed questionnaire and the students’ scores were put to statistical analysis.

**Procedures**

All participants who were studying at four girls and boys high school of educational district one in Shiraz were selected randomly from different classes and grades. Then two Multiple Intelligences and Learning Styles questionnaires were administered to the students to fill them out at the same session. After giving a short introduction to the project, they were asked to read the items and complete the inventories.

**Data Analysis Procedures**

Data analysis procedures for this study were comprised of quantitative data analyses using *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS). The results answered research questions of this study through some descriptive statistics which represented Means and Standard Deviations of different variables under investigation, independent samples *t*-tests and Pearson Correlation Coefficients. The results of all these quantitative data analyses were used at interpretation phase to provide answers to the research questions of this study.

**Results and discussion**

In order to address the research question of this study firstly the types of learning styles of male and female high school students were determined. To this end, firstly descriptive statistics of different types of learning styles including visual, tactile, auditory, group, kinesthetic and individual is provided for both male and female students. The results are presented in Table 3 below.

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<th>Gender</th>
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<th>tactile</th>
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<td>60</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>18.12</td>
<td>15.70</td>
<td>18.20</td>
<td>16.47</td>
<td>17.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>19.02</td>
<td>16.87</td>
<td>18.15</td>
<td>15.20</td>
<td>17.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in this table, male and female students enjoy from varying types of learning styles by varying degrees. However, the participants of the study have reported having almost all these types of learning styles. The Means and Standard Deviations of each type of learning styles are reported separately by gender. The result of descriptive statistics do not indicate more significant or much higher degree of one type of learning style over another one when it comes to gender-wise comparisons.

The main objective of this study was to determine if there exists a significant relationship between male and female students’ learning styles and their types of multiple intelligences.

For this purpose, first of all descriptive statistics for learning styles and multiple intelligences for female and male students are calculated and the results are reported in Tables 4 and 5 respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>103.48</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>11.69</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>50.03</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>10.18</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. gender = female

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>102.16</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>48.33</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>9.98</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. gender = male

As reported in these tables the Mean for the academic achievement is 103.48 for the female students and 102.16 for the male students. The Standard deviation is 11.69 for the female students and 12.57 for the male students. The Mean for multiple intelligences is 50.03 for the female students and 48.33 for the male students. The Standard deviation is 10.18 for the female students and 9.98 for the male students. It can be concluded from the results that the Means and Standard deviations for these two variables do not indicate statistically significant difference for males and females. In order to see if there is a significant relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligences of male and female students, Pearson Correlation Coefficients were run for female and male participants the results of which are presented in tables 6 and 7 respectively.
As these tables show, the correlation coefficient is 0.523 for female students and 0.460 for male students. The obtained coefficients indicate that there is a relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligences of male and female students. Considering the significance level (Sig=.000), it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between male and female students learning styles and multiple intelligences. This significant correlation was observed for both male and female participants.

**Pedagogical Implications**

The findings of the present study can provide students, teachers, and administrators with a number of pedagogical implications. First, students are recommended to identify the best way(s) through which they can learn the language more effectively. Having identified their learning styles and being aware of the ways with which they can be more successful in their language learning journey, students will be better familiar with their strengths and weaknesses, which will thus help them become more proficient language learners.
Teachers should also take steps to develop and strengthen their students’ learning styles and intelligences through different techniques. They can, for instance, employ easier tasks and practices so that students can be more satisfied with their educational attainment. Moreover, they can plan and deliver a series of instructional events in multiple modes so that a large number of students with varying learning styles and intelligences can benefit from the instruction they receive. Once a teacher has a picture of the students’ strengths and weaknesses in different intelligence areas, (s)he can help them realize and develop their intellectual capabilities accordingly. The findings of the present study may serve as recommendations to educators to modify their instruction and offer a variety of opportunities for learners to learn the materials presented in the classroom. They might help educators select a variety of appropriate teaching materials and techniques to meet the needs of learners with different abilities. Therefore, prior to choosing any teaching materials, educators should conduct a needs analysis in order to find out the multiple intelligence profile of their students and to avoid having any mismatch between selected topics and the students’ needs, interests, and learning styles.

Some teachers may not be familiar with their students’ learning styles and intelligences. As such, administrators are recommended to provide teachers with teacher education programs to make teachers aware of the importance of identifying their students’ learning styles and intelligences. Equipped with such knowledge, teachers will be more successful and effective in their language teaching career.

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EMP STUDENTS’ USE OF READING STRATEGIES AND THE IMPACT OF STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON MEDICAL TEXT COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
Reading is one of the pillars of language learning and plays a key role in successful academic performances. To become proficient readers in the content areas, learners should know how to tackle expository texts. The present study aimed at broadening our knowledge on the types of reading strategy use and the effectiveness of reading strategy instruction to emp learners. Moreover, the differences between high and low capable readers were analyzed in light of their reading performances. Accordingly, in a comparative quasi-experimental design forty learners of nursing, and lab students from jahroms university of medical sciences participated in the study. Learners completing the types of reading strategy questionnaire went through a reading strategy instruction course. To compare learners’ performances, their reading achievements were assessed through pre-, post- and delay tests. Descriptive statistics, chi-square, independent and pair sample t-test were applied to analyze learners’ reading attainments. The results of the study revealed that emp learners mostly and significantly employ skimming and scanning strategies. To a lesser extent, they use discourse markers to comprehend medical texts. By the same token, higher capable readers showed meaningful use of skimming and scanning respectively compared to lower readers. However, differences in the use of discourse markers though considerable were not significant. Furthermore, findings indicated that learners in both high and low groups perform meaningfully better in their post- and delay tests after reading strategy instruction compared to their pre-tests. The study highlights the noteworthy effect of reading strategy instruction on learners’ reading comprehension.

KEYWORDS: reading comprehension, reading strategy, instruction, language improvement

1. Introduction
Reading is of utmost necessity for learning because it is the basis for all knowledge. Foreign language learning which entails both knowledge accumulation and skill development is an endeavor that supports this necessity quite clearly. Learning to read in a foreign language is a difficult task and the most important and critical skills for second language (L2) students to achieve academic success. In other word, it is a kind
of interaction between the reader and the text which implies a degree of knowledge of the world, topics and target language. Readers often encounter problems in reading a text and understanding the intended meaning. In fact, there are many factors that affect efficacy in the reading of a text in a second language of which one of the most important ones is lack of using appropriate reading strategies (Hsu, 2006). In general, research on language learning strategies started in the 1970s. However, empirical investigations on reading strategies use and its relationship to successful and unsuccessful second language readers have been carried out more recently (Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Rokhsari, 2012). Research studies in second language contexts have demonstrated that strategy use is different in more and less proficient readers. That is, more proficient readers use different types of strategies in different ways. From another point of view, it is found that using reading strategies facilitates reading comprehension and helps learners become more proficient and autonomous readers (Booth & Swartz, 2004).

The problem of how to develop reading comprehension proficiency is one of the main concerns for learners of English as a foreign language and English teachers in Iran, since reading is the major classroom activity in the public language education. In addition, it is an unquestionable fact that English plays a vital and prominent role in higher education in academic settings especially in medicine. Medical group students have to read medical textbooks and professional journals which are mostly written in English. That’s why English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and, in the medical field, English for Medical Purposes (EMP) are necessary courses in curriculum planning for academic English education (Ghalandari & Talebinejad, 2012). Unfortunately, studies investigating reading strategies used by medical students or the effect of instructing such strategies have been rare in spite of the fact that EMP students have to heavily rely on their ability to comprehend English medical texts. To deal with this problem, the present study tries to investigate Iranian EMP students’ use of reading strategies and impact of strategy instruction on medical text comprehension. To meet this aim, the present study seeks to address the following research questions:

1. What types of reading strategies are used by Iranian EMP students?
2. Is there any difference between the types of reading strategies used by such students at high and low levels of reading proficiency?
3. How does reading strategies instruction affect reading comprehension achievement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time?
4. How does reading strategies instruction influence reading comprehension improvement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time?

1.1 Statement of the Problem
The lingua franca of medicine is English which is employed by doctors, nurses and other medical groups in writing medical records, reading medical journals which are published in English, and communicating with each other (Yang, 2005). As such, EMP students, clinicians and researchers whose native language is not English must learn it to avail themselves to the large body of medical knowledge published in English and
also they have to use English for their future career. A large number of medical group students in a country like Iran suffer from poor English language proficiency perhaps due to a variety reasons open to regular and preferably collective research studies. Students’ difficulties in comprehending and using English for academic purposes might be due to a number of reasons. In public education, students at schools have some English courses which are not effective enough. Additionally, at universities, except English majors, students pass some credits in general English and ESP courses which, according to Ghonsooly and Pishghadam (2007), do not seem to be useful and interesting for students. Many students, unfortunately, merely rely on English courses offered at universities and do not try to develop the ability to communicate effectively in English for specific purposes in their own field of study. In particular, they do not get the opportunity to develop and improve their academic English reading skills and strategies. Therefore, most of them are unfamiliar with the employment of English reading strategies that potentially enhance their reading proficiency. That might be the reason why researchers have observed that Iranian university students, in spite of having a certain level of English reading ability, experience problems in applying effective reading strategies to comprehend scientific texts (Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012). Thus research on strategies used by Iranian EMP students seems to help us better figure out how they deal with academic texts in English and how they could better manage their practical use of those texts.

1.2 Significance of the Study
The results of the present study are supposed to help medical group students with an awareness of reading strategies in dealing with medical text comprehension in their education and beyond that while they are involved in their career continually referring to English sources for the information they need. Furthermore, Iranian ESP instructors can apply the findings of this study to develop more effective instructional strategies addressing learners’ needs for a variety of reading strategies which will help them cope with difficulties in reading medical texts in English.

2. Literature Review
Reading is one of the fundamental skills for academic successes. Reading aids learners to learn, acquire knowledge and experience world. It is the skill of coordinating and constructing meaning through complex processes encompassing language, word reading, word knowledge and fluency (Park, 2005; May, 2010; Vaca, 2002). When reading a text, learners utilize a vast of skills and processes to decode authors’ intention. Comprehension has been built upon interactive processes which are overshadowed by a variety of cognitive models. In what follows, theoretical models of reading, reading strategy and reading strategy instruction will be illustrated in details. Literature has reported a plethora of studies on reading strategies and reading strategy instruction which highlights the helpfulness of reading strategy and the part they play in enhancing reading comprehension; dearth of knowledge about strategies always cause learners not comprehend texts and be poor categorization Scheme for Instructional readers (Geladari, Griva & Mastrothanasis, 2010; Baire, 2005; Ozek & Civelek, 2006; Sporer, Brunstein & Kieschke, 2009; Cogmen & Saracaloglu, 2009).
In one study, Geladari, Griva and Mastrothanasis (2010) explored the reading strategies used by immigrant children. The sample consisted of 32 Albanian and Romanian speaking children who attend the fifth and sixth primary school grades. Think-aloud protocols and retrospective interviews were applied to collect data. The analysis of findings indicated that higher competent bilingual learners use more top-down and more complex reading strategies in contrast to less proficient learners revealing dependence on bottom-up decoding strategies and limited awareness of the reading process. According to the researchers, “the successful readers showed greater strategic knowledge, since they were more flexible in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and employed a wider range of more ‘elaborated’ strategies ... On the contrary, the less successful readers read slowly and showed more limited lower-level processes and strategies” (p. 3768).

Baire (2005) investigated whether learners how employ reading comprehension strategies during reading retain more information and understand the test better. He also further analyzed whether learners who have good reading comprehension skills attain better on reading comprehension tests. Fourteen sixth grade learners were participated in the study. Learners were firstly asked to complete the Qualitative Reading Inventory - 4 reading comprehension pretests after finding out their individual reading levels. Following that, learners go through a six-week study of the Self-Questioning Reading Strategy. At the end of the study the learners were again given the Qualitative Reading Inventory - 4 reading comprehension posttests. The analysis of findings revealed that twelve of the fourteen sixth grade learners developed in the reading comprehension scores. Two of the fourteen learners resulted in no change in the reading comprehension scores. There were no learners that exhibited a decline in scores. Baire concluded that reading strategy instruction effectively overshadow their reading performances.

In 2001, Bimmel review six intervention studies on the effect of reading strategy instruction in secondary education. He aimed at finding characteristics of reading strategy instruction programs which indicate the efficiency of such programs. In the model, the study distinguished features as strategic reading activities included in the instructional program, components of the instructional program (orientation/explanation, practice/application, awareness-raising activities) and effects (on knowledge about strategies, command of strategic reading activity, and/or reading comprehension). Bimmel reported that “if the aim is to achieve positive effects on standardized reading comprehension tests - awareness-raising activities, in combination with orientation/explanation about reading strategies and practice in the execution of strategic reading activities, could be a crucial element in reading strategy instruction in regular secondary education” (p. 273).

In his meta-analysis, Davis (2010) explored comprehension strategy instruction for upper elementary and middle school students. Davis reviewed intervention studies published between 1980 and 2009 in which learners in grades 4-8 are taught to utilize two or more comprehension strategies. Following that, the collected studies were coded using a systematic data extraction scheme. He summarized findings as

1. Instruction in the use of multiple comprehension strategies has a positive impact on student achievement in grades 4 – 8.
2. The expected impact of strategy instruction depends on how the intervention is implemented and how it is studied.
3. Reciprocal Teaching has a positive impact on reading comprehension.
4. Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies, Think-aloud instruction, Transactional Strategies Instruction, and Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction are other type of effective strategies.
5. Both struggling and non-struggling readers benefited from MCSI, with some evidence that below average readers benefited more on non-standardized measures than average or above average readers.
6. No strong systematic relationships were detected between instructional duration and effectiveness of treatment.
7. Interventions provided by teachers appear to be equally effective as those provided by researchers. Computerized instruction also appeared to be as effective as researcher or teacher delivered instruction.
8. There was no evidence that MCSI was more effective when provided during reading classes than in content area classes.
9. The addition of student practice (without the teacher) is associated with positive gains in reading comprehension on both standardized and non-standardized measures but not for strategy knowledge and use.
10. There was no evidence that MCSI was more effective when provided in small groups versus whole classes.
11. There was no evidence that increased emphasis on self-regulated comprehension resulted in increased treatment effectiveness.
12. Some specific strategies were identified that appear to have a positive effect on comprehension. These include analysis/reflection, graphic organizers, and previewing (Davis, 2010, pp. 194-195)

May (2010) delved the effects of explicit reading strategies instruction applied to 3rd year EFL lycee pupils. The study attempted to indicate if these students truly comprehend some effective reading strategies, they would be able to employ them more effectively and implement them properly for their meaningful reading comprehension. Running t-test analysis, the study reported that “explicit reading strategies instruction enables EFL learners to achieve reading comprehension” (p. iii).

Ozek and Civelek (2006) evaluated the type of reading strategies applied by ELT learners during reading and the type of reading strategies are required to be developed to comprehend text better. 185 students, including 88 first- and 97 fourth-year students in Ziya Gokalp Education Faculty at Dicle University involved in the study. Out of the sample, nonetheless, only 23 of the students volunteered to join the think-aloud component of the research. A questionnaire on cognitive reading strategy use while reading a text during pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading phase was used. Furthermore, students were asked to think-aloud in front of a tape recorder as they read an authentic text. Results indicated that “the 1st and the 4th year subjects employed the strategies of relating the title to the text content, reading without
translating verbatim and they did not classify the words according to their meanings” (p. 21). Besides, learners’ gender, age, and proficiency in reading, school source, and duration in learning English cause differences in the use of cognitive reading strategies.

Yee (2010) aimed at exploring methods for improving reading comprehension among struggling adolescent readers. 29 students from a rural school division in Saskatchewan who volunteered to participate in a period of four to five weeks study. Beginning to the intervention, learners were divided to three groups: the MSI group practiced decoding and learned six comprehension strategies; the FSI group practiced decoding and learned just two comprehension strategies; and the control group who participated in their typical education program. ANOVA and MANOVA test were run to analyze findings. The analysis produced the following results:

1. Pull-out intervention did not offer a statistically significant advantage over the typical classroom setting when attempting to remediate reading comprehension;
2. Participants in the MSI group demonstrated significant improvement on measures of decoding;
3. Although statistical testing did not reveal significant results, effect sizes were large for: participants in the MSI group on measures of fluency; participants in the FSI group on measures of fluency and the Oral Reading Quotient; participants in the control group on measures of decoding, comprehension, fluency, and the Oral Reading Quotient; and
4. Decoding accounted for a statistically significant 15.4% of the unique variance in post-test comprehension scores, but differences in grouping contributed a negligible amount (Yee, 2010, pp. iv-v).

Working with learners with learning disabilities, Antoniou and Souvignier (2007) assessed a reading-strategy program containing reading and self-regulation strategies. Seventy-three learners with learning disabilities from special and integrative schools of the Rhein-Main area in Hessen, Germany, participated in the study. The learners were in the fifth to eighth grade and attended 27 classes. Instructors taught explicitly cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies as well as self-regulation techniques. To make I simple, the program included four concrete reading strategies: Thinking About the Headline, Clarification of Text Difficulties, Summarization- Narrative Texts, and Summarization-Expository texts, as well as a self-regulation strategy in the form of a reading plan accompanied by a checklist. The study reported a significant improvement for learners with learning disabilities in the long term. In Antoniou and Souvignier’ words, “immediately after completion of the program only effects on reading strategy knowledge were significant; however, follow up measures yielded meaningful gains in the experimental group for reading comprehension (d = .80), reading-strategy knowledge (d = .62), and reading self-efficacy (d = .78)” (p. 41).

Sporer, Brunstein and Kieschke (2009), explored the effects of three different forms of strategy instruction. 210 elementary-school learners were divided to intervention conditions or traditional instruction condition. Training students were taught four reading strategies (summarizing, questioning, clarifying, predicting) and practiced these strategies in small groups (reciprocal teaching), pairs, or instructor-guided small
groups. The study revealed that “at both the post- and follow-up test the intervention students attained higher scores on an experimenter-developed task of reading comprehension and strategy use than the control students who received traditional instruction. Furthermore, students who practiced reciprocal teaching in small groups outperformed students in instructor-guided and traditional instruction groups on a standardized reading comprehension test” (p. 272).

Dreye and Nel (2003) aimed at presenting the format and structure of a strategic reading instruction component of an English for Professional Purposes course offered within a technology-enhanced environment. In a quasi-experimental non-randomized control group design, 131 first-year ESL students who were speakers of Afrikaans and Setswana majoring in Communication Studies involved in the study. Students in each experimental and control groups were divided to two additional groups, namely successful and unsuccessful or “at risk” for failure. A Reading Strategies Questionnaire, the TOEFL test and two reading comprehension tests were the instruments of the study. The analysis of findings revealed that

- The experimental group differed statistically, as well as practically significantly, from the control group on all the reading comprehension measures (posttest scores).

- Similarly, the successful students also differed statistically, as well as practically significantly, from the at-risk students on all the reading comprehension measures (posttest scores) (p. 357).

The study further argued that learners who received strategic reading instruction in this environment received both statistically and practically meaningfully higher scores on three reading comprehension measures than did the learners in the control group.

Zoghi (2013) evaluated cooperative, collaborative, and teacher-directed teaching methods on the reading comprehension performance of EFL learners. 93 learners in three selected groups were instructed over a period of 8 weeks in a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design. Zoghi states that “cooperative technique as a highly structured-learning practice is more effective than collaborative and teacher-directed instructional strategies in improving learners’ reading comprehension performance” (p. 541).

Muhammad (2013) used a mixed-method research design to find out the reading beliefs and classroom instructional practices of English teachers in public sector universities in Pakistan. A purposive sample of 71 English teachers took part in the study. Findings signifies that majority of the English teachers, who teach English L2 reading /text materials or language skills courses, still prefer to employ traditional methods while teaching English, especially reading.

In another study, Andreassen and Braten (2011) delved implementation and effects of explicit reading comprehension instruction in fifth-grade classrooms. 55 girls and 48 boys in five mixed-ability fifth-grade classes at three different schools in a small town in south-east Norway were the intervention group. The control group consisted of 64 girls and 49 boys from six randomly selected mixed-ability fifth-grade classes at the remaining schools in the same town. Explicit Reading Comprehension Instruction (ERCI) was then implemented in five 45-m social studies lessons a week over a period
of 18 weeks. In the same period, the students in the control group were taught according to the same social studies curriculum using ordinary practices, that is, with no special emphasis on reading comprehension instruction. Results showed that learners in the intervention group augmented their strategic competence and comprehension performance with regard to controls. Nevertheless, no effect was found on reading motivation.

Cogmen and Saracaloglu (2009) identified the frequency level of reading strategies that the college learners employ while they are reading the academic materials and examined these strategies according to some variables. 230 college students attending the Faculty of Education in Pamukkale University completed Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire (MRSQ). Mean, standard deviation, correlation, the t-test, one way ANOVA, Kruskal Wallis and Mann Whitney U tests for independent samples were the statistical technique of the study. Learners employ both analytic and pragmatic strategies in “I often use” level. The study concluded that they aim both to remember and construct the concepts while reading academic texts.

In the case of ESP/EMP learners, studies though limited, reported the fruitfulness of reading strategy use and reading strategy instruction on learners’ achievements. Martinez (2008) delved the reported strategy use of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) university students, particularly learners from the Faculty of Chemistry and the Technical School of Engineering. Differences, if any, between male and female students in their perceived use of reading strategies while reading academic materials were also explored. 157 non-native-English speaking Spanish students, 48% were female and 52% were male, from the University of Oviedo took part in the study. To collect data, Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI), Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), Support Reading Strategies (SUP) were administrated among learners. Martinez argued that “there is a moderate to high overall use of reading strategies among Spanish ESP students when reading their academic materials. Moreover, the study shows higher reported use for problem-solving and global reading strategies. Women also tend to report significantly higher frequency of support reading strategy use.” (p. 172).

In context of Iran, Jafari and Shokpourt (2012) studied the reading strategies of Iranian EMP students when they read authentic expository texts in English. 81 male/female university sophomore students studying environmental health, occupational health and safety, and midwifery at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences were selected as the subjects of the study. The Persian version of Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) and a reading comprehension test were administrated among learners. To the researchers’ interest, learners show moderate awareness of reading strategies and the most frequently employed strategies were support strategies, followed by global strategies, and then problem solving strategies. Furthermore, learners majoring in environmental health implement more overall reading strategies than those majoring in occupational health and safety and midwifery.

Tabataba’ian and Zabihi (2011) assessed the differences between strategies employed in reading ESP and GPE texts. Four EFL learners studying in an upper-intermediate level at College of Ferdowsi University in Mashhad received a GPE (General Purpose English) text along with four ESP (English for Specific Purposes) texts. Think-aloud
approach as a way of understanding the mental processes the subjects go through and also a technique of eliciting the strategies utilized when they are performing a task was the methodology of the study. According to the study, while cognitive strategies were utilized often in both texts, socio-affective strategies were not employed at all. “It was revealed that drawing on background knowledge is done more often when learners read ESP texts. In addition, drawing on background knowledge and confirming the knowledge proved to be important strategies for reading ESP texts” (p. 53).

Amirian (2013) studied the impact of teaching reading strategies on reading comprehension improvement of ESP readers. The study also attempted to discover whether there is any interaction between readers’ proficiency level and the effectiveness of reading strategy training. 60 ESP sophomore learners studying geography at Hakim Sabzevar University were taken as the sample of the study. Following that, learners were divided to two groups of experimental and control. Through 14 weeks, experimental students received reading strategy instruction on skimming, scanning, summarizing and guessing meaning from context. However, learners in control group receive regular instruction. The pre-, post-test analysis indicated that reading strategy training to ESP students effectively enhance learners’ proficiency. Furthermore, readers with lower proficiency level take the most advantages out of the instruction. Amirian recommended that “while teaching ESP readers how to use a given strategy, they must also be taught how to determine if they are successful in their use of that strategy. It must be emphasized that low proficient readers need guided practice if strategy training is to be successful” (p. 7).

In 2012, Kashef, Damavand and Viyani intended to investigate the effect of a Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI) on improving male and female students’ reading comprehension ability in an ESP context. 50 homogeneous subjects, 24 men and 26 women, were selected based on their age range, reading comprehension ability, and motivational features. Two standard and reliable tests of English reading comprehension, one as a pretest and the other one as a postrtest assessed learners on their comprehension improvement. The study claimed positive and significant effects of cognitive and meta-cognitive skills and strategies training on developing learners’ reading comprehension ability of students. However, gender’s effect was not significant.

In a different study, Tanyeli (2009) trained learners in an online course. Law students in Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU) were observed in web-assisted or traditional methods of learning. Learners’ reading proficiency and comprehension are measured in pre-test and post-tests administered before and after the experiment. Tanyeli mentioned an improvement in the reading comprehension skills. He concluded that the experimental group who are involved in online reading skills achieved higher level of learning.

Park (2005) studying agriscience learners explored learners’ comprehension by employing content area reading strategies (CARS). Grade level, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status (SES), grade point average (GPA), Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) reading levels of students, variance in agriculture comprehension and motivation to read were variables of interest. The study followed a quasi-experimental nonequivalent control group design investigating the effect of
using CARS on agricultural comprehension and attitude toward reading of a purposively selected sample (n = 95) of secondary agriscience learners, enrolled in Agriscience Foundations in Florida. The study compared CARS instruction with the teacher’s normal instruction. Park concluded

Over 60% of students read at the lowest two FCAT reading levels, while 11.6% read at the highest two levels. Students were generally lacking in motivation to read. Agriculture pre-test score, grade level, GPA, gender, ethnicity, and FCAT reading level predicted 65.0% of variance in agriculture post-test scores. Regression analysis did not produce a model that was statistically significant for motivation to read. GPA and FCAT reading level predicted 39.4% of variance in the comprehension portion post-test score (Park, 2005, p. xv).

It might not be surprise to state that without advancing effective reading strategies through instruction to learners, especially in the case of ESP learners, they will find it even much more harder to grasp and learn new words and concepts from written texts. It is so important to know about how to employ the different reading strategies and how to utilize them properly, inasmuch as it let readers to widen their minds and go deeply in the language through reading. What is of high importance is the situation of ESP/EMP learners in academic settings. ESP/EMP learners aiming at optimizing their knowledge have to study and explore original texts in English and prepare projects on specific subjects reading L2 articles. Future career is another vital factor which highlights the necessity of knowledge and capability in reading. Accordingly, teaching reading strategies significantly may help ESP/EMP learners in their academic performances. In this regard, the present study aimed at exploring the practical effect of strategy intervention on EMP learners’ reading proficiency.

3. Methodology
3.1 Participants
This study was carried out at Jahrom University of Medical Sciences in Iran. A total of 45 students (males and females ranging in age from 18 to 27) including 21 studying nursing and 24 studying in lab sciences in the first and second year of their medical studies took part in this study. All of the participants had experienced formal instruction in English for a period of 7 years during their public education. Based on the syllabus followed in medical schools, nursing students are required to pass 8 credits in general English and 2 in ESP courses while lab sciences students are required to pass 4 credits in general English and 2 in ESP. At the time of data collection, the participants were enrolled in a general English course with four hours of instruction per week focused on reading comprehension through different topics in the field of medical sciences.
3.2 Instruments
3.2.1. Reading Strategy Questionnaire
To determine the type of strategies used by medical students in general and to categorize strategy types in light of student’s proficiency levels in particular, a questionnaire was administered to the experimental groups. On purpose, a ready-made questionnaire eliciting respondents’ tendency toward specified reading comprehension strategies was not used to avoid mere attraction by items referring to one or other strategies. Instead the questionnaire was open-ended so that respondents would only be required to point to the strategies they were familiar with and would use in their reading practice. Furthermore, it was intentionally prepared in Persian in order to help the participants with easily understanding and responding. The questionnaire was in two sections. Section one contained a definition of reading strategy to help respondents gain an impression of strategies. In section two, the participants were required to indicate if they used any kind of reading strategies during reading of medical texts.

3.2.2. Reading Comprehension Test
A reading comprehension test was utilized in order to determine participants’ reading comprehension proficiency at high and low levels. The test included TOEFL sample tests with 10 passages and 31 multiple-choice questions retrieved from www.toeflindonesia.com. The reading passages covered a variety of topics related to the medical field of study. The selected topics were: How to Live Longer (3 questions), National Health Service (3 questions), Practice of Medicine (3 questions), Alcohol and Women Infertility (3 questions), Is Tea Beneficial? (3 questions), Mental Illnesses (3 questions), what is a Virus Made of? (3 questions), Common Cold and Flu (3 questions), Active Passive Smoking (3 questions), and Exocrine glands (4 questions). Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient was used to check for the reliability of the test through test retest procedure working with a sample of 35 similar students. The rounded reliability index for the test was .80.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure
With regard to reading strategy instruction, the targeted reading strategies introduced by Oxford (1990), and O’Malley & Chamot (1990) were determined. They included the following 12 strategies: Identifying the purpose in reading, Prediction, Skimming for main ideas, Scanning, Using semantic mapping or clustering, Guessing the meaning of new words when you are not certain, Vocabulary Analysis, Capitalizing on discourse markers to process relationships, Inferring, Self-monitoring, Generating Questions and Summarizing. Reading strategy instruction was conducted by two instructors and lasted for seven weeks.
In the second place, concerning the university schedule and impracticality of random selection of students, two classes of nursing and lab sciences with 45 students in the second semester were taken as intact groups to participate in the study by receiving the instruction. The treatment lasted for 7 weeks. During the experiment, 3-5 students from both classes were absent due to personal reasons and did not show up to take part in all sessions. Thus, students who did not complete both the pre-test and post-
test were not included in the data analysis and the analysis was reported based on 40 students’ performance on the tests.

Prior to the initiation of the study, with the cooperation of the head of the department and students’ instructors, the reading-strategy instruction program was introduced to the students in an informal meeting. The participants were provided with the necessary information about what they were required to follow in the study. Before the instruction started and during two successive sessions, the reading strategy questionnaire and the reading comprehension pre-test were administered to the participants. First, the participants were provided with a brief definition of reading strategies and were asked to indicate what type of reading strategies they would commonly use while reading in English. An interval of thirty minutes was allocated to data collection with the questionnaire. Next, the participants took the TOEFL test, which was intended to classify students into two proficiency levels in reading comprehension. They had forty five minutes to take the test. To probe the differences between learners’ level of proficiency and their pre-test reading comprehension performances, the results of pre-test were analyzed. Students were first divided to two groups of high and low based on their performances in their pre-test. The cut point 17.5 was selected based on students’ mean score in the reading test. Out of 40 students, 21 students were earmarked as high proficient readers and 19 were assigned as low ones. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics of learners in each group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of High and Low Proficient Readers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the treatment, the researcher worked with the instructors on a range of appropriate reading strategies to be targeted for instruction. To check for the implementation of the instruction, the researcher observed 4 random class sessions (240 minutes). The instruction was conducted in students’ L1. In each session, the instructors would teach the application 1 or 2 reading strategies depending on the complexity of the task. They would explain about the strategy and how to use it before, while and after working with reading passages. Then, they would choose a passage from the text book for the practice of applying the strategy under focus. Moreover, during the process of teaching, they would try to familiarize the students with the structure of different texts and different types of reading comprehension questions and the required reading strategies to handle the reading practice. Due to the fact that participants didn’t receive such an instruction on a regular basis outside the treatment, the possibility of history effect was out of question. At the end of treatment, the same reading comprehension test that was used for pre-testing was administrated to the groups to compare gain scores and accordingly check for any possible differential effects of reading strategy instruction on reading comprehension test performance of groups at different reading proficiency levels.
Once again and after 2 weeks, the test was administered as a delay test to monitor reading ability achievement over time.

3.4 data Analysis
To explore the research questions, Percentages and frequency counts were used to give a description of the results from the questionnaire regarding the type reading strategies used by learners at different levels of reading proficiency. As for handling the inferentially statistical analysis of the results, Chi-square tests were run to compare the frequency of strategy types indicated by the participants in the two groups. Independent samples t-tests were utilized to monitor differences between the two groups’ performance on the post and delay tests in the course of tracing the effect of reading strategy instruction on the groups’ achievements through the treatment. Such a statistical technique had also been used to check for the heterogeneity of the proficiency groups at the outset of the treatment. To check for improvement in reading comprehension under the effect of reading strategy instruction through the treatment as well as over time, paired samples t-tests were employed. In other words, in each proficiency group, performance on the pre-test was compared with that of the post-test which was also compared with that of the delay-test in turn.

4. Results
Q1: 1. what types of reading strategies are used by Iranian EMP students?
To begin with, students’ answer to reading questionnaire was assessed based on the frequencies of strategy use. The results of strategy use by EMP students are reported in Table 2. As Table 2 reveals, students mostly apply skimming and scanning strategies in order to comprehend reading texts. It denotes that students attempt to read the passage rapidly to get the main idea of the text. Skimming helps learners to predict the main idea and what the text will discuss. It is also indicted that students try to quickly focus on the specific information of the text through which generalize the meaning of the passage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skimming</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scanning</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse Marker</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q2. Is there any difference between the types of reading strategies used by such students at high and low levels of reading proficiency?
To this end, learners firstly were divided to two groups of proficient readers based on their performances in their pre-test and were compared on their use of strategy use (see table1). To further indicate the frequency of strategy use by high and low proficient readers and its significant level, chi-square was calculated. The results are tabulated in table 3. According to table 3, high proficient readers mostly apply skimming strategy in encountering reading passages (67%). It donates that successful readers are intended to get a preview of text more than the poor ones. Moreover,
successful readers (45%) check the text for specific details more than the low group (42%). The same is true for overshadowing of discourse markers between high (15%) and low (13%) readers’ strategy use. Generally speaking, EMP readers with higher proficiency employ more types of reading strategies (52.5%) in understanding a text as oppose to low readers (47.5%).

Table 3. The Frequency of Strategy Use by High and Low Proficient Readers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skim</td>
<td>Scan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 1.00 Count</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% within Group</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Reading</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>52.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>52.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 2.00 Count</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>19</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% within Group</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Reading</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% within Group</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% within Reading</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 4, 5 and 6 report the Chi-square analysis of reading strategy use. The first table revealed that learners in each groups showed significant differences in the use of skimming strategies ($p=0.02$).

Table 4. Chi-square Table for Skimming Strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>30.643a</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>40.948</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>15.333</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 36 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .48.
Chi-square in table 5 reported the same significant differences between high and low readers in the use of reading strategies ($p=0.03$).

### Table 5. Chi-square Table for Scanning Strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>31.312</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>43.215</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>16.388</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 40 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .48.

Following table 4.5, there is no significant differences between high and low proficient readers in the use of discourse markers ($p=0.18>.05$). Due to near use of discourse marker by both groups, differences have not become significant.

### Table 6. Chi-square Table for discourse markers Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>18.480</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>24.348</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>4.678</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 30 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .48.

**Q3. How does reading strategies instruction affect reading comprehension achievement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time?**

In a quasi-experimental study, students were instructed over seven weeks in applying various reading strategies in encountering passages. Post-test and delay test were administrated to check achievements of learners after intervention based on their level of proficiency. To explore learners’ achievement, descriptive statistics of their response to post-test and delay-test are presented in table 7 below. Compared to table, both high and low learners have shown successes in their reading performances after intervention ($M_{H}=24.65$, $M_{L}=18.31$) and over time ($M_{H}=29.19$, $M_{L}=20.84$).

### Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of High and Low Learners in Post-test and Delay Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PostT</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.6538</td>
<td>4.17244</td>
<td>.91050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Differences being considerable, however, their significance was check using independent sample t-test. Results of t-test are presented in table 8. According to table 8, learners in groups of high capable readers perform significantly compared to their low counterparts both in post-test ($p=0.00$) and delay-test ($p=0.00$) administration.

Table 8. Independent Sample T-test of High and Low Readers on Post and Delay Tests

| Q4. How does reading strategies instruction influence reading comprehension improvement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time? |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In a quasi-experimental study, students were instructed over seven weeks in applying various reading strategies in encountering passages. Pre-test, post-test and delay test were administrated to check differences between learners’ performances before and after intervention based on their level of proficiency. To check learners’ improvement and differences, paired sample t-test was run. Scores of students in both high and low |
proficiency levels were applied and assessed. Results of descriptive analysis and t-test analysis are shown in table 9 and 10.

| Table 9. Descriptive Statistics of High and Low Learners in Pre-Test, Post-Test and Delay-Test |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Group | N  | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Pre-Test | 1.00 | 21 | 21.2243 | 2.78347 | .60740 |
| | 2.00 | 19 | 10.4232 | 4.22011 | .96816 |
| Post-T | 1.00 | 21 | 24.6538 | 4.17244 | .91050 |
| | 2.00 | 19 | 18.3158 | 2.16160 | .49591 |
| Delay-T | 1.00 | 21 | 29.1905 | 2.11232 | .46095 |
| | 2.00 | 19 | 20.8421 | 1.80318 | .41368 |

| Table 10. Paired Sample T-Test between Learners’ Pre- and Post-Test Performances |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Paired Differences | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | Lower | Upper | T | df |
| Pair PreLow | - | 5.16995 | 1.18607 | -13.38447 | -8.40080 | - | 18 | .000 |
| PostLow | 10.89263 | 9.184 |
| Pair PreHigh | -3.66762 | .79901 | -5.33431 | -2.00092 | - | 20 | .000 |
| PostHigh | 4.590 |

According to table 10, there are significant differences between EMP learners before and after intervention. Students in their post-test outperformed with regard to their first performances before instruction \((p=0.00)\). It is indicated that reading strategy instruction considerably improves higher readers’ comprehension of passages and their application of strategies to overcome difficulties in the face of understanding texts. Similarly, students in the low proficiency group did better in the post-test administration with regard to their pre-test performance denoting that strategy instruction effectively facilitate learners’ reading comprehension \((p=0.00)\). After intervention, learners attempt to apply more reading strategies which result in their significant attainment in post-test.

In order to get a deep view of learners’ reading strategy instruction, a delay test two weeks later administrated. Results of delay test were analyzed in association with learners’ post-test.
Table 11. Paired Sample T-Test between Learners’ Post-Test and Delay Test Performances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>PostLow</th>
<th>DelayLow</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair</td>
<td>PostLow</td>
<td>DelayLow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>PostLow</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.12390</td>
<td>.25784</td>
<td>-3.06802</td>
<td>1.98461</td>
<td>-8.998</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DelayLow</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.52632</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair</td>
<td>PostHigh</td>
<td>DelayHigh</td>
<td>4.53667</td>
<td>.71336</td>
<td>-6.02472</td>
<td>-3.04861</td>
<td>-6.360</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows that students in their delay test significantly get better results concerning their post-test after intervention. It is implied that reading strategy instruction to EMP students was effective and student use more strategies both directly after the intervention and over time. High proficient readers significantly continue using reading strategies in reading passages (p=0.00). Similar to high proficient readers, learners with lower reading ability improve through time and apply more strategies two weeks after their instruction was over. Findings highlight the efficiency of reading strategy instruction on EMP learners’ reading comprehension.

5. Discussion

6.1 Research Question 1
The first research question of the study assessed the type of reading strategies students employ. Reading strategy questionnaire was administrated among students and students’ reply was analyzed based on their frequency of strategy selection (see table 2). Findings indicated that students mostly try to preview a text to get an accurate picture of the text. Students read quickly through the introduction, first paragraph, headings and sub-headings and the final paragraphs. That is a kind cognitive strategy by which students attempt to have a quick assessment of the text. Learners employ such cognitive strategy as a mental routine or procedure for achieving a cognitive goal, understanding passages in this case. Results also revealed that learners next use scanning strategy to find particular fact or information in the text (table 2). Learners search texts for numbers, proper names, dates and definitions. They run rapidly their eyes over several lines to hold an image or idea clearly in mind. Similar to skimming, scanning is another cognitive reading strategy applied to process information for learning, obtaining and saving. In addition, findings confirm employment of discourse markers by learners in reading comprehension. As a cognitive strategy, learners implement these markers to find relationship among ideas indicated in phrases, clauses and sentences. Learners apply these cognitive strategies in order to better retrieve and use information (Oxford, 1990). The present findings are in line with the previous research of strategy assessment. According to Ozek and Civelek (2006), skimming and scanning are effective cognitive strategies that learners use in their reading comprehension; “relating the title, illustrations/pictures and background
knowledge to the text, skimming, using dictionary parsimoniously, guessing, remembering a word through situations, rereading, using the first language as a base, visualizing events, being careful about how the text is organized, making notes and summaries of the important information, and classifying words are the strategies help readers to improve their reading ability significantly” (p. 23). Similarly, Geladari et al. (2010) report that skimming and scanning are among strategies that are employed by bilingual learners. Citing Geladari et al., “a considerable number of the bilingual students showed interest in ‘skimming’ the text to get the idea quickly, to get an overview of the content and organization of the text (84.4%)” (p. 3767). They also reported 68% scanning strategy use by bilingual learners. Davis (2010) as well argues that skimming and previewing “were identified that appear to have a positive effect on comprehension” (p. 199). This is the strategy that as well is utilized by both 1\textsuperscript{st} and 4\textsuperscript{th} years students in Ozek and Civelek’s (2006) study.

Generally speaking, skimming and scanning are cognitive reading strategies which give learners the gist of the text, help them discuss the issue raised; provide them with specific details of a topic and key expression. These abilities raise students’ awareness about the text and let learn and attain information and application of received input which are the aim of language education.

6.2 Research Question 2

The second research question explores the possible differences between high and low proficient readers based on their use of reading strategies. Accordingly, students were taken a TOFEL test and were divided into groups of high and low proficient readers in accord with the results. Learners’ use of reading strategies was also summarized in table 3. It was indicated that successful readers employ more types of reading strategies, to name skimming, scanning and discourse markers, to the poor readers. It shows that high proficient readers try more to get the gist of text, particular details as well as the cohesion and coherence in comprehending the text than poor readers. Concerning the significant level of results, Chi-square tests were run to compare the frequency of strategy types indicated by the participants in the two groups. According to table 4 and 5, there are significant differences between high proficient readers and the low ones in their reading strategy employment. Results proved that higher proficient readers read the text to get an overview of the content, intention of the author or, how materials are structured (Grellet, 1981). They similarly scan text so as to concentrate mainly on coming upon a particular idea or an answer that meet their needs. According to Rokhsari (2012) the more successful readers are, the more type of reading strategies they employ in terms of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. To the same extent, Geladari et al., (2010) confirm that “the cross tabulation produced statistically significant differences (X²=21.259, df=2, p=0.000) between the more competent readers, since all of them (100%) were recorded to skim the text, and the less competent ones (13.6%)” (p. 3767). In this regard, readers with higher proficiency level skim a passage to form a preliminary understanding of the content that will be come across. “The same superiority was also found in using pictures/illustrations (4.1>3.3) and in skimming (4.4>3.8) in favor of excellent subjects against the poor ones” (Ozek & Civelek, 2006, p. 16).
Moreover, Geladari et al., (2010) reported that “although an outstanding part of the students ‘scanned’ the text to pinpoint specific information (68%), the better readers used it more efficiently (90%) than the poor ones (13.6%) \( (X^2=17.338, df=2, p=0.000) \). In addition, the cross tabulation revealed significant differences as regards the type of bilingualism \( (X^2=8.960, df=2, p=0.011) \); all ‘simultaneous’ bilingual children preferred identifying specific information by scanning the text either adequately (50%) or partially adequately (50%), in contrast to successive bilinguals who did not use it at all (50%)” (p. 3767). It is implied that successful readers try to locate information and do not follow the linearity of the passage.

In supporting the present findings, Griva, Alevriadou and Geladari (2009b) asserts that poor readers show lower level ability in text processing and they more engage in bottom-up processing strategies. As stated in chapter two, learners with lower level of reading skill often concentrate on decoding single words and rarely are participated in monitoring comprehension (Cotterall, 1990; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). The other way around, Griva, Alevriadou and Geladari (2009b) argue that more competent readers seem to employ top-down strategies. Successful readers, citing Green and Oxford (1995) and Oxford (1996), are more capable in adapting strategies to their learning needs. Besides, they can adapt their comprehension strategies based on the purposes for reading (Hulstijn, 1993), their perception of the topic and the text organization (Spencer & Sadoski, 1988). What is worth mentioning concerning reading strategy use is that successful learners show capability in using more reading strategies in realizing passages while poor readers less utilize strategies.

6.3 Research Question 3
The third question of the study delves into the effect of reading strategy instruction on learners’ reading comprehension achievement at two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time. As it was indicated in chapter four, learners’ significantly gained achievements in their post and delay test performances after instruction (table 8). It was also revealed that high capable readers considerably performed better compared to their counterparts in low group. Supporting previous studies (McNamara et al, 2007; Al-Tamimi, 2006; Bereiter & Bird, 1985), the present study argues that reading strategy instruction boost learners’ strategy employments and assist them in understanding texts. According to Bereiter and Bird (1985), paving the way strategy instruction helps learners in coping with technical texts. By the same token, McNamara et al (2007) assert that low readers can make the best use of strategy employment and strategy instruction inasmuch as getting familiar with various strategies they can more apply them while reading and analyze the authors’ messages. Following McNamar et al., strategy instruction would launch learners on a path of correct strategy implementation and accordingly reading comprehension. The findings of the study significantly proved that strategy instruction upgrade learners’ reading achievements.
6.4 Research Question 4
The fourth research question of the study evaluates the effect of reading strategy instruction on learners’ reading comprehension improvement at two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time. Pre-, post- and delay tests were conducted and analyzed. The analysis of findings revealed that higher proficient readers improve over reading strategy instruction. Successful learners utilize more strategy in post- and delay tests. Considerably, poor students perform better after reading strategy instruction in post- and delay tests (see tables 10, and 11). According to McNamara et al (2007), reading strategies instruction are definitely very effectual for learners who show lack of knowledge in reading, in addition to those with lower reading skill, and suppose that they are strongly necessary for these kinds of learners. The present findings support studies mentioned in chapter two. Al-Tamimi (2006) reported significant improvement in reading comprehension of experimental group compared to their pre-test performance and that of the control group. Experimental and control’s mean scores for post-tests was respectively reported as 73.27 and 59.67. In Al-Tamimi words, “students in the experimental group showed significant improvement in their awareness of reading strategies compared to their pre-test performance and that of the control group” (p. xxii). According to May (2010), “RSI with a focus on comprehension monitoring, is very effective to help poor readers to overcome their difficulties in reading” (p. 20). Moreover, Bereiter and Bird (1985) argue that reading strategy instruction promote reading comprehension, and what always result students don’t grasp texts and be poor readers is the why that they don’t retain knowledge about strategies. Applying t-test analysis, May (2010) confirmed that student got higher mean after the strategy intervention; “this means that learners who are accustomed to receiving further information explicitly, can deploy more efficient strategies to comprehend and understand concepts and words of the written texts” (p. 34). To the same extent, students showed improvement in their use of scanning strategies. Citing May, “the more EFL learners receive explicit reading strategies instruction, the more they comprehend written texts” (p. 34). It should be stressed that teaching students reading strategies promote their utilization of reading strategies as well as their knowledge of reading.

6. Conclusion
It goes without saying that reading has become the half of learners’ educational studies. It is also needed to state that ESP learners encounter reading originals books and text passages besides using specific terms. In EMP context, reading provides rich and abundant samples of L2 input, which is required to develop students’ overall language proficiency. From a practical point of view, reading is just what EMP students want most both in their academic studies and in their future work.

The present study was an attempt to build up EMP learners’ reading proficiency, specifically reading strategy use. Through reading strategy use learners can optimize their comprehension and understanding of passages. The analysis of findings of the study stressed how reading strategy employment and reading strategy instruction promote EMP learners’ reading attainments. This study provides a comprehensive
discussion of how reading strategies instruction overshadows high and low readers’ understanding. The findings provide strong empirical support for the employment of reading strategy to improve literacy accomplishment for students. Furthermore, practical implications and suggestions can be taken from these results to assist instructors and curriculum developers plan and apply strategy instruction.

REFERENCES


A SOCIOLINGUISTIC STUDY OF GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PERSIAN WRITTEN PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT  
This study examined the gender-linked differences in Iranian university students’ Persian writing in terms of 13 linguistic features mentioned in Mulac et al. (2001). To carry out the research, 80 participants (40 boys and 40 girls) were asked to write a descriptive paragraph regarding their “family” and “university”. These participants were all students at University of Sistan and Baluchestan, and were all native speakers of Persian. To avoid generation-related differences, they were all between 18 to 22 years of age. The results of this study revealed that males tended to use “I” references, elliptical sentences, judgmental adjectives, locatives, and references to quantity more than females while females were apt to use more words, hedges, sentence initial adverbials, length of sentences, dependent clauses, references to emotions, intensive adverbs, and uncertainty verbs. T-test analysis also indicated that the differences between male and female participants were statistically significant.

KEYWORDS: Gender-linked Differences, Written Performance, Linguistic Features, Persian

1. Introduction  
The last several decades have seen an explosion of research on the nature and existence of differences between men and women’s language use (Newman et al., 2008: 212). Halpern (2000) and Wood (2001), for instance, claim that there is a link between language and gender; therefore, men and women use language differently. In this respect, one of the most common questions is the extent to which men and women use language differently. This, in part, roots in the fact that language is an inherently social phenomenon and can provide insight into how men and women approach their social worlds. Social scientists’ findings, however, suggest that men, relative to women, tend
to use language more for instrumental purposes of conveying information, whereas women are more likely to use verbal interaction for social purposes with verbal communication serving as an end in itself (Brownlow et al., 2003, and Colley et al., 2004). However, such a stereotyping of ‘women are good at X’ or ‘men are bad at Y’ not only denies the huge range in abilities among women, and among men, and the extent to which women’s and men’s abilities overlap, but also denies the existence of gendering and gendered social practices, and the possibilities for change (Sunderland, 2000). As Waskita (2008: 449) puts it, “human gender characteristics are not just given, but rather socially constructed. Institutions and practices can be described as gendering. Gendering shapes gender roles: what men and women, boys and girls do, occupationally and socially.”

On the other hand, a number of theorists have argued against the existence of any meaningful differences in men and women’s language (Bradley, 1981, and Weatherall, 2002). According to Newman et al. (2008: 212), one contributor to this doubt may be the lack of a commonly accepted metric of analysis among empirical studies of language. All in all, as Swallow (2003) mentions, one of the most comprehensive frameworks used to study the gender-linked differences is the one proposed by Mulac et al. (2001) which considers thirteen linguistic features meticulously in one’s linguistic performance; namely, number of words, hedges, “I” references, sentence initial adverbials, elliptical sentences, mean length of sentences, dependent clauses, judgmental adjectives, locatives, references to quantity, references to emotions, intensive adverbs, and uncertainty verbs.

Considering these issues, the present study is an attempt to investigate gender differences among Iranian university students’ Persian writing in terms of the abovementioned linguistic features. Specifically, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are the linguistic differences between Iranian male and female university students’ written performance?
2. What sociological considerations account for these differences?

2. Review of Literature

Studies of gender differences in language use have been conducted since long time ago. Lakoff (1975) is considered as a pioneer study in gender differences in language use. Her study indexed the use of more hedges, super polite forms, tag questions, empty adjectives, and direct quotations as features of women’s language. Furthermore, she concluded that women have a special lexicon, use question intonation in declarative statements, speak less frequently, overuse qualifiers, apologize more, avoid coarse language or expletives, use indirect commands and requests, use more intensifiers and lack a sense of humor. In the same line, McMillan et al. (1977) and Mulac and Lundell (1986) revealed greater female use of tag questions. Other researchers have found that women tend to use more uncertainty in their communication. In fact, uncertainty verb phrases, especially those combining first-person singular pronouns with perceptual or cognitive verbs (e.g., “I wonder if”) have been found more often in women’s speech (Hartman, 1976, and Poole, 1979) and writing (Mulac and Lundell, 1994). A related interpretation of this phenomenon,
according to Newman et al. (2008: 213), is that women are more reluctant to force their views on another person. Mulac et al.’s (1988) study, also, revealed that women tend to use more questions than men (e.g., “Does anyone want to get some food?”), while men tend to use more directives (e.g., “Let’s go get some food”). In terms of mean length sentences, as Mulac and Lundell (1994) and Mulac et al. (1988) claim, women are also wordier than men both in writing and speaking. However, Dovidio et al.’s (1988) study indicated more overall use of words and taking turns in conversations by men. In another research, Thomson and Murachver (2001) studied men and women’s e-mail communication and found that they were equally likely to ask questions; offer compliments, apologies, and opinions; and to hurl insults at their net pals. One possible explanation for these contradictory reports is that the different contexts in which the language samples were generated influenced the size and direction of gender differences (Newman et al., 2008: 213).

Emotion words seem to be another domain of conflicting ideas, despite the existence of a fairly clear stereotype. Mulac et al. (1990) and Thomson and Murachver (2001) reported that women refer to emotion more often than men do. Yet, Mulac et al (2000) state the reverse in regards with the managers providing criticism in a role play. Mehl and Pennebaker’s (2003) reconciliatory claim states that women used more references to positive emotion, but men referred more to anger – a finding which is consistent with gender stereotypes.

Regarding two aspects of linguistic performance, oral and written, most of the abovementioned studies focused on the former. This could be explained by the fact that speaking skill is commonly used as the measure of language ability. However, this should not be a justification for neglecting the importance of writing skills. In one of the most salient researches regarding gender differences in L1 writing, Punter and Burchell (1996) studied the GCSE English language exam in the UK and found that girls scored better in writing imaginatively, reflectively, and emphatically while boys scored better in writing argumentatively and factually. These findings indicate that topic choices play an important role in the differences between male and female writing. In another study, Kanaris (1999) revealed that there were significant differences between 8-10 year old boys and girls in the ways in which they used written language to construct meaning. According to her study, patterns of pronouns, adjectives and verbs use revealed a world where children were actively constructing themselves as gendered individuals, particularly in terms of how they construct agency. However, Meinhof’s (1997) research project revealed that male and female participants belonging to three different social groups (professionals, academics, and university students) write similar kinds of texts in the students group but different ones in the two other groups.

To the knowledge of the researchers, however, little study has been done on the gender-linked differences in Iranian’s Persian writing. Among the Persian writing analysis studies, Shirvani (2011) and Amouzdeh and Shirvani (2012), as instances, only studied the teenagers’ written performance with respect to their social classes in Shiraz, Iran and concluded that both working and middle class teenage girls were wordier than their male counterparts. On the other hand, other studies such as Hamdi
asl and Dabaghi (2012) studied male and female differences in Iranian EFL students’ writing in English. To bridge this gap of knowledge, the present study seeks to find the differences in Persian writing of Iranian male and female freshman university students with regard to Mulac et al.’s (2001) sociolinguistic framework.

3. Methodology
3.1. Participants
To carry out this study, 80 Iranian freshman university students (40 males and 40 females) were selected randomly. These participants were all students at University of Sistan and Baluchestan, and were all native speakers of Persian. In order to avoid generation-related differences, they were all between 18 to 22 years of age. Finally, factors such as social class and ethnicity which could not be established, from the contents in their writing, were disregarded.

3.2. Procedures
Following Mulac and Lundell’s (1994: 306) claim that gender-link differences are more likely to be found in descriptive writing than philosophical writing, participants were asked to write a descriptive essay in their mother tongue, Persian. In line with Lawton (1968), Brandis and Henderson (1970), Shirvani (2011) and Amouzdeh and Shirvani (2012), the prototypical descriptive subject of “Describe your family and school/university” was used as the topic of the essays to be written. Mulac et al.’s (2001) sociolinguistic framework which consists of thirteen factors is then used as basis for the analysis of the data collected to identify the linguistic differences between the participants with respect to their genders. Also, to investigate the data statistically, T-tests have been used to determine whether the differences are significant.

The linguistic features mentioned by Mulac et al. (2001) are as follows:

NUMBER OF WORDS: This element refers to the total number of words spoken/written by a speaker/writer.

HEDGES: These are the kind of modifiers that indicate lack of confidence in, or diminished assuredness of the statement. Example: sort of, kind of.

“I” REFERENCES: As the name indicates, this includes first person singular pronoun in the nominative case.

SENTENCE INITIAL ADVERBIALS: These are the emerging adverbials at the beginning of a sentence. Example: On Friday, they went to school.

ELLPTICAL SENTENCES: These are the sentences where for reasons of economy, emphasis, or style, a part of the structure has been omitted, which is recoverable from a scrutiny of the context. Example: Gorgeous! (a beautiful snowy setting)

MEAN LENGTH OF SENTENCES: The number of words divided by the number of sentences, defined as sequences of words beginning with a capital letter and ending with a period (in English)

DEPENDENT CLAUSES: These clauses are groups of words which have both a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone as a sentence. Dependent clauses either modify the independent clause of a sentence or serve as a component of it. Example: The boy who is sitting on the bench is my brother.
JUDGEMENTAL ADJECTIVES: These kinds of adjectives indicate personal evaluation rather than merely description. Example: nice, bothersome, disgusting.
LOCATIVES: This refers to the words which indicate the location or position of people and objects. Example: right next to, behind, in front of.
REFERENCES TO QUANTITY: This type includes any mention of an amount. Example: ten meters tall, below zero, ten thousand feet elevation.
REFERENCES TO EMOTIONS: This type includes any mention of any kind of emotion or feeling. Example: happy, unhappy, interesting, boring.
INTENSIVE ADVERBS: These adverbs mostly tend to give force or emphasis. Example: very, really, quite.
UNCERTAINTY VERBS: These kinds of verb phrases indicate apparent lack of certainty. Example: I wonder if …, It sounds …, I’m not sure ….

4. Results and Discussion
Comparing the written performance of male and female participants in the present study reveals small but consistent gender differences in language use. As can be seen in Table 1, below, the mean number of words, hedges, sentence initial adverbials, length of sentences, dependent clauses, references to emotions, intensive adverbs, and uncertainty verbs used by females is greater than their male counterparts. On the other hand, male participants used more “I” references, elliptical sentences, judgmental adjectives, locatives, and references to quantity. These differences might be due to different processes of socialization undergone by males and females. Lawton (1968: 141) maintains that since childhood, girls usually think a lot about their future life and this abstract thinking may be a reason for more complicated language use while boys prefer more concrete terms and do not usually think about abstract situations like future. This might lead to their less intricate linguistic performance in comparison with girls.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Words</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>109.20</td>
<td>26.028</td>
<td>4.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>134.60</td>
<td>26.555</td>
<td>4.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.406</td>
<td>.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>2.086</td>
<td>.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“I” References</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>2.707</td>
<td>.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>2.751</td>
<td>.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Initial Adverbials</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>1.574</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>2.098</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliptical Sentences</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>2.193</td>
<td>.347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>2.259</td>
<td>.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Length Sentences</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>2.667</td>
<td>.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>1.961</td>
<td>.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Clauses</td>
<td>Male 40</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.406</td>
<td>.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female 40</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>2.145</td>
<td>.339</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To analyze these items in terms of significancy, SPSS software is used to perform T-tests. Therefore, the thirteen abovementioned linguistic factors will be introduced to find out whether the differences between male and female participants are significant. Also, it will be tried to account for the differences with respect to sociological and sociolinguistic considerations.

Fitting with prior observations that females used more words than males (Mulac and Lundell, 1986, and Mulac et al., 1986), the results of the present study show that female participants tended to use more words than their male counterparts. In this respect, Lakoff (1975) argues that using more words by females may be due to their being out of power in society since childhood. Also, Sattle (1983) claims that powerful people use silence to express power over powerless ones and men use silence rather than talking to express power over women. As can be seen in Table 2, below, T-test results indicate that the difference is significant (p<0.05).

**Table 2. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Number of Words in Writing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judgmental Adjectives</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>5.32</th>
<th>2.345</th>
<th>.189</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.850</td>
<td>.132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locatives</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>3.21</th>
<th>1.895</th>
<th>.201</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.365</td>
<td>.157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References to Quantity</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>12.650</th>
<th>4.15439</th>
<th>.65687</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.900</td>
<td>3.80148</td>
<td>.60107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References to Emotions</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>1.50</th>
<th>1.301</th>
<th>.206</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.776</td>
<td>.281</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intensive Adverbs</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>3.6750</th>
<th>2.36846</th>
<th>.37449</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.2000</td>
<td>3.32974</td>
<td>.52648</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncertainty Verbs</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>1.18</th>
<th>1.217</th>
<th>.192</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.781</td>
<td>.282</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Hedges in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance s assumed</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance s not assumed</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3, above, shows that female participants used more hedges in their writing and the difference is also statistically significant (p<0.05). This might be due to the fact that women prefer to use more polite forms (Holmes, 1993, and McMillan et al., 1977), and are reluctant to force their views on other people. Lakoff (1975) also believes that women use more hedges than men for three main reasons: showing that the speaker is unsure; for the sake of politeness and finally characterizing women’s language - the
language of those who are out of power in society. Examples (1) and (2), below, indicate the use of hedges in females’ writing:

(1). man taqriban az khanevadeam raazi hastam (I am sort of satisfied with my family).
(2). man ta haddi az daneshgaham kho sham miyad (I kind of like my university).

The third discovery of the present study is that men were the more prolific users of first-person singular pronoun. “I” references, according to Lakoff (1975), is suggestive of dominance. Males in Iranian society are grown up with more power and status than females (Paknahad, 2002: 35-36) and this dominance in the process of socialization leads to more use of first-person singular pronoun.

Table 4. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and “I” References in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“I” References</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding sentence initial adverbials, however, females used this feature more than males and the difference is also statistically significant (p<0.05). According to Chafe (1987: 38), using sentence initial adverbials at discourse level means that the writer wants to fit the sentence in its situational or textual context and thereby is a sign of professional and complicated use of language. In the same vein, Newman et al. (2008) claim that women’s linguistic performance is more complicated than that of men’s. This might be because of the process of socialization in which males are judged by
their actions while females are judged by their speech (Wardhaugh, 1986). Examples (3) and (4) show the use of sentence initial adverbials by females:

(3). jomeha mamoolan be picnic miravim (On Fridays, we usually go on a picnic).

(4). Roozhaaye entehan, daneshgah ra doost nadaram (On exam days, I don’t like the university).

Table 5. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Sentence Initial Adverbials in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.35 2</td>
<td>.55 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-2.81 5</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Elliptical Sentences in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variance</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6, above, shows that male participants used more elliptical sentences than their female counterparts and the difference is significant (p<0.05). Further analysis reveals that in line with Lakoff (1975) and Mulac et al. (2001), this might be due to economy considerations. As stated before, women usually tend to be wordier than men; hence, they are not apt to use more elliptical sentences because these sentences contain fewer words. Examples (5) and (6), below, are elliptical sentences taken from males’ writing:

(5). xeili bade! [dobare bayad dars bekhanam] (Too bad! [I must study again]).

(6). aalie! [xanevadeam in hafte inja miayand] (Great! [My family come here this week]).

Regarding the sixth item, however, females used more mean length sentences then males and this difference is also statistically significant (p<0.05). In fact, longer sentences indicate higher linguistic proficiency level and this is one of the main characteristics of females’ linguistic performance (Lakoff, 1975; Mulac et al., 2001, and Waskita, 2008). From the sociolinguistic point of view, girls are socialized in situations where they are considered lower in power and status. Also, they are usually judged according to speech, not deeds. Maltz and Borker (1982) and Sattle (1983) argue that girls seem to tend to prove themselves and their situations by more speech and complicated use of language.

Table 7. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Mean Length Sentences in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Elliptical Sentences

| Equal variances assumed | .003 | .956 | 1.749 | 78 | .007 | .875 | 488 | -0.096 | 1.846 |
| Equal variances not assumed | 1.749 | 77.8 | .007 | .875 | 488 | -0.096 | 1.846 |
Concerning dependent clauses, also, female participants were more prolific users than male participants. According to Bernstein (1962 a, b), Lawton (1968), Chane (1994) and Newman et al. (2008), using dependent clauses is one of the most salient aspects of linguistic elaboration and complexity found in females’ performance. In line with the abovementioned argumentations regarding females’ socialization process and language use, dependent clauses contribute to their complicated linguistic behavior as a sign to prove themselves not as a subordinate. Examples (7) and (8), below, indicate this use of dependent clauses well.

(7). xanevadeyee ke dar aan zendegi miko nam hich neshaneyee az samimiat nadarad (The family that I live in, has no sign of intimacy).

(8). daneshgahi ke dars mixanam yeki az bozorgtarin daneshgahaye iran ast (The university I am studying in, is one of the biggest universities in Iran).

Also, T-test analysis reveals that the difference in using dependent clauses in male and female participants is statistically significant (p<0.05). This can be seen in Table 8, below.

Table 8. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Dependent Clauses in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Equal variances not assumed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Length S.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-test for Equality of Means</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levene's Test for Equality of Variance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowere</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.59</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding judgmental adjectives, locatives, and references to quantity male participants used these features more than female ones and this difference is also statistically significant (p<0.05). Judgmental adjectives indicate personal evaluation rather than description and males’ more use of this feature might be because of their process of socialization in which more power and status are granted to them. Therefore, they seem to be able to express their evaluation with more freedom. Furthermore, using locatives and references to quantity may be due to males’ more dealing with physical and technical activities. Examples (9), (10), and (11) show males’ use of judgmental adjectives, locatives, and references to quantity, respectively. Moreover, Tables (9), (10), and (11), below, show the T-test results of these features in the participants’ writing.

(9). xanevadeam vaqean jaleb ast (My family is really interesting).
(10). daneshkadeye ma dar qeesmate jonoobie daneshgah vaqe shod east (Our college is situated in the southern part of the university).
(11). divare kelase daneshkade taqriban 4 metr ertefa darad (The wall of the class in college is about 4 meters high).

### Table 9. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Judgmental Adjectives in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance not assumed</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Locatives in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locatives</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variance</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and References to Quantity in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References to Quantity</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variance</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The eleventh feature to analyze in the present study is references to emotions. As can be seen in Table 1, above, and Table 12, below, this feature was predominantly used by females and the difference is also statistically significant (p<0.05). In fact, females were more likely than males to refer both to positive feelings and negative emotions. One main reason might be the fact that women seem to have more of a “rapport” style, discussing social topics and expressing internal thoughts and feelings more often, whereas men “report” more often, describing the quantity and location of objects (Tannen, 1990, and Herring, 1993).

Table 12. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and References to Emotions in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref. to Quantity</th>
<th>Variance Assumed</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.938</td>
<td>4.443</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.55000</td>
<td>.79900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.778</td>
<td>3.55000</td>
<td>.79900</td>
<td>1.95932</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.95932</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding the two final features, intensive adverbs and uncertainty verbs, female participants were the more active ones. Intensive adverbs are predominantly used to give force or emphasis to a statement. Lakoff (1975) believes that because women have been denied access to power in the society, they use different linguistic strategies to express and secure their social status. Therefore, intensive adverbs are assumed to be used by women to indicate the different roles which they play in the society. In the case of uncertainty verbs, like hedges, females show lack of enough self-confidence or diminished assuredness of the statement. Men’s language as put by Lakoff (1975) is assertive, adult, and direct, while women’s language is immature, hyper-formal or hyper-polite and non-assertive. This can be interpreted in two ways. In one aspect, lower social status and power might cause lower self-confidence and thereby use of more uncertainty verbs. On the other hand, this can be regarded in terms of politeness: as women usually seem to be more careful about being polite and prestigious in their speech, they may tend to show this kind of hyper-formal or hyper-polite language by using uncertainty verbs. Examples (12) and (13) show the use of intensive adverbs and uncertainty verbs in females’ writing.

(12). daneshgahi ke dar aan dars mixanam besiar ziba va bozorg ast (The university I am studying in, is very beautiful and big).
(13). be nazar miresad ke behtarin asatid dar daneshgahe ma dars midahand (It seems that the best professors teach in our university).

Table 13. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Intensive Adverbs in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Equal variances not assumed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene’s Test</td>
<td>F = 2.73, p = .104</td>
<td>F = 2.55, p = .107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-test for Equality of Variances</td>
<td>t = -2.425, df = 72.5, p = .000</td>
<td>t = -2.425, df = 72.5, p = .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
<td>-.222</td>
<td>-.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
<td>-1.983</td>
<td>-1.983</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the two final features, intensive adverbs and uncertainty verbs, female participants were the more active ones. Intensive adverbs are predominantly used to give force or emphasis to a statement. Lakoff (1975) believes that because women have been denied access to power in the society, they use different linguistic strategies to express and secure their social status. Therefore, intensive adverbs are assumed to be used by women to indicate the different roles which they play in the society. In the case of uncertainty verbs, like hedges, females show lack of enough self-confidence or diminished assuredness of the statement. Men’s language as put by Lakoff (1975) is assertive, adult, and direct, while women’s language is immature, hyper-formal or hyper-polite and non-assertive. This can be interpreted in two ways. In one aspect, lower social status and power might cause lower self-confidence and thereby use of more uncertainty verbs. On the other hand, this can be regarded in terms of politeness: as women usually seem to be more careful about being polite and prestigious in their speech, they may tend to show this kind of hyper-formal or hyper-polite language by using uncertainty verbs. Examples (12) and (13) show the use of intensive adverbs and uncertainty verbs in females’ writing.

(12). daneshgahi ke dar aan dars mixanam besiar ziba va bozorg ast (The university I am studying in, is very beautiful and big).
(13). be nazar miresad ke behtarin asatid dar daneshgahe ma dars midahand (It seems that the best professors teach in our university).
Table 14. Independent Samples Test on Gender of Participants and Uncertainty Verbs in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty Verbs</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.62 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intensive Adv.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.26 2</td>
<td>.61 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusion
The present study tried to find the gender-linked differences in the written performance of Iranian males and females’ Persian writing with respect to Mulac et al.’s (2001) sociolinguistic framework. Males’ language was indicative of “I” references, elliptical sentences, judgmental adjectives, locatives, and references to quantity. Females’
language, on the other hand, showed more use of words, hedges, sentence initial adverbials, length of sentences, dependent clauses, references to emotions, intensive adverbs, and uncertainty verbs. This demonstrated that these participants used language in masculine/feminine-distinguishing ways when they were instructed to write a descriptive paragraph, with no other instructions. In fact, these findings suggest that gender-linked language schemata may exist and unconsciously influence speakers to use language in gender typical ways. At the same time, it is important to keep in mind that these differences are averages at the population level. The implication of this fact, according to Newman et al. (2008: 230), is that predictions about language use by individuals should be made cautiously, if at all.

It is also important to note that our analyses in this study mostly identify how men and women use language differently in their written performances, without meticulous analysis of why these differences exist. In fact, gender differences in language use likely reflect a complex combination of social goals, situational demands, and socialization (Newman et al., 2008: 233), but these data do not identify these origins completely. Of course, in data analysis some claims and pieces of evidence about the reasons of these linguistic behaviors were introduced (cf. Bernstein 1962 a, b; Lawton, 1968; Lakoff, 1975; Maltz and Borker, 1982; Sattle, 1983; Mulac and Lundell, 1986; Tannen, 1990; Mulac et al., 2001; Newman et al., 2008, etc.), but these cannot be the absolute and eternal justifications. Yet, a clear map of the differences in males and females’ language is provided in this study and it can be considered as a starting point for further research into the nature and origin of gender differences.

REFERENCES


DYNAMIC AND FORMAL EQUIVALENCE IN PERSIAN TRANSLATION OF ENGLISH IMPERATIVES IN MOVIE SCRIPTS

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ABSTRACT
This study investigated two types of Nida’s (1964) formal and dynamic equivalence used by Iranian translators in translating English imperatives. A total of 203 English imperatives were classified in an English movie script, ChinaTown, along with their Persian equivalents according to main features of formal and dynamic equivalence. Then frequencies, percentages, and chi-square of both formally and dynamically translated imperatives were calculated. The analysis revealed that the translators did not make use of the formal equivalence and dynamic (functional) equivalence equally. In comparison to 22.53 % dynamic (functional) equivalence, Akbari and Jeddi-Niya (2000) translated 77.47 % English imperatives formally into Persian. Ohadi (2001), on the other hand, rendered 25.77 % English imperatives into Persian dynamically and 74.23 % of them formally. All in all, Iranian translators seem to follow formalism more than dynamism to create a message in target or receptor language which matches as closely as possible to the message in source language.

KEY WORDS: translation, formal equivalence, dynamic equivalence, imperatives, movie script.

1. Introduction
This chapter first touch upon the importance of translation, then, relationship between translation and movies is presented in the second section. Third, there is an overview of the novel field of audiovisual translation. In the fourth and fifth sections formal equivalence translation and dynamic (functional) equivalence translation, which are introduced by Nida(1964), are reviewed as the theoretical framework of this study. In the sixth section there is an overview of imperatives in both English and Persian as the linguistic element on which this study has focused. The statement of the problem, then, is presented in the seventh section. Finally, objectives of the study,
research questions, and significance of the study are respectively presented in detail to end the chapter.

1.1 Importance of Translation
Translation unquestionably plays a vital role in today's world and its role is expanding with the fact of globalization, which means "contemporary processes of information distribution via processes of translation..." (House, 2009, p. 79). The process of globalization has affected not only the economical and political situations but it has had an impact on the worldwide role of translation (House, 2009). "...Globalization has led to an explosion of demand for translation. So, we can say that translation is not simply a by-product of globalization, it is an integral part of it, and without it the global capitalist consumer-oriented economy would not have been possible" (House, 2009, p. 80-81). The place of expanding field of translation in any culture becomes more and more important and its huge effect can be seen on everyday life. Translation can be seen in both a simple daily conversation between individuals in an ordinary day and extremely complicated channels of communication. Scanning a label on an imported drink coffee, using a computer with localized operating system, reading the manual of a machine in order to learn how that tool operates, skimming up-to-date news websites, or watching subtitled movies all are daily-life situations where translation can be seen or felt and it can impose either a positive impact or a negative one (House, 2009). Translation, indeed, supports cultural interactions since it makes it possible that individuals of different cultures communicate in order to obtain mutual understanding. Translation even enables individuals not only to access the foreign cultures but also to spread that foreign culture to the others. This interdisciplinary science bridges the gap between various languages, literatures, societies, and cultures and it improves the individuals' understanding of several issues (House, 2009). The importance of translation can be regarded economically, too, due to the fact that translation may facilitate the economic interactions for the multilingual consumers of different nations. Finally translation contributes to knowledge transfer as well. Transferring scientific and technical knowledge to different audiences can be achieved through the channels of translation. Therefore, translation studies has a great influence on the fact that how global issues can be transmitted to all cultures. Consequently, translation is considered as a kind of critical job these days since this linguistic process does not merely substitute words; rather it tries to convey ideas, beliefs, intentions, meanings, traditions, conventions, customs, and cultures (House, 2009).

1.2. Translation and Movies
Watching movies, nowadays, can be considered as a kind of social and national experience but not as a solitary one since all individuals regardless of their age, sex, education, nationality, or financial status enjoy watching movies and spend their time for that. As a result, the film industry, as one of the extremely effective media, is considered as one of the current mass media which has great influence on the process of communication these days in all societies. It is vivid that the images themselves cannot perform the process of integration and acculturation. Rather it is the
translation, specifically the context where those images are produced and received, which facilitates the process of communication. Therefore, motion pictures, which are intensely global and essentially disseminated on the popular mass media, whether on the big or on the small screen, are considered as the representation of translation. The translation of movies must convey information by reflecting the characters' behavior (Cronin, 2009). The apparent simple conversations between characters in apparent simple situations or settings make the translator's mission more and more difficult. The complex language of the films, which has its own rules, is one special way of linguistic communication regarding translation studies. Hence this social experience, mainly, makes the translator increasingly visible. The translator should not merely convey the sentences of each setting; rather s/he may transmit more crucial factors like how the characters of the film feel, how they think, how they speak, how they react, and how they behave with other characters. Therefore, the more influential is a film in a society, the more sensitive is the translation of that film (Cronin, 2009).

Different readers comprehend a given translation text differently, correspondingly, various viewers do not understand the contents of a given movie in a similar way, depending on the time and place of their lives. Like radio, television, and the railway system, translators play the role of mediating between texts which represent different cultures. Therefore, translation as a system of mediation aims to make the meaning transparent. And this state of transparency in any translation helps individuals, readers or viewers, to welcome the translation. Eventually as the power of media of communication increases, the necessity for translation intensifies (Cronin, 2009).

1.3. Audiovisual or Screen Translation

Translating dramatic texts was generally neglected until 1980s. Dramatic texts which include stage directions and spoken language, film scripts, and plays are all components of multimedia texts (Snell-Hornby, 2007). In the 1980s and 1990s an independent theoretical approach was developed to debate over how to translate the performable stage texts and how to translate them faithfully. The novel field of Audiovisual Translation (AVT) which has remarkably been developed over the last twenty years is now considered as a distinct area of research (Cronin, 2008). AVT research first contained brief and scattered group of studies in newspapers and magazines. Hence, the real demonstration of this field dates back to 1990s_ AVT's golden age, when more systematic translational researchers were interested in this field. Individuals these days view AVT researches more academically. The first studies in this field were termed as cinema translation and film translation; rather, the extended term 'audiovisual translation' covers all televised productions (Cronin, 2008). Screen translation, on the other hand, which has gained importance as a field of disseminating culture and which focuses mainly on how this type of translation is connected to cross-cultural studies, is also the term that contains all the programs which are screened via television, cinema, computer, or mobile screen. Since AVT transfers not only the information but also the values of a society, the impact that various media exert on any society can be very powerful (Cintas, 2008).
1.4. Formal Equivalence in Translation

For Nida (1964), the notion of translation as an act of communication across languages, cannot merely be considered as an act of transferring the symbols (words and sentences), but rather it must be viewed as transferring of intentions, thoughts, meanings and inferences from one person to another since thoughts, intentions, and inferences are the beginning of any translation or any communication through language.

Defining equivalence as proximity and closeness to the functional identity, Nida (1964) introduced formal equivalence translation which "focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content...one is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language" (p. 159).

1.5. Dynamic Equivalence in Translation

It is interesting to mention that Nida (1964) is the first scholar who introduced the concept ‘naturalization’ by applying the term ‘natural’ to define dynamic or functional equivalence translation. He believed that proximity in meaning must have priority over proximity in style by demonstrating that dynamic equivalence translation is where the TT (Target Text) has the same effect on its receptor and reader as well as the effect that the ST does on the original receptor and reader.

Nida (1964) defined dynamic equivalence translation:

As the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message. This type of definition contains three essential terms: equivalent which points toward the source-language message, natural which points toward the receptor language, and closest which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation (Nida, 1964, p. 166).

He indeed presented a communicative function of language by introducing his theory of dynamic equivalence translation which is also called functional equivalence translation.

1.6. Imperatives

As a written text, movie scripts comprise numerous sentences. As far as we know a sentence, which can be defined as a cluster of words that can be put together in different ways, has the classification of four types: declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives, and exclamatory sentences (Meilinda, 2010). As opposed to sentences that make a statement, ask a question, or express an exclamation, an imperative sentence is a type of sentence that gives advice or instructions or that expresses a request or command which ends with a period or an exclamation point. This type of sentence typically begins with base form of a verb as in Turn on the TV. The implied subject you is said to be understood or elliptical: (you) turn on the TV. As Swan (2005) noted affirmative and negative imperatives can be used "to tell or ask people what to do, to make suggestions, to give advice or instructions, to encourage and offer, and to express wishes for people's welfare" (Swan, p. 242).

According to Mahootian (1997), a sentence in Persian can be classified as declarative, interrogative, and imperative. In the Persian language, imperatives are
formed by using second persons. Adding prefixes be-/bo- to the present stem of the verb forms the positive imperatives:

Zærf-a-rolofænbe-šur.
Wash the dishes.

'Be-' is optional in some compounds which are using "kærdæn".

In addition to adding prefixes, the personal suffix -id is attached to the second person plural, while the second person singular is not preceded by any suffixes.

The subject, like the English language, is not commonly used with imperatives except for the emphasis. The word 'lotfæn' (please) and the phrase 'xaheš mi-kon-æm' normally accompany the imperative, which may either precede or follow it. More volume, stress, and intonation may strengthen the imperative.

In negative imperatives, næ- as the negative prefix replaces be- in positive imperatives:

Ba unhærf næ_zæn
Don't talk to her/him.

This study will describe how English imperatives along with their functions are translated into Persian.

1.7. Statement of the Problem

One area in which Nida's (1964) theory can be applied in order to find the differences between employing dynamic equivalence and formal equivalence is movies. At the present time, movies are mainly produced not only to delight the audience but also to play a communicative role in the society. Although movie scripts are basically written for movie professionals, we notice the enthusiasm which general movie-loving audiences may show.

Screen plays and movie scripts, which have their own specific language and structure, must be translated so meticulously. The more renowned is the movie script, the more important is the translation of that movie script since the well-known top 100 movie scripts of all time which are produced and directed by celebrated directors and in which celebrities play would soon distribute worldwide. Accordingly, in addition to the fact of globalization of well-known screen plays or the movie scripts, the fact that movies can convey the culture, custom, tradition and civilization of each community emphasize the importance of translation of texts of movies. There are very few researchers, to the best of my knowledge, who have analyzed and examined how the screen plays and/or the movie scripts are translated from one language into another language. This investigation attempts to provide information on how an English movie script is translated into Persian.

On the other hand, compared with other linguistic components, English imperatives are less examined by researchers. Despite having similarity with Persian imperatives, imperatives in English may be translated differently into Persian. Accordingly, it seems worth investigating how imperatives in the source text are translated into the target text.
1.8. Objectives of the Study

The major purpose motivating this study, which hopes to contribute to the area of translation studies, is to find out which types of Nida’s (1964) translation equivalences are used by Iranian translators in translating English imperatives in movie scripts. Another question this study is interested in is to find out whether or not Iranian translators make equal use of formalism or dynamism in their translation.

The researcher of this study aims to describe, explain and comment on an English movie script as a source text, ‘CHINATOWN’ by Robert Towne (1974) and its two Persian translations by different translators of that movie script, namely, Abbas Akbari & MehdijeddiNiya (2000) and MasoodOhadi (2001) in order to identify which one of the translation strategies proposed by Nida (1964), dynamic or functional equivalence translation and formal equivalence translation, is applied by Iranian translators. The researcher, in light of Nida’s (1964) theory, aims to demonstrate whether the translator transfers the style, meaning, and above all the communicative function of the ST (Source Text) into TT (Target Text) or s/he conveys the formal features and elements of the ST into TT.

In addition, this study intends to empirically substantiate whether conveying the form and content of the message, as it is emphasized by the formal equivalence translation, is as significant as transferring both the message and the receptor language, as it is emphasized by the dynamic equivalence translation.

The focus of this study is on the Persian translation of English imperatives. Therefore, the movie script, ‘CHINATOWN’, originally written in English, along with its two translations are selected in order to analyze through a comparative study in light of Nida’s (1964) formal and dynamic or functional equivalence. Within this framework, the imperatives in the English move script along with their Persian translations will meticulously be compared and contrasted to find out the differences in the application of dynamic equivalence or formal one.

1.9. Research Questions

This study, guided by Nida’s (1964) theory, tries to answer the following questions:

- Do Iranian translators adopt formalism and/or dynamism in translation of English imperatives into Persian in movie scripts?
- Do Iranian translators make use of the two techniques of formalism and dynamism equally?

1.10. Significance of the Study

The results of this study may enhance the quality of the research in translation studies but will also have implications for teaching translation courses. This study is expected to be useful for the students who study translation, and for those who have dealt with the theories of translation practically. As a result, this research is an attempt whose findings will hopefully be a contribution to the development of the notion of translation quality.
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

The literature reviewed for this study is divided into four parts. First, there is a brief definition of the concept of translation. Second, the process of translating is reviewed. Third, there is an overview of translation theories. The concept of equivalence, as the basic concept in this research and its various typologies are introduced. The fourth section will include, overviewing the empirical studies which have applied Nida's theory of equivalence translation.

2.1. The Concept of Translation

Online English Etymology Translation Dictionary (n.d.) elaborates the term 'translate' as "to remove from one place to another" and also "to turn from one language to another". According to this online dictionary the word 'translate' means "carry over" or "bring over". Merriam Webster Dictionary (n.d.) defines the word 'translation' as "a rendering from one language into another or a change to a different substance, form, and appearance".

The view of considering translation as an independent scientific theory emerged in 1940s. The Roman orator Cicero (first century BCE) and the Bible translator St. Jerome (late fourth century CE) were the two dominant theorists in that time of western countries. Cicero's translations could hardly be considered as translation; rather they were, indeed, training and instructions. The underlying distinction in that time was the word for word and sense for sense translation. Dispersing the word of God was the main task of any translation at that time. Hence, the principal problem regarding translation of sacred text was rewriting (as cited in Munday, 2009). On the other hand, St. Jerome (late fourth century CE), who had the commission to translate the Christian New Testament, became mostly famous since he believed that he should create an aesthetically pleasing text in TL. He, therefore, disaffirmed word for word translation in support of not producing a non-sense copy of the original text (as cited in Munday, 2001). The other early theory was that of EtinneDolet (1540). This French humanist viewed the step of understanding as the chief necessity in any translation. Furthermore, Luther (n.d.) was among those scholars who set out the translation studies more clearly than the other previous theorists. Luther (n.d.), who tried to elaborate the Bible language for the most ordinary people, put both the TL (Target Language) and the TT (Target Text) reader into equal focus. He, also, rejected the word for word translation in support of not producing an incomprehensible translation (as cited in Munday, 2001).

Some other scholars define translation in a more scientific way and view translation studies more systematically. House (2009) defined translation as the replacement of an original text (source language text) with another text (target language text). Jakobson (1959-2004, as cited in Munday, 2001) defined translation as how we interpret verbal signs. Newmark (1981) preferred to follow the accuracy and preciseness of communication than the accuracy of reproduction (as cited in Munday, 2001). Bell (1991) defined translation as: "... the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalence [my translation] " (p. 5).
Nida (1964), the scholar who used the term science to refer to translation, clarified translation as:

Definitions of proper translating are almost as numerous and varied as the persons who have undertaken to discuss the subject. This diversity is in a sense quite understandable; for there are vast differences in the materials translated, in the purpose of the publication, and in the needs of the prospective audience (p. 161).

Nida (2001) regarded translation as an interlingual communication and considered the analysis and the comprehension of this human behavior crucial. He declared, although some people may consider linguistics as the basic requirement for translating, there are some translators without any linguistic trainings. "The essential skill of translator is being able to understand correctly the meaning of a source text" (Nida, 2001, p.10).

2.2. The Process of Translating

Bell (1991) simplified the translation process as transforming the original text into another text. He added that this transferring process involves two stages of analysis and synthesis; analysis of the original text and the synthesis of the symbols in another text. Furthermore, he distinguished three meanings of translation: the process or the activity which is called translating, the result of this process which is called translation and finally translation as the abstract notion that involves both the process and the result. "Clearly, a theory of translation, to be comprehensive and useful, must attempt to describe and explain both the process and the product" (p. 13).

Bell (1991), moreover, equated the translator as a communicator. Naming nine steps of monolingual communication, he elaborated this process as "encoding the message through its transmission and reception to the decoding of the message by the receiver" (p.18).

2.3. Theories of Translation

In the second half of the 20th century, the comparatively new area of translation studies emerged which was chiefly rooted in the three main fields of modern languages, comparative literature, and linguistics. Such interdisciplinary studies have had various names during different periods. In the title of his book, Toward A Science of Translating, Nida (1964) named these types of studies as the science of translation. After Nida, it was Holmes (1972) who proposed the term translation studies to these disciplines (as cited in Munday, 2001). The overall framework proposed by Holmes (1988b-2004) classifies the translation studies into two realms of 'pure' and 'applied' studies. Pure translation studies mainly cover theoretical and descriptive theories. Applied translation studies, on the other hand, deal with translator training, translation aids, and translation criticism (as cited in Munday, 2001).

According to Morini (2008), translation theory is the theory which can answer these questions: what is a translation? How does a translation work? What effects does a translation produce? Based on Bassnett's (2002) opinion, obtaining an understanding of the process of translating and setting a group of norms are the two main purposes of translation theory. On the other hand, Catford (1965) considered the translation
theories as one branch of comparative linguistics and viewed translation as a unidirectional process, rendering ideas from SL (Source Language) to TL. Nida (1991) did not separate the science of translating from other specialized skills. He indeed related this sophisticated theory with other disciplines of linguistics, philology, psychology, anthropology, and the science of communication. Accordingly, it is worthwhile to review the most widely known theories of translation briefly.

2.3.1. Linguistic-based Theories

The emergence of Africans Bible Translation in 1983 led to the development of linguistic-based theories of translation. Naude (2002) noted that the most effective movement in this period is the question of applying sense-for-sense, covert, dynamic, communicative, translation or applying word-for-word, overt, formal, and semantic translation.

In 1990 some scholars, who followed linguistic-based theories, continued this field by focusing on text-linguistics, discourse analysis, and pragmatics. These approaches are based on the assumption that any individual employs the language as an instrument of communication based on a system of rules (Venuti, 1998). Among these scholars, Hatim and Mason (1990), Baker (1992), and Neubert and Shreve (1992) played the most prominent role (as cited in Naude, 2002).

Considering language as one kind of human behavior, Catford (1965) classified the principal issues of linguistic theory into units, structure, class, and system. He defined a unit as "a stretch of language activity which is the carrier of a pattern of a particular kind" (Catford, 1965, p.5). A structure, on the other hand, refers to a stretch of language activity which accounts for meaningful patterns. And a grouping of members which operate in a level above the level of rank scale is referred to as the class. And finally a system is "a finite set of alternants, among which a choice must be made" (Catford, 1965, p. 7).

2.3.2. Functional Theories

The emergence of functional theories dates back to 1970s and 1980s. Functionalists, who find translation not as a new and odd message but as the original text, focus on conveying the content and meaning of the message in their definition of translation. Discussing his novel term in regard to the two Schleiermacher's translation (1813) (as cited in Munday, 2001) strategies of domestication and foreignization, Venuti (1995) used the term 'invisibility' for the first time to refer to the case when the translators themselves translate the text fluently (as cited in Munday, 2001). Vermeer (1989-2004) introduced a Greek word 'skopos' which means aim or purpose of the action of translating in order to put emphasis on the function of translation above all. Nord (1988-2005) presented a functional model which incorporates different components of texts and which contains two types of documentary and instrumental translation (as cited in Munday, 2001).
2.3.2.1. Text-Type Theories

Regarding various types of text, one of the issues which any translator may confront is the distribution of any text types which can be books, novels, magazines, newspapers, brochures, manuals, and others. This theory of translation puts more emphasis on the purpose of the original author since various text types are manifested based on the author's intention. On the other hand, the purpose of the original author, or the main function of the ST depends directly on the perception of the ST's audience (Armstrong, 2005).

Reiss (1971), the German scholar, identified various text types as informative, expressive, and operative in order to determine the proper translation strategy and the proper type of equivalence. She added that convergence of these three types of text may occur in one text; however, one of them overcomes the two others. These three text types are parallel to text functions and even language functions. Informative text type is parallel to logical language function which will produce a content-centered text type. Expressive text type corresponds to aesthetic language function which will lead to a form-centered text type. And eventually, the dialogic function of language can be seen in operative text type which itself may present in a behavior-centered text type. Therefore, if supplying information is the principal function of the ST, the translator must convey the content in TT. Reiss (1971) named the translation method which is used in this category as plain-prose. On the other hand, the TT must have the same or similar aesthetic and stylistic effect as of the ST and transferring content is no longer the chief goal. The translation method, according to Reiss (1971), in the second category is identifying. Ultimately the same or similar persuasive ST function must be conveyed in TT through a parodistic or adaptive translation method. Reiss (1971) continued that the ST function may be changed during the process of translation owing to the readers of the text (as cited in Fawcett, 1997).

2.3.2.2. Skopos Theory

Vermeer (1989-2004), deviating from the old and customary source-oriented approaches, developed a more functional approach toward translation studies. Skopos theory, which can be considered as a kind of shift from formal theories to more functional theories, emphasizes the contextual factors in order to bring the purpose of translation into focus and presents that translation, as any other action, owns a purpose and this purpose, in fact, determines the strategy and the method of translation. Skopos theory views translation as a kind of purposeful communicative action and takes the translation's reader and the translator's client into consideration. Considering purpose as the dominant factor in translation, this theory puts emphasis on the function and shows that the function of the target text is the element which determines the translation method and which source texts aspects should be rendered to the target texts. "Vermer regards a translation as a true rendition in so far as it functions as a text in the target culture..." (Naude, 2002).

According to skopos theory, therefore, one can translate the same text differently for different purposes and different clients. "This theory does not abolish equivalence by any means- it simply makes equivalence a special case, to be sought in translation
where 'functional consistency' is required between the source and target situations" (Pym, 2010, p.5).

The scholars who played a crucial role regarding developing this function-oriented theory are Reiss (1971) along with her functional Criticism Approach, Holz-Manttari (1981) and Translation Action Theory, and Nord (1988/2005) and her Text Analysis Method (Du, 2012). Nord (1997) added the concept of loyalty and convention to the definition of skopos theory. She defined loyalty as "a moral category which permits the integration of culture-specific conventions into the functionalist model of translation" (as cited in Naude, 2002, p.52). Nord (1997), indeed, focused on loyalty towards the source text or the author as well as the target text or the translator, since it is in this case that the translator transfers the aspects of what the author conveyed in the ST (Nord, 1997, as cited in Naude, 2002).

2.3.2.3. Translatorial Action Theory

Holz-Manttari (1984) joined the main concepts of the two Communication Theory and Action Theory in order to provide an applicable approach for translation studies. "Translatorial action views translation as a purpose-driven, outcome-oriented human interaction and it focuses on the process of translation as message-transmitter compounds..." (ascited in Munday, 2001, p.77). This interlingual theory, indeed, regards translation as a communicative process in a sociocultural context which embraces some players such as the initiator, or whoever begins the process of translation, the commissioner or the publisher, the ST producer or the original writer, the TT producer or the translator, the TT user, and the final receiver (Munday, 2001). Since the main purpose of TranslatorialAction Theory is to reproduce a more functionally communicative translation, both the genre and the form must be rendered on the basis of the function of the text (Munday, 2001).

2.3.2.4. Polysystem Theory

Developed by Even-Zohar in 1970s, Polysystem Theory does not view translated literature as a peripheral work, rather this theory considers them as one of the main parts of literary system. This theory, indeed, regards translated literature as a system which has an ongoing interaction with the social, cultural, literary, and historical framework. And such a system performs "in the way the TL selects works for translation and in the way translation norms, behavior, and policies are influenced by other co-systems" (Munday, 2001, p. 108).

2.3.3. Sociolinguistic Theories

Emerged in the 19th century, Sociolinguistic Theories emphasize the receptor himself and the receptor's language since these theories aim at translating in such a more effective and appropriate way. These approaches differentiate chiefly between theoretical and practical norms, or, "what the receptors should understand and what they in fact do understand" (Newmark, 1997, p.34).

Since receptors in various cultures and languages are not actually identical to each other, due to their various educational level, occupations, and individual interests,
sociolinguistic theories proposes any translator to render the same ST for distinct groups of receptors accordingly (Newmark, 1997).

2.3.4. Relevance Theory

The code model was the mere communication model until 1957. Introducing an inferential model, Grice (1957 and 1968) challenged the old code model and introduced his inferential model which contains a cooperative principle along with four maxims of conversation so that any hearer can be able to infer the speaker's intention (as cited in Smith, 2000). Sperber and Wilson (1986) are among those theorists who were the proponents of the combination of Grice's (1957 and 1968) inferential communication and pragmatics. They believed that this type of communication is "... not as an alternative to the old approach but as an elaboration of it" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p. 24). Relevance Theory is the name of the revised model of Gricean's approach which was proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986).

The central concept in Relevance Theory is context. This psychological notion may be defined as "the psychological construct, a subset of the hearer's assumptions about the world" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p.15). This context, indeed, involves the mental cognitive environment of the hearer which is related to the hearer's external environment. And the information is of utmost importance in the process of analysis and interpretation of the utterance or the text in any context (Sperber and Wilson, 1986).

Though Sperber and Wilson (1986) introduced this theory, it was Gutt (1991/2000) who pointed to the Relevance Theory implications toward theories of translation and who showed how this theory is related to Bible translation. Gutt (1998) considered Relevance Theory as "the most comprehensive and explicit scientific approach" to any communication (as cited in Zhonggang, 2006, p. 45).

Relevance Theory distinguishes two classes of utterances based on how any communicator use them in their communication: descriptive and interpretive use of language. In descriptive use of language, the speaker tries to realize his/her faithfulness to the reality. However, the speaker, whose faithfulness is realized toward the original intention, speaks interpretively (Sperber and Wilson, 1986).

Truthfully, it is worthwhile to mention this type of distinction since interpretive use of language can be considered as a criteria in recognizing translations out of non-translations. Hence, regarding the Relevance Theory, translation can be placed in the second category, namely interpretive use of language, since representing the original thoughts and intentions in another language is the principal duty of any translator.

2.3.5. Equivalence-based Theories

In the second half of the 20th century, mainly Equivalence-Based Theories were developed by various scholars such as: Nida (1964), Nida and Taber (1969), and Newmark (1988), who demonstrated the impossibility of recreating the exact equivalence between SL and TL.
2.4. Equivalence
2.4.1. The Concept of Equivalence
The notion of equivalence is undoubtedly one of the most problematic areas in the field of translation theory. Hence, numerous translation scholars have analyzed this controversial concept from different points of view. The proponents of Equivalence-Based Theories of translation believe that equivalence is a kind of relationship between a source text and a target text.

In the second half of 20th century, the word "equivalence" was introduced as an inseparable component of western structuralists. This simple concept with complex application suggests an equal value on different levels between the ST and TT. This equal and same value may exist on the level of form, or on the level of function, or even on the level of reference. "Equivalence does not say exactly which kind of value is supposed to be the same in each case; it just says that equal value can be achieved on one level or another" (Pym, 2007, p.273).

Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) first used the term equivalence in its clear usage and related equivalence to cultural adaptation, where the equivalence is assumed to exist in the culture before the translator's attempt (as cited in Pym, 2010). According to Halverson (1997), equivalence is defined as "a relationship existing between two entities and the relationship is described as one of likeness/ sameness/ similarity/ equality in terms of any of a number of potential qualities" (pp.207-210, as cited in Sadeghi, 2010). For Koller (1979) equivalence is most specific to translation. He put equivalence on the level of language use and for him equivalence does not exist between language systems (as cited in Pym, 1997). Bell (1991), raising his three fundamental questions about any translation, defines the nature of equivalence as: "Translation is the replacement of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language" (Bell, 1991, p. 6). Pym (2010) stated that equivalence in 1950s or so was considered not only as the goal of the translations, but also as a yardstick to analyze translations.

2.4.2. Typology of Equivalence
2.4.2.1. Baker
Baker (1992), putting together the linguistic and communicative approaches in In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation, explored types of equivalence in more details and examined the notion of equivalence at word level, above word level, grammatical equivalence, textual (thematic and information structures, cohesion) equivalence and pragmatic one.

2.4.2.1.1. At Word Level
Discussing equivalence at word level, Baker (1992) stated that defining a word as the main unit of meaning in any language is so important. "The smallest unit which we would expect to possess individual meaning is the word (Baker, 1992, p. 11)." Besides words, there exist morphemes which are the minimal units of meaning in any language and which are different from words in some aspects. A morpheme cannot be cut into smaller parts and still retains meaning. While a word can occur freely by itself, a morpheme may or may not be able to. Eventually when a morpheme can occur
by itself, it is a word with a single morpheme; but when a morpheme cannot occur by itself, it has to be combined with other morphemes to form a word. For example, though unbelievable is one word, it consists of three morphemes: un, which means not, believe, which means have faith in, and able, which means able to be.

She mentioned that whether the translator is able to choose a proper equivalent in TT depends on both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. Additionally, not only the original writer but also the translator, who produces TT, both play an equal role in manipulating the linguistic systems.

Elaborating the notion of non-equivalence at word level, which means that "the target language has no direct equivalent for a word which occurs in the source text" (Baker, 1992, p.20), Baker (1992) introduced the common cases in this respect. The first set includes those concepts which are specific to the ST and are exoticized and unfamiliarized in TT. These words are called culture-specific words. The second set refers to concepts in SL which are lexicalized totally differently in ST and TT. Another set demonstrates semantically complex SL words. This set of words is not necessarily complex in their morphemes, but they express complex concepts. The forth classification displays various distinctions in meaning between SL and TL. "What one language regards as an important distinction in meaning another language may not perceive as relevant" (Baker, 1992, p. 22).

For instance, lacking a general word as the superordinate or a specific word as the hyponym is an example of non-equivalence at word level. Another example is loan words since these words, which are borrowed from SL; owing to their prestige do not have an exact equivalent in TL. Furthermore, difference in expressive meaning, form, frequency, and purpose of using specific forms are other cases where TL may not have any equivalent for SL item (Baker, 1992).

Introducing the cases where there is no equivalent at word level, Baker (1992) mentioned the strategies for translators to deal with these problems such as translation by a more general word (superordinate), translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by cultural substitution, translation by using a loan word or loan word plus explanation, translation by paraphrase using a related word, translation by paraphrase using unrelated words, translation by omission, and translation by illustration.

2.4.2.1.2. Above Word Level

In any language, words are systematically joined together in order to produce stretches of language. This joining, indeed, occurs regarding some specific rules and restrictions. In Baker’s (1992) opinion, collocations, idioms, and fixed expressions are the subdivisions of lexical patterning, whose translation necessitates the translator to find out equivalents above word level (Baker, 1992).

The meaning of a word and its collocations are closely related together. Hence, if a translator is not able to recognize this relationship, s/he may fail to translate accurately. Confronting situations where there is a kind of mismatch between the source and target language, translators should not duplicate an exoticingcollocational pattern in TL (Baker, 1992).
The form of idioms, fixed expressions, and proverbs, on the other hand, cannot be changed. Baker (1992) stated that fixed expressions and proverbs, unlike idioms, have clear meaning.

The majority of translators working into a foreign language cannot hope to achieve the same sensitivity that native speakers seem to have for judging when and how an idiom can be manipulated. This lends support to the argument that translators should only work into their language of habitual use or mother tongue. (Baker, 1992, p. 64)

She classified the main difficulties which any translator may confront while translating idioms or fixed expressions such as when there is no equivalent for the idiom in TL, for instance culture-specific items, idioms or fixed expressions with the same equivalent but various context of use, idioms which can be translated both literally and idiomatically, idioms with different frequency of use between ST and TT. Noting that the translation of idioms is dependent on some factors, Baker (1992) argued her strategies in order to deal with these types of idioms: translating the SL idiom with a similar TL idiom (similar in meaning and form), translating the SL idiom with a TL idiom which are different formally but similar meaningfully, and when the translator encounters a total mismatch, s/he may translate the SL idiom by paraphrasing or omission.

2.4.2.1.3. Grammatical Equivalence

Grammatical equivalence, regarding the analysis of translation, contains time, number, gender, shape, visibility, person, proximity, animacy, and so on (Baker, 1992). Considering equivalence above word level, Baker (1992) mentioned that in any language, a series of words are combined together to produce various types of sentences. This combination is governed by a "set of rules which determine the way in which units such as words and phrases can be combined in a language and the kind of information which has to be made regularly explicit in utterance" (Baker, 1992, p. 83). She named this set of rules grammar.

The grammatical structures of source and target languages which may be translated with difficulty can be named as number or a grammatical category by number. Baker (1992) suggested that the translator, who tries to translate number from SL to TL, to either "omit the relevant information on number or encode this information lexically" (p. 88).

Gender, another grammatical category, refers to masculinity and feminity of the noun and is divided into "inanimate objects and human". Baker (1992) declared that regarding inanimate objects, translators may manipulate the gender distinction of SL in TL in support of conveying the expressive meaning. However, "gender distinctions in the case of human referents are not arbitrary, and this is why Lyons (1968), for instance, suggests that what is important in communication is the pronominal function of gender rather than the category of gender in general" (Lyons, 1968, as cited in Baker, 1992, p. 92).

Person is the third grammatical distinction which refers to participants and which itself has three distinctions of first person (the speaker), second person (the addressee), and the third person (neither the speaker nor the addressee).
In some languages time relational and aspectual differences are the two indications of the verb. Time relational refers to "past, present, and future". Aspectual differences refer to "completion, non-completion, continuation, or memontariness". If tense or aspect is not a grammatical distinction in a language, it would be more optional to specify them (Baker, 1992).

The relationship between the verb and the subject is demonstrated by the concept of voice. Active voice puts emphasis on the agent of the action and in passive voice the action is mainly specified. Owing to the importance of the amount of information and owing to the fact that whether the agent is in focus or the action, the translator should be aware how and when to transfer a passive structure by an active structure or vice versa (Baker, 1992). "The idea is not to replace an active form with a passive one; it is always the function of a category rather than the form it takes that is of paramount importance in translation" (Baker, 1992, p. 109).

2.4.2.1.4. Textual Equivalence

Besides word order and grammatical equivalence, equivalence at text level also plays a crucial role in processing the message in a given context. Regarding analyzing "the clause as a message rather than as a string of grammatical and lexical elements" (Baker, 1992, p.121), the translator can evaluate any clauses on the basis of two types of thematic structure and information structure. Baker (1992) cited the two approaches where any message can be analyzed; Hallidayan approach and the Prague School approach. Hallidayan approach is called as separating approach since it processes thematic structure and information structure separately. Combining these two structures, the Prague School is named the combining approach.

Baker (1992) analyzed the thematic structure through the channels of grammaticality vs. acceptability, text organization, and finally marked vs. unmarked sequences.

The emphasis on theme-rheme distinction is the key feature of Hallidayan approach and the difference between this approach and the Prague approach. In Hallidayan approach theme is defined as the element which the speaker places in the first position of any clause and rheme as the element which generally comes after the theme. Accordingly theme-rheme sequence is the unacceptable sequence in this approach.

Though theme-rheme distinction is speaker-oriented and is a feature of language system since it tries to convey what the speaker wants to, information structure is mainly hearer-oriented and is considered as one of the attributes of any context. Information structure makes a distinction between given or old message and the new one. The given information is the one which any hearer is supposed to already know and the new information is the one the speaker tries to convey. The speaker's sensitivity and the context are chiefly the main factors which organize the information as the given information or the new one. "The importance of context in establishing the boundaries of given or new elements is worth noting because it suggests that analyzing written language in terms of given and new is feasible" (Baker, 1992, p. 148).

Baker (1992) continued that a translator may confront problems regarding these two domains of how to identify signals of information and when to treat a certain item of information as given information.
The Prague School approach, on the other hand, explains the concept of theme-rheme and given-new information differently from what the Hallidayan approach defined. Regarding identifying theme-rheme and given-new information, the Prague School approach defines that theme involves context-dependent items while rheme includes context-independent parameters. This approach adds a third concept to any discourse, which is called transition. Apart from this difference, the Prague School views the verbs as a part of thematic structure unlike the Hallidayan approach which relates the verbs to the rheme. In the Prague approach, just like the Hallidayan approach, given and new information are the two constituents of any units of information.

To sum up, Baker (1992) noted that it is sometimes impossible for the translator to follow the thematic organization which exists in the original text. And the translator may be able to create a somehow similar thematic organization but not exactly the same one. The translator should be aware that conveying the thematic organization in TL, which is specific to the SL, does not damage the smoothness of the translated text.

2.4.2.1.5. Pragmatic Equivalence

Baker's (1992) pragmatic equivalence analyses utterances beyond the word, grammatical, and textual level. This type of equivalence, which actually examines utterances in a complex context of communicative situation, is called pragmatic equivalence and interprets the study of language in use. Developing this cross-cultural communication, Baker (1992) explored two issues of coherence and implicature which are principal to this realm of study. Unlike cohesion, which is defined as the surface relation, coherence is indeed the conceptual relations between the constituents of utterances. Besides coherence, implicature is considered as another central issue regarding pragmatics. The key concept of implicature is the speaker's intention but not the speaker's words. Implicature is not the literal or conventional meaning of words. Rather, this type of pragmatic inference is mainly supported by the participants' intentions.

Baker (1992) suggested that the translator first should understand the literal meaning of words in order to comprehend the implied meaning. Another suggestion is correctly identifying participants involved in any communication and trying to know enough about them. And finally, she proposed the translator to fully grasp the context of any utterance in order to draw the right inferences from a text. These strategies, therefore, facilitate the process of interpreting for the translator.

2.4.2.2. Pym

Pym (2010) indicated three different ways where equivalence has been used: "to conceptualize cultural adaptation (dynamic equivalence), to refer to reproduction of different natural source text levels and functions (where the term does indeed recuperate the millenniaediscourse of fidelity), and to think about the different choices facing the translator" (p.3). In the process of theorizing the concept of equivalence, Pym (2007) introduced the two ways of conceptualizing this concept as natural equivalence which is opposed to directional equivalence. "What different languages and cultures seem to produce from within their own systems" (Pym, 2007, p.279).
Some theories about how natural equivalence works state that “there is a piece of reality or thought (a referent, a function, a message) that sounds outside all languages and to which two languages can refer” (Pym, 2007, p. 281). Natural equivalence demonstrates a way in which meaning is conveyed from language A to language B or vice versa, that is, from language B to language A without any kinds of disturbing. Regarding directional equivalence, on the other hand, transferring meaning occurs in such a unidirectional way, a way from A to B without any backing from B to A, since this type of equivalence involves only one movement (Pym, 2010).

2.4.2.3. House

House (1997) followed her own taxonomy of covert and overt translation on the basis of the notion of equivalence. Since an overt translation must overtly be a translation, the reader of the TT is not addressed directly (as cited in Munday, 2001). Accordingly, the ST function may be altered in TT. An overt translation is not an original text; however, it is clearly a translation. This type of translation is a complete culture-specific translation, since it aims to reflect the source culture. “Many such texts are literary texts and can be characterized by their fictional nature, i.e. they are situationally abstract in that they do not immediately refer to a unique historic situation” (House, n.d., p. 159). An overt translation is equivalent to the original text at the level of language, register, and genre. The translator of an overt translation helps various readers to freely obtain their own impression of the original text (House, n.d.).

The covert translation, on the other hand, is not a translation. It is, indeed, an original text which does not aim to reflect the original. “An original and its covert translation are – one might say – ‘universal’ in the sense that they differ ‘only’ accidentally in their respective language” (House, n.d., p. 161). This type of translation, in which the role of the translator is completely hidden, addresses the TT audience directly. Therefore, a covert translation is not the duplicate of ST; rather it is an original text itself. “In the case of covert TTs, it is thus both possible and desirable to keep the function of the ST equivalent in TT” (House, 1977, p.194-95 as cited in Fawcett, 1997, p. 113). Covert translation attempts chiefly that the target addressees obtain their own needs, in that; this approach reproduces an equivalent function of the original text. “Real functional equivalence is aimed at and often achieved in covert translation” (House, n.d., p.161). Advertisements, instructions, journalistic and scientific texts which are called pragmatic texts, are mainly translated covertly since they are not culture-specific.

Applying translation quality assessment, House (1977) introduced her model based on the notions of register and text functions, the main concepts of Hallidayan approach. She, in fact, analyzed the ST and its register parameters in order to examine the role of these parameters in transferring ST to TT (House, 1977, as cited in Fawcett, 1997). In this model, each text is analyzed at three levels of language, register, and genre. Hallidayan approach classifies register into field, tenor, and mode. Field refers to the subject matter. Tenor demonstrates the author’s personal viewpoint and the social relationship between the author and its addressee. And various ways of presenting information are representations of mode (House, n.d.).
2.4.2.4. Newmark

As cited in Munday (2001), Newmark (1981) called Catford's (1965) classification of textual equivalent vs. formal correspondent as communicative versus semantic translation. This definition is similar to what Nida (1964) called dynamic equivalence in which both focus on the TT reader. Being smoother, simpler, clearer, more direct, and more conventional, communicative translation, mainly, focuses on producing the same effect of ST on the TT addressees. The reader of Newmark's (1981) communicative translation obtains nearly the same effect which the original reader achieves from the original text. This communicative translation is that one which puts the reader into focus. Allocating itself to the readers of the translation, this approach manipulates the form and renders the content in a way that the reader comprehends the message (Newmark, 1997). The translator of communicative translation tries to produce a text better than the original writer, while the semantic translation may involve loss of meaning. However, this loss of meaning should not occur in communicative translation, since transferring the message or the meaning and reproducing a more elegant translation than the original are chiefly at the focus in these types of translations. Semantic translation, on the other hand, is "more complex, awkward, and detailed" (Munday, 2001, p. 45). "Semantic translation is sometimes both linguistic and encyclopedic, whilst communicative translation is strictly functional" (Newmark, 1997, p. 212). Trying to reproduce the original flavor and tone, the translator in semantic translation aims to maintain the original author's syntax and form of expression which are chiefly so sacred to being copied in the translation (Newmark, 1997). This kind of reproduction is the main focus of semantic approach. Therefore, the semantic translation, unlike the communicative translation, may be viewed inferior to the ST (Newmark, 1997). And as the final difference between these two approaches it can be concluded that mainly one translator cooperates in the reproduction of semantic translation which can be considered as a kind of art. However, a team of translators sometimes join to render the ST more communicatively and to produce such a craft but not an art (Newmark, 1997).

It is worth noting that there is considerable overlap between semantic and communicative translations although these two approaches own distinct features, "A translation can be more or less semantic- more or less-communicative- even a particular section or sentence can be treated more communicatively or less semantically" (Newmark, 1997, p.20).

2.4.2.5. Catford

Catford (1965), following a more linguistic-based approach and considering translation "unidirectional", distinguished textual equivalent from formal correspondence. Formal correspondent is "any TL category (unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc.) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the "same" place in the "economy" of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL" (Catford 1965, p.27). Formal correspondent, indeed, describes and compares language systems. For example fenetre, which is a French word, is the formal correspondent of the English word window since both these words are nouns (Hatim and Munday, 2004). When an SL item has more than one TL equivalent in a given text, formal
correspondence is indeed approximate correspondence. "Formal correspondence can only be established ultimately on the basis of textual equivalent at some point" (Catford, 1965, p. 32); that is, if a TL item is the formal equivalence of an SL item, it means that these two items have approximately the same operations in one rank in both languages. On the other hand, Catford (1965) defined a textual equivalent as "any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion...to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text" (p.27).

2.4.2.6. Koller

Koller (1979a) examined the two concepts of correspondence and equivalence more closely. He related correspondence to contrastive linguistics, the domain which puts the differences and similarities into focus and which indicates the foreign language competence. Equivalence, on the other hand, is placed in the field of translation studies where translation competence is the knowledge competence. Koller (1979a) developed at least five frames for equivalence (Korrespondenz and Äquivalenz) as: denotative, connotative, text-normative, pragmatic, and formal equivalence (as cited in Munday, 2001).

Denotative equivalence, which is called content invariance or in variance of content, means that the principal content remains intact. This type of equivalence can be considered as dictionary meaning. Any expression in any text includes a connotative meaning besides denotative meaning. Connotative meaning refers to the very synonyms of a language with slightest differences in their usage. A definite text and its constituents generally specify these usage differences. Text-normative equivalence determines that a given text, according to its usage norms, must be translated in a way that its receivers comprehend it. Pragmatic equivalence or communicative equivalence put the reader into focus. This type of equivalence is generally used to persuade the intended reader to do or not to do something. Finally the result of applying formal equivalence or expressive equivalence is the reproduction of the exact form of SL in TL. This type of equivalence reproduces the exact stylistic features of ST in order to create the same aesthetic effect on TT readers which ST creates on its own addressee (as cited in Munday, 2001).

The translator must consciously decide what type of these equivalences should be used in his/her translation on the basis of the SL requirement which the translator decides to preserve in TL (as cited in Munday, 2001).

2.4.2.7. Nord

Nord’s (1991) model may be considered as the actual application of skopos theory, which expresses that the TT function should not be necessarily the same as the ST function. Similar to House’s (1997) covert and overt translation, Nord (1991) distinguished two types of instrumental and documentary translation. She introduced her functional model according to the given function or the role which any translation plays in a given context (as cited in Pym, 1993). Instrumental translation is indeed an independent translation in target culture along with three functions: to reproduce the ST function in TT if it is possible, to find other functions for ST in TT, and to reproduce the ST effect for TT addressees (Pym, 1993). Documentary translation, by contrast, is a
foreign and exotizing one in which the ST elements are preserved (Nord, 1991 as cited in Fawcett, 1997). Documentary translation is, truly, a translation which has a direct communication function informing the reader about the source – culture (Pym, 1993).

2.4.2.8. Nida

2.4.2.8.1. Nida’s Theory of Equivalence

In comparison to the other books, Bible has been translated so many times during the past. Bible translators translated the holy text more cautiously since they were afraid of distorting the message, though there existed too much objections toward translation of Old Testament in previous centuries. "Sir Thomas More was opposed to all Bible translations because the expressions used in them were contrary to the tradition of the Roman Church" (Nida, 1964, p.2). These objections led to a revolution which, according to Stine (2004), not only influenced by the Bible translation but also introduced new methods and new approaches toward translating. Stine (2004) named Nida, an American linguist, as the pioneer of this revolution, who brought making Bible understandable into focus. For him, understandable translations are those translations which seem natural.

In 1964 Nida introduced his theory of translation, which is the focus of this study, including formal equivalence translation and dynamic equivalence translation. Nida’s (1964) theory of translation was developed from his practical work on translation of Bible from 1940s. He elaborated his theory in his two books: Toward a Science of Translating (Nida 1964) and The Theory and Practice of Translation (Nida and Taber, 1969) and presented his theory of translation in a more scientific manner. To do this he borrowed main theoretical issues and main concepts of his systematic theory of dynamic equivalence translation and formal equivalence translation from Chomsky’s (1957, 1961b, 1962) generative transformational grammar. The principal function of generative transformational model proposed by Chomsky (1957, 1961b, 1962) was to analyze sentences based on a series of systematic rules: transformational structure rule transforms deep structure which is generated by phrase-structure rule, and then a final surface structure is produced from the transformed deep structure.

Nida (1964), applying the main issues of Chomsky’s (1957, 1961b, 1962) model to his scientific theory of translation, viewed fundamental features of generative transformational grammar as a kind of “technique for decoding the source text and secondly with a procedure for describing the generation of the appropriate corresponding expression in the receptor language” (p.60). Therefore, during the process of translation, the surface structure of the ST is analyzed into the deep structure and it is transferred and finally restructured semantically and stylistically into the TT.

2.4.2.8.1.1. Generative Transformational Grammar

Generative transformational grammar could be considered as the most valid approach in dealing with those structurally identical expressions which have various meaningful relationships (Chomsky, 1957, 1961b, 1962, as cited in Nida, 1964). Due to this generative grammar, it would be recognized that apparently identical structures...
are derived from different basic kernel structures which are transformed for many times. Hence, they own completely different meanings (Nida, 1964).

Nida (1964) believed that the two concepts of deep structure and surface structure which were first introduced by Chomsky's (1957, 1961b, 1962) generative transformational grammar have great value for any translator. Chomsky's (1957, 1961b, 1962) approach suggested generating an infinite number of sentences may be possible by applying basic simple sentences or kernel sentences (Stine, 2004).

He concluded that in addition to the surface and deep structures there exists some other elements which generative transformational grammar dealt with, that is, the grammar and the vocabulary of a language. Immediate constituent analysis and componential analysis are the two key features of Nida's theory of translation (Stine, 2004).

For Nida (1964), the notion of translation as an act of communication across languages cannot merely be considered as an act of transferring the symbols (words and sentences), rather it must be viewed as transferring intentions, thoughts, meanings and inferences from one person to another since intentions, thoughts, and inferences are the beginning of any translation or any communication through language.

For Nida and Taber (1969) translation is regarded as a three-phase approach containing: analysis phase in which the ST message is analyzed; transfer phase in which the analyzed message in ST is transferred in the translator's mind into the TT; and restructure phase in which the transferred message is restructured into the TT in order to achieve an acceptable message in the target language.

2.4.2.8.2. Nida's Functional Oriented Model

Defining equivalence as proximity and closeness to the functional identity, Nida (1964) introduced his theory of equivalence in favor of two basic orientations: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence theory gives priority to the source language text and dynamic equivalence translation brings the target language text and the target reader into focus. He, indeed, presented a communicative function of language by introducing his theory of dynamic equivalence translation which is also called functional equivalence translation (Nida, 1964).

2.4.2.8.2.1. Formal Equivalence vs. Dynamic Equivalence

Formal equivalence "focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content...one is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language" (Nida, 1964, p.159). On the other hand, dynamic equivalence is defined as:

The closest natural equivalent to the source-language message. This type of definition contains three essential terms: equivalent which points toward the source-language message, natural which points toward the receptor language, and closest which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation (Nida, 1964, p. 166).

While the ST-oriented formal equivalence translation brings into focus the form and content of the message, the TT-oriented dynamic or functional equivalence translation focuses equally on both source and receptor languages. In other words,
dynamic equivalence translation emphasizes that both the message of the original and the perception of the reader are crucial elements to any successful translation. Nida (1964) completed the definition of dynamic equivalence in that it:

aims at complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture; it does not insist that he understand the cultural patterns of the source language context in order to comprehend the message (p. 159).

It is important to mention that Nida (1964) is the first scholar who introduced the concept of ‘naturalization’ by applying the term ‘natural’ to define dynamic or functional equivalence translation. He believed that proximity in meaning must have priority over proximity in style by demonstrating that dynamic equivalence translation is where the TT has the same effect on its receptor and reader as well as the effect the ST has on the original receptor and reader.

Nida's (1964) definition of naturalization refers to choosing an item in the SL which is suitable to the norms of the TL both phonetically and morphologically, for example the Greek word of "performenz" and the English equivalent of "performance" (as cited in Molina & Hurtado-Albir, 2002).

2.4.2.8.3. Application of Dynamic (Functional) Equivalence
2.4.2.8.3.1. Ding

Owing to its significance as an integral part of the style, Ding (2008) studied rhythm in translation and followed functional equivalence translation theory. The researcher attempted to demonstrate the importance of rhythm in translation and rhythmical equivalence in translating and translation. In the author's opinion "the purpose of rhythm is all for communication, without its conveyance of meaning, it will surely lose its weight" (Ding, 2008, p. 4). Focusing mainly on rhythm as a kind of form which must be rendered in translation of poetry, essay, drama, and so on, Ding (2008) analyzed rhythm on the basis of Nida's (1964) functional equivalence since rhythm, indeed, conveys meaning. Expressing that rhythm as the law of nature can be seen in the human heart beating, clock ticking, season shifting, and tide rising and falling, Ding (2008) declared that in any language individuals often use rhythm in order to show that they put stress on more important statements and they reduce their stress on less important statements. Ding (2008), then, defined rhythm more theoretically as "regular succession of weak and strong stresses, accents, sounds, or movements in speech, music, dancing, etc" (p.80). Ding (2008) added that rhythm has various features in different languages, though it in all languages is generally defined as a kind of "regular reoccurrence of particular items" (p. 80).

Introducing three main types of foot in Chinese, namely, degenerate foot, standard foot, and super foot, Ding (2008) mentioned that rhythm in Chinese is chiefly considered as syllabic rhythm. Ding (2008), furthermore, introduced another distinct part of Chinese rhythm, caesura, which is generally the pause between different feet. Caesura and feet, in fact, are the two main features of rhythm in Chinese. Comparing rhythm in English and Chinese, Ding (2008) concluded that rhythm in English is mainly based on foot. Rhythm in English, naming stress-timing or foot-timing, is the chain of the stressed syllables followed by unstressed syllables of intervals of time. The researcher suggested that the
translator not only takes rhythm into consideration, but also evaluates the perfection or acceptability of a translation according to translation of the rhythmical equivalence. Ding (2008) finally suggested that any translator bears in their mind that in the process of translation, the rhythmical equivalent in TL must not be exactly the same in form as the source rhythm. However, it is suggested to the translator to reproduce the similiar rhythm of the original text.

2.4.2.8.3.2. Zhao

Zhao (2009), through a comparative analysis of three versions of the Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, analyzed the realization of functional equivalence theory in the translation of children's literature. Showing that the three versions realized functional equivalence at different levels, the researcher concluded that "translators have rich imagination and cultural background so as to achieve the maximum degree of functional equivalence in dealing with this special genre of literature" (Zhao, 2009, Abstract)

2.4.2.8.3.3. Jamalimanesh and Rahkhoda

Jamalimanesh and Rahkhoda (2009) conducted a research to determine which type of formal or dynamic equivalence Iranian translators use in film subtitling. A set of English sentences along with their Persian equivalents were selected in order to investigate whether the sentences are translated dynamically or formally. Practicing over the Persian subtitles of the three English movies of 'Ring 1', 'Ring 2', and 'Proposal', the researchers followed three various steps: first gathering a number of English sentences of source text along with their Persian equivalents in the three film subtitles, second identifying the type of equivalence in each translation, and third analyzing each equivalent.

The researchers concluded that translators choose formal equivalence as their first choice in film subtitling. However, dynamic equivalence is another choice for the translators in case formal equivalence is not possible. Jamalimanesh and Rahkhoda (2009) pointed to the priority of formal equivalence over dynamic equivalence translation. The researchers added that formal equivalence differs from literal translation, since in literal translation formal features are mainly preserved without regarding the context. These formal features are also maintained in formal equivalence translation, provided they transmit contextual values. So, in this case, the formal features are contextually motivated. (Hatim and Munday, 2004).

The study showed that in the process of Persian subtitling of English movies, the majority of subtitlers prefer to apply formal equivalence. The researchers, however, mentioned that the cases of explicitations, collocations, phaticisms, idioms or proverbs, modulations, adaptations, ideology, and ellipsis are the cases where formal equivalence is not acceptable so they are chiefly translated dynamically.

2.4.2.8.3.4. Zhang and Wang

Application of functional equivalence theory in English translation of Chinese idioms has been explored by Zhang and Wang (2010). Owing to the unique features of fixed structures, and regular forms of Chinese idioms, Zhang and Wang (2010) applied
nine methods of translating. In order to testify these methods both theoretically and practically, the authors applied Nida's (1964) functional equivalence to those nine methods. The authors then concluded that the translator should consider three points when s/he translates: equivalence, receptor's response, and diversity. The researchers also mentioned that "there is no total equivalence, but only equivalence to some degree" (Zhang & Wang, 2010, p. 887).

On the basis of Nida's (1964) definition, Zhang and Wang (2010) stated that dynamic equivalence theory contains three principal notions: the notion of equivalence, the notion of receptor's response, the notion of diversity. Equivalence in this theory does not mean exactly identical word-substitution. Equivalence, indeed, refers to approximation. Therefore, dynamic equivalence theory states that target reader's response should be approximately identical to the source reader's response. In other words, this is the case when the translator does his/her best to produce a cultural pattern which is familiar, understandable, domesticated, and natural to TL readers without any weird structures. Then we could call his/her translation a dynamic one and the TT reader, therefore, may not consider this dynamic translation as a translation. Rather s/he views that text as an original text. It is highly possible that the form and content of the message involved in some adjustments. Zhang and Wang (2010) analyzed the term "closest" in two ways: language form and utterance in meaning. "The problem between language form and utterance meaning will always occur, especially when culturally-loaded words or expressions are involved" (Zhang & Wang, 2010, p.882). In contrast with formal equivalence, dynamic theory is an originally receptor's oriented approach which puts great emphasis on the reader's response rather than just transferring the message.

2.4.2.8.3.5. Ghafel, EslamiRasekh and Pazhakh

Ghafel, EslamiRasekh and Pazhakh (2010), whose study included the idiomatic expressions and their Persian equivalences in light of Nida's (1964) dynamic equivalence theory, conducted a research in order to analyze the translation of these expressions on the basis of Nida's theory of functional equivalence translation. Considering idiomatic expressions, cultural expressions and conveying their meanings from ST to TT as one of the most noticeable part of any language, and also defining the idiomatic expressions as a group of existing words which are normally joined together in order to produce a novel meaning, they declared that translators should be aware that idioms are generally culture-bound expressions. Accordingly, translators should take into consideration in their translations the differences among languages. Furthermore, they summarized that some of English idiomatic expressions do not have any equivalence in Persian, since the structure of idioms highly depends on the culture of any language. The authors finally set a restriction on their study and analyzed the English idioms which had equivalents in Persian.

To do this, the researchers selected 27 English idioms out of some English websites along with their Persian translations which they gathered out of two Persian dictionaries in order to compare and contrast those idioms in both languages. Regarding the sewing frame, the researchers defined the specific terms of tools and materials such as cloth, leather, thread, needle, needle eye, stitches, patterns, pins,
scissors, and lining. In order to facilitate the procedure, the researchers classified their data, English idioms, on the basis of the sewing items in their structures. They, then, defined those idioms connotatively. In the third phase, the researchers analyzed the data qualitatively, in that the idiomatic expressions were compared and contrasted according to their figurative meaning.

The researchers' findings revealed that, to convey the same content, Persian idioms did use counterparts which are almost different from the source.

3. Methodology
3.0. Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed description of procedures which were used in investigating the issue of differences between applying dynamic equivalence translation and formal equivalence translation to imperatives in a given ST along with its translations.

First, I start this chapter by presenting the procedure for selecting the corpus. Second, I present a description of the corpora. Third, procedure for collecting the data is presented. Finally, the data analysis procedure is introduced.

3.1. The Corpus

The selection of the corpus in this study was based on a non-random sampling or purposive sampling which, according to Farhady (1995), is "the procedure directed toward obtaining a certain type of members with predetermined characteristics" (p. 212).

A movie script was selected as the corpus of this research accompanied by its two translations which were meticulously selected in order to be segmented, compared and contrasted from the viewpoint of either dynamically or formally translated. The purposeful selection of the movie script was also based on the following criteria: originally written in English, being regarded as a masterpiece, and written by a renowned screenwriter.

This investigation was carried out on one English movie script as a source text, ‘CHINATOWN’ by Towne (1974), pp. 201, which was taken from http://sfy.ru/?script=chinatown

Admitting the shortcoming of finding various translations done by renowned translators, based on the availability in the market, the following two Persian translations by different translators of that movie script were selected as the target texts.


3.2. Data Collection Procedure

A comparative study of the two selected translations as the target texts was carried out in order to investigate which one follows the theory of Nida's (1964) functional or dynamic equivalence translation and which one follows formal equivalence translation. The procedure of collecting data in this study involved two phases; first,
linguistic components of the source text were identified along with their functions. This study focused on the imperatives as the linguistic component. Then, the data collection procedure was continued by classifying the Persian translations of the identified linguistic components of the two target texts into two categories of dynamic or formal equivalence translation. The classification, thus, was carried out on the basis of the factors which are suggested by Nida (1964).

Nida (1964) believed that in formal equivalence translation which is essentially source-oriented, we face these formal features: "producing grammatical units, producing consistency in word usage, and meaning in terms of the source content" (p.165). He stated that "translating nouns by nouns, verbs by verbs, etc. keeping all phrases and sentences intact and not splitting up and readjusting the units, and preserving all formal indicators, e.g. marks of punctuation, paragraph breaks, and poetic indentation" are crucial to the reproducing of the grammatical units. Nida (1964) defined "reproducing the consistency in word usage" as "concordance in terminology" which refers to "rendering a particular term in the source language document by the corresponding term in the receptor document" (p.165). He noted that "reproducing meaning in terms of the source context" means "not making adjustments in idioms but rather to reproduce such expressions more or less literally so that the reader may be able to perceive something of the way in which the original document employed local cultural elements to convey meanings" (Nida, 1964, p.165). He stated that:

A natural translation involves two principal areas of adaptation, namely, grammar and lexicon. In general the grammatical modifications can be made more readily, since many grammatical changes are dictated by the obligatory structures of the receptor language. That is to say, one is obliged to make such adjustments as shifting word order, using verbs in place of nouns, and substituting nouns for pronouns. ...

(Nida, 1964, p.167).

3.3. Data Analysis Procedure

The analysis started with finding imperatives encoded in both source text and target texts along with their frequencies. To determine the number of both formally translated and dynamically translated imperatives frequency was calculated. After that the percentage of dynamically translated imperatives and formally translated imperatives in both target texts were calculated which more greatly demonstrated a difference in the application of formal and/or dynamic equivalence translation. The chi-square statistical procedure was applied in order to investigate the significance of the possible differences between dynamically translated imperatives and formally translated imperatives.

4.1. RESULT

As it is shown in Table 4.1, we came across 282 cases of formal equivalence in Akbari and Jeddi-Niya's (2000) translation, consisting of nouns translated by nouns 16.67 %, verbs translated by verbs 64.89 %, not splitting up or readjusting the units 14.89 %, reproducing the consistency in word usage 3.55 %. As stated before, reproducing meaning in terms of source context is one feature of any formal equivalence translation. Nida (1964) defined this feature as "not making adjustments in
idioms but rather to reproduce such expressions more or less literally so that the reader may be able to perceive something of the way in which the original document employed local cultural elements to convey meanings” (p.165). However, no evidence of the said feature was detected since all idiomatic imperatives in ST were rendered dynamically and their translations included adjustments in TT.

Table 4.1. Frequency and percentage of subcategories of formal equivalence translation by Akbari and Jeddi-Niya (2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURES OF FORMAL EQUIVALENCE TRANSLATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nouns translated by nouns</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>16.67 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Verbs translated by verbs</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>64.89 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Not splitting up or readjusting the units</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>14.89 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reproducing the consistency in word usage</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.55 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Reproducing meaning in terms of the source context</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total = 282

Out of the 3 subcategories of 82 cases of dynamic (functional) equivalence in Akbari and Jeddi-Niya’s (2000) translation, as it is shown in Table 4.2, shifting word order has the higher percentage of 98.78 % and substituting nouns for pronouns has the percentage of 1.22 %. No nouns were, however, found in ST to be replaced by verbs in TT.

Table 4.2. Frequency and percentage of subcategories of dynamic (functional) equivalence translation by Akbari and Jeddi-Niya (2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURES OF DYNAMIC(FUNCTIONAL) EQUIVALENCE TRANSLATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Shifting word order</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>98.78 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using verbs in place of nouns</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Substituting nouns for pronouns</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.22 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total = 82

Out of the 2 main categories of Nida’s (1964) translation strategies, as it is shown in Table 4.3, formal equivalence has the highest percentage of 77.47 %, after that dynamic (functional equivalence) stands at the second level with the percentage of 22.53 %. This is shown in Table 4.16.
Table 4.3. Frequency and percentage of categories of translation strategies in translation of Chinatown, by Akbari and Jeddi-Niya (2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSLATION STRATEGY</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Formal Equivalence</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>77.47 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dynamic (Functional) Equivalence</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>22.53 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total = 364</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of 288 formally translated imperatives in Ohadi's (2001) translation, as it is shown in Table 4.4, verbs translated by verbs has the highest percentage of 64.93 %, nouns translated by nouns stand at the second level with the percentage of 18.75 % and not splitting up or readjusting the units and reproducing the consistency in word usage at the third and fourth level, have the percentages of 10.76 % and 5.56 % respectively. As it was stated before, reproducing meaning in terms of source context is one of features of any formal equivalence translation. Nida (1964) defined this feature as "not making adjustments in idioms but rather to reproduce such expressions more or less literally so that the reader may be able to perceive something of the way in which the original document employed local cultural elements to convey meanings" (p.165). however, no evidence of this feature was detected since all idiomatic imperatives in ST were rendered dynamically whose translations included adjustments in TT.

Table 4.4. Frequency and percentage of subcategories of formal equivalence translation by Ohadi (2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURES OF FORMAL EQUIVALENCE TRANSLATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nouns translated by nouns</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>18.75 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Verbs translated by verbs</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>64.93 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Not splitting up or readjusting the units</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10.76 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reproducing the consistency in word usage</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.56 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Reproducing meaning in terms of the source context</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total = 288</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of the 3 subcategories and 100 cases of dynamic (functional) equivalence in Ohadi's (2001) translation, as it is shown in Table 4.5, shifting word order has the highest percentage of 97 %, substituting nouns for pronouns 2% stands at the second level, and at the last level, using verbs in place of nouns has the percentage of 1 %.
Table 4.5. Frequency and percentage of subcategories of dynamic (functional) equivalence translation by Ohadi (2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURES OF DYNAMIC(FUNCTIONAL) EQUIVALENCE TRANSLATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Shifting word order</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>97 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using verbs in place of nouns</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Substituting nouns for pronouns</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total = 100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of the 2 main categories of Nida's (1964) translation strategies, as it is shown in Table 4.6, formal equivalence has the highest percentage of 74.23 % and dynamic (functional) equivalence 25.77 % stands at the second level.

Table 4.6. Frequency and percentage of categories of translation strategies in translation of Chinatown, by Ohadi (2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSLATION STRATEGY</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Formal Equivalence</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>74.23 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dynamic (Functional) Equivalence</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25.77 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total = 388</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is shown in Table 4.7, we came across 570 cases of formal equivalence in both translations of Akbari & Jeddi-Niya (2000) and Ohadi (2001), consisting of verbs translated by verbs 64.91 %, not splitting up or readjusting the units 12.81 %, nouns translated by nouns 17.72 %, and reproducing the consistency in word usage 4.56 %, in order of higher percentage to lower percentage. As it was stated in previous chapters, reproducing meaning in terms of source context is one of features of any formal equivalence translation. Nida (1964) defined this feature as "not making adjustments in idioms but rather to reproduce such expressions more or less literally so that the reader may be able to perceive something of the way in which the original document employed local cultural elements to convey meanings" (p.165). However, no evidence of this feature was detected since all idiomatic imperatives in ST were rendered dynamically whose translations included adjustments in TTs.

Table 4.7. Frequency and percentage of subcategories of formal equivalence translation by Akbari & Jeddi-Niya (2000) and Ohadi (2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURES OF FORMAL EQUIVALENCE TRANSLATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE PERCENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nouns translated by nouns</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>17.72 %</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Verbs translated by verbs</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>64.91 %</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Not splitting up or</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>12.81 %</td>
<td>95.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
readjusting the units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Reproducing the consistency in word usage</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4.56 %</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Reproducing meaning in terms of the source context</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total = 570

Figure 4.1. Percentage of subcategories of formal equivalence translation by Akbari & Jeddi-Niya (2000) and Ohadi (2001)

Out of the 3 subcategories of dynamic (functional) equivalence translation in both translations of Akbari & Jeddi-Niya (2000) and Ohadi (2001), as it is shown in Table 4.8, shifting word order has the highest percentage of 97.80 %. Substituting nouns for pronouns and using verbs in place of nouns have the percentage of 1.65 %, 0.55 % respectively.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features of Dynamic(Functional) Equivalence Translation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Shifting word order</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>97.80 %</td>
<td>97.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using verbs in place of</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.55 %</td>
<td>98.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nouns

3. Substituting nouns for pronouns  3  1.65 %  100.0

Total = 182

Figure 4.2. Percentage of subcategories of dynamic (functional) equivalence translation by Akbari & Jeddi-Niya (2000) and Ohadi (2001)

Out of the 2 main categories of Nida’s (1964) translation strategies, as it is shown in Table 4.9, formal equivalence has the highest percentage of 75.80 %, after that dynamic (functional) equivalence stands at the second level with the percentage of 24.20 % in both translations of Akbari & Jeddi-Niya (2000) and Ohadi (2001).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSLATION STRATEGY</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE PERCENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Akbari &amp; Jeddi-Niya</td>
<td>Ohadi</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Formal Equivalence</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dynamic Equivalence</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>Total = 388</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2. ANSWERS TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Considering the data in the tables above, we can answer the research questions as follows:

Research question 1: Do Iranian translators adopt formalism and dynamism in translation of English imperatives into Persian in movie scripts?

The tables above indicate that on the whole, Iranian translators adopt both formalism and dynamism in the translation of English imperatives into Persian in movie scripts.

Research question 2: Do Iranian translators make use of the two techniques of formalism and dynamism equally?

Regarding the percentages, the two translators did not make use of the formal equivalence and dynamic (functional) equivalence equally. Both the translations, indeed, mostly follow formalism in the translation of English imperatives into Persian.

In order to compare the significance of the quantitative data about formalism and dynamism in translation of English imperatives into Persian in movie scripts the chi-square test was used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequencies of Translation methods in sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chi-square statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>translation_types</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>translation_types</td>
<td>200.191</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that the two translators did not make use of the formal equivalence and dynamic (functional) equivalence equally. Moreover, the use of the two techniques of formalism and dynamism by two translators differs significantly ($X^2=200.195, P<0.001$).

4.3. Discussion

Considering the analysis of imperatives as the basic linguistic component in this research, it is worth mentioning that this study analysed only imperatives which are used by the characters in the movie script along with their translations. Since an imperative is defined as "a type of sentence that gives advice, or instruction or that expresses a request or command..." (Swan, 2005, p. 242), the imperatives on notices, signs, and tips were ignored because they were not used by the characters.

In translations of the movie script, translators did use the two translation strategies suggested by Nida (1964), namely formal equivalence translation and dynamic (functional) equivalence translation.

In Nida’s (1964) theoretical framework, it is stated that one of the main features of any formal equivalence translation is to translate verbs in ST by verbs in TT in order to produce grammatical units in translation. As the tables above suggest the translators mostly rendered verbs in ST by the equivalent verbs in TT.

Reproducing meaning in terms of the source context is one of Nida’s main features of dynamic (functional) equivalence translation. Nida (1964) stated that the translator must not make any adjustments in translation of idioms in order to preserve the local cultural elements of the original document. As it is shown in Tables 4.14, 4.17, and 4.20 this subcategory of formal equivalence translation, namely, reproducing meaning in terms of the source context, had no evidence in both translations since the entire idiomatic imperatives in ST were translated into TTs with some adjustments. Therefore, they are not rendered literally to preserve local elements; rather, the idiomatic imperatives are translated dynamically.

In comparison to Table 4.18 which shows only 1 item for the feature of using verbs in place of nouns, Table 4.15 suggests that one of dynamic (functional) equivalence subcategories, that is, using verbs in place of nouns, did not happen in translation of Akbari and Jeddi-Niya (2000) since all nouns in ST were translated into nouns in TTs.

In comparison to 82 dynamic (functional) equivalence, Akbari and Jeddi-Niya (2000) translated 282 English imperatives formally into Persian. Ohadi (2001), on the other hand, rendered 100 English imperatives into Persian dynamically (functionally), whereas, 288 of imperatives were rendered formally.

5. Summary and conclusion
Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to summarize the findings of the study. This is followed by conclusion, suggestions, and implications of the findings both for translators and further research.

5.1. Summary

Translation studies and the practice of translating which were previously regarded as language-learning activities have been viewed as interdisciplinary studies. Scholars, defining translation in a more scientific way, view translation studies more systematically.

In the process of translating, the translator ought to comprehend the main idea of the original text which is the intention of the author in order to transfer what s/he perceives into another language. Since the message of the original text is of utmost importance in the process of translation and the reader or receptor of the message must be able to fully comprehend this message, it is crucial to decide to translate the source text as faithfully as possible whether in form or content.

Functionalists, those who find translation not as a new and odd message but as the original text, focus on conveying the content and meaning of the message in their definition of translation. Introducing the two translation strategies of formal equivalence translation and dynamic (functional) equivalence translation, Nida (1964) used the term ‘naturalization’ by applying the term ‘natural’ to define dynamic or functional equivalence translation (as cited in Munday, 2001).

Formal equivalence theory gives priority to the source language text and dynamic equivalence translation brings the target language text and the target reader into focus. Nida (1964) indeed presented a communicative function of language by introducing his theory of dynamic equivalence translation which is also called functional equivalence translation.

One area in which Nida’s (1964) theory can be applied in order to find the differences between employing dynamic (functional) equivalence and formal equivalence is movies. Movies, at the present time, are produced mainly not only to delight the audience but also to play a communicative role in the society. Since movies can convey the culture, custom, tradition and civilization of each community, translation of foreign movies should be considered as crucial as other translations. Due to the importance of communicative function of movies in societies, a movie script was considered as the corpus of this study. Although movie scripts are basically written for movie professionals, we notice the enthusiasm which general movie-loving audiences may show. As a written text, movie scripts comprise numerous sentences. A sentence has the classification of four types: declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives, and exclamatory sentences (Meilinda, 2010). An imperative sentence is a type of sentence that gives advice or instructions or that expresses a request or command which ends with a period or an exclamation point (Swan, 2005).

In order to investigate translation of imperatives in movie scripts, an English movie script along with its two Persian translations was selected and studied on the basis of Nida’s (1964) translation theory. Imperatives in the two Persian translations along with their English equivalents were meticulously compared and contrasted to find out
which one followed formal equivalence theory and which one followed dynamic (functional) equivalence translation.

This study investigated imperatives to find out which types of Nida’s (1964) translation equivalences, formal equivalence or dynamic (functional) equivalence, were predominantly used by Iranian translators in translating English imperatives.

First, 203 English imperatives were identified in ST along with their Persian equivalents in TTs. Second, all imperatives were classified individually according to 5 main features of Nida’s (1964) formal equivalence theory and 3 main features of dynamic (functional) equivalence translation. Third, after encoding imperatives, the frequencies and percentages of both formally and dynamically (functionally) translated imperatives were calculated. Finally, chi-square statistical procedure was applied to find out the significance among the data.

This study revealed that Iranian translators did not make equal use of formalism or dynamism in their translation.

5.2. Conclusion
The data from this study indicated that Iranian translators used Nida’s (1964) two translation strategies, formal equivalence translation and dynamic (functional) equivalence translation, in translation of English movie scripts. However, the findings of this study revealed that Iranian translators did not make use of the two ST-oriented formal and TT-oriented dynamic (functional) equivalence translations equally. According to this study, Iranian translators, indeed, followed formalism more than dynamism in their translations of English movie scripts. So, Nida’s (1964) dynamic (functional) equivalence strategy was the second choice of Iranian translators.

As a consequence, it seems that Iranian translators prefer to put the message, but not the receptor response, into focus. All in all, Iranian translators seem to try to create a message in target or receptor language which matches as closely as possible the message in source language. And they follow formalism since they try to reproduce the closest, but not the most natural equivalence, in target language.

5.3. Suggestions
The data from this study reveal that Iranian translators, consciously or unconsciously, ignore to reproduce the receptor response in target language since they mostly follow ST-oriented formal equivalence translation. Nida (1964) defined translation as an act of communication across languages which transfer intentions, thoughts, meanings, and inferences from one culture to another. As a result, this act of communication stresses the idea that proximity in meaning and reader response must have priority over proximity in style.

Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that it is necessary to encourage Iranian translators to focus equally on both the message of the original and the perception of the reader since it seems that bringing the form and content of the message into focus is not enough to any natural translation.
5.4. Implications for translators
This research tried to investigate which one of Nida's (1964) translation strategies, formal equivalence translation and dynamic (functional) equivalence translation, were used by Iranian translators in Persian translation of imperatives in English movie scripts. Consequently, the result of this study may enhance the quality of the research in translation studies but will also have implications for teaching translation courses. This study might be useful for the students who study translation, and for those who have dealt with the theories of translation practically. As a result, this research is an attempt whose findings will hopefully be a contribution to the development of the notion of translation quality.

5.5. Implications for further research
The findings of this paper could be a starting point for many other research works. There is a need for further research that would distinguish how English imperatives are translated in different texts besides movie scripts. It will be also important to examine how Persian imperatives are translated into English.

Also, another most interesting point that can be taken into account by further researchers is to find out whether Iranian translators follow formalism or dynamism (functionalism) in translating of English imperatives in other texts besides movie scripts.

And finally, more detailed studies should be done by interested researchers to find out why Iranian translators do not follow dynamism in translation of English movie scripts as much as they do formalism.

REFERENCES


DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF MATERIALS FOR ISOLATED FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION

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1. Introduction
Grammar places itself as one of the central elements of language teaching manifested by the proliferation of grammar-based syllabuses (Fox, 1998). Along with vocabulary, it is the building block in developing skills in listening, reading, viewing, writing, and speaking for effective communication (CPDD, 2010). With this in mind, grammar teaching becomes one of the central activities in any language program. The idea that formal teaching of grammar benefits language learning is a generally accepted claim among SLA community practitioners and researchers (Borg & Burns, 2008). There is also growing evidence confirming the effectiveness of grammar instruction provided that learners are ready to acquire the target linguistic items (Ellis, 1994). For example, in a meta-analysis conducted by Norris and Ortega (2000), they concluded from the 49 experimental and quasi-experimental studies that focus on form significantly contributes to second language learning and that explicit teaching is better than implicit form.

Despite this general acceptance, grammar pedagogy continues to face fundamental issues. The first issue relates to the timing of teaching grammar. According to Ellis (2006a), there are two views as to when it should be taught. The first view claims that grammar must be taught at an early stage of L2 development. The second view is that it must be taught after the learners have formed their interlanguage from meaning-based instruction. For Ellis (2006a), he favors the second contention. This was supported by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) who posited that there is a consensus already that formal grammar instruction (e.g., discourse-based instruction) does not benefit these learners as it is very challenging for them. However, they acknowledge that it may be helpful.

Ellis (2006a) also raised the concern on which between intensive and extensive grammar teaching is more effective. Intensive grammar teaching is justified by the mantra “practice makes perfect” and is aligned to PPP (presentation, practice, production) approach. Though intensive grammar teaching helps learners progress more efficiently in the sequence of developmental stages (Spada & Lightbown, 1999) and use their partially acquired structures more accurately (White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991), some earlier studies show that its effectiveness does not spill over when spontaneous production is used as a measure.
Durability of learning after grammar teaching has also been a matter of concern. It is well-established that after grammar instruction, its effects decline (Truscott, 2007), a claim that various studies have proven (e.g., Harley, 1989; Lightbown, 1987; Pienemann, 1998; White, 1991). This phenomenon is popularly known as pseudolearning. However, pseudolearning is not deemed completely insignificant as it can serve useful for editing (Truscott, 1996).

The issue on inductive versus deductive approach has long been a debate in language teaching (Williams, 1999). Deductive teaching involves the direct explanation of structures prior to practicing and production. This implies the adherence of such approach to PPP model. Inductive teaching, on the one hand, allows learners to formulate metalinguistic generalizations from the exemplars given to them. Both of these methods are considered explicit instruction in which the former involves self-discovery of rules while the latter involves the explicit presentation of rules (Hulstijn, 2005). With inductive approach, it allows the teacher to gauge the level of learners’ understanding of a particular linguistic item; hence, providing ideas on how to adjust the lesson (Larsen-Freeman, 1991). It also allows learners to notice forms in relation to their functions focus on form via input enhancement which is a type of inductive learning (Robinson, 1997). However, in a study conducted by Mohamed (2004) on the preference of 51 adult ESL learners between deductive and inductive tasks, the findings revealed that learners do not have strong preference for a particular task as they consider both equally useful. Further, it can be surmised that simple rules can be best taught deductively while complex rules be taught inductively. This argument was supported by DeKeyser (1995) after examining the effects of explicit rule presentation prior to examples. He concluded that explicit-deductive learning is more effective when applied to simple categorical rules while implicit-inductive learning is more effective when applied to learning linguistic prototypes.

Currently, there have been a lot of approaches and methodologies proposed on how grammar teaching should be executed. As mentioned earlier, one traditional approach to teaching grammar is PPP. However, it has been highly criticized for not being aligned to how language learned. Hence, others methods were proposed. One of which is McCarthy and Carter’s (1995) III (illustration, interaction, induction) which captures the subtleties of conversational grammar. However, III’s weakness is it does not provide learners the opportunity to produce the target language (Ruhlemann, 2008). Ellis (2003) also proposed input-based approaches, such as consciousness-raising and structured input. Conscious-raising (CR) or input enhancement was originally proposed by Sharwood Smith (1981). It involves the raising of learner awareness on target linguistic features for language development. It is a teaching activity that allows learners to process L2 data that would lead to explicit understanding of linguistic features of a target language (Ellis, 1997) which can be performed either deductively or inductively. According to Mohamed (2004), inductive CR tasks are as effective as deductive tasks. From CR, it was later renamed as input enhancement which involves the external manipulation of input to promote noticing. Similarly, Ellis (1998) has proposed a model on how FFI can intervene interlanguage development. The model has four different points: Structured Input, Explicit Instruction, Output, and Negative Feedback. Often, these four options are combined
when dealing with FFI and constitute macro-options. The structured-input option involves the manipulation input to induce noticing and comprehension of target linguistic items. Several studies (e.g., Cadierno, 1995; Tanaka, 1996; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993) revealed that structured input results in better productive and receptive performances. VanPatten and Oikkenon (1996) extended the study to determine whether it is the explicit instruction or the structured input that leads to better performance. Their findings revealed that structured input and not explicit instruction led to significant improvement. However, the effectiveness of structured input was challenged by other scholars (DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Salaberry, 1997).

The second option is explicit instruction which involves the direct oral or written explanation of linguistic items that can be accompanied by exercises in which they can apply learned rules. Explicit instruction can also be indirect through conscious-raising tasks. Both direct and indirect conscious-raising tasks significantly result in gains in understanding target items (Fotos & Ellis, 1991). Similarly, both direct and indirect instruction results in significant gains of students (Fotos, 1994). The third option is production practice that allows learners to use partially acquired items more accurately and fluently. However, Pienemann (1984) cautioned that if production practice is not targeting the linguistic items that learners are ready to learn, such endeavor may fail. The last option is negative feedback which shows the learners that what they produced is inaccurate. It is suggested that this kind of feedback be integrated with activities in which the primary focus is meaning. This would facilitate the learners’ attempt for form-meaning mapping.

Another pedagogical intervention proposed to improve grammatical accuracy was form-focused instruction or FFI. According to Ellis (2001, p. 1), FFI is “any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form”. It has two forms: focus on form and focus on forms (Long, 1996). Focus on form involves an incidental attention to linguistic forms within the context of actual communicative activities which is based on the principle that learners acquire new linguistic forms by attending to them in context in which the focus is on meaning rather than on forms (Long, 1991). For Doughty and Williams (1998), they view focus on form as an activity that involves planned lessons that focuses on specific linguistic features taught in context through communicative tasks. Unlike focus on form, focus on forms involves the teaching of specific linguistic items using structural syllabus in such a way that these specific linguistic features are subjected to isolated and intensive treatment. Focus-on-forms instruction can be performed in many ways. It can be through explicit instruction (didactic or discovery), implicit instruction (non-enhanced input or enhanced input), structured input, production practice (controlled or functional), and negative feedback (implicit or explicit) (Ellis, 2005). Of these two forms, focus-on-forms appeared to be more extensively used and accepted in non-western contexts (Nunan, 1999) such as the southeast Asian region.

One pedagogical concept that is closely related, if not similar, to focus-on-forms is Spada and Lightbown’s (2008) isolated FFI. In support for isolated FFI, Ellis (2002) argued that grammar should be taught separately without making any attempt to integrate it to task-based component. The reason for such claim is to prevent...
unnecessary interruptions during communication. Another support for isolated FFI comes from the information processing theory (Van Patten, 1996) which states that human mind has limited attentional capacity which makes it difficult for learners to focus on form and meaning simultaneously (Ellis, 1997). Spada and Lightbown (2008) content that isolated FFI is most beneficial when L1 interference is strongest, linguistic items that are relatively simple but not salient in oral production, and linguistic items that are less frequent.

One way of realizing an isolated FFI in classroom setting is through learning materials. Printed instructional materials (e.g., textbooks and worktexts) are deemed as a major teaching tool that influence how teachers teach and how learners learn (McGrath, 2002) and an integral component of English language teaching (Wong-Filmore, 1985). They help both the teachers and learners facilitate and efficient use of other resources for self-discovery (Tomlinson, 1998). They are the most convenient way of providing structure to teaching-learning system and facilitate professional development among teachers if these books represent a strong approach to language teaching (Edge & Wharton, 1998). Similarly, learners view textbooks as a guide or framework to how they would learn inside and outside classroom.

Unfortunately, Dat (2008) found some revealing weaknesses of contemporary in-country materials particularly in the southeast Asian region. These materials often lack enticing designs, display linguistic inaccuracies and unclear content, and lack scaffolding. They also contain excessive unfamiliar vocabulary and high syntactic complexity that demand more cognitive processing. Lastly, these materials contain too familiar and predictable cultural content. He then emphasized that local books need to improve by not putting much emphasis on teaching grammar isolated from real-world language use. However, there are also revealing strengths of in-country ELT materials. First, they promote national identities, religions, political viewpoints, values, beliefs, familiar experiences, and sociocultural behavior. And second, these materials can also be recognized easily by learners as to what and who they are.

Masuhara and Tomlinson (2008) conducted a pre-use evaluation of general English materials published from 2001 to 2006 to determine if these materials reflect the recommendations in SLA studies. They found that ELT materials have satisfied the needs and wants of EFL teachers through readily available resources. The materials also helped the experienced teachers to plan lessons and guide the novice teachers in their classroom practice. However, findings revealed that teachers encountered major problems with general English materials such texts that are dry, dull, not authentic, and not real. They also claimed that texts and activities were not engaging, culturally biased towards white middle-class British, and did not prepare students for real-life experience. Finally, teachers found formats repetitive and grammar exercises not related to the texts. With these observed problems, teachers and students commented that they wanted to have topics related to their lives, interesting texts that would stimulate their thinking, and coursebooks that addresses the students’ various learning styles. The materials they have evaluated also failed to provide enough opportunities for learners to make use of English-speaking environment in real-world setting such as projects that will allow the learners to use mass media and face-to-face interaction with English speakers.
With these issues in mind, it is timely and significant that ELT materials based on recent pedagogical principles in grammar teaching be developed and validated. For the stated purpose, this paper aimed to (1) frame the materials design that incorporates the recent advances in FFI; (2) develop isolated FFI instructional materials that will aim to produce 21st century and communicatively competent learners; and (3) evaluate these materials to ensure robustness. Considering the readiness of learners to isolated FFI, the developed materials were intended for tertiary learners. The choice for tertiary level was based on the contentions of Spada and Lightbown (2008) that older learners with prior experience in learning other languages may be more receptive to isolated FFI as in the case of tertiary learners in the Philippines. Similarly, Ellis (2006a) pointed out that FFI is best suited for learners who have already formed their interlanguage from meaning-based instruction.

2. Methodology
As a descriptive research, the study involved the description of a given state of affairs as fully and as carefully as possible and attempted to describe existing conditions without analyzing relationships among variables (Fraenkl & Wallen, 2000). Thus, manipulation, influence, and control of variables would not be attempted (Wiseman, 1999). The method included the development of a materials design model and, subsequently, the preparation of the instructional materials for isolated FFI.

2.1 Instruments
A 40-item evaluation instrument that was modified from Skierso’s (1991) checklist was used. Modification was done because not all items in the original checklist were pertinent to the research objectives and type of materials. Very few modifications were made to customize the evaluation checklist in grammar teaching. The said evaluation checklist, which was used to evaluate the instructional materials, covers the aims and goals, subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercises and activities, layout and physical makeup, and overall value. As utilized by Skierso (1991), the said evaluation checklist employs global impression scheme, which means that the instructional materials and textbooks are evaluated in its entirety and not necessarily per unit or chapter.

2.2 Procedure
The development of materials design model and actual materials has undergone four phases: preparation phase, formulation phase, evaluation phase, and revision phase. During preparation phase, a great body of literature on FFI was surveyed from reputable journals and books. The focus of the survey was to extract the current principles in FFI. These principles became the basis for the framing of the sociocognitive materials design model. Afterwards, the scope and sequence for the material was organized.

After identifying the scope and sequence and the target language forms to be included in the material, texts from books, internet, newspapers, magazines, brochures, and other authentic materials were gathered and sorted. All of these documents served as references in drafting the lessons based on the framed materials
design model. The preparation of the lessons was recursive; that is, they were constantly revisited and revised to ensure their consistency.

Upon completing the draft of isolated FFI materials, they underwent rigid evaluation. The materials were evaluated by six expert validators who were chosen based on their teaching experience, educational attainment, and strong background in preparing and evaluating ESL instructional materials. Specifically, all validators have at least 10 years of ESL teaching experience, with at least a master’s degree in language education or related course, and have significant experience (i.e., at least three years) in preparing and/or evaluating ESL materials. In evaluating the isolated FFI materials, the validators used a 4-point rating scale: 4 – Excellent; 3 – Good; 2 – Adequate; 1 – Weak; 0 - Totally lacking. These scores are interpreted as follows:

- 3.21 – 4.00 Excellent
- 2.41 – 3.20 Good
- 1.61 – 2.40 Adequate
- 0.81 – 1.60 Weak
- 0.00 – 0.80 Totally lacking

A general average of 2.41 and above is needed before the materials could be considered appropriately developed. Along with the quantitative evaluation of the materials, validators were also enjoined to provide qualitative comments and evaluation.

After the evaluation has been completed, the revision of the materials followed. Revisions were done by addressing all the comments, feedback, suggestions, and recommendations of the expert validators. As regards the quantitative evaluation, the descriptors which obtained a relatively lower score compared to other descriptors were revisited for possible revision as well. After the revision phase, the materials were subjected to final look and approval of the expert validators.

3. Results and Discussion
3.1 Materials Design Model

Before the isolated FFI materials were developed, the researcher had surveyed available literature in applied linguistics and TESOL. Relevant principles are then extracted which served as a guide in framing the materials design model and developing the isolated FFI materials. As should be noted, the first 10 principles were adopted from the principles outlined by Ellis (2006a, p. 102–103). The next five were generated from the review of other related studies and literature that aligns to sociocognitive approach.

1. The grammar taught should be one that emphasises not just form but also the meanings and uses of different grammatical structures.
2. Teachers should endeavour to focus on those grammatical structures that are known to be problematic to learners rather than try to teach the whole of grammar.
3. Grammar is best taught to learners who have already acquired some ability to use the language (i.e., intermediate level) rather than to complete beginners. However, grammar can be taught through corrective feedback as soon as learners begin to use the language productively.
4. A focus-on-forms approach is valid as long as it includes an opportunity for learners to practise behaviour in communicative tasks.

5. Consideration should be given to experimenting with a massed rather than distributed approach to teaching grammar.

6. Use should be made of both input-based and output-based instructional options.

7. A case exists for teaching explicit grammatical knowledge as a means of assisting subsequent acquisition of implicit knowledge. Teaching explicit knowledge can be incorporated into both a focus-on-forms and a focus-on-forms approach. In the case of a focus-on-forms approach, a differentiated approach involving sometimes deductive and sometimes inductive instruction may work best.

8. An incidental focus-on-form approach is of special value because it affords an opportunity for extensive treatment of grammatical problems (in contrast to the intensive treatment afforded by a focus-on-forms approach).

9. Corrective feedback is important for learning grammar. It is best conducted using a mixture of implicit and explicit feedback types that are both input based and output based.

10. In accordance with these beliefs, grammar instruction should take the form of separate grammar lessons (a focus-on-forms approach) and should also be integrated into communicative activities (a focus-on-forms approach).

11. Teaching-learning processes need to adhere to the principle of constructivism (Kaufman, 2004; Powell & Kalina, 2009).

12. Teaching-learning processes need to provide learners opportunity to participate in social activities (Akbari, 2008; Atkinson, 2002; Carkin, 2005).

13. Teaching-learning processes need to provide learners opportunities to interact with one another (DeKeyser, 2003).

14. Teaching-learning processes need to provide learners opportunities to reflect in their learnings (Guthrie & McCracken, 2010; Moon, 2004).

15. Teaching-learning processes needs to incorporate the integration of macro skills when teaching grammar (Hinkel, 2006).

It is from these principles that the materials design model was framed. As can be seen in Figure 1, all elements in the middle and inner circles are heavily influenced by sociocognitive theoretical perspective to grammar teaching (outermost circle). This theory integrates the cognitive, social, and cultural influences in language pedagogy (Sperling & Freedman, 2001) and sees language as embedded in its social context; that is, linguistic forms do not exclusively determine the meaning of utterances but the sociocultural contexts of communication as well (Kramsch, A’Ness, & Lam, 2000). To make the theory more feasible into classroom, relevant pedagogical concepts were integrated (middle circle). These include the concept of differentiation (addressing learners’ individual differences), collaboration (allowing learners to work together cooperatively), reflection (allowing learners to reflect on their learning and misconceptions, contextualization (using authentic text and tasks), and critical pedagogy (allowing learners to participate in social activities). Together with the sociocognitive tenets in teaching grammar, these five pedagogical concepts were
instrumental in shaping the teaching processes (inner circle). With this in mind, the goal of the model is to develop materials that will produce 21st century and communicatively competent learners.

Figure 1. Sociocognitive materials design model for grammar pedagogy

It should be noted that the main goal is quite general; thus, it requires to be translated into more specific learning objectives. These objectives need to integrate the components of communicative competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). This means that the teaching-learning processes need to focus on both the language and the strategic competence of learners. As regards 21st century literacy, the learning objectives need to
include digital-age literacies, inventive thinking, effective communication, and high productivity (NCREL, 2003).

3.2 Materials Development
After completing the model, the grammatical items selected for the development of isolated FFI materials were determined using the following considerations (Ellis, 2006b): frequency (occurrence of grammatical feature in the input), saliency (tendency to be noticed), functional value (clarity of grammatical feature’s function), regularity (identifiable pattern), and processability (ease of processing). In all, nine lessons were prepared. These include lessons in pronoun, adjectives, present tense, past tense, future tense, transitional devices, parallelism, and prepositions. They are all structured based on the framed materials design model.

Each lesson begins with learning objectives. After which, diagnostic tasks are provided to determine what learners know, what they can actually perform, and what they are interested in learning to perform (Hyland, 2007). As what CPDD (2010) asserted, identifying the pupils’ needs, abilities, interests, and learning gaps and consequently modifying teaching methods leads to an improved learning. Diagnostic tasks are accompanied by self-assessment task which promotes learners’ autonomy and control over their learning and progress. Promoting autonomous learning is one core principle of learner-centeredness (Brandl, 2002). Further, these tasks also function as starters and schema activator to ensure that learners are mentally open and receptive to learning the language. Generally, starters are in a form of language games and authentic information-gap activities. Included in the starter is the processing of input and its content to generate meaningful communication, which focuses on the nonlinguistic aspect of a text. Thus, starter comprises both the content and the input of Hutchinson & Waters model (1987).

From the results of diagnostic tasks and self-assessment activity and after learners’ schema has been activated their schema and have processed the content of the input, language development follows. Language development involves the processing of specific linguistic items through explicit instruction (didactic or discovery) or implicit instruction (non-enhanced input or enhanced input). Language development can also be inductively by allowing learners to perform tasks that will allow them to notice the target language forms.

Eventually, tasks are given to learners after the processing of the target linguistic features. This is the language application phase. It basically provides learners ample communicative tasks that integrate the six macro skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing, and representing (CPDD, 2010). These tasks are also graded based on the criteria stipulated by Candlin (1987). He claimed that task difficulty can be determined through code complexity (syntactic and lexical complexity), cognitive complexity (availability of schema and processing demands), and communicative stress (time pressure, scale or number of participants, and task performance modality). Modality can be in speaking, writing, listening, or reading. Among these modalities, it is assumed that speaking entails more pressure than writing while listening involves more pressure than reading. Prior to giving communicative tasks, learners are given controlled and contextualized practice of the processed linguistic items. Finally, the
tasks incorporate the notion of critical pedagogy (Carkin, 2005) and themes aligned to 21st century learning. These themes include civic literacy, global awareness, financial literacy, health literacy, and environmental literacy (PPRC, 2010).

Following the learners’ application of what they have learned, independent correction follows. *Independent correction* allows learners to discover and correct their own mistakes and be more accurate users of language. This task will promote noticing and noticing the gap between the learners’ interlanguage and the target language (Schmidt, 1990). It is widely accepted among SLA researchers that noticing is crucial to facilitating uptake and long-term language acquisition (Gass, 1997; Schmidt, 1990). Further, independent correction also helps in decreasing the level of affective filter, which are affective factors that inhibit learning (Krashen, 1987). However, to double-check the students’ independent correction, the teacher shall provide them with an answer key included in this book. Moreover, independent correction serves as a review activity on the lesson presented. Since this activity deals with sharing insights and understanding, learners shall be able to develop their speaking skills. The teacher may devise a strategy on how to motivate students to perform independent correction.

The activity does not end in independent correction. Reinforcement is also given to learners for further application. The purpose of *reinforcement* or follow-up activities is to strengthen the knowledge and skills of learners. It also aims to teach learners to apply their learned knowledge and skills in new contexts in and out of school making them lifelong learners (CPDD, 2010). Ideally, reinforcement tasks should be project-based which are within the sphere of reality of learners. Nonetheless, learners can be asked to perform error analysis and conscious-raising tasks on top of projects.

The last component of the teaching process is the reflection which allows the learners to reflect on the learnings they acquired after the activities. The questions stated in this section are linked to the stipulated main goals and objectives. Reflection was incorporated as it facilitates transformative learning by tapping into the learners’ feelings and eventually allowing them to re-evaluate their experiences (Miccoli, 2003).

### 3.3 Materials Validation

Using the evaluation instrument, the validators assessed the materials and gave their comments, feedback, corrections, and suggestions. Evaluation was made to indicate potential suitability and extent of materials (Tomlinson, 1999). The validators rated the materials based on the six criteria included in the checklist: (a) aims and goals, (b) subject matter, (c) vocabulary and structure, (d) exercises and activities, (e) layout and physical makeup, and (f) overall value.

The prototype CLT instructional materials obtained a general average score of 3.45, which is within the 3.21–4.00 interval (excellent). This means that the materials prepared by the researcher were appropriately developed. The following evaluation results were drawn from the study:

The result of the evaluation shows that *aims and goals* obtained a total average score of 3.67 (excellent). Specifically, *matching to syllabus requirements* obtained the highest score, which is 3.83 (excellent). Similarly, *feasibility* obtained a score of 3.50 (excellent). *Subject matter* obtained a total average score of 3.33 (excellent). Specifically, *ordering,
content grading, and content accuracy, authenticity, and currency obtained the highest scores of 3.50 (excellent). Suitability and interest level obtained a score 3.33 (excellent). Finally, variety of text types and cultural integration obtained a score of 3.17 (good) and 3.00 (good), respectively. For vocabulary and structures, it obtained a total average score of 3.44 (excellent). Vocabulary obtained the highest score, which is 3.50 (excellent). Vocabulary and structure obtained the second highest score, which is 3.46 (excellent). Finally, grammar obtained the lowest score of 3.37 (excellent). In terms of exercise and activities, it obtained a total average score of 3.40 (excellent). Specifically, satisfaction of syllabus objectives obtained the highest score, which is 3.67 (excellent). It is followed by effectiveness, sequencing toward communication, internalization via active participation, suitability and interest level, which all obtained a score of 3.50 (excellent). Both Instructional clarity and appropriacy and stereotype-free content obtained a score of 3.33 (excellent). Finally, promotion of critical thinking received a score of 3.00 (good). Finally, for layout and physical makeup, it obtained a total average score of 3.36 (excellent). Specifically, suitability of durability, book and type dimensions, organizational clarity and function, and illustrative clarity and simplicity obtained the highest scores, which is 3.50 (excellent). Further, motivational attractiveness, effectiveness in presentation, and suitability of artwork all obtained a score of 3.33 (excellent). Lastly, relativity, linkage, and integration obtained the lowest score, which is 3.00 (good). As to the overall value of the CLT instructional materials obtained a total average score of 3.50 (excellent).

In general, the result of the evaluation shows that the CLT instructional materials obtained a total average score of 3.45 (excellent). Specifically, aims and goals obtained the highest score of 3.67 (excellent). Similarly, overall value obtained a score of 3.50 (excellent), vocabulary and structures, 3.44 (excellent), exercises and activities, 3.40 (excellent), layout and physical makeup, 3.36 (excellent), and subject matter, 3.33 (excellent). To determine the level of agreement among raters, Fleiss’s Kappa was used. The results revealed that there is an acceptable level of agreement among raters (0.488). Table 1 shows the summary of scores on CLT instructional materials evaluation.

Table 1. Summary of Scores on CLT Instructional Materials Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Aims and Goals</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Subject Matter</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Vocabulary and Structures</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Exercises and Activities</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Layout and Physical Makeup</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Overall Value</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.45</strong></td>
<td><strong>Excellent</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Level of Agreement among Raters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N coders</th>
<th>N cases</th>
<th>N decisions</th>
<th>(K)</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>0.488</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the comments, feedback, suggestions, and recommendations made by the validators, the author revised the CLT instructional materials. The revised words, phrases, and sentences were underlined for easy reading. The revisions were made in the following units: (a) Pronoun Reference. Revisions were made in Objective Pronouns, Indefinite Pronouns, Task 1, and Let’s Edit; (b) Adjectives. Revisions were made in Small vs Little, directions for Task 7, and sequencing of Task 1 and Task 2; (c) Present Tense. Revisions were made in the directions for and content of Task 3, Task 4, and Reinforcement 1; (d) Past Tense. Revisions were made in the directions for Let’s Get Started, Task 2 and Task 5, and in the content of Reinforcement 4; (e) Future Tense. Revisions were made in the directions for and content of Let’s Get Started. Other revisions include the addition of examples for future perfect and Reinforcement 2; (f) Transitional Devices. Revisions were made in the some parts of Development and directions for Task 2, Task 3, and Task 6. Another revision made was the placement of labels on the spaces for the answers in Task 1; (g) Parallelism. Revisions were made in some parts of Development and directions for Reinforcement 3. Other revisions made were underlining the parallel structures in the examples and writing an introductory statement for the rules in parallelism; and (h) Prepositions. Revisions were made in the directions for Task 1 and Reinforcement 2. Other revisions made were the changing of date in Input 2 to make the text relevant.

Other comments include the changing of the prestatement for the objectives, boxing all the articles or texts in the input, justifying all the texts in the materials, changing the directions for Let’s check now, and adjusting some of the words to the level of students.

4. Conclusion

The present study aimed to propose a sociocognitive materials design model for grammar pedagogy. Specifically, the papers specified the theoretical underpinnings of the model and the procedure in preparing instructional materials based on the proposed model. The model has stipulated not only the cognitive factors as identified by second language learning and teaching research but also the influences that the sociocultural factors may have on preparing instructional materials for grammar teaching.

As to the evaluation, the findings revealed that the grammar teaching materials which adhered to the proposed model obtained an excellent rating in all of the criteria used. However, it must be cautioned that the results do not conclude for the effectiveness of the materials when applied for actual classroom use. However, the findings may suggest such effectiveness. Hence, a further study that would investigate the materials’ effectiveness for classroom use should be conducted.

REFERENCES


A NEEDS ANALYSIS STUDY FOR THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM OF THE TEACHING STAFF TRAINING PROGRAM IN A TURKISH UNIVERSITY

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Abstract
As the English language has become the universal academic language needed by academicians to be able to survive in the global academic community, teaching English to new academicians who start their university career as research assistants is becoming more and more important. Thus, the aim of this study is to reveal their language needs by focusing on the elements of the ideal English as a Foreign Language (EFL) curriculum from the perspective of research assistants enrolled at the Teaching Staff Training Program (TSTP) at a large state university in Turkey and the instructors teaching English to these research assistants. Their views were collected via an open-ended survey dealing with four major dimensions of the EFL curriculum of the TSTP: curricular objectives, materials, teaching-learning process and assessment. Besides, their general recommendations for the language curriculum were collected. The qualitative data analyzed though content analysis revealed many needs, the most important of which is that the English curriculum for TSTP should be more academic and exam-oriented. At the end of the study, recommendations are provided in line with the participants’ opinions and the relevant literature.

Key Words: Teaching Staff Training Program, English Curriculum

Background to the Study
It is an undeniable fact that English is the most commonly spoken language in the whole world. As rightly described by Mauranen (2003, p. 513), English has become “a vehicular language spoken by people who do not share a native
language”. Despite being welcomed by some and criticized by others, it is commonly acknowledged that English functions as a global lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2005). Its dominant role in our social life was illustrated by Gnutzman (2000) who claims that 80% of all the verbal exchanges even between non-native speakers of English are in English. As also predicted by Graddol (2000), the number of people speaking English is around three billion.

The dominance of the English language is similarly true for the scientific, technological and academic world. It is estimated by Crystal (1997, p.106) that “most of the scientific, technological and academic information in the world is expressed in English and over 80% of all the information stored in electronic retrieval systems is in English”.

Academia is probably the domain most highly affected by the spread of the English language. The academic community has embraced English with the internationalization movement of the higher education through the Bologna Process. As English is now the major language used for the dissemination of academic knowledge, it has almost become a professional must for many academicians to speak, understand, read and write in English (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). As maintained by Schütz (2005), 85 percent of all scientific publications are conducted in English, and especially in the fields of natural and social sciences, the dominance of English is more noticeable (Swales & Feak, 2004). To illustrate, Ammon (2003) focused on the Anglo-Saxon bibliographic databases and found that by 1995, 87.2% of the journal publications in the natural sciences (e.g., biology) and 82.5% of the publications in the social sciences (e.g., sociology) were in English. Likewise, Hyland (2006) emphasizes that the most prestigious and cited journals are in English and more than 90 per cent of the journal literature in many scientific fields is in English. Thus, academicians should have a good command of English to be able to survive in the academic world.

As for the Turkish academic community where academicians are expected to publish in Social Citation Index journals, most of which only accept English articles, it would be fair to suggest that it is essential for academicians in Turkey to learn English. As nicely stated by Karakaş (2012), Turkish academicians cannot be indifferent to the current role of English as a lingua franca for the academic world as it plays a significant role in their future career as a tool to pave the way for academic promotion. Furthermore, he draws attention to the importance of English for Turkish academicians as follows: “Even if when they write in Turkish for a national journal or science magazine, it is by and large compulsory for them, at least, to provide an abstract written in formal and Standard English. Worse than this, many academics end up their
career without taking the fruit of their long-term investment and effort in their vocation owing to either failure to pass English exams or having no publications written in the English language” (p. 166).

As also claimed by Güven and Brewster (2013), Turkish academicians are among people encountering major problems in the process of learning English. Therefore, the Higher Education Council (HEC) in Turkey initiated the Teaching Staff Training Program (TSTP) in 2010 to regulate the procedures related to educating the young research assistants to be appointed to different departments of newly established universities. The program requires research assistants to have their post graduate education at some other Turkish universities qualified to offer MA and PhD programs.

Within the scope of this program, these academicians, who have to get a passing grade in some nationally or international accepted English language proficiency exams (e.g., YDS, IELTS) to be able to progress in their academic career, are offered an English curriculum for up to six-months (HEC, 2012; Güven & Brewster, 2013). As argued by Güven and Brewster (2013), focusing on the TSTPs by collecting data from different participants at different universities is likely to contribute to the important developments in foreign language teaching in Turkey.

Considering the importance of the English language for the Turkish academia and the lack of research studies on the EFL curriculum of the TSTPs in Turkey (Güven & Brewster, 2013; Gündeğer, Soysal, & Yağcı, 2012), there is a need to reveal what research assistants and their English language instructors at a large Turkish university suggest for an ideal EFL curriculum for the TSTP in terms of curriculum objectives, materials, teaching-learning process as well as the assessment procedures applied in the curriculum. Hence, the following research questions were formulated for the present study:

1. What are research assistants’ needs about the curricular objectives, teaching-learning process, materials and the assessment dimensions of the language curriculum?
2. What are English language instructors’ suggestions about the curricular objectives, teaching-learning process, materials and the assessment dimensions of the language curriculum?
3. What are English language instructors and research assistants’ general recommendations about the ideal EFL program of the TSTP?
The EFL Curricula of the TSTP in Turkey

The TSTP basically aims to bridge the gap in Turkey in the field of training young research assistants for newly established universities in Turkey. The general rationale of this program is to prepare these academicians in higher education institutions which have the capacity to give post-graduate education so that they can become scientifically well-prepared to serve better when they go back to their newly established universities. One of the major components of this program is offering EFL courses to the research assistants to make them proficient users of the English language. In line with the Higher Education Law enacted in 2011, the HEC in Turkey requires all academicians to get passing scores from the English proficiency exams such as YDS, IELTS, TOEFL, CAE, FCE and CPE that are all approved by the Turkish Assessment, Selection and Placement Centre (ÖSYM). While YDS is a multiple-choice grammar, vocabulary and reading-based test only approved by Turkish universities, other internationally approved exams assess learners’ proficiency in four basic language skills (i.e., listening, reading, writing, speaking) as well as their use of English in the form of both multiple choice and other type of exams (i.e., filling in blanks, rewriting).

The English program within the TSTPs in Turkey generally lasts around six months, and an approximate number of 25-30 hours are provided per week. The course books and the materials to be used during the program are selected by the School of Foreign Languages of the university. Likewise, course objectives, the teaching-learning activities and the assessment procedures are all determined by the same body in line with the general principles of the TSTP as suggested by the HEC (2012). In other words, although the general requirements of the EFL program implemented in the TSTPs in Turkey were outlined by the HEC, the job of making a decision on the elements of the English language teaching curriculum offered to research assistants is left to the universities where the TSTP is carried out. Generally, a selected body of curriculum designers or English teachers develops the EFL curriculum for the TSTP. Thus, there is a need for studies to understand what research assistants’ needs are and what English language instructors suggest for the English curriculum to better prepare research assistants for the academia.

Thus, the present needs analysis study aims to analyze the perceived needs of the academicians and the suggestions of English language instructors in terms of the objectives, materials, teaching-learning process and the assessment dimensions of the English curriculum applied in the TSTP in a large state university in Turkey. It is hoped that the findings of the study will shed lights...
on other similar programs at other universities offering English courses for academicians.

**Literature Review**
There have been only a few studies dealing with the English curriculum applied within the TSTPs in Turkey. For example, in an attempt to reveal how performance and competence have interacted during the English training of the TSTP in a state university, Güven and Brewster (2013) collected data from twenty-nine research assistants coming from different academic fields and from different regions of Turkey, four English teachers teaching these research assistants and one administrator. Collecting data through an open-ended survey, they came to the conclusion that participants felt themselves in dilemma between competence and performance. According to the researchers, the reason behind this dilemma is that although they are aware of the communicative function of the language and the necessity to be able to use English for speaking and writing purposes, they know that they have to pass certain English proficiency exams, some of which do not assess these productive skills (e.g., YDS). Therefore, confusion occurs about why and how to learn English in the TSTP.

Another study was carried out by Gündeğer, Soysal and Yağcı (2012). The purpose of their study is to reveal the views of research assistants attending EFL programs in Turkey and abroad about the domestic and outland language training conducted within the TSTP. The qualitative data was collected from 10 research assistants who attended domestic language training and 11 research assistants, who had outland language training. The findings of the study showed that the research assistants attending English courses in a Turkish university indicated that because of exam-driven anxiety, their expectations to learn academic English were not met. Similarly, research assistants, who had outland language training, pointed out that their expectations like improving their speaking ability were not met due to the lack of teacher quality and the high number of Turkish students in the same classroom.

**Methodology and Participants**
In this needs analysis study, the researchers aimed to offer suggestions for the English curriculum of the TSTP in light of the opinions and perceptions of research assistants and English language instructors. The study is conducted based on the phenomenological research design of qualitative approach (Patton, 2002; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2009).

All the research assistants attending the TSTP (N=43) and all the English instructors (N=14) lecturing in the program participated in the study. The
qualitative data were collected through an open-ended survey including 5 open-ended questions developed by the researchers in parallel with the elements of a language curriculum (Brown, 1995). Each question deals with a specific element of the program. For example, the first question aims to reveal what should be objectives of the TSTP while the second question seeks an answer to the question what materials should be used in the program. The third question deals with participants’ perceived needs during an ideal teaching-learning process and the forth question aims to show their opinions about how the assessment should be carried out in the program. The last question, on the other hand, is a general question focusing on what participants’ general recommendations are for the ideal EFL program of the TSTP.

Data Collection and Analysis
Before the surveys were conducted, the research assistants and English language instructors were informed regarding the aims and dimensions of the study. The participants were informed that none of their opinions would be used for any other purposes but for the study.

Since analyzing qualitative data by using content analysis helps to reveal the truth which may be hidden in the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Straus & Corbin, 1998; Krippendorff, 2004; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2009), all the participants’ responses taking part in the study were applied to content analysis. All individual responses were analyzed and similar responses were grouped according to common themes. These themes were illustrated by means of representative comments made by the participants and the frequency (f) of each theme was indicated on the tables below.

Results
Participants’ views about each element of the English curriculum applied within the TSTP are presented separately below under the heading of curricular objectives, the teaching-learning process, materials and assessment. Representative comments made by the participants are referred to with a number (e.g., Research Assistant 1: RA 1; English Instructor 1: EI 1) to maintain anonymity. Following the results of the study dealing with specific aspects of the program, participants’ general recommendations for an ideal EFL curriculum of the TSTP are summarized.

Curricular Objectives
The themes created according to the views of research assistants regarding the objectives of the TSTP are given in Table 1 while the relevant views of the English language instructors are illustrated in Table 2.
As can be seen in Table 1, more than half of the research assistants suggested that there should be objectives meeting their “academic English” needs. While 17 assistants thought that the objectives should be in line with the exams that must be passed to be promoted in the academic environment of Turkey, 15 research assistants indicated that the speaking skill should be focused on as an objective of the program. Similarly, reading was emphasized by 15 research assistants and 8 of them mentioned the need for translation as an objective of the EFL curriculum. 5 research assistants held the idea that presentations should be adopted as the objective of the program while the importance of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>View</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic English</td>
<td>“...objectives of the program may include academic English in order to support our professional lives...” (RA 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exam-oriented</td>
<td>“…the program presented could be based on the preparations for the exams...” (RA 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>“…in order to develop our speaking skills in our professional life, it would be better to give credence to this skill in the program...” (RA 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>“…as we have difficulty in understanding some reading texts, reading studies should be more emphasized...” (RA 17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>“…sometimes we need to translate some texts or articles, so it is important for us to learn how to do translation...” (RA 21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>“…it is significant for our field to make presentations concerning our fields...” (RA 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Teaching</td>
<td>“…learning new vocabulary and studying word formation are principal parts of learning a language...” (RA 11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper Writing</td>
<td>“…writing is one of the most difficult skills for us to develop. Hence, we should focus on how to write some papers in our sessions...” (RA 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding Speaking</td>
<td>“…often we may have difficulty in catching spoken English from audio and visual materials, that’s why we need to education on understanding the language...” (RA 4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 1, more than half of the research assistants suggested that there should be objectives meeting their “academic English” needs. While 17 assistants thought that the objectives should be in line with the exams that must be passed to be promoted in the academic environment of Turkey, 15 research assistants indicated that the speaking skill should be focused on as an objective of the program. Similarly, reading was emphasized by 15 research assistants and 8 of them mentioned the need for translation as an objective of the EFL curriculum. 5 research assistants held the idea that presentations should be adopted as the objective of the program while the importance of
vocabulary teaching, academic paper writing and understanding speaking was emphasized as the ideal objectives of the curriculum by three participants.

Table 2. English Instructors’ Views on Objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Quote</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Reading</td>
<td>“…the curriculum should provide more academic reading studies…” (EI 1)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Writing</td>
<td>“…academic writing must be one of the skills needed all the time by academicians…” (EI 4)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Speaking</td>
<td>“…the program carried out is actually lack of activities especially regarding academic speaking that will be beneficial for the learners here…” (EI 8)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Presentation</td>
<td>“…one of the required components and aims of this course should include how to make academic presentations in order to prepare the learners for their careers…” (EI 9)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding Academic Speaking</td>
<td>“…the learners can sometimes have problems with understanding some kinds of academic English, so this issue should not be disregarded in the curriculum…” (EI 5)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar Teaching</td>
<td>“…for the learners here it is necessary to teach grammatical points in a very detailed manner in order for them to have a command of the language…” (EI 2)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Teaching</td>
<td>“…we need to make a revision about teaching vocabulary in the curriculum, because I assume that it is a must…” (EI 3)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Self-Study Skills</td>
<td>“…some of the learners do not know how to study and improve their skills by themselves…” (EI 14)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 2, among 14 English language instructors teaching English in the TSTP, 10 highlighted the need to include academic reading into the objective list. Also, 8 instructors suggested that academic writing should be one of the objectives. While academic speaking was mentioned as the ideal
objective of the program by 6 instructors, the following objectives were mentioned by 5 instructors: academic presentation, understanding academic speaking, grammar teaching, vocabulary teaching, and developing self-study skills.

Teaching-learning Process
The themes constructed in line with the views of research assistants related to the learning and teaching process are in Table 3, and the instructors’ views are summarized in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Research Assistants’ Views on Teaching-Learning Process</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practices for Exams</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…what we need is studying basically for exams ahead of us…” (RA 22)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Speaking</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…in the lessons, we should do activities mainly about developing our speaking skills, particularly academic ones as in the case of presenting a topic related to our field…” (RA 34)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Reading Texts</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…we generally read many texts, but actually we should concentrate on studying academic ones as we will need them more…” (RA 41)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Translation</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…in the course of teaching and learning we must usually translate some texts, which will be a kind of preparation for our professional life…” (RA 24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding Academic Speaking</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…we should listen to academic lectures or watch actual lessons in our fields…” (RA 35)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…we are not good at using proper words and sometimes, we misuse some words while speaking and writing, so we have to spend some time about this problem in the lessons…” (RA 39)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Writing</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…in the future, we will be academicians in our own fields; therefore, we should be trained on how to write an article, an abstract or something like these…” (RA 40)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be realized from Table 3, 18 research assistants highlighted the need for “practices for exams” and “academic speaking” for the ideal teaching-learning process for the EFL curriculum of the TSTP. “Academic reading texts” was mentioned by 16 assistants, and 10 research assistants suggested “academic translation” as a necessary component of an ideal teaching-learning process.
“Understanding academic speaking” (N=7), “vocabulary” (N=6) and “academic writing” (N=5) were also mentioned for an ideal teaching-learning process.

Table 4. English Instructors’ Views on Teaching-Learning Process

| Academic English | “… in our program, we should put more emphasis not on general English but on academic English in order to meet the real needs of learner groups…” (EI 5) | 15 |
| Practices for Exams | “… the curriculum followed here should actually have lots of practice exams, which will be very beneficial for all the learners to pass exams…” (EI 12) | 12 |
| Skill-Based | “… in this process, language skills must be integrated, that is, skill-based teaching should be highlighted…” (EI 6) | 10 |

As can be realized from Table 4, 15 English instructors thought that teaching-learning process should be based on the “academic English” needs of the research assistants, and 12 instructors held the belief that during the program, there should be practices for exams. Besides, 10 instructors indicated that skill-based teaching should be applied into the program.

Materials
The themes generated in conformity with the views of research assistants concerning the materials are given in Table 5 while English instructors’ views are presented in Table 6.

Table 5. Research Assistants’ Views on Materials

| Reading Texts | “… as for materials, we want to study on written texts taken from current magazines or newspapers…” (RA 18) | 14 |
| Audio & Visual | “… in our lessons, we desire to watch short movies or animations, and have some courses including presentations …” (RA 33) | 6 |
| Practices for Exams | “… the materials we have to heavily deal with could be composed of sample questions and mock exams concerning the exams…” (RA 42) | 6 |
As can be understood from Table 5, 14 research assistants thought that reading texts should be used as the main material. 6 research assistants argued that audio-visual materials should be incorporated into the lessons. The same number of participants suggested that materials preparing themselves for the English exams necessary for academic promotion in Turkey should be incorporated into the curriculum. Moreover, 5 research assistants focused on the need to apply materials aiming to help themselves with translation studies, and 4 of them drew attention to the need to use communicative materials boosting their speaking skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Studies</th>
<th>“… in the classroom environment, what I want is to learn how to render some texts into my own language…” (RA 37)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>“… speaking is one of the most important problems for us. Actually, we may be given some speaking tasks and materials to improve it…” (RA 28)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be understood from Table 5, 14 research assistants thought that reading texts should be used as the main material. 6 research assistants argued that audio-visual materials should be incorporated into the lessons. The same number of participants suggested that materials preparing themselves for the English exams necessary for academic promotion in Turkey should be incorporated into the curriculum. Moreover, 5 research assistants focused on the need to apply materials aiming to help themselves with translation studies, and 4 of them drew attention to the need to use communicative materials boosting their speaking skills.

Table 6. English Instructors’ Views on Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extensive Reading Texts</th>
<th>“…the curriculum should put more emphasis specifically on extensive reading materials, as the learners sometimes have trouble understanding written texts in the classroom…” (EI 6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Videos &amp; Short Films</td>
<td>“…I think that the program we are following must cover some videos and movies to motivate the learners and support the development of language skills…” (EI 7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource for Exams</td>
<td>“…the materials we are using in the classroom may not be directly relevant to the exams, so it would be a good approach to add more relevant materials for exams to the program…” (EI 11)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 6, among the participating English instructors, 9 recommended extensive reading texts while the same number of participants favored the use of videos and short films. Similar to some research assistants, 7 instructors highlighted the need to utilize resources for exam preparation.

**Assessment**

The themes formed consistent with the views of research assistants concerning the assessment procedures applied in the English curriculum of the TSTP are illustrated in Table 7, and instructors’ views are presented in Table 8.
As shown in Table 8, formative evaluation (i.e., reflection journals, assignments) was deemed necessary by 12 English language instructors as a way to assess research assistants’ proficiency in four basic skills while 9 of...
them argued for the need for summative evaluation practices (i.e., final examinations, term papers).

**General Suggestions**

In addition to the participants’ suggestions related to the four basic elements of the language curriculum, some participants also made general comments. For instance, 7 research assistants attracted attention to the necessity of extending the duration of the program. Holding regular meeting with assistants, reducing the homework load of research assistants, focusing on teaching four language skills were among other suggestions, each of which was made by 5 participating research assistants. On the other hand, 4 research assistants stressed the need to reorganize the English program hours. Likewise, the necessity to focus more on vocabulary teaching was brought about by 4 research assistants. The same number of participants suggested that the English instructors should give written feedback by reviewing the assignments given to them. In the same vein, 3 research assistants believed in the merits of the increased number of personal consultancy service hours, and 3 research assistants argued for a needs & expectations analysis that should be taken into consideration. Besides, 2 research assistants recommended that the intensity of the course content should be reduced to a reasonable level while 2 research assistants stated that the course book should be completed within the course duration. Finally, presenting the content of the course in simplicity was suggested by 2 research assistants.

On the other hand, some English language instructors came up with recommendations in line with research assistants’ language needs. To illustrate, 7 instructors emphasized that the required adaptations should be made in the English curriculum considering research assistants’ language proficiency. Besides, teaching tactics and strategies for exams that research assistants have to pass for academic promotion (N=5), extending the duration of the curriculum (N=5), focusing on teaching four language skills (N=5) were among other suggestions made by English language instructors. Additionally, the need for peer observation as a way to increase the quality of teaching in the program (N=3) and the necessity to increase the motivation level of research assistants (N=2) were mentioned by a few English instructors.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The suggestions made both by research assistants and English language instructors about the curricular objectives, materials, teaching-learning process and the assessment elements of the program led the researchers to some
conclusions. For instance, the objectives of the language curriculum should focus more on academic English and include curricular objectives dealing with issues such as academic reading, writing, speaking and presentation. This finding corroborates with the findings of other studies done in other similar contexts in Turkey (Gündeğer et al., 2012; Güven & Brewster, 2013).

The academic English program suggested by the participants is important for academicians to be able to write papers in their own disciplines, and to be able to get involved in different tasks within the context of their disciplines, such as note-taking (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). As also underlined by Liyanage and Birch (2001), the English programs preparing English learners to carry out their studies in English in their chosen degree should include study skills such as summarizing, interpreting graphs, getting meaning from context and note-taking (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992) that are needed by research assistants attending the TSTP to pursue their academic career.

In addition, more classroom time should be given to exam preparation, especially for the English proficiency exams that have to be passed for academic promotion in Turkey so that research assistants can feel more motivated to attend English classes. As also emphasized in the reviewed literature, Turkish research assistants attending the TSTP feel exam-driven anxiety as they have to prove their English proficiency with an approved exam so as to climb up the steps of academic promotion (Karakaş, 2012). The requirement to achieve in language proficiency exams approved by the ÖSYM is known to be one of the factors influencing the Turkish academicians in many ways (Mirici, 2003). As also noted in the report “Turkey, Academic Career Structure” (2009) published by the European University Institute, the criteria to earn academic titles and degrees in Turkey were recently changed to require scientific publications in highly ranked academic journals, especially the ones indexed in SSCI and success in English proficiency tests.

Considering that many reading comprehension questions are included in English proficiency exams, participants believed that reading activities and materials should be used in the context of this study. As also found by Akpınar and Çakıldere (2013), academicians in Turkey are more interested in developing their reading skills because the English proficiency exam (i.e., YDS) administered by the ÖSYM mostly assesses their reading skills and their knowledge of grammar. In their study, they focused on the washback effect of the two old versions of the YDS (KPDS and ÜDS) and concluded that these exams have positive washback effect only on reading skills of the Turkish academicians; however, they had negative washback effect on writing, listening and speaking skills. To put it differently, they found that the
productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing) and receptive skill (i.e., listening) were ignored by the academicians taking part in their study. Thus, they suggest that the test developers in Turkey should design English proficiency tests including all the basic language skills so that the academicians in Turkey can keep up with their foreign counterparts in the academic world. To alleviate the exam-related stress of the Turkish academicians, they recommend that rather than focusing on academic promotion, authorities in Turkey should deal with the problems of the teaching-learning process, academicians’ language needs, materials and curricular objectives.

According to the participants of the current study, the use of audio-visual materials like videos should also be promoted in the program. It is pointed out that visual aids raise the effectiveness of the EFL classroom teaching-learning process (Joshi, 1995). Besides, some participants believed that the assessment should be based on regular tests, especially on mock exams during the program rather than exit tests only administered at the end of the program. In other words, formative evaluation (i.e., reflection journals, assignments) considered to be an assessment procedure improving learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998) should be applied more into the curriculum than the summative evaluation procedures (i.e., final examinations, term papers) that are product-oriented.

Along with these suggestions to improve the specific components of the language curriculum, both research assistants and English language instructors made general recommendations for the improvement of the program. To illustrate, research assistants highlighted issues, such as the need to incorporate more mock exams, extend the length of the program and the personal consultancy service hours, have regular meetings, reduce the homework load, include more four-skill based and vocabulary activities, receive written feedback on their assignment and conduct a needs analysis. As pointed by Weddel and Van Duzer (1997), students’ needs for the literacy skills and academic English could best be determined through a needs analysis.

English language instructors, on the other hand, suggested a revision of the program in line with the proficiency levels of the research assistants, the inclusion of exam strategies and the extension of the duration of the program. Also, some of them underlined the need to focus on teaching four language skills. Experts like Nunan (1989) and Willis (1996) argue for the design of teaching materials and courses in line with the integration of a variety of language skills.
Moreover, some English instructors suggested that raising research assistants' motivation level is also important for the TSTP. It is known that motivation is widely accepted as the invisible go-power driving people to learn a language and encouraging them to sustain their effort to reach their foreign language learning goals (Gardner, 2001). Finally, some instructors believed in the merits of peer observation as a means of increasing their quality of teaching in the program. The practice of peer observation, namely observation by a colleague, was recommended by many researchers specialized in English language teaching (e.g., Richards & Farrell, 2005; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Farrell, 1999).

By taking into account the needs of research assistants and the suggestions made by the English language instructors, the EFL curriculum in the context of this study could be revised. We would like to conclude by referring back to the quotation of Karakaş (2012) emphasizing that many academicians end up their career without benefiting from their long-term investment by doing MA and PhD because of failure to pass English proficiency exams or to publish in English, both of which are requirement for academic promotion in Turkey.

In conclusion, the TSTP program in Turkey is crucial to prepare young academicians for the academic community dominated by the English language. Although these suggestions are unique to the context of the study, which is the EFL program applied within the TSTP in a large state university in Turkey, it can be considered that such studies in other TSTP contexts both in Turkey and in similar contexts in the world will help the English curriculum designers, teachers, administrators and even the policy-makers understand the English needs of the academicians and the expectations from such English preparation courses addressing to new academicians.

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THAT-CLAUSES IN NATIVE AND NONNATIVE ACADEMIC WRITING

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ABSTRACT
The present study investigates the use of that-clauses controlled by adjectives and verbs in the academic writings of the Turkish learners of English (TL) and native speakers of English. The point of departure for the study is the findings that that-clauses, particularly post-predicate clause types, most typically characterize conversation with the exception of extraposed and subject predicative that-clauses, which are moderately common in news and academic prose in the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LSWE) corpus (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). Thus, taking as a basis this finding, the study aims to compare that-clauses, in quantitative and qualitative terms, in the academic writing of both native and non-native speaking university students. For the purpose of the linguistic comparisons of these clause types the following corpora are used: (1) the Turkish Interlanguage Corpus of Learner English (TICLE), and (2) the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS). The findings obtained in the comparisons are discussed by reference to those observed in the academic component of the LSWE corpus and related previous studies in order to find out to what extent the writings of nonnative students reflect the features of academic writing.

KEY WORDS: Learner Corpus, That-clauses, Academic Writing, Interlanguage

1. Introduction
Biber and Reppen (1998) note that “linguistic association patterns are generally not valid for the language as a whole” as the use of grammatical features display a striking variation across registers (p. 145). An example of such linguistic patterns is the use of that-clauses. The findings regarding the register distribution of that-clauses in the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English corpus (LSWE) reveal that verb + that-clauses, accounting for over 80% of all the occurrences of that-clauses, are most common in conversation and very common in fiction and news (but less common in academic prose). Similarly, adjective + that-clauses are also most common in conversation. On the other hand, extraposed and subject predicate that-clauses are moderately common in news and academic prose in contrast to their rare occurrence in fiction and conversation (Biber et al., 1999, p. 674).
Several studies have so far pointed that the academic writing in learner corpora displays speech-like patterns, which Aijmer (2002) calls “register-interference, where the learners seem to transfer patterns of use from spoken English into the written medium” (p. 55). To cite some of these studies, Biber and Reppen (1998), who investigated the use of complement clauses in the argumentative essays of four student groups, found that learners’ writings were very similar to native conversation and fiction, but strikingly different from native academic prose. Granger and Rayson (1998), using an automatic profiling technique to uncover the distinguishing features of learner writing, found that the learner essays “display[ed] practically none of the features typical of academic writing and most of those typical of speech” (p. 129). Aijmer (2002) found that the categories of modal expressions investigated were highly overused, which she attributed to learners’ adopting a more speech-like style than the native speaking writers. (pp. 72-73). Similarly, Hinkel (2002) reports that learners significantly overuse many features of informal speech although these features occur commonly in both learners’ and native speakers’ writings (p. 96). Gilquin and Paquot (2008) found that the writings of upper-intermediate to advanced foreign learners of English shifted towards the speech end on the speech-writing continuum, displaying a chatty style. In the same manner, Paquot (2010) emphasizes the limited lexical repertoire and the lack of register awareness in novice native-speaker writing (p. 215).

A brief review of studies shows that not many studies have so far been conducted on the use of that-complement clauses in learner academic writing, although learner academic writing has been investigated from various linguistic perspectives such as (in addition to the studies mentioned above) vocabulary frequencies (Ringbom, 1998), adjective intensification (Lorenz, 1998), phrasicon (DeCock, Granger, Leech, & McNerney, 1998), adverbial connectors (Altenberg & Tapper, 1998), direct questions (Virtanen, 1998), writer/reader visibility (Petch-Tyson, 1998), tag sequences (Aarts & Granger, 1998), modality (Aijmer, 2002), L2 acquisition of English verb system (Housen, 2002), small words (Hasselgren, 2002) and collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005).

One of the studies which investigated learners’ use of complement clauses is the comparative study conducted by Biber and Reppen (1998). They compared the native English registers and the essays by four groups of learners and found that the use of that-clauses and to-clauses was much more common in learners’ essays compared to that in any native register. They conclude their research with a need for further cross-linguistic research so as to understand the reason. Another example is Hewings and Hewings’ study (2002) which compares the use of extraposed that-clauses by non-native speaking writers to that by published writers. This study showed that learner writing displayed a high overuse of extraposed that-clauses as opposed to research articles.

The brief review of studies on different aspects of learners’ writing is noteworthy in two respects. First, learners’ academic writing is characterized by an informal conversational style. Second, relatively few studies have investigated that-clauses in terms of quantitative and functional perspectives. Motivated to contribute to the existing knowledge provided by corpus-based interlanguage studies with findings from a different L2 background, the present study aims to compare the use of that-clauses across two corpora, the Turkish Interlanguage Corpus of Learner English
(TICLE), and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) to explain their function by reference to the findings attested in the LSWE corpus and previous corpus-based interlanguage studies. The study is structured as follows. The following section of the paper explains the scope of the study, providing a description of *that*-clauses under investigation as well as defining the limitations. Then the third section describes the corpora used in the study and explains the method used to extract *that*-clauses from both corpora. The fourth section presents the results of the study and discusses the findings. The last section of the paper concludes with an overview of the general findings, implications and suggestions for further research.

2. Scope of the study
Quirk et al. note that *that*-clause complement is determined by verbs, adjectives and nouns "which are morphologically related to these verbs and adjectives" and has a variety of functions (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, pp. 1231-1232). Based on the classification of *that* complement clauses by Biber et al. (1999, pp. 662-671), the scope of the study is limited to the exploration of the following structural types (with the retention of *that*).

I. Post-predicate that-clause (PP):
   A. controlled by a verb
      We also saw that densities of liquids are much higher than those of gases. (ACAD)
      He was told that she had checked out of the hospital. (FICT)
   B. controlled by an adjective
      I’m glad that I found you again. (FICT)

II. Extraposited that-clause (EX):
   A. controlled by a verb
      It follows that frequentist probability is conceptually inadequate for the design or licensing of hazardous facilities. (ACAD)
   B. controlled by an adjective
      It’s nice that people say it to you unprompted. (CON)

III. Subject predicative that-clause (SP):
   [The problem] is that the second question cannot be answered until Washington comes up with a consensus on the first. (NEWS)

With a focus on the structure types above, the study aims at exploring and discussing the use of *that* complement clauses in the native and non-native corpora from quantitative and qualitative perspectives. The next section describes the methodology and the corpora used in the study.
3. Method

3.1. Data
The data used in the study consist of two corpora of similar size containing argumentative essays written by non-professional writers and deal with a variety of topics. Each of the corpora used in the study contains approximately 168,000 words.

I. The experimental corpus (nonnative speakers):
TICLE (the Turkish Interlanguage Corpus of Learner English), a sub-component of the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) database, contains argumentative essays written by Turkish-speaking university students of English major.

II. The control corpora (native speakers):
LOCNESS, (the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) includes argumentative essays written by native speaking American university students.

| Table 1 The structure of the experimental and the control corpora used in the study |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Token Type                     |
| TICLE 168,626                  | 8,243           | 4.89            |
| LOCNESS 167,865                | 11,770          | 7.01            |

3.2. Procedure
The analyses are based on the two comparable corpora and proceeds in two complementary directions to find out how the corpora explored interrelate with each other in terms of that-clause usage. First, the use of that-clauses in TICLE is compared with that in the reference corpus, LOCNESS. And then, to establish a baseline for the determination of whether or not that-clause types found are typical of speech or academic writing, the findings are checked by reference to the findings in the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English corpus (LSWE) corpus and previous corpus-based learner studies. All the analyses are carried out using WordSmith Tools v. 5.0 (Scott, 2008). The overuse or underuse of related constructions is accounted for using log-likelihood calculator1.

4. Results and analysis

4.1 General comparison of that-clauses
In the analysis, the native speaker corpus, LOCNESS is used as a yardstick against which the use of that-clauses in learner essays in TICLE is assessed. Figure 1 shows that the Turkish learners use slightly fewer that-clauses in their essays. However, this slight variation does not suggest a significant underuse of these clauses compared to the native speakers.

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http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html
Although the overall comparison shows no statistically significant difference between learners and native speakers in the use of related clauses, the breakdown of that-clauses by clause types displays some variations. As seen in Figure 2, post-predicate clauses (PP) (595; 662) are underused (p < 0.05), while extraposed clauses (EX) (140; 90) are overused (p < 0.01). The reason for the overuse and underuse is further scrutinized with the analysis of verbs and adjectives used in these clause types in the following sections of the study. When the learners’ use of subject predicative (SP) clauses relative to the native speakers’ (99; 120) is assessed, the observed difference does not show a statistically significant underuse.
4.2 Comparison of verbs and adjectives by that-clause types

Figure 3 presents the frequency distribution of verbs and adjectives in TICLE and LOCNESS. An examination of the frequencies do not reveal conspicuous differences between the learners and the native speakers. Verbs seem to be slightly more used by native speakers in the construction of that-clauses, while adjectives are slightly less used. However, this overall comparison point to negligible differences as they are not found to be statistically significant.
Table 2 presents the adjective and verb frequencies by types of *that*-clauses. Biber et al. (1999, p. 674) note that post-predicate *that*-clauses controlled by a verb constitute over 80% of all *that*-clauses. These clauses are also reported to be less common in academic prose, while they are most common in conversation and very common in fiction and news. Conversation also makes the most frequent use of post-predicate *that*-clauses controlled by adjectival predicates. Extraposited and subject predicative *that*-clauses are moderately common in news and academic prose, but rare in fiction and conversation.

An inspection of Table 2 reveals that post-predicate *that*-clauses controlled by a verb are the most frequent of all the clauses in TICLE and LOCNESS (584-648, respectively). The total frequency of these clauses in both corpora amounts to about 72% of all *that*-clauses. The least common clauses in both data are post-predicate *that*-clauses controlled by adjectival predicates (11 in TICLE and 14 in LOCNESS). Extraposed (controlled by both a verb and an adjective) and subject predicative *that*-clauses are, respectively, the next more common clauses in both corpora. Most of the clause types in learner essays occur with almost the same frequencies as in native essays. The slight variations do not indicate a statistically significant difference. However, one structural pattern in the learners’ essays, extraposed *that*-clauses controlled by a verb, is immediately striking in comparison with the native use. This structure is statistically significantly more frequent in the learners’ writings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TICLE</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
<th>G2</th>
<th>α/υ</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADJECTIVES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following sections examine *that*-clause by their structural types and the semantic domains of adjectives and verbs controlling them. Only the verbs and adjectives that appear three or more times are included in the analysis.

4.3 Comparison of adjectives by semantic domains and *that*-clause types

This section analyses the adjective use in post-predicate and extraposed *that*-clauses with its semantic domain as is presented in Table 3. The post-predicate clauses controlled by an adjective are the least frequent clause types in both TICLE and LOCNESS. The learners and native speakers’ use displays a variation in terms of the semantic domains of the adjectives. For example, while the learners favor certainty adjectives more, the native speakers favor affective adjectives more. The certainty adjective *sure* occurs seven times in TICLE and three times in LOCNESS, while affective adjective *aware* appears six times only in the native speaker corpus. The LSWE findings show that *sure* is the least common adjective with the copula *be* in the academic register in contrast to its far more common occurrence in conversation, fiction and news registers, particularly characterizing fiction (Biber et al., 1999, p. 440). *Aware*, although more common in fiction, also appears in news and academic registers (Biber et al., 1999, p. 571). It is pointed out that affective adjectives present “a personal attitude or feeling towards the proposition in the *that*-clause”, while certainty adjectives “indicate the degree of certitude of the proposition presented in the *that*-clause” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 672). The sequence *I am sure that* is also found to be more frequent in learner writing by Paquot (2010, p. 159). Affective adjectives are found to be underused by the learners compared to the native speakers. The following examples are excerpts taken from the TICLE (T) and the LOCNESS (L) corpora to illustrate the adjectives that control post-predicate *that*-clauses.

1 (T) I am *sure* that they had been cheating too when they were students
2 (L) Due to the discovery of AIDS people are *aware* *that* if they are promiscuous & do not practice safe sex, they could die.
An analysis of the extraposed *that*-clauses reveals that clauses controlled by importance adjectives are underused by the learners. Certainty adjectives are also found to be more common in the learners’ essays than in the native speakers. However, this overuse does not indicate a significant difference. Affective/evaluative adjectives are the least frequent type of adjectives in this category. Table 3 presents the most frequent adjectives in extraposed *that*-clauses in TICLE and LOCNESS. It is pointed out that the predicative adjectives as epistemic stance markers are a common way of providing a frame for intellectual claims and thus a notable feature of academic prose. (Biber et al., 1999, p. 518). Three adjectives *true*, *obvious*, and *clear* comprise the top four most frequent adjectives that the learners and the native speakers use in extraposed *that*-clauses. More frequent use of *true* and *obvious* in TICLE compared to LOCNESS support the view that “EFL learners state propositions more forcefully and make a more overt persuasive effort” (Paquot, 2010, p. 157).

### Table 4 Most frequent adjectives in extraposed *that*-clauses in TICLE and LOCNESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TICLE</th>
<th></th>
<th>%</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
<th></th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22,4</td>
<td>Obvious</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obvious</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18,4</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certain</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16,3</td>
<td>Clear</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16,2</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14,3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the learner use of these adjectives are comparatively more common than that of the native speaker, this difference is not statistically significant. The following examples illustrate the most frequent adjectives in TICLE and LOCNESS.

![Downloaded from mjltm.org at 11:42 +0430 on Friday August 16th 2019](image-url)
3 (T) It is **true** that most universities do not prepare students for the real world because that is impossible. However, universities teach pupils to prepare themselves to their lives

4 (L) It is **obvious** that required prayer would not eliminate the problems

### 4.4 Comparison of verbs by semantic domains and *that*-clause types

A detailed analysis of the verbs and adjectives associated with *that*-clause types can provide a further insight into the learner and native use of such clause types. Following Biber et al. (1999), this section examines the verb and adjective use in relation to their semantic categories (pp. 671-673). As is seen in Table 5, *that*-clause usage display some differences as opposed to the general comparison of clause types by adjectives and verbs in Table 2, which indicates a difference only in the use of extraposed clauses. First, the learners heavily underuse post-predicate *that*-clauses controlled by speech act verbs in their essays relative to the native speakers, while they overuse the same clauses controlled by mental verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>TICLE</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
<th>G2</th>
<th>o/u</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>POSTPREDICATE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech Act</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>35.32</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Com. Verbs</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXTRAPOSED</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.44</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech Act</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Com. Verbs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copular</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJECT PRED.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

G2: Log-likelihood ratio

As for extraposed clauses, the learners display a somewhat reverse preference in that they seem to prefer speech act verbs more in these clauses than the native speakers, which leads to the overuse of this clause type. In the same way, these clauses controlled by mental verbs are overused as are post-predicate clauses.

Looking at the verbs in their respective semantic categories might be useful to gain a perspective on the factors influencing the overuse and underuse phenomena in these clause types. Table 6 presents the most frequent verbs and adjectives used in post-predicate *that*-clauses by their semantic domains in the learner and native speaker essays. The strikingly more common use of *think* (173; 76) by the Turkish learners seems to account for the overuse of mental verbs presented in Table 5. The LSWE
corpus findings reveal that six of the most common seven verbs used with post-predicate that-clauses are mental verbs such as think, know, see, find, believe, and feel. Of these verbs think and believe are notably common in the learner and native speaker writings as in the LSWE corpus (Biber et al., 1999, p. 662). While the learners’ choice is especially geared to the use of think to somewhat negligence of other verbs in their writing, the native speaker writing displays a balanced distribution of verbs taking post-predicate clauses. For example, the native speaker use of believe, feel, think denoting the processes of thought are distributed in a more balanced way than in the learner writing. In particular, feel seems to be avoided and replaced by think by the learners, which can be accounted for with the learners’ lack of knowledge that personal thoughts can also be conveyed with use of feel in addition to its copular use for physical and mental states. The register distributions of the overall frequencies of the most common verbs (think, know, see, find, believe, and feel) controlling that-clauses in the LSWE corpus indicate that these verbs are used the least frequently in academic prose (Biber et al., 1999, p. 663). The reason is that “academic writers consider it less relevant or appropriate to report personal thoughts” (Biber et al., p 670). Particularly, the verb think, which accounts for about 75 percent of all verbs taking a that-clause (Biber et al., 1999, p. 12) occurs around 5,000 times per million words, and characterizes conversation register (Biber et al., 1999, p. 374). In the same manner, think controlling post-predicate that-clauses constitutes almost half of the use of all verbs in the learner writing. Similarly, Biber and Reppen (1998), comparing native and learner use of complement clauses, note that the use of think as the controlling verb is much more common than any other verb, which accounts for about 30 per cent of all that-clauses (p. 153). Of the post-predicate that-clauses, the distribution frequency of I think that for the learners and the native speakers is 31 and 15, respectively. The Turkish learners’ significant overuse is consistent with Paquot’s finding which shows that I think is overused by all learner varieties (2010, p. 152) and confirms her remark that “learners use I think to make their claims more persuasive rather than to express a tentative degree of commitment” (2010, p. 176). In the same manner, I believe that sequence is more frequent in the learner writing (40) than in the native speaker writing (16), which indicates a significant overuse as is observed in Paquot’ study (2010, p. 159), although the frequency distribution of this verb is similar in both corpora.

Table 6 Most frequent verbs in post-predicate that-clauses by semantic domains in TICLE and LOCNESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TICLE</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
<th>TICLE</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Think</td>
<td>173 29,6</td>
<td>Believe</td>
<td>76 11,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believe</td>
<td>78 13,4</td>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>84 13,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>36 6,2</td>
<td>Think</td>
<td>53 9,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MENTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand</td>
<td>18 3,1</td>
<td>Realize</td>
<td>33 5,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>12 2,1</td>
<td>Find</td>
<td>18 2,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>12 2,1</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>9 1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consider</td>
<td>12 2,1</td>
<td>Assume</td>
<td>8 1,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another verb more commonly used in the learner essays is *mean*, which is typical of the conversation register (Biber et al., 1999, p. 368). Of the mental verbs that the learner and the native speaker essays use, *consider* and *assume* exclusively characterize academic prose (Biber et al., 1999, p. 369). To sum up, the mental verbs *think*, *mean*, *understand* are found to be overused with the log-likelihood ratios at 66.57, 17.23, and 6.22, while *realize* (which is not in the top ten list in the TICLE column as it occurs only seven times), *feel* are underused with the log-likelihood ratios at 18.47 and 61.07. The following examples are excerpts taken from the TICLE (T) and the LOCNESS (L) corpus to illustrate the use of the mental verbs.

5 (T) I **think that** all those problems occur due to the lack of money.
6 (T) However, I do not **believe that** there could be an acceptable reason for killing a baby except some important health problems.
7 (T) This **means that** the interaction between the students is also the combination of the various cultures, backgrounds in the school.
8 (L) I **believe that** no matter what the circumstances, there is no need for a death penalty because it will not stop our criminal problems, it is immoral, and may even hinder the development of our society.
9 (L) Many people **feel that** women should be allowed to control their own bodies, insisting that surrogate motherhood is not just another way of reproduction.
10 (L) I, also **think that** an individual should be allowed the freedom that God granted us with the gift of life itself.
As for the speech act category, which is significantly underused by the learners, the reason is quite obvious as is displayed in Table 6. The most frequent speech act verbs in the learners’ writing include claim, argue and say, while it is state, argue, say and claim in the native speaking writing. Of these verbs, claim (with log-likelihood ratio at 4.72) is overused, while argue and state are underused (with log-likelihood ratios at 17.49 and 45.24, respectively). In this respect, the learner writing displays a relatively limited repertoire of verbs as opposed to a more varied pattern in the native writing. Also, all the verbs belonging to the speech act category are far more frequent in the native speaker essays in comparison to the learners’ use. The most frequent verb claim in the learner writing especially characterizes the news register with an occurrence of at least 300 times per million words in the LSWE corpus (Biber et al., 1999, p. 368). Another verb with a similar occurrence is argue, which is again far more frequent in the native speaker essays and is underused by the learners. The verb say, the most common verb overall in the LSWE corpus, characterizes conversation, fiction, and news as the only most frequent verb in more than one register (Biber et al., 1999, p. 374). Other communication verbs such as show, prove and suggest are almost equally typical of the learner and native speaker writing, which shows no statistically significant difference between the groups. The communication verbs, which are more common in the native speaking writing, are observed as ‘notably common’ in the LSWE corpus (Biber et al., 1999, p. 662).

Table 7 shows the distribution of verbs used in the construction of extraposed that-clauses by the Turkish learners and the native speakers. As is obvious in Table 2, previously discussed, these types of that-clauses are overused by the Turkish learners. Now, the analysis of the frequencies of the verbs that control these clauses clearly displays why this construction is overused. In Table 8, say and think together (42) control approximately half of the total extraposed that-clauses (91 presented in Table 2) in the learner writing, while the native speaker use of verbs are infrequent, but evenly distributed. The total frequency of say and think (42) in TICLE is almost the double of the total frequency of the top six verbs (27) in the learner writing. Think in extraposed clauses occur only once in the native data as opposed to the eleven occurrence in the learner essays. The more common use of think and say shows a statistically significant overuse of these verbs in TICLE (with log-likelihood ratios at 9.71 and 23.52). As was discussed earlier, in comparison to other registers, think is the single most common verb in conversation, and has the least frequent use in academic prose. This is also true for say, which predominantly characterizes fiction. It is pointed out that it is less relevant to express personal thoughts, attitudes and feelings in academic prose and therefore academic prose make least use of mental verbs (Biber et al., 1999, p.669). Four verbs out of the top six verbs used in that-clauses in the learner writing comprise the mental verbs such as think, believe, forget, and know. On the other hand, an examination of the native speaker use of verbs, the first four verbs in the list consists of a copular verb and communication verbs such as seem, argue, prove, and show. The copular verb seem, which denotes existence and likelihood, is found to be the most common in the academic prose (Biber et al., 1999, p. 419). This verb is used with almost the same frequency in both learner and the native writing. The top six verbs controlling that-
clauses in both corpora suggest that the Turkish learners mainly express their thoughts and feelings as well as reporting on what others say, while the native speakers express a degree of certainty and likelihood associated with the proposition in such clauses besides reporting information. Examples 11 and 12 below illustrate the use of say and seem in the learner and native speaker corpora respectively.

Table 7 Most frequent verbs in extraposed that-clauses in TICLE and LOCNESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TICLE</th>
<th></th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Say</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19,8</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10,1</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Believe</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8,8</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seem</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7,7</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Known</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7,7</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forget</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6,6</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11 (T) It is said that people can be saved from the death thanks to the medical developments even in the most fatal disasters in the first objection.
12 (L) It seemed that the court and trial process would go on for months or even years

Finally, as for the analysis of the subject predicative that-clauses in TICLE and LOCNESS presented in the last portion of Table 5, the subject predicative that-clauses are seen to be the second most frequent type of clauses in the learner and native speaker data following post-predicate clauses controlled by a verb. It is pointed out that subject predicative that-clauses describe the nature of some problem, presents reasons, results, conclusion and accepted facts or truths (Biber et al., 1999, p. 671). These clauses are found to be moderately common in news and academic prose in contrast to their rare occurrence fiction and conversation (Biber et al., 1999, p 674). It is clear that the native speakers employ these clauses more than the learners do. However, this difference does not seem to be significant. The following are excerpts exemplifying the use of such clauses in the learner and the native speaker data.

5 (T) In my opinion the reason is that after women start to work and earn their own money they felt themselves secure
6 (L) The most obvious reason is that the wild card makes it necessary for a team to win two games in order to be the league champion instead of just one.

5. Conclusion
The present study explored the use of that-clauses in the learner and native speaker corpora with an aim to contributing to the existing knowledge on previous corpus-based interlanguage studies with findings from a different L1 background, Turkish. Of the that-clause types investigated, the post-predicate clauses were found to be the most frequent in the learner and the native speaker essays, amounting to about 72% of all
that-clauses. These clause types are followed by extraposed and subject predicate that-clauses, respectively, as the next more common clauses in both corpora, while the post-predicate that-clauses controlled by adjectival predicates are the least frequent clause types. Although the general comparison of that-clauses revealed no statistically significant difference, more detailed analyses unfolded certain stylistic differences in terms of both lexical and structural preference between the learners and the native speakers. For instance, a more detailed analysis, which securitized the use of clause types by adjectives and verbs in general, found that extraposed that-clauses controlled by a verb were, in fact, overused by the learners. An even more detailed analysis focusing on the semantic categories of adjectives and verbs revealed that post-predicate clauses were overused when controlled by mental verbs, but underused with speech act verbs. On the other hand, extraposed clauses controlled by mental verbs and speech act verbs were found to be uniformly overused. The final analysis focusing on the lexical associations of each that-clause type found that sure in post-predicate and true, obvious, and clear in extraposed clauses were more frequent in the learner corpus compared to the native speaker corpus, which is also consistent with Paquot’s finding (2010). In the same manner, think controlling post-predicate that-clauses were found to constitute almost half of the use of all verbs in the learner writing, which also accounts for the overuse of these clauses in the learner writing. Similarly, Biber and Reppen (1998) found that the use of think as the controlling verb accounts for about 30 per cent of all that-clauses in learner essays, which is a common phenomena in native conversation (p. 153). Particularly, the overuse of I think that in the learner data was consistent with Paquot’s finding which shows that I think is overused by all learner varieties (2010, p. 152). In the same manner, although the frequency distribution of believe was similar in both corpora, I believe that sequence was found to be overused as is observed in Paquot’s study (2010, p. 159). Other mental verbs such as mean, understand were also found to be overused while realize and feel were underused. Speech act verbs controlling post-predicate clauses were found to be more frequent and varied in the native data. In particular, argue and state were found to be underused, while claim was overused. It seems that the more frequent use of speech act verbs by the native speakers account for the underuse of post-predicate clauses by the learners. Finally, subject predicative clauses were found to be more common in the native speaker data than those in the learner data, although this difference was not significant. Although the study dealt with a variety of that-clause types, neither is it exhaustive nor are the findings are categorical for several reasons. First, LOCNESS is directly comparable to TICLE, and therefore it contains student non-professional writing. In this respect, the comparison of two non-professional writers does not allow making any firm statements as to whether the learner writing demonstrates the lexical and structural characteristics of academic prose although frequent references have been made to the previous corpus-based learner studies and the findings regarding the academic register in the LSWE corpus. Second, some structural types such as pre-predicate that-clauses and that-clauses without that complementizer are not included in the study, which does not provide a complete picture of the learner and the native speaker use of that-clauses. For this reason, further detailed and cross-linguistic studies
need to be conducted to demonstrate to what extent the learners’ use of *that*-clauses really characterizes academic prose.

**REFERENCES**


THE EFFECT OF READING-BASED WORD-GENERATION TECHNIQUES ON WRITING PROFICIENCY OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
The current research was carried out among 60 female learners with the age range of 15-20 through a quasi-experimental design. The two groups received two different treatments during 14 sessions. Participants in control group received synonyms of the targeted words before reading and listening to the passage and answering its questions. At the end of each session, they wrote composition. However, in experimental group both class discussion about the text topic and morphological practice also took place. After the post test of writing, an independent sample t-test was run to compare their performances. Experimental group outperformed the control group. In conclusion, foreign language pedagogy would benefit from applying reading-based word-generation techniques to improve writing proficiency.

KEY WORDS: Word-generation, discussion practice, morphological practice, reading, Synonym, Writing.

Introduction
Vocabulary is at the heart of the language and it plays a prominent role for language learners, because words put names on objects, actions as well as ideas; in a way that people cannot express their meaning without them.

It can be notified that most English learners memorize a lot of new words; however, they suffer from lack of vocabulary, when they want to write. Actually they are not able to recall their memorized words, which leads to under elaboration of thoughts and ideas in their writing. Therefore, having not enough vocabulary knowledge, results in difficulty in writing (e.g., Leki & Carson 1994, Uzawa& Cumming, 1989).

Richards & Renandya (2002) suggest that in order for learners to know sufficient size of vocabulary; they need to know a vast amount of vocabulary and strategies for learning them. This is a prominent point which is related to the complexity of word knowledge, being a prerequisite for vocabulary learning and use. (Richards, 1985; Nation, 1990; Ellis, 1995 a and b; Harely, 1995, Viannarajan, 1997; Henriksen, 1999).

So a sensible assumption is that, no one single strategy can help learners acquire all different aspects of a word. Thus, there is a need to define a kind of systematic vocabulary teaching. In the study, the premise is that a systematic and explicit
vocabulary teaching does not compromise just one special instructional strategy but different strategies that makes depth of word knowledge, promote word learning, meaning as well as recall for subsequent use.

It has been expressed that explicit vocabulary teaching is a significant factor in composition writing, which allows learners choose the most appropriate words. It is very important, because vocabulary used in writing are vitally important in conveying messages. Henriksen (1999) put emphasis on the importance of getting learners to activity use recognized and new words. He suggests that explicit vocabulary instruction results in "word awareness" effect, that help learners use effective and appropriate words, as well as paying attention to word selection in later writing, which leads to improving structures and contents. This is one of the students' needs that the researcher in the study attempts to meet by explicit teaching of vocabulary.

Purpose
There are two approaches to vocabulary learning in foreign language; explicit and incidental learning. Explicit learning refers to a kind of learning which the focus is on the words; however, incidental learning refers to acquiring vocabulary as a byproduct of any language learning activities like reading or listening. Generally, in foreign language contexts, English teachers teach both of the two approaches.

In order to meet this issue, the researcher tries to carry out a program named "word-generation" in which students develop their skills when they feel motivated and are engaged in reading, discussing and producing texts through highly interesting authentic texts. These reading passages are intended to spark rich, substantive conversation among students and their teachers. Moreover, if learners do specific activities on new words in text, the possibility of retrieving will be promoted. Retaining the words is related to depth of processing. According to Hill and Laufer (2003), post reading activities which pay explicit attention to target words, lead to better vocabulary learning than comprehension questions whose prerequisite is words meaning. So attempts have been made to explicit teaching through reading, so that learners can effectively acquire vocabularies.

Method
Participants and design
The participants in the current small scale study were 60 intermediate female English learners enrolled in an English institute in Tehran. All of the participants were Persian speaking learners whose ages varied between 15 and 20. Due to the regulations of the institute, the researcher employed convenient sampling for choosing the participants of her study. So the best design which was conducted for this study was quasi-experimental intact group design.

Procedure
Administrating Nelson test
A test of general proficiency of Nelson which had been validated before was administered among the participants to ensure the degree of homogeneity among
them. It was test 200A which contained 50 multiple choice items. The maximum of the score was also 50.

Pre-test

The test of writing as pre-test was administered to both groups. The teacher (researcher) assigned a topic. The students wrote one or two paragraphs about the topic. The allotted time was 45 minutes. Then based on an analytic rubric rating scales adapted from the ESL composition Profile (Jacobs et al, 1981), the three raters gave each student 5 scores. (See appendix I).

Control group procedure

The participants received 35 minutes treatment at the end of every 90 minute session. Having received warm-up on the theme of the reading passage, the participants in control group got the synonym of five topically related underlined words. Then the students wrote the newly taught words in their notebooks. Next, the copies of reading passages and reading comprehension questions from book “select reading” were handed out. Students read and listened to audio program of the passage at the same time. Then they were supposed to answer true or false or multiple choice reading comprehension questions. At the end of the session, participants wrote their ideas about the text’s topic. The teacher encouraged them to use the newly taught words in their composition. After that, the teacher collected their papers to give them feedback on their writing tasks.

Experimental group procedure

All of the aforementioned activities in control group were carried out in experimental group. In addition, class discussion was carried out after the reading activity. Also at the end, morphological practice such as looking up words part of speech, prefixes or suffixes was followed by the participants as homework. The following session, again teacher brought a new passage with new topic to work on.

Post test and scoring

Finally, at the end of the instructional period (in the fifteenth session) both groups took part in post-test. They devoted 45 minutes time to write. Then three raters (one of them was the researcher) scored the tests based on the aforementioned rubric. The researcher provided them with one hour rater training, to make them familiar with rating procedure.

Results

Data Analysis for the Nelson Test

Before administrating any treatment, the Nelson test’s item facility, item discrimination and choice distribution were calculated. In order to get the test reliability; KR-21 method (cited in Hatch&Farhady, 1982) was utilized in the pilot study. It was estimated as 0.9. The ratios of skewness, statistic over standard error (0.40) was within the range of plus and minus 1.96. Then to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in two groups; this piloted general proficiency test of Nelson was administered in both experimental and control group.

The descriptive statistics for the two groups are displayed in the following table.
Table 1. The Descriptive statistics of the Nelson test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>26.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22.250</td>
<td>2.20650</td>
<td>4.869</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two groups were normally distributed because the skewness ratio of (0.71) was within the range of plus and minus 1.96. So the data is normally distributed.

Inter-rater reliability

In order to find the degree of agreement among the raters, correlation needs to be performed among them. So the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was utilized.

Table 2. correlation among, pre-test rater1, rater2 and rater3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pretest Rater 1</th>
<th>Pretest Rater 2</th>
<th>Pretest Rater 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.797**</td>
<td>.763**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.976**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Rater 2</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Rater 3</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis for Pre-test of writing proficiency

In this part, first the researcher tries to compare the pre-test mean scores to ensure that there is no significant difference between the two groups at the beginning. So she uses an independent sample t-test to prove this issue.
Table 3. Correlation among post-test rater1, rater2 and rater3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Posttest Rater 1</th>
<th>Posttest Rater 2</th>
<th>Posttest Rater 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.988**</td>
<td>.990**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

In order to investigate the inter-rater reliability, the Spearman Brown Prophecy Formulae (cited in Henning, 1987) \( r_{tt} = n \frac{r_{AB}}{1+(n-1)r_{AB}} \) is run. The result calculated as .942 on pre-test and .995 on the post-test. These values seem satisfactory since Politt (1991) suggests that an inter rater agreement value of 0.8 is adequate for writing test.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of pre-test total score in two groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Total Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31.67</td>
<td>63.67</td>
<td>47.49</td>
<td>8.37073</td>
<td>70.069</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to run a t-test, the researcher had to meet the two assumptions of normal distribution of scores and homogeneity of variances. The two groups were normally distributed, because of the skewness ratio of (0.51).
Table 5. Descriptive statistics of pre-test by control and experimental groups (Independent t-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equalities of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prettoequal variances assumed</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicates that the Levene F of .087 had a probability of .769. In addition, two-tailed p-value calculated as .218. It means that it is much less than the significance level of .05, (P<.05). So, it can be surely said that there was not any significant difference between the means scores of the two groups, at the beginning and are equal in variances.

Data Analysis for Post-test of writing proficiency

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of post-test total score in two groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N Statistic</th>
<th>Minimun Statistic</th>
<th>Maximum Statistic</th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Statistic</th>
<th>Variance Statistic</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Skewness ratio of (1.45) shows normal distribution. As displayed in Table 7, the Levene F of .800 had a probability of .376. Since the probability associated with the Levene F was lower than the significance level of .05, it could be concluded that the two groups enjoyed homogenous variances on the post-test of writing proficiency. The t-test estimated as -7.468 which is lower than (α=.05). Thus, it could be concluded that the null-hypothesis was rejected.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of post-test by control and experimental groups (Independent t-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equalities of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion
The researcher tried to teach vocabulary through reading. In addition, Krashen and colleagues have been advocating reading as the main source of vocabulary learning (Krashen, 1989, 2008; Mason & Krashen, 2004). Also (Engber, 1995) holds that, integrated teaching of vocabulary, reading and writing is logical and appropriate. Appropriate vocabulary improves the quality of writing.

This study is in line with the assumption that good readers make good writers, suggesting a connection between these skills (Kennedy, 1985), and (Spivy and King, 1989). In addition, the current study confirmed the assumption that students write better after discussing a topic (Bossio, 1993; Kennedy, 1983; Meyer, 1990; Reff, 1966; Sweigart, 1991; Vinson, 1980). In fact, discussing the issues raised in the reading provides them with the opportunity to broaden their view on the topic of the reading and to address more global issues and concerns. Finally it leads to writing improvement.

Future research
1. In this study, the teacher applied three techniques of word–generation including, class discussion, composition writing and morphological practice in just one experimental group. This research can be replicated in three different experimental groups, to investigate the most efficient technique.
2. Further studies can investigate the degree to which recognition vocabulary become productive vocabulary after explicit target vocabulary instruction. They can also incorporate measures of productive vocabulary that focus on depth of word knowledge.
3. Future studies can incorporate delayed post-test writing task to investigate "is there a significant loss in productive vocabulary and newly learned productive vocabulary in delayed writing?" In other words, longitudinal studies can be designed to pursue students writing developments over time.

Acknowledgements
The author would like to thank anonymous reviewers for their invaluable suggestions and comments on this paper.

REFERENCES
Bossio, E. (1993). Esl writing under conditions of reading group discussion and solitary composing, unpublished asters research paper Department of curriculum Ontario Institute for studies. in Education.


Hill, M. & B. Laufer (2003).‘Type of task, time on task and electronic dictionaries in incidental vocabulary acquisition’. IRAL 41/2:87-106.

http://word generation .org/ index.html.


# APPENDIX I

Marking Scale for Graders' Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>score</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONTENT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-27</td>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledgeable; substantive; thorough development of topic; relevant to assigned topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-22</td>
<td></td>
<td>Some knowledge of subject; adequate range; limited development of topic; mostly relevant to the topic, but lacks detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-17</td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited knowledge of subject; little substance; inadequate development of topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-13</td>
<td></td>
<td>Does not show knowledge of subject; non-substantive; not pertinent; or not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORGANIZATION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-18</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fluent expression; well-organized; ideas clearly stated/supported; logical sequencing; cohesive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-14</td>
<td></td>
<td>Somewhat choppy; loosely organized but main ideas stand out; limited support; logical but incomplete sequencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-fluent; ideas confused or disconnected; lacks logical sequencing and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Does not communicate; no organization; or not enough to evaluate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOCABULARY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-18</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sophisticated range; effective word/ idiom choice and usage; word form mastery; appropriate mastery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-14</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adequate range; occasional errors of word/ idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited range; frequent errors of word/ idiom form, choice, usage; meaning confused or obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Essential translation; little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form; or not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGE USE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-22</td>
<td></td>
<td>Effective complex constructions; fewer errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-18</td>
<td></td>
<td>Effective but simple constructions; minor problems in complex constructions; several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Major problems in simple/ complex constructions; frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/ function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/ or fragments, run-ons, deletions; meaning confused or obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules; dominated by errors, does not communicate; or not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MECHANICS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Demonstrates mastery of conventions; few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing; poor handwriting; meaning confused or obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>No mastery of conventions; dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing; handwriting illegible, or not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al. 1981)
THE IMPACT OF PORTFOLIO WRITING ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' AUTONOMY

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ABSTRACT
The study investigated the impact of portfolio writing (European Language Portfolio) on learner autonomy on Iranian EFL students. Sixty elementary EFL learners, who were both male and female studying English at some language schools in Kermanshah, Iran were selected. They were divided into two groups. In the experimental group, European Language Portfolio was used while the control group underwent the traditional assessment and didn’t receive any treatment. Learner Autonomy Questionnaire (LAQ) was used as the measure of learners' autonomy. Nine dimensions of LAQ were analyzed separately by using t-test. The findings suggest that learners' autonomy increases as the effect of portfolio writing. The results indicate that practicing portfolio writing can enhance learner autonomy in general and in most of the dimensions.

KEY WORDS: Learner Autonomy, Language portfolio, European Language Portfolio (ELP)

1. INTRODUCTION
Since the concept of autonomous learning was introduced into the field of education in 1950’s, a wide research has been made in this field. Linguistic scholars began their study on autonomous learning in 1970’s, gradually it was accepted that another goal in language learning is to cultivate students’ ability of autonomous learning. And these researches reflected the transition of teaching emphasis from teacher-centered to students-centered learning (Zhuang, 2010). According to Demirtaş and Sert (2010) the essence of the learner-centered approach is the learner-autonomy.
Dickinson (1987) exposed that autonomy refer to the situation in which learners are totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with learning and the implementation of those decisions. Therefore one of the main challenges that educational system faced is how to help learners move toward becoming responsible for their own learning. In traditional system of language learning in Iran students are passive learners and there is no opportunity for them to enhance their learning autonomy. Learners' self-assessment and alternative assessment is one area of learner autonomy. Among different kinds of assessment, portfolio writing and actually
European Language Portfolio (ELP) is of a great importance. Thus the main purpose of this study is to find out the impact of European Language Portfolio (ELP) on learner autonomy of the beginner EFL learner.

2. Review of the Literature

Interest in the autonomy of the individual probably dates back to the time of Aristotle and has influenced political developments in the 20th century which have had a major impact on education (Lamb & Reinders, 2005). The definition of the term autonomy, however, has been controversial. Holec (1981) was the first person to define the learner autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one's learning” (p. 3). Littlewood (1996) defined autonomy as “learners' ability and willingness to make choices independently” (p. 97). Kohonen (2002) stated that to be able to take charge of their learning and to extend their skills students need to be actively involved in the whole learning process, so they need to prepare for increasingly international communicative settings and situations in the modern world. Whatever the definition, there have been proposed a lot of different techniques to improve autonomy, self assessment techniques can be considered as some examples of which.

A portfolio is a purposeful collection of student work that exhibits the student’s effort, progress, and achievements in one or more areas and this collection must include student participation in selecting contents, the criteria for selection, the criteria for judging merit, and evidence of student self-reflection (Paulson, Paulson, & Meyer, 1991). According to Richard (1998) the primary value of portfolios is in the assessment of student achievement, because they provide a continuous record of students' language development that can be shared with other students. For Crosby (1997) the primary purpose of portfolios in EFL context is to increase the level of students' motivation and to give them a sense autonomous learning. Lee (2001) argued that portfolio assessment prioritized student-centered over conventional concept of teaching.

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is part of the Council of Europe’s Common European Framework for Language Teaching (CEF 2001), which based on recent outcome of a long-term commitment to promote the learning and teaching of modern languages in Europe. The work consistently has emphasis on a broad learner-centered basic orientation in language teaching (Kohonen, 2002). According to council of Europe (2004) the European Language Portfolio includes information on learner's language proficiency and experiences with the target language. While compiling their most important written and spoken tasks, e.g. recordings, videos and texts, that learners can follow their progress in language learning process. An essential part of the portfolio work is self-assessment and reflection which help learners to achieve a deeper understanding of their learning process. The language portfolio describes learner's language skills on the Common European Framework of Reference scale. The European Language Portfolio includes information about learners' language proficiency, learners compile their language portfolio during the course of the studies (Council of Europe, 2004). The ELP is a document in which those who are learning or have learned a language – whether at
school or outside school- can record and reflect on their language learning and cultural experience.

According to the Council of Europe (2004) ELP has three obligatory parts consisting of:

a) Language Passport: regularly updated by users, it shows what the student can do in different languages and incorporates a self-assessment, grid for reference purposes that describes the competences in the different skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing) and helps users in their reflection and self-assessment. It is also contains information about diplomas, courses and contacts with other languages and cultures.

b) Language Biography: where users describe their experiences in any of the languages they are learning. It is designed to guide learners to plan and evaluate their learning progress. This is the most innovative part, providing the tools to control the learning process as a whole.

c) Dossier: contains the evidences, i.e. samples of personal work to illustrate their language command. Users add certificates, diplomas, written work, projects, audio, video recordings presentations, etc.

3. Research question and hypothesis

The question that is aimed to be answered in general considering the aforementioned points in this study was:

Does portfolio writing improve Iranian EFL learners’ autonomy?

Based on the research question mentioned above, the following hypotheses emerge: Portfolio writing doesn't improve Iranian EFL learners' autonomy.

4. Methodology

The subjects participating in the research were all Iranian students, both male and female studying English in Kermanshah, Iran. They were all beginners. 60 elementary level students were selected. Language Autonomy Questionnaire (LAQ) was administered to the all 60 students. Out of this number of student, 30 participants were selected for experimental group and 30 participants were selected for control group. This sample population provided the main data for this experiment the treatment.

To gather data, Learner Autonomy Questionnaire (LAQ) was administered to investigate the extent to which learners are autonomous. The LAQ was basically formed by Egel in 2003, but Gholami and Biria (2013) changed some parts of the questionnaire in their study. In the study the same questionnaire as used by Gholami and Biria (2013) was administered. They reported the reliability of the questionnaire about .74 by using the Cronbach Alpha. LAQ includes nine dimensions, and the items of LAQ dimensions demonstrated whether learners display a greater degree of control in particular aspects of their learning. Table 1 below displays the nine dimensions of autonomy in the questionnaire.
Table 1 Nine Dimensions of Autonomy the Learner Autonomy Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 1</td>
<td>6 items</td>
<td>Readiness for Self-direction</td>
<td>What are the learners’ beliefs relating to self-directed learning in general?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 2</td>
<td>6 items</td>
<td>Independent Work in Language Learning</td>
<td>What are the learners’ beliefs relating to independent work in language learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 3</td>
<td>8 items</td>
<td>Importance of Class/Teacher</td>
<td>How important do learners see the class/ the teacher in their language learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 4</td>
<td>5 items</td>
<td>Role of Teacher: Explanation/Supervision</td>
<td>What importance do learners give to teacher explanation and supervision?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 5</td>
<td>4 items</td>
<td>Language Learning Activities Outside the Class</td>
<td>In relation to particular language learning activities, what are the learners’ attitudes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 6</td>
<td>3 items</td>
<td>Selection of Content</td>
<td>What are the learners’ attitudes relating to the selection of content for language learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 7</td>
<td>3 items</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td>How confident do learners feel about defining objectives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 8</td>
<td>5 items</td>
<td>Assessment/ Motivation</td>
<td>How important is external assessment in motivating the learners’ work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension 9</td>
<td>4 items</td>
<td>Interest in the Target Cultures</td>
<td>What are the learners’ attitudes relating to the culture of other countries?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gholami and Biria (2013)

In LAQ the Likert scale was employed by asking the participants to respond to all of the 44 statements by indicating whether each statement is “always true”, “mostly true”, “sometimes true”, “rarely true”, and “never true” for themselves. The items in the LAQ were based on independency and dependency; therefore a reverse scoring system was necessary for the independent items in order to discriminate between attitudes of autonomous learners and those of non-autonomous learners.
To collect the data, the LAQ was administered in class with a twenty-minute allotted time as a pre-test and after the implementation period at the end of the semester and after twenty-three sessions as a post-test.

In the first part of ELP, Language Passport, the students filled blanks and wrote the date of getting command of any goal. In the next part they ticked the grid (table) corresponding their ability. The grid contained some information in four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) in three levels A1 (breakthrough), A2 (waystage) and A3 (threshold), that the students ticked them with its date.

In the second part of ELP, Language Biography, the students filled in the blanks about four skills in different topics such as, the local and wider community, people and places in other countries, animals and plants, then wrote its date. This part contained different levels (A1, A2, and A3). In the next part they wrote the date of activities that they can do. For instance, I can understand the words for people who help us. In each session the students wrote the date of those activities that they can do.

In the third part of ELP named dossier, the students keep examples of the work they have done, pictures they have drawn, and lists of new words. They can use the dossier to show their teachers and parents what they have learned.

When the treatment carried out, and the experimental group has done their activities on ELP, ALQ was administered to both experimental group and control group as a post-test to investigate impact of ELP on learner autonomy.

### 5. Data Analysis

After administering the questionnaire as the pretest, the results were analyzed using independent t-test to determine any significant difference between the groups in terms of autonomy level. In all of the LAQ statistical data analyses, probability level was set to .05 (α<.05). As indicated in table 2, there is no significant difference between the groups (0.916 >.05).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig(2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dg-Cnt</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>120.90</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dg-Exp</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>121.17</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The nine dimensions in LAQ were also examined respectively in order to see the differences between control group posttest and experimental group posttest scores on each dimension. Based on independent sample t-test results in Table 3 for dimension 1, the mean in the control group posttest is 19.56 and in experimental group post-test scores is 22.13, differences between mean scores of the two groups was found to be significant (t(58) = 2.45, p < 0.05). The sig (.017<.05) depicts that there is an increase in the extent the students are ready to participate in self-directed activities when learning English after the implementation period. So it can be considered that the students have adapted to their new role in the language learning process. The second dimension,
Independent Work in Language Learning, includes of seven items which cover the students’ general attitudes to independent learning. Therefore these items investigated if the students are able to learn English on their own without the presence of a teacher. The increase of mean score in the experimental group and \((t (58) = 1.52, p < 0.05)\), \(p\)-value \((.013 < .05)\) illustrated that there is an increase in the students’ tendencies towards the aspect of independency in their foreign language learning processes after the treatment span.

Dimension 3: Importance of Class/ Teacher aimed to discover the students’ evaluation of the importance of the classroom setting in learning English and the English teacher’s role. The dimension consists of eight items. Five of these items are based on the attitudes of non-autonomous learners’ feelings that the teacher plays a very important role in learning a foreign language, but the other three items are on the basis of learner independency. For which, reverse scoring was conducted. In this dimension, the higher score that the student get, the less important they regard the classroom and the teacher .As shown in Table 3, although the mean score in the experimental group increased but \((t (58) = 1.78)\) and the sig \((.079 > .05)\) indicates no difference between the groups. Therefore it can conclude that ELP didn’t improve learner autonomy in this dimension. The fourth Dimension, Role of Teacher: Explanation/ Supervision, contained five items all of which dealt with the learner’s dependency on the teacher. In this dimension the increase in the mean score of the experimental group and \((t (58) = 3.10, p < 0.05)\) and the \(p\)-value \((.003 < .05)\) indicate that students have become less dependent on the teacher. Therefore, it can be inferred that the role of the teacher has become less and less important for the students as the study progressed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D1 Cnt</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.56</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>D2 Cnt</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20.33</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22.93</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3 Cnt</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22.06</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.78</td>
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<td>.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24.96</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4 Cnt</td>
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<td>15.36</td>
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<td>.003</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D6 Cnt</td>
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<td>8.06</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.236</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Statistics for The impact of multidimensional approach on dimensions of learner autonomy
As table 3 indicates, the mean scores of control group is 11.20 and in experimental group 11.36 in Dimension 5: Language Learning Activities. The sig (0.876 > 0.05) indicates that the student were less willing to do the classroom activities outside the classroom. In the sixth dimension: Selection of Content, which is based on the students' tendency toward sharing the responsibility for selecting the content and materials for their English lesson, the mean score of the control group posttest is 8.60 and in experimental group posttest is 9.13. In this dimension, based on the sig (0.237 > 0.05), it can be concluded that the portfolio writing didn’t effect on learners' autonomy in choosing of the content.

Dimension 7: Objectives/ Evaluation, involved three items which attempted to investigate the students' intrinsic motivation for language learning, the mean score of the control group is 6.86 and in experimental group post-test is 8.56. In this dimension, (t (58) = 4.04, p < 0.05) and the sig (.003 <.05) indicates that learners feel more confident about setting objectives for themselves, and accordingly this enhances their intrinsic motivation.

Dimension 8, Assessment/ Motivation, attempted to find out students’ attitudes toward external assessment and its role in motivating the students’ work. The increase in mean scores of the experimental group rather than control group and (t (58) = 2.53, p < 0.05) and the sig (.014 <.05) indicates the effectiveness of ELP on learner autonomy in this dimension, therefore, external assessment become less important in motivating the learners’ work. Dimension 9, Other Cultures, investigate the learners’ attitudes toward the culture of other countries. As table 3 shows that, the mean score of the control group posttest in dimension 9 is 10.30 and the mean score of the experimental group posttest is 13.66. In this dimension (t (58) = 2.99, p < 0.05) and the sig (.004 <.05) shows the meaningful increase in the experimental group on the post-test.

Another t-test was run to see if portfolio writing can improve learner autonomy in general. The result showed that the experimental group had higher scores rather than control group, which may referred a stronger orientation toward autonomy after the twenty-three session implementation span. Table 4.13 indicates the statistically significant (.012 < 0.05) difference between the mean values of the control group posttest score and experimental group posttest scores of LAQ.
Table 4 General Statistics for ALQ as a posttest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig(2-tailed)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dg-Cnt</td>
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<td>128.73</td>
<td>14.48</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dg-Exp</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>141.00</td>
<td>21.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Conclusion
The current research tries to investigate a way to improve learner autonomy in an Asian context which is assumed to be a teacher-centered one. European Language Portfolio was practiced as a way to develop learner autonomy. The results indicate that, European Language Portfolio can enhance learner autonomy in general and in all dimensions except dimensions three, five and six. The fact that it develops some of the dimensions and not all, calls for a more comprehensive approach to develop autonomy.

REFERENCES


ON THE VALIDITY OF IELTS WRITING COMPONENT; DO RATERS ASSESS WHAT THEY ARE SUPPOSED TO?

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ABSTRACT
Validity is a crucial test quality, and presenting a strong validity argument is a must and an ongoing process in the development of large-scale language tests such as IELTS and TOEFL. However, the presented validity evidence for writing and speaking skills, whose evaluation is subjective by nature, is somewhat shaky in comparison with other two skills. The present study was an attempt to examine whether raters are actually assessing test takers’ writing samples based on the constructs defined in the scoring rubric. Using a standard multiple regression, the predictive ability of three objective measures, namely Fluency, Grammatical complexity, and Accuracy, were checked for learners’ scores in IELTS task 2 in writing. The preliminary analysis showed no violation of the assumptions underlying the use of the multiple regression test. The results indicate that the model explains 50% of the variance in the dependent variable, i.e., learners’ scores in IELTS Task 2 in writing (adjusted $R^2 = .501$) which was found statistically significant: $F (3, 37) = 14.40, p < .001$. However, among the independent variables, only the accuracy measure had a statistically significant unique contribution to $R^2$ by 40%, indicating that accuracy of the texts written by L2 learners is the most important factor affecting the scores they receive in the writing task in IELTS. It seems that raters are so heavily affected by the accuracy of texts written by test takers that they ignore other text qualities specified in the scoring rubric.

KEYWORDS: IELTS writing test, Validity, Fluency, Grammatical complexity, Accuracy

Introduction
L2 construct and ability has been defined differently throughout time, and test design has continuously been adapted to the way the definition and conceptualization of L2 construct and ability has been presented. At the moment, it is held that communicative L2 ability consists of a number of subcompetencies which interact with each other in a language use situation; however, the exact number of these factors and the nature of their interaction is still a matter of dispute (Chalhoub-Devill, 2003).
No matter what definition of L2 construct test developers take, they need to provide a validity argument supported by different types of evidence backing the interpretation and use of test scores for their intended purpose (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999). Even reliability, which used to be regarded as a separate characteristic of a test, is now regarded as a type of validity evidence. When it comes to large-scale tests, which are usually high-stake tests as well, the role of consequential validity also becomes bold. As a result, different codes of practice have been released by different associations and professional groups to specify the professional responsibilities of test developers and ensure fair and well-constructed tests (Stoynoff, 2009). The Code for testing practices released in 2004 by Joint Committee on Testing Practices and the Code of ethics released in 2000 by the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) are among those. What follows is the summary of some of the endeavors to present evidence of validity for two of the most well-known large-scale tests, namely TOEFL and IELTS.

Literature Review

Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL™)

TOEFL was first launched in 1964 with only multiple choice questions on five sections to assess the English proficiency of non-native speakers for academic placement purposes in US. It was then in 1976 replaced by a three section version including Listening, Structure and Written Expression, and Reading Comprehension. Later, a direct test of writing was added to the test in 1986. The computer version of TOEFL was introduced in 1998 while the internet-based version was introduced in 2005 with more than 750,000 examinees taking it only in 2006 (Educational Testing Service, 2007a). Based on the released report by ETS in 2006, TOEFL iBT is used by over 5,000 entities in 90 countries for making decisions not all of which related to determining whether examinees possess the English proficiency needed to succeed in North American universities.

TOEFL iBT, having four sections (Reading, Listening, Speaking, and Writing), takes about 4 hours to complete and is computer-delivered but not computer-adaptive. It has some features that distinguishes it from the previous versions: “the addition of a Speaking section, elimination of a grammar component, inclusion of integrated tasks, adoption of new scales for reporting the Writing section score and total score, and availability of performance descriptions” (Stoynoff, 2009, p. 6).

While previous versions of TOEFL did not include a good theoretical rationale to support the test score interpretations and use, TOEFL iBT enjoys a much better and stronger position in this regard. More than 40 technical papers and monographs have been published on the validity of this test and the validity of the interpretation and use of the test scores only in the time period between 1997 and 2007 (Stoynoff, 2009).

Buck (2001), studying the Listening section of TOEFL CBT observed that the listening construct was underrepresented mostly due to the fact that the oral input was largely inauthentic and tasks did not require the examinees to apply what they heard to language use situations. However, the iBT version uses longer samples of spoken discourse with new item types assessing major aspects of the listening construct. Weigle (2002), examining the Writing section in TOEFL CBT, concluded that the construct was somewhat narrowly defined because the tasks were not defined for
writing for different purposes, audiences, and genres. They were limited to argumentative discourse only. However, in TOEFL iBT it is claimed that the writing construct is defined more broadly to include complex writing tasks requiring the use of different skills, pragmatic features of language use, and more rhetorical functions (Cumming, Kantor, Powers, Santos, & Taylor, 2000). Though natural oral interaction involves much more than what a computer delivered task of speaking can offer, iBT test developers tried to design a semi-direct assessment to elicit speaking performance. The speaking construct in iBT is defined “in terms of the knowledge and control of important phonological syntactic features, vocabulary, and discourse patterns encountered in academic contexts” (Stoynoff, 2009, p. 10).

Part of evidence for content validity of TOEFL comes from studies such as Rosenfield, Leung, and Oltman (2001) in which the tasks used in the four skills assessed in TOEFL were given to participants from 22 North American universities to be judged in terms of the relative importance of tasks in relation to the skills and academic performance in graduate and undergraduate courses. Others doing factor analysis showed that test items and parts in TOEFL iBT were functioning as intended (Sawaki, Sticker, & Oranje, 2008).

The inclusion and use of integrated tasks in Speaking and Writing sections of TOEFL iBT was also supported by the research carried out in this regard. It was shown that the constructs and abilities such test tasks were designed for were represented in the discourse of the responses given by examinees (Brown, Iwashita, McNamara, & O’Hagan, 2005; Cumming, Kantor, Baba, & James, 2006).

Regarding the reliability of the test scores and different sections of the test, ETS (2007b) reported a total score reliability of .95 with Reading and Listening sections having a reliability estimate of .86 and .87, respectively. Using Generalizability analysis, the reliability estimates for the Speaking and Writing sections were reported to be .90 and .78, respectively. It is worth mentioning that for these two sections, ETS uses multiple raters for the evaluation of examinees’ response samples.

**International English Language Testing System (IELTS)**

Three major institutes are responsible for researching, developing, administrating, and revising the IELTS test: University of Cambridge ESOL Examination, British Council, and International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges. The first version of IELTS was introduced in 1989, but based on the validation research done afterward, it was revised in 1995. As a result of ongoing validation research, the speaking and writing sections were later revised in 2001 and 2005, respectively (Taylor & Falvey, 2007). Only in the time period between 1995 and 2004, more than 55 studies were sponsored by responsible parties regarding the validation of IELTS test.

IELTS is said to be designed to assess the language ability of candidates who intend to work or study in a country in which English is the medium of communication (Cambridge ESOL, 2003). It comes in two forms or modules: General Training and Academic module. The general form is intended for those who want to work in or migrate to an English speaking country while the academic form is for those pursuing academic education in one of such countries. Only in 2003, more than 485,000 examinees took this test while it reached 1,000,000 in 2009 (Stoynoff, 2009).
Regarding the format of the test, IELTS consists of four sections: Listening, Reading, Writing, and Speaking. It takes about 4 hours to complete the test. The Listening and Speaking sections are the same in both modules while Reading and Writing sections are different in the two forms. The general training module follows the same format and procedure as the academic version; however, the passages in Reading section are taken from a more general sources such as newspapers, magazines, and public notices. The reading samples in the academic version, however, are more academic in nature and come from books and periodicals. Moreover, the nature of the two writing tasks in general module is slightly different from those in academic version. The first three sections, Listening, Reading, and Writing, must be completed in one go while the speaking test can be completed either on the same day as the other sections or up to 7 days before or after the completion of the rest of the test. The speaking and writing sections are assessed by trained raters under the supervision of Cambridge ESOL (Stoynoff, 2009).

Using Weir’s (2005) socio-cognitive framework, Cambridge ESOL attempted to develop an approach to gather validity evidence for all its examinations in 2008. It consisted of five elements of content validity, theory-based validity, scoring validity, consequential validity, and criterion-related validity, focusing on three dimensions of test taker characteristics, task response, and score. However, Stoynoff (2009, p. 18) believes that “IELTS does not include an explicit theoretical rationale to support the interpretation and use of test scores and one must infer the conceptualizations underlying the test constructs.”

Regarding the reading section, Alderson (2000) observed that the reading construct was defined as a set of efficient reading behaviors in relation to a variety of tasks. Another study observed that there existed a complex relationship between reading task performance and text characteristics, all affected by test taker characteristics (Clapham, 1996). It is held that the listening construct included the ability to understand the major points conveyed in conversations on a variety of topics on a number of different social, academic, and work situations. IELTS writing component is rated based on “task fulfillment, comprehensibility, fluency, grammaticality, and vocabulary” (Stoynoff, 2009, p. 19). The speaking section assumes test taker’s ability to produce comprehensible and fluent socially-appropriate language using their language knowledge considering the context and purpose of interaction (Taylor & Falvey, 2007).

In 2000, Chalhoub-Deville and Turner warned about the insufficiency of reliability evidence for IELTS. Since then more research has been conducted issuing reliability of different types for IELTS. Accordingly, the internal consistency for the Listening section administered in 2004 was reported to range between .83 and .91 with an average of .89 across all versions of the test. For the reading section it ranged from .83 to 90 with an average of .86 (Cambridge ESOL, 2006).

In 2005, O’Sullivan, examining ratings in Speaking and Writing sections, concluded that the reliability estimates were somewhat low. Though the reliability estimates reported for IELTS meet the minimum acceptable levels, Stoynoff (2009) states that in some cases the reliability data presented in reports do not include sufficient details to make judgments possible regarding the design or results of the investigations.
Purpose of the Study
As evident in the above-mentioned research, when it comes to skills such as writing and speaking, whose assessment entails a more subjective evaluation on the part of the raters, the conclusions and the evidence presented for the validity of the scores and their use and interpretation tend to be somewhat shaky.
When it comes to raters, parties involved in the development of such large-scale tests such as IELTS and TOEFL content themselves with reliability estimates only. The correlation between the scores given by two raters means not more than the fact that they are following similar patterns of high or low scores. However, neither does it indicate whether they are applying the same assessment criteria to the same samples of response, nor is it clear whether they are applying exactly what is specified in the scoring rubrics they are provided with for evaluation.
It seems that such tests are somewhat weak in the case of such validity evidence. The present study was an attempt to examine whether raters are in fact assessing the same constructs as defined in the scoring rubric of IELTS task 2 in writing. This can help support or question the validity of such an assessment. To do so, three measures of fluency, grammatical complexity, and accuracy were chosen.

Method
Participants
There were 41 upper intermediate students (27 female and 14 male) taking part in the present study. They were all majoring at English Literature at the University of Tehran. They were all Iranian but for a Chinese female student. Their age ranged from 20 to 24. All participants were taking part in a writing instruction program as part of their curriculum.

Procedure
During the first few sessions, the preliminaries of writing were taught to the participants, and using model essays, different parts and components of an essay were discussed and instructed. The base of the instruction was IELTS task 2 in writing. As such, learners were informed of the criteria based on which their writing samples were supposed to be evaluated and scored.
During class time, some of the learners’ writing samples were chosen and discussed with the whole class, and their weaknesses and strengths were pointed out. Each session, learners’ essays were collected, scored, and commented on by the teacher researcher. At the end of each session, the participants were assigned a new topic to write about for the following session. Their essays had to be at least 250 words long, typed and printed in an A4 paper. Learners’ essays were read by the researcher, and for the grammatical mistakes, learners were provided with indirect corrective feedback, i.e., the errors were underlined but not corrected. The participants were required to revise the drafts they had submitted based on the feedback they had received and return them to the teacher the following session. The samples used in the present study were those they wrote at their final exam at the end of the course of instruction.
In order to control for the handwriting effect on raters (Briggs, 1980; Bull & Stevens, 1979; Chase, 1968; Huck & Bounds, 1972; Hughes, Keeling, & Yuck, 1983; Klein & Taub, 2005; Markham, 1976; Marshall & Powers, 1969; Russell, 2002; Soloff, 1973), all essays written by participants in the final exam were typed before being rated. All the mistakes, no matter what type of mistake, were typed exactly as they were written by participants. All typed essays were coded by numbers so that it was impossible for the raters to identify the writer’s gender and identity. A detailed record of such information for each essay was kept by the researcher, however. All essays were given to two experienced raters to be rated based on IELTS task 2 writing scoring rubric. One of the raters was an official IELTS rater. They were asked to provide each writing sample with a score for each writing component in IELTS writing scoring rubric, namely, Task Response, Coherence and Cohesion, Lexical Resources, and Grammatical Range and Accuracy. The final score was calculated accordingly. It was the mean of the four scores. If the calculated mean ends up in .25 or .75, it is rounded up. If it is smaller than that, it is rounded to the lower half or complete band score. For example, the mean of 5, 5.5, 5, and 5.5 will be 5.25 which is rounded up and becomes 5.5. However, the mean of 6, 6, 6, and 6.5 is 6.125 which is rounded down to 6. The correlation between the two sets of scores given by raters was found to be 0.89.

Regarding the fluency measures, a number of measures were present to choose from. Chandler (2003) used the amount of time it took her participants to write an assignment. She did so because the length of each assignment was fixed. However, Truscott (2004) objected to that. He believes that the number of words must be the measure used to assess fluency. The studies done before Chandler (2003) had used the number of written words as the measure of fluency. In the present study, two measures were examined; the number of words written as approved by Truscott, and T-unit Length (W/T) as approved by Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, and Kim (1998) as the best measure of fluency. T-unit length is defined as the total number of words divided by total number of T-units.

In order to check for the complexity of texts written by students in both groups over time, two measures were examined as introduced by Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) as some of the best measures used in the literature: the ratio of the number of dependent clauses to the number of clauses, and the number of dependent clauses used.

Regarding the accuracy level of the written texts, the ratio of error-free T-units to the number of T-units was used as introduced by Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) as the best measure of accuracy.

In order to be consistent and accurate in counting the number of different elements such as T-units, error-free T-units, dependent clauses, and the number of clauses in participants’ samples, there had to be an operational definition for each. A dependent clause could be any type of adverb clauses, adjective clauses, or noun clauses. All reduced clauses were also counted. An independent clause was one which was complete in meaning and did not need any other clause to complete it. A T-unit was an independent clause with all the dependent clauses attached to it. As such, every sentence including only one independent clause was also a T-unit (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). An error-free T-unit was a T-unit which did not include any kind of error but for spelling and punctuation. All the writing samples were rated with only one rater.
for the measures in fluency, grammatical complexity, and accuracy. As Chandler (2003) states, in such studies, the intra-rater reliability is more important than the inter-rater reliability. The intra rater reliability for all the measures examined was above .94.

Data Analysis
In order to check the predictive ability of measures of fluency, grammatical complexity, and accuracy, a number of standard multiple regression tests were used. The reason for using this statistical test more than once was the existence of different measures of fluency and grammatical complexity. This way a more lucid image could be obtained.

Results
The first model included T-unit length as the measure of fluency, the ratio of the number dependent clauses to the number of clauses as the measure of grammatical complexity, and the ratio of error-free T-units to the number of T-units as the measure of accuracy.

The preliminary analysis showed no violation of the assumptions underlying the regression test. The correlation among independent variables was lower than .90 which indicates lack of multicollinearity. Moreover, the highest VIF was 1.73 and the lowest Tolerance value was .58 indicating lack of multicollinearity. Note that VIF should be less than 10, and Tolerance should not be less than .10 (Pallant, 2007). However, as it is evident in Table 1, the correlation between grammatical complexity and learners’ IELTS scores is very low. In fact there is no relationship between the two. Logically, this variable should be omitted from the model; however, for the purpose of answering the research question, it was kept in the model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>The Correlation between Variables in the First Model</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency W/T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>IELTS .34</td>
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<td>Fluency (W/T)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Complexity DC/C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>IELTS .01</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency (W/T)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Complexity DC/C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, the Normality P-P Plot shows that the assumption of normality was not violated (see Figure 1). No outlier was observed as well. The largest Mahalanobis Distance observed in the data was 7.50 which was much less than 16.27 as the critical value for Mahalanobis distance with 3 independent variables. Moreover, the largest Cook’s Distance was .13 which is much less than 1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
The model turned out to be able to significantly predict the values in the dependent variables. R Square is almost .54; however, since the sample size was not very large, we had better report adjusted R Square which is .50. It means that our model could explain 50 percent of the variance in the dependent variable, which is a considerable amount and is statistically significant, $F (3, 37) = 14.40, p = < .0005$.

Table 2 Model Summary for the First Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B Std. Error Beta T Sig.</td>
<td>Zero-order Partial Part</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant) 1.30 1.03 1.27 .212</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency W/T</td>
<td>.04 .06 .11 .75 .460 .340 .122 .083</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the independent variables, accuracy had the highest amount of unique contribution to the model (Beta = .73). While the contribution made by Accuracy was statistically significant, the contribution of the other two independent variables, namely, Fluency and Grammatical complexity did not reach statistical significance. By squaring Part for Accuracy, one can observe that this variable alone can explain more than 40 percent of the variance in the dependent variable. Table 3 summarizes the related data.
The second model included the number of words written as the measure of fluency, the number of dependent clauses used as the measure of grammatical complexity, and the ratio of the number of error-free T-units to the number of T-units as the measure of accuracy. The measure for accuracy was the same as the one in the first model. No underlying assumptions were violated in this model too. Multicollinearity was not observed, and the Normality P-P Plot showed normal distribution. Cook's and Mahalanobis distances showed the existence of no outliers. The correlation between variables, however, was somewhat different from those in the first model.

Table 4 The Correlation between Variables in the Second Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fluency</th>
<th>Complexity</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>No. Words</td>
<td>No. DC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Complexity DC</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second model could explain the variance in the dependent variable, i.e. learners’ IELTS scores a little better. The results indicate that this model can explains more than 55 percent of the variance in the dependent variable, which is statistically significant $F(3, 37) = 17.49, p < .0005$.

Table 5 Model Summary for the Second Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Std. Error of R</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjusted Rthe</td>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dimension02</td>
<td>.766</td>
<td>.586</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though in this model all independent variables showed a significant unique contribution to the model, accuracy still had the highest unique contribution much higher than the other two variables (Beta = .65). Squaring the $R^2$ measure, one can see that fluency, complexity, and accuracy can uniquely explain 8%, 5%, and 37% of the variance in learners’ IELTS scores respectively. This shows that even though the
contributions of the measures of fluency and grammatical complexity are statistically significant, they are of little practical significance and can be ignored as a result.

### Table 6 The Contribution of each Variable to the Second Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(.Constant)</td>
<td>.569</td>
<td>.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>- .051</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>- .382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>6.654</td>
<td>1.152</td>
<td>.653</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion

The two models tested using different measures of fluency, grammatical complexity, and accuracy showed that the one very factor playing an important role in the prediction of learners’ scores in IELTS writing test was the measure of accuracy. Though the measure of fluency and grammatical complexity in the second model turned out to be statistically significant, their small effect sizes show that they cannot be regarded as important predictors of learners’ performance in IELTS writing test. The low correlation between learners’ IELTS scores and measures of grammatical complexity confirms this.

However, the accuracy measure alone was able to predict about 40% of the variance in the dependent variable. The observed pattern of results is surprising since as the band descriptors for IELTS Task 2 in writing indicate, both accuracy and grammatical complexity receive a great deal of attention. The use of subordinate clauses is one of the main features distinguishing between different bands in the ‘grammatical range and accuracy’ component of IELTS writing scoring rubric: Uses a wide range of structures (Band 9 & 8); Uses a variety of complex structures (Band 7); Uses a mix of simple and complex sentence forms (Band 6); Uses only a limited range of structures (Band 5); Uses only a very limited range of structures with only rare use of subordinate clauses (Band 4) etc.

The same is true regarding the role of accuracy in IELTS scoring rubric. The last component in the writing rubric for task 2, namely ‘grammatical range and accuracy,’ includes phrases which indicate the role of the accuracy of the structures test takers use in distinguishing different band scores: Rare minor errors occur only as ‘slips.’ (Band 9); the majority of sentences are error-free; makes only occasional errors or inappropriacies (Band 8); has good control of grammar and punctuation but may make a few errors (Band 7); makes some errors in grammar and punctuation but they rarely reduce communication (Band 6); may make frequent grammatical errors and punctuation may be faulty; errors can cause some difficulty for the reader (Band 5), etc.

However, the same cannot be uttered regarding the measures of fluency. The most common objective measure of fluency in writing is the number of words written in a certain amount of time, which does not match what fluency can mean in a writing test.
A detailed and more inclusive definition of fluency in writing should include issues such as topic development, topic relevance, cohesion, and coherence. Therefore, for the objective measures of fluency not being able to predict learners’ scores in IELTS writing test was not unexpected mostly because the length of time and the minimum number of the words written are already specified in IELTS. Test takers are supposed to write at least 250 words in 40 minutes. However, for the measures of grammatical complexity, one would expect a better contribution. It seems that raters did not attend to this feature as they were required to. What seems to be the justification is the raters’ being so overwhelmed by the accuracy of learners’ written texts that they ignored the complexity of the structures they used.

The need to read twice a piece of text written by a non-native speaker of English with too many grammatical mistakes might be a familiar image to many. Usually, the first time one reads such a text, what catches his or her eyes is the obscure meaning as a result of too many grammatical mistakes. Only after resolving such problems one will attend to the content. It seems that in the present study, almost the same thing happened. The raters were so heavily affected by the accuracy of the texts written that they ignored the complexity of the structures used.

This is not something new. Evaluation has always been affected by numerous factors most of which of no interest to the stakeholders involved. The literature is full of attempts to identify and minimize the effect of such factors. In most approaches to assessment, Stakeholder try to make the task of rating as objective as possible. However, as far as human raters, even trained raters, are involved, the task of judging learners’ performance will be more or less subjective. Raters are affected as much by their cultural contexts and experiences as by the quality of students’ writings (Weigle, 2002). Research has shown that even where texts are double marked, raters can differ in what they look for in writing and the standards they apply to the same text (Weigle, 2002). Raters’ background experience may also affect raters’ judgments. Raters from different disciplines have been observed to apply different criteria to nonnative English writing samples (Brown, 1991; Mendelsohn & Cumming, 1987; Santos, 1988; Sweedler-Brown, 1993). Also, raters familiar with L1 rhetorical conventions tend to be more accepting of L2 essays showing L1 traces in comparison with other raters (Hinkel, 1994; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1999).

Raters have been found to assign higher scores to hand-written essays in comparison with those prepared by word-processors (Arnord et al. 1990; Briggs, 1980; Bull & Stevens, 1979; Chase, 1968; Huck & Bounds, 1972; Hughes, Keeling, & Yuck, 1983; Klein & Taub, 2005; Markham, 1976; Marshall & Powers, 1969; Powers, Fowles, Farnum, & Ramsey, 1994; Russell, 2002; Russell & Plati, 2000; Sloan & McGinnis, 1978; Soloff, 1973) although Peacock (1988), Peterson and Low (1991), and Sweedler-Brown (1991) observed that grades assigned to typed essays were higher than those written by hand. Russell and Plati (2000) found that essays typed in double-spaced format received higher scores in comparison with those typed in single-spaced format, but still lower than essays written by hand.

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There are many other factors such as students’ gender (Bolger & Kellaghan, 1990; Manke & Loyd, 1990; Natriello & McDill, 1986), their ethnic background (Keith &
Reimers, 1986), socioeconomic status (Jussim & Eccles, 1992), and behavior (Manke & Loyd, 1990) which have been found to affect raters’ judgements. Vaughan (1992), identifying different approaches in holistic assessment of written samples like ‘first impression dominates approach’ and ‘grammar-oriented rater,’ states that while it is possible for raters to agree on many essays based on a given test rubric in holistic assessment, they tend to fall back on their own rating style for the essays which do not fit the rubrics. In addition, the number of levels in a scale that raters can accurately distinguish is limited. The more levels exist in a scale, the more difficult it becomes for the raters to decide accurately. Penny, Johnson, and Gordon (2000) state that “it seems possible, and, moreover, it seems likely that the length of a scale may affect measurement error, serving to increase the error component of variance when the scale length surpasses the ability of raters to discriminate between levels of proficiency” (p.147).

Still another factor affecting raters is their rating experience. Keech and McNelly (1982) comparing the holistic rating of three rater groups found that students’ (group 1) ratings were significantly lower than those of teachers (group 2), and novice teachers’ (group 3) ratings were in between. Moreover, Sweedler-Brown (1985) observed that rater trainers were harsher in their assessment of L2 writings than less experienced raters. Cumming (1990) reports the same findings in the case of L2 and Breland and Jones (1984) did so for L1.

Conclusion
The fact that raters are heavily affected by the accuracy of the texts foreign language learners write can imply a number of points for different individuals involved in the task of writing assessment. First of all, all language learners wishing to take part in IELTS test should be aware of the importance raters attach to accuracy of the texts test takers write. A piece of text with too many mistakes can make their grades suffer extensively while a text with very accurate structures, even though simple, can help them score very high. The findings of this study also entail that language evaluation stakeholders be more cautious about the factors affecting their raters. When scoring rubrics are made and it is claimed that they are in fact measuring some specified construct, the way such rubrics are used must indicate the validity and reliability of the assessment. However, if raters are in fact not dealing with constructs claimed to be assessed, the validity of the decisions made based on the results of such tests is under question. This is something rater trainers and rating training programs should be aware of. Research shows that the effect of most of the factors affecting raters which are not relevant to the construct of the measurement can be minimized or even removed by training raters. Finally, it seems that a more thorough definition of fluency needs to be developed for the purpose of assessing writing skill. The present definitions in the form of the length of the texts written or the length of T-units or clauses do not seem to be able to capture the reality of a piece of writing at least in terms of such text features as topic development, topic relevance, cohesion, and coherence.
REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF SELF-ASSESSMENT ON SELF-REGULATION AND CRITICAL THINKING OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
The present paper investigated the effectiveness of self-assessment on self-regulation and critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners. To attain the purpose of the study, 40 EFL learners from three language schools were selected to participate in the study. It was determined that they were at the high-level of language proficiency. The participants were requested to complete the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) (Brown, Miller & Lawendowski, 1999) and the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) (Facione & Facione, 1992). They were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups, each including twenty students. After the pre-test, the experimental group received instruction on self-assessment of writing through raising their knowledge and awareness on some self-assessment techniques. SRQ and CCTST were given to the participants a week after the treatment. The findings revealed that students gained higher self-regulation and critical thinking in writing tasks as a result of instruction on and application of self-assessment techniques in writing. In addition, the results demonstrated that self-assessment techniques had more significant influence on EFL learners’ self-regulation than their critical thinking. Furthermore, data analyses indicated that there was a link between self-regulation and critical thinking among the participants. The findings have implications for pedagogy as well as further research.

KEYWORDS: Self-assessment, Self-regulation, Critical thinking, EFL learners.
1. Introduction

In recent decades, an increasing interest in investigating personality factors and learning styles related to foreign language achievement has been observed. In fact, recent research studies in the field of educational psychology are paying attention to learning styles as ways in which they can increase levels of language achievement. Among learning styles, self-regulation and critical thinking are two of the most important elements in these research studies, because a self-regulated person who can think critically, can learn more effectively and easily in a shorter period of time than a person who does not possess these traits (Dickinson, 1987; Zimmerman, 2000). The role of self-regulation and critical thinking in improving academic success of students are emphasized in a large number of studies (e.g. Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000; Henderson, 2001; Halpern, 2002; Hongladarom, 2002; Duron, et al., 2006; Schraw, Crippen & Hartley, 2006).

Despite the unanimous agreement over the critical role of CT and self-regulation, how to cultivate them in educational setting is a question which needs serious forethought. According to Gardner (1999) self-assessment has significance in improving the learners to be autonomous language learners. In fact, self-assessment could be an instrument for personal self-monitoring. By the use of it, learners can earn direct feedback to identify their language ability and to select suitable learning strategies because “one of the fundamental elements of self-directed language learning is the opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them to focus on their own learning” (Harris, 1997, p.12). Additionally, as Harris (1997) argues, self-assessment can improve self-regulation because “one of the fundamental elements of self-directed language learning is the opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them to focus on their own learning” (p.12).

Therefore, it seems that self-assessment is one of techniques which can improve self-regulation. In addition, Paul, Elder and Bartell (1997) found a relationship between self-assessment and CT. They suggest that one of important factors to CT is self-assessment. As they maintain, critical thinkers are those who learned to assess their own thinking. It also can be concluded that since implied in the definition of CT, it is to enhance individuals ask appropriate questions and evaluate their own learning. Self-assessment may contribute to such purpose. As a result, it seems that self-assessment can help the learners enhance their self-regulation and CT, they can be able to overcome learning in new situations like foreign language learning which seems to be challenging for them.

In our country, Iran, some research studies have been done which have investigated the relationship between self-regulation and CT (e.g. Ghanizadeh, 2011; Ghanizadeh & Mirzaee, 2012) yet there is a no experimental research study which have explored the ways to cultivate these two constructs. So, self-assessment is a suggested way to develop self-regulation and CT by the present research. It should
be added that since self-assessment is a skill which has typically been investigated in the context of writing skill and because writing is one of the most important skills in foreign language learning, in the present study the connection between self-regulation and CT and self-assessment is explored in a writing course.

In sum, the major purpose of the present study was to examine the impact of writing self-assessment on self-regulation as well as CT of Iranian EFL learners. The study also investigated the relationship between EFL students' self-regulation and CT. Besides, the issue which was explored in this study was to determine which construct is more significantly influenced by self-assessment.

2. Review of the literature

2.1. Self-regulation

Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) define self-regulation as learners’ self-generated thought, feelings and behaviors which are organized systematically toward achievement of educational goals. Self-regulated learning theory derived from social-cognitive learning theory introduced by Bandura (1997). Like social-cognitive learning theory, self-regulated learning theory emphasizes changing a dependent learner to autonomous one. The other similarities of these two theories are their focuses on all cognitive, motivational, and metacognitive skills. Moreover, these skills are used to evaluate and achieve the learners’ goals by the use of varieties of strategies and motivational beliefs.

Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) believe that self-regulation changes during the life span, like other characteristics of human being. Beside, Azevedo et al. (2010, as cited in Schraw, 2010) claim that self-regulation is a dynamic process that constantly changes over time. So, it needs different varieties of measurement strategies that span all phases of self-regulation as learners’ preparation for learning, construct meaning, monitor, and integrate what they have learned.

Like the general domain education in EFL and ESL context, self-regulatory skills have been found to be associated with the students' achievement. In fact, during the recent years, many interesting research studies have been done on the improvement of how second or foreign language learners can regulate their own learning to facilitate their learning process. Chularut and DeBacker (2003) explored the effect of self-regulation strategies on ESL students’ language learning. The findings revealed self-regulation strategies had significant impact on ESL students’ language learning.

In the same line, Talebinezhad and Mousapour Negari (2009) investigated the effects of concept mapping as a self-regulation strategy on EFL students’ metacognitive self-regulation, time and study environment, effort regulation, peer learning, and help seeking. To indentify students’ self regulation, the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was used. The findings showed that the explicit instruction of the concept mapping strategy helped students to gain higher level of self-regulation in writing tasks.
2.2. Critical thinking

CT has become a rapidly growing concept in education in recent research. Nowadays, CT is one of the main concepts under consideration in education. In the past, it has been mostly investigated in first language learning context, but today, it has been recognized to have a significant role in second and foreign language learning and teaching as well.

CT is not a new concept; its root goes back to Socrates’ ideas about teaching approach 2500 years ago. He believed that the realities of things were different from what they were in appearance and to see and understand the reality of things the human mind should be trained. During 15th and 16th centuries a large number of European scholars tried to employ CT about different concepts like human nature, religion, art and so on. They discussed that this kind of thinking needed to analyze evaluate and judge. In the 20th century, CT was investigated more seriously and after that till now its importance is increasingly emphasized (Paul, Elder & Bartell, 1997). Nowadays, it is widely recognized that CT has become a necessary ingredient in all educational levels. Educators emphasized that one of the desirable goals of education is students’ ability to think critically (Hongladarom, 2002).

Although there is no agreement regarding the concept of CT, there is agreement on its significant role in academic success (e.g. Blank, 2000; Duron, et al., 2006; Hongladarom, 2002; Kuhn, 1999; Nichols et. al., 1997). Based on Schafersman (1991), this is one of the aims of education which has often been neglected. As he maintains, an educational system should enable learners think effectively about different subject matters. This means that they should be taught “how to think”. Having such a purpose in mind, CT provides an opportunity for students to “ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the word to live in and act successfully in it” (p.2).

In recent years, there have been various research studies which have explored the role of different factors on improvement of CT ability or the role of CT in academic achievement. In a study by Jodeiri (2005) the correlation between CT and writing proficiency of Iranian EFL students was investigated. The results of this research indicated that there is a positive and significant relationship between CT ability and writing proficiency of Iranian EFL students.

In a research conducted by Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010) the relationship between CT ability and evaluating their professional success by the students was explored. The teachers’ professional successes were measured by the Successful Iranian EFL Teacher Questionnaire (SIETQ). The results showed a significant and positive relationship between the CT ability and evaluating their professional success by the students.

Rezaee, Farahian and Ahmadi (2012) conducted a research which had two parts. In the first part, CT skill was investigated in two groups, experimental group, who were junior education students, received California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) while the control group who were freshman did not receive. The
researchers’ hypothesis was that experimental group did not perform significantly better than did control group. Another part of this study was investigating about the fact whether the teachers of these students were aware of the principles of CT. To conduct this part of research, an interview was used. The participants of this part were eight volunteering faculty members in the department of education. The finding suggested that these instructors not only were highly valued CT, but also were aware of its tenets, but they did not teach to the students and students had not a situation to practice CT in classrooms.

2.3. Self-assessment
Along with the theories of learner autonomy, growing interest in the use of self-assessment techniques in second and foreign language learning and teaching has emerged. From an educational viewpoint, knowing what to learn and how to learn is an important factor to learn efficiently. Learners need to know about their abilities, degree of progress they are making and applications of the skills they have acquired. Without such information, they may not learn efficiently. Self-assessment may contribute to such an aim.

Smith (1997) emphasizes the importance of self-assessment and argues by using it Students become deeply self-motivated and independent learners. They become honest with themselves when goal setting. Therefore, as mentioned above, self-assessment techniques can give a lot of valuable information to be served in learning and teaching process.

In the same vein, significance of self-assessment in improving language learners’ autonomy is emphasized by the Gardner (1999). He claims that self-assessment can be an instrument for personal self-monitoring. In fact, learners can earn direct feedback to identify their language ability and select suitable learning strategies. He warns that “There are great benefits to be derived from self-assessment but it is a technique that needs to be introduced carefully and accompanied by considerable awareness raising and support” (p.49).

In another research, Birjandi and Hadidi Tamjid (2010) aimed to explore the impact of self-assessment in Iranian EFL learners’ motivation improvement. The researchers selected journal writing as a technique of self-assessment. Journal writing as a self-assessment technique was used in the experimental group. At the end by analyzing data, the finding indicated that self-assessment had a significant role in improving the learners’ motivation.

2.4. Self-regulation and critical thinking
Self-regulation and CT are among the most important elements discussed in recent related literature and are believed to be inter related because a self-regulated person who can think critically, can learn more effectively and easily in a shorter period of time than a person who does not possess these features (Dickinson, 1987; Zimmerman, 2000). There are some theoretical contentions including a relationship between self-regulation and CT in learning. For example, Phan (2010) believed that "critical thinking, as a cognitive practice, helps in self-regulation in learning (p.228). He claimed that CT is linked with the applying of higher-order strategies. One of these
strategies is self-regulating strategies which used for analyzing information and evaluating class activities. In the field of education and instruction, Astleitner (2002) argued that in order to develop CT abilities effective programs are needed to support self-regulation activities.

According to Butler (2002) the first thing for the improvement of self-regulation is developing students’ capacity to analyze tasks and to analyze the task they need to employ CT. Watson and Glaser (2002) maintain that the ability to thinking critically is directly related to other abilities, for instance, deduction of factual statements, finding main assumptions and interacting between them in a series of statements, interpreting and evaluating the context. And all of these abilities are interrelated with self-regulation according to Zimmerman’s (2000) definition of self-regulation: "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (p. 14).

Ghanizadeh (2011) explored the possible relationship between self-regulation and CT ability of Iranian EFL teachers’ in language institutes or not. The author used the 'Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal' and the 'Teacher Self-Regulation Scale' anonymously as instruments to collect data. The results supported the relationship between self-regulation and CT. Furthermore, there were positive correlations between teachers' self-regulation, their teaching experience, and their age.

In the same line, Ghanizadeh and Mirzaee (2012) also studied the relationship between self-regulation, CT ability in Iranian EFL learners and language achievement. The participants were asked to complete the Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal and the Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire. And also, the average grade of their previous term is earned. The results showed significant correlation between self-regulation and CT. Besides, the results indicated that self-regulation and CT of EFL learners' can predict the learners’ language achievement to some extent.

2.5. Self-assessment and self-regulation

Self-assessment and self-regulation seem to be linked with each others. Based on Boekaerts, Pintrich and Zeidner (2000) self-regulation has cognitive, affective, motivational, and behavioral components which help the individuals to manage their behaviors and achieve desired goals. So, self-regulation is needed to carry out self-assessment. In fact, self-assessment involves planning, monitoring, revising, and evaluating which are all self-regulatory strategies. Furthermore, according to Harris (1997) “one of the fundamental elements of self-directed language learning is the opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them to focus on their own learning” (p.12). Therefore, based on Harris’ explanation, it seems that self-assessment is one of techniques which can improve self-regulation.

In the same line, in related to importance of self-assessment in writing to improve self-regulation Cresswell (2000) argues that such techniques help to enhance students’ awareness of self-monitoring and this awareness gives them positive feedback about their own learning. Besides, according to Schraw and Moshman (1995)
one of the most stages of regulation of cognition is self-record and evaluation of learning process that is referred to self-assessment techniques. Zimmerman (2002) also introduces three phases for self-regulated processes, one of these phase is performance phase which involves selecting a suitable methods and self-record of personal events. Then Zimmerman knows self-assessment as one of important elements to self-regulated processes. Indeed, self-report measures may provide the best window into learners’ minds in order to understand why they self-regulated as they do” (shcraw, 2010, p.2).

2.6. Self-assessment and critical thinking

The effective part of CT in education is an evaluation component (Halpern, 2002) and evaluation is one part of self-assessment process. Moreover, Paul, Elder and Bartell (1997) maintain that one of important factors to CT is self-assessment and critical thinkers are those who learned to assess their own thinking. A person who is critical thinker is able to monitor, analyze, and judge and also can select the best ways. Therefore, critical thinker can be better self-assessor. In fact, Self-assessment means giving the opportunity to the learners to assess their own progress and focus on their own learning (Harris, 1997) and learners need to think critically to use this opportunity effectively.

Additionally, Campbell, Dewall, Roth, and Stevens (1998) maintain that self-assessments “provided students with a greater sense of ownership of their work, a more enthusiastic approach to learning, and the increased use of higher-order thinking” (p. 1). From above explanation it can be resulted that self-assessment causes to increase higher-order thinking or CT. In the same vein, Smith (1997) emphasizes the importance of self-assessment and argues that it helps to students become independent learners and one of the most characteristics of independent learners is to think critically.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

A total of 40 Iranian EFL learners participated in this study. They were students who were studying English at three different language schools; Mahde Zaban branch one, Mahde Zaban branch two and Ghazal Institute in Kermanshah, a city in the west of Iran. They were randomly selected among the students who were reported to be high-level learners. The TOEFL test was explored to make sure whether the participants were homogeneous in terms of language proficiency. Students whose score were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were admitted to this program and were regarded as high-level proficiency group. The age range participants varied from 18 to 23 years old. There were 29 females and 11 males. They were all native speakers of Persian and learners of English as a foreign language.

3.2. Instrumentation

The instruments that were used in this study consisted of: TOEFL Actual test, self-assessment checklist (Jacobs et al., 1981), California Critical Thinking Skills Test
(CCTST) (Facione & Facione, 1992), and the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) (Brown, Miller & Lawendowski, 1999).

In order to check the homogeneity of the two groups, first an Actual test of TOEFL (2004) was administered. The test involved 140 multiple-choice items. It had 3 parts; the first part was listening comprehension that included 50 items. The second part was structure and written expression including 40 items and the third part was reading comprehension with 50 items. For each question one point was assigned and the time allocated to take this test was 100 minutes; 40 minutes for the first, 25 minutes for the second and 35 minutes for the third part.

Self-assessment check-list was the next instrument which given to the students. This check list was adopted from Jacobs et al.’s writing scale (1981). It involved 10 questions. The next instrument is a Jacobs et al.’s writing scale (1981) which includes five parts about the writing components which are rated in analytical method of writing scoring. This scale assesses students’ ability in five aspects of their writing ability including: organization; content; vocabulary; language use; mechanics.

To measure Critical Thinking the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) (Facione & Facione, 1992, as cited in Rezaee, et al., 2012) was used. The test involved 34 multi-choice questions. The reliability and validity of the test were reported to be reasonable. In fact, the test coefficient for reliability was .62. (Khalli & Hossein Zadeh, 2003, as cited in Rezaee, et al., 2012). This test measured 5 factors including Analysis, Evaluation, Inference, Inductive and Deductive Reasoning.

Another instrument was Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) (Brown, Miller & Lawendowski, 1999). The SRQ involved 63-items to assess the self-regulatory processes through self-report. These items were developed to answer each of the seven sub-scales of the SRQ. Sub-scales collected relevant information, evaluating the information and comparing it to the norms, triggering change, searching for options, formulating a plan, implementing the plan and assessing the plan’s effectiveness that recycled to the first step. Students answered the items by indicating one of five choices ranging from a score of one to a score of five (on a Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree).

3.3. Procedures

As the first step, students who were studying at advanced level in three language institutes were asked to participate in the study. The researcher asked the students not to write their names on the questionnaire so that no one would be aware of what each student’s grade was. Therefore, a code was assigned to each learner. Moreover, the researcher emphasized the importance of the students’ honest responses and real grades in reaching reliable outcomes of the study. The participants also were assured that their grades would not be used in any purpose other than this study. The TOEFL test was administered to make sure about homogeneity of students. Students were asked to answer the test in 100 minutes. The result of this test revealed that out of 60 students, 40 students whose score were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were homogeneous and chosen as the participants of the study. The 40 selected
participants were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups, 20 in the experimental group, and 20 in the control group.

As the next phase of the study, both groups were asked to answer the two questionnaires; California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) and Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ). They were given 50 minutes to answer the CCTST. Then the students rest for 15 minutes and after that they were given 60 minutes for SRQ.

In the next section, the participants (in both groups) were asked to write a composition containing at least 150 words for each session. In fact, they wrote two compositions in each week and the whole process of writing composition continued six weeks (12 sessions). The students in the experimental and control groups were all exposed to the same content and the topics. The topics were chosen from the Interchange textbook. There was only one difference and that was self-assessment training the students in the experimental group received. So, self-assessment techniques were utilized for the experimental group as the treatment.

Before starting the experiments, the participants were given some instructions on assessing their compositions. As instruction, the researcher gave some explanations about the items of the checklist. Then to give a vivid idea to the participants regarding self-assessment, the researcher answered a checklist based on a composition as model. The experimental group assessed themselves based on the checklist. By the use of the checklist, they were providing feedback on their strengths and weaknesses to their instructors about their writing during the study, and the instructor provided the necessary feedback to the students at the end of each checklist in a written form. The feedback involved some written explanations about different sections of writing composition based on their weakness points (i.e., topic sentence, support sentences, introduction, body, conclusion, spelling, punctuation). Therefore, the assumption was that they would have better awareness of their process of writing and could overcome their weaknesses. The researcher collected compositions and checklists each session from the experimental group. The control group did not receive the treatment. In fact, their compositions were scored just by their instructor like the conventional writing courses. Finally, at the end of six weeks of treatment, all both groups were asked to answer the two questionnaires, CCTST and SRQ as the post test.

3.4. Data analysis

In the next step, the data was analyzed. The data was analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics. All data were processed using version 17.0 SPSS software. In order to analyze the impact of self-assessment on self-regulation and CT, a set of statistical procedures including mean, median, standard deviation, frequency, standard error of mean as well as independent t-tests were used. Also, Pearson correlation was used to analyze data to indicate the relationship between self-regulation and CT and, if any, to investigate the reliability of self-regulation and CT questionnaires, Corenbach’s alpha formula through SPSS was explored.
4. Results

This chapter is devoted to the description of the statistical analyses which were performed to answer the question formulated for the purpose of this research. All the data were processed using version 17.0 SPSS software.

The following analyses were done to answer the first research question.

Does self-assessment in writing have a significant impact on Iranian EFL learners’ CT?

**Table 1 Paired Samples Test Descriptive Statistics of CT in experimental group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13.5500</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.7181</td>
<td>1.05500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.3000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.0665</td>
<td>.90931</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2 Paired Samples Test Independent t-test of CT in experimental group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.337</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.89514</td>
<td>-5.60486</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the paired t-test revealed a significant gain for the experimental group. The Sig. < .05 so the participants in this group improved their CT noticeably. And as it observed in the table above, the mean scores on pretest and posttest of CT in experimental group were compared. The mean score in pretest was 13.55 and in post test was 20.30. So, the mean difference was 6.75. This shows that the treatment had significant effect on students’ CT.

**Table 3 Paired Samples Statistics Descriptive Statistics of CT in control group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13.1000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.06890</td>
<td>1.35705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Downloaded from mjltm.org at 11:42 +0430 on Friday August 16th 2019
Based on table 3 and 4, the results of the paired t-test did not reveal a significant gain for the control group. The Sig. was .20 and higher than .05 so the CT of this group was not changed significantly. Based on the table above, the mean scores on pretest and posttest of CT in control group were compared. The mean score in pretest was 13.10 and in post test was 13.45. There was no significant difference between them. So, the CT of control group was not significantly improved. As a result, based on above explanation the first hypothesis was accepted. To answer the second research question the following analyses were run.

Q2: Does self-assessment in writing have a significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' self-regulation?

### Table 5 Paired Samples Statistics Descriptive Statistics of self-regulation in experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre test</td>
<td>203.8000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24.77393</td>
<td>5.53962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post test</td>
<td>213.5000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.56569</td>
<td>22.56569</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 6 Paired Samples Test Independent t-test of self-regulation in experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>post test</td>
<td>13.4500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.19973</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.36534</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to table 5 and 6, the results of the paired t-test revealed a significant gain for the experimental group. The Sig. is 0.003 < .05 so the participants in this group improved their self-regulation noticeably. And as it is based on tables above, the mean scores on pretest and posttest of self-regulation in experimental group were compared. The mean score in pretest was 203.80 and in post test was 213.50 and the mean difference was 9.70. This shows that the treatment had significant effect on students' self-regulation.

Table 7 Paired Samples Statistics Descriptive Statistics of self-regulation in control group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre test</td>
<td>208.5500</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.2364</td>
<td>3.4070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post test</td>
<td>208.7000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.0056</td>
<td>3.3553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 Paired Samples Test Independent t test of self-regulation in control group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre test-post test</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.15000</td>
<td>.6708</td>
<td>.15000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on table 7 and 8, the results of the paired t-test did not reveal a significant gain for the control group. The Sig. was higher than .05 so the self-regulation of this group was not changed significantly. Based on the tables above, the mean scores on pretest and posttest of self-regulation in control group were compared. The mean score in pretest was 208.55 and in post test was 208.70 and the mean difference was .15. So, there was no significant difference between them and it can be resulted that the self- regulation of control group was not significantly
changed. As a result the second hypothesis was accepted. To answer the third research question, following analyses were done.

Q3: Between self-regulation and CT, which one is more influenced by writing self-assessment?

Table 2 Paired Samples Test Independent t-test of CT in experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t  df  Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Lower Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>12.337 19 .0001 6.75000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.89514 -5.60486</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 Paired Samples Test Independent t-test of self-regulation in experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t  df  Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15.68985 -3.71015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on above tables, the mean difference between pre test and post test of CT in experimental group was 6.75 and the mean difference between pre test and post test of self-regulation in experimental group was 9.70. So, the mean difference between pre test and post test of self-regulation was higher than the mean difference between pre test and post test of CT. This means that between self-regulation and CT, self-regulation was more influenced by self-assessment. As a result, the third hypothesis was rejected. To answer the fourth research question, following analyses were done.

Q4: Is there any relationship between EFL students' self-regulation and CT?
To investigate the relationship between EFL learners’ CT and their self-regulation, a Pearson product-moment correlation was applied.

**Table 9  
Correlations between CT and self-regulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>critical thinking</th>
<th>self regulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.604**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.604**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Based on table 9, the Sig. is .00 < .01. So the results of correlation revealed that there was a significant correlation between CT and self-regulation. Therefore, the fifth hypothesis was accepted.

To investigate the reliability of self-regulation and CT questionnaires the following analysis was done.

**Table 10 Cronbach’s alpha test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>( \alpha )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self regulation</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on table 10, Cronbach’s alpha (\( \alpha \)) for self regulation and CT scales were calculated with the value presented (\( \alpha = .76 \)) and (\( \alpha = .71 \)). In both cases, (\( \alpha \)) were higher than .60. It means that the self-regulation and CT questionnaires that were used in this research had acceptable reliable range.

5. Conclusion

Finding ways to cultivate self-regulation and CT in educational setting has various positive consequences because of their important roles in academic success. According to Gardner (1999), self-assessment has a great significance in improving learners’ autonomy. In fact, self-assessment could be regarded as an instrument for personal self-monitoring. By employing self-assessment techniques, learners can earn direct feedback to identify their language ability and to select suitable learning strategies. In the same vein, Harris (1997) argues that self-assessment can improve self-regulation because “one of the fundamental elements of self-directed language learning is the opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them to focus on their own learning” (p.12). Paul, Elder and Bartell (1997) also
refer to a relationship between self-assessment and CT. They suggest that one of important factors to CT is self-assessment. As they maintain, critical thinkers are those who have learned to assess their own thinking. It also can be concluded that as it is implied in the definition of CT, it helps individuals enhance individuals ask appropriate questions and evaluate their own learning. All in all, based on the relevant literature it seems that self-assessment can help the learners enhance their self-regulation and CT.

The findings of this study provide practical implications and suggestions for EFL learners, teachers, educators and administrators to improve qualities of material, syllabus design and learning processes by cultivating CT and self-regulation among EFL students. Learners and teachers are recommended to develop and integrate the abilities related to self-regulation and CT in and out of the classroom context through different procedures of self-assessments in writing such as self-assessment check list or other self-assessment techniques such as concept mapping, portfolio and journal writing. The use of these techniques not only may result in the development of CT and self-regulation, but also may encourage learners to gain a better control of their own learning.

Furthermore, improving CT and self-regulation by the use of self-assessment techniques may have a great significance in helping learners to be autonomous language learners. This may lead learners earn direct feedback from their teachers and reflect on their language abilities. This is in line with Harris (1991) who states that “one of the fundamental elements of self-directed language learning is the opportunity given to learners to assess their own progress and thus help them to focus on their own learning” (Harris, 1997, p.12).

As a result, if learners are explicitly or implicitly taught some techniques to enhance self-regulation and CT, they would be able to overcome learning in new situations like foreign language learning which seems to be a demanding task for them. Moreover, using self-assessment techniques which help EFL learners improve their self-regulation and CT may establish balance of power between teachers and learners in the classroom. In fact, by the use of self-assessment techniques, assessment is not just a teacher's job. This helps the teachers to reduce their workload and also helps to the learners to increase their involvement in classroom activities. It also could help to construct more suitable curriculum for educational system through giving valuable information about how to administrate and practice the curricula and also to specify learning methods and learning materials considering two important construct of self-regulation and CT.

The other conclusion drawn from the findings of this study is that promoting EFL learners' CT abilities correlates with the self-regulation enhancement in the learners. Therefore, by focusing on activities linked to promoting CT abilities, the learners may improve their self-regulation as well. In sum, it is hoped that language teachers in EFL contexts will consider the significant role of self-regulation and CT in promoting self-directed learning and the positive impact of self-assessment on improvement of these two constructs.
REFERENCES


A READER-RESPONSE APPROACH TO READING: DOES IT HAVE AN EFFECT ON METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES?

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ABSTRACT
Metacognitive reading strategies have been found to play an important role in foreign language reading comprehension. As such, attempts have been made to integrate them in second language as well as English as Foreign Language (EFL) courses. Based on the assumption that a reader-response approach as a non-interventionist strategy may result in readers’ interaction with the text and consequently lead to the improvement of learners’ metacognitive reading strategies, this study investigated the effect of a reader-response approach on EFL learners’ metacognitive reading strategies. The participants were divided into two groups and both groups were given the metacognitive reading questionnaire (MARSI). After the experimental group received the treatment both groups took the MARSI again as the posttest. The findings revealed that the application of reader-response theory has a significant effect on EFL readers’ metacognitive reading strategies.

KEYWORDS: Metacognitive reading strategies, reader-response theory, EFL learners

1. Introduction
Apart from the crucial role reading plays in one’s daily life in the first language, it is regarded as an important skill in education especially in the second and foreign language teaching. Various studies have made attempt to investigate the nature of processes involved in second language reading. Although much is to be revealed regarding the nature of second language reading comprehension, lots of factors involved in SL reading have been investigated and revisited. The current models of reading, unlike the traditional view which regarded text as the main source of input and considered readers as passive recipients of the input, describe
the reader as an active agent who interacts with the text. In the new perspective, reading is considered as a combination of varying processes or components such as linguistic, purposeful, evaluative, and interactive which define reading comprehension (Grabe, 2009). Moreover, it has been found out that both lower order processes such word recognition and higher order ones including metacognitive strategies are responsible for reading. To put it into another perspective, Griffith and Ruan (2005) explain that skilled reading is comprised of the interaction of both micro and macro-processes. Based on the processes the reader focuses on what author has produced at the sentence level. He also makes inferences and relates the information he has taken from the text to the prior knowledge. As Griffith and Ruan maintain, the execution of both processes needs attention and decision making from the side of the reader. In Griffith and Ruan’s term, decisions such as “when to reread a portion of text, when and what type of inference to make, what information of importance to retain in memory and what information of lesser importance to discard, when to move on in the reading of text and at what rate” (p.5) should be made. Accordingly, selection and allocation of cognitive recourses needs metacognition.

1.1. Metacognition
Metacognition which has become a highly debated area of research and experimentation in cognitive psychology can simply be defined as thought about the thought (Louca-Papaleontiou, 2008). Learners who are metacognitively aware can spot check their learning process and in an ongoing process gain control on their problem solving behavior (Brown, 1987; Flavell, 1979; Flavell, 1987; Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Metacognition is at work in the learning process of both children and adults and based on Louca-Papaleontiou (2008) it “can lead somebody to select, evaluate, revise and abandon cognitive tasks, goals, and strategies” (p.13). It has been reported that successful SL learners efficiently make use of metacognitive awareness (Thamraksa, 2005) and such an awareness contributes to their progress in different language learning skills, specifically reading in SL (see Paris, 2002; Paris et al., 1994; Paris & Winograd, 1990).

Metacognitive strategies as for any type of learning are crucial for efficient reading and are at work both at the micro and macro processing levels. To put it in simple words, the reason for the significance of metacognition, as Carrell et al (2001) argue, is “if learners are not aware of when comprehension is breaking down and what they can do about it, strategies introduced by the teacher will fail "(p.232). Pressley (2002) who underlines the use of metacognitive strategies enumerates some characteristics of metacognitively skilled readers. As he describes the reader who is metacognitively sophisticated is adept at asking questions while he is involved in reading, visualizes what is being read, and knows how to summarize the text. Such a reader, based on Pressley, knows that he might encounter some confusing parts in the text. Therefore, he consciously adopts some specific strategies to deal with the confusion.

1.2. Reader-Response theory
In recent years, a new wave of interest which gives a high credit to using literature in EFL courses has begun to emerge. Various authors have written about the application
of literary texts in EFL setting (See, Van, 2009). It is assumed that the use of literature can foster learners’ imagination, critical abilities, and their emotional awareness (Lazar, 1993).

As a literary theory, reader-response theory (Rosenblatt, 1994) assumes that there is a transactional relationship between the reader and the text. Here the term transaction refers to the reciprocal relationship between the text and the reader. As such, one cannot surmise that meaning resides in the text and the reader’s duty is to get that fixed meaning out of entangled words of the text. Word meaning, based on reader-response theory, is necessary but not sufficient for comprehension of the text (Liaw, 1997) and meaning is not confined to the text (Harper, 1988). Therefore, the readers’ emotion, experience, background opinion and whatever he brings to the text play a prominent role in the creation of meaning. Hirvela (1996) explains the approach … challenges traditional emphases on authorial intention in a text, and on the text itself, in assigning supremacy to the interpretation of texts, asserting instead that the plays at least an equal role in the interpretative process. (p.128)

Rosenblatt (1994; 1995) differentiates between a reader’s two different responses to the text; aesthetic and efferent. As Rosenblatt (1994) explains “the efferent stance … is involved primarily with analyzing, abstracting, and accumulating what would be retained after the reading” (p.184). As he further in the same page adds, “ in the aesthetic stance attention is primarily on experiencing what is being evoked, lived through, during the reading”. There is no opposition or sharp contrast between the stances, as Rosenblatt (1994) argues, since both are part of a continuum. One who argues for reader-response view sees meaning as having various layers. This means that every reader has his own interpretation of the text and the best meaning is interpreted and got through just by the individual himself who grapples with the text to understand it. The reader can evaluate the author’s as well as his classmates’ views and challenge them if they are against his values (Thomson, 1987). Thus, based on such a view, as Carson (1993) argues, “the text itself. . . is incomplete; it needs a reader’s experience to make it understood” (p.88).

It has been argued that reader-response approach can be incorporated in ESL courses. Mishra (2010) sees a relationship between reader-response approach and Communicative Language Teaching and refers to some implications as follows

1. It creates an environment in which learners initiate the interactions
2. It leads to autonomous leaning
3. Results in the individualization of learning
4. Fosters classroom discussions
5. Encourages learners to have their say and express their ideas

Al-Bulushi (2011) who investigated the use of reader-response theory in an EFL context also emphasizes the connection between reader-response theory and communicative language teaching and explains

The reader-response theory supports communicative language teaching since it is rooted in a task-based methodology in which tasks designed are aimed to elicit the target language discourse production. What really makes the approach communicative is the intention of the tasks assigned by teachers in engaging learners
in tasks, which require them to generate personal responses to something in the text, responses which necessitate the production of original discourse. (p.450)

Much emphasis has been laid on relationship between EFL and reader-response approach (Carlisle, 2000; Hirvela, 1996). Carlisle (2000) argues that for EFL learners, reading comprehension is often equal to doing long comprehension exercise and in such a context “class novel in one hand and electronic dictionary in the other, students plough their way through the pages looking up the new vocabulary until they ‘understand’ the story” (p.13). A reader-response approach in EFL reading courses “stimulates foreign language readers to go beyond the first barrier of semantic understanding and to move towards critical appreciation” (p.12). Sanches (2009) in line with Carlisle (2000) postulates that incorporating a reader-response approach in EFL courses helps EFL practitioners change their attitude toward literacy teaching and learning, recognize the learner differences, and appreciate a learner centered approach to pedagogy “taking into account their previous experience, beliefs, values, and individual cognitive development” (pp.1-2). In the same vein, Bagherkazemi and Alemi (2010) state the benefits of applying reader-response theory in EFL classrooms. As they argue, reader-response approach in EFL context
- makes literature more accessible by activating students’ background knowledge;
- harnesses emotional reactions for classroom instruction;
- increases students’ individual and group participation and motivation since it personalizes the learning experience. (p. 5)

Since, based on reader-response approach, there are multiple interpretations for a piece of a text and there is no best or correct answer it can be assumed that critical thinking is fostered (Amer, 2003). It is expected that such change has a bearing on learners’ metacognition since as Kuhn (1999) assumes critical thinking is a form of metacognition. In the same vein, Fogal’s (2010), in his study, found out that learner preferences for material engages learners’ meta-cognitive awareness. It should be mentioned that one of the preferences in his study among other approaches to reading was reader-response approach. Afflerbach (1998) enumerates characteristics of constructively responsive readers. While reading such readers get involve in many types of strategies. A quick glance at the characteristics presented by Afflerbach indicates that constructively responsive readers have the command of higher order skills such as over viewing text before reading or revising knowledge based on the content of the text. This implies that there is a close relationship between constructively responsive reading and being metacognitively aware.

Since the efficient use of reading strategies is a defining characteristic of efficient reading comprehension (Anderson, 1991; Grabe, 2004) and because foreign language readers need to get acquainted with such strategies in order to be independent readers, it is necessary to pave the ground for second as well as foreign language learners in order to obtain understanding of their reading comprehension strategies. For years, foreign language learners have been directly taught various reading strategies such as guessing the meaning of unknown words and guessing the context of the story or previewing the text. However, to the author’s experience the problem of reading comprehension has remained unresolved for lots of EFL learners. As Kowalewski (n.d) quotes Spiegel (1998), critical thinking activities help the learners to act reflectively and
critically. They also result in learners’ application and modification of their cognitive and metacognitive skills and strategies. As a result, their understanding of the texts would turn to be more profound. In such a case they would gain a positive view toward themselves.

It is assumed that getting involved EFL readers in reading literary texts and having them apply reader-response approach to reading (Rosenblatt, 1994) is one of the ways to elevate their comprehension of EFL texts (Carlisle, 2000). A reader-response approach to teaching literature, as a student-centered approach, provides the opportunity for EFL learners to be more involved in the process of reading (Sheridan, 1991; Khatib, 2011), think critically, and be more aware of their reading strategies. It can be assumed that reader-response approaches among its various contributions, give purpose to the readers, helps learners take part in discussion groups, gives clues to the learners as how to visualize the information, teaches them to read critically. The present study investigates the effect of the application of a reader-response approach to develop EFL readers’ metacognitive strategies since it is based on the assumption that poor readers may not have full command of metacognitive reading strategies or do not use them appropriately. Therefore, the following research question was formulated.

Does reader-response approach improve EFL readers’ metacognitive reading strategies?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants in this study were 75 Iranian intermediate university students, 69 females and 6 males studying English Language Teaching and English Translation in Kermanshah, a city in the West of Iran. Their age ranged from 20 to 28. The participants had been selected out of the pool of 120 students. To make sure the participants are of homogeneous proficiency level in reading, the reading section of an actual TOEFL test was administered before the administration of the treatment sessions. Based on the scores, it was decided 75 of the participants were of homogeneous proficiency level in reading comprehension.

2.2. Procedure and instrumentation

As the first step in the study, the reading section of a TOEFL test was given to all 120 students studying English Language Teaching and English Translation in Azad University Kermanshah Branch and Jahad Daneshgahi University. The TOEFL test had already been administered by the ETS® in January 2004. Based on the results, 75 students with homogeneous level of proficiency in reading were chosen as the participants of the study. The participants were randomly assigned to experimental and control group.

In the next stage of the study, a metacognitive reading questionnaire MARSI (Mokhtari & Richards, 2002) was employed to assess participants’ knowledge of reading strategies. MARSI is a self report which measures frequency of reading strategies employed by students while reading academic materials in English. The questionnaire measures Global Reading Strategies, Problem-Solving Strategies, and Support Reading Strategies.
The questionnaire was distributed by the researcher during regular university classes in reading courses. The participants were assured that their names would remain confidential and that the result was just used for research purposes. They were also told that there was no right or wrong answer to the questions. During the administration of the questionnaire the participants were allowed to ask questions about the items which seemed to be ambiguous.

Although Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) report that the MARSI has good internal consistency ($a = .89$), the questionnaire was piloted on 36 EFL university students and the index of reliability of 0.79 showed that the questionnaire was reliable. To make sure the MARSI was valid for Iranian EFL students, five experts in the field were asked to check the content of the questions. They confirmed that the questionnaire really checked the construct it intended to assess.

One week after the distribution of the questionnaire the treatment for the experimental group began. The treatment for both experimental and control groups lasted 4 consecutive weeks. In the normal schedule of the course the students had to participate in reading courses 2 sessions in a week. Therefore, all participated in the experimental and control group participated 8 sessions in the classes.

In line with Khatib and Farahian (in press), the stories for both groups were chosen from Introduction to literature 1 (Maleki & Farahian, 2008). The stories, based on the researcher’s experience were among the stories which were highly motivating for EFL learners. *Necklace, The bet, War, The land lady, The long exile, After twenty years, The open window,* and *The lady or the tiger.* It was assumed that the stories allow learners’ to become personally involved in the process of reading.

A week later after the treatment, the participants took the same MARSI questionnaire.

2.3. Treatment for the control group
Treatment for both experimental and control groups were based on Khatib and Farahian (in press). As such, the teacher in the control group was asked to teach the selected short stories based on the conventional approach in Iranian universities. Based on such an approach, the teacher is the person who transmits what he knows to the classroom and students are expected to receive the interpretations reported by the teacher. This does not mean that in such courses learners do not have a share in classroom discussions; they seldom initiate discussions.

To have a more accurate view of the conventional approach to literature teaching, as in Khatib and Farahian, three English literature instructors from different universities were asked to outline their conventional practice teaching short stories. Based on the instructors’ report, the customary procedures included: pre reading activities, factual in class work and follow up activities.

In the first phase students had the opportunity to read the short stories before attending the class. Students were then asked to present a brief summary of the story. Later on, teachers inquired about the literary elements of the story. These elements included elements of the story such as theme, characters, plot, setting, and so on. After students presented their views regarding the elements of the short story the instructor gave the final verdict on the elements of the story.
2.4. Treatment for the experimental group

As it was stated the reader-response approach challenges the assumption that the best interpretation of each text is authors’ intention and suggests that reader and the text are inseparable. This means that it is the interaction of the reader with the text which determines meaning. Based on this perspective, the treatment for the experimental group proposed by Carlisle (2000) was formulated. As Carlisle suggests, while reading the story students can write down their “thoughts and feelings” while reading the texts and presents a framework for doing so. Based on Carlisle, logs are one of the practical applications of reader-response theory in classrooms.

The following steps were taken as the treatment of the experimental group. As recommended by Carlisle (2000), the students were provided with explicit explanation of the concept of reader-response theory and there was a discussion over “What is the difference between reading literature and reading for information?” and “What do you do when you are reading a story?” (p.15). According to Carlisle and as Khatib and Farahian (in press) note, students should value their own interpretations as readers. Furthermore, they should understand that meaning is created in the interaction between the reader and the text. To show the participants how they should answer the questions provided in the log and in order to give them a vivid picture of the concept of log, the instructor answered the first four entries based on a short story the students had studied in the previous sessions. As the second stage, the participants were required to write the rest of the entries in pair. They were also asked to feel free to ask questions. It was assumed that giving them the logs from the beginning gives the participants a framework as to what they are required to do and what reader-response mean.

After answering the entries in pairs, students read out their notes and other classmates provided comments as to the answers. They were reminded that there was no right or wrong answers.

As the next stage, students were asked to read one of the selected short stories at home and write their own logs.

As the final stage, before asking the students to hand in their logs, the instructor asked a volunteer to provide a brief summary of the story and gave brief explanations regarding any point unfamiliar to the participants. At this point, the instructor asked the participants to share ideas regarding the points in the logs. They were told to take turn talking and feel free to present their ideas. During the discussion, the instructor remained silent and acted as a coordinator. After the discussion, different ideas brought up by the participants were summarized by the teacher.

3. Results

As Table 1 depicts, there is no significant difference between the means and SD of both groups in the pretest. Table 2 reveals that in the post test the mean and SD of the experimental group has exceeded those of the control group. This indicated a drastic change in the performance of the experimental group.

| Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Pre-Test Control/Experimental Groups |
|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD | Variance |
|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
Based on Table 3, the difference between the two groups regarding their performance was not significant. This means that both groups were of equal performance. On the contrary, table 4 shows a major difference in the performance of both groups in the posttest since the amount of the observed T with 95% Confidence interval of the differences is 3.92.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Post-Test Control/Experimental Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PoCGroup</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>5.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PoEGroup</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20.38</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>12.74</td>
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<tr>
<td>Valid N</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Paired T-Test of Pre-Test Control/Experimental Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval of the Difference</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 PreCGroup/PreE Group</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SD Error Mean</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.04321</td>
<td>1.64301</td>
<td>.30123</td>
<td>.68478</td>
<td>.62435</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Paired T-Test of Post-Test Control/Experimental Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval of the Difference</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 PostCGroup/PostE Group</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SD Error Mean</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.16574</td>
<td>3.31542</td>
<td>.86545</td>
<td>2.91221</td>
<td>2.47870</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Discussion and conclusion

Research findings indicate that both in first and second language learning effective readers are better at reading strategies than poor readers and use the strategies more efficiently. As such, investigations have been made as to find the best ways for training reading strategies. It has often been recommended that instruction may help second language learners acquire reading strategies (Chamot, 2004); therefore, various direct reading strategies each with their inherent strength or weaknesses have been recommended to ESL as well as EFL teachers to adopt; however, the problem with direct instruction of strategies is that they are seldom transferred to other contexts (Gu, 1996).

To investigate the effect of a non interventionist approach to teaching reading strategies, this study employed a reader-response approach. Based on the findings, using logs and adopting a reader-response approach has a significant impact on EFL learners’ metacognitive reading skills. Although the time interval between the treatment and the post test which was the MRSQ was short and a delayed posttest is needed to confirm the findings, it can be concluded that reader-response approach, as Carlisle (2000) suggested, resulted in learners’ interaction with the text and such an interaction have impacted learners’ metacognitive reading strategies. This is in line with Birjandi and Khatib (2013) who argue

The multiplicity of layers embedded in literary texts and their meanings require students to take part in a heuristic quest for interpretations and meanings. ... this personal involvement and mental engagement leads to beneficial outcomes such as a more flourished critical thinking ability and an extended application of metacognitive processing of the input (p.84).

This study highlights some important points. First, the reader-response approach to reading helps learners to be more purposeful and active readers. It can be suggested that such an approach indirectly influences different subscales of metacognition in reading including global reading strategies, problem-solving strategies, and support strategies. As an example, one of global strategies is critical analysis of the text. This global strategy is in close tandem with the rationale behind the reader-response theory which involves readers in the critical analysis of the text. Second, unlike the prevalent assumption regarding raising learners’ awareness toward the importance and use of strategies, it seems that non interventionist strategies may be effective as well. This means that although the related literature on the role of metacognition in reading comprehension argues for the conscious involvement of the learners in the application of metacognitive strategies, these strategies might be invoked by means of approaches which do not seem to be under the learners’ immediate control.

All in all, it seems that reading literary texts are more demanding task and at the same time more challenge to EFL readers than nonliterary texts (Birjandi and Khatib, 2013). The reader who embarks on interpreting the text and involves in the transaction of meaning with the text engages in what Afflerbach (1998) calls ‘constructively responsive reading’. Therefore, constructively responsive readers involve in various types of strategies such as overviewing the text before reading, activating prior knowledge, and visualizing which are metacognitive in nature. As such, it is of great importance for curriculum developers in general and EFL language teachers in
particular to value the role literature plays in foreign language teaching. Moreover, giving insight to EFL teachers regarding the role of reader-response theory in EFL reading might help teachers create an environment in which learners read texts critically and employ higher order skills such as metacognitive strategies.

REFERENCES


**Appendix A: The reading log (Only part of the log is provided here)**

While you are reading the story write down all the things that go on in your head in a 'stream of consciousness' style. As you read, you will be making a record of images, associations, feelings, thoughts, judgments, etc. You will probably find that this record will contain:

**Questions** that you ask yourself about characters and events as you read. (Answer these yourself when you can.)

**Memories** from your own experience, provoked by the reading.

**Guesses** about how you think the story will develop, and why.

**Reflections** on striking moments and ideas in the story.

**Comparisons** between how you behave and how the characters in the story are behaving.

(4 more items)

**Please do not try to rewrite the book.**

*Figure 1.* Reading log: Adapted from “Reading logs: An application of reader-response theory in ELT”, by A. Carlisle, 2000, ELT Journal, 54 (1), 12-19. Copyright 2000 by Oxford University Press.
Appendix B: The Persian version of MARSI (Only part of the full version is provided here)

1. با هدفی خاص متن انگلیسی را می‌خوانم.
2. برای بهتر فهمیدن متن انگلیسی هنگام خواندن باید عانت برداری می‌کنم.
3. برای بهتر فهمیدن متن انگلیسی در مورد ازونه که می‌دانم فکر می‌کنم.
4. برای بهتر فهمیدن متن انگلیسی قبل از شروع به خواندن آنها را ابتدا بطور سطحی مطالعه می‌کنم.
5. وقتی با متن مشکلی مواجه می‌شوم برای بهتر فهمیدن متن آن را با صدای بلند می‌خوانم.
6. برای این که مطالعه را که می‌خوانم بهتر بهره‌مند آنها را خلاصه می‌کنم.
7. برایم مهم است که مفهوم متن با هدفی که از خواندن متن دارم متناسب باشد.
8. برای درک بهتر متنون، مطالب را با سرعت کم و با دقت می‌خوانم.
9. برای این که بهتر مطالب را درک کنم با دیگران مشورت می‌کنم.
10. متن آن را یک بار سطحی می‌خوانم تا به خصوصیاتی مانند ساختاری و انداره متن توجه کنم.
11. در صورتی که تمرکزم را از دست بدهم در زمان کوتاهی تمرکزم را بدست می‌آورم.
12. برای اینکه مطالب را بهتر بیاد بیاورم زیرانها ختم می‌کشم و یا آنها را با علامت مشخص می‌کنم.
13. می‌توانم سرعت خواندنم را با نوع متنی که می‌خوانم تطبیق دهم.
14. هنگام خواندن متن می‌دانم چه جبری را با دقت بیشتر و چه قسمتی را با دقت کمتری بخوانم.
L'EFFET DU RÉSUMÉ DE TEXTE SUR L'APPRENTISSAGE DE LA LECTURE

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RÉSUMÉ
Ce reccherche monrte: peut-il aider les élèves à améliorer la qualité de leurs résumés ? Si oui, comment ? il y a une stratégie pour l'enseignement de résumé? quelles sont les difficultés de compréhension et quelles sont les méthodes de lecture mises en place par les enseignants ? Alors, une grande majorité des élèves ne connaissent pas les procédures à mobiliser et ne savent pas utiliser des stratégies pour mieux comprendre un texte d’où le rôle important jouait par l’enseignant. Alors, l’objet « résumé » et les objectifs d’apprentissage associés ont un caractère général; pour trouver des pistes méthodologiques, les enseignants doivent recourir à des moyens d’enseignement. Il reste que le résumé est essentiellement développé pour le texte narratif; dans ce cas, il apparaît encore comme avant tout un moyen de contrôle de la compréhension. Pour le texte informatif, comme rien ou presque n’est dit à ce propos, il s’agit alors de déduire ce que pourraient être les résumés à envisager. Les propositions sont générales, la situation de communication devrait jouer un rôle central, mais ce n’est guère facile de comprendre comment pourraient fonctionner de tels résumés. Utiliser le résumé comme une aide à la lecture et à la mémorisation de textes longs et disposer d’un résumé pour faciliter un apprentissag. Le résumé est un outil qui favorise les synthèses, facilite l’organisation en mémoire des informations lues et incite à une auto-évaluation de la compréhension.
Une fiche résumé pourra formaliser les éléments les plus importants. Par exemple, avoir le résumé avant la leçon ou la lecture permet de mieux comprendre et repérer les différentes parties de la leçon, ou comment les informations s’organisent le résumé peut garder l’équivalence informative et représenter la pensée de son auteur ou de son auteure et contenir l’essentiel des informations; Il ya quelques stratégies de résumer un texte et Les questionnaires qui peuvent aider les faibles lecteurs à mieux comprendre les textes.

LES MOTS-CLÉS:
Méthodologique, résumé, compréhension, lecture, enseigner
1) Introduction

Résumer, c’est recomposer un texte où l’on exprime avec un minimum de mots les idées, les arguments, le mouvement même de la pensée de l’auteur, en restant fidèle, dans la mesure du possible, à son esprit et son ton. En fait, un résumé, c’est un texte réécrit dans un espace limité. Il doit donc aller à l’essentiel. Le résumé est un outil important pour toute recherche ou présentation en sciences humaines car il condense l’argumentation et ainsi rend plus aisé les critiques et comparaisons.

La lecture est une activité complexe au carrefour de diverses disciplines à savoir la neurobiologie, la linguistique, la psychologie cognitive et la sociologie. Lire c’est poser des questions à un texte, prélever des informations, procéder par hypothèses et anticipations, saisir un sens global, trouver la réponse à un problème, en somme c’est mettre en place des structures mentales. Pour que les élèves apprennent à lire, l’enseignant doit prévoir différentes activités pour que les élèves acquièrent diverses compétences. Ces compétences mises en jeu en lecture sont tout d’abord d’ordre linguistique permettant la maîtrise du code écrit des règles de grammaire et de la syntaxe.

Les compétences pragmatiques permettent la maîtrise des différents registres de langue et la capacité à prendre en compte la situation de communication et d’énonciation en jeu dans le texte lu. Les compétences culturelles renvoient à la culture générale. Quant aux compétences métacognitives, elles permettent au lecteur de réfléchir sur son activité et les stratégies mises en jeu pour les réguler au mieux. Ainsi, on note que lire présuppose des conditions indispensables.

Deux erreurs de diagnostic sont fréquentes : La première tend à confondre (mal) lire et (mal) comprendre. Il existe pourtant un moyen simple – mais trop peu utilisé pour savoir si les difficultés à comprendre un énoncé écrit sont de « vraies » difficultés de lecture : existe-t-il des difficultés de compréhension quand le même énoncé est présenté oralement ? De fait, la mauvaise compréhension est encore dominante chez la moitié des enfants dits mauvais lecteurs lorsque des énoncés mathématiques sont présentés oralement. Autre exemple : les difficultés à l’oral dans le traitement de l’organisation des textes narratifs (chronologie, présentation des informations, enchaînement des idées…) sont à l’origine de nombreux échecs dans les activités de lecture (de lecture-compréhension). Ces difficultés de compréhension sont en réalité extérieures ou antérieures à la lecture ou au savoir lire stricto sensu.

La seconde erreur assimile lire et identifier les mots. Les difficultés spécifiques de la lecture seraient concentrées dans un seul secteur, un seul savoir-faire : identifier les mots. La réalité est moins simple. tous les mauvais lecteurs présentent quatre sortes de difficultés propres à la lecture:
- Savoir décoder et identifier les mots
- Savoir explorer et questionner des textes courts
- Comprendre l’activité du lecteur
- S’approprier les pratiques culturelles de la lecture.

Ainsi avant de reconnaître que c’est l’enfant qui est porteur du trouble comme dans les conceptions médicales, nous assurerons que la démonstration en est véritablement faite Une première brèche fut réalisée par un dossier dans la revue Québec Français en 1980, «Des orthopédagogues s’interrogent» (Van Grunderbeeck et Martinez) qui se
traduisis par la remise en cause des fameux pré-requis à la lecture et le constat d’échec des méthodes de rééducation à tendance orthophonique. Une deuxième brèche fut celle commise par le livre de Fijalkow, «De mauvais lecteurs pourquoi?».

Une étude magistrale à partir de trois cents travaux de recherche nord-américains et européens qui montraient que les différentes écoles de pensée, neurologique, instrumentale, affective, socioculturel, reposaient leur argumentationsur des travaux hautement critiquables aux plans scientifique et méthodologique. Ces rappels sont importants car un retour aux thèses neurologiques est observable (Chiland 1988,1990; Fijalkow, 1986; Galaburda, 1988). À l’heure actuelle, un débat important secoue les médecins, la communauté scientifique en éducation et le monde scolaire sur l’usage du toxicomanogène le Ritalin ou Ritaline comme remède aux difficultés d’apprentissage.

Résumer un texte, entre autres tâches, c’est être capable de le comprendre et de sélectionner les phrases les plus importantes du texte. Mais les élèves ne sont pas les seuls à manifester une telle réticence à l’égard du «résumé de texte». Pour être fidèle au texte, il faut exprimer exclusivement la pensée de l’auteur, respecter ses idées, son style et le ton employé, éviter toute interprétation ou rectification de sa pensée. Le résumé de texte est une pratique langagière complexe.

Au carrefour de la lecture et de l’écriture, cette pratique requiert à la fois analyse et synthèse ; elle fait également appel au raisonnement, à la rigueur intellectuelle et au sens critique. Plus spécifiquement, le résumé nécessite une compréhension fine du message du texte-source et donne lieu à « une contraction de l’information pour n’en retenir que l’essentiel, ainsi qu’a une reformulation écrite, cohérente et respectueuse du contenu et de la forme du texte à résumer. Les pratiques successives du résumé de texte, orientées vers l’amélioration des textes produits, gagnent à s’accompagner de mises à distance régulières, qui permettent de dégager et de nommer les caractéristiques du résumé, envisagé alors, non plus comme une pratique à parfaire, mais comme un objet d’apprentissage à caractériser. C’est ainsi que se construisent progressivement des critères qui permettent d’appréhender la qualité d’un résumé de texte.

La technique du résumé n’est pas facile à maîtriser, mais elle est néanmoins l’une des plus utiles pour l’étudiant parce qu’elle met en œuvre un certain nombre d’aptitudes fondamentales dans n’importe quel domaine, académique ou professionnel, où il faut interpréter des textes de façon systématique, efficace et rigoureuse:

- **La compréhension**: avant de pouvoir résumer un texte, il faut l’avoir bien compris.
- **L’analyse**: pour résumer, il faut extraire du texte les idées principales.
- **La synthèse et la rigueur**: pour bien résumer, il faut distinguer l’essentiel du secondaire et du superflu, et l’exprimer de manière concise sans toutefois en dénaturer le sens.
- **Le sens de l’équilibre**: un bon résumé reflète fidèlement l’importance des divers éléments du texte d’origine.
- **Le sens de l’organisation et de l’articulation**: un bon résumé doit montrer de façon très claire et très efficace parfois plus que le texte d’origine comment les idées ou les arguments s’enchaînent.
La manipulation du langage: le résumé doit exprimer les idées d’un texte sans se limiter à fournir un collage de phrases qui en sont extraites. Il doit être à la fois original dans la forme, et conforme dans le fond.

Pratique transdisciplinaire, le résumé de texte n'est pas seulement, comme l'envisage une certaine tradition scolaire, « un outil de mémorisation ou une pratique essentiellement centrée sur elle-même, consistant à apprendre à résumer et à prouver qu'on sait le faire » ; il présente surtout des fonctions hors de l'univers scolaire : «transmission rapide d'information, outil de communication dans de nombreuses situations sociales ou professionnelles. Le résumé de texte met donc en jeu une large maîtrise de la langue.

2) Les effets du résumé sur la lecture de texte

Qu'est-ce que la lecture ?

La lecture est un outil de communication précieux dont la finalité est la compréhension de la langue écrite. Elle a fait l’objet d’un grand nombre d’études. Les plus récentes se fondent sur une approche cognitive : on décrit et on explique les capacités mentales dont disposent l’être humain et l’animal en matière d’information en les traitant comme les éléments d’un système complexe de représentations et de processus entretenant des relations Selon cette approche, la lecture est une habileté complexe qui fait intervenir deux processus de traitement de l’information : la reconnaissance des mots écrits, d’une part, et l’accès à la signification pour la compréhension de ces mots et de segments linguistiques plus longs tels que les phrases et les textes, d’autre part.

La reconnaissance des mots écrits doit être fluide, c’est-à-dire rapide, précise et sans effort. Comme le soulignent Colé et Fayol, « le but de l’apprentissage de la lecture consiste à développer des procédures automatiques de reconnaissance des mots écrits qui, en dégageant l’apprenti-lecteur des nécessités du décodage qu’implique cette reconnaissance, lui permettront d’atteindre un niveau de compréhension de ce qui est lu, égal à celui qu’il est capable d’atteindre à l’oral ». La compréhension de textes, quant à elle, fait appel à des aptitudes plus complexes (traitements morphologique, syntaxique, sémantique et pragmatique) qui dépassent largement le cadre de la lecture et sous-tendent tout aussi bien la compréhension orale que la compréhension écrite (Gough et Tunmer, 1986; Morais, 199).

Les troubles de la lecture

Difficultés de lecture et troubles spécifiques de l’apprentissage de la lecture En France on considère qu’environ 5 à 15% des enfants ont des difficultés à apprendre la lecture (Ministère de l’Education Nationale de la Recherche et de la Technologie, 1999; OCDE, 2004). Ces chiffres dépendent évidemment des tests utilisés et des seuils de performance retenus pour définir ces difficultés. La population considérée comme étant « en difficulté » est bien entendu extrêmement diverse.

L’apprentissage de la lecture étant une tâche cognitive complexe, dont l’objet est l’acquisition et la maîtrise d’un objet défini culturellement, il n’est pas étonnant que cet apprentissage puisse être entravé par de nombreux facteurs différents. Citons pêle-mêle les plus évidents : l’absence ou l’inadéquation de l’enseignement de la lecture, les désavantages sociaux et culturels, les troubles du langage, les déficits intellectuels, les
troubles d’attention, les troubles du comportement, les déficits sensoriels non corrigés (malvoyance, malentendance)… On voit immédiatement que de nombreux facteurs à la fois environnementaux et biologiques peuvent sous-tendre des difficultés d’apprentissage de la lecture.

La constatation remarquable qui a été faite à de nombreux reprises depuis plus d’un siècle (Hallgren, 1950; Orton, 1937; Pringle-Morgan, 1896; Stephenson, 1907), c’est qu’il existe un certain nombre d’enfants qui présentent un trouble sévère d’apprentissage de la lecture, alors même qu’ils sont normalement intelligents, n’ont aucun déficit sensoriel, grandissent dans un milieu familial et social favorable, et ont reçu un enseignement approprié. Ce trouble inexplicable au premier abord, a conduit à l’hypothèse d’un trouble spécifique de l’apprentissage de la lecture, également appelé dyslexie développementale, et souvent abrégé dyslexie. Le terme résulte d’une analogie avec les troubles spécifiques de la lecture acquis par lésion cérébrale (dyslexies acquises, ou alexies) découverts peu de temps auparavant. Dans cette section, les termes dyslexie (développementale) et trouble spécifique de la lecture (en fait : de l’acquisition de la lecture) sont utilisés de manière interchangeable.

De nombreuses études à plus grande échelle ont confirmé l’existence d’enfants dyslexiques, leur prévalence étant estimée entre 1 et 7% (Lindgren, De Renzi, & Richman, 1985; S. E. Shaywitz, Shaywitz, Fletcher, & Escobar, 1990; Yule, Rutter, Berger, & Thompson, 1974). Encore une fois, ces chiffres de prévalence sont à prendre avec précaution, puisqu’ils dépendent inévitablement de la définition de la dyslexie et du seuil de sévérité choisis. Il est de plus à noter que la langue et le système d’écriture influençant la difficulté de l’apprentissage de la lecture, ils influencent également la prévalence mesurée de la dyslexie.

On voit donc que la dyslexie n’est qu’un facteur parmi d’autres contribuant aux troubles de lecture au sein de la population. Il n’est pas question de considérer que tous les enfants en échec scolaire ou ayant des difficultés en lecture sont dyslexiques. La distinction entre dyslexie et difficultés de lecture est extrêmement importante, même si en pratique il n’est pas toujours évident de les distinguer clairement d’un point de vue clinique. La suite de cette section ne concerne que la dyslexie. Pour un ouvrage de référence beaucoup plus complet sur la dyslexie, on pourra consulter l’Expertise collective de l’Inserm « Dyslexie, dysorthographie, dyscalculie : Bilan des données scientifiques ».

**Les différentes méthodes de lecture**

Il existe principalement trois grandes méthodes de lecture :

- Méthode traditionnelle
- Méthode globale
- Méthode mixte

□Méthode traditionnelle, syllabique ou encore appelée combinatoire

Cette méthode est la plus ancienne puisqu’elle date du 19ème siècle. Son principe réside sur le fait qu’il suffit de proposer à l’enfant, la liste des signes graphiques que constituent les lettres pour que ce dernier sache lire. En effet, l’élève apprend à les identifier, à les reconnaître et à les prononcer.
Cette méthode à l’avantage d’être simple pour le maître à qui elle propose un
dénombrement complet des graphies et des sons de la langue visuelle. La méthode est
progressive et rassurante pour les enfants débutants.
En ce qui concerne ses inconvénients, nous voyons bien qu’elle ne s’articule pas sur les
deux aspects de la lecture mais seulement sur celui du code. Effectivement, elle ne
laisse aucune place au sens : les enfants lisent des mots isolés voir des pseudo-mots car
la méthode traditionnelle, dans sa vision progressiste, simplifie exagérément le langue
française.
Malheureusement, pour les enfants en difficulté, cette dernière ne possède pas une
orthographe phonétique telle que, un signe écrit correspond toujours à un même son
déterminé. Au contraire, un même phonème peut être représenté par diverses graphies
: é, ez, er, et, aî, ou encore, in, im, ain, ein. Aussi, cette méthode paraît rebutante et
fastidieuse puisque l’enfant reste quasiment passif.

□ Méthode globale (ou à point de départ global)
Cette méthode du 20ème siècle, a pour principe de donner goût à la lecture. Dans ce
sens, elle propose des contes, divers textes que l’enfant répètera :

- c’est la répétition, la perception globale des mots qui permettra à l’enfant de « lire »
  ou du moins réciter dans un premier temps) et le motivera. Cette aptitude à la
perception globale n’empêchera pas l’enfant de remarquer certains détails : grandeur
des mots, lettres en boucles, … Ces comparaisons de mots lui permettront petit à petit
d’en déduire les règles de l’écrit, les relations phonie – graphie.
Exemples : sapin / lapin
mouton / ballon

Par rapport à la méthode traditionnelle, la méthode globale laisse place au sens et
rend les élèves beaucoup plus actifs puisqu’ils doivent découvrir par eux – mêmes les
règles de la langue française. De par sa répétition, elle leurre l’enfant et lui laisse
penser qu’il sait lire, dans ce sens elle est motivante. Cependant, son principe exige
beaucoup de temps, de patience. De plus, pour que les élèves puissent comprendre les
textes, ces derniers sont souvent courts et on peut se demander si la perception globale
suffira à définir, à tirer toutes les règles de notre langue. Aussi, du fait que ce soit
l’enfant qui retire les règles de l’écrit, la méthode est moins guidée et par conséquent
plus difficile à mettre en place par l’enseignant.

□ Méthode mixte
Cette méthode plus récente puisqu’elle est apparue vers 1950, tente, comme son nom
l’indique, de regrouper les avantages des deux méthodes précédentes. Ainsi, elle veut
articuler le travail sur le code et celui sur le sens d’un texte. Aujourd’hui, la plupart des
manuels veulent alors proposer une méthode mixte mais ce maniement n’est pas
toujours effectué avec la même adresse sachant que certains livres s’appuient plus sur
le code ou plus sur le sens.

3) Le rôle de résumé dans l’enseignement
L’activité de résumé de textes est aujourd’hui très peu enseignée à l’école. Jusqu’en
1997, une épreuve du baccalauréat général lui était consacrée. Mais depuis, les
programmes scolaires demeurent évasifs quant à son enseignement. Elle apparaît toutefois sous forme d’exercices d’application possibles en français, histoire et géographie. À cet âge, le minimum de capacités cognitives nécessaires est acquis pour cette tâche : les élèves acceptent que résumer implique une réduction de texte en un minimum d’informations sans en modifier la teneur principale du texte d’origine.

Le résumé de textes est donc bien plus qu’un simple type d’écrit, il consiste en la formulation des idées estimées importantes par le lecteur et les liens qu’elles entretiennent entre elles. L’activité de résumé de textes a ainsi un rôle essentiel à tenir dans le domaine des apprentissages.

**Différents modèles**

Différents modèles prescriptifs relatifs à l’enseignement et l’activité de résumer existent dans la littérature. Ils intègrent plus ou moins les paramètres précédents et se cristallisent autour de la lecture, l’analyse et la rédaction. Nous en distinguons trois types :

– *Le modèle fonctionnel*. Une synthèse des prescriptions sur cette activité dans les manuels scolaires montre que le travail avant la rédaction à proprement parler du résumé peut se décomposer en six sous-tâches : lire le texte, comprendre le vocabulaire, distinguer les éléments essentiels et accessoires, repérer les paragraphes et leurs liens, identifier les mots-clés et enfin établir le plan du texte.


– *Le modèle normatif*. Il existe des modèles intégrant davantage de consignes liées à la forme finale du résumé. Par exemple, un modèle prescrit de réaménager les systèmes verbaux et pronominaux (troisième personne, présent de l’indicatif), de rétablir l’ordre chronologique, d’adopter un point de vue non focalisé et d’effacer les séquences diagonales et descriptive.

La maîtrise de l’activité de résumer un texte est à la fois essentielle et difficile. Cette activité, en tant qu’exercice scolaire, vient pratiquement de disparaître des programmes officiels du secondaire, et n’apparaît plus au baccalauréat de français. Paradoxalement, elle est importante puisqu’elle reste pratiquée, tout au moins dans certaines de ses composantes. Par exemple, la hiérarchisation des propositions d’un texte est une activité souvent présente pour contrôler la compréhension en lecture.

La sélection de propositions pertinentes, elle aussi, est quotidiennement à l’œuvre pour comprendre un énoncé de problème, ou pour prendre des notes sur un cours. Pourquoi cette activité est-elle si difficile ? Sans doute parce qu’elle consiste en la résolution d’un problème mal structuré : il n’existe pas de solution unique, ni de procédure clairement établie pour la mettre en œuvre [Fayol 85]. Elle consiste en l’utilisation de différentes stratégies permettant de hiérarchiser, puis de sélectionner.
les idées importantes d’un texte [Brown et al. 83], nécessitant des ressources que les enfants les plus jeunes ne peuvent mobiliser.

**La cause d’enseigner la production de résumé d’un texte ?**

C’est « une transformation réductive d’un TS à un texte résumé réalisée par une réduction de contenu par sélection et/ou généralisation de ce qui est important dans la source ». 

Cet auteur en décrit trois étapes principales :

- **I**: Interprétation du texte-source donnant une représentation de ce dernier ;
- **T**: Transformation de cette représentation en une représentation du résumé ;
- **G**: Génération du résumé à partir de sa représentation.


Ayant pour but de réaliser un EIAH d’aide à la production de résumés, il nous faut étudier les deux premières étapes. Tout d’abord, la manière dont le TS peut être compris (et notamment ses idées principales) par le producteur (étape I). Puis, les opérations qui peuvent être utilisées par ce dernier pour produire une représentation du résumé (étape T). Nous verrons que l’étape G ne doit pas être nécessairement implantée. En effet, notre EIAH n’est pas un tuteur à proprement parler : aucune comparaison avec un résumé-type ou jugement d’expert du domaine n’est réalisée.

**enseigner le résumé de textes par l’utilisation de macrorègles**

Des travaux, plus didactiques, ont permis de vérifier l’intérêt des procédures ci-dessus. La hiérarchisation de textes et la mise en œuvre de macrorègles ont fait l’objet de séquences d’enseignement spécifiques, dont les effets ont été testés. Par exemple, une grille d’évaluation des processus cognitifs engagés dans la production de résumés a été conçue à partir des travaux de Brown et al.

Elle contient entre autres les critères suivants, que nous reprendrons dans notre EIAH:


L’auteur montre que ces critères peuvent être directement enseignés aux élèves et qu’ils leur permettent de produire des résumés acceptables. Une autre étude a montré qu’enseigner des stratégies à des lycéens pour repérer les idées principales d’un texte a un effet sur leurs performances en production de résumé. Ces stratégies consistaient entre autres à identifier les relations entre phrases d’un même paragraphe, à identifier le sujet principal des paragraphes et leurs idées implicites importantes. Ces résultats montrent qu’il est profitable d’enseigner à des élèves l’utilisation des macrorègles.
Trois points de vue sur le résumé comme objet d’enseignement
Il est difficile, sans une recherche très approfondie de son histoire, de définir avec précision et profondeur un objet d’enseignement scolaire. Le résumé travaillé à l’école ne fait pas exception. Il nous paraît cependant possible, sur la base de la littérature existante, de distinguer trois positions didactiques contrastées et néanmoins articulées. La première est celle de la tradition scolaire, telle qu’elle est présente notamment dans les manuels et prescriptions du passé jusqu’à nos jours. La deuxième est une tentative de réinterprétation de cette tradition dans une perspective (scolastique), c’est-à-dire qui, en l’approfondissant, donne un sens à l’exercice scolaire et permet ainsi d’en saisir autrement certaines dimensions, sans doute présentes dans la pratique scolaire. La troisième, toujours pour donner un sens au résumé à l’école, renverse la tradition en resituant le résumé dans son contexte social d’origine.

Ces trois position, on le voit, s’appellent, mutuellement et ne peuvent fonctionner les unes sans les autres. Elles se trouvent, même dans un rapport d’appui et d’explicitation mutuelle: la deuxième explicitant la première; la troisième pouvant fonctionner comme appui à la deuxième; la deuxième pouvant être conçue comme variante de la troisième. Il va de soi que l’enseignant, dans sa pratique, se réfère toujours à ces lectures possibles, en privilégiant l’une ou l’autre ou en se référant même simultanément à plusieurs. On peut néanmoins faire l’hypothèse que la première constitue le main Stream de l’enseignement, avec comme point de mire plutôt implicite et partiel, comme échappée ou visée éventuelle, certains aspects de la troisième. La troisième constitue la position de la réforme radicale.

Résumer et les différents types de productions écrites au niveau universitaire
Types de productions écrites
- Résumé, résumé synthèse ou résumé informatif Ces trois appellations désignent le même type de production écrite. Le résumé est un texte suivi et logique, qui représente un condense, c’est-à-dire une contraction d’un autre texte. Il s’agit d’une production dépendante d’un autre texte. Le résumé permet de traduire, avec ses propres mots, la pensée d’un autre ou autrement dit, son point de vue (sa thèse), son argumentation générale et la conclusion à laquelle il parvient. Le résumé reproduit le plus fidèlement possible les idées et le style ainsi que l’ordre logique du texte travaillé.

Il a essentiellement pour but de faire ressortir, à l’intérieur d’un espace assez restreint, l’essentiel de la pensée d’un auteur ou d’une auteure. Toutes les idées superflues ou secondaires et les détails sont laissés de côté. Par ailleurs, même s’il s’agit d’un texte dépendant, le résumé doit constituer une production « autonome » qui permet de saisir la problématique particulière dont il est question sans avoir à se référer au texte original. Enfin, le résumé dit « synthèse » ou « informatif » ne comporte pas de critique, de réflexion personnelle ou de jugement.

Principaux points à retenir
- est court (environ 10% du texte original)
- est bref, clair, cohérent, structuré et enchaîné
- répond aux questions relatives à la thèse, à l’argumentation, à la conclusion, etc., du texte étudié
comprend la référence bibliographique ainsi la situation de l’œuvre et celle de l’auteur ou de l’auteure
est le plus fidèle possible à la pensée exprimée dans le texte ainsi qu’au ton, au style, etc.
ne contient ni interprétation, ni critique, ni jugement et ni commentaire
résume un texte dans ses propres mots
possède du sens de façon autonome, sans se référer nécessairement au texte original pour en avoir une compréhension suffisante
est représentatif de la structure du texte original
est synthétique, va directement à l’essentiel
décrit d’une manière condensée et abrégée l’ensemble du texte original

-Résumé analytique ou résumé analyse
Ces deux appellations désignent le même type de production. Il s’agit d’un semblable au résumé synthèse ou informatif mais plus approfondi. En effet, le résumé analytique permet de rendre compte d’une analyse globale d’un texte. Celui-ci est décortiqué, disséqué et analysé afin d’en faire ressortir la structure et le plan de rédaction. Le respect de l’ordre logique et des divisions du texte occupe une place centrale dans ce genre de résumé. Il peut parfois être plus long que le simple résumé et ne comporte pas de critique ou de jugement.

Principaux points à retenir
se référer aux principaux points à retenir pour le résumé
Comprend l’analyse et l’explication de la problématique, de l’hypothèse, des solutions et des applications concrètes et pratiques
comporte un approfondissement des éléments principaux du texte
permet de situer le cadre de référence dans lequel s’inscrit le texte
prête une attention particulière au plan de rédaction, aux divisions et à la structure globale du texte
possède parfois une longueur légèrement supérieure au simple résumé (synthèse ou informatif)

-Résumé critique
Le résumé critique est un résumé synthèse ou informatif qui contient une critique. Une critique est un jugement, une opinion ou une évaluation d’un texte. Elle peut être positive ou négative, interne ou externe. La critique interne consiste en une évaluation des méthodes et des procédés employés par l’auteur ou l’auteure. Elle tient compte des composantes intérieures de l’œuvre telles que la cohérence, la logique, la pertinence de l’argumentation, etc. La critique externe se rapporte au contexte social, politique, scientifique, etc., de l’ouvrage. Elle confronte le texte analysé et résumé avec d’autres faits et d’autres thèses. La critique du résumé peut également être mixte, c’est-à-dire interne et externe, mais elle doit toujours être faite concernant l’argumentation d’un texte et non l’auteur ou l’auteur lui-même. Qu’elle soit positive ou négative, elle doit être respectueuse des auteurs ou auteures à qui elle s’adresse.
Principaux points à retenir
- se référer aux principaux points à retenir pour le résumé (sauf pour le point concernant l’absence d’interprétation, de critique, de jugement et de commentaire).
- contient une opinion, une critique, un jugement, etc.
- propose une critique respectueuse de l’auteur ou de l’auteure.
- peut être une critique positive ou négative.
- peut être une critique interne, externe ou mixte.
- est une critique fondée et appuyée sur des arguments rigoureux et solides.
- contient les raisons qui motivent la critique.

- Compte rendu
En ce qui concerne le compte rendu, les opinions diffèrent énormément. Il est parfois considéré comme un résumé critique et parfois comme un résumé synthèse ou informatif, mais il s'agit toujours d'un résumé. En fait, un compte rendu « rend compte » d’un événement, d’une situation, d’un texte, etc. Il donne une explication et, par conséquent, est informatif. (Il faudrait vous renseigner sur ce que l'on attend exactement de vous si l'on vous demande de réaliser une telle production écrite).

Principaux points à retenir
- se référer aux principaux points à retenir pour le résumé et pour le résumé critique

- Commentaire
Le commentaire, aussi appelé « commentaire de texte », est présenté de façon continue, suivie et structurée et il répond âme question à propos d’un texte auquel il se réfère. À l’opposé du résumé, il s’articule autour d’une interrogation particulière ayant rapport avec le texte. Il s’agit donc du traitement d’une question. Il possède un aspect plus personnel et critique que le simple résumé. En d’autres mots, à partir d’une problématique empruntée au texte de référence, le commentaire traite d’une seule composante du thème général.

Principaux points à retenir
- peut être court, standard ou long (une dizaine de pages).
- est bref, synthétique, rigoureux et bien articulé
- comprend une critique et une appréciation (évaluation) ou une réflexion personnelle
- comprend la situation de l’œuvre et de l’auteur ou de l’auteure
- répond à une seule question

Recension des écrits
Ce type de production écrite n'est pas toujours construit sur le modèle d'un texte suivi. En fait, la classification des écrits peut être thématique, alphabétique, chronologique, etc. Il s'agit d’un texte qui résume d’autres textes sur un thème précis en montrant la problématique et les liens qu’ils possèdent en commun.

Il s’agit donc d’un ensemble de résumés à propos du même sujet où les similitudes et les différences des textes sont exposées. Ce résumé individuel de chacun des textes peut être accompagné ou non d’une critique. La recension des écrits permet de faire le
point sur un sujet donné et peut être utile avant d'entreprendre un travail de plus grande envergure.

**Principaux points à retenir**
- classe les écrits selon un ordre thématique, alphabétique ou chronologique
- résume plusieurs textes sur un sujet spécifique
- explique les liens qui existent entre des textes portant sur un même thème ainsi que sur la problématique commune
- peut contenir une critique des textes recensés et résumés
- comprend les références bibliographiques complètes
- permet de faire le point par rapport aux connaissances sur un thème dans un champ disciplinaire donné.

**Les avantages de résumé dans enseignement est multiple**
- Les élèves sont obligés de garder les mots utilisés dans le texte, ce qui les contraint à repérer les mots essentiels, les empêche d'introduire des termes nouveaux et ainsi de faire des contres ou des faux sens, et d'introduire des éléments nouveaux.
- Les élèves sont obligés de rechercher les articulations logiques du texte initial afin d'obtenir un produit fini facile à comprendre.
- Certains traitements de texte comptent automatiquement le nombre de mots utilisés lors de l'impression, ce qui permet à l'enseignant de connaître très rapidement la taille du texte original et à l'élève de juger si son résumé correspond aux normes fixées (résumé au tiers par exemple).

4) Le résumé de texte: un objet d'apprentissage

Apprendre à rédiger des résumés de texte ne saurait se réduire à en rédiger. Il faut également mettre en place, sur la pratique elle-même, une saisie à la fois plus large et plus fondamentale, qui permet, d'une part de circonscrire l'objet d'apprentissage que constitue le résumé de texte, d'autre part de cerner la démarche méthodologique qui sous-tend la pratique résumante. Les pratiques successives du résumé de texte, orientées vers l'amélioration des textes produits, gagnent à s'accompagner de mises à distance régulières, qui permettent de dégager et de nommer les caractéristiques du résumé, envisagé alors, non plus comme une pratique à parfaire, mais comme un objet d'apprentissage à caractériser. C'est ainsi que se construisent progressivement des critères qui permettent d'appréhender la qualité d'un résumé de texte. Le schéma 1 en est une représentation visuelle.

**Ces critères ont une triple fonction:**
- Ils orientent la rédaction de la première version d'un résumé de texte;
- Ils servent de points d'ancrage pour l'amélioration de cette première version;
- Ils constituent des références à partir desquelles sera porté un jugement sommatif sur la version considérée comme finale d'un résumé de texte.
une démarche méthodologique
La pratique résumante gagne, elle aussi, à être explicitée, dans son ensemble comme dans ses étapes : dans cette perspective, des pauses méthodologiques, insérées dans les pratiques successives du résumé de texte, permettent d’expliciter et d’affiner progressivement la démarche qui sous-tend la pratique résumante : il y a cette démarche et Cette démarche méthodologique remplit une double fonction :
• pour l’apprenant qui rédige un résumé de texte, elle présente les différentes étapes qui balisent sa tâche d’écriture ; en lui fournissant ces points de repère, elle lui fournit un encadrement méthodologique ;
• parallèlement, pour l’enseignant, cette démarche constitue un cadre d’intervention pédagogique : celui-ci comprend les divers volets qui articulent le travail pédagogique à mener sur le résumé de texte.

RÉDACTION D’UN RÉSUMÉ :Du texte cible au texte source.
* une équivalence informative : le texte-cible doit restituer l’essentiel du contenu du texte-source.
* une équivalence pragmatique : le texte-cible doit produire sur le lecteur le même effet que le texte-source.

5) Les fiches de résumé
FICHE 1 ) LECTURE-ANALYSE
1) Formuler des hypothèses sur le type de texte et son sujet à partir du titre, des données de production du texte et de tout autre indice se détachant à un premier coup d’œil sur le texte (exemples : illustration, graphique, schéma, surtitre, sous-titre, intertitre, etc.)
2) Survoler le texte pour en saisir le sens global et l’organisation générale :
• mettre en évidence la macro-organisation du texte en s’appuyant sur les lieux stratégiques du texte : introduction, conclusion, début et fin des paragraphes (où apparaissent souvent les idées principales et les marques d’organisation du texte) ;
• dégager le sens global du texte, sa structure et l’intention de l’auteur.
3) Filtre (Information : sélectionner l’essentiel
• mettre en évidence (dégager ou formuler) les idées-maitresses ;
• dégager les mots-clés, les champs lexicaux, les formules significatives ;
• dégager les opérations discursives mises en jeu dans le texte (exemples : expliquer, analyser, argumenter) ;
• mettre en évidence certains facteurs de cohérence textuelle : marqueurs de relation et organisateurs textuels, paraphrases contextuelles, phénomènes de structuration textuelle, phrases ou expressions ou mots qui reformulent de façon condensée des éléments déjà énoncés ;
• reconnaître les enumerations et les réduire à leur élément le plus caractéristique ;
• reconnaître les exemples et les réduire à leur dimension générique ;
• éliminer les redites, les insistances et les exemples qui illustrent des éléments déjà développés ;
• distinguer, au besoin, les discours rapportés.

4) Déterminer l'effet du texte
• dégager le ton du texte, le registre de langue utilisé;
• dégager les moyens linguistiques et discursifs utilisés par l'auteur pour mettre en œuvre son intention de communication ;
• affiner, au besoin, la mise en évidence de l'intention de l'auteur.

FICHE 2) PLAN
Élaborer le plan du texte
5) assembler les informations essentielles du texte-source en les regroupant selon l'ordre du texte-source ou en les repositionnant selon un autre ordre approprié;
• reformuler de façon concise les informations retenues;
• représenter schématiquement les articulations du texte et la hiérarchisation de son contenu.

6) Évaluer la fidélité au texte
• vérifier la présence de tous les éléments essentiels du texte et l'absence d'éléments accessoires ;
• vérifier si l'organisation du plan rend compte de la structuration du texte ;
• vérifier si le plan illustre clairement la hiérarchisation des informations et s'il est suffisamment clair, fidèle au texte-source et complet pour servir de point de départ au résumé.

FICHE 3) MISE EN TEXTE
7) Rédiger et réviser le résumé
• en tenant compte du travail effectué de la lecture-analyse et du plan établi ;
• en utilisant les ressources langagières appropriées ;
• en respectant les contraintes de la langue.

8) Rédiger le résumé
mettre en texte les informations présentées dans le plan :
• utiliser des termes concis et des structures syntaxiques qui témoignent d'un souci de l'économie des moyens linguistiques ;
• marquer l'articulation, la cohérence et la progression du texte ;
• adopter un ton et un registre de langue, equivalents à ceux du texte-source.

effacer sa présence en tant qu'énonciateur :
• adopter le point de vue de l'auteur du texte-source (éviter les expressions telles que «l'auteur pense que ») ;
• éviter les formulations qui révèlent un commentaire ;
• intituler son résumé en citant le titre du texte-source ;
• respecter la proportion de réduction du texte-source telle qu'elle a été établie.

9) Réviser le résumé et vérifier le contenu du résumé
• s'assurer de présenter les éléments essentiels du texte-source selon l'ordre du plan ;
• reconsidérer la précision et la clarté de l'information, la fidélité et l'exactitude par rapport au texte-source ;
• s'assurer que le résumé forme un tout compréhensible indépendamment du texte-source ;
Vérifier la concision du résumé:
□ éliminer les périphrases, les répétitions, les mots vides, les imprécisions, les ambiguïtés, les digressions;
□ remplacer les enumerations, les exemples par des termes génériques ;
□ s’assurer que le résumé évite les emprunts non nécessaires au texte-source.

Vérifier l’organisation du résumé
□ assurer la continuité et la progression du résumé :
- l’ordre et la progression de l’information,
- l’ajout progressif de l’information,
- la justesse des mots-substituts.

Vérifier l’impact du résumé
□ s’assurer que les choix lexicaux, syntaxiques et stylistiques révèlent un ton équivalent à celui du texte-source ;
□ s’assurer que le registre de langue est équivalent à celui du texte-source ;
□ s’assurer que le point de vue est constant ;
□ s’assurer que le résumé produit sur le lecteur le même effet que le texte-source.

Corriger le résumé en recourant à des méthodes d’autocorrection et en consultant, au besoin, des dictionnaires, une grammaire ou toute autre source d’information
□ vérifier que les mots sont employés selon le sens qui leur est accordé et qu’ils appartiennent à la langue française ;
□ vérifier que les structures de phrases sont appropriées et les transformer, au besoin, à l’aide des opérations linguistiques:
addition, soustraction, déplacement, substitution, transformation ;
□ vérifier que les temps des verbes sont utilisés de manière appropriée ;
□ vérifier l’utilisation des signes de ponctuation ;
□ vérifier l’application des règles de l’orthographe grammaticale ;
□ vérifier le respect de l’orthographe lexicale.

6) conclusion
une grande majorité des élèves ne connaissent pas les procédures à mobiliser et ne savent pas utiliser des stratégies pour mieux lire un texte d’où le rôle important jouait par l’enseignant. On a montré une amélioration de la qualité des résumés produits par des élèves avec l’usage logique et une pratique encadrée de l’activité et l’utilisation de stratégies spécifiques par les élèves dans les tâches cognitives de résumé et règles du résumé et a présenté la pratique guidée de production de résumés à l’aide de bon lecture, développement des compétences spécifiques à la lecture et le trouble spécifique de la lecture.

Élaborer un résumé pour montrer que l’on a bien compris un texte lu est une activité essentielle partie des programmes scolaires dès l’école primaire. En effet, l’une des capacités à acquérir en maîtrise de la lecture dans le cadre du socle commun, est celle de "résumer un texte" dans processus du résumé et méthodes d’enseignement.

Dans les méthodes de travail du résumé on a présenté: L’activité de résumer est aussi relativement complexe et elle continue à être pratiquée par les élèves tout au long
du collège et du lycée. peut-il aider les élèves à améliorer la qualité de leurs résumés ? Si oui, comment?

On s’assuré que l’outil fournit à l’élève une évaluation structurée, où plusieurs critères sont distingués, Privilégié les aides qui traitent des différents critères de qualité d’un résumé, Encourager la pratique encadrée et régulière du résumé: L’efficacité des processus du résumé tient au fait que l’élève est incité à améliorer son texte en étant plus activement engagé dans le processus de lecture et de production écrite.

On a déclaré: Le résumé doit être objectif tout en exposant le concept général du texte, ainsi que toutes ses idées fondamentales et les secondaires s’avérant nécessaires à la bonne compréhension des principales. L’auteur du résumé se veut capable de trouver un fil conducteur reliant les phrases essentielles du texte principal, c’est-à-dire Répondre à quelques questions préliminaires comme:
• Comment distinguer l’essentiel de l’accessoire ?
• Où sont les idées importantes dans un texte ?
• Comment reconnaître la progression argumentative ?
• Combien de paragraphes devra comporter le résumé ?
• Le résumé doit-il être réduit proportionnellement au texte initial ?
• Que faire des exemples ?
• Que faire des citations ?

pour préparer au mieux ses élèves au résumé en lecture, l’enseignant doit proposer un ensemble d’activités visant explicitement le développement des compétences qui sous entendent les préparer à résumer les idées essentielles d’un texte, et cela dès le plus jeune âge de l’enfant. Il doit également leur apprendre les mécanismes pour lecture un texte.

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