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ON EVIDENCE TO PROVE ECONOMY AND SIMPLICITY IN MINIMALIST PROGRAM

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Abstract
The most radical reformulation of transformational generative grammar since its inception has been the Minimalist Program (Chomsky, 1995), in which all but the most essential syntactic principles are discarded. Recent research has investigated the complexities evident in earlier models and attempted to eliminate them, or to show how they are only apparent, following from deeper but simpler properties. Examples of this include the reduction of the number of linguistic levels of representation in the model, and the deduction of constraint on syntactic derivation from general considerations of economy and computational simplicity.

Key words: The minimalist program, computational system, economy.

1. Introduction

Transformational generative grammar has evolved through several stages from its foundational principles more than half a century ago (Chomsky, 1957; 1965). This evolution has been marked by the exposition of ever more general principles of syntactic combination and syntax-semantics interfacing, with the fundamental goal of elucidating the computational system within the mind/brain of the language user (*I*-language) as opposed to the rules of specific natural languages (the *E*-language approach). The phrase-structure rules of the syntactic component were generalized in X-bar theory (Chomsky, 1972; 1975) and phonological form (PF) and logical form (LF) and their roles as interfaces with other cognitive systems were introduced in Government and Binding theory (Chomsky, 1981). The Principles and Parameters (P&P) approach was a key development toward showing how natural language variation could be traced to a more fundamental linguistic capacity via the setting of parameters (Chomsky & Lasnik, 1993). Differences between languages at S-Structure are reduced to requirements at the PF-interface. Certain features that are visible but not interpretable at PF must be eliminated by the feature checking operation (a function of movement) Chomsky, 1995. Research in the principles-and-parameters framework has come to focus on conditions of `minimality', leading to a notion of

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`shortest move' that is not defined in terms of government but in terms of more general conditions of economy (Chomsky1995(90).
This little exercise goes to show that already before the minimalist program was announced, `government' had lost much of its significance in generative grammar. More generally, the minimalist program seeks to bring out and eradicate weaknesses in the theory.
The goal of uncovering the most general, and indeed the only indispensable aspects of phrase-structure rules is manifested in Chomsky's Minimalist Program. According to this approach, syntactic structure is built from the bottom up via a single operation, Merge. At the most fundamental level of syntactic processing, lexical items are combined recursively by this operator to generate new lexical items. These new lexical items can then be merged with other lexical items to generate yet another lexical item, and so forth during the build-up of the complete syntactic structure. Chomsky1995."!
The approach leads to a unification of insertion (merge) and movement, which differs from merge only in that the element to be merged is contained in the target of merger" (figure. 1).

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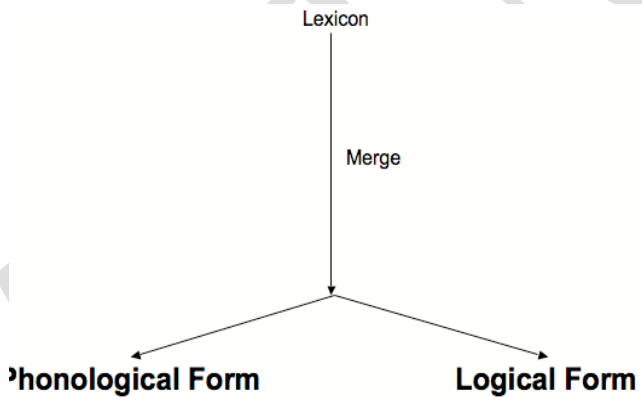

(Fig. 1)

As Chomsky (2002, p. 134) notes, for example, "the whole notion of complement and specifier disappears except as a terminological convenience; you have the things that you merge first, the things that you merge second, and so on."
The best illustration of the bluntest move of minimalist program is the concept of economy.

2. Economy

As a minimalist principle, Chomsky (1993) assumes that the interface representations should be pure and simple, stripped of all features that are not relevant to the cognitive systems they provide input for. This he calls economy of representation, summarized in (1):1
2.1 *Economy of representation*: Use as few symbols as possible in the output of a derivation. Economy of representation ultimately reduces to the principle of Full Interpretation, In an interface representation, do not use useless symbols.

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2.2 *Economy of derivation*: In much recent work in generative grammar, derivations are considered to be subject to principles of economy. In Chomsky (1993), economy of derivation is (implemented in at least two ways: derivations should involve the shortest possible movements and the fewest possible steps.
It can be said that economy of derivation consists in the single requirement that the number of movement steps should be as small as possible .Use as few steps as possible in deriving an output representation(2.2) is a standard feature of the minimalist program of Chomsky (1993). Chomsky argues that derivations are governed by principles summarized here under the label inertness:

2.3 *Procrastinate*: Move as late as possible.
2.4 *Greed*: Move "only if movement contributes to licensing of ".
(2.3) and (2.4) can be grouped together as following,
2.5 *Inertness*: Move as little as possible.
The formulation of economy of derivation in (2.2) is more interesting for what it leaves out than for what it contains. In particular, (2.2) makes no reference to the length of the steps involved in a derivation. According to conventional wisdom, short steps are more economical than long steps. Thus, it has been proposed that economy of derivation contains (2.6) in addition to (2.2):
2.6 *Economy of derivation part 2:*
In deriving a representation, make the shortest possible movements
(2.6) underlies the concept of minimality (Chomsky 1986b, Rizzi 1990), paraphrased in (2.7):
2.7 Minimality: Don't move " across a place where " could have landed (2.6) also plays a major part in Chomsky (1993).

3. Phases

Chomsky claims that syntactic operations involve a relation between a probe P and a local goal G which is sufficiently 'close' to the probe (or, in the case of multiple agreements, a relation between a probe and more than one local goal). However, an important question to ask is why probe–goal relations must be local. In this connection, Chomsky (2001, p. 13) states that 'the P, G relation must be local' in order 'to minimize search' (i.e. in order to ensure that a minimal amount of searching will enable a probe to find an appropriate goal). The implication shed light to the fact that the Language Faculty can only process limited amounts of structure at one time, and can only hold a limited amount of structure in its 'active memory' (Chomsky 1999, p. 9). In order to ensure a 'reduction of computational burden'(1999, p. 9) Chomsky proposes that 'the derivation of EXP[ressions] proceeds by *phase*' (ibid.), so that syntactic structures are built up one phase at a time. He maintains (2001, p. 14) that 'phases should be as small as possible, to minimise memory'.
One of the principal empirical arguments for phases is based on the Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC; Chomsky 2000), which offers an account of various locality phenomena, from successive cyclic A'-movement to CED effects (Huang 1982); these were dealt with in GB by bounding nodes and the ECP, and later by barriers (Chomsky 1986). However, phases were not the only, nor were they the first,

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alternative to the ECP and barriers of late GB. Until Chomsky (2000), Relativized Minimality had enjoyed over a decade of scholarly acceptance as the principal account of locality.

4. Relativized Minimality

RM is particularly interesting as it stands out as a computationally efficient principle: It helps reduce the number of possible structural relations that transformations may take and it has a 'least effort' flavor (see Chomsky & Lasnik 1995: 89-90). Similarly, RM is also relevant to study the relationship between linguistic theory and research on cognition. In the words of Rizzi (2004: 224): In keeping with this view, it will be argued that language-independent properties of a so-called cue-based retrieval parser (e.g. Van Dyke & Lewis 2003 or Lewis & Vasisht 2005, a.o.) are responsible for the emergence of RM.

Originally put forward in Rizzi (1990), *Relativized Minimality* can be defined in the following way:

A movement operation cannot involve X and Y over a Z which is relevantly identical to Y in the configuration ...[X...[Z...[Y...]…]…]… if Z c-commands Y (Hornstein 2009: 35). 2, 3

The father of RM, Luigi Rizzi (1990, 2002), summarizes its conceptual benefits in the following terms:

> RM can be intuitively construed as an economy principle in that it severely limits the portion of structure within which a given local relation is computed...the principle reduces ambiguity in a number of cases: whenever two elements compete for entering into a given local relation with a third element, the closest always wins. (Rizzi 2002: 224)

Consider the fact that, like phases, RM is also aimed at reducing computational complexity, by minimizing the distance between antecedents and traces.

5. Agreement

In minimalist papers from the nineties, feature-checking was generally held to be possible only in a very local configuration, called a checking domain (cf. Chomsky 1993); a distant goal would have to move into a local relationship with a probe in order to check its features. However, since features are assumed to drive movement, it seems that a relation must be established prior to the movement taking place; hence in Chomsky (2000, 2001), and subsequent papers, the checking mechanism, called Agree, is assumed to be able to create a relationship between features at a distance. Phases are part of the theory of locality that constrains the Agree relation (though see Hornstein 2009 for arguments that Agree should be constrained to checking domains and distinguished from movement).

Within minimalist approaches to syntax, the syntactic operations are few and very general. We have already discussed the operation of Agreement. In addition, there is another core operation: merge.

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6. Merge

The function of Merge is to create larger syntactic units out of smaller ones, Merging two independent elements A and B to form C, which has A and B as immediate constituents; Importantly, many of the earlier syntactic operations in transformational generative grammar have been subsumed under the Merge operation. Rather than positing separate operations for particular stages in syntactic build-up, these operations can instead be conceived as different hierarchical applications of Merge. In the standard theory of generative syntax, up to and including Government and Binding theory, a sentence's D-structure undergoes transformation rules such as phrase movement to provide input to the S-structure. Within the S-structure, several more rules must be satisfied (e.g. theta criterion and case filter) in order to make the sentence a kind of "common currency" for PF and LF. In the Minimalist Program, D-structure and S-structure are removed, along with the rules applying to their construction, and are instantiated in the Merge operation. On this definition of Move, it is simply a variant of Merge (so we have External Merge, and Internal Merge, in Chomsky's 2004 terms; see also Starke 2001; Gartner 2002).

7. Conclusion

In the present paper, first I overviewed the syntactic evolution from transformational generative grammar to minimalist program. Then I mentioned some (but not all) evidence such as economy, phases, relativized minimality, agreement and merge to prove economy and simplicity in MP. Chomsky's Minimalist Program is high point of the evolution of transformational generative grammar, which has been characterized by a systematic elimination of many syntactic entities and principles with the goal of arriving at the most general rules of natural language.

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AN EXPLORATION ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES

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Abstract
The present study aims at exploring Iranian EFL learners' learning style preferences and also investigates the role of gender in learning style preferences. 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 the adapted version of Willing's learning style questionnaire. LSD pair wise comparison showed that the highest mean value belongs to the communicative learning style followed by concrete learning Style. Analytical learning style and the authority-oriented learning style are in the third place. The results of the independent samples *t*-test investigating the difference between Iranian EFL male and female learners' learning style preferences showed that there was no significant difference between male and female learners' learning style preferences. The study has some pedagogical implications for teachers, syllabus designers and learners which will be discussed in the paper.

Keywords: Learning style preferences; EFL learners; Gender;

Introduction

Nowadays, most of the scholars in EFL are seeking for different possible reasons of ultimate success or even failure among EFL learners; therefore, this purpose encourages them to investigate the different aspects of second or foreign language learning process. Language learning styles are among the most important variables influencing performance in a second language. The definition of learning style is a major concern among the scholars in the field of language learning. Dun (1989, as cited in Clenton, 2002) asserts that learning styles include variables such as "individual responses to sound, light, temperature, design, perception, intake, chronobiological highs and lows, mobility needs, persistence, … motivation, responsibility (conformity) and need for structure…" (p. 56). The definition proposed by Dun (1989, as cited in Clenton, 2002) seems to be the broadest and deepest one since it is composed of

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environmental (light, sound, temperature), emotional (motivation, responsibility, persistence) and sociological (pairs, groups) stimuli. However, the involvement of such wide repertoire of dimensions while defining learning styles leads to confusion since it is difficult to focus and control on all of them simultaneously. Carson and Longhini (2002) believe learning styles indicate how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the environment. In fact, they consider learning style as a criterion for individual differences.

In the field of second language acquisition,Willing (1985) worked out a bidimensional model of learning styles, by combining one classic polar opposition (the field-independent vs. field dependent one) with the passive vs. active distinction, thus obtaining four basic style types: communicative, concrete, authority-oriented and analytical. Willing's model is chosen for this study because it is large and well-documented, and is somewhat epitomic of surveys carried out in area of second language acquisition. 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 (1988) believes that understanding the students' learning style preferences is helpful for teachers and educators because it enables them to match their teaching styles, methodologies, and course organization with learners' learning styles to help learners improve their learning. Nunan (1991) tries to sum up the definition of Willings' four types of learners through demonstrating the kind of tasks that these four types of learners prefer. He asserts that communicative learners like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English, using English out of the class, and learning by conversations. According to him, concrete learners tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs and practicing English outside the class; While, analytical learners like studying grammar, studying English books, studying alone, finding their own mistakes and working on problems set by the teacher. He also introduces the authority-oriented learners as the learners who 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.

Therefore, it is of great importance to know that different learners learn through different styles. It helps the teachers to apply proper activities in teaching if they know their learners' learning style preferences. The purpose of this study is to identify Iranian EFL learners' learning style preferences and to investigate the role of gender in learning style preferences. In fact, the present study can help educational decision makers to know about different learning style preferences of Iranian EFL learners. In addition, it can guide teachers become aware of the advantage of identifying different learning style preferences of their learners and informs them which learning style is the most preferred one; so, they can adapt the teaching activities according to the most preferred learning style beside allocating suitable tasks to other learning styles. It also investigates the role of gender in learning style preferences of Iranian EFL learners. This finding also guides us whether to design different teaching activities and situation

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for male and female learners or not. The present study tries to answer the following questions:
Is there any significant difference among Iranian EFL learners' preferences of the learning styles?
Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL male and female learners' learning style preferences?

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
To the researcher's best knowledge, the adapted Willing's learning style preferences questionnaire is the most suitable questionnaire in EFL context in order to identify the EFL learners' learning style preferences. So, Willing's (1988) learning style questionnaire adapted by Shirani Bidabadi and Yamat (2010) was chosen for this research. This questionnaire consisted of four categories (Communicative, Concrete, Authority-Oriented, and Analytical learners) with 24 items modified based on the Iranian EFL university students' learning. It was in English. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of this instrument was 0.84 (Shirani Bidabadi & Yamat, 2010). The participants used the four-point Likert scale to answer the items (alternative values: SD: strongly disagree= (1); D: disagree= (2); A: agree= (3); SA: strongly agree= (4)). To determine each person's learning style, the scores for items of each learning style were summed.

Data analysis
Using adapted Willing's Learning Style Questionnaire , the researcher collected the necessary data. Then, the gathered data were subjected to statistical analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 19, was applied for this purpose. The descriptive statistics was calculated primarily to determine the mean scores of the different styles of learning used by Iranian EFL learners. Then multivariate test for learning styles and LSD pair wise comparison test were run to determine the Iranian EFL learners' most preferred learning styles. Besides, an independent-samples *t*-test was employed to explore the difference between male and female Iranian EFL learners' learning styles.

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

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1: Descriptive Statistics for Learning Style Preferences

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Communicative	90	8	24	18.84	3.735
Concrete	90	8	24	17.91	3.337
Analytical	90	11	23	16.73	2.735
Authority-Oriented	90	7	24	16.51	3.205

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.

Repeated Measure Test and LSD Pair wise Comparisons for the Learning Styles Preferences

In order to see whether the difference among the mean scores of the learning styles are significant or not, a repeated measure test is done. Table 2 presents the results of the multivariate test among learning styles.

Table 2: Multivariate Tests for learning styles

Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Factor1			
Hotelling's Trace	.491	14.225	.00*

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As Table 2 shows the p-value is P=.00 which is smaller than .05. This means that the difference between the mean scores of the learning styles is significant. Therefore, a LSD (Least Significance Difference) pair wise comparison test is done to compare learning styles in pairs and to show if the difference between each pair is significant or not. Table 3 shows the results of least significance difference pair wise comparisons for learning styles.

Table 3: LSD Pair Wise Comparisons for Learning Styles

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Communicative	Concrete	.93*	.30	.00
	Analytical	2.11*	.34	.00
	Authority-oriented	2.33*	.40	.00
Concrete	Communicative	-.93*	.30	.00
	Analytical	1.20*	.35	.00
	Authority-oriented	1.40*	.37	.00

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Analytical Communicative Concrete Authority-oriented	-2.11* -1.18* .22	.35 .35 .34	.00 .00 .51
Authority-oriented Communicative Concrete Analytical	-2.33* -1.40* -.22	.40 .37 .34	.00 .00 .51

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Table 3, the mean difference between the communicative learning style and each of the other learning styles is significant (P=.00<.05). This indicates that communicative learning style is the most preferred learning style. Moreover, Table 3 shows significant difference between the concrete learning style and each of the other learning styles (P=.00<.05). The mean difference between the concrete learning style and the communicative learning style is a negative number (-.93); this means that concrete learning style is less preferred than the communicative learning style. However, as it is shown in Table 3 there is no significant difference between the learners' preferences of the analytical and authority-oriented learning styles (P=.22>.05). Therefore, the communicative learning style is proved to be the most preferred learning style among Iranian EFL learners.

Independent Samples t-Tests for Gender Differences

The results of independent samples t-test for testing the gender differnces are illustrated in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Independent Samples T-Tests for Gender Differences in Learning Style Preferences

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communicative	Equal variances assumed	2.21	.14	-.20	88	.83
	Equal variances not assumed			-.20	87.92	.83
Concrete	Equal variances assumed	.010	.91	-1.16	88	.25
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.15	82.80	.25
Authority-Oriented	Equal variances assumed	.22	.64	.53	88	.60
	Equal variances not assumed			.53	86.39	.60

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Analytical	Equal variances assumed	.27	.60	.92	88	.36
	Equal variances not assumed			.91	82.79	.36

As shown in Table 4, there are no significant differences between the male and female EFL learners' learning style preferences.

Discussions

The main purpose of this study was to identify Iranian EFL learners' learning style prefernecs Few studies have been conducted to identify Iranian learners' learning style preferences. In fact, identifying learners' learning style preferences not only would help learners learn language better but also would help teachers improve their teaching methods. What is really worth mentioning here is the fact that most of the researches done in different places and different fields of study (mostly language teaching) reveal that communicative learning style is the most preferred one (Riazi & Riasati, 2007; Bidabadi & Yamat, 2010; Wong & Nunan, 2011; Panahandeh, 2013; and Ho, 1999). The findings of the present study for the first question also confirm their findings.

Since communicative learning style is the most preferred learning style among EFL learners, it is necessary to investigate more details in order to identify the exact activities and strategies these learners prefer. The percentage of "agree" answers to items 2 and 4, *"I like to learn by talking to friends in English. / I like to learn by speaking in English with foreigners when there is a chance"*. is 84.4, which seems to be in the highest place. This apparently indicates that most of the learners prefer to talk to friends or foreigners in order to master the language. Besides, item 1, *"I like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers of English.* with 81.1 percent "agree" answer shows the learners' preference to exposure to a native context. These descriptive statistics confirms Bidabadi's and Yamat's (2010) findings to some extent. Their statistics showed that item 1 is in the highest popularity with the mean score of 3.32, followed by item 4, with the mean score of 3.27; whereas, in the present study items 2 and 4 seem to be the most preferred ones, followed by item 1. Item 3 which notes *"If I have choice, I would like to learn English by watching TV in English outside of the classroom."* and item 5, which notes *"I like to learn English words by hearing the words."*, with the "disagree" percentage of 25.6 and 25.5 respectively, seem to have the least popularity among the learners. In fact, these results apparently indicate that the learners prefer those kinds of activities that involve them in the process of speaking and interacting.

For the second purpose of this study, the results of the independent samples *t*-test in Table 4 showed that the difference between Iranian EFL male and female learners' learning style preferences was not significant. So, the researcher concluded that gender plays no role in learning style preferences. Therefore, this finding verifies the use of similar material and activities for male and female learners. Different studies have done to investigate gender difference in learning style preferences. The results of some of them are discussed here. The findings of the present study confirm the results of the studies that used Willing's questionnaire. Yik, Hidayu, Bariyyah and Asyimah's study (2010) investigated gender difference in learning style preferences and found

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that there was no significant difference between male and female English language learners. Besides, Bidabadi and Yamat (2010) conducted a study on Iranian EFL freshmen's learning style preferences. Their participants were 92 freshmen who were studying Teaching English as a Foreign Language at a University in south of Esfahan. The results of their study showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female students in communicative, concrete, authority-oriented, and analytical learning styles. In other words, males and females applied learning styles in a similar way.

Comparing the findings of the aforementioned studies with the present one, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between male and female learners in terms of their learning styles. This finding verifies the existence of mixed classes since there is no need to employ specific activities for males or females.

Conclusion and Implications

The current study attempted to identify Iranian EFL learners' learning style preferences and to investigate the difference between male and female learners' learning style preferences. The findings showed that the communicative learning style was the most preferred learning style. In fact, they prefer to be active in the process of learning and they desire to conduct social relations in that they could talk to friends in English or even speak with foreigners whenever possible. The results also indicated that there is no significant difference between male and female Iranian EFL learners' learning style preferences.

Reid (1995, p. xiv) 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". Besides, 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. Since the results of the present study revealed that the communicative learning style is the most preferred learning style among Iranian EFL learners, it is recommended that teachers should do their best to persuade EFL learners to work in groups and teach them how to communicate with one another in English. Designing communicative tasks for the classroom, the curriculum developers may base on the principles underlining the Willing's (1988) questionnaire and take into consideration inclusion of group discussions as students prefer to talk with classmates and their teachers. English films and video programs are also effective means to help students listen to foreigners speak English. However, it is worth mentioning that by focusing on communicative tasks, it does not mean that tasks that other learner types prefer should be excluded from the course. In fact, Tasks that suit all learners' styles need to be included in the course to meet all the learners' needs. Claxton and Murrell (1987, p.73) assert that "experiences that are inconsistent with students' styles can help them develop new learning skills for healthy adult functioning".

The findings of this study also revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female learners' learning style preferences. This insures the teachers to freely treat their male and female with identical teaching activities. Additionally.

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material producers can develop teaching materials that are suitable for both male and female EFL learners.

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THE EFFECTS OF TASK COMPLEXITY ON THE COMPLEXITY AND ACCURACY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ESSAYS

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Abstract
It is argued that task complexity as an important component of task-based language teaching is related to language complexity. It means that the level of the complexity of a given task can be related to the language needed to perform it. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of task complexity on two factors of accuracy and complexity in L2 learners' written performance. Twenty five Iranian foreign language learners were selected as the participants of this study. They were asked to perform three types of cognitive tasks: (1) +/- few elements; (2) +/- reasoning demand; and (3) +/- here-and-now. Each task was performed in two forms (simple vs. complex).The participants' output was coded and measured for accuracy and syntactic complexity. However, no significant difference was found among the participants in terms of syntactic complexity, while the analysis of accuracy measures showed that complex tasks have more accuracy than simple tasks.

Key words: Task-based language teaching, communicative language teaching, cognitive processing, task complexity, complexity, accuracy, essay writing.

1. Introduction

Task based language teaching is considered as the strong version of communicative language teaching because tasks provide the core of language curriculum (Ellis, 2003:30). In task based language teaching, the grammatical structures are thought through the meaningful use of language in real life tasks, or in the post-stage as a part of focus on form (Robinson, 2001). By focusing on all four language skills, task based language teaching involves learners in manipulating language skills communicatively. One of the central issues in the discussion of task based language teaching is the effect of the complexity level of the task on other factors such as accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Theses effects can be different according to the individual differences participants bring to the task. According to Rouhi and Hassanpour (2010: 138), only in

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the incidental condition the extent of learning and accuracy are not related to the individual differences. Due to the growing interest in the role of tasks in foreign language teaching, much research has been done regarding the effects of task complexity on EFL learners' production. However, the majority of the reviewed studies focused on the effects of complexity on oral performance of the learners and just a small number of them focus on the effects of complexity on written performance. This gap in writing can be partially filled by task-based research. Writing as one of the most important language skills can push learners to use the language in original and meaningful context. It helps learners to match their lexical items to their appropriate context which can result in better retention (Kargozari and Ghaemi, 1996: 1655).

According to Ellis (2003:30), task based language teaching did not constitute a unified approach. There are rather different approaches to using tasks in language pedagogy. Following Robinson (2001, 2005), and Skehan and Foster (1997; 1999; 2001), among the different approaches to TBLT, we focus on the cognitive approach. Robinson (2001: 31) claims that Cognitive approaches to task-based research focus on how differences in the cognitive demands of a task affect second language (L2) learners' task performance. According to Robinson (1995: 29), "task complexity is taken as the host of cognitive factors which is the result of attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner". By focusing on the concept of cognitive hypothesis, Robinson divides task complexity factors into two dimensions: 1) resource-directing and 2) resource-dispersing.

By resource-directing dimension, he refers to the learners' need to use more elaborate and complex structures. He believes that an increase in cognitive demand pushes the learners' attention toward the linguistic aspect of the language, but increasing the complexity level of the task pushes L2 learner to change the syntactic structure of the production. On the other hand, the resource dispersing tasks cause learners to disperse their attention from linguistic forms to different demands of a task. Therefore, participants can not use all the resources available to focus their attention on all of the complexity factors. According to Robinsons' cognition hypothesis model (multiple attentional resource model), the resource-directing dimension includes the following variables: (+/- few elements, +/-reasoning demand, and +/- here and now) and the resource-dispersing dimension has (+/- planning time, +/- prior knowledge, and +/- single task) variables. On the other hand, Skehan (1998) claims that task complexity consists of cognitive factors such as reasoning demand, and there is a trade-off relationship between these aspects of production. This means that learners cannot pay full attention to all of these factors at the same time and they should prioritize between them. Consequently, some tasks may lead to prioritize accuracy while others lead to prioritize complexity in production. For the purpose of this study three descriptive tasks were selected according to the three variables of resource-directing dimension.

2. Purpose and the research questions

This study is primarily concerned with finding the effects of task complexity on accuracy and syntactic complexity of Iranian foreign language learners' writing at

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intermediate levels. It was hypothesized that increasing task complexity has a significant effect on L2 learners' accuracy and complexity of writing.
Based on the problem and purpose discussed above, the following research questions were proposed:
1. Does task complexity affect accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' essays?
2. Does task complexity affect syntactic complexity of Iranian EFL learners' essays?

3. Method

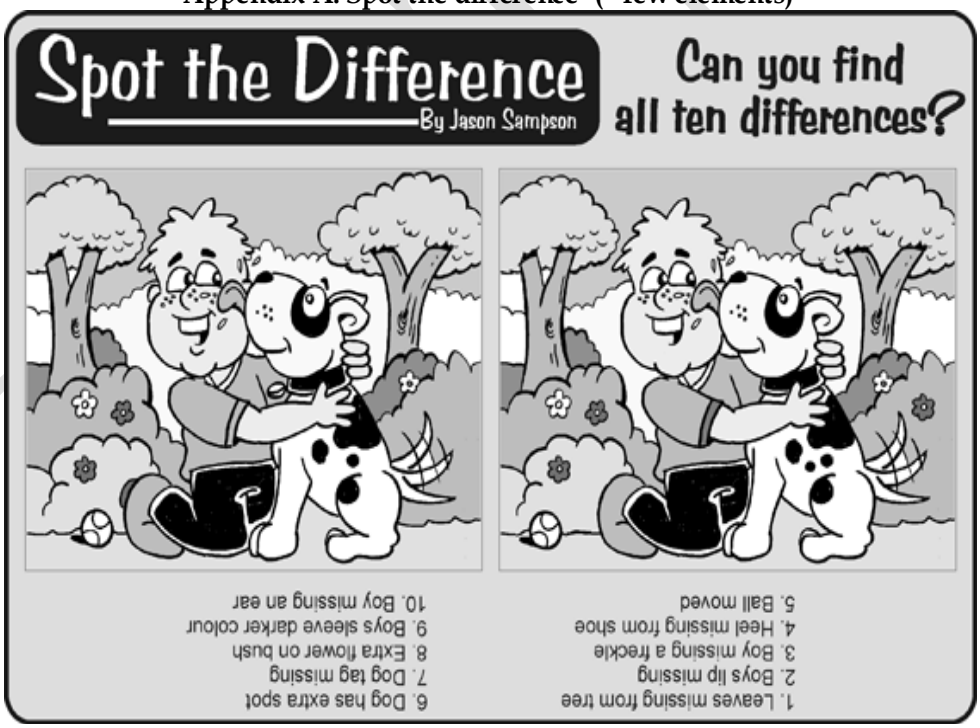
3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 25 Iranian female learners of English. They were learning English as their foreign language at Andishe Sabze Ehsan language institutes in Urmia. All of the learners had Azeri as their mother tongue. The average age of the participants was between 15 and 30. All of the participants performed 6 tasks.

3.2 Instruments

To conduct the following study, 6 picture stories were chosen for the purpose of data collection. Two spot the difference pictures were selected for the first variable (+/- few elements).

Appendix A. Spot the difference [1](– few elements)



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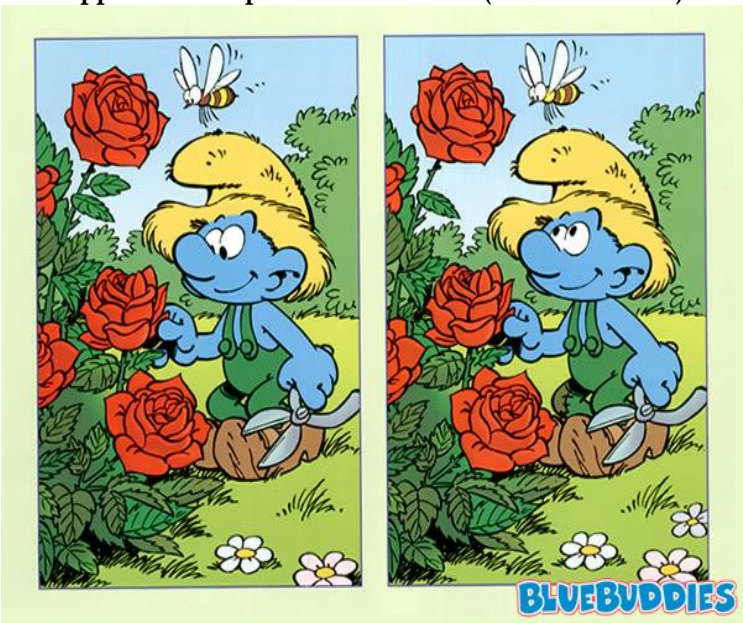
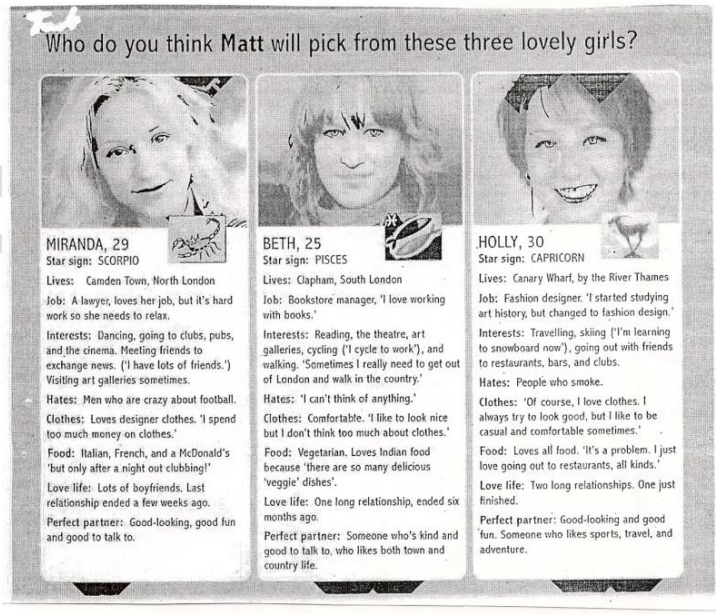
Appendix A. Spot the difference [2] (+ few elements)



Two descriptive pictures were selected according to the second variable (+/- reasoning demand).

Appendix B. descriptive picture [1](– reasoning demand)



Who do you think Matt will pick from these three lovely girls?

MIRANDA, 29
Star sign: SCORPIO
Lives: Camden Town, North London
Job: A lawyer, loves her job, but it's hard work so she needs to relax.
Interests: Dancing, going to clubs, pubs, and the cinema. Meeting friends to exchange news. ('I have lots of friends.') Visiting art galleries sometimes.
Hates: Men who are crazy about football.
Clothes: Loves designer clothes. 'I spend too much money on clothes.'
Food: Italian, French, and a McDonald's 'but only after a night out clubbing!'
Love life: Lots of boyfriends. Last relationship ended a few weeks ago.
Perfect partner: Good-looking, good fun and good to talk to.

BETH, 25
Star sign: PISCES
Lives: Clapham, South London
Job: Bookstore manager, 'I love working with books.'
Interests: Reading, the theatre, art galleries, cycling ('I cycle to work'), and walking. 'Sometimes I really need to get out of London and walk in the country.'
Hates: 'I can't think of anything.'
Clothes: Comfortable. 'I like to look nice but I don't think too much about clothes.'
Food: Vegetarian. Loves Indian food because 'there are so many delicious 'veggie' dishes'.
Love life: One long relationship, ended six months ago.
Perfect partner: Someone who's kind and good to talk to, who likes both town and country life.

HOLLY, 30
Star sign: CAPRICORN
Lives: Canary Wharf, by the River Thames
Job: Fashion designer. 'I started studying art history, but changed to fashion design.'
Interests: Travelling, skiing ('I'm learning to snowboard now'), going out with friends to restaurants, bars, and clubs.
Hates: People who smoke.
Clothes: 'Of course, I love clothes. I always try to look good, but I like to be casual and comfortable sometimes.'
Food: Loves all food. 'It's a problem. I just love going out to restaurants, all kinds.'
Love life: Two long relationships. One just finished.
Perfect partner: Good-looking and good fun. Someone who likes sports, travel, and adventure.

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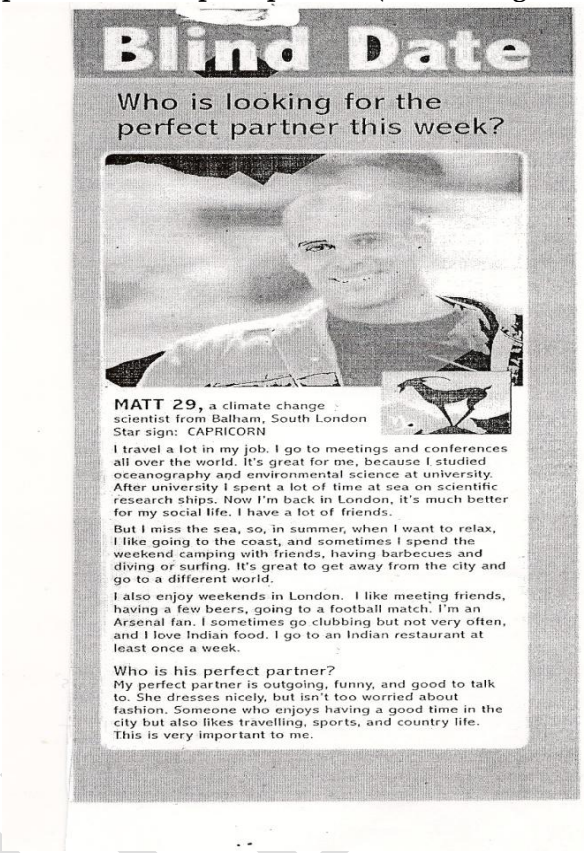
Appendix B. descriptive picture [2] (+ reasoning demand)



Blind Date

Who is looking for the perfect partner this week?

MATT 29, a climate change scientist from Balham, South London
Star sign: CAPRICORN

I travel a lot in my job. I go to meetings and conferences all over the world. It's great for me, because I studied oceanography and environmental science at university. After university I spent a lot of time at sea on scientific research ships. Now I'm back in London, it's much better for my social life. I have a lot of friends.

But I miss the sea, so, in summer, when I want to relax, I like going to the coast, and sometimes I spend the weekend camping with friends, having barbecues and diving or surfing. It's great to get away from the city and go to a different world.

I also enjoy weekends in London. I like meeting friends, having a few beers, going to a football match. I'm an Arsenal fan. I sometimes go clubbing but not very often, and I love Indian food. I go to an Indian restaurant at least once a week.

Who is his perfect partner?
My perfect partner is outgoing, funny, and good to talk to. She dresses nicely, but isn't too worried about fashion. Someone who enjoys having a good time in the city but also likes travelling, sports, and country life. This is very important to me.

The last two picture stories were chosen according to the third variable (+/- here and now).

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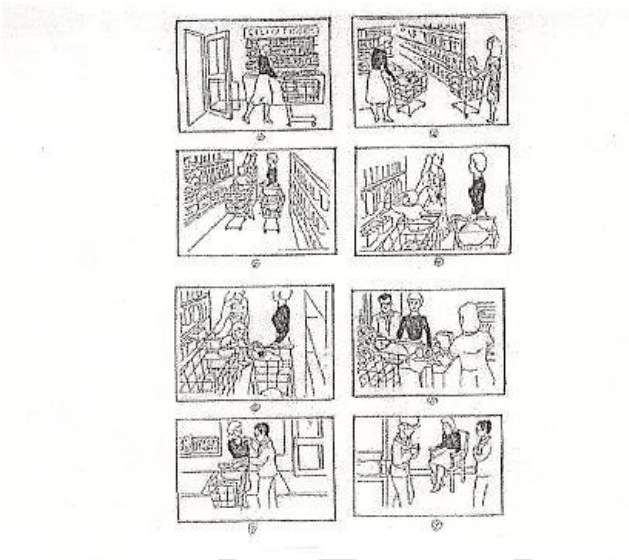
Appendix C. picture story [1] (there-and-then)



Appendix C. picture story [2] (here-and-now)

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To avoid the practice effect, the pictures of simple and complex forms of each task were different from each other.

3.3 Essay Evaluation Criteria

In this study the participants' essays were evaluated for their accuracy and the degree of their complexity. In order to assess accuracy the EFC production measure was utilized, i.e. the number of error-free clauses divided by the total number of clauses multiplied by 100. In order to measure complexity, the rules of objective measurement were conducted. The number of coordinating conjunctions and the number of error-free words per sentence were divided by the number of whole words.

3.4 Procedure

Before the experiment, students became aware that the tasks they were going to perform are just part of a research and they will not have any effect on their class performance. Later, they were also provided with some cues regarding the overall procedure of the task performance. They were told that each task must be performed in two forms: first the simple form and later the complex form. First, they were asked to perform the simple form. They were given three different pictures according to the content of each task with a prompt to write their essays. All the simple forms of the tasks were text- supported while the complex forms were text-unsupported. During the first session, they performed the first task according to the first variable (+/- few elements). Two different spot the difference pictures were selected. In these types of pictures there are two similar pictures with some different items between them. To perform the simple task, they were required to find four different items between them. But in the complex form, they were supposed to find all the differences between them. During the second session, they performed the second task according to the second variable (+/- reasoning demand). To perform the simple task, they were required to choose two women out of three, and describe their characteristics according to their profile information. To perform the complex task, they saw the picture of a man, and were required to guess who the man will select as the best choice for himself. Then, they were supposed to give an acceptable reason to support their claims.

During the third session, they performed the here-and-now and there-and-then tasks. First, they received a picture story to perform the here-and-now task. They were required to write their descriptions in simple present tense. Later, they received another picture story to perform the there-and-then task with a prompt to write their descriptions in simple past tense. Finally, the written essays were collected and evaluated in terms of accuracy and complexity, according to the production measures.

4. Results

In order to check the research questions, the two-factor within subjects ANOVA was used for the accuracy and complexity. Before embarking on the ANOVA test, it was necessary to check the data for outliers and anomalies. Therefore, the box plots were checked for the accuracy scores.

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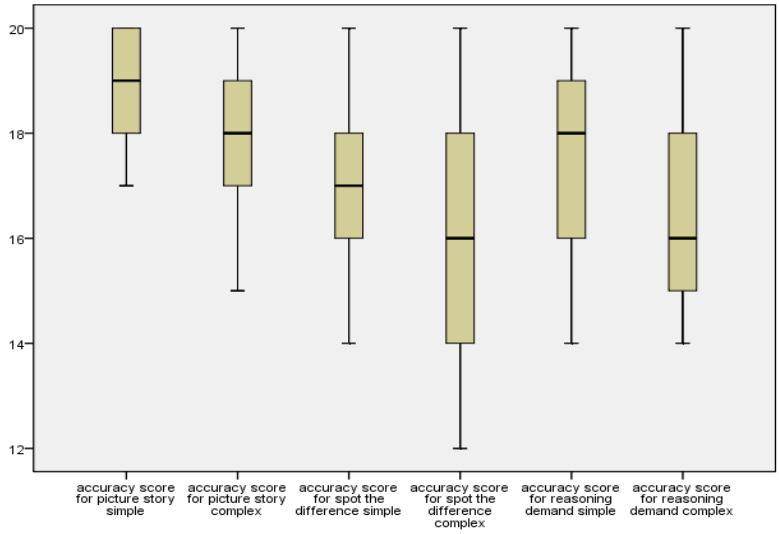
Figure 4.1 Box plots for the accuracy scores



The box plots of the scores show that there were neither signs of extreme cases nor of extremely skewed distributions. The following table shows the descriptive statistics for accuracy scores.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for accuracy

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
accuracy score for picture story simple	19.04	.89	25
accuracy score for picture story complex	18.00	1.32	25
accuracy score for spot the difference simple	16.96	1.72	25
accuracy score for spot the difference complex	16.12	2.28	25
accuracy score for reasoning demand simple	17.56	1.87	25
accuracy score for reasoning demand complex	16.76	1.90	25

Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics for accuracy scores and shows that the accuracy means scores that are the highest for the picture story task (19.04 for the simple and 18 for the complex one) and the simple reasoning demand task (17.56).

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According to the accuracy scores' analysis, it can be claimed that there is not extreme difference between the accuracy scores of simple and complex tasks. Therefore, the results are in agreement with Robinsons' cognition hypothesis which suggests that greater complexity will lead to greater accuracy. In both simple and complex tasks, participants had the best performance in the picture story task, followed by reasoning demand task and finally, in the spot the difference task.

Table 2. Tests of within-subjects effects for accuracy

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
task	102.57	2	51.29	16.15	.00
Error(task)	152.43	48	3.18		
complexity	29.93	1	29.93	15.99	.00
Error(complexity)	44.91	24	1.87		
task * complexity	.41	2	.21	.07	.93
Error(task*complexity)	139.25	48	2.90		

Table 2 shows the results of the ANOVA for the within subjects factors of tasks with three types (picture story, spot the difference, and reasoning demand) and complexity with two levels (simple and complex), and their interaction. The results of the table can be summarized as follow. The factor task (picture story, spot the difference, and reasoning demand) was significant with the p-value of less than 0.05. In other words: $F(2, 48) = 16.15$; $P < 0.05$. The factor complexity (simple and complex) was significant since the p-value for F was less than 0.05 or: $F(1, 24) = 15.99$; $p < 0.05$.The interaction between task and complexity (task*complexity) was not significant because its p-value was more than 0.05. In other words, $F(2, 48) = 0.07$; $p > 0.05$. Therefore, with regard to accuracy, there was a significant main effect for task and complexity, but there was not a significant interaction between these two variables. In other words, task type and complexity of the task both influence accuracy in writing. This means that with more complex tasks participants were able to use more complex structures accurately. The profile plot is shown in figure2. An interaction occurs when the lines cross one another, diverge, converge or have very different profiles.

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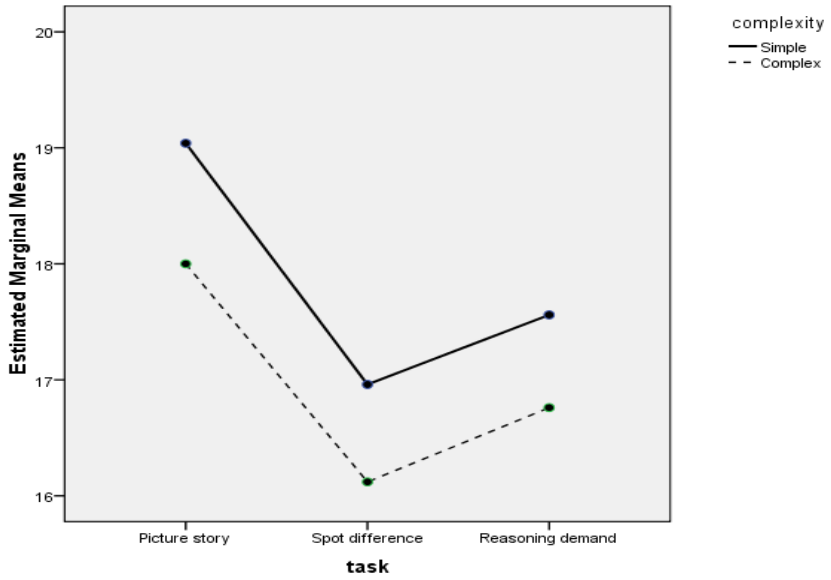
Figure 2. Profile plots for accuracy



In order to check the effects of task complexity on complexity of production, the two-factor within subjects ANOVA was used. Before embarking on the ANOVA test, it was necessary to check the data for outliers and anomalies. Therefore, the box plots were checked for the complexity scores.

Figure 3. Box plots for the complexity scores

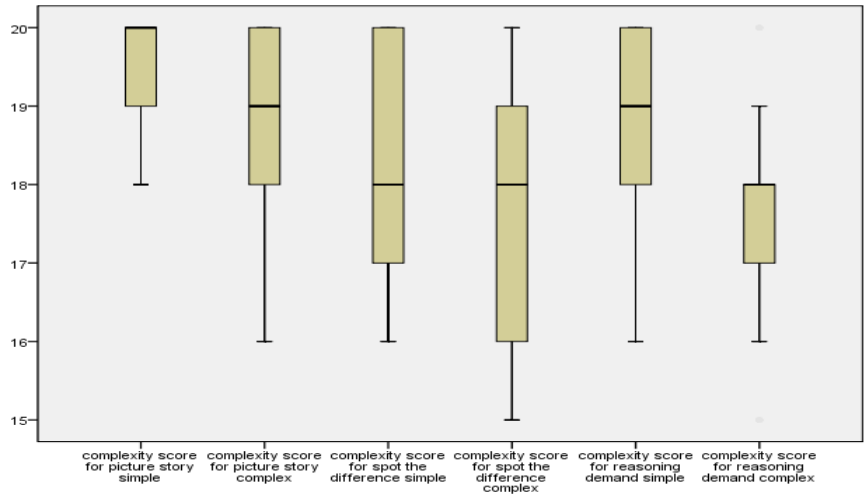


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Figure2 shows that there were neither outliers nor extreme values in the data.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for complexity

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
complexity score for picture story simple	19.60	.58	25
complexity score for picture story complex	18.72	1.31	25
complexity score for spot the difference simple	18.16	1.43	25
complexity score for spot the difference complex	17.72	1.70	25
complexity score for reasoning demand simple	18.68	1.28	25
complexity score for reasoning demand complex	17.68	1.52	25

Table3 shows the results of the descriptive statistics for the complexity scores. The highest mean scores for complexity are related to picture story (19.60 for simple and 18.72 for complex), simple reasoning demand (18.68), and simple spot the difference (18.16). In the simple task, the participants performed the best on the picture story task, followed by the descriptive picture task and finally, in the spot the difference task. Although in the complex version of the task they performed the best in the picture story task, but their performances were very close to each other in the spot the difference and reasoning demand tasks. Based on the above analysis, participants had difficulty in performing the complex form of the reasoning demand tasks and picture story tasks. In other words, an increase in the level of the complexity of the task decreases participants' allocation of attention in using more complex required structures. Table 4 shows the results of the ANOVA analysis. The results of the table can be summarized as follow:

Table 4. Tests of within-subjects effects for complexity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
task	41.77	2	20.89	12.60	.00
Error(task)	79.56	48	1.66		
complexity	22.43	1	22.43	14.20	.00

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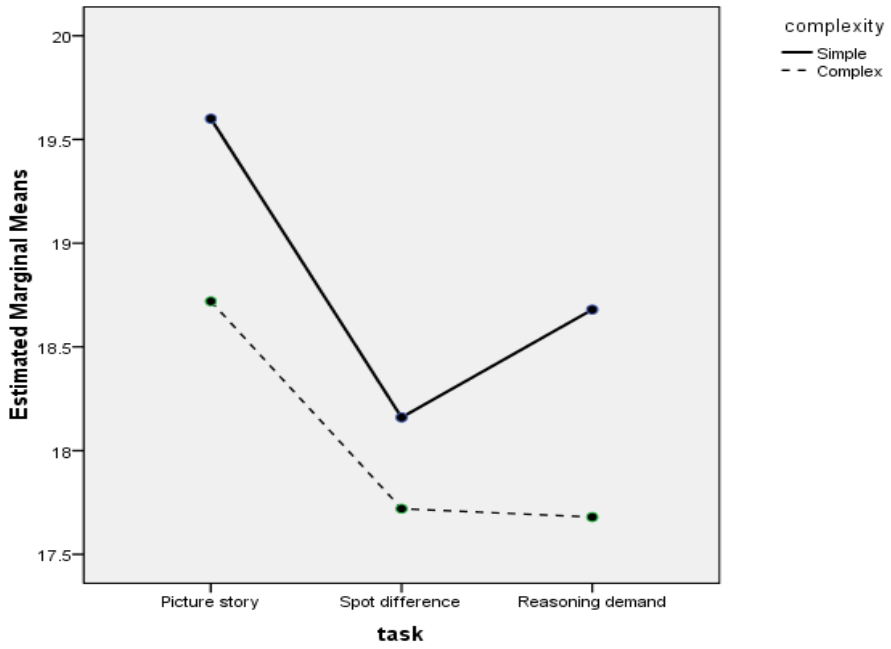
Error(complexity)	37.91	24	1.58		
task * complexity	2.17	2	1.09	.53	.59
Error(task*complexity)	98.49	48	2.05		

The factor task was significant since the p-value for F was less than 0.05, i.e. F (2, 48) = 12.60; $p < 0.05$. The factor complexity was significant with the p-value of less than 0.05. In other words, F (1, 24) = 14.20; $p < 0.05$. Finally, the interaction between task and complexity (task*complexity) was not significant since the p-value for F was more than 0.05 i.e. F (2, 48) = 0.53; $p > 0.05$. Therefore, there was a significant main effect for the task type and the complexity of the task, but the interaction between the two was not significant. Overall, theses results for complexity indicate that the factor complexity was affected in performing both simple and complex forms of the tasks. This means that most of the participants were not able to use the required structures appropriately according to the complexity level of the task. In other words, task type and complexity both influence the complexity scores at p-value less than 0.05. Figure 4 shows the profile plots for the complexity scores.

Figure 4. Profile plots for the complexity



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5. Discussion

The results of the study revealed that task complexity affects accuracy and syntactic complexity of participants' written performance differently with regard to each task. The first research question addressed the effects of task complexity on the accuracy of EFL learners' essays. Participants showed increases in accuracy to different degrees according to each task type. The second research question concerned the effects of task complexity on syntactic complexity of EFL learners' essays. Results showed that there is a negative relation between task complexity and complexity of participants' written essays. As the complexity of the task increases, participants' allocation of attention to complexity factors decreases. Therefore, we can not claim that the results of the following study are in line with Skehan and Foster's [10] model of task complexity claiming that, in case of increasing task complexity, participants prioritize between complexity factors because they cannot pay attention to both of the factors at the same time. On the other hand, there is similarity between the results of the following study and Robinson's (2001, 2005) model of task complexity. According to the findings of this model, participants have access to multiple resources during task performance and do not have to prioritize between complexity factors.

The findings of the present study provide useful insights for researchers and syllabus designers regarding task instruction and task sequencing. It is obvious that one of the most important problems employing tasks in classroom setting is the selection of unsuitable tasks for inappropriate contexts. So, the findings of the current study can help task instructors or maybe syllabus designers in selecting, grading, and designing tasks for classroom context.

6. Conclusion

The results of the following study revealed that there is not any significant effect regarding complexity factor, but the accuracy was affected. Considering the results of the study and the claims of two models related to task complexity which was proposed by Skehan & Robinson, the results of the following study neither give full support to the claims put forward by Skehan & Foster's limited attentional capacity model, nor to the findings of Robinson's multiple attentional resource model because participants did not exactly prioritize between task complexity factors, and they did not use all the available resources to focus their attention on both of the factors, too. Both of these cases were observed during essay evaluations. It is worth mentioning that the results of the following study cannot be generalized because it just examined two of the three factors in the discussion of task complexity. To make a more comprehensive conclusion, all of the three factors must be examined.

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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 that plays a key role in successful academic performances. To become proficient readers in ESP, learners should know how to tackle expository texts. The present study aimed at broadening our knowledge of the types of reading strategy used by EMP learners and the effectiveness of reading strategies instruction as regards developing reading comprehension. Moreover, the differences between high and low proficient readers were analyzed in light of patterns of strategy use and effectiveness of strategy instruction. In a comparative quasi-experimental design, forty learners of nursing, and lab students from Jahrom University of medical sciences participated in the study. Learners responding to a reading strategy survey also 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 samples *t*-test were applied to analyze learners' reading attainments. The results revealed that EMP learners mostly and significantly employed skimming and scanning strategies. To a lesser extent, they used discourse markers to comprehend medical texts. More proficient readers showed significantly higher rates of using skimming and scanning as compared with less proficient readers. However, differences in the use of discourse markers were not significant. Furthermore, findings indicated that learners in both high and low groups performed meaningfully better in their post- and delay tests after reading strategy instruction as compared with their pre-tests performance. The findings highlight the noteworthy effect of reading strategy instruction on learners' reading comprehension.

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Keywords: patterns of strategy use, reading comprehension, reading strategy instruction

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 words, 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 is 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 significant difference between self-reported patterns of strategy use?

3. Is there any significant difference between the types of reading strategies used by such students at high and low levels of L2 reading proficiency?

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4. How does reading strategies instruction affect reading comprehension achievement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention of such instruction and over time?
5. 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.

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2. Literature Review

Reading is one of the fundamental skills for academic success. 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; Vacca, 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 (Baire, 2005; Ozek & Civelek, 2006; Sporer, Brunstein & Kieschke, 2009; Cogmen & Saracaloglu, 2009; Geladari, Griva & Mastrothanasis, 2010).
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

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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)

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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 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

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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 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.

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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

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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 Shokrpour (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 nit 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

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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 posttest 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

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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 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.

Regarding the English program in medical schools, Nursing students are required to pass 8 credits in general English and 2 credits in ESP 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 the same general English course with the same materials. They had 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 survey

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 Reading Strategy survey was administered to the experimental groups. It was intentionally prepared in Persian in order to help the participants with easily understanding and responding. The survey 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 anesthesia students. The rounded reliability index for the test was .80.

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3.3 Data Collection Procedure

With regard to reading strategy instruction, the targeted reading strategies introduced by Oxford (1990), O'Malley & Chamot (1985) were determined for the strategy instruction treatment. 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.

In the second place and 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. The treatment lasted for 7 weeks. During the experiment, 3-5 students from both classes were repeatedly absent due to some personal reasons. Thus, those who did not sit the pre and post-tests were not included in the data analysis procedure which was followed 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 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 survey and the reading comprehension pre-test were administered to the participants. In first session, the participants were provided with a brief definition of reading strategies along with some examples of reading strategies which could help readers to have better understanding of strategy. Then, they were asked to indicate what type of reading strategies they would commonly use while reading in English. Thirty minutes was allocated to data collection with the questionnaire. In second session, the participants took the TOEFL test, which was intended to classify students at two proficiency levels in reading comprehension. They had forty five minutes to take the test. To probe the differences between learners' level of proficiency based on their pre-test reading comprehension performances, the results of the pre-test were analyzed and students were divided into two groups of high and low proficiency levels.

The instruction was conducted for students in L1 in order to avoid any misunderstanding the practical nature of strategies on the part of the participants. In each session, the instructors would focus on the application practice of 1 or 2 reading strategies depending on the complexity of the task. They would explain about the strategies in focus and how to apply them before, while, and after working with reading passages. Then, they would choose a passage from the text book for the practice of strategy application.

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 along with the required reading strategies to handle the task at hand. Due to the fact that the participants did not receive anything similar to this instruction on a regular basis outside the research environment, the possibility of history effect was out of question. To check for the due implementation of the instruction, 4 random class sessions (240 minutes) were observed. Reading strategy instruction was conducted by two instructors and lasted for seven weeks.

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After the 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 same test was exploited as a delay test to monitor reading achievement over time.

3.4 Data Analysis

Percentages and frequency counts were used to give a description of the results from the questionnaire regarding the type of 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 was also used to double check delineation of 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, at each proficiency level, performance on the pre-test was compared with that of the post-test and the delay test in order to trace and examine progress in reading comprehension within groups as a result of the treatment implementation.

4. Results

Q1: what types of reading strategies are used by Iranian EMP students?

To address this question, the results of the reading strategy survey were analyzed. Students' responses to the survey were evaluated on the basis of frequencies in strategy use. The results are reported in the following table.

Table1.
Patterns of Reading Strategy Use by EMP students

	Frequency	*Percentage %*
Skimming	21	78.0
Scanning	13	67.5
Discourse Marker	6	29.3

As Table 1 shows, students mostly reported the application of skimming (78%) and scanning (67.5%) strategies in dealing with reading texts. To a lesser extent, they apply discourse marker strategies (29.3%). Skimming helps learners to predict the main idea and what the text will discuss in general. Besides, learners scan the text for specific information to get a sense of the overall meaning.

Q2: Is there any significant difference between self-reported patterns of strategy use?

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The second question of the study was about the possibility of significance of the differences in the patterns of strategy use in general. A Chi-square test was run to test differences. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table2.
Chi-Square for Patterns of Strategy Use by EMP Students

	Frequency
Chi-Square	8.450[a]
Df	2
Sig.	.015

According to Table 2, there are significant differences in the pattern of strategy use reported by the participants (Sig. =. 01).

Q3. 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, students were first divided into two groups of high and low proficiency based on their performance in the pre-test. A cutoff point (17.5) was selected regarding the students' scores in the reading test. Table3 presents descriptive statistics.

Table3.
Descriptive Statistics of High and Low Proficient Readers

	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

According to table3, out of 40 students, 21 students were regarded as high proficient readers and 19 as low ones. In this regard, Table 4 below depicted to show the result of independent sample t-test applied to check the significance of differences between high and low groups.

Table4.
Independent Sample T-test between High and Low Proficient Readers

		Sig.	*T*	*df*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*Mean Difference*	*Std. Error Difference*
Pre-Test	Equal variances assumed	.096	12.322	38	.000	11.80113	1.12005
	Equal variances not assumed		12.075	30.681	.000	11.80113	1.14292

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Following table 4, learners in higher group significantly (p=.00) gain better results in their proficiency test compared to lower ones. It can be inferred that both groups truly differentiate in their reading performances

To further check the differences of patterns in strategy use by high and low proficient readers, a Chi-square test was run. The results are tabulated in Table 5.

Table5.
Patterns of Strategy Use by High- and Low- Proficient Readers

		Reading Strategies			
		Skim	*Scan*	*DMs*	*Total*
Group I	Count	11	7	3	21
	% within Group	52.4%	33.3%	14.3%	100.0%
	% within Reading Strategies	52.4%	53.8%	50.0%	52.5%
	% of Total	27.5%	17.5%	7.5%	52.5%
Group II	Count	10	6	3	19
	% within Group	52.6%	31.6%	15.8%	100.0%
	% within Reading Strategies	47.6%	46.2%	50.0%	47.5%
	% of Total	25.0%	15.0%	7.5%	47.5%
Total	Count	21	13	6	40
	% within Group	52.5%	32.5%	15.0%	100.0%
	% within Reading Strategies	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	52.5%	32.5%	15.0%	100.0%

Considering the information presented in Table 5, high proficient readers mostly reported the application of skimming strategy while reading passages in English (52.4%). The implication is that high proficient readers tend to get a preview of the text more than low proficient ones. Moreover, high-proficient readers check the text for specific details more than low-proficient ones (53.8% vs. 46.2%). However, these differences were not the case for employing discourse markers reported as a third type of reading strategy being used by the participants (50% vs. 50%). Generally speaking, EMP readers with higher proficiency seem to employ more reading strategies (52.5%) in processing a text as compared with low-proficient readers (47.5%).

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As clarified above, the differences between raw frequencies and percentages point to differences in the reported patterns of strategy use in the case of skimming and scanning, though employing discourse markers could not be taken as a distinctive feature. To scrutinize the nature of the reported differences in an empirical way, however, a series of Chi-square test were run; the results are presented in the following tables successively. Table 6 presents the results of comparing groups' patterns of strategy use as regards skimming.

Table6.
Chi-square results for Skimming Strategy

	Value	*Df*	*Sig. (2-sided)*
Pearson Chi-Square	30.643[a]	17	.022
Likelihood Ratio	40.948	17	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.333	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	40		

As depicted in Table 6, the findings show that high and low learners showed significantly different preferences for using skimming strategy (Sig. = 0.02).

Table7.
Chi-square results for Scanning Strategy

	Value	*Df*	*Sig. (2-sided)*
Pearson Chi-Square	31.312[a]	19	.037
Likelihood Ratio	43.215	19	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.388	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	40		

Chi-square test results in Table 7 shows a significant difference between high- and low-proficient readers regarding the use of scanning (Sig. = 0.03).

Table8.
Chi-square results for discourse markers Strategies

	Value	*Df*	*Sig. (2-sided)*
Pearson Chi-Square	18.480[a]	14	.186
Likelihood Ratio	24.348	14	.042
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.678	1	.031
N of Valid Cases	40		

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	Value	Df	Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.480[a]	14	.186
Likelihood Ratio	24.348	14	.042
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.678	1	.031
N of Valid Cases	40		

Regarding the findings given in Table 8, there is no significant differences between high- and low-proficient readers in the use of discourse markers (Sig. = 0.18).

Q4. How does reading strategies instruction affect reading comprehension achievement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time?

In this quasi-experimental study, students were instructed over seven weeks on applying various reading strategies while reading academic passages in English. A post-test and a delay test were administrated to check learners' achievement just after the treatment and also after a time interval. The results of the analyses will be given below.

To give a clearer view of learners' achievement, descriptive statistics for their performance in the post-test and the delay test are presented in Table 9 below.

Table9.
Descriptive Statistics for the Post and Delay Tests

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
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

Given the data in the table, both high- and low-proficient learners have shown success in their reading performance after the intervention of the treatment (M_H=24.65, M_L=18.31) and over time (M_H=29.19, M_L=20.84). Differences being considerable, their significance was check using independent samples t-tests analyses. Results of the t-tests are presented in table 10.

Table10.
Independent Sample T-tests for the Post and Delay Tests

		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Post Test	Equal variances assumed	5.935	38	.000	6.33802	1.06792

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	Equal variances not assumed	6.113	30.631	.000	6.33802	1.03679
Delay Test	Equal variances assumed	13.371	38	.000	8.34837	.62436
	Equal variances not assumed	13.479	37.884	.000	8.34837	.61936

Regarding the results given in Table 10, the participants in the high group performed significantly better compared with their low-proficient counterparts both in the post-test (Sig. = 0.00) and the delay-test (Sig. = 0.00).

Q5. How does reading strategies instruction influence reading comprehension improvement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time?

In this quasi-experimental study, the participants were instructed over seven weeks on applying various reading strategies while reading English passages. Pre-, post- and delay tests were successively administrated to check for possible differences in learners' performances before and after the treatment and overtime.
To check for learners' improvement differences, paired samples t-tests were run. Results of descriptive statistics and t-test analyses are given in Tables 11, 12, and 13.

Table11.
Descriptive Statistics for the Pre-, Post- and Delay-Tests

	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 Test	1.00	21	24.6538	4.17244	.91050
	2.00	19	18.3158	2.16160	.49591
Delay Test	1.00	21	29.1905	2.11232	.46095
	2.00	19	20.8421	1.80318	.41368

Table12.
Paired Samples t-tests for both Proficiency Groups

		Mean	*Std. Deviation*	*Std. Error Mean*	*t*	*df*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*
Pair 1	Pre/Low – Post/Low	-10.892	5.169	1.186	-9.18	18	.000

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		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Pre/Low – Post/Low	-10.892	5.169	1.186	-9.18	18	.000
Pair 2	Pre/High – Post/High	-3.667	3.661	.799	-4.59	20	.000

As indicated by the results presented in Table 12, there are significant differences between EMP learners' performance before and after the intervention of the treatment in both groups (Sig. = .000). In order to get a deeper view of learners' reading comprehension improvement as a result of strategy instruction, learners' scores on a delay test two weeks after the treatment were compared with those on the pre-test. Results of the comparison are presented in the following table.

Table13.
Paired Samples t-test on the Post- and Delay Tests Results

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Post/Low – Delay/Low	-2.526	1.123	.25784	-9.79	18	.000
Pair 2	Post/High – Delay/High	-4.536	3.269	.71336	-6.36	20	.000

Table 13 shows that for both groups, students in their delay tests got significantly better results than those on their post-test after the treatment.

5. Discussion

5.1. Research Question 1

What types of reading strategies are used by Iranian EMP students?

The reading strategy survey was administrated to the participants the data were analyzed based on the frequencies of the selected strategies (see Table1). Findings indicated that students mostly preferred to preview a text to get an accurate depiction of it. That is a kind of 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 tended to use scanning to find particular facts or pieces of information in the text (Table1). Learners were likely to search texts for numbers,

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proper names, dates and definitions. They would run their eyes rapidly over several lines to hold an image or idea clearly in mind.

Similar to skimming, scanning is also a cognitive reading strategy usually applied to process information for learning, obtaining, and saving. In addition, findings confirm employment of discourse markers by learners in the course of reading comprehension. As a cognitive strategy, these markers are utilized by learners to find relationships among ideas indicated in phrases, clauses and sentences. Learners apply these cognitive strategies in order to better retrieve and use information (Oxford, 1990).

The findings are in line with previous research findings as regards 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).

Geladari et *al*. (2010) report that skimming and scanning are among strategies that are employed by bilingual learners; "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% use for scanning strategy 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).

Generally speaking, skimming and scanning and discourse marker are cognitive reading strategies which give learners the gist of the text, help them discuss the issues raised, and provide them with specific details of a topic and key expressions. These abilities raise students' awareness of the text being read and let them learn and retain information in the course of applying of received input and these are the basic objectives in language education.

5.2. Research Question 2

Is there any significant difference between self-reported patterns of strategy use?

Respondents' self-reports of strategy use were further analyzed for checking the significance of the differences in the application of reading strategies by EMP learners. As the finding indicated learners apply skimming, scanning and discourse marker strategies significantly differently. It denotes that learners meaningfully apply reading strategies one by one during their reading. As Geladari et *al*. (2010) state, learners significantly go through the text and utilize reading strategies. It indicates that reading is more than using linguistic and decoding skills. Learners significantly and carefully use strategies. EMP learners attempt to have a preview of the text before read it in detail. It helps them to evaluate the writer's point of view and the whole structure of the text. According to the findings, EMP learners reading technical texts significantly apply this strategy, skimming.

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They similarly pay attention to specific information so as to increase their comprehension of the text. EMP learners focus on dates, particular items, places and proper names to create text meaning. They meaningfully apply scanning strategy. To the same extent, learners significantly focus on the conjunctions and connectors throughout the text. Contrasting, creating similarity, generalizing, and adding shows the connection and organization of the text of how sentences are interrelated. Learners work on these connecters to make reading understandable. According to Davis (2010), learners meaningfully and effectively apply reading strategies to organize text perception and apply it in their academic performances. These strategies boost learners' perception of reading passages (Davis, 2010).

Briefly stated, learners significantly utilize these strategies, skimming and scanning and discourse marker, to discover the author's meaning and use the information within the texts. Accordingly, strategies fortify learners' awareness and help them acquire and recollect information.

5.3. Research Question 3

Is there any significant difference between the types of reading strategies used by such students at high and low levels of L2 reading proficiency?

Participants took a TOFEL test at the outset of the treatment and were divided into 2 groups of high and low proficient readers in accordance with the test results. It was generally found that more proficient readers employ more types of reading strategies, namely, skimming, scanning, and utilizing discourse markers to process text in English. It shows that high proficient readers try more to get the gist of texts, elicit particular details as well as employ cohesion and coherence in comprehending texts.

Concerning group differences in patterns of strategy use, Chi-square tests were run to compare the frequency of strategy use reported by the participants in the two groups. According to the findings, there are significant differences between high proficient readers and the low ones in their reading strategies employment. Results showed that high proficient readers read texts to get an overview of the content, intention of the author or, how materials are structured. They similarly scan text so as to concentrate mainly on coming upon a particular idea or an answer that satisfies their search for specific information.

According to Rokhsari (2012) the more successful readers are, the more type of reading strategies they employ in terms of reading strategy use. In the same vein, Geladari et *al*., (2010) confirm that "cross tabulation produced statistically significant differences (X^2=21.259, $p<0.000$) 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). That is, readers with higher proficiency level skim a passage to form a preliminary understanding of the content that will be come across. Ozek & Civelek (2006) as well argues that successful readers employ more pictures/illustrations (4.1>3.3) and skimming (4.4>3.8) against poor readers.

Moreover, Geladari et *al*., (2010) reported that successful readers used scanning strategy to identify specific information (90%) in contrast to poor readers (13.6%) (X^2=17.338, $p<0.000$). Additionally, results revealed significant differences between the type of bilingualism (X^2=8.960, $p<0.011$); all simultaneous bilingual children employed

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scanning the text either adequately (50%) or partially adequately (50%), compare to successive bilinguals who did not use it at all (50%). It is implied that successful readers try to locate information and do not follow the linearity of the passage.
In line with the findings of this study, Griva et *al.* (2009b) assert that poor readers show lower level ability in text processing as they engage more 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 engage in monitoring comprehension (Cotterall, 1990; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). On the other hand, Griva, et *al*. (2009b) argue that more competent readers seem to employ top-down strategies. According to Green and Oxford (1995) and Oxford (1996), successful readers are more capable in adapting strategies to their learning needs. Besides, they can adapt their comprehension strategies to 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 by learners at different proficiency levels in general is that successful learners show capability in using more reading strategies in realizing passages while poor readers utilize fewer strategies.

5.4. Research Question 4

How does reading strategies instruction affect reading comprehension achievement at these two levels of reading proficiency as monitored after the intervention of such instruction and over time?

As it was indicated in chapter four, more proficient learners showed significantly better gain in their post and delay test performances after the instruction (Table9). In line with findings in previous studies (Al-Tamimi, 2006; Bereiter & Bird, 1985; McNamara, 2007), this study provided support for the point that reading strategy instruction boosts learners' strategy employment and assists them in understanding texts. According to Bereiter and Bird (1985), strategy instruction helps learners in coping with technical texts. By the same token, McNamara (2007) asserts that low proficient readers can make the best use of strategy employment and strategy instruction and as they get familiar with various strategies they can apply them more while reading texts and analyzing authors' messages. Based on this assertion, it can be stressed that strategy instruction could embark learners on a path of correct strategy implementation and accordingly successful reading comprehension.

5.5. Research Question 5

How does reading strategies instruction influence reading comprehension improvement at these two levels of reading proficiency after the intervention and over time?

Pre-, post- and delay tests were administered and the required data were collected and analyzed. The analysis of findings revealed that high proficient readers had significant improvement due to reading strategy instruction. The implication could be that high proficient readers' performance was significantly influenced by strategy instruction as manifested by scores in post- and delay tests. Similarly, low proficient readers perform significantly better after reading strategy instruction in post- and delay tests (see tables 11, 12, and 13).

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The findings in this study could be taken as empirical support for the point raised by McNamara (2007) that is, reading strategies instruction is definitely very effectual for learners who show lack enough knowledge in reading, in addition to those with lower reading skills. Al-Tamimi (2006) reported significant improvement in reading comprehension of participants in the experimental group in their study as compared with their pre-test performance. 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 promotes reading comprehension and that the reason why students do not grasp texts and show poor reading performance is that they are not equipped with knowledge of strategies. May's (2010) results confirmed that participants got considerably higher scores 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). According to May (2010), students who receive appropriate training of reading strategies; they have better understanding of written texts.

6. Conclusion

It goes without saying that reading has become the half of learners' educational studies. It is not 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.

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THE IMPACT OF TEACHERS' REFLECTIVE JOURNAL WRITING ON THEIR SELF-EFFICACY

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Abstract
Teacher efficacy has been proven to be an important variable in effective teaching. One challenge in teacher education is to provide strategies and processes which equip teachers to improve their self-efficacy. A strategy that has received considerable attention in the literature is reflective journal writing. The objective of this study was to explore the impact of reflective journal writing as a self-assessment technique on teachers' self-efficacy and also teachers' attitude toward such a practice. The participants were 40 Iranian female teachers in two experimental and control groups. The particular treatment used in the experimental group was reflective journal writing. At the beginning and the end of the semester, both groups completed a questionnaire regarding self-efficacy to investigate the possible effect of reflective journal writing on teachers' self-efficacy. Teachers' perceptions about reflective journal writing were also analyzed based on content analysis at the end of the semester. The results revealed that writing reflective journals had an impact on promoting the teachers' self-efficacy.

Keywords: journal writing, reflective journal writing, self-efficacy, teachers' self-efficacy

1. Introduction

During the past two decades, self-efficacy has emerged as a highly effective predictorof teachers' success and learning. The concept of teacher self-efficacy refers to the beliefs of teachers related to their capabilities to affect the learning outcomes of students including those with low motivation and low ability to learn (Bandura, 1977; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). It can be argued that the levels of teachers' efforts, targets and desires differ depending on self efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Teachers with high teacher self-efficacy make more efforts to overcome the problems they face, and they can maintain these efforts longer (Bandura, 1977; 1986). There are also differences between teachers with high and low self-efficacy beliefs in issues such as using new techniques and giving feedback to students with learning disabilities (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Teacher efficacy stems from lifelong experiences resulting in teacher beliefs and perceptions affecting how teachers

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see themselves individually and collectively. However, few teachers, especially novice teachers, question their beliefs and perceptions; most teachers tend to view their beliefs or perceptions as the commonly assumed and shared ways of believing and acting. Therefore, few teachers enjoy a high sense of self-efficacy beliefs. In order to enhance teachers' self-efficacy in their practice, evaluation systems that identify teachers' strengths and weaknesses for improvement are needed. Researchers have proposed various ways to evaluate teacher self-efficacy and improvement among which teacher self-assessment has been paid less attention.

Teacher self-assessment is an important source of self-efficacy information in which teachers observes their effect on student achievement, make a judgment about how well they attained their instructional goals, and reflect on how satisfied they are (Ross & Bruce, 2007). Confronting the concept of self- assessment, most of the research has been devoted to students' self-assessment in regard to educational achievement. Moreover, Studies concerning teacher evaluation have mostly focused on teacher evaluation by a supervisor or an observer. Reflective journal writing as a self-assessment strategy of reflection and decision making is today established as a key concept in recent discussions of teachers' learning Farrell (2008). Reflective practice is seen as a teaching technique which involves constant questions about one's own teaching and then attempting to take a more systematic approach to practices and to work with others who had such common interests and questions as yours (Pickett, 1999 cited in Maarof, 2007). The benefits of reflective writing are stated in several studies. Studies have shown the role of reflective writing in promoting reflection amongst pre-service and in-service teachers (Charles, 1997). Hiemstra (2001) pointed out a number of potential benefits of keeping reflective journals, such as increased ability of self-expression, self discovery and reduced stress. Reflective writing can be used by teachers in order to reflect on their teaching attitudes and practices. Although some research has examined the academic and cognitive value of reflective practice, little has sought the psychological impact of reflective writing on the personal development of teachers. Therefore, the present research has attempted to develop an understanding of the concept of teacher reflective journal writing and its possible impact on teacher self-efficacy.

2. Review of Literature

Teacher Self-efficacy

Teacher efficacy concept is originated from Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory (1997). The mentioned theory has influenced educational organizations, which has been studied by researchers who use a sociocognitive approach to understand how the emergent theories of individuals impact organizational performance (Bandura, 1997). The beliefs teachers hold in relation to their own effectiveness are known as teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy influences Teachers' instructional decisions, which ultimately shape students' educational experiences, and in turn affect academic development outcomes (Romi&Leyser, 2006). Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) referred to teacher efficacy as a teacher's "judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of students' engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (p. 783).There are two of dimensions

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concerning teacher efficacy including "general teacher efficacy" which refers to teachers' harbor beliefs about their own personal abilities to influence their students' learning and achievements and "personal teaching efficacy" which is beliefs concerning the extent to which teaching can overcome external influences on the student.(Ashton & Webb, 1986).These two dimensions (personal teacher efficacy and general teacher efficacy) can be related to pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs about control, management, and motivation (Woodcock, 2011). Research in connection with teacher self-efficacy beliefs shows that high self-efficacy teachers are more likely to persevere in their attempts to achieve learning goals when they encounter obstacles, tend to experiment with effective instructional strategies, and are more willing to run risks in their classrooms (Bruce, Esmonde, Ross, Dookie& Beatty, 2010). Many studies are in favor of positive influences of efficacy beliefs on abilities regarding teachers' efficient classroom management and interaction with students. It has been found that teachers' cultural and social backgrounds also seem to affect teachers' sense of self efficacy (Lina &Gorrellb, 2001). Gender and years of experience as other factors have been explored to affect teachers' efficacy beliefs, too.Several studies have examined the effects of teacher education concerning teachers' sense of efficacy. In summary, teacher efficacy is linked to academic achievement and teacher behaviors are known to affect academic achievement. Therefore, teacher's sense of efficacy as an important variable in research on teaching deserves the continued attention of investigators in this area of inquiry.

Teacher Reflective Journal Writing

Reflective writing in teacher education is a developmental process, performed before and after teaching episodes. Writing journals as a learning tool is mediating between existing and new knowledge.Kerka (2002) referred to the power of journal writing as "breaking habitual ways of thinking, enhancing the development of meta-cognition, increase awareness of tacit knowledge, facilitate self-exploration and work out solutions to problems". There are many reasons for teachers to develop reflective practice. Perhaps the most important is that teachers need to be reflective in order to deal with the inevitable uncertainties involved in everyday decisions that affect the progress of students. According to Larrivee& Cooper (2001), effective teachers should engage in both critical inquiry and thoughtful reflection, encountering all the complexities, ambiguities, and dilemmas that characterize today's classrooms. Teaching is a complex endeavor that necessitates continuous learning as well as the capacity to be reflective. Many look upon the development of reflective practice as the foundation for the highest professional competence (Larrivee& Cooper, 2001). One of the major goals of reflective writing is achieving higher levels of reflective thinking.Clark (1994) believed that initiating dialogues based on questions may result in different and higher levels of thinking. Davis (2003, 2006) encouraged teachers to use integrative reflective practice, reflect on multiple aspects of teaching, hoping to improve through these practices.She suggested that teachers need support and practice in reflective writing otherwise they write "unproductive reflections", which are solely descriptive, without much analysis: a list of ideas rather than connecting them logically (Davis, 2006). The discussion above indicates that reflective writing in teacher education is viewed as a tool for better teaching, without examining a direct

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link between them. Reflection in teacher's professional development is seen as an instrument for change, involvement in research, and self-assessment (Avalos, 2011).

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research questions guiding the process of the study were:

1. Does teachers' reflective journal writing improve their self-efficacy?
2. What are teachers' attitudes toward reflective journal writing?

Based on the first research question, the following null hypothesis was proposed.
Teachers' reflective journal writing does not improve their self-efficacy.

4. Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were 40 Iranian female EFL teachers working in Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Kermanshah. The participants' years of teaching experience ranged from 5 to 9 years. There were two groups of teachers, 20 in the experimental group, and 20 in the control group. The teachers in the experimental group received reflective journal writing training.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study included journal entries written by teachers every week used as the treatment in the experimental group, a teacher self-efficacy questionnaire served as pre and post-tests, as well as paragraphs written by teachers including teachers' attitudes and ideas about reflective journal writing practice. Reflective journal writing process was on the basis of Burton (2009) framework. The present framework was used as it encouraged integrative reflections, reflecting on multiple aspects of teaching, hoping to develop through these practices a more complex view of teaching. Therefore, it included different types of reflective writing (descriptive writing, descriptive reflection, dialogic reflection, and critical reflection) identified by Hatton and Smith (1995). This framework of reflective writing is presented as a series of simple-to-follow steps addressed to a teacher who has not previously written reflectively. The steps involve writing responses to a short series of essential questions. They are "What happened?", "How did it happen?", "Why did it happen?" and "What does it mean?". The reflective writing process begins with a description of, for example, an incident, a phenomenon observed, or an unresolved teaching puzzle by choosing a simple incident or concern (e.g., use of a teaching aid in a specific lesson). The second step of reflection begins to deepen. Writing in response to a "how" question enables teachers to comment on what they wrote before, to revise or elaborate it. The third step includes a response to a "why"-type question. As teachers write on the cause, effect, and meaning of their incident, topic or problem, they can find that they are beginning to theorize and relate their writing to other events or reading resources. Reflective writing process continues in response to questions such as "What does this mean to me now?". On each occasion, teachers give themselves further opportunities to deepen and broaden their reflections and link them, for example, to reflections on other experiences. By following the process

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explained above, teachers can write systematically and flesh out their writing. Being systematic and contextualizing what they write, enables them to explain their reflections later on, so that they have lasting credibility and continuing potential for further learning (Burton, 2009). Teacher's self- efficacy was measured using Banduara's self-efficacy questionnaire (1997). This questionnaire was used as it reflected on the meaning of teacher self-efficacy based on social cognitive theory. Bandura (1997) pointed out that teachers' sense of efficacy is not necessarily uniform across the many different types of tasks teachers are asked to perform, nor across different subject matter. In response, he constructed a 30-item instrument with seven subscales: efficacy to influence decision making, efficacy to influence school resources, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate. Each item is measured on a 9-point scale anchored with the notations: ''nothing, very little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal'' .This measure attempted to provide a multifaceted picture of teachers' efficacy beliefs without becoming too narrow or specific. The reliability of the present instrument was tested through Cronbach's Alpha which was found to be 0.91. The validity was supported by findings of prior research (Zimmerman &Baunduara, 1994).

Procedure

In order to answer the main research questions, at the beginning of the semester, both experimental and control groups were chosen from teachers working in Iran Language Institute. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants before following the procedure. The selected participants were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. Bandura's self-efficacy questionnaire was distributed among both experimental and control groups as the pre-test of the present study. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire. The experimental group was informed of the purpose of writing a journal which was deliberately to "think about action with a view to its improvement" (Hatton and Smith, 1995, p. 8), self-awareness, improvement of critical thinking, and self- improvement. The procedure of the study was explained to the participants. A five-page pamphlet including guidelines in the process of writing a journal was given to the participants. The pamphlet provided teachers with what the concept of journal writing was and included four steps for teachers to follow in the process of writing a journal based on Burton (2009) framework. The teachers in the experimental group were required to keep journal entries every week, which included the reflections of the teachers on their teaching experiences and performance in class and their experiences in the institute they were teaching as a whole. The duration of the teaching practice was 10 weeks. Journal entries were collected by the instructor (researcher) every week. Journal entries were checked by the instructor in order to make sure the participants were following the steps they had to consider in the process of journal writing. Factors such as length, grammar or spelling of the entries were not of the main concerns. If a participant had failed to follow the suggested format in the process of reflective writing, the instructor would have given the required advice to the participant. After ten week reflective writing practice by the participants in the experimental group, they were asked to write down their ideas and

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opinion on journal writing to elicit information on teachers' conception of reflection and of reflective journals. Finally, both experimental and control groups were invited to mark the self-efficacy questionnaire once more as the post-test of the study.The scores of the pre and post-self-efficacy questionnaires were analyzed based on the following procedure.

5. Data Analysis and Results

To find out the impact of reflective journal writing on self-efficacy, both qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures were followed. Quantitative data was drawn from Bandura's self-efficacy questionnaire which served as the pre and post-test of the study. The qualitative data was drawn from the analysis of teachers' ideas toward reflective journal writing in their final journal entries at the end of the treatment. The scores on the questionnaire were analyzed through t-test. Within both experimental and control groups, an independent t- test was conducted to check the probable effect of reflective journal writing on promoting teachers' self-efficacy. For the control and the experimental groups, the mean scores were analyzed to see if there was any significant difference between the mean scores of the self-efficacy questionnaire on the pretest. Similarly, the mean scores for the experimental and the control groups were analyzed to find out if there was any difference between two sets of scores on the post-tests. Teachers' attitudes about journal writing were analyzed based on content analysis to investigate the effect of reflective journal writing treatment on teachers in the experimental group.Figure1 depicts the mean difference of the pre-test.

Table 1 displays the independent sample t-test for the pre-test in the experimental and control groups. As indicated, the observed significance is larger than the alpha decision level set, therefore it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the groups at the beginning of the study.

Table 1
Independent Sample t-test for the Pre-test

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Ex Gr	20	152.1	13.69	-.373	38	.711
Co Gr	20	154	18.19			

In Table 1, it is indicated that there is not a significant difference between the control and the experimental pre-test scores [t (38) = -.373; p=.711>0.05]. Table 2 indicates the independent sample t-test for the post-test in the experimental and the control groups.

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Table 2
Independent Sample t-test for the Post-test

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Ex Gr	20	175.1	15.99	3.452	38	.001
Co Gr	20	156	18.71			

As table 2 indicates, there is a significant difference between the control and experimental post-test scores [t (38) = 3.452; p<0.05]. As the significance equals .001 and itis less than .05, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, the experimental group (*M* = 175.1) self-efficacy was higher than that of the control group (*M* = 156) at the end of the treatment. Based on the results in Figures 1, 2, and Tables1, and 2, we can realize that reflective journal writing as a self- assessment technique was effective in enhancing teacher's self-efficacy.

Teachers' Perceptions toward Reflective Journal Writing

Apart from the results of the self-efficacy questionnaire, analyzing the teachers' ideas about journal writing through paragraphs they wrote at the end of the treatment showed that they had gained more confidence in their teaching. The 20 teachers in the experimental group were requested to write on their thoughts of reflective journal writing at the end of the treatment. In general, the teachers provided a positive response to reflective journal writing. An overwhelming majority (90%) of the teachers stated that they enjoyed the experience of writing a journal. A common response was that reflecting in writing assisted them in evaluating their teaching, in terms of their strengths and weaknesses in conducting lessons in class. Only 10 percent of the teachers (two of the participants) said that they did not like journal writing. The reasons included lacking enough time to write a journal and considering writing as a boring process. A majority admitted that writing a reflective journal helped them in their teaching and learning process and that it assisted them in identifying mistakes or weaknesses in their teaching. In their paragraphs some of the teachers wrote:

T1: *I am thinking of myself if reflective journal writing improved my teaching or not. I think yes. When I look at my writing paper which we wrote every week, I can see my progress specially in dealing with class management aspects.*

T2: *In journal writing, I had to reflect on what I had learned as a teacher at the end of the week. Writing a journal enabled me to rethink what I had heard and had done after the lesson. I got familiar with the word reflection in the whole process… Now I am not just finding reasons, but also reflecting on different solutions … I have learned a lot through reflection, and now I can apply the knowledge in the future."*

T3:*I think that this experience was very important for me because this was the first time that I was assessing my own teaching process. This way, I could accept my teaching weaknesses and strengths more easily as I had found them out by myself. Through reflection, I tried to pay more attention to the problems I had already ignored and sought for useful solutions to them.*

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T4*: I think reflective journal writing was great as it helped me to deal with a problem I had in one of my classes. I had difficulties in making some of my students understand their homework assignment in English at the beginning of the term. I had to go back and teach again the concepts that I had taught before and explain the assignment again. Through reflective writing, I found that I could write their homework assignment on the board in order to avoid any confusion.*

Based on teachers' perceptions on their journal writing practice in their paragraphs, it can be concluded that most of the teachers found reflective journal writing to be beneficial to teacher development.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Since the introduction of the concept of self-efficacy in social sciences, research in different areas of education has investigated the contributions of teacher efficacy perceptions to various instructional variables and has shown, on most of the occasions, that there is a significant positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and these variables. In this study, the researcher aimed to promote self-efficacy of the participants through using reflective journal writing as a self assessment technique and by giving them active roles to assess their own performance with an expectation of an increase in their self-efficacy. Similarly, in a study conducted by Ross & Bruce (2007), the aim was to increase teacher efficacy of mathematic teachers through a professional development program. They found that there was a positive effect, although the results were statistically significant only for teacher confidence in managing students. In another study conducted by Bruce et al. (2010), the effects of sustained classroom-embedded teacher professional learning on teacher efficacy and related student achievement was analyzed. The results revealed that there was an indirect but powerful relationship between increasing teacher efficacy and increasing student achievement. Here, the present study examined the impact of teachers' reflective journal writing on their self-efficacy. On the basis of the results of the statistical analysis of the self-efficacy questionnaire, and teachers' positive ideas toward reflective journal writing in their final paragraphs, it can be concluded that involvement of teachers in reflective writing practice enhanced the self-efficacy of the teachers.

Limitations

The present study is limited to a specific community of Iranian EFL experienced teachers in Iran Language Institute. Therefore, the results do not represent all the EFL teachers (including both experienced and inexperienced teachers). Another limitation of the study is its being dependent on the honesty and sincerity of the English language teachers who participated in the study. Finally, the sample size of this study was small. Despite the transparency of the study findings, a larger number of the participants would have permitted a greater reliance to the results.

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IS THERE ANY RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PERSONALITY TYPE AND THEIR PRONUNCIATION?

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Abstract
The present study was implemented to investigate the possible relationship between Iranian EFL learners' personality type (extroversion and introversion) and their pronunciation. To answer this question 30 intermediate and upper intermediate language learners were randomly selected via administration of OPT exam to 100 participants. The participants were asked to fill the EPQ (Esyneck Personality Questionnaire) to be categorized as either introvert or extrovert. At lasts the learners' pronunciation assessed by raters to analyze it base on IELTS speaking criteria. Chi-square along with Eta was run as the main statistical analyses. The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between EFL learners' pronunciation and the personality characteristic. The scores of pronunciation had a positive relationship with the introversion of participants, that is, the more introvert the subjects, the better their performance on them.

Key words: Eysenck personality questionnaire (epq), extroversion, introversion

1. Introduction:

The relationship between personality and second language learning ability, has received some research interest in the last few decades. For second language learners to make maximum progress with their own learning styles, their individual differences must be recognized and attended too. It is proven by a number of theories that personality factors significantly influence the degree of success that individuals achieve in learning a second language (Gass & Selinker, 1994). According to Cook

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(1996), assumption some features of the learner's personality might encourage or inhibit second language learning. Without any doubt, personality is the most individual characteristic of a human being. The study of personality is one of the main themes in psychology and the sub discipline. This very active field has its roots in classic psycho-analytic theory at the beginning of the 20th century and its history bears the marks of all the major psychological paradigms, from the behaviorist and humanist to the social-cognitive. In addition, we also find in the literature numerous isolated personality measures of varying levels of breadth, often with no linkage to any specific personality theory. Several studies have attempted to identify the personality correlates of academic achievement. The most researched personality aspect in language studies has been the extraversion–introversion dimension. This is understandable, since this trait is fundamental to a number of personality theories, from the MBTI typology to Eysenck's model and the Big Five construct. Furthermore, as Furnham (1990) pointed out that it is relatively easy to produce a reliable measure of this trait and there are also several obvious commonsense relationships between extraversion and language use. Indeed, research has found that extraverts are more talkative and use fewer pauses that introverts, while the latter tend to use more formal speech with more careful grammatical constructions. I narrow the focus down to the relationship between personality and language learning especially on learners' pronunciation as a sub skill of speaking. Li (2003) holds that speaking remains the most difficult skill to master for the majority of English learners. Although speaking has been included in the educational plan for English teaching in colleges and universities in the past years, the percentage of time devoted to activities in which students can communicate with each other in English remains small in the whole class. Speaking is the skill that the students will be judged upon most in real-life situation. It is an important part of everyday interaction and most often the first impression of a person is based on his/her ability to speak fluently, comprehensibly and also .So, "as teachers, we have a responsibility to prepare the students as much as possible to be able to speak English with correct and acceptable pronunciation in the real world outside the classroom and the testing room" (Byrne,1976, p. 131). Individual differences are seen as more salient in second language acquisition and use than in our native language, since we find considerably more variability in the learning outcomes and language use characteristics of L2 learners than their L1 counterparts. Some experts like Busch (1982) who wrote about second language learning made the point that language is closely bound up with human behavior and personality. Nowadays, with so many people being interested in learning English, the factors that could impact on their learning effectiveness become more important to know.

Whereas no one would doubt that personality differences and types are important factors in determining our behavior in general, from an educational perspective the real question is to what extent these dispositions affect learning. Nowadays, one of the dominant objectives in foreign language learning settings is to raise awareness about students' personal differences and their potential effects on the learning process and subsequently, on learning outcome. To put it in other words, teachers pay no attention to the fact that each student is completely a different human being with his/her exclusive personality.

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The main aim of foreign language teaching is to contribute students reach some kinds of communicative skills in the foreign language. In order to do that, the teacher should organize some classroom activities, create an anxiety free atmosphere within the class or group and give the students hints to use the activities in class to integrate their skills. Accurate pronunciation by ELLs is important for communication, and also benefits academic achievement.

Something which is done by so many teachers is that they only lay emphasis on accuracy with no thought of fluency, which makes students worry too much about their mistakes. In many English language classrooms, teaching pronunciation is granted the least attention. When ESL teachers defend the poor pronunciation skills of their students, their arguments could either be described as a cop-out with respect to their inability to teach their students proper pronunciation or they could be regarded as taking a stand against linguistic influence. Pronunciation has a positive effect on learning a second language and learners can gain the skills they need for effective communication in English.

This study tried to answer the following question:

Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' personality type (extroverts vs. Introverts) and their pronunciation in speaking?

2. Literature Review

The role of personality in learning process has been confirmed in the studies done during the last two decades. Since 1990s, there has been an increasing interest on showing how personality affects or, better to say, correlates with the academic performance. Personality type affects the way people respond to stimuli and the way that they prefer to learn (Carrel& Monroe, 1993; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Myers & Myers, 1993). De Raad in a review of personality, learning and education (1996), indicates to the mediating and moderating roles of personality variables in learning process and states that non-cognitive personality factors may appear as moderators of the general process of learning, because they interact with-or moderate-successive stages of the information processing sequence. Also, Murray and Mount, (1996) posit that an individual's personality can have an effect on to what extent he is able to achieve information. Accordingly, Blicke (1996) in a study analyzed the relation between personality traits, learning strategies, and performance among college students from different fields of study.

Accurate pronunciation in English, as one of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, has been an important goal in teaching ELLs because it is important not only in communication, but also in reading and writing, which pave the path to academic achievement (Badian, 1998). Accurate pronunciation entails phonological awareness, which refers to knowledge of the meaningful differences in the units of the sound system of a language, including its consonants and vowels, syllabic structures, etc. However, an awareness of the phonetic and phonological distinctions among sounds in English and the ELL's native language cannot be assumed. While acquisition of native-like pronunciation is often a personal choice, it is

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obvious that miscommunications may occur due to the lack of awareness of phonetic and phonological characteristics of sounds in the second language.

2.1 Personality as an Important Individual Difference

One of the most significant characteristics of human beings is that each individual is a sui generis amalgam of feelings, mentality, concepts, aims and reactions. This list can be extended to hundreds of terms if coverage of all the complexities of personality is needed. These combinations create the individuality that every individual enjoys (Wright et al., 1970). Differences among individuals create reasons for negotiations, arguments, and discussions and lead to the development of humanity as a whole. Knowledge of the backgrounds lying behind these differences enhances the flexibility and understanding of the different individuals (Skehan, 1989).

It is assumed that having more awareness of theories of individual differences and an ability to incorporate them in the teaching process should enable teachers to help their learners enjoy their learning and get more out of it. Moreover, learners should be aware of themselves, their personalities and speaking ability in order to approach the speaking process in a constructive way (Shackleton & Fletcher, 1984). Individual learner differences are the variables that characterize learners and give each one his/her individual uniqueness. The goal of investigating individual differences is to explore the diversity of intellect, forms of cognitive processes, and different mental functions (Skehan, 1989). Example categories used by various researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1994; Skehan, 1989; Eysenck, 1999) for investigating these differences are personality, learning styles, motivation, intelligence, autonomy, learning strategies, gender, age, language aptitude, anxiety, affective states, and need for power.

Among the pivotal issues of considerable concern in EFL (English as a Foreign Language)/SLA (Second Language Acquisition), one can refer to the possible linkages between personality characteristics and language learning. Though a plethora of varied factors are involved in the intricate process of language learning, learner variables and individual differences have always been in the foreground of attention of psycholinguists and psychometricians. As factors like these are regarded to be of prime salience in the macro-level analysis of learning processes, a growing amount of heed is being given to an examination of such variables. Indeed, one of the major preoccupations of the present-day researchers is coming up with clear-cut answers to questions like why language learners who enjoy similar backgrounds are found to acquire a second language with varying degrees of success. Even though a multitude of learner variables such as gender, age, family background, socio-psychological factors like motivation and attitude, cognitive styles like field-independence and field-dependence, personality-induced variables like self-esteem and anxiety are thought to be in a sort of ongoing interplay with second language learning processes and outcomes, it is the last category, i.e. personality variables, which is posited, in the present study, to be of a more crucial role in the course of language learning. Hence, among the manifold personality factors, the researchers have opted for the analysis of one of the paramount dichotomous cases widely known as introversion/extroversion, and its would-be go-togetherness with the learners' pronunciation in speaking.

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Personality is considered as a very important category of individual differences since the individual is often judged depending on her/his personality. Personality refers to the partially stable and long-lasting facets of an individual which distinguish him from other people, and form the basis of our predictions concerning his future behavior (Wright et al., 1970). Therefore, it is expected that any given individual will behave in a reasonably consistent manner on different occasions. Those who study human personality are often interested in individual differences. They assume that there are considerable individual differences in personality and that these differences will be revealed by differences in behaving and reacting in a given situation (Eysenck, 1985). That is why one feature common to the majority of personality theories is the emphasis on the individual. Researchers, during the last few decades, have done a lot of work in order to find a comprehensive definition of personality. Personality can be defined on many levels like educational, psychological, and social. At the level of teaching and learning, we are looking for those aspects of personality that affect the nature and the quality of learning process. Aimed at exploring personality factors in EFL/SLA, the researchers found that most of the literature focuses on two dimensions of personality, closely related to the learning process; and these are extroversion/introversion.

Thus, it seem to be a perfectly logical step in language learning research to build upon previous work in psychology by attempting to measure individual characteristics and relate these to language learning outcomes. So, for example, there is research to show that the more intelligent people are, the easier it is for them to learn a foreign language, or that learning a language depends to some extent on having an aptitude for languages, or that risk-takers are more successful language learners.

"The affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure" (oxford, 1990, p.140). The relationship between personality and second language learning ability, has received some research interest in the last few decades. There are two different personality types, extroversion and introversion that like other affective factors they affect the learners' language skills and sub skills proficiency. One of them is speaking. Before going into details it's good to elaborate them by their definitions.

2.1.1 Extroversion and Introversion Definition

Extroversion represents sociability, gregarious, cheerfulness, and optimism. Extraverts seek out new opportunities and excitement. It is a tendency to seek social stimulations in the company of others. “Extroverts are more sociable, and active but are also described as being more active and impulsive, less dysphoric, and as less introspective and self-preoccupied than introverts”(Wastson and Clark, 1997, p.769).

Extraversion is "the act, state, or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining gratification from what is outside the self". As Marrian Webster Dictionary defines, extraverts tend to enjoy human interactions and to be enthusiastic, talkative, assertive, and gregarious. They take pleasure in activities that involve large social gatherings, such as parties, community activities, public demonstrations, and business or political groups. Politics, teaching, sales, managing and brokering are fields that favor extraversion. An extraverted person is likely to enjoy time spent with people and

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find less reward in time spent alone. They tend to be energized when around other people, and they are more prone to boredom when they are by themselves.
Introversion is "the state of or tendency toward being wholly or predominantly concerned with and interested in one's own mental life", Webster Dictionary defined. Some popular writers have characterized introverts as people whose energy tends to expand through reflection and dwindle during interaction. This is similar to Jung's view, although he focused on psychic energy rather than physical energy. Few modern conceptions make this distinction.

2.1.2 The Relationship between Extroversion and Introversion and Second Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition may be more difficult for some people due to certain social factors. One highly studied social factor impeding language development is the issue of extraverts versus introverts. Studies have shown that extraverts (or unreserved and outgoing people) acquire a second language better than introverts (or shy people).One particular study done by Naiman reflected this point. The subjects were 72 Canadian high school students from grades 8, 10 and 12 who were studying French as a second language. Naiman gave them all questionnaires to establish their psychological profiles, which also included a French listening test and imitation test. He found that approximately 70% of the students with the higher grades (B or higher) would consider themselves extraverts. Extraverts will be willing to try to communicate even if they are not sure they will succeed. Introversion has the greatest chance of negatively affecting SLA. Students that are afraid of embarrassing themselves by speaking incorrectly or by not being able to speak at all may try to avoid opportunities that would otherwise aid their learning. Related to the extroversion/ distinction are the types of social skills involved in second language acquisition. Wesche (1977) pointed out that studying thirty-seven Canadian civil servants in an intensive French course, found a correlation between "role playing" and proficiency in listening comprehension and speaking skills (r = 0.60). "Role-playing" referred to the willingness of the student to take the part of a character in a dialogue or role-playing situation, "with speech characterized by prosodic expressions of feeling appropriate to the context and by accompanying gestures and facial expressions" (p. 359). This could reflect extroversion, self-confidence, and/or satisfaction with the learning situation, as well as general anxiety level. Two scientists, Kinginger and Farrell, conducted interviews with U.S. students after their study abroad program in France in 2003. They found that many of the students would avoid interaction with the native speakers at all costs, while others jumped at the opportunity to speak the language. Those who avoided interaction were typically quiet, reserved people, (or introverts). Therefore, if teachers correct mistakes and further embarrass shy students, it may isolate students even more. Instead, repeating back the corrected statement allows feedback without a damaging student's ego. For example, if Marcia says "Yesterday I go to the store with my madre," the teacher would respond, "You went to the store with your mother yesterday?" She has effectively provided corrected input while also continuing the conversation. If a student shuts down after an outright correction then opportunity for more input and practice has been lost.

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Studies on EXT/INT dimension of personality factors were initially introduced by Carl G. Jung (1933). EXT/INT is often thought of as being bipolar, but in reality, it occurs along a continuum which shows one's degree of outgoingness; people who fall at the extremes have clear preferences. Eysenck (1985) characterized a typical extravert as a person who tends to be sociable, needs people to talk to, craves excitement, takes chances, is easy-going, and optimistic. By contrast, a typical introvert is quiet, retiring, reserved, plans ahead, and dislikes excitement. Based on the existing literature, psychologists have proposed the general characteristics of extraverts and introverts (Taylor, 1998, p.10).

2.2 Pronunciation in applied linguistics

Pronunciation can be one of the most difficult parts for a language learner to master and one of the least favorite topics for teachers to address in the classroom. There are many reasons why the teaching of ESL pronunciation is currently less than optimally effective, and certainly it is wrong to blame anyone group, whether teachers, pronunciation specialists, or academics. Second language pronunciation is a topic of great theoretical interest and practical relevance which unfortunately has been out of fashion for some decades.

In spite of the fact that achieving native-like pronunciation that smooth the way for mutual intelligibility is regarded significant for many language learners and teachers, there have been few practical researches of pronunciation in applied linguistics (Derwing & Munro, 2006; Levis, 2005). For example, Munro and Derwing (2006, p. 386) stated, "It is widely acknowledged that supra-segmentals are very important to intelligibility, but so far few studies support this view." Other researchers such as Hahn (1994) and Levis (2005) also support this claim and state that over the past 25 years there has been inspiration to teach supra-segmentals even though extremely little pedagogy has been originated in practical research confirm this statement.

The effectiveness of experiential research for developing more successful pronunciation teaching is evident. As Levis (2005) states, "instruction should bring into focus those properties that are most beneficial for apprehension and should ignore those that are comparatively unhelpful" (pp. 370-371). Based on Munro and Derwing (2006) verifying a set of preference for teaching is crucial. For example, if one aspect of pronunciation instruction encourages intelligibility than some other aspect, more attention should be paid to it. Obviously, the most important elements should be known to establish most advantageous instruction and learning results.

Hahn (2004, p. 201) accepts that there is little empirical evidence for claims that instructing supra-segmentals is beneficial and that "knowing how the various prosodic features actually affect the way native speakers process nonnative speech would considerably build up the grounds for contemporary pronunciation pedagogy." For that reason, Hahn (2004) restates that it is important to identify the phonological features that are principal for native listeners. Due to the complex relationship between supra-segmentals and intelligibility, Hahn (2004) argues, "it is helpful to separate distinct supra-segmental features for analyses" (p. 201). These arguments support the importance of the research in this study in which the effect of using reading aloud on

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improving Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words have been investigated.

Avery and Ehrlich, (1992, cited in Ohata, 2004) believed that the foreign accent of non-natives can be due to the influence of their native languages. It is also stated that the pronunciation errors made by second/foreign language learners are not random errors to produce unfamiliar sounds, but rather reflections of the sound inventory, rules of combining sounds, and the stress and intonation patterns of their first languages (Swan and Smith, 1987, cited in Ohata, 2004).

What Avery and Ehrlich (1992) mentioned here is that the role of the native language is very important to the second language pronunciation learning because the native language not only affects the ability to produce English sounds but also the ability to hear English sounds. Celce-Murcia and Goodwin (1991) suggest that the learner's L1 is effective in the acquisition of L2 pronunciation. She believes that L1 transfer is more prevalent in the area of pronunciation than in grammar and lexicon.

As the native language is a very influential factor affecting a learner's pronunciation, 'EFL teachers should be familiar with the sound system of a learner's native language to diagnose L1 – L2 carryovers' (Brown, 1994The phonological differences between the learner's native language and English can be exhibited not only in the individual sounds but also in combinations of sounds and features such as stress, intonation and rhythm (Kenworthy, 1987; Brown, 1994). To put it in a nut shell, "the more differences there are, the more difficulties the learner will have in pronouncing English" (Kenworthy, 1987, p.4).

Although some aspects of the contrastive phonology and phonetics of English and Persian have already been considered in a number of publications (e.g. in Yarmohammadi, 1969; Hayati, 1997; Fotovatnia, 2006), there are few studies investigating both segmental and suprasegmental problems of Iranian EFL learners together. The difficulties that Iranian EFL students might encounter in learning English pronunciation stem from the differences between English and Persian phonological features, which results in failure to perceive the English sound system.

Foreign language teachers have always thought of the sources of learners' errors in their written productions. In order to prove such a thing they tried to write down the sources of these errors by contrasting their native language and the target language through their observations of the students' performance (Kelly, 1969).In order to see the most important difference in terms of word stress between English and Persian (Farsi), the researcher reviewed the contrast of word stress in Persian and English in this paper based the title of the research.

2.2.1 Learners' Pronunciation in second language learning

Accurate pronunciation by EFLs is important for communication, and benefits academic achievement. Accurate pronunciation in English, as one of the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, has been an important goal in teaching ELLs because it is important not only in communication, but also in reading and writing, which pave the path to academic achievement (Badian, 1998). Accurate pronunciation entails phonological awareness, which refers to knowledge of the meaningful differences in the units of the sound system of a language, including its

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consonants and vowels, syllabic structures, etc. However, an awareness of the phonetic and phonological distinctions among sounds in English and the ELL's native language cannot be assumed.

General observation suggests that it is those who start to learn English after their school years are most likely to have serious difficulties in acquiring intelligible pronunciation, with the degree of difficulty increasing markedly with age. This difficulty has nothing to do with intelligence or level of education, or even with knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary. Of course there is no simple answer to why pronunciation is so difficult to learn - indeed there is a whole range of theoretical perspectives on the question. What is generally accepted among psycholinguists and phonologists who specialized in this area, is that the difficulty of learning to pronounce a foreign language is *cognitive* rather than physical, and that it has something to do with the way 'raw sound' is categorized or conceptualized in using speech. Many learners of English as a second language have "major difficulties" with English pronunciation even after years of learning the language. This often results in them facing difficulties in areas such as finding employment. Hinofotis and Baily (1980, pp. 124-125) notes that "up to a certain proficiency standard, the fault which most severely impairs the communication process in EFL/ESL learners is pronunciation", not vocabulary or grammar. This is true despite the fact that research by the likes of Davis (1999), for example, reveals that an area of concern and indeed one of the top priorities of ESL students after completing elementary English courses is pronunciation. It is important at this point in time to make a distinction between speaking and pronunciation as it is sometimes wrongly applied interchangeably. Pronunciation is viewed as a sub-skill of speaking. Generally, if we want to change the way a learner pronounces words, we have to change the way they think about the component sounds of those words. This goes not just for individual sounds, but for bigger elements of speech, such as syllables, stress patterns and rhythm. Despite this, the teaching of pronunciation remains largely neglected in the field of English language teaching. In this study, the researchers discuss common misconceptions about pronunciation, factors affecting the learning of pronunciation. Then, they review the needs of learners, suggestions for teaching pronunciation.

2.2.2 Factors Affecting the Learning of Pronunciation

In this section, the researchers mention some of the important factors that affect the learning of pronunciation. They are as follows:

A) Accent

An accent is "the cumulative auditory effect of those features of pronunciation that identify where a person is from, regionally or socially" (Crystal, 2003, p. 3). Accentedness, a "normal consequence of second language learning" (Derwing & Munro, 2005, p. 383), is a "listener's perception of how different a speaker's accent is from that of the L1 community" (p. 385). Many adult learners of English have foreign accents that identify them as nonnative speakers. Some linguists support the idea, known as the Critical Period Hypothesis, that a learner needs to begin learning the

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language before age 7 to develop native-like pronunciation (Lenneberg, 1967). However, more recent research suggests that environment and motivation may be more important factors in the development of native-like pronunciation than is age at acquisition (Marinova-Todd, Marshall, & Snow, 2000). An understanding of the features of learner accents and their impact on intelligibility can help teachers identify and address characteristics of learner pronunciation (Derwing & Munro, 1997). The primary aim is that students be understood. Good pronunciation is needed for this, but a "perfect accent" is not (Harmer, 1991).

B) Stress, intonation, and rhythm

Munro and Derwing (1999) observed that even heavily accented speech is sometimes intelligible and that prosodic errors (i.e., errors in stress, intonation, and rhythm) appear to affect intelligibility more than do phonetic errors (i.e., errors in single sounds). For this reason, pronunciation research and teaching focus both on the sounds of language (vowels and consonants) and on supra-segmental features—that is, vocal effects that extend over more than one sound—such as stress, sentence and word intonation, and speech rhythm (Crystal, 2003; Low, 2006; Munro & Derwing, 1999).

C) Motivation and exposure

Along with age at the acquisition of a language, the learner's motivation for learning the language and the cultural group that the learner identifies and spends time determine whether the learner will develop native-like pronunciation. Research has found that having a personal or professional goal for learning English can influence the need and desire for native-like pronunciation (Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner, & Reyes, 2004; Gatbonton et al., 2005; Marinova-Todd et al., 2000; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

D) Attitude

It seems as though some learners are more adept at acquiring good pronunciation. Even within one homogenous classroom, there is often a large discrepancy among the pronunciation ability of the students. This phenomenon has led many researchers to study the personal characteristics of the learners that contribute to their success in foreign language acquisition. In a study on pronunciation accuracy of university students studying intermediate Spanish as a foreign language, Elliot (1995) found that subjects' attitude toward acquiring native or near-native pronunciation as measured by the Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI), was the principal variable in relation to target language pronunciation. In other words, if the students were more concerned about their pronunciation of the target language, they tended to have better pronunciation of the target allophones (Elliot, 1995).

E) Instruction

Foreign language instruction generally focuses on four main areas of development: listening, speaking reading and writing. Foreign language curricula emphasize pronunciation in the first year of study as it introduces the target language's alphabet

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and sound system, but rarely continues this focus past the introductory level. Lack of emphasis on pronunciation development may be due to a general lack of fervor on the part of the second language acquisition researchers, second language teachers and students, that pronunciation of a second language is not very important (Elliot, 1995). Furthermore, Pennington (1994) maintains that pronunciation which is typically viewed as a component of linguistic rather than conversational fluency, is often regarded with little importance in a communicatively oriented classroom (Elliot, 1995). According to Elliot (1995), teachers tend to view pronunciation as the least useful of the basic language skills and therefore they generally sacrifice teaching pronunciation in order to spend valuable class time on other areas of language. Or maybe, teachers feel justified neglecting pronunciation believing that for adult foreign language learners, it is more difficult to attain target language pronunciation skills than other facets of second language acquisition. Possibly, teachers just do not have the background or tools to properly teach pronunciation and therefore it is disregarded (Elliot, 1995).

F) Age

The influence of age on language acquisition and specifically pronunciation may make adults find pronunciation more difficult than children do and that they probably will not achieve native-like pronunciation. According to the "Critical Period Hypothesis" proposed by Lenneberg (1967) there is a biological or neurological period which ends around the age of 12; after this period it becomes extremely difficult to attain the complete mastery of a second language especially pronunciation. Conversely, Bialystock (1997), and Bongaerts, Planken and Schils (1997) among others have shown that adult learners are capable of achieving native-like in an L2. However, the degree of pronunciation accuracy, according to Avery and Ehrlich (1992), varies considerably from one individual to another. To them, this discrepancy in pronunciation among adult learners means that ESL classroom time can profitably be devoted to improving students' pronunciation.

G) Personality

Non-linguistic factors related to an individual's personality and learning goals, attitude towards the target language, culture, native speakers, and type of motivation which are beyond the teacher's control (Miller, 2003), all have their share in the development of pronunciation skills. In addition, the degree of exposure to and use of the target language can support or impede pronunciation skills development. For example, learners who are outgoing and confident and get involved in interactions with native speakers are liable to practice their foreign language pronunciation (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Conversely, some learners feel uncomfortable trying out new speech rhythm and melody patterns (Miller, 2003), while others feel stupid pronouncing "weird" sounds, and with time, they decide that it is futile and impossible to learn English pronunciation (Laroy, 1995). In this respect, Miller (2003) believes that changing – and not changing – speech patterns is affected by how much responsibility the student takes, how much the student practices outside of class, and how ready the student is.

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3. Methodology

3.1 The Design of the Study

The current study was a correlational research to test the relationship between EFL learners' personality and their pronunciation in speaking . The participants of the study were homogenously selected and then randomly were chosen then EPQ for identifying learners' personality type and IELTS speaking test to assess their speaking proficiency were administrated in order to investigate research questions of the study. The SPSS was used for statistical analysis. To examine the relation chi-square along with Eta was run.

3.2 Participants

The participants of this study were 30 EFL Iranian learners who selected randomly via a placement test out of 100 in order to assure homogeneity. The EPQ test is assigned to define the learners' personality type. The main instrument used in this study was the IELTS speaking (2005) which was officially provided by the IELTS Center and adopted by the researchers to be administered in the speaking interview sessions.

One-hundred Iranian language learners of intermediate levels at different language institutes and Anzali Azad University served as the primary participants of this study. The participants aged from 15 to 28. For the purpose of homogenizing the participants, they were initially tested using the Oxford placement test. Choosing intermediate and upper intermediate level participants (those who answered between34 to 37 of the whole questions correctly), the number of the participants was reduced to 60. Thirty of them selected randomly for the main study. After OPT test, the test that was administrated to the participants was EPQ to find out their personality type. Then the participants were assessed but orally by two instructed and experienced interviewers using IELTS speaking assessment descriptors. Only the learners whose scores were between 4 to7 out of the 0-9 IELTS score bands were selected. These 30 participants (homogenized in terms of both linguistic knowledge and oral proficiency) were used as the main participants of the study. The next stage of the study which was an oral interview lasting for about four to five minutes used materials and procedures of IELTS speaking part 2 and 3. The interviews were recorded to be rated later. It should be mentioned that the whole process lasted for 48 days.

3.3 Data collection instrument

The following instruments will be utilized in this study to gather data on the participants' linguistic level and pronunciation and the personality type.

3.3.1 The Oxford placement test

The Oxford placement test filtered the participants and homogenized them in terms of proficiency level. This test includes 50 items on the grammatical structures and the participants will be allowed 25 minutes to complete it. The Oxford Placement Test measures a test takers' ability to communicate in English. It gives the instructors the information they need to find out about a person's language level. Usually before

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enrolling in one of the English language courses, they have to take a level test, which will help the teachers identify the learners' level of English. The Oxford Placement Test will be administered at the beginning of the study to find the exact level of the students.

3.3.2 Eysenck Personality Questionnaire

To tap the required data, Eysenck's (1999) Personality Questionnaire will be administered to learners as the chief data collection instrument, which is aimed at determining which participants are introverts and which ones are extroverts.

To examine the individual trait in question, i.e. extroversion/introversion, the researchers made use of Eysenck Personality Test (EPQ-R) (Esyneck, 1999), which is the shortened version of the last Eysenck test (1999). This test consists of two criteria known as extroversion/introversion, and a total of yes/no questions are allocated to gauging each criterion. It should be emphasized that the questions used in the current probe are only those, which have been developed for determining introversion and extroversion. According to what Eysenck reports in the test manual, the reliability of the questionnaire is 88% and 84% (for extroversion and introversion scale) and 61% and 62% (for psychological scale) for males and females, respectively.

3.3.3 Oral placement interviews

The participants will be first interviewed by using IELTS speaking part one (questions based on personal information) to be selected as the research participants. The participants will be selected based on the IELTS speaking assessment descriptors.

3.3.4 IELTS format oral interviews

Participants finally underwent the main oral interviews using IELTS speaking parts 2 and 3 conducted by two different trained and instructed interviewers. The interviewees were first given an IELTS speaking prompt card and a minute to think and take notes on the cards' content. They were then asked to speak about the subject for 2 minutes (part 2). After approximately two minutes, the interviewer would start a related discussion on the same prompt with the interviewee (part 3).

3.4 Raters training session

The raters were experienced teachers. Despite these facts, two raters training sessions were held each lasting for 60 minutes to get the raters more familiar with the IELTS speaking assessment descriptors. The raters were provided with a copy of descriptors and were asked to study the descriptors carefully prior to the first training session. To have a harmonious approach towards the descriptors, they were discussed, analyzed, and clarified by the raters. The raters scored each recording and reason why they assigned a particular score to each. This process lasted for two sessions so that the raters could come to a logical understanding of the assessment descriptors.

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3.5 Data Collection Procedure

To ensure the main participants were roughly at the same level of language proficiency, the standardized Oxford Placement test (OPT) was administered to 100 EFL students. The objective was to select a homogeneous sample. A cut-point of one standard deviation above and below the mean was set and 60 learners whose proficiency scores were within this range (± 1 SD from the mean) were selected as the main participants of the present study. Then the personality questionnaire was given to the 60 participants and 30 of them were selected randomly and divided into 15 extrovert and 15 introvert students.

The following procedure was carried out to conduct the research. Pronunciation as a subskill of speaking was assessed by speaking test. First of all, the Oxford placement test was administered to 100 learners studying at intermediate courses in different institutions and Anzali Azad University. As a result of this test, the number of participants was reduced to 60. Among those participants 30 of them were selected randomly. In order for the participants to be homogeneous in terms of their language oral abilities, they were each interviewed orally using the IELTS speaking part 1 format which lasted for about 5 minutes. This test played the role of an oral placement test. Immediately after the oral placement test, the participants were once again assessed orally using the IELTS speaking part 2 and 3 formats. Part 2 and 3 lasted approximately for 2 minutes each. The interviews were recorded to be listened to and rated at a later time. Afterwards, the recordings were assessed by two different raters. Raters assessed the recordings based on four IELTS assessment criteria. It includes pronunciation (O'connel, 2006). IELTS speaking assessment descriptors were taken into account by both interviewers and raters for assessing participants' oral abilities and base on the students' responses to the EPQ questioner they were identified as extroversions and introversions. Out of 30 participants they were found 15 introverts and 15 extroverts.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

After collecting the data, the SPSS was used for data analysis procedure. To test the research hypotheses of this study chi- square along with Eta were used to see whether there is a relationship between the variables.

To investigate the relationship of personality types of Extroversion/Introversion Iranian EFL learners' and their pronunciation, EFL students were selected through employing The Oxford placement test and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ).

The following procedure was carried out to conduct the research. The Oxford placement test (OPT) was administered to 100 university students who were studying English for the participants to be homogeneous in language proficiency.

To tap the required data, Eysenck's (1999) Personality Questionnaire was administered to learners as the chief data collection instrument, which was aimed at determining which participants were introverts and which ones were extroverts. The following section is devoted to the provision of a sample description of Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) and IELTS speaking skill test used in this study.

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Base on the students' responses to the EPQ questioner they were identified as extroversions and introversions. Following the test designer's lead, those participants who answered yes to 2/3 questions out of the whole on the extroversion/introversion scale, were considered as introverts and the rest were grouped as extroverts. After that, they were interviewed orally using the IELTS speaking part 1 format, which lasted for about 5 minutes. This test played the role of an oral placement test and would decrease the number of the participants. Immediately after the oral placement test, the participants were once again assessed orally using the IELTS speaking part 2 and 3 formats. Part 2 and 3 lasted approximately for 2 minutes each. The interviews were recorded to be listened to and rated later. Afterwards, two different raters assessed the recordings. Raters assessed the recordings based on IELTS assessment criterion.

3.7 IELTS Speaking Test Grading Criteria for Pronunciation

- Overall, clear and ***understandable*** pronunciation is the main thing.
- Secondly, the correct use of the following features will determine the pronunciation grade:

1. basic word pronunciation;
2. linked speech sounds;
3. correct and appropriate sentence stress (i.e., which word or words in a sentence are stressed more than others); and,
4. appropriate use of intonation (rising and falling) to emphasize meaning.

- Slightly inaccurate (= unclear) pronunciation is usually understandable if the correct words and grammar are used but slightly inaccurate pronunciation combined with other errors can result in language that is not understandable at all.
- American pronunciation is acceptable.

4. Result and Discussion:

Based on the findings of the current research, it was revealed that the pronunciation of Intermediate and upper intermediate Iranian EFL learners significantly correlates with their Introversion/Extroversion (indeed, introvert subjects were found to have a better performance on pronunciation compared to their extrovert counterparts). This finding is in accordance with Busch's (1982) findings, where he concluded that in general extroverted students are less successful in language learning. It should be added that the focus of Busch's study was more on pronunciation, Busch (1982) based on a research claimed that in fact, introverts were significantly better than extroverts in their pronunciation, and the researchers in the present study addressed the pronunciation of individuals too. Regarding the research question, a significant relationship was found between introversion/extroversion and learners' pronunciation. To sum up, it appeared that while introverts tended to have higher grammar and pronunciation, extroverts achieved higher score on fluency section.

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4.1The research question: Is there any correlation between Iranian EFL learners' personality type (introversion vs. extroversion) and Pronunciation in speaking?
With respect to the research question, another crosstab procedure along with directional measure of association namely Eta was run to the results of the pronunciation section of the speaking test. The descriptive statistics is presented in table 4.12.

Table 1.1: Statistics for the pronunciation in speaking

pronunciation		Extrovert	Introvert
N	Valid	15	15
	Missing	0	0
Mean		4.7333	5.6000
Median		5.0000	6.0000
Mode		4.00[a]	6.00
Std. Deviation		.65101	.66009
Variance		.424	.436
Skewness		.308	-1.496
Std. Error of Skewness		.580	.580
Kurtosis		-.868	1.170
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.121	1.121
Range		2.00	2.00
Minimum		4.00	4.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00
Sum		71.00	84.00
a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown			

Table 4.12 revealed the descriptive statistics gained regarding the extrovert and introvert learners' scores on the pronunciation feature of the speaking test. As illustrated in this table, the mean scores gained by the extrovert and introvert participants equaled (4.7333) and (5.6000) respectively. Additionally, the sum score gained for the entire extrovert learners was (71.00), whereas the one relevant to introvert equaled (84.00).
The variation in the introvert students' scores on pronunciation feature (V= .66009) was slightly higher than the value of variance for extrovert students' scores on pronunciation feature (V= .65101). Based on the findings of descriptive statistics, there seemed to be a possible relationship between types of personality and fluency in speaking. For this purpose, the chi-square along with directional measure (Eta test) was run to find out whether this relationship was statistically significant or not. The results are presented in the following section:

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Table 1.2 : Chi-Square Tests for the pronunciation of introverts and extroverts

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.983	4	**.017**
Likelihood Ratio	13.466	4	.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.247	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	30		

For the relationship between pronunciation and personality types, Pearson chi square reported was (11.983) with (4) degrees of freedom. P-value given was lower than 0.05 resulting that the correlation was statistically significant. (Sig=0.017≤0.05). The findings of chi-square showed that the third null hypothesis was also rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant correlation between Iranian EFL learners' personality type (introversion vs. extroversion) and pronunciation in speaking. Since one variable was categorical and the other was quantitative, Eta was again selected to check the degree of correlation. The results are presented in the following section:

Table 1.3: Directional Measures for the pronunciation of introverts and extroverts

			Value
Nominal by Interval	Eta	pronunciation Dependent	.565
		Types of personality Dependent	.632

The sign of the Eta value was positive demonstrating that the relationship was positive. Besides, since the degree of correlation was higher than .50, based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines for interpreting the correlation index this relationship was strong, too.

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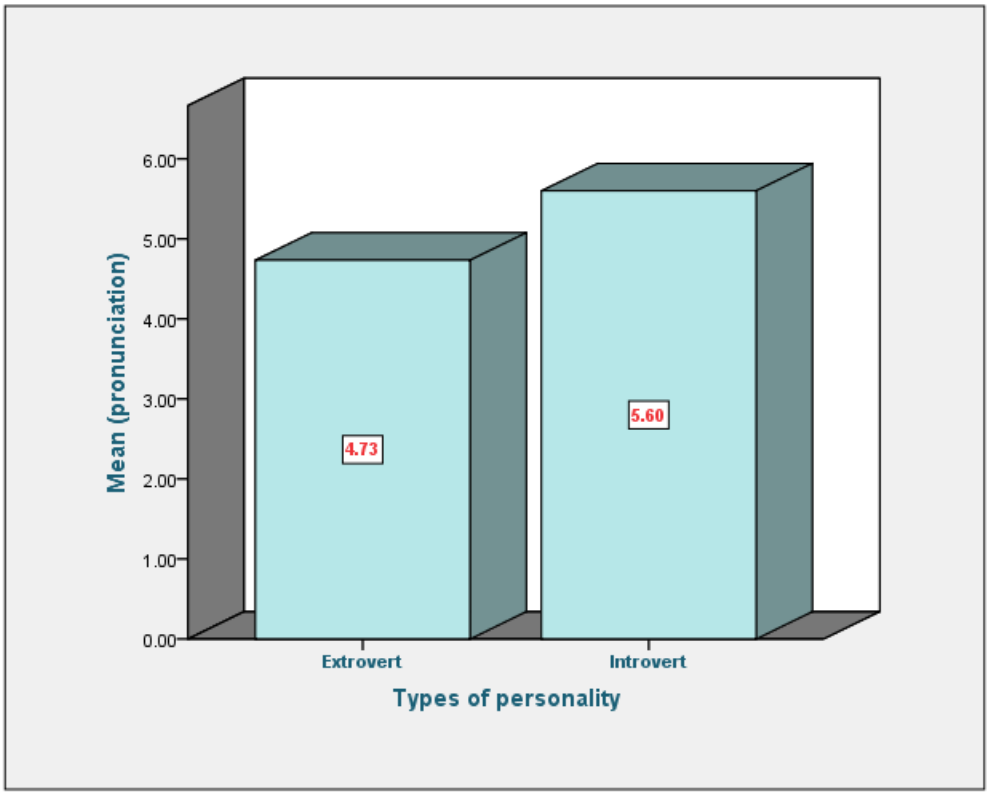

Figure 1.1: The correlation between Iranian EFL learners' personality type (introversion vs. extroversion) and pronunciation in speaking skill

5. Conclusion

The present paper investigated the possible relationship between EFL learners' personality type and their pronunciation. Based on the data obtained from the study, it was observed that the answer to the research questions is yes. In other words, the introvert participants were significantly better than the extroverts in their pronunciation. As a result the researcher can claim that based on the result of this study there is a relationship between learners' pronunciation and their personality. According to what I mentioned above, teachers' teaching methodology should be adapted to the individual differences in personality, in order to enhance the progress for the second language learners.

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EXAMINING IRANIAN LEARNERS' PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH DERIVATIVES

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Abstract
The present study, which was a partial replication of Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) study, was an attempt to put Iranian EFL learners' productive knowledge of derivational morphology under close scrutiny. To this end, a test consisting of 8 prompt words, along with a series of four contextualized sentences for each prompt word, was administered to a total of 39 EFL learners studying at intermediate and advanced levels of language proficiency at a language institute in Shiraz, Iran. The results indicated that the participants showed partial productive knowledge of English derivatives, especially of adjectives and adverbs. Also, error analysis of the elicited responses revealed that Iranian EFL learners were likely to confuse words from different classes, especially adjectives with nouns and verbs or nouns with adjectives and verbs, the fact that pointed to their limited knowledge of the syntactic aspect of derivational morphology. The findings from error analysis further implied that the participants were not fully aware of the distributional restrictions on English derivatives, emphasizing the idea that distributional knowledge develops later than relational and syntactic knowledge.

Key words: derivational morphology, productive derivational knowledge, aspects of knowledge of derivational morphology, word classes, word formation.

1. Introduction

Dealing with new words is perhaps one of the most perplexing aspects of SLA. What adds to its complexity lies in the sophisticated nature of words themselves. As Plag (2003) puts it, "the word as a linguistic unit deserves some attention because it is not as straightforward as one might except" (p. 4).

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In the early stages of learning to read, the majority of the new words learners encounter in print have already appeared in their oral vocabularies; thus, decoding strategies alone suffice to convey their meaning (Nagy, Diakidoy, & Anderson, 1993). However, as students proceed to upper grades, the number of new words they encounter increases, so decoding strategies alone are not adequate to get the meaning across, and learners' knowledge of morphology_ "their ability to gain information about the meaning, pronunciation, and part of speech of new words from their prefixes, roots, and suffixes"_ comes into play to express meaning (Nagy, Diakidoy, & Anderson, 1993, p. 156).

In order to come to a better understanding of different aspects of knowledge of morphology, a distinction must be made between inflectional and derivational suffixes. Plag (2003) has enumerated the differences between inflections and derivations:

"Derivation encodes lexical meaning, is not syntactically relevant, can occur inside derivation, often changes the part of speech, is often semantically opaque, is often restricted in its productivity, [and] is not restricted to suffixation, [while] inflection encodes grammatical categories, is syntactically relevant, occurs outside all derivation, does not change part of speech, is rarely semantically opaque, is fully productive, [and is] always suffixational (in English)" (p. 17).

Inflections and derivations are likely to impose varying degrees of learning burdens on the learners (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). The rule-governed nature of inflections is likely to facilitate learning. On the other hand, such distinct rules are not always present in the formation of derivations (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). Derivational suffixes are believed to be acquired later than inflectional suffixes due to their relative abstractness, frequent appearance in formal written language, and a change they cause in the part of speech of a word (Nagy, Diakidoy, & Anderson, 1993).

This study, therefore, aims at investigating derivational Suffixes as they represent the most abstract and complicated aspect for morphology that language learners have to acquire (Nagy, Diakidoy, & Anderson, 1993).

According to Tyler and Nagy (1989), a comprehensive knowledge of derivational morphology involves 3 aspects: relational, syntactic, and distributional knowledge. Relational knowledge refers to the knowledge that two words are related to one another morphologically, sharing a common lexical base; it is the knowledge that 'argue', for instance, is related to 'argument' as opposed to 'off' which is not related to 'offer' (Tyler & Nagy, 1989). Syntactic knowledge, on the other hand, is "the knowledge that derivational suffixes mark words for syntactic category in English" (Lardiere, 2006, p.73), which determines that 'regularize' is a verb because of the suffix –ize, and 'regulation' is a noun as it is suffixed with -ion (Tyler & Nagy, 1989). Finally, distributional knowledge deals with "the constraints on the concatenation of stems and suffixes" which, for instance, stipulate that -ness as a nominalizing suffix attaches to adjectives in English but not to verbs (Tyler & Nagy, 1989, p. 650).

A sizeable number of studies pertinent to derivational morphology have focused on children's relation knowledge (Tyler & Nagy, 1989). This is while morphological studies concentrating on the syntactic aspect have revealed that the acquisition of syntactic knowledge appears in pursuit of relational knowledge (Tyler & Nagy, 1989),

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and distributional knowledge has been claimed to be the latest aspect to be acquired (Lardiere, 2006).

2. Literature Review

Morpheme studies were initiated in the early 1970s focusing specifically on the order of acquisition of inflectional and grammatical categories (Ellis, 2008). In fact, early L1 'acquisition order' studies were motivated by Brown's (1973) study, wherein he investigated the acquisition of a set of grammatical morphemes by three children (Saville-Troike, 2006). Further investigation of acquisition order studies was continued in the seminal work of Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974c), as cited in Ellis (2008), who studied the acquisition order of a number of grammatical morphemes among Spanish- and Chinese-speaking children. In succession to these studies, Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974), as cited in Ellis (2008), replicated Dulay and Burt's studies with adult participants, and Larsen-Freeman (1976b), as cited in Ellis (2008), utilized a battery of five different test tasks to investigate the acquisition of grammatical morphemes among speakers from a wider range of L1s. All these studies postulated that there exists a universal acquisition order of grammatical morphemes that are more or less similar irrespective of the subjects' language background or age (Ellis, 2008).

With a few exceptions, the morpheme studies have witnessed a departure from exclusive concentration on the acquisition of inflectional and grammatical morphemes (Morin, 2006), and, in recent years, there has been a shift of attention towards the acquisition of derivational morphology. In essence, several fields of study, including linguistics and psychology, have shown interest in the investigation of derivational morphology (Tyler & Nagy, 1989). Most psycholinguistic studies have particularly focused on issues like morphological processing, calculating the size of the word family or the size of vocabularies, and the frequency of the members of a word family (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002).

Two other strands of research have concentrated on receptive and productive derivational knowledge (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). Receptive derivational knowledge has focused on the contribution of knowledge of derivational morphology to reading achievement (see Tyler & Nagy, 1990; Verhoeven & Perfetti, 2003; Keiffer & Lesaux, 2008). Productive derivational studies, on the other hand, have focused on the participants' capability of generating derivational morphology in their speech or written compositions (see Schmitt, 1998; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002; Lardiere, 2006).

The findings from these studies indicate that the participants showed incomplete acquisition and partial knowledge in the production of derivational morphology, suggesting that "acquiring the productive use of derivative members of a word family can be problematic for learners of English" (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002, p. 151), yet further investigation of the depth of the problem requires extensive research. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the productive derivational knowledge of Persian learners of English as a foreign language with a special focus on the aspects of knowledge of derivational morphology.

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3. Significance of the Study

The number of studies already carried out on the acquisition of derivational morphology in Iran is limited. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, there have been no published studies to date focusing on the production of derivational morphology by Persian speakers of English, and the present study has addressed the issue for the first of time; therefore, it is worth consideration. In fact, the results from this study might be illuminating for the instruction of vocabulary and enhancing students' reading ability.

4. Research Questions

This study was designed hoping to find answers especially to the following research questions:

1. Which derivative class(es) do Persian learners of English tend to know productively?
2. What aspects of knowledge of derivational morphology are Iranian EFL learners likely to know?

5. Method

5. 1. Participants

A total of 39 female students studying at a language institute in Shiraz, Iran compromised the participants for this study. The participants, aging from 13 to 30, were at two levels of language proficiency based on the placement policy stipulated by the institution: 21 of the participants were studying at the intermediate level, and the other18 participants were advanced students.

Gender variable was not taken into consideration as previous studies had not shown any differences between male and female participants regarding their knowledge of derivational morphology.

5. 2. Prompt Words

For the present study, 8 words were selected to serve as the prompt words: *traditional*, *select*, *philosophy*, *inevitably*, *survive*, *ideology*, *precise*, and *minimum*. The prompt words were taken from Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) list of 16 prompt words, which, in turn, had been selected from the Academic Word List published by Coxhead (2000). For time considerations, only 8 out of the 16 prompt words were selected for this study.

The major consideration in the selection of these prompt words was frequency rather than morphological difficulty (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). Each prompt word was "the most frequently occurring member of its word family" based on frequency data from the British National Corpus (1995) (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002, p. 153).

Two reasons for selecting the prompt words from Schmitt and Zimmerman's word list were that they had been piloted before, and that attempts had been made to balance among the four word classes.

5.3. Instrument

In order to study the participants' productive knowledge of derivational morphology, Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) test, with minor modifications, was

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utilized, wherein the participants were presented with a group of four semantically similar contextualized sentences for each of the aforementioned prompt words and were asked to jot down the appropriate form of the prompt word in the space provided.

The participants were instructed to provide only one answer in case there was more than one possibility and to write an X if they could not think of or there was not any derivational form for a given prompt word. The administered test has appeared in the Appendix.

Prior to the administration of the test, the participants were assured that their responses would solely be used for a research project, and they were requested not to discuss answers with their classmates or consult dictionaries of any kind.

5. 4. Analyzing Procedure

Prior to analyzing the elicited responses, a list of acceptable derivatives for each prompt word was prepared consulting Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (1995). Then, the participants' responses were checked against the list.

In case several derivative forms were possible for a given prompt word (e.g., *selective* and *selected*), any of the forms was counted as acceptable. Also, misspellings and erroneous attached inflections marking tense or pluralization were treated as correct forms as long as they indicated the intended derivative form (e.g., *selected* for *select* or *traditions* for *tradition*).

In order to find out which of the four word classes the participants would know productively, the frequencies and percentages of the acceptable derivative form for each of the four major word classes were calculated, and the results were summarized in Table 1.

As for the second part of the study, an error analysis of the elicited responses was conducted by first separating the incorrect responses from the correct ones and then dividing the erroneous responses into two groups: word class confusion (e.g., using the noun *survivor* for the adjective *survive*) and ill-formed responses (i.e., *minimumly* for *minimally*). The frequencies and percentages for each group of incorrect forms were calculated and the results were presented in Tables 2 and 3.

It must be noted that blank responses and X responses were not counted for the error analysis.

6. Results and Discussion

Table 1: Derivative forms produced based on word class

	Nouns	**Verbs**	**Adjectives**	**Adverbs**
Intermediate-level Students	79 (47.02%)	69 (41.07%)	36 (21.42%)	48 (28.57%)
Advanced-level Students	99 (68.75%)	78 (54.16%)	57 (39.58%)	62 (43.5%)

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As demonstrated in Table 1, the participants showed the greatest ability in producing noun derivatives, followed by verbs. This is while Adverbs came third, and adjectives were the least known type of word classes. This is, actually, consistent with Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) findings which indicate that nouns and verbs are the best known word classes and less difficult to learn in comparison with adjectives and adverbs, probably owing to the fact that they carry semantic information "(e.g., nouns are names of places, persons, or things, and verbs represent actions)" (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002, p. 159).

Also, this greater tendency to produce adverbs rather than adjectives could be justified by the derivational regularity of adverbs which stipulates the attachment of the suffix –ly to an adjectival stem. On the other hand, the EFL learners' unfamiliarity with adjective forms has been highlighted by Polinsky (2004), who maintains that "the performance on adjectives is the weakest on all measures" (p. 426). In fact, "it is possible that the knowledge of adjectives is more or less a luxury; like relative clauses, adjectives are 'rhetorical devices'…, and speakers can say what they need without using them. Likewise, they may achieve a general level of comprehension without knowing the meaning of a certain adjective, especially if the adjective is used to modify a noun: it is sufficient to interpret the head of a noun phrase and the comprehension of an adjective can be sacrificed" (Berman & Slobin, 1994, p. 127, cited in Polinsky, 2004, p. 427).

Interestingly, the participants at the advanced level demonstrated greater knowledge in generating derivative forms for the four word classes in comparison with their counterparts at the intermediate level (see Table 1). This is, of course, in line with Schmitt and Zimmerman's (2002) conclusion that "mastery of derivational forms may increase with general proficiency, although even very advanced users of English are likely to have some gaps in their derivational knowledge" (p. 162).

As this study was interested in the participants' productive knowledge of English derivational suffixes, the researchers decided to focus upon the participants' errors obtained from the test as an indication of the three aspects of their knowledge of derivational morphology (i.e., relational, syntactic, and distributional knowledge). Two types of errors were identified by the error analysis: word class confusion and ill-formed responses. The former could serve as an indicator of the syntactic knowledge (i.e., basic knowledge of syntactic categorization that *aggression*, for instance, is a noun, and *aggressive* is an adjective). The latter, often caused by attaching the wrong suffix to the stem, hints at distributional knowledge. Ill-formed responses are also caused by failure to recognize that the generated suffixed word does not share a common morpheme with the stem (e.g., producing *trade* instead of *traditionalize*).

Each of the two types of errors is going to be treated separately. First, errors caused by word class confusion are going to be discussed. The results for word class confusion errors have been tabulated in Table 2 below:

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Table 2: Frequency and percentage of word class confusion errors

	Intermediate-level Students	Advanced-level Students
Nouns for verbs **Nouns for Adjectives** **Nouns for Adverbs**	10 (19.23%) 6 (11.53%) 2 (3.85%)	4 (9.30%) 13 (30.23%) 2 (4.66%)
Verbs for Nouns **Verbs for Adjectives** **Verbs for Adverbs**	2 (3.85%) 0 (0%) 1 (1.92%)	1 (2.33%) 3 (6.97%) 0 (0%)
Adjectives for Nouns **Adjectives for Verbs** **Adjectives for Adverbs**	13 (25%) 13 (25%) 1 (1.92%)	11 (25.58%) 7 (16.27%) 2 (4.66%)
Adverbs for Nouns **Adverbs for Verbs** **Adverbs for Adjectives**	2 (3.85%) 2 (3.85%) 0 (0%)	0 (0%) 0 (0%) 0 (0%)
Total	52	43

As Table 2 delineates, the participants often confused words from different classes with one another. This has been confirmed by Whitley (2004), as cited in Zyzik (2009), who observed several instances of "verbs used as nouns, nouns used as adjectives, and adjectives used as nouns" in the compositions of a group of L2 learners (p. 149).
For the present study, the most frequently occurring type of word class confusion was observed for adjectives used instead of nouns/verbs and nouns used for adjectives. This hesitancy on the part of the participants which caused them to waver between adjectives and noun/verb classes could probably be justified by the fact that "distributional properties of adjectives place them halfway between nouns and verbs" (Berman, 1988, p. 63, cited in Polinsky, 2004, p. 427).
At this point, errors which led to ill-formed responses are going to be dealt with. Table 3 presents ill-formed responses:

Table 3: Frequency and percentage of ill-formed responses

	Ill-formed Nouns	Ill-formed Verbs	Ill-formed Adjectives	Ill-formed Adverbs	Total
Intermediate-level Students	25 (24.05%)	21 (20.19%)	38 (36.53%)	20 (19.23%)	104

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Advanced-level Students	14 (17.30%)	20 (24.69%)	19 (23.45%)	28 (34.56%)	81

As illustrated in Table 3, the participants at the intermediate level made the greatest number of errors in the production of adjectives, whereas their counterparts at the advanced level of language proficiency did poorly in case of adverbs. The participants' "inferior performance on adjectives" has already been documented by Polinsky (2004, p. 427). In the same vein, adverbs have been postulated by Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) to be the least known word class.

It must be noted that, altogether, 94 cases of word class confusion were observed in the elicited responses of the participants (intermediate students=52, advanced students= 42). Also, the analysis of ill-formed responses revealed that there were 41 cases of poor understanding of the relational aspect (intermediate students=21, advanced students= 20) as well as 144 cases of violation of distributional constraints of English derivatives (intermediate students=83, advanced students= 61).

This has been previously substantiated by Tyler and Nagy (1989), who assumed the distributional knowledge to be the last level of knowledge of morphology to be acquired. Therefore, learners who show an understanding of this knowledge must already have a basic recognition of relational and syntactic knowledge.

7. Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate Iranian EFL learners' ability to produce appropriate derivative forms. To fulfill this purpose, two research questions were raised earlier in the study.

In response to the first research question (i.e., which derivative class(es) do Persian learners of English tend to know productively?), it is worth mentioning that Persian speakers of English are able to generate nouns and verbs with more ease in comparison with adverbs and adjectives, indicating the very fact that the facilitative effect among members of a word family seems to be less robust in the case of production (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002).

In addition, as far as the number of the four major derivative classes is concerned, Schmitt (1998) concludes that EFL learners rarely know all the four word class forms productively, and their knowledge is often restricted to two or three derivative forms as it has been evidenced by the current study.

It follows from the above discussion that Persian learners of English show partial incomplete mastery of derivational morphology, the fact that bears testimony to the necessity of explicit instruction of derivative forms (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002).

Taking the second research question into account (i.e., what aspects of knowledge of derivational morphology are Iranian EFL learners likely to know?), it must be pointed out that Persian learners of English often show a good command of the relational aspect of knowledge of derivational morphology. That is to say, their relational knowledge seems to be more advanced than their syntactic or distributional knowledge. However, their understanding of the syntactic aspect is more limited than their relational knowledge as it has been represented in their word class confusion.

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Finally, their ill-formed responses lead us to conclude that they have limited control over the distributional restrictions of the derivatives in English which, in turn, limits their full mastery of the distributional aspect.

In summary, the present study has sufficed to description of the productive knowledge of derivational morphology with a special focus on its three aspects among Persian learners of English, yet it has not accounted for the reasons why Iranian EFL learners at times fail to recognize the morphological relation between a given pair of words, why they sometimes generate the wrong syntactic category, or why they often violate distributional restrictions on English derivatives. These issues have remained unresolved and merit further extensive studies.

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Appendix
Test used to elicit the correct word forms for each prompt word
Level_____ Age_____
Directions: Look at each word and write the correct form in each sentence. If there is more than one possibility (e.g., more than one adjective form) you only need to write one. If there is no form, put an X in the blank.
EXAMPLE:
stimulate
Noun A massage is good _____. (stimulation)
Verb Massages can _____ tired muscles. (stimulate)
Adjective A massage has a _____ effect. (stimulating)
Adverb He massaged _____. (X)

1. traditional
Noun The celebration of Thanksgiving is an American _____.
Verb Americans _____ Thanksgiving.
Adjective Thanksgiving is a _____ American holiday.
Adverb Thanksgiving is _____ celebrated in American families.

2. select
Noun There was a large _____ of cars to buy.
Verb We decided to _____ one car.
Adjective The best cars were bought by _____ car customers who chose carefully.
Adverb We looked at the cars _____.

3. philosophy
Noun She explained her _____ of life to me.
Verb She was known to _____ about her life.
Adjective She was known as a _____ person.
Adverb She discussed her life _____.

4. inevitably
Noun A disagreement between the two politicians was an _____.

Verb A disagreement _____.
Adjective The _____ disagreement between the politicians was loud.
Adverb A disagreement _____ occurred.

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5. survive
Noun A young child fought for _____ after the accident.
Verb The child _____ the accident.
Adjective The child was the only _____ member of the family after the accident.
Adverb The child lived _____.

6. ideology
Noun The first politician had a different _____ from the second politician.
Verb The two politicians _____ differently.
Adjective The two _____ politicians differed.
Adverb The two politicians differed _____.

7. precise
Noun A doctor must work with _____.
Verb A doctor _____.
Adjective Medical care requires _____ work.
Adverb Doctors must work _____.

8. minimum
Noun Advanced warning of the storm resulted in a _____ of damage.
Verb The advanced warning of the storm helped to _____ its damage.
Adjective The storm caused _____ damage.
Adverb The area was damaged _____.

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THE EFFECTS OF COGNITIVE AND META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES TRAINING ON ENHANCING VOCABULARY STORAGE OF IRANIAN STUDENTS

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Abstract
Learning strategies are set to be effective in learning materials in every academic instruction. This study focuses more on the significant of language learning strategies in enhancing foreign language learning in English institutes. So it tries to find out the impact of using cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies on vocabulary development among students of English institutes. To do so, three different ways of training (cognitive, meta-cognitive, and normal instruction) were given to three groups of students each consisting of 30 students. At first, a language proficiency test was given to the students to test there homogeneity and to check if they are at the same level of proficiency. In order to test hypotheses posed in this study the collected data were analyzed by ANOVA (one way). The results of the study showed that using cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training had a significant effect on the students` learning vocabularies. So, what this study indicates is that strategies play and important role in enhancing students` learning and perception.

Key words: strategies training, cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies and vocabulary learning.

1. Background

Learning or instructional strategies are generally necessities for EFL learners to enhance their learning. A training strategy is a mechanism that creates what competencies an organization requires in the future and a means to achieve it that concluding a vision, focus, direction, and action planning document (Sergay, 2003).There has been some language learning strategies that researches concerning them began in 1960s. Learning strategies are as every set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to simplify the gaining, storage, retrieval, and applying of information (Wenden&Robin, 1987, p. 19). Language learning strategies were divided by many scholars. For example, Robin stated that learners contribute directly or indirectly to language learning by applying three types of strategies. These consisted of: learning strategies, communicative strategies and social strategies, but two main types of learning strategies are cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies that they are main subject of the present study. Cognitive learning strategies contributes

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directly to language learning including: clarification / verification, guessing / inductive inference, deductive reason, practice, memorization and monitoring, but meta-cognitive learning strategies involve different process, such as : planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management oxford(1990). Since language learning strategies are very important particularly meta-cognitive strategies for learners, it can be said that also the role of training must not be ignored. Through cognitive strategies training, learners can solve new problems, but through meta-cognitive strategies they can improve organization of learning time, self- monitoring, and self-evaluation.Oxford (1990) stressed that cognitive is direct and meta-cognitive is indirect strategy to language learning and that the former involves manipulation of target language and is used for understanding and producing language, but the latter centering on arranging and planning, monitoring and evaluating.

O'Mallyand Chammot (1985) stated that cognitive strategies are used in manipulation of information in specific tasks and meta-cognitive strategies are for regulating learning, and also believed that both based on special thoughts and behaviors that learners apply to help them comprehend, learn, or retrieve the information. It`s necessary to indicate that the role of strategies instruction in which it helps learners to be autonomy and control their own learning (Manzanares, 1985), they should be paid careful attention and also can help teachers become aware of their students` needs as well (Oxford et al, 1990).

2. Review of Related Literature

Teachers can have a significant role in strategies learning. They can motivate and interest the students for better learning and understanding, and also by choosing a scrutinized technique and method they can help students being automaticity and enhance the process of learning. Nevertheless, training of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, as they are the main discussion of the present study, can be useful learning strategies to enhance vocabulary learning and storage. Vocabulary has been considered central to the enhancement of language proficiency. Instruction on the basis of these strategies in enhancing vocabulary of students has been more focused and also suggested some vocabulary learning strategies. According to Oxford and Scarcella (1994, p. 236) the importance of vocabulary learning strategies emphasized that they are able to make learners more independent of the teacher and carry out as benefit device that can be applied inside and outside of the class. Regarding vocabulary learning, two approaches among students pointed out by Sanaoui (1995) systematic and unsystematic vocabulary learning. In the former students were further determined and independent and applied more records of vocabulary items, but in the latter they were dependent on the course and applied little or any records of vocabulary items.

The important of strategies instruction on vocabulary development were frequently stressed by many researches. Nation (1990) stated that vocabulary learning is carried out by guessing of unknown of words in reading passages by learners and remembered and storage in mind in a long period of time by training through the teachers. So, training should be integrated in a long period of time into regular activities to students have been had plenty of opportunities to Evaluate themselves

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(Oxford, 1994). Vocabulary knowledge plays a key role in individuals` skills in the first and second language. Furthermore, applying of appropriate learning strategies can be trained, operated, explained and identified that meta-cognitive strategies based on many researches and studies by scholars seem to be more effective because through enhancing and training of meta-cognitive strategies in students or learners may also lead to the enhancement of stronger cognitive proficiencies and much deeper processing (Anderson, 2002).

Enhancing vocabulary by meta-cognitive strategy training is formulated indirectly with guessing words form context when this is done as a class exercise, learning words in lists and vocabulary games and controlling and evaluating of text and exposure with it (Schmitt, 1997). In general, base on strategies that mentioned above students need training into the classroom for further comprehension of vocabulary in which they should be worked and also stored by retrieving and applying them in appropriate situations (Nattinger,Carter&McCarty, 1988). Also, for vocabulary development Steven Stahl claimed that the students can not apply these strategies such as look the vocabularies up the dictionary, applying in a sentence and or context and memorizing their definition but he believed that these strategies are appropriate for students such as integrating new vocabulary to prior knowledge, using words / repetition and meaningful apply, more opportunities to apply new words in reading and writing. Gu and Johnson (1996) believed that EFL students apply a board range of dictionary, meta-cognitive strategy, note taking, repetition, and activation strategies in their vocabulary development. Alavi and Kaivanpanah(2006) stated that in vocabulary enhancing process the meta-cognitive strategies training has been motivated learners and had been more effective than cognitive strategies training. Students` vocabulary development would enhance through both explicit cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy training even help students to do a) self-diagnose their strength and weakness in vocabulary storage b) transfer successful strategies to new learning content c) enhance a general range of problem-solving strategies d) monitor and self-evaluate their findings and performances(Cohen, 2003). Brown (1994) emphasized that cognitive strategies training for vocabulary learning are more frequently as EFL learners` attention and by doing a particular activities they can achieve their specific goals. Also , Nazhao (2009) stated that explicitly explaining and discussing meta-cognitive strategies in the classroom can have a direct payoff on students` outcomes and it`s training can facilitate students` vocabulary learning.

3. Research Questions

On the basis of views held by scholars mentioned in the above the study aims at testing the following research questions which are formulated:

Q1- Do cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training have any effect in students` vocabulary training?

Q2- Is there any difference between different types of instructions (cognitive strategies training and meta-cognitive strategies training)?

Based on the above research questions the following null hypotheses are presented:

HQ1- Cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training don't effect on vocabulary learning of students who are learning as a foreign language.

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HQ2- There is no difference between two types of strategies training (cognitive and meta-cognitive) at 0.05 level of significance.

4. Method

4.1. Subjects

The subjects of this study were selected from among the students of English language institute at advanced level from BABOL and CHALOUS of either sex. In the present study, subjects were all senior language learners and since they were all majoring at their last terms in English, they had already passed the required courses to acquire the skill and knowledge in English. Furthermore, since there is a failing score in every institute and students must obtain the score of 70 out of 100 to pass the intended term, it would be of more important that the students be at higher and at the same level of language knowledge, because better conclusion was considered to be achieved. The total number of subjects in this study measured 110, of both sex. The sample was randomly selected from among different classes. For the purpose of the study, an English language proficiency test was administered in order to ensure their homogeneity and determine their language proficiency level.

After administrating the proficiency test, comprising vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension items, 70 students were excluded because their scores measured lower than one standard deviation above the mean. After making sure that students were all the same level and their homogeneity had been verified, the required training based on meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies on two different groups started. Then, at the end of term (after 18 session of instruction), a vocabulary test was given to three groups. It must be noticed that the last group didn't receive any intended instructions for the purpose of the study to find out it there is any change in their learning.

4.2. Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study a language proficiency test. It aimed at measuring students` general knowledge of basic vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension. All parts were in the form multiple-choice questions. This test was used to determine the level of students in terms of their proficiency in language and to make a homogeneity group.

The students were given a post-test (test of vocabulary) immediately after cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training. Words which have been used in this section were all the ones taught within 18 sessions by the teacher as the measurement of the training outcome. These tests of vocabulary were taken from students` text book which is taught at institutes, Interchange 3, by Jack C. Richards. The reliability and validity of this test was checked by Cronbach's Alpha and it turned out to be 0.079.

4.3. Procedure

Since the students participating in this study were all majoring at their last semesters or levels in the institutes, it was believed that they know the general knowledge of English which was necessary for the present study and was considered to be as the base for being trained through cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Also, it is

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worth that, since the effect of applying cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies on vocabulary development was going to be tested in this study, all three groups received the same questionnaires based on their instructions given to them (except the third group without any intended instruction). The question which was directly tested in this experiment was whether the subjects would be able to improve their vocabulary learning concerning cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. If yes, which one was most beneficial: cognitive strategies or meta-cognitive ones. On the basis of the above discussion, the following procedures were followed to carry out this study:

First, the vocabulary strategy training based on cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies was given to two groups for 18 sessions. For each class, students were asked to use some strategies to learn vocabularies. They are as: using dictionary, repetition of words, using context and grammatical clues; word card; using words in different context like conversation and writing. The procedure for meta-cognitive strategy training based on three components (planning, monitoring, and evaluating) was used as follows:

Planning: First of all, the teacher thoroughly explained what a meta-cognitive strategy is. Then, he mentioned how important applying meta-cognitive strategy training is on learning vocabularies. Later, students were taught how to plan appropriately for learning vocabularies. Number of words that students have to learn within a specific time limitation, way of accomplishing the plan; and the best time for learning those words as well as time allocation to do so were all told to the students by the teacher. Also, they were asked to record those words vocalized and read by a person who knows English well on their mobile phone. The idea behind this procedure is that students can learn how to manage and regulate their time appropriately and use their dead times (while they are on their way to home in Taxies, buses, etc. when going to bed and etc.).

Monitoring:The teacher motivated the students to work in groups of two or three to monitor each other. They were asked to use those words trained and taught during instruction in different contexts and exercises such as: fill in the blanks, cloze test, and etc. Through these exercises the teacher and students could find out the weaknesses and strength of the students` learning vocabularies.

Evaluation: at the seventeenth session, students were asked to evaluate their learning by answering the following questions:

1. Has the instruction been successful?
2. Were the vocabularies for instruction at the right level?
3. Have all vocabulary strategies been emphasized equally?
4. What points need reviewing?
5. Have I attained my goal?
6. Could I change my vocabulary learning and strategy when I find out it isn't appropriate?
7. How vocabulary can I learn through reading comprehension?
8. Which vocabulary strategy have I recognized the easiest?
9. Which one is the most difficult?
10. How can I learn and try to draw lessons from this process better for next time?
11. What were my applied vocabulary strategies within training?

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12. How can I make a benefit through participating with students and teacher within training?
13. How memorizing can help to me for storage more vocabularies?
Since this cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more manipulation of the learning material itself (BROWN, 2000), the teacher used some of those strategies as: A) Repetition which can be described as imitating a language model, including overt practice, B) Translation-using the first language as a base for understanding and / or producing the second language, and C) Creating structure for input and output, including: taking notes, summarizing and highlighting during 18 sessions of instruction.
Second, the last group received normal instructions mainly based on teachers` experiences during years of teaching.
Based on the above discussion, the following procedures were followed to carry out this study.
First, the GENERAL MICHIGAN TEST (GMT) consisting of 100 items was administrated to 110 subjects. The time given was 60 minutes, and the subjects were explained on how to answer the questions. There was no penalty for the wrong guesses.
Upon administrating the test, each subject was given a score based on his/her performance on the test. Out of 110, 90 students were selected because their scores were on standard deviation above the mean. They were considered as proficiency for the present study. Table 1 represents more information:

Table1: statistics for the Michigan proficiency test

Test	DF	Mean	STD.DEVIATION
Michigan	90	73.04	6.01

Then, these 90 students were randomly divided into three groups each consisting of 30 students with the same level of proficiency. Also, it should be mentioned that to encourage and motivate the students in the post-tests, they were told that a prize would be given to the one who outperformed the other members of the group.

4.4. Data Analysis
In this study, two sets of data were collected: first, Michigan multiple-choice standardized test of language proficiency; second, a vocabulary test was given to three groups. The scoring was quite objective, since, all the questions were in the form of multiple-choice.
After collecting the required data, they were analyzed. First, one-way ANOVA was used to determine the differences between the mean test scores of the three groups. Finally, LEVENE test was used for comparing means of subjects in their tests.

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5. Results and Discussions

Table2: Test of homogeneity of variances for the three groups

Sig.	Df2	Df1	LEVENE STATISTIC
.098	87	2	2.385

Since LEVENE`S statistic level of significant proceeds 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a significant differences among variances of the three strategies training (cognitive, meta-cognitive and normal training).

Table3: ANOVA

SIG.	F	MEAN SQUARE	DF	SUM OF SQUARE	
.000	26.000	1340.278 51.549	2 87 89	2680.556 4484.733 7165.289	Between Groups Within Groups Total

Table three indicates that the results of the effect of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training on students on the basic of Fisher`s test.
Concerning the statistic of Fisher`s test which equals 26.000 at the level of 0.05, it can be included that there is a meaning full difference among three strategies.
As a result, the first null hypothesis suggesting that cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies training don't have any effect on students vocabulary learning is rejected, and it can be concluded that applying these strategies affect students` learning vocabulary.

Table4: Comparison of Means of Subjects in different groups

95%Confidence Interval		Sig.	STD.ERROR	MEAN DIFFERENCES (I-J)	(J) group (I) group
Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	UPPER.BOUND	Lower Bound	
-2.4278 -5.6752 10.5722 -1.9337 17.9915 9.7330	- 12.5722 - 17.9915 2.4278 -9.7330 8.6752 1.9337	.002 .000 .002 .002 .000 .002	2.06181 1.88377 2.06181 1.58432 1.88377 1.58432	-7.50000(*) -13.3333(*) 7.50000(*) -5.83333(*) 13.3333(*) 5.83333(*)	Exp1 control DUNNETT T3 Exp2 Control exp1 Exp2 Control exp2 Exp1

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AS the result show in table 4, the difference between the average scores of the control group (group with normal instruction) and cognitive strategies training is quite remarkable, that is -12.5722 for upper bound and -2.4278 for lower bound.
Also the same difference exists between control group and the group that received meta-cognitive strategies training. Also there is a significant difference between cognitive and meta-cognitive at the level of 0.<0.5, therefore, the second null hypothesis formulated in this study is not rejected.

Table5: Descriptive statistics for three groups

Subset for alpha=0.05			N	
1	3	2	1	Group
		76.9667	30	Control Turkey
	84.4667		30	B(a)
			30	Exp1
90.3000				Exp2

With regard to the information provided on table 5, it can be concluded that in this cluster table, the meta-cognitive strategies training was better than the cognitive one. So, the second null hypothesis formulated in this study is rejected. Furthermore, more information is provided in the following bar-graph.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The results of this study are showed that meta-cognitive strategies training had very effective on vocabulary learning, development and storage of institutes` students. Of course, this study doesn't deny the role or impact of cognitive strategies training. The meta-cognitive strategies training and direct attention were more frequently used as planning, monitoring and evaluation strategies.
This study also showed that institute teacher has a significant effect on applying of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies in vocabulary development. This causes language teachers to think about their different teaching, styles, strategies and techniques that can be contributed to students to enhance vocabulary learning.
The significant implication is the choice and applying of appropriate strategy, namely: students` needs. Teachers by analyzing students needs at the initiating of each lesson or course can familiarize students with appropriate and crucial strategies and enable them to achieve their goals. It is not inevitable that by applying appropriate strategy teacher can encourage students to use strategy that promote vocabulary learning.
The final aim of applying the vocabulary learning strategies is to create learner autonomy. That's why to attain this, teachers have to find out students` needs and use appropriate strategies to students and also students must become aware that by applying these strategies they enable to learn independently of teachers.
The other aim of implication is related to teacher-training program. The aim of such programs is that teachers should become aware with useful impacts of strategies on

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learners` development. Nevertheless, teachers` awareness of the role of strategies can encourage them to search for beneficial techniques and styles to identify students with learning strategies.

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MOBILE DICTIONARIES VERSUS PRINTED DICTIONARIES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY IN TRANSLATION ABILITY

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Abstract
Mobile phones as new addition to information and communication technologies have created new ways to help learners in the process of and translation. This study was attempted to investigate the effect of using printed dictionaries in comparison to mobile dictionaries for translation purposes. To this end, 48 undergraduate students of English translation at Applied Science and Technology University who were selected based on their performance on a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) took part in this study. The participants were randomly assigned into comparison and experimental groups. A text was given to both groups to translate as pretest. The comparison group practiced translation through the use of PMD dictionary mobile software while the experimental group practiced translation through the use of Hezareh printed dictionary. After ten sessions a translation posttest similar to the pretest was administered to both groups. The result indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group, leading to the conclusion that the use of printed dictionaries for translation had a significantly more effective impact on translation quality and ability as compared to the mobile dictionaries.

Key words: MALL, printed dictionaries, translation quality, mobile dictionaries.

Introduction

Quality in Translation

Readers often perceive the end-product of translation as the only material available for scrutiny. This tendency to ignore the process of decision making lies behind the lack of objectivity in translation assessment. Consequently, any attempt to evaluate

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translations by analytic comparison of source text (ST) and target text (TT) is bound to divert away from accuracy without considering the procedures undertaken by the translator to resolve problems (Hatim and Mason 1990).

The ST writer selects lexical items and syntactic arrangement to suit his communicative aims. The translator works at recovering those aims. But this process is fraught with subjective interpretation of ST. After all, every reading of a text is unique in its own right and is bound to evoke different responses. Over the last two decades, studies (Wilss 1982; Hatim and Mason 1990, Baker 1992 and Horton 1998) have ventured to introduce objectivity instead of subjective impressionism in judging translation quality. To this end, attempts have been made to develop an elaborate set of parametres, procedures and well-defined meta-language is needed in order to construct a pseudo-model for translation assessment. But this approach is not without its drawbacks. As House (1981) describes it, "it seems unlikely that translation quality assessment can ever be objectified in the manner of natural science." As there is neither a definitive reading of a text nor a perfect rendering which achieves the goals of ST, translation assessment and criticism could go forever. Translation is a complex hermeneutic process in which intuition plays a crucial role in interpreting the intentions of the ST writer. Further, languages vary in their choice of lexical connotations, sentence structure and rhetorical strategies, the only tangible tools for assessment. It is prudent, therefore, to talk about the adequacy of a translation rather than the degree of equivalence. Quality is relative and absolutes of accuracy cease where the end user imposes his own subjective preferences of style in TT. Standardization of quality is thus a fuzzy grey area. For instance, does accuracy and good translation mean that a shoddy poorly-written, poorly-structured ST be reproduced as a shoddy poor TT? Is it professional for a translator to act as a filter, an advocate of ST? Alternatively, should a translator produce a 'straight' translation rather than a 'sanitized' one? (ITI Conference 1994).

Technology in Translation

The last half of the twentieth century was characterized by revolutions in information and communication technology that have influenced numerous professions, including translation. Translation technologies constitute an important new field of interdisciplinary study lying midway between computer science and translation, and its professional development will largely depend on the attention it is given from the academic point of view (Archer, 2002). Translators and teachers of translation have been pioneers in the use of the computer as a tool that is fully integrated into the work process, at least as far as the field of language related professions is concerned. Although the relationship between translation and the computer began with the development of software for machine translation, the real boom of translation technologies was marked by the development of electronic dictionaries and terminological databases, the arrival of the Internet with its numerous possibilities for research, documentation and communication, and the emergence of computer-assisted and mobile-assisted translation tools (Bowker,2002). According to Lavoisa (2003) computer has been an integral part of the infrastructure needed by translators for some time now, but the amount of knowledge and the skills linked to

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the translation technologies that the translator has to master is growing by the day. Moreover, based on Askehave (2000) the steady rise in the number of computer softwares and their users, the considerable increase and variety of electronic document formats, and the rate at which they circulate over the Internet have given rise to a new specialized area called localization, the translation of documentation, interfaces and help files included in computer software applications and the translation of websites, which requires translators to have a wide, thorough knowledge of computer science of the kind that was previously possessed only by specialists.

According to Abaitua (1999) translation is a complex process which is made up many sub-processes and comprises tasks of various types. Numerous computer tools can be used to enhance the efficiency, speed or quality of some of these tasks or their results. The need to combine computer processes and tools with those used to translate, together with their continuous development, has given rise to a new discipline called translation technologies, also been called computing applied to translation, as well as the more traditional machine translation, computer-aided translation or computer translation.

Given the importance of the quality of the translation and use of technology in translation, the present study attempts to compare the effect of using printed dictionaries in translation in comparison to mobile-assisted translation tools.

Method

Participants

The participants of the study were 60 male and female Iranian sophomores studying English translation in the university of Applied Science and Technology, Mashhad, Iran. They were between 20 to 25 years old.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were used to gather data at different stages of this study:

- To homogenize the subjects of the study and in order to ensure that the members of two groups belonged to the same population, a truncated version of the TOEFL test (TOEFL, published by ETS, 2010) was used. The test consisted of 30 structure and written expression items ad 30 reading comprehension items.
- The subjects were required to translate a passage as a pretest and another passage as a posttest. The average difficulty level of the passage of the pre-test with the utilization of the Fog Index Formula of readability was12.31, while that of the posttest was 12.86. The analytic scale was used for each translation, based on this rating scale the subjects were given scores from 0-20. both the researchers scored the papers.

Material

The following materials were used in this study:

- PMD (Persian Mobile Dictionary) which enable translation from Persian to any other language, and vice versa, for Java-Compatible (J2ME) mobile devices. The main advantage of PMD over similar products is that there is no need to type in the whole word in order to search for it. It is very helpful in cases where you have forgotten the correct spelling of a word. All you need to do is

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to start off by typing the first few consecutive letters of your desired word and soon you will be directed to it. No considerable delay would be noticed while performing the search.

- Hezareh printed dictionary (Haghshenas, Samei, Entekhabi, 2001), is the most comprehensive and up-to-date English-Persian dictionary, based on the latest findings in linguistics, lexicology and lexicography. It consists of more than 55,000 entries and sub-entries and 300,000 Persian equivalents. It also consists of wide range of examples with a wealth of dialectical, stylistic, situational, and contextual information.

Procedure

The following steps were taken to accomplish the purpose of the study during the research process.

At first a truncated version of TOEFL test was administered to 60 sophomore English translation students. Those students whose scores fell between on standard deviation above and below the mean were included in the study. Out of the 60 subjects, 48 were selected for the study (24 students for each group).

In the next stage, to make sure that there was no significant difference between two groups and they belonged to the same population a passage was given to them to translate to Persian as a pretest. All papers were scored by two raters who were subjected to the inter-rater reliability measure. The subjects were given scores from 0 to 20. Both the researchers scored the papers. The average of the scores given by these two raters to each paper was considered as the score of each subject in both groups. The means of the groups were compared through a t-test to guarantee the homogeneity of the subjects regarding their current translation ability.

In the last stage, after the treatment the subjects were asked to translate a passage similar to that of pretest as a posttest. Their scores in the posttest were compared through a t-test in order to examine whether there was a meaningful difference between the means of two groups on the posttest. In order to determine the degree of improvement under two types of translation, two matched t-test were carried out between the pretest and posttest of each group.

Treatment

The actual treatment started after administrating the TOEFL and it took ten sessions. Each session a passage was given to both groups to translate. The participants of the comparison group were asked to translate the passages through the use of PMD mobile software dictionary, while the participants of the experimental group were asked to translate the same passages through the use of Hezareh Printed dictionary. The subjects of both groups were not allowed to use other devices except from the one assigned for their group. It was worth mentioning that the researchers scored the papers of both groups each session analytically, considering cohesion and coherence of the texts.

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Results

A TOEFL proficiency test was administered to 60 translation students who were the target participants of the study. The objective of this test was to choose two homogeneous groups from among the participants to serve as the experimental and comparison groups of this study. The descriptive statistics of the homogeneity test were calculated (table 1). Out of 60 subjects, 48 students who were within the required range (mean ± 1 standard deviation) were considered as the subjects of the study and were randomly assigned to the experimental and comparison groups.

Table 1.Descriptive Statistics of the Homogeneity Test

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Comparison	24	31.52	9.23
Experimental	24	31.23	9.10

In the next phase of the study, a translation pretest was administered in order to determine the ability of the subjects in translation before giving the treatment. The descriptive statistics of the pretest are reported in table 2.

Table 2.Descriptive Statistics of the Translation pretest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Comparison	24	12.86	3.42
Experimental	24	12.69	3.56

The inter-rater reliability of the translation pretest was calculated through Pearson Product Moment Correlation which turned out to be 0.91 showing a high consistency between the two raters (table 3).

Table 3.inter-Rater Reliability of the Groups on the Pretest

Raters	Mean	SD	Pearson Product Moment Correlation
Rater 1	13.23	3.35	0.91
Rater 2	12.10	2.98	

To guarantee the homogeneity of the subjects regarding their translation ability, the researchers ran a t-test. As it has been shown in table 4, the t-observed for the comparison of the means of two groups was 0.06 at 46 degrees of freedom, which was lower than the t-critical of 2.02. Thus, it could be claimed that the two groups were not significantly different in terms of translation before undergoing the treatment.

Table 4.Comparison between Variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Translation Pre-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

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		F-observed	F-critical	t-observed	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	1.01	1.69	0.06	46	2.02	0.17	1.09	5.10	6.74

After the treatment, the subjects in both groups sat for the posttest. The translation posttest had the same characteristics as the pretest to allow for comparing the amount of progress the two groups had made. The descriptive statistics of the posttest for both groups are presented in table 5.

Table 5.Descriptive Statistics of the Translation Posttest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Comparison	24	12.96	2.68
Experimental	24	15.21	2.56

The translations were scored analytically by two raters, the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores was 0.95 which indicated a high agreement between the judges' ratings on the translation posttest (table 6).

Table 6.inter-Rater Reliability of the Groups on the Psttest

Raters	Mean	SD	Pearson Product Moment Correlation
Rater 1	15.49	2.88	0.95
Rater 2	15.28	2.69	

Having computed the inter-rater reliability, the researchers ran a Leven's test to prove the equality of variances of the two groups on the posttest. As table 7 indicates, the t-observed value of 5.26 at 46 degrees of freedom was greater than the t-critical of 2.02, leading to the conclusion that the use of printed dictionaries for translation had a significantly more effective impact on translation quality and ability as compared to the mobile dictionaries.

Table 7.Comparison between Variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Translation Posttest

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

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		F-observed	F-critical	t-observed	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	1.02	1.69	5.26	46	2.02	2.25	1.65	7.13	8.54

Discussion

The results of this study indicated that the students who were exposed to translation through the use of Hezareh printed dictionary outperformed those who experienced translation through the use of PMD mobile dictionary. Their selection of corresponding lexical items, grammatical forms, and stylistic equivalents is influenced by their empathy with author and message. For after all, a translator is not a machine and his values, personality traits and emotional involvement may affect his rendition of text. It can be suggested that using printed dictionaries provides more clear and coherent translations since they provide more explanations and definitions of words.

Conclusion

In this paper we concluded that traditional way of translation (use of printed dictionaries) work better than new ways. Since translation technologies constitute a new discipline that requires theoretical consideration and discussion to achieve a structure of its own and internal coherence, which will be an essential step on the way towards its disciplinary, academic and professional consolidation and development, the major role of them in translation and other parts of education can not be denied. One step that can be taken in future to improve the quality of translation is to use translation tools and resources which are restricted to a particular area of translation such as audiovisual, legal or literary translation.

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TOWARDS AN INTERACTIVE EFL CLASS: USING ACTIVE LEARNING STRATEGIES

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Abstract
Throughout the history of Second Language Acquisition, many methods and approaches have come to vogue. By the advent of communicative approaches to Second Language Acquisition (SLA), an increasing attention was directed toward the interactive nature of language and the role of interaction in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes. This article reports on active learning strategies which are helpful in creating an interactive learning situation. After the review of related literature, active learning strategies were recognized and then the influence of these strategies on learners' interactions was investigated. This article helps teachers to create a more interactive teacher-learner environment.

Keywords*:* active learning strategies, interaction, language learning, EFL

1. Introduction

Many researchers agree that students learn better in an active learning context and environment than they do in a passive learning environment. This paper is written in order to help teachers and faculty incorporate to have an active learning environment and integrate it into their classrooms. This article discusses guidelines and information relative to the choosing, evaluation and sequencing of active learning strategies.

Teachers encourage students to participate actively in the classroom (Pajares, 1996). However, many of the learners are still unwilling to speak up and interact. Learners have the chance to follow up and be exposed to new words and structures by verbal interaction during the teaching processes. With the advent of communicative language teaching in the 1970s, students' oral participation in English classes was emphasized as a significant step toward mastery of L2.

To promote students' involvement in classroom activities, active learning strategies have been proposes by many researchers (Tedesco-Schneck, 2013; Keyser, 2000). Also

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active learning was introduced as a path to critical thinking (Tedesco-Schneck, 2013) and to promote students to think critically (Walker, 2003). Research findings have advocated that a suitable learning environment is an active one, not passive. A discovery learning in which the student is the main agent is supported (Adler, 1982). A review by McKeachie et al. (1987, p. 70) concluded that in those experiments involving measures of retention of information after the finishing of a course, evaluation of problem solving, thinking, attitude variation, or motivation for more learning, the results tend to show discrepancies inclined toward discussion methods over lecture.

As it is mentioned, a brief conclusion of the seven guidelines for good practice in university is provided with resourcing to the American Association of Higher Education, the Education Commission of the States, and The Johnson Foundation.

a. Good Practice Encourages Student-Faculty Relationship

Constant student-faculty relationship in and out of classes is the key important element in learner motivation and engagement. Faculty concern guide students come up with rough times and keep on working. Becoming acquainted with a few faculty staffs will enhance students' intellectual power and motivates them to think about their own goals and future plans.

b. Good Practice Creates Cooperation among Students

Learning is increased when it is more like a group work than an individual work. Good learning, like good work, is cooperative and social, not discrete and isolated. Working with others in groups often enhances engagement in learning. Sharing one's own opinions and ideas to others' reactions and questions increase reflecting and enhance understanding and knowledge.

c. Good Practice Increase Active Learning

Learning is not a passive activity. Students cannot learn just by attending the classes listening to teachers, memorizing ready-made assignments, and producing answers. They must talk about what they are learning (output), write about it (integration), connect it to past knowledge, and use it in their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of their lives by practice.

d. Good Practice Provides Prompt Feedback

Become alert of what you know and may not know increase learning. Students need proper feedback on performance to benefit from classes. For getting started, students need assistance in evaluating existing knowledge and experience and competence. In classes, students need continuous opportunities to perform and receive feedback for improvement and mastery. At different points during courses, students need opportunities to think about what they have acquired, what they still required to learn, and how to assess themselves in the course of their study.

e. Good Practice Pays Attention to Time on Task

Time alongside energy means learning. There is no exact substitute for time on task. Learning to use one's time well is crucial for students and teachers alike. Students

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require help in learning influential time management. Using logical amounts of time means influential learning for students and effective teaching for learning context. How a context defines time guidelines for students, faculty, administrators, and other authorities can create the basis for high achievement.

f. Good Practice Creates High Expectations

Expect more and you will move toward it. Rich people get richer and the poor become more devastated. High Expectations are crucial for students. Expecting students to be effective becomes a self-fulfilling inspiration when teachers and institutions have high expectations of themselves and stick to that expectation.

g. Good Practice Take into Account Different Talents and Ways of Learning

There are many ways to learn. People have different talents and styles of learning which they bring to classes with them. Clever students in the seminar room may be weak in the lab or art studio and vice versa. Students good at hands-on experience may not do so well with theory and abstract ideas. Students need the chance to reveal their talents and learn in ways that work best for them. So, they can be directed to learning in new styles that do not come so easily.

2. Theoretical Framework

It is crucial to figure out the theoretical framework that active learning styles are built upon. The two main theories that have been frequently used to define teaching and learning methods during the last half century are "Information Processing" or "Objectivism," that is often referred to as "traditional teacher-centered methodology," and "Constructivism," which is often referred to as "student-centered methodology."

Objectivists discuss learning as a variation in the learner's behavior and attitude or in the learner's cognitive processes. Objectivists believe that there is one proper reality and knowledge is defined as the learner's exact reflection about that reality (Vrasidas, 2000). The belief is that influential instruction happens when the teacher or the instructor transfer objective knowledge to the learner. For example, a classroom lecture or seminar can be an influential teaching paradigm when the instructor properly transfers the information to the students. While these sorts of traditional ways of teaching are sometimes influential, research has shown obviously that when students are actively engaged rather that passively listening to the teacher, they will learn more influentially.

Constructivism was established on cognitive psychology, social psychology, comprehensive studies on education, and neurological science. The most important effect that Constructivism has had on education is that it moved the direction of learning from the teacher to the student (Adams & Burns, 1999). In the Constructivist paradigm, learning happens when students become involved in an activity that uses the content and skill they are learning. Any new knowledge entered during the task that is consistent with present knowledge and understanding is targeted easily. Any new knowledge which is not consistent with past experiences and information is either rejected as being insufficient or is built into new experiences. New information is

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constructed when students integrate new experience with existing information through the process of reflection (Adams & Burns, 1999).

2.1. Selecting Strategies

Selection of the proper learning strategies is crucial for successful student learning to happen. The common method for selecting a suitable and proper strategy has been through the utilization of common sense based upon teaching experience or by choosing what has been influential for others. Some teachers use research about "Best Practices" or content resources such as the Multimedia Educational Resource for Learning and Online Teaching (MERLOT). While these methods can be helpful sometimes, a systematic method for strategy selection would be useful.

2.2. Taxonomies

A frequent way of building instruction today is through using "Blooms Taxonomy," which pays attention to the building of learning objectives and then defining instruction based on fulfilling these objectives. Although Bloom's team in fact created three taxonomies (cognitive, affective, and psychomotor), other researchers have most frequently called upon the one in the cognitive domain. The cognitive taxonomy consists of six levels of learning that are sequenced in a hierarchical order. These are, from the highest level to the lowest categories (Bloom, 1956):

1. Evaluation
2. Synthesis
3. Analysis
4. Application
5. Comprehension
6. Knowledge

This taxonomy has been utilized both as a guideline for creating course objectives and as a basis for assessing student's learning. While this method has become to some extent effective, individuals and institutions engaged in higher education have discussed a need for various types of learning that are not revealed in Bloom taxonomy. For example, learning how to learn, adapting to variation, leadership, group-work skills, communicative skills, personality, tolerance to name a few. These kinds of learning go beyond the cognitive category of Bloom's taxonomy and prove the need for a more complicated taxonomy of significant learning (Fink, 2003).

2.3. Significant Learning Taxonomy

The Taxonomy of Significant Learning, created by L.D. Fink, is based upon the fact that all kinds of learning needs that the learner knowledge some kind of variation. Fink mentions that without change no learning takes place. A change occurs when there needs to be an important relationship or high level of significance to the learner's experience. The more crucial and vital the activity is to the learner, the more the change, the greater the variation, the greater amount of learning that takes place.

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Based on this viewpoint, Fink established a taxonomy learning that includes six categories of significant learning values or objectives. Each of these levels includes more specific learning values that are all significant to the learner (Fink, 2003).

2.4. Significant Learning Value Categories

a. *Basic Knowledge*: The fundamentals, what students bring to the task.
b. *Application*: Performing, can be playing an instrument, or completing a complex task.
c. *Combination*: When students are capable of seeing and comprehend the connections between different subjects, an important kind of learning takes place.
d. *Human Aspect*: Connect the learning process to the learner. This kind of learning alerts students about the human significance of what they are learning or doing.
e. *Respecting*: When students care about each other as well as other subjects, they then have the enthusiasm they need for learning more about it and making it a part of their experience. Without the enthusiasm and motivation for learning, nothing important happens.
f. *Knowing How to Learn*: This kind of learning empowers students to expand learning in the future and to do so with better effectiveness.

Individual learning styles are significant in Fink's taxonomy. Each learning style can create multiple learning styles. Fink emphasizes that these learning values do not work alone and that they are commonly synergetic with each other. When institution creates activities that incorporate multiple learning values they instead are affecting multiple learning styles. This becomes significant when it is known that classes are made up of learners with various learning styles.

While it would be cumbersome to create exercises after providing the variety of learning styles that a particular class have, it is important to try and emphasize as many different learning styles as possible. This is completed by creating learning activities that incorporate different aspects- which instead will affect multiple learning styles. The more kinds of learning the teacher can increase the greater the potential is for developing a deeper change in the learner.

2.5. Active Learning Continuums

One way of choosing proper activities is to define them using a series of continuums. The Active Learning Continuum guidelines were created by Sutherland and Bonwell (Bonwell & Sutherland, 1996). Bonwell and Sutherland defined the use of four levels to gauge variables connected with the process of selecting a proper activity. The continuums include (Chickering, & Gamson, 1987):

1. Task Complexity Continuum
2. Course Objectives Continuum
3. Classroom Interaction Continuum
4. Continuum of Student Experiences

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2.6. Task Complexity Continuum

The Task Complexity Continuum probes a definitive active learning strategy to find its complexity. The continuum ranges from easy to hard. Activities that take a limited amount of time needs minimal instructions and are granted by students as being easy would lie on the simple side of the category. Activities that contain many levels, take a great deal of time, and need complicated instructions lie on the complex side of the level.

3. Active learning

There are many different definitions of active learning. For example, Brown (2007) defines active learning as a form of learning in which the learners use opportunities to decide about aspects of the learning process. He also defines it as a mental activity that refers to the extent to which the learner is required to use his or her mental capabilities in the process of learning. Still another definition was found on the Lexicon of Online and Distance Learning which reads, student who are active learners, process, discover, and apply learned information to new areas and try to solve new problems by previous information (Tomei, 2009).

Active learning deals with engaging students in an activity or task that will make the learner think and analyze the information being taught. It may occur at every stage or level of a lesson, from getting the students engaged in the topic, through actively and consciously taking part in discovering language and rules, to free, active production. In addition, Bell and Kahrhoff (2006, p. 1) believe that "active learning is a process wherein students are actively engaged in building knowledge of facts, opinions, and skills through the completion of instructor directed tasks and activities. It is every type of activity that makes students involved in the learning process." Active learning strategies affect students' creative thinking level and this demonstrates that creative thinking can be changed via education (Bakır, 2011). The taxonomy of significant learning is adopted from Bell and Kahrhoff (2006, p. 6) and it is shown in Figure 1.

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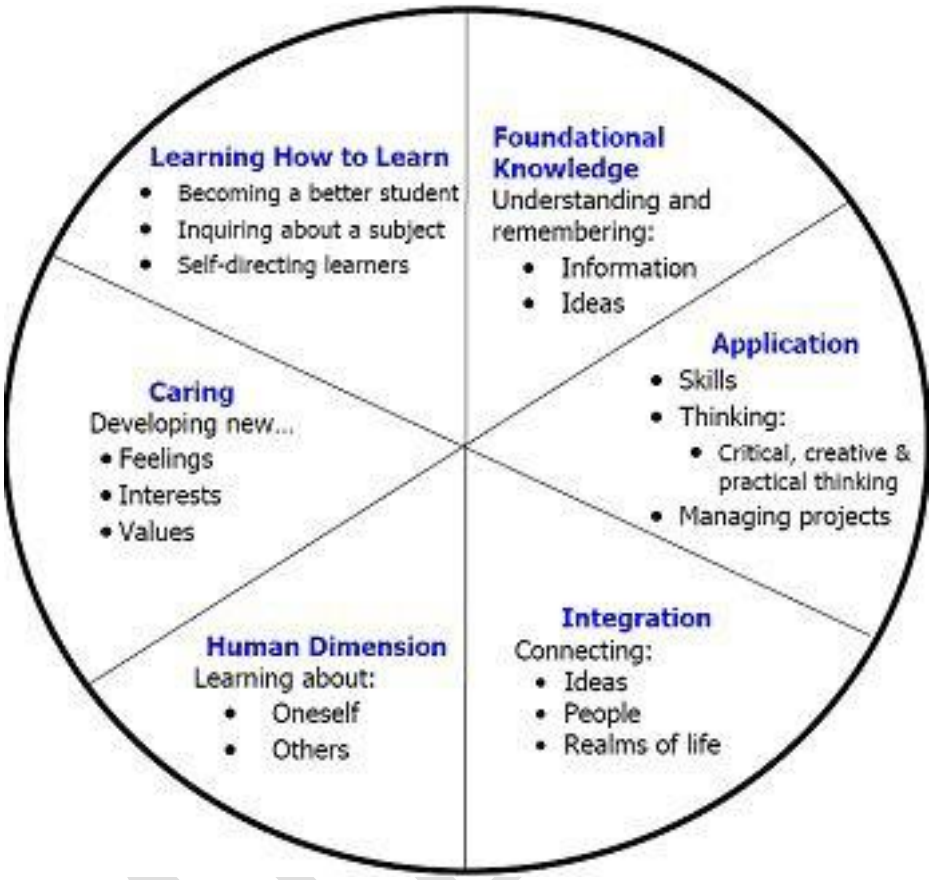

Figure 1- **The Taxonomy of Significant Learning**

4. Review of the Literature: Importance of Active Learning

Swain (1985) avowed that language learning is more influential when the target language is used interactively, particularly with regard to understanding the language in general, and improving their reading or listening comprehension in particular. According to Ellis (1993), interaction within the classroom cause many advantages for language learning such as comprehension checks, language practice and the like. Long and Porter (1985) pointed out that when second language learners worked in groups, they were more motivated, took more initiative, and were less anxious with regard to their learning. On the other hand, there may be a relationship between student oral participation and teachers' questioning techniques and types of classroom activities (Wei, 2008). Wei (2008) also found that students' oral participation is increased if application and presentation activities are used; proper vocabulary is offered when students need it to continue; questions related to students' prior experience or knowledge are asked; and an informal and friendly classroom atmosphere is present.

Khamwan (2007) figured out that after training the students to use interactional strategies as tools for initiating their interaction, their responses to the teacher's

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questions were longer and more meaningful. Further, the average number of interaction turns was about two turns per three minutes. It was found that the students could comprehend the lesson better. They could ask their teacher when they could not understand something. Moreover, more students could respond to the teacher's questions.

All above mentioned studies have supported the significance of learner's participation and interaction. Many research studies discuss the advantages of active learning techniques that can help students to initiate an interaction with their teachers and ultimately clarify unclear points to enhance their understanding of the lessons and improve creativities.

Moreover, many researchers emphasized that students learn better in an active learning context than they do in a passive learning context. With conscious learning, we can make students creative (Bakır, 2011) and promote critical thinking (Walker, 2003; Tedesco-Schneck, 2013). The utilization of active learning to promote critical thinking dates back to the time of Socrates who encouraged reflective thinking by means of provocative questioning. Socratic questioning is one of the ways to engage students in active and conscious learning and create critical thinking. Chan (2013) also examined the way critical thinking is defined and revealed in previous studies of nursing education, and then analyzed and investigated the styles and strategies in teaching and learning critical thinking.

5. Statement of problem

EFL teachers may have witnessed occasions when they encounter a passive class where students are unresponsive and silent and avoid interaction or communication with the teacher. Sometimes, students do not answer even if they understand the question, know the answer, and are able to create the answer. The next section helps teachers to deal with this situation.

6. Method

Six studies relevant to the topic were chosen. Data source was Science Direct. Papers were indexed and some web sites were reviewed to identify techniques applied in EFL classes (see fig.2).

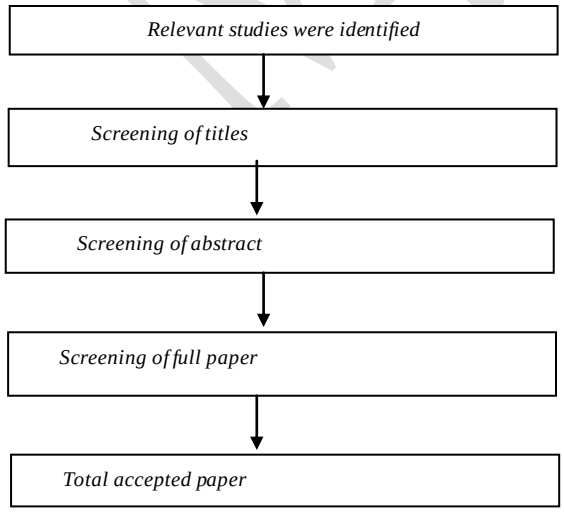

Figure 2. Flow diagram of the review process

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7. Findings

Table 1 shows active learning strategies found by the review of related literature (Adler, 1982; Bell & Kahrhoff, 2006; Keyser, 2000; Tedesco-Schneck, 2013; Vrasidas, 2000; Walker, 2003).

Table 1
Active learning strategies

Active learning strategy	Description	Purpose
Academic Portfolio	Portfolios give students ownership of their work which improves their level of interest in what they are doing.	Track student development, Reveals learning progress, Highlights best work, Connects students to work, Involves students in assessment process
Assigning Roles, drama	Provides students with the opportunity to bring language alive in a fun and entertaining way.	Allows students to look for certain aspects within a film or lecture and yet get information regarding other aspects from classmates.
Debate	To discover the complexity in big issues.	Requires students to acknowledge opposite viewpoints, develops listening skills, demonstrates need for supporting evidence, encourages research and examination, discourages simplistic approach to complex subjects.
The Fish Bowl	Students write down one question concerning the course material and deposit. Their questions in a fish bowl. The teacher then takes several questions out of the bowl and answers them for the class or asks the class to answer them.	To provide the teacher feedback; gives the students the chance to ask questions, get clarification.
Treasure Hunt	The basic strategy here is to find web pages that hold information (text, graphic, sound, video, etc.) that you feel is essential to understanding the given topic.	The activity works well when gathering relevant factual information and providing specific background information is needed.

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Think/Pair/Share or Write/Pair/Share	Students try out ideas with each other before they make them public.	Focuses student attention, encourages problem solving individually and in groups, allows shy students to gain confidence, increases the body of material for student reaction, provides framework for auditory and kinesthetic learning.
Fictionary	Ask each group to find an obscure word in the dictionary and then to write three definitions of this word.	Good dictionary skills will help your students become more autonomous.
Clarification pause	Throughout the lecture, especially after an significant point, stop and let the issue sink in, then ask if anyone needs help with the content.	It is helpful to circulate the room while you are waiting for responses, this will aid students who frequently feel uncomfortable asking questions.
Focused listening	Used as a brainstorming technique to generate definitions/descriptions of topics. Ask students to take 3-5 minutes and list words or phrases that describe a concept.	Can be used to generate class discussion or then have students form groups to compare lists and form the best overall description of topic.
Team trouble shooting	Have students form groups of 3-4, propose a question or challenge-ask teams to troubleshoot for 5 minutes and write down their opinions. Stop and collect the papers-use to lead a discussion on an analysis of the issue.	To increase critical thinking abilities.
Discussion map	A way to get your students talking about a specific topic. Write the topic in the middle, and then get students to ask and answer questions using the prompts, and also to discuss the advantages and disadvantages.	Connecting the major topic of focus with what they consider its most important features/other ideas and concepts.

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One Minute Paper	Facilitator passes out small sheets of paper to students. They are asked to spend one minute writing about an assigned topic.	One Minute Paper provides an opportunity for all students to have a voice not just those who are vocal in classroom discussions. It facilitates discussion and helps to focus attention on a point. It is a quick way to check students' understanding. It caters proper feedback to specific questions.
Mini Cases (Group Activity)	Mini cases are small, carefully chosen sequences of information that invite students to analyze a set of facts or circumstances, offer interpretations, form judgments and make decisions using concepts in the discipline.	Works well either as a way of issuing a new topic or as a way of closing a unit of study and helping students consolidate learning gains.

7. Conclusion

As already discussed, active learning is one of the useful strategies for EFL teachers and effective teaching strategies. Not considering of the subject matter, when active learning is compared with traditional teaching methods (such as lecture), students learn more, retain the information longer, and use the class more effectively. Active learning allows students to learn in the classroom with the help of the instructor and other students, rather than on their own. Therefore, a process of ZPD takes place in which learners can reach their potentials by the assistance of a peer or teachers. It covers all the practical learning activities and teaching methods in which students are able to think about their learning and to use their own knowledge to solve problems.

Additionally, teachers should be aware of their course goals and learning goals. If these objectives and aims are stated as higher-order thinking processes, then active learning strategies promote critical thinking, creative learning, and corporative learning. Finally, it is important that active learning strategies be encouraged and reinforced not only in all EFL classes by teachers, but also at every level of education. We can still plant the seed and encourage students to use their thinking abilities in all aspects of life.

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A QUANTITATIVE STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL UNIVERSITY STUDENT'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND MOTIVATION

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Abstract
The present study aimed at investigating the possible relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation among the Iranian EFL learners. To fulfill the purpose of the study, a number of university seniors majoring in English Language Teaching were selected as the participants. The investigation was done through a test and a questionnaire. The test was the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) (Schutte et al., 1998), and the questionnaire was the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich, et al., 1991). The data were analyzed both descriptively and inferentially. To check the correlation, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was run. The findings of this study revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation (r= 0.74). Besides, it was found that all components of motivation had positive and significant correlation with all the subscales of emotional intelligence. That is, those who are more emotionally intelligent and motivated can produce positive emotions in their own and others to ask their questions and expand their knowledge.

Key words: Emotional intelligence, Motivation, SSEIT, MSLQ

1. Introduction

In today's world, most people are eager to learn a language other than their mother tongue, especially in foreign language settings. Learner's disposition to learn has always been recognized as crucial for second or foreign language development. It is characterized by affective factors, the most important of which are attitude and motivation. For several decades, motivation has been a central subject of the theoretical

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studies and empirical research in second or foreign language learning. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) see motivation in terms of effort, attention and persistence whereas Van Lier, 1996 based on work by Vygotsky (1962, 1986) and Keller (1983), lists intentionality, affect, and effort as related to motivation. Ford (1992) also has identified three motivational factors which are personal goals, emotional arousal processes, and personal beliefs which direct, energize, and regulate goal-directed activity. Moreover, Ryan and Deci, (2000) classified motivation in two types: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome.

In the past decade or so, since the focus was on rational and cognitive aspects, and that little emphasis is given to the important contributions of an emotional mind (Epstein, 1998; Nelson & Low, 2003), many researchers focused on a different dimension of intelligence called Emotional Intelligence (EI). Since emotional intelligence is emerging as a critical factor in high performance in educational courses especially in academic contexts, educators and professors are using EI tools to create positive results and meet pressing educational needs. Likewise, it may emerge as a strong predictor of who will be most successful because it is how we handle ourselves that determines how well we do once we are in a given situation.

Since the affective domain plays a large role in developing second or foreign language skills than does the cognitive domain, the present study sought to explore any relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation, and also finding out the relationship between the different components of emotional intelligence and motivation of EFL students studying at university.

Emotional intelligence

Goleman (1998), introduced the term Emotional Intelligence (EI) as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationship" (p. 317). Moreover, he stated that "emotional intelligence consists of knowing what you are feeling, recognizing what others are feeling, managing the feelings in relationships, and using your feelings to motivate yourself--even in the face of frustrations" (Goleman, 1995, p. 43).

Motivation

The concept of motivation is a multi-faceted construct involving effort (motivational intensity), cognition (desire), affect (attitude), and goal. As cited in Ghanea, Zeraatpisheh, Ghanea (2011), motivation is as that which moves or includes a person to act in a certain way; a desire, fear, reason, etc. which influences a person's volition, also often applied to a result or object, which is desired. Gardner (1985) defined it as "… the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p. 10).

2. Literature Review

In order to investigate the roles of the student, the teacher and the language researcher in understanding motivation to learn another language, Gardner (2001) highlighted the socio-educational model of second language acquisition.

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Some researchers investigated the role of emotional intelligence on listening, speaking, reading, writing, and communicative skills. Ghaffari (2008), for example, found a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and Iranian EFL learners' English speaking skill. Miri (2009) stated that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and listening comprehension ability. Pishghadam (2009) studied the role of emotional intelligence in second language learning. He stated that total EQ and its subscales were found to be poor predictors of second language learning. Skourdi and Rahimi (2010) compared two models of emotional intelligence based upon the ideas proposed in Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Saklofske, Austin, and Miniski (2003) to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, linguistic intelligence, and vocabulary learning, especially receptive breadth of vocabulary, among EFL learners. The correlational analysis revealed that there was an interesting pattern of significant relationship between emotional intelligence and first language, between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge and between first language and vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, emotional intelligence was found to be a potential predictor for first language acquisition.

Moreover, in terms of emotional intelligence and educational achievement, Lotfikashani, Lotfiazimi, and Vaziri (2012) found that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the students' end-of-the-term and diploma degree. Thus, it could not be a reliable predictor of educational achievement. However, there was a significant relationship between diploma and university degrees. Thus, academic success was significantly correlated to IQ; hence, it could be a reliable predictor of educational achievement.

In order to determine whether emotional intelligence strategy had any effect on EFL learners' writing performance ability, Abdolrezapour (2013) conducted an experimental research. She considered 44 intermediate female learners between the ages of 13 to 18 randomly assigned to two groups from a private language institute. To make sure of the initial comparability of the two groups, they had a writing test, and the TEIQUE-ASF was administered prior to the experiment. The results indicated that the experimental group made some improvement in their writing performance. However, the control group showed no improvement in their post-tests. Moreover, the results were evidence to the fact that introducing emotional intelligence strategy had a considerable effect on learners' writing performance. The discussion addressed school systems to seek out and utilize principles with levels of emotional intelligence for students in EFL classrooms in an effort to promote increased performance.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following questions are raised:

1. Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation of students majoring in English?
2. Is there any profound relationship between Iranian EFL students' motivation subscales and emotional intelligence?

Regarding the research questions of the study, the following null hypotheses were posed:

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HO1: There is no relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation of students majoring in English.
HO2: There is not any relationship between Iranian EFL students' motivation subscales and emotional intelligence.

4. Method

4.1 Participants

The participants in this study were 59 senior males and females, majoring in English Teaching at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch. They were 44 female and 15 male participants ranged from 21 to 29 years of age. The test and questionnaire were administrated to the students at the end of their class time. The data were collected in two sessions. In order to motivate the participants to take the test and the questionnaire seriously, the objectives of the study were explained to the participants, and to avoid misunderstanding, all the instructions were given in both English and Persian.

4.2 Instruments

First, the Schutte Self- report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was administered. They were asked to show the extent to which they agreed with the statements by checking one of the five responses in the answer sheet. The responses to this questionnaire ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. In the second session, the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was used. In order to complete the SSEIT and MSLQ, there was no time restriction.

4.3. Data Analyses & Results

In the following part, having reported and presented the findings of the study, the researchers discuss the results and answer the research questions.

Q1. Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation of students majoring in English?

The first objective of the study was to examine the relationship between the EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation. In order to analyze the data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to obtain descriptive (mean, Standard Deviation) and inferential (Correlation, Pearson Product Correlation) analyses. Therefore, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used.

The Schutte Self-report Emotional intelligence Test (SSEIT) consisted of 33 items; items 5, 28, and 33(Gignac, Palmer, Manocha, & Stough, 2005) which were negatively stated in the test were reversed. After that, all the items in were added up to find the participants' total scores on Emotional Intelligence Test and Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire. Then, the sum of different items relating to different components of emotional intelligence (PE, MES. MOE, and UE) and motivation (Intrinsic Goal Orientation, Extrinsic Goal Orientation, Task Value, Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB), Self-Efficacy for Learning & Performance (SELP), Test Anxiety) were calculated; hence, the scores of each component of EI and motivation were divided by the number of their relevant items. As such, in order to figure out if there was any relationship between the independent variable, emotional intelligence, and also the dependent variable, motivation, the correlation coefficient was calculated. Table 4.1

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demonstrates the descriptive results of the emotional intelligence test, Motivated Strategies for Learning questionnaire as well as all their subscales, used in this study.

Table 4.1
Descriptive Statistics on Components of Emotional Intelligence and Motivation

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Perception of Emotions (PE)	59	2.1	4.5	3.264	.647
Managing Emotions in the Self (MES)	59	2.2	4.8	3.527	.666
Managing Other's Emotions (MOE)	59	2.12	4.62	3.469	.672
Utilizing Emotions (UE)	59	2.16	5.00	3.606	.818
Emotional Intelligence Total	59	8.98	19.83	13.969	2.643
Intrinsic Goal Orientation	59	2.00	5.00	3.605	.788
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	59	2.25	5.00	3.830	.817
Task Value	59	1.66	5.00	3.553	.863
Control of Learning Beliefs	59	1.00	5.00	3.483	.910
Self-Efficacy for Learning& Performance	59	2.00	5.00	3.584	.730
Test Anxiety	59	1.00	4.80	2.827	.820
Motivation Total	59	14.75	28.45	20.849	3.217

As Table 4.1 illustrates, the mean of students' emotional intelligence scores is 13.96 and the standard deviation is 2.64. Also, the students' mean score of motivation test is 3.21. Furthermore, among all the components of emotional intelligence, "utilizing emotions" has received the highest mean, and among all the components of motivation, "extrinsic goal orientation" has received the highest mean. Then, the correlational analysis between total emotional intelligence and motivation was also run. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Correlation between Total EI and Total Motivation

		Motivation Total
Emotional intelligence Total	Pearson Correlation	0.74**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	59

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

According to Table 4.2, Pearson product-moment correlation was employed to examine whether there was any significant correlation between total emotional intelligence and motivation. As the findings revealed, there was a high positive correlation between total EI and total motivation at the 0.01 level (r= 0.74). Therefore, it was found that motivation had positive and significant correlation with emotional intelligence. It means that motivation and emotional intelligence are related to each other, and students who can make use of both of them can achieve better learning objectives. Thus, the first hypothesis, stating that there was not a significant and meaningful relationship between motivation and emotional intelligence of Iranian students majoring in English, was rejected.

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Q2. Is there any profound relationship between Iranian EFL students' motivation subscales and emotional intelligence?

To answer the second research question, the relationship between motivation and emotional intelligence subscales were computed through Pearson product-moment formula as well. The findings of the correlation analysis were indicated in table 4.3.

Table 4.3
Correlations among Different Components of Emotional Intelligence and Motivation

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Task Value	CLB	SELP	Test Anxiety
PE	Pearson-Correlation	.569**	.371**	.473**	.605**	.380**	.147
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.268
	N	59	59	59	59	59	59
MES	Pearson-Correlation	.491**	.269*	.628**	.626**	.412**	.135
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.039	.000	.000	.001	.307
	N	59	59	59	59	59	59
MOE	Pearson-Correlation	.567**	.406**	.533**	.659**	.459**	.206
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.118
	N	59	59	59	59	59	59
UE	Pearson-Correlation	.636**	.387**	.501**	.631**	.409**	.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.000	.001	.590
	N	59	59	59	59	59	59

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

According to Table 4.3, the most significant findings of the correlation analysis are as follows:

1) Significant correlations were found between Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Perception of Emotions (PE) (0.56), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (0.49), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (0.56), also Utilizing Emotions (UE) (0.63) at the 0.01 level.

2) Extrinsic Goal Orientation was found to be significantly though moderately correlated with Perception of Emotions (PE) (0.37), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (0.40), Utilizing Emotions (UE) (0.38) as well at the 0.01 level. Also, there existed a low correlation between Extrinsic Goal Orientation and Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (0.26) which was significant at the 0.05 level.

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3) Moderate correlations were found between Task Value and Perception of Emotions (PE) (0.47), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (0.62), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (0.53), also Utilizing Emotions (UE) (0.50) at the level of 0.01 was statistically significant.
4) Slightly higher and moderate correlations were found between Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) and Perception of Emotions (PE) (0.60), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (0.62), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (0.65), as well as Utilizing Emotions (UE) (0.63) at the 0.01 level.
5) Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance (SELP) were observed to be significantly correlated with Perception of Emotions (PE) (0.38), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (0.41), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (0.45), and Utilizing Emotions (UE) (0.40) at the level of 0.01 was statistically significant.
6) Test Anxiety was discovered to be weakly correlated with Perception of Emotions (PE) (0.14), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (0.13), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE) (0.20), Utilizing Emotions (UE) (0.07), though.
Therefore, it was found that all components of motivation had positive and significant correlations with the all subscales of emotional intelligence. Thus, the results rejected the second null hypothesis of the study that there was no profound relationship between Iranian EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation subscales.

4.4. Discussion

This study intended to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation among the Iranian EFL learners at Shiraz Azad University, Shiraz, Iran. It was hypothesized that emotional intelligence and motivation had no relationship to each other. Generally, what the results of the study showed was that EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation play significant and determining role in expanding their language knowledge.
As such, in case of emotional intelligence and language learning in general, the findings of this study support those of Aki (2006), who found that language learning is a concept that depends upon both the learner and the instructor when it comes to human psychology and interpersonal communication. According to Aki (2006), "what is important in language learning is not high intelligence values; rather, it is being emotionally intelligent or at best, having the ability to recognize, employ, comprehend and manage emotions" (p. 66).
These results are in conflict with what was reported by Vali-Mohammadi and Bagheri (2011). They reported that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation. Furthermore, Pishghadam (2009) stated that total EQ and its subscales were found to be poor predictors of second language learning.

5. Conclusion

Based on the results obtained in this study, one can conclude that there is a significant relationship between EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation. This implies that students with greater emotional intelligence and motivation have greater power of learning language.
Specifically speaking, a profound relationship between EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation was observed, which indicates that those who are more

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emotionally intelligent and motivated can produce positive emotions in their own and others to ask their questions and expand their knowledge. In addition, among all components of motivation, it was the Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) which had the highest contribution. This may be due to the fact that those students, who have a greater control over themselves and their learning, benefit from a higher degree of motivation. They can easily motivate themselves to learn new materials. Besides, those students with a greater ability of managing their emotions have greater power of learning.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE OF COLLOCATIONS THROUGH INCIDENTAL LEARNING VS. INTENTIONAL LEARNING

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Abstract
The present study aimed to explore (a) whether incidental learning as compared with intentional learning leads to a more successful development of the receptive knowledge of collocations and (b) whether incidental learning as compared with intentional learning leads to a more successful development of the productive knowledge of collocations. Based on the study purpose and the participants' availability, 50 Persian-speaking high-intermediate female students form Kermanshah Iran Language Institute participated in the study. 25 students were assigned to the control group and 25 to the experimental group. Afterwards, the pretest in the form of a receptive and productive collocation test was given to both groups to find their familiarity with collocations. After 20 sessions of instruction, the posttest which was the same test as the pretest was administered to see the result of the treatment. The results showed that the participants who were in the incidental learning group outperformed the intentional learning group considering both the receptive and productive knowledge of collocations. Moreover, it was observed that the kind of improvement with receptive collocations was more significant than that with productive collocations.

Key words: *collocation, incidental learning, intentional learning, receptive knowledge, productive knowledge.*

1. Introduction

Vocabulary learning is an indispensable process for EFL learners to acquire proficiency and competence in target language. It is one of the crucial elements both of acquisition of one's native language and of learning a foreign language (Morra & Camba, 2009). It is believed that having a large and varied vocabulary is the indicator

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of communicative competence and it is one of the important aspects of language learning (McCrostie, 2007). To know the meaning of a word most effectively, students need to know its associations with other words (Nattinger & DeCarrio, 1992) and making this association is one of the most problematic areas for foreign language learning (Farrokh, 2012). Collocation, as a subcategory of vocabulary, is a very important part of knowledge of second language acquisition and they are essential to non-native speakers of English in order to speak or write fluently and accurately (Jaén, 2007). It is self-evident that the teaching of collocation should be a top priority in every language course (Kuo, 2009). There are two approaches to vocabulary acquisition, intentional or direct learning and incidental or indirect learning (Yali, 2011). Incidental learning is the process of learning something without the intention of doing so; it is also learning one thing while intending to learn another (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). The words that learners encounter in incidental vocabulary learning will be retained in the long term memory and could be used more confidently in different situations (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). Schmitt (2008) believes that intentional vocabulary learning takes place when the specific goal is to learn vocabulary, usually with an explicit focus. Nation (2001) introduced a common aspect of word knowledge, *receptive* knowledge and *productive* knowledge. The receptive and productive dimension of lexical knowledge is a bridging dimension between lexical competence and performance (Zareva, Schwanenflugel & Nikolova, 2012). Productive knowledge is usually associated with speaking and writing while receptive knowledge is associated with listening and reading (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004).

According to Richards & Schmid (2002), learning something without paying any attentions to the process of learning is incidental learning. Leaning one subject can also occur incidentally in the middle of learning another thing intentionally. Read (2000) found out that native speakers acquire 70% of their mother language incidentally when they hear new vocabularies in the speech or read them in a text. From this view point, linguists suggest that ESL/EFL learners learn new words incidentally, as well. Incidental learning occurs through different ways, such as reading extensively, watching original movies, listening to the native speakers and so forth.

Coadi (2001) believes that incidental learning strongly encourage learners to have extensive reading. So, learners guess the meaning of the new vocabularies through reading. Harmer (2003) and Nation (2001) claim that extensive reading can be very enjoyable for learners when a teacher asks students, in the proper level, to select a text and read it for themselves.

Based on comprehension hypothesis of Krashen, comprehensible input is an essential condition for language improvement and extensive reading affects on developing reading fluency and at the same time new vocabularies and grammar structures are added to the previous knowledge (Krashan, 2003).

Hunt and Beglar (1998) believe that extensive reading and listening help students learn many vocabularies incidentally; therefore, encouraging learners to have extensive reading and listening give them many chances to confront with new vocabularies. Huckin and Coady (1999) hold the same idea, too. They claim that learning new vocabularies can occur by guessing the meaning of new vocabularies in

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the extensive reading. These researchers agree that incidental learning is a useful approach for all EFL/ESL learners at all levels.

In order to meet an acceptable proficiency and competency in the domain of target language, learners should highly view vocabulary learning as an inevitable process. Vocabulary knowledge brings about fluent speaking and effective writing. It confirms not only receiving but also producing knowledge. It empowers learners' language skills.

Intentional vocabulary learning is defined as "a deliberate attempt to commit factual information to memory" (Hulstijn, 2011, p.1). Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996) state that through merely intentional vocabulary activities, it is impossible to learn the words and via listening and reading activities words must be "picked up". Intentional vocabulary learning leads to better retention, and wide vocabulary knowledge than the incidental vocabulary learning alone.

Ahmad (2011) claims that intentional vocabulary learning is not an effective approach as it is only based on synonyms, antonyms, word substitution, multiple choice, scrambled words and crossword puzzles, without paying any attention to the context. According to his study, learners memorize the words without doing any cognitive processing. As the result, only few words can be transformed into active process. On the contrary, learning new vocabularies through text can be more effective because learners can use the ability of guessing the meaning through the context.

2. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study will address the following research questions:

1- Does incidental learning as compared with intentional learning lead to a more successful development of the receptive knowledge of collocations?

2- Does incidental learning as compared with intentional learning lead to a more successful development of the productive knowledge of collocations?

To investigate the effects of incidental learning on the development of the receptive and productive knowledge of collocations the following hypotheses were formulated:

$H_0$1: Incidental learning as compared with intentional learning does not lead to a more successful development of the receptive knowledge of collocations.

$H_0$2: Incidental learning as compared with intentional learning does not lead to a more successful development of the productive knowledge of collocations.

3. Methodology

Design

This study utilizes a quasi-experimental research design with two groups of participants. To ensure the comparability of the participants prior to the treatment, participants were given a pretest and a posttest to measure the effect of the treatment.

Procedure

Based on the study purpose and the participants' availability, 50 Persian-speaking female students participated in this study. To see whether the participants build a homogenous group in terms of their English proficiency, the researcher administered a PET test (Preliminary English Test) with 60 students who were distributed into two classes, each one containing 30 students, and chose 25 participants from each class

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whose scores ranged from 65 to 75. One class formed the incidental group to be taught incidentally and the other one formed the intentional group to be taught intentionally. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 25. All of them were studying at high-intermediate level of adult department of Iran Language Institute, Kermanshah branch. They all had studied English for at least 2 years at ILI.

A validated teacher-made pre-test in the form of a gap –filling productive test and an appropriateness of judgment receptive test were given to each group before the instructional period. The gap- filling productive test included 30 target collocations that examined two types of collocations: 15 verb-noun collocations and 15 adjective-noun collocations. The two tests were used in structural forms that allowed only one correct answer. For each blank, the initial letter of the target collocation was provided as a clue to help the participants remember the appropriate collocation. The validated teacher-made receptive test was devised to measure the participants' receptive competence of the correct English collocations. It consisted of 30 target collocations that examined two types of collocations: 15 verb-noun collocations and 15 adjective-noun collocations. The students were asked to judge whether the underlined part of a sentence was acceptable or not by circling a number corresponding to the appropriate part of the sentence. At the end of the instructional period which involved a two-month study containing 16 sessions each lasting one and a half hour, the posttests which were same tests as the pretests were applied again to see the effectiveness of the treatment. The productive test was administered first and lasted for 20 minutes; the receptive test was administered right after the participants finished the productive test and lasted for 20 minutes. Both instruments were checked, and each participant was given a number to ensure that the same participant took each of the two tests.

Treatment procedure

The researcher taught the incidental group without specific attention to focus on collocational learning. The intentional group was taught through focusing attention directly on the information to be taught.

Scoring Procedure

The set data of the tests were scored as correct or incorrect because all of the items allowed for only one possible answer. The total score for each instrument was 30 for the productive test and 30 for the receptive test. Items unanswered were counted as incorrect. Morphological errors, such as the incorrect use of verb tenses (e.g. *Governments should takes*) and spelling errors (e.g. *cauht fire*), weren't considered. The mismatched collocations that acted as distracters in the receptive test weren't counted.

4. Data Analysis

A quantitative study was held to gather data from the participants. The scores from the pretest and the posttest were subjected to an independent samples t-test to determine whether or not there were significant differences between each group's performances. The data obtained from the mentioned tests were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 16 (SPSS, 16).

As it is shown in table 4.3, the participants' scores of the productive pretest in both incidental and intentional groups are almost similar and there is no significant difference between the participants in both groups concerning their productive

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knowledge of collocations based on the observed significance (.238) which is larger than the probability level of .05.

Table 4.2
T-test for Productive Pretest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Incidental	25	9.84	1.46	1.195	48	.238
Intentional	25	9.40	1.11			

To compare both groups' participants receptive knowledge of collocations on the pretest, another t-test was run. According to the meaningful level of significance obtained from data analysis which equals .153 and comparing that with alpha level which was set at 0.05, we can conclude that the participants' scores of the receptive pretest in both incidental and intentional groups are almost similar and there is no significant difference between the participants in both groups concerning their receptive knowledge of collocations.

Table 4.3
T-test fort Receptive Pretest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Incidental	25	9.24	1.26	-1.450	48	.153
Intentional	25	9.76	1.26			

To find the impact of the treatment, the same test as the pretest was administered as the post test. Based on the significance obtained from data analysis on the productive collocation test which equals 0.000 and comparing that with alpha level which is 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the effect of incidental and intentional learning on the development of the productive knowledge of collocations.

Table 4.4
T-test for Productive Posttest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Incidental	25	22.36	2.36	6.35	48	.000
Intentional	25	18.38	1.67			

Based on the significance obtained from data analysis on the collocation receptive test which equals 0.000 and comparing that with alpha level which is 0.05, we can be

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certain that there is a significant difference between the effect of incidental and intentional learning on the development of the receptive knowledge of collocations.

Table 4.5
T-test for Receptive Posttest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Incidental	25	23.08	2.30	5.392	48	0.000
Intentional	25	19.36	2.56			

The result of the data analysis shows that the hypothesis which states that there is no difference between the effect of incidental and intentional learning on the development of receptive knowledge of collocations is rejected**.**

The result of the data analysis shows that the hypothesis which states that there is no difference between the effect of incidental and intentional learning on the development of productive knowledge of collocations is rejected**.**

5. Discussion and conclusion

The first question of this study is related to whether incidental learning of collocations can improve the development of the receptive knowledge of collocations. To answer this question, the preset author tested two groups of participants namely incidental and intentional groups. The results of the current study revealed that the participants in the incidental group achieved significantly higher scores on the receptive posttest than the participants in the intentional group (in the incidental group, the mean for the receptive posttest was 23.08; in the intentional group, the mean for the receptive posttest was 19.36).

The second question is related to whether incidental learning of collocations can improve the development of the productive knowledge of collocations. To answer this question, the preset author tested two groups of participants namely incidental and intentional groups. The results of the current study revealed that the participants in the incidental group achieved significantly higher scores on the productive posttest than the participants in the intentional group (in the incidental group, the mean for the productive posttest was 22.36; in the intentional group it was 18.38).

By comparing the receptive and productive tests, one can find that the participants in both groups outperformed on the receptive test as compared with the productive test. It means that, as the other skills, language learners have more problems on the production than the reception of language. The data obtained from the tests revealed a significant difference between participants' receptive and productive knowledge of collocations. The learners' receptive knowledge was broader than the learner's productive knowledge. On the posttest, the means of the receptive tests were higher than the means of the productive tests in both incidental and intentional groups. That receptive knowledge typically precedes productive mastery is not surprising. It requires a more serious care on the part of language teachers to pay the same attention on the production of collocations as they do on the reception.

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6. Conclusion

Vocabulary knowledge has an important role in almost all areas of language learning. Without understanding the text's vocabulary, text comprehension is impossible either in one's native language or in a foreign language. Some researchers now claim that compared to the other components of language, vocabulary is the most essential one. No matter how skilled students are at grammar, communication will cease without the words to convey meaning. Language teaching methodologies have attached great importance to vocabulary learning, and sometimes it has been neglected. One of the principal controversial issues in vocabulary teaching and learning in the field is how to identify significant approaches and strategies to teaching and learning vocabularies. Two approaches for vocabulary learning are incidental and intentional learning and one aspect of vocabulary learning is collocational learning which can be taught incidentally or intentionally. Previous research on collocations has proved learners' inadequate proficiency of production and reception of collocations. The present study tried to investigate the development of the receptive and productive knowledge of collocations through incidental learning vs. intentional learning. The results of the data analysis rejected the hypotheses of the study. It was found that incidental learning of collocations led to a better acquisition of the receptive and productive knowledge of collocations as manifested by the taken tests from the participants. Also, the participants' receptive knowledge of collocations proved to be broader than their productive collocational knowledge.

In summary, the results revealed that collocations are a source of difficulty for English language learners. Therefore, L2 curriculum designers and teachers should pay more attention to collocations.

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THE EFFECT OF ALTERNATIVE -TEACHING MODEL ON EFL LEARNERS' GRAMMAR ACHIEVEMENT

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Abstract
This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of alternative teaching model on EFL learners' grammar achievement. For this purpose, 60 female pre intermediate junior high school EFL learners were chosen from a total number of 90 through their performance on a piloted Key English Test (KET). Based on the results, the students were randomly assigned to one control and one experimental group with 30 participants in each. Prior to the treatment, students took part in a piloted teacher-made grammar test as pre-test. Both groups underwent the same amount of teaching during 12 sessions of treatment. The only difference was that the experimental group received the treatment in the form of getting instruction on co-teaching model while the control group received the routine instruction of grammar. At the end of the treatment, a piloted teacher- made grammar test was administered to both groups and an independent samples t-test was used to test the null hypothesis raised in the study. The results showed that alternative teaching model has a significant effect on junior high school students' grammar achievement.

Key words: Co-teaching, Co-teaching models, Grammar proficiency, Alternative teaching, Regular (general) education teacher, special education teacher

1. Introduction

Teaching is one of the complicated processes taking place in the schools and educational institutions. In traditional teaching model, one teacher is responsible for supervising all tasks of lessons over a specific time. The arrival of new strategies of teaching, issues of motivation, the satisfaction of students and academics' needs and other factors contributing to successful teaching activities all are looking forward into the creative genius of a single teacher. The seemingly difficulty of addressing all these elements simultaneously by a single pedagogue appeals for a new alternative in the method of teaching. Also, the increasing number of diverse student populations in schools highlights the need for effective service delivery models to accommodate these students.

Grammar is fundamental to language, without grammar, language does not exist. All languages have grammar, and each language has its own grammar" (Beverly, 2007 as cited in Williams, 2007). People who speak the same language are able to communicate with each other because they all know the grammar system and structure of that

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language, that is, the meaningful rules of grammar (Beverly, 2007 as cited in Williams, 2007).The importance of grammar will hardly be under question by teachers. Most language teaching and text books are organized along grammatical criteria. Language teaching professionals have also become increasingly aware that grammar instruction plays an important role in language teaching and learning. Learning grammar depends on teaching in a correct and beneficial way.

On the other hand, Reith and Polsgrove (1998) aptly state that, "it is not enough to merely place students within general class settings without providing appropriate training, materials, and support to them and their teachers, "If done so, their failure is the outcome" (p. 257).

One of the recently suggested methods for accelerating and facilitating the education process is co-teaching model. The concept of co-teaching got emerged about several years ago through the works of scholars such as Walther-Thomas (1997). However, it was initially introduced to call for issues of teaching handicapped students in an exclusive class (Cook & Friend, 1995; Dieker, 2001; Dieker & Murawski, 2003; Gately & Gately, 2001; Keefe & Moore, 2004; Stanovich, 1996; Tobin, 2005; Vaughn, Schumm, and Arguelles, 1997).

There exists a variety of definitions for co-teaching. Cook and Friend (1995), for example, state that co-teaching is "two or more professionals delivering substantive instruction to a diverse or blended group of students in a single physical space" (p. 14). Similarly, Angelides (2006, p.1) defined co-teaching as "two teachers are jointly responsible for a class and plan teaching together, plan instruction together, share teaching duties and design collectively all teaching aids."

According to Wenzlaff et al. (2002, p. 14), co-teaching is "two or more individuals who come together in a collaborative relationship for the purpose of shared work…for the outcome of achieving what none could have done alone."

Although co-teaching was represented as a relatively new approach, its practicality has not been certified for a number of reasons. As far as its application is concerned every co-teaching model may not be suitable in all educational settings because students and teachers do not possess similar features. Its adaptability is another concern. For example, in Japanese classrooms not all models of co-teaching are employed except team teaching (Macedo, 2002; Tajino & Larry, 1998; Tajino & Tajino, 2000).

Although much has been issued about the usefulness and efficiency of co-teaching, it seems that relatively little attention has been paid to its application in different situations, especially in EFL contexts. In other words, few studies have bothered implementing co-teaching models and investigating their impacts on different aspects of language knowledge. Among the co-teaching models, alternative teaching appears to be untouched and unexamined in educational contexts. The present study, therefore, aimed to clarify whether alternative teaching model can intensify and improve the EFL students' grammar knowledge more than single-teaching instruction. To do so, the alternative teaching model proposed by Morocco and Aguilar (2002), Friend and Cook (2004), and Bacharach, Heck, and Dahlberg (2008) was employed.

The significance of findings of this study is of utmost importance for schools and educational system in Iran. Although there is a large body of literature on the positive

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effects of co-teaching for native speakers of English, there is a gap in the literature regarding the implementation of alternative teaching model on EFL learners' grammar achievement in Iran context.
The significance of the study gets more underlined as it can also contribute to a new way that grammar can be instructed to the EFL students.
Due to limitations and criticisms on traditional approaches to grammar instruction the present study attempts to investigate the possible effects of alternative teaching on the grammar achievement of EFL learners.

2. Review of the literature

Research on co-teaching has recently started to study the effect of co-teaching structures on students' academic learning and achievement (Bauwens, Hourcade, & Friend, 1989; Cook & Friend, 1995; Dieker, 2001; Fennick, 2001; Fennick & Liddy, 2001; Rice & Zigmond, 2000; Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelles, 1997; Zigmond & Magiera, 2001). In a comprehensive study of inclusion in 18 elementary and 7 middle schools, Walther-Thomas (1997) found that the lower student–teacher ratio that resulted from the presence of co-teachers in normal-sized classrooms led to strong academic progress and enhanced student self-confidence.
The role of co-teaching has also been manifested along technology. To do so, Jang (2006) incorporated web-assisted learning with team-teaching in seventh-grade science classes, and used a quasi-experimental method, assigning the four sampled science classes into experimental and control groups. The results showed that the average final exam scores of students experiencing the experimental teaching method were higher than the scores of those receiving traditional teaching. Therefore, this study aimed to integrate two simultaneous interventions into courses of science teacher education method in order to explore the effects of such integration on learning technology.
Dahlberg and Hoover (2003) investigated the effects of co-teaching on K6 Student Discipline and Attendance. He found that the results support the positive impacts and the students feel more connected to school when they are in a co-taught classroom. Further, Students in co-taught settings have fewer behavioral issues in school, and overall have fewer referrals per student.
Maultsby and Barbara (2009) examined the impact of collaborative teaching (co-teaching) on the reading, language Arts and Math achievement of Middle Tennessee students in grades 5-8, as measured by the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) Achievement test. Within the context of this study, the co-teaching model of instruction is defined as the special and general educator, referred to as co-teachers, sharing equitably the tasks of the lesson planning, implementation, and assessment. Six schools participated in this study. Three of the schools implemented co-teaching practices at the beginning of the 2008-2009 school years. The remaining three schools did not. The dependent variables were students' reading, language Arts and Math TCAP Achievement test scores over a two year period. The independent variables were gender, ethnicity, disability categories, type of classroom (one with co-teaching practices and one without co-teaching practices), and type of student (student with a disability or student without a disability). The statistical test used in this study was a paired samples *t* -test. Results from this study indicated for an increase in Math

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achievement for students with disabilities instructed in classrooms with co-teaching practices and a decrease in Reading/Language Arts achievement for students without disabilities instructed in classrooms with co-teaching practices. No other conditions produced significant increases in this study.

Liu (2008), in a comprehensive study, investigated the contribution of four models of co-teaching out of five models represented by Friend, Resing, and Cook (1993) in a context where native English teachers (NETs) and nonnative English teachers (NNETs) co-teach in a classroom. These models included "one teaching-one assisting", "alternative teaching", "station teaching", and "team teaching." Conducted in Chinese classroom context, the results of the study suggested that the examined models had a noticeable influence on the improvement of the native English teachers' (NETs) quality of teaching process. However, such improvement is bounded to the way these models are implemented in the classroom. The study revealed that to achieve a significant result, the models should be carried out sequentially. That is, "one teaching-one assisting" model should be used first followed by the "alternative teaching." After that "station teaching", and finally "team teaching" are conducted in the class. The following figure explicitly illustrates the relation among the models.

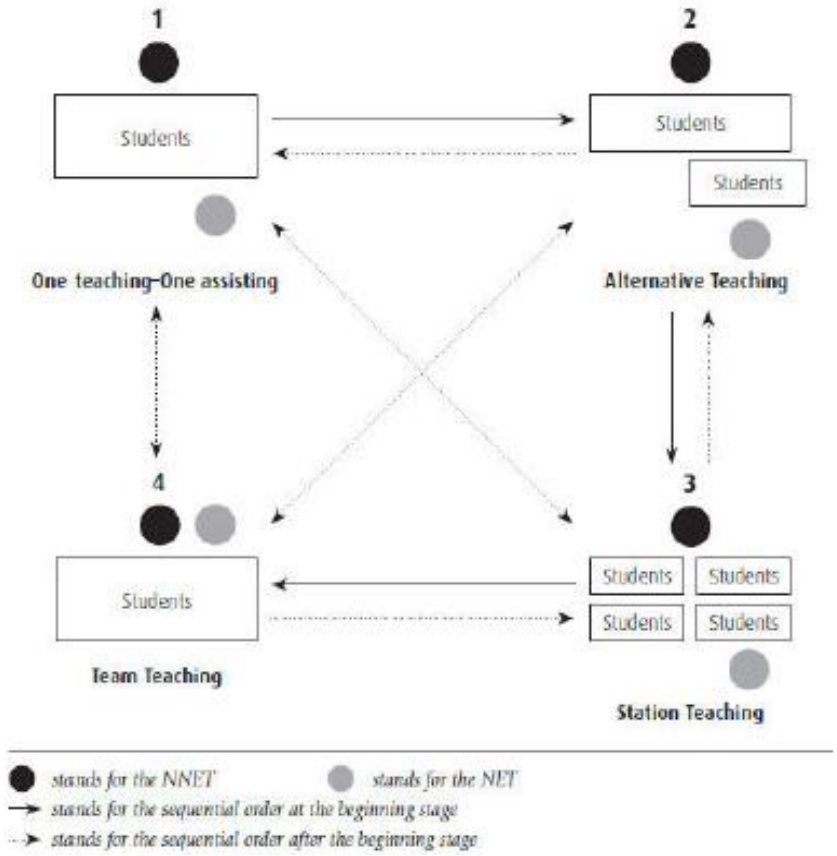

Figure 1. Legend. Models of co-teaching and their sequential orders (adopted from L. Liu, 2008.p.112).

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With reference to "two heads are better than one", it was generally supposed that when two or more teachers are teaching a group of learners, more fruitful outcome is expected than a single-teacher class. The burden of instruction, supervising, and evaluation are lightened when they are shared by a couple of teachers; while in traditional situations a single teacher should shoulder them by himself/herself. Meanwhile, as long as mutual help and respect coexist between duets of teachers, not only does stylistic confrontation occur, interact ional productivity also increases.

Basis for Selecting a Co-Teaching Approach

Co-teaching is most effective when the approaches used are deliberately selected. Here are four factors to weigh in selecting a co-teaching approach:

1. Student characteristics and needs.

The first considerations in thinking about co-teaching approaches are student characteristics and needs. For example, if students tend to become disruptive during transitions, an approach should be selected that minimizes transitions. Conversely, if students need extra motivation, an approach with frequent changes might be preferred.

2. Teacher characteristics and needs.

Co-teaching will be different in different classrooms and at different times of the school year based on teacher characteristics and needs. For example, if co-teachers vary significantly in their teaching styles, it might be best to select approaches that enable them to teach independently. Alternatively, if co-teachers work easily together, a more shared approach might be appropriate.

3. Curriculum, including content and instructional strategies.

The content to be taught and the instructional strategies that are most effective for addressing the content are additional considerations in selecting co-teaching approaches. Highly structured content and procedures, such as teaching steps in a process, would require one approach while less structured content, such as a discussion of ideas, would suggest another approach.

4. Pragmatic considerations.

The preference for co-teaching approaches should also be tempered by the pragmatics of the setting. For example, in an open school, noise is a consideration in selecting an approach. In a crowded classroom, an approach not particularly dependent on space might be the best choice. Cook & Friend (2004)

Co-teaching Approaches

1. One Teach, One Observe. One of the advantages in co-teaching is that more detailed observation of students engaged in the learning process can occur. With this approach, for example, co-teachers can decide in advance what types of specific

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observational information to gather during instruction and can agree on a system for gathering the data. Afterward, the teachers should analyze the information together.
2. One Teach, One Drift. In a second approach to co-teaching, one person would keep primary responsibility for teaching while the other professional circulated through the room providing unobtrusive assistance to students as needed.

3. Parallel Teaching. On occasion, student learning would be greatly facilitated if they just had more supervision by the teacher or more opportunity to respond. In parallel teaching, the teachers are both teaching the same information, but they divide the class group and do so simultaneously.

4. Station Teaching. In this co-teaching approach, teachers divide content and students. Each teacher then teachers the content to one group and subsequently repeats the instruction for the other group. If appropriate, a third "station" could require that students work independently.

5. Alternative Teaching: In most class groups, occasions arise in which several students need specialized attention. In alternative teaching, one teacher takes responsibility for the large group while the other works with a smaller group.

6. Team Teaching: In team teaching, both teachers are delivering the same instruction at the same time. Some teachers refer to this as having "one brain in two bodies." Others call it "tag team teaching." Most co-teachers consider this approach the most complex but satisfying way to co-teach, but the approach that is most dependent on teachers' styles. Friend & Cook (2004)
Aliakbari and Mansoori Nejad (2010) studied the effect of co-teaching on learning process in general and the grammar proficiency in particular. To do so, they selected a group of 58 first-grade students studying English in junior high school assigned to two classes receiving two different treatments in grammar instruction. In one group, learners received grammar instruction from co-teachers while in other group grammar instruction was delivered by a single teacher. They found that the difference in method of grammar instruction did not lead to significant difference in participants' performance in the grammar test. However, they conducted the study on the basis of team teaching model as an approach in co-teaching.
Many studies have been done on co teaching while relatively little attention has been paid to its application in different situations. Hence, the purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of alternative teaching strategy on students' grammar achievement.

3. Method
3.1. Participants
The research was conducted in a junior high school in Ilam city, Iran. There was a group of 60 third level students studying English at the third stage. They were all female and fourteen to fifteen years old. The study also took advantage of two females

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English teachers aged forty years old. These teachers had MA degree and were graduated in the major of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

3.2 Material and Instruments

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the researcher used three tests: two tests for homogenizing the subjects at the outset (A Cambridge Key English Test and Grammar ability Test as pre test)and one for evaluating the participants' grammar achievement after treatment towards the end.

The main material used in the present study was the textbook which was used by participants of both the control and experimental groups. The textbook employed for the instruction as the course book was the English book published in Iran and used in all EFL classrooms in junior high schools across the country. It is written by Birjandi and Soheili and published by the Company of Press and Publishing Iranian Education the researcher also used *khate sefid* .This course book is designed as supplementary and workbook for providing students with more grammar activities which makes it appropriate for the purpose of the present study.

4. Design and procedure

Due to sampling limitations for the study, a quasi experimental design was adopted. Because the participants were selected none randomly; then were randomly assigned into two groups of experimental and control. The design of the present study was described as posttest-only. The independent variable of this study was alternative teaching, the dependent variable was grammar achievement, and the control variables were gender (female) and language proficiency (pre intermediate).

In the beginning, 90 female junior high school students of Bentolhoda School in Ilam sat for a sample KET to assure the researcher in choosing homogenous participants.

Next, 60 students out of the original 90 with their scores between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the main participants of the study and randomly assigned in two experimental and control groups.

To check the participants' grammatical ability at the outset of the study, a grammar pre-test was constructed before starting the course to check the homogeneity of the groups in terms of their grammar knowledge. After administrating the pre-test, the course of instruction was commenced.

Both groups were taught for about 12 sessions and each session was 60 minutes twice a week. The control group was taught by only one teacher while the experimental group was taught by two teachers using co-teaching method.

Two teachers one regarded as the lead teacher and the other called the support teacher were involved in the procedure. The lead teacher and the support teacher made decisions about the content and organization of the lesson cooperatively. They also determined the appropriate structures for alternative remedial or enrichment lessons that would promote student learning. Both educators assumed full responsibility for planning and presentation of materials, classroom management, developing the test, and evaluation.

At first, the main teacher taught the lesson to the whole class while the co-teacher worked on the students' homework. Some questions were raised in the class so as the

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students answered them. Students were divided into two groups; one big group and the other the small group. Both teacher corrected students' possible mistakes and worked on their problem. Then each group was divided into groups with three members so as they would become interested in and motivated to compete. Each teacher tried to guide her own group. Alternatively, if required, both teachers moved between groups in order to provide support and the students also moved from one group to another according to a predetermined schedule. Next, students answered the questions posed in the book and later they answered the questions posed in the workbook. In the next stage, the teachers exchanged their role in the big and small groups. While teaching, the teachers employed teaching aids such as charts and software and if necessary translation. In the computer workshop both big and small groups competed with each other using electronic board by answering to the questions in turn. At the end, weak students were recognized and were worked on by the co-teacher.

All the learners were encouraged to participate actively in the learning process. Then the support teacher implemented supplementary activities for the whole group, small groups or individuals before or after the formal lesson. The support teacher attempted to find out the learners' weaknesses and help them with activities by which they were able to guess grammatical structures, which have not previously been learnt and internalized. She explained some parts of the lesson. Students were constantly communicating with each other.

Teaching was done in one session and the next session the questions in the text book or work book were answered. The text book questions then the work book questions were answered.

At the end of the treatment phase, the experimental and control groups received a piloted teacher made grammar achievement posttest .The post-test was administrated . At the end of the course another independent t-test was run to determine the effect of the treatment using pos-test scores of both groups.

5. Result

The study involved two kinds of statistical analysis. First, the raw scores obtained in the pre-test and pos-test was analyzed descriptively. That is, the mean, the standard deviation, and the standard error of measurement were calculated. The inferential statistics were also used to verify the hypotheses of the study.

At first a KET administered as a means for homogenizing the participants.

The KET was administered to90 students with the aim of selecting 60 of them for the study. The descriptive statistics of this process are presented below in Table 1

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for KET Proficiency Test

Descriptive Statistics

Std. Deviation	Mean	Maximum	Minimum	N	
4.911450607	44.11111111	53.000000	27.000000	90 90	Score Valid N (listwise)

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Among the 90 students who took the test, 60 whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen as the participants of this study to be placed in the experimental and control groups. Accordingly, 30 were put in one group and 30 in the other. The descriptive statistics of the two groups appear in the Table 2. Below

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for the Results of the Pre-test
Descriptive Statistics for the pre-test

Variance	Std. Deviation	Mean		Sum	Maximum	Minimum	Range	N	
Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	
232.116	15.23537	2.78158	62.7500	1882.50	90.00	12.50	77.50	30	Control Group
318.895	17.85764	3.26034	60.1333	1804.00	85.00	12.50	72.50	30	Experimental Group

Table 3: Results of Normality of Distribution of Scores for Grammar Pre-test

Kurtosis		Skewness		Std. error mean	Std. deviation	mean	N	Grouping
Std. error	statistic	Std. error	statistic					
.833	2.739	.578	- 1.028	2.781	15.235	62.750	30	Control
.833	.551	.578	- .970	3.260	17.857	60.133	30	experimental

According to the above table and based on the results of dividing statistics to standard error of skewness (-.1.028 / .578= - 1.77) which is a value in the acceptable range of -1.96 and +1.96, the researcher came to the conclusion that the scores on the test of those participants who were grouped as the control group were normally distributed.
The same process was practiced for the scores of experimental learners and the result (-.970/.578=-1.67) was located in the same range and guaranteed the normality of distribution. Now that the researcher was sure about the normality of her sample scores, she was persevered to run the independent samples *t*-test in order to find out about their homogeneity.

Table 4: Independent Samples T- Test for Pre-test
Independent Samples Test for the pre-test

t-test for Equality of Means	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	

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95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	Df	t	Sig.	F	
Upper	Lower								
11.19539	5.96206	4.28568	2.61667	.544	58	.611	.307	1.061	Equal variances assumed
11.19992	5.96659	4.28568	2.61667	.544	56.596	.611			Equal variances not assumed

The significance level of Levene's test in the first line of the table—which refers to equal variances assumed—is larger than .05. In fact, as depicted from the table, the amount of p-value is .544>.05. Therefore, the researcher was assured that there was no significant difference regarding grammar knowledge between the two groups prior to the treatment. So it can be claimed that the groups were almost homogeneous in terms of grammar ability with 95% confidence.

Table 5: Results of Normality of Distribution of Scores for Grammar Post-test

Kurtosis		Skewness		Std. error mean	Std. deviation	mean	N	Grouping
Std. error	statistic	Std. error	statistic					
.833	.390	.427	- .213	3.292	18.032	59.033	30	Control
.833	- .857	.427	- .034	3.029	16.595	72.333	30	experimental

According to the above table and based on the results of dividing statistics to standard error of skewness (-.213 / .427 =-0.498) which is a value in the acceptable range of -1.96 and +1.96, the researcher came to the conclusion that the scores on the test of those participants who were grouped as the control group were normally distributed.
The same process was practiced for the scores of experimental learners and the result (-.034/.427 =-.079) was located in the same range and guaranteed the normality of distribution. Now that the researcher was sure about the normality of her sample scores, she was persevered to run the independent samples *t*-test in order to find out about their homogeneity.

The Results of Testing the Null Hypothesis

In order to check the null hypothesis of the study which stated that alternative teaching model does not have a significant effect on EFL learners' grammar achievement the researcher needed to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups of the grammar post-test. For this purpose an independent sample t-test was legitimately run, as the distributions of scores for both groups proved to be

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normal. The subsequent table illustrates the corresponding statistics for the control and experimental groups' performance on grammar post-test.

Table 6: Independent Samples Test for the post-test

Independent Samples Test for the post-test

t-test for Equality of Means							Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	Df	T	Sig.	F	
Upper	Lower								
4.34364	22.25636	4.47434	-13.30000	.004	58	2.973	.942	.005	Equal variances assumed
4.34233	22.25767	4.47434	-13.30000	.004	57.604	2.973			Equal scores variances not assumed

Considering the obtained results, the researcher could safely reject the null-hypothesis, which stated alternative teaching model does not have a significant effect on EFL learners' grammar achievement., with (t= -2.973, df =58, p=0.004), as the p value came out to be lower than 0.05.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

As was mentioned previously the present research was conducted in order to display the extent to which the co-teaching would leave effects on EFL learners learning grammar. To do so a quasi experimental study was designed and data were collected and coded and fed into the software SPSS for analysis. To answer the question of the study, the results undertook a series of statistical operations. First, the means, standard deviation, and variance of the two groups in the pre-test were calculated. Then, a t-test was run to see if the selected group were homogeneous. The same procedure was also taken for post test to see if any significant difference between subjects achievement could be found or if the hypothesis could be rejected. The students were administered a validated constructed pre-test of grammar ability The findings of this study indicate the positive role of co-teaching on enhancing students' grammatical knowledge. As the results show, the experimental group had better scores on the structural grammar post- test .

When both teachers share this responsibility, it creates a classroom that facilitates the inclusion of students (Villa et al., 2004). When teachers enter into a co-teaching

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partnership, they have the support, time, and resources to develop curricula and teaching strategies that reflect research-based, best practices in teaching and learning (Pugach & Johnson, 2002). As it was mentioned co-teaching has many benefits including general benefits and specific ones. Among the general ones, academic improvement can be mentioned. A three year study by Walther-Thomas (1997) states that students in an inclusive classroom taught by co-teachers improved their self-worth as a learner, improved their academic learning, improved their social skills, and improved their collaboration skills. Results from another study indicated that with two teachers in the classroom, the co-teaching service delivery model lowers the teacher-student ratio. Therefore, more one-to-one interaction is achievable than in solo-taught classrooms and students academically benefit from having two teachers in the same classroom (Magiera & Zigmond, 2005). The result of this study is in line with the findings obtained by some researchers (such as Mickelson, 2008; Rea, McLaughlin & Walther-Thomas, 2002), since these researchers have provided evidence that co-teaching can result in increasing student achievement.

. It is clear that just one research can not show a confirm conclusion. Nonetheless, the result of this study is consistent with the results of some previous studies in relation to this topic. Lipsky & Gartner (1996) maintain that those who are in charge of teaching should keep in mind that they should help teachers move from a traditional non-collaborative environment to one where collaboration is embraced and practiced. It is important for any particular school to find an effective collaboration model and strategy, as not all models and strategies transfer effectively from one school to another or more specifically, one classroom to another (Cramer & Stivers, 2007). Co-teachers are also expected to learn to modify instructional materials and delivery of instruction to meet the individual needs of the students in their classroom (Amerman & Fleres, 2003; Pugach & Johnson, 2002; Villa et al., 2004).

The results of the study are believed to carry implications for EFL teachers and material developers. Teachers and practitioners at any level, regardless of the type of materials they apply, are recommended to fit co-teaching instruction into their syllabus so that they would be able to acquaint learners with actual encountering of language exploitation. Accordingly, the materials developers are recommended to take co-teaching techniques of grammar and real settings of learning into their materials. In so doing, they will provide teachers and learners with easier conditions to practice grammatical structure in and out of classroom.

This project was implemented at a regional; school level .It can be replicated

At a national scale and to cover a larger number of subjects as a result to elevate the generalizabilty of the findings .In addition ,co-teaching instruction –oriented techniques and activities can also be examined in other skills or components as listening ,speaking, writing ,vocabulary and pronunciation.

As the results of the post-test indicated, the most important conclusion drawn from this study is that co-teaching is an important and significant technique for improving grammar abilities of EFL learners.

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THE EFFECT OF WATCHING MOVIES WITH AND WITHOUT SUBTITLES ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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Abstract
This study was an attempt to investigate whether watching movies with and without subtitles has any effect on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension, and also to investigate whether there was any difference between watching movies with and without subtitles. In order to carry out the research, out of a total of 60 advanced students at the ILI (Iran Language Institute), 40 were selected based on a proficiency test. So the participants were homogeneous in terms of their language proficiency based on the scores obtained from the proficiency test. After selection of the participants and assuring the homogeneity of the students, the researchers assigned 20 students to experimental group and 20 students to control group randomly. Later, to determine the listening abilities of the learners, the researchers administered a pre-test including 50 multiple-choice items to the participants in both experimental and control groups. The researchers presented an English movie entitled "Fraiser" to the participants: the experimental group watched a segment of the movie with English subtitles, but the control group watched the same segment of the movie without any subtitles. At the end of the experiment, to check the learners' listening comprehension, the researchers administered a researcher-made post-test, comprising 25 multiple-choice items to the participants. Comparison of the mean scores of the pre-test and post-tests revealed that Experimental group who watched the movie with English subtitles outperformed the control group who watched the movie without subtitles.

Keywords: Listening Comprehension, Subtitles, Foreign Language, Foreign Language Movie, Learning EFL.

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Introduction

Learning EFL (English as a foreign Language), is contrasted with ESL (English as a second language). Someone who learns English in a formal classroom setting, with limited or no opportunities to use it outside, in a non-speaking country in which English does not play an important role, is said to learn English as a foreign language (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:180). As a consequence of the rapid development in science, technology and media, foreign language teaching field has gained much improvement in the recent years. Especially, the function of language classes has changed dramatically. Out of all these technical devices such as TV, DVD player, movie and video materials in the classrooms, the use of video and movie has grown rapidly due to the increasing focus on language learning. Movies are tools designed to teach English in order to master the English language and listening comprehension as well which can be applied for EFL learners depending on the lesson and orientation of the course. With the advance of technology, options of how one can watch movies have become numerous. The subtitles of various languages which can assist comprehension leads to language learning and teaching (Markham, 1999). Rost (1994) listed several reasons to show the important role listening plays in second language learning and instruction, one of which is that listeners need to interact with speakers to achieve understanding. Watching movies can improve the listening skills of students, whether they are learning English as a foreign language or whether they just want to improve their ability to listen to, concentrate on or comprehend it. Given the importance of listening in terms of foreign language comprehension, the advantages movies bring to language learning and teaching, and the pedagogical needs of movies with and without subtitle for listening comprehension. This study discusses the effect of watching movies with and without subtitles on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension and it also examines the difference between watching movies with and without subtitles.

Background of the study

In recent years there has been an increasing focus on foreign language listening ability because of its perceived importance in language learning and acquisition. Markham, (1999) claimed that "The literature on the use of subtitles in foreign language learning also reveals that most of the researches on the effect of movies and subtitling on EFL learning have focused on improving listening Comprehension". As Lynch (1998) believed, research into listening over the past three decades has, above all, highlighted the fundamental intricacy of the processes involved.

Listening is the most common communicative activity in daily life: "we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write." (Morley, 1991, p. 82) In terms of comprehension, several studies have reported a significant improvement in the listening comprehension of language learners after being exposed to the captioned/subtitled movies. Markham (1993) found that captions were more helpful to advanced learners when the video materials were more abstract or complex. He concluded that for intermediate to advanced learners, captioning (subtitling) should be used only when the video material is difficult for the learners.

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Saha (2008) expresses that even though listening and hearing are related listening involves an active process. In the same way, Harmer (2001) expresses that listening is a "receptive skill" where people obtain the main idea according to what they hear. In addition to the improvements in listening comprehension, subtitling and captioning have also proved to be useful. Guillory (1998) investigated the effect of different types of captioning on the comprehension ability of three groups (full captions, keyword captions and no captions) who were shown two video clips over the period of one semester. Immediately after the treatment, all participants completed a short-answer comprehension test. The results first supported the full captioning as the most effective procedure followed by the keyword captioning, and the least effective one was no captioned video.

Markham (1999) used two video footages, and divided 118 advanced learners into with or without captions groups. The results of the study revealed that the captioned group outperformed the non-captioned group in recognizing words from the passage without the support of subtitles.

As Zanon (2006) puts it, "Even if there are some learners for whom subtitles can be regarded as a distraction from the stream of speech, research evidence shows that the majority of learners use it as a support for comprehension and for finding new words. Thus, when used to learn or practice foreign languages, subtitles need to be used for a purpose". Stuart and Pertusa (2004) in their piece concerning gains of language learners from viewing target language closed-captioned films done in Spanish as second language class promotes the closed-captioned as a strategy of learning a language. The main findings posited that students, who are exposed to video with closed-caption, retell more information than those who are not exposed.

As most learners lacked sufficient linguistic knowledge, understanding the ungraded materials without any help option is very difficult (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005). From all the English skills, listening is the most difficult skill. Listening is the first language mode that children acquire. As Vandergrift (2003) pointed out, giving pre-eminence to listening comprehension, particularly in the early stages of second language teaching/learning, provides learners with cognitive advantages. The advantage of early emphasis on listening comprehension follows a more naturalistic approach to language acquisition. Taylor (2005) looked at whether captioned video was beneficial for beginning-level learners. Two groups of Spanish learners, one in their first year of Spanish and the other one with three or four years of Spanish, watched a Spanish-language video with or without Spanish captioning. The groups' comprehension scores were compared. Third- and fourth-year students who viewed the videos with captions performed better than first-year students who also used captions. Tyler interviewed the learners and found that those who used captions were able to describe how they used the pictures, sound, and captioning to understand the video.

Most movies are being watched with subtitles. Nowadays most movies contain subtitles in a variety of languages, including English, which can benefit anyone who wants to improve their listening skills. Grgurović and Hegelheimer (2007) conducted an empirical study to explore whether captions or transcripts were more effective in a multimedia video environment. They found that students who used captions used

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them more frequently and for longer periods of time than those who used transcripts. They concluded that an important challenge in investigating video options lies in finding ways to promote the appropriate use of those options.

Today, a great number of documents, authentic or educational, are available to language teachers. Concerning the listening comprehension, both audio and video documents have been practiced in language classes. It is widely accepted that using audio or video documents could lead to a more natural ambiance, accelerating the learning process. Language learning manuals are nowadays teeming with listening exercises, using more audio documents than video ones, without specifying which type is more effective. Nevertheless, it goes without saying that a video document, aside from enhancing the listening comprehension skill, creates a more natural language learning environment. But the choice between these two types of document is not as easy as it looks. Especially when it comes to developing the listening comprehension skill, there are two dominant ideas: the first favors video documents because they bring more information, although this information is partially transmitted through the visual channel. The second idea endorses audio documents by insisting on the fact that learners would have a hard time concentrating on what is being said when they watch and listen simultaneously.

We should look at findings in more traditional areas such as classroom interaction, and the use of audio and video in language instruction to ground our models of good practice. Video has long been used as both a source of authentic listening input. Nevertheless, there have been few research studies comparing results teaching with and without video. Students tend to find video material more interesting and are more likely to become involved in the lesson. Video, and in particular films, offers some advantages for enhancing listening skills. Visual support, such as video, pictures, diagrams, gestures, facial expressions, and body language, can increase comprehension if the learner is able to correctly interpret it. More recently some texts and also some teachers have been incorporating some video materials. While there have been many anecdotal reports about how motivating video is, there have been few serious studies on video use.

The purpose of some studies is to investigate L2 learners' use of subtitle while watching videos in a foreign language. Audiovisual materials enhanced with subtitle are powerful pedagogical tools that are believed to help improve L2 listening and reading comprehension skills (Borras and Lafayette, 1994; Danan, 2004; Garza, 1991; Markham and Peter, 2003). As Garza (1991) puts it, "captioning may be a bonus because it helps language learners connect auditory to visual input". Doughty (2004) claimed that captioning may help form meaning, an essential process for foreign language acquisition. As Danan (2004) puts it, "Captions facilitate language learning by helping learners visualize what they hear, especially if the input is slightly beyond their linguistic ability". Bird and Williams (2002) believed that captions increase language comprehension in a way that they facilitate cognitive processes and also greater depth of spoken-word processing

Rahmatian and Armiun (2011), in their study which was conducted on 44 adult learners divided into two groups ("Audio" group and "Video" group), determined which type of document could improve the listening comprehension skill more

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effectively. The participants in the "Audio" group listened to the chosen document, while the participants in the "Video" group watched the chosen document. They were given a test which contained ten questions about the document. By comparing the average obtained by the two groups, the final result was that the "Video" group attained a better result by 6%; a gap that is not very meaningful.

As this study has yielded a number of observations, studies and researches, there are a lot of challenging works going on, about the use of subtitles and captions that indicate that subtitles and captions are beneficial. All in all, this paper addresses the following research question:

1. Is there any difference between watching movies with and without subtitles among Iranian EFL learners and are they under different effects?

Based on the above research question, the following null hypothesis was formulated in this study:

H01: There is no significant difference between watching movies with and without subtitles among Iranian EFL learners and they are not under different effects.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were selected from the learners participating in Advanced 3 English class, the last term of the ILI, and among a population of 60 learners on the basis of the results of a TOEFL test. All participants were male language learners in the age range of 20 to 40 whose mother tongues were Persian language. All of them were native speakers of Persian and they had been studying English as a foreign language (EFL). Moreover, the participants were about fourth or fifth year learners of English as a foreign language at the ILI. All of them had passed 18 levels. There were 13 sessions left to the end of the term each of which consists of 21 sessions in 2 and half months, two sessions per week on odd days for about one hour and 45 minutes based on the ILI time schedule. 40 participants, according to the proficiency test rating and the received scores were homogeneous based on their scores obtained from the proficiency test. The students were randomly assigned to Experimental and Control groups. Each group contained 20 language learners.

Instruments

The study proceeded in applying these instruments:

First, the researcher administered a TOEFL test of language proficiency to determine the participants' homogeneity in terms of general language proficiency. It consisted of 50 multiple-choice TOEFL listening questions which aimed to assign the participants randomly to two groups of experimental and control.

Besides, the process of pilot testing was done before conducting the main study to test the validity and reliability of the Pre-test and the Post-test enabled the researchers to designate an appropriate testing time for the main study. Pilot testing was conducted

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with a group of 10 about fifth-year English students at the same institute and level of proficiency.

Second, one English listening comprehension test adopted from a TOEFL listening section which included 50 multiple-choice listening items to check the prior knowledge of the participants on listening comprehension before the experiment (watching the movies), was used as the instrument to measure the subjects' listening comprehension. The reliability of the Pre-test was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha formula (α = .705) which indicated that the Pre-test was reliable, and could be administered to the main groups. To determine the validity of the Pre-test the researcher asked two experts who had been working in the ILI as the English teachers for about 12-17 years to pass their comments on the appropriateness of the content of the test.

Third, the researcher presented a segment of an English movie called "Frasier" to the students of the two classes. There were two versions of the episodes of the movie, one of which was with English subtitle, the other one was without any subtitles.

Fourth, the researcher conducted a researcher-made Post-test which included 25 multiple-choice items in English about the main points of the stories to check the learners' listening comprehension after the experiment. The reliability of the Post-test was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha formula (α = 0.876) and like the Pre-test, to assure the validity of the Post-test, the researcher asked two experts to pass their comments on the appropriateness of the post-test.

Data Collection

Four kinds of tests were carried out in this study. The participants of the study received a TOEFL test as a proficiency test in order to be homogeneous. Later, both experimental and control groups were simultaneously given a TOEFL listening skill test as a pre-test to determine the participants' general listening ability.

After determining the students' general listening ability, the two groups of learners were presented about 10- minute segments of three episodes of an English movie called "Frasier". The experimental group watched the movie with English subtitles, while the control group watched the same movie simultaneously without any subtitles.

At the end of the treatment, the participants in both groups were given a researcher-made post-test on listening comprehension of the segment of the movie to check whether they comprehended the different parts of the movie they had watched with and without English subtitles.

Data Analysis

Having gathered the data of the two groups of participants, statistical package for social science (SPSS) was used to investigate the effect of watching movies with and without subtitles on listening comprehension, and to compare the scores of subtitle-group with no-subtitle-group. In addition to descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation, and the mean rank to examine the central tendencies and variability of the scores, Mann-Whitney U test was also run to see if there was any

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significant difference between the experimental and control groups, i.e, between the means of two the groups in listening comprehension.

Result and Discussion

The descriptive statistics for experimental group and control group on the proficiency test. The pre-test and the post-test are reported in Table 1 and 2.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Experimental Group

Statistics	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficiency	20	34	39	727	36.35	1.81442
Pre-test	20	31	39	702	35.1	2.46875
Post-test	20	13	21	361	18.05	2.11449
Valid N	20					

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Control Group

Statistics	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficiency	20	30	37	648	32.4	2.13739
Pre-test	20	28	38	641	32.05	2.92853
Post-test	20	6	11	170	8.5	1.50438
Valid N	20					

The analysis of the results indicates that the mean score of the proficiency test of the participants, whose homogeneity was determined in terms of language proficiency in experimental group, is 36.35 and in control group 32.4. The mean scores of the pre-test in experimental group and control group were 35.1 and 32.05 respectively, which show that the learners in experimental group had a better listening ability in general. The mean score of the post-test in experimental group is 18.5 but in control group is 8.5. Is there any difference between watching movies with and without subtitles among Iranian EFL learners, and are they under different effects?

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for Post-test in the Experimental and Control Groups

Statistics	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum

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Post-test Experimental & Control	40	16.13	4.558	9	23
Subtitles	40	1.50	.506	1	2

Table 4: Ranks

Subtitles	N	Mean	Sum of Ranks
Post-test with subtitle	20	30.5	610.00
Post-test with no subtitle	20	10.5	210.00
Total	40		

Table 5: Results of Mann Whitney U test

	Post-test in the two groups
Mann Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	210.000
Z	-5.433
Asymp. (Sig. 2- tailed)	.000
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.000a

a. not corrected for ties

As it can be seen in Tables 3, 4 and 5 above, the significant level is 0.00. The equal variance assumption of the two groups is not verified. The mean rank of the post-tests after watching movies with subtitles is 30.50 which is higher than the post-tests after watching movies without subtitles i.e. 10.50. So, the second hypothesis (There is no significant difference between watching movies with and without subtitles among Iranian EFL learners and they are under different effects) is rejected. The results in table 3, 4 and 5 are shown that there is a significant difference between watching movies with and without subtitles. It can be said that the mean scores of the learners who watch the movie with subtitles are more than the mean scores of those watching the movie without any subtitles.

The analysis of the collected data showed that learners who watched the movie with subtitles had positive attitude towards subtitles and they were aware of the importance of subtitles for their better listening comprehension as well as better comprehension of movies in general. Descriptive statistics was used to ascertain the effect of the two variables which were watching movie with subtitles on listening comprehension. The mean scores of the tests indicate that watching movie with subtitles has both the usefulness and the positive effect on learners' listening comprehension. The results of the findings indicated that there is a significant

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difference between watching movie with and without subtitles on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension and they are under different effects. It was observed that the subtitling did allow the learners to have a better comprehension that affected the general listening comprehension ability.

Danan (2004) concluded that captions can lead to significant improvement in learners' listening comprehension provided that they are taught to take advantage of relevant strategies. As it can be seen from the results and previous studies, there were some studies conducted on somehow the same subject as this study by different researchers achieved the results which were different and the same at the same time. Grgurović and Hegelheimer (2007) concluded that an important challenge in investigating video options lies in finding ways to promote the appropriate use of those options.

Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was the effect of watching movies with and without subtitles on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. Further, this study intended to explore the difference between watching movies with and without subtitles. To this end, the participants were given a proficiency test, a pre-test and a post-test. And also they were presented one segment of a movie. The participants' scores were analyzed through different statistics analysis to answer the research question.

Taking the research question of this research which was concerned with whether there was any difference between watching movies with and without subtitles among Iranian EFL learners and that whether they were under different effects, the researchers formulated a null hypothesis that there was no difference between watching movies with and without subtitles among Iranian EFL learners and they were under different effects. To test the hypothesis, Mann-Whitney U test was used. So, according to the obtained results, it can be concluded that the "subtitles" group attained a better result than the "No-subtitles" group. The experimental group who watched the movie with subtitles outperformed the control group who watched the movie without any subtitles. In general, it can be concluded that watching movies with subtitles has a great effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

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Abstract
This study intended to investigate the language learning strategies used by learners of English as a foreign language. This thesis aimed to find the amount of strategies and the domain differences of the strategies used to reveal the difference in strategy use between genders. Sixty (male, female) students from Islamic Azad University of Rasht participated in the study who were selected based on their performance on OPT test. The participants were at intermediate level in terms of their general foreign language proficiency based on OPT test direction. Then the data were gathered through administration of strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) of Oxford (1990). Before doing the main study, the reliability of the instruments employed in the study was estimated through a pilot study on 15 EFL students who were representative of the main group in terms of their general language proficiency. The instrument, based on Oxford's (1990) classification of the language learning strategies, is composed of 50 items in six subscales. It was suggested that there was a significant difference between Iranian female and male intermediate EFL learners in terms of their use of components of direct and indirect strategies including cognitive, socio- affective, meta-cognitive strategies.

Keywords: Gender, Language learning strategies Social Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies

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1. Introduction

Millions of people are trying to learn English as it is the language studied most as a foreign language all around the world. As a result of this increasing interest, researchers have been investigating how English is learnt, so there was a need to study the learners themselves. Conducting research on the learners themselves was inevitable As shown in several studies, many learner-related factors exist which influence language learning; even if the same instruction was given to the learners the outcome seems to be quite different and varied. The most significant studies were done in the areas of language learning and strategy use. Over the past few decades, the relationship of the use of language learning strategies with success in learning a second or foreign language has been investigated in many research studies. The studies showed certain factors' significant interaction with mastering a target language; yet, there were not any sole indicators of language learning. By more investigation on the learner, several scholars in the fields of language education, SLA, and bilingualism have claimed the influence of gender on access to linguistic and interactional resources, on the dynamics of classroom interaction, and on language learning outcomes.

In this respect, along with language learning strategies and other variables, the impact of gender on ESL and EFL learning has been sought. Different researchers have different perspectives on the connection between gender and learning a foreign or second language. Some researches still stand by variationist and interactional sociolinguistics methodology and they treat gender as a variable (Ellig & Morin, 2001), while others, taking critical, poststructuralist and feminist theories as a base, find gender as a system of social relations and discursive practices(Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004).

It is therefore clear that to be able to fully understand the nature of SLA; scholars need to have a deeper understanding of the bilateral interrelation of language learning strategies, gender and other essential variables.

2. Literature Review

Regardless of the changing research philosophies and practices, traditional gender perspectives, the superiority of female language learners being the first, persist among TESOL educators (Sunderland, 2000). SLA research and practice still continue to hold the belief that gender differences can be reified, and are uniform across language learning contexts (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). For instance, a number of researchers (i.e.Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Oxford, 1993) continue to assume female superiority in language development. Many other scholars concluded their research studies with the claim that females have an advantage over males in language acquisition both in L1 and L2. However, the biological and dualistic conceptions of gender that underlie much (past) work in SLA exaggerate and overgeneralize differences between males and females, and ignore the social, cultural, and situational forces that shape gender categories, relations, and learner outcomes (Ehrlich, 1997).

Most assumptions about who uses which forms have little to do with gender. However, the number of scholars that still keep the same track is not small. "The persistence of essentializing and dichotomizing gender research, despite theoretical

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critiques and evidence to the contrary, is most likely due to scholars' underlying ontological and epistemological positions" (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004, p. 384). Theorists like Freed (1995) and Kitetu and Sunderland (2002) state, the theory of language in the western world focused basically on adult, middle class and white populations which have dominated SLA literature are biased in failing to represent other social and cultural contexts. Yet many researchers and theorists are gradually moving away from traditional frameworks towards richer understandings of the relationships between gender and language learning across societies, communities and classrooms (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). Non-Western SLA scholars (e.g., Canagarajah 1999; Lin et al, 2004) along with those interested in immigrant, refugee, indigenous and K–12 populations (e.g., Duff, 2002; Duff, Wong, & Early, 2002; Harklau, 1994; McKay & Wong, 1996; Valdés, 1998) are criticizing studies that ignore situated values and practices and change their perspectives and turn to investigate traditionally ignored aspects (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004).

Social relationships in gender theorizing and research has become more evident in recent years as Connell (2002) suggests:

The key is to move from a focus on difference to a focus on relations. Gender is, above all, a matter of the social relations within which groups and individuals act…Gender must be understood as a social structure. It is not an expression of biology, nor a fixed dichotomy in human life or character. It is a pattern in our social arrangements and in everyday activities or practices which those arrangements govern (p.9).

he focus of feminist-critical and poststructuralist scholars on the effects of power relations contributed a lot to gender and language education. Research on power relations can reveal real or perceived strategic appeals to differences and document ways in which gender differences are constructed in interaction. According to many scholars, "analysis of power and identity dynamics can create conscious awareness of these dynamics and help teachers move toward curricular and pedagogical choices that transform unjust practices" (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004, p.387). This, in turn, can help the educators conduct their instruction under the light of relevant research.

2.1 Gender and First Language Acquisition

General acceptance about children's way of learning their mother tongue is quite straightforward; it is natural and without striking a blow. There is always difference in talent when children study other knowledge, for example, some children are good at mathematics, while others have a talent for physics. However, there is little difference in mother tongue acquisition. Although children's living environments differ in thousands of ways and experiences in physics and intelligence are totally different, these differences don't influence their acquisition of mother tongue at all. Five or six-year-olds, regardless of their gender, have the same language ability roughly despite their different language environments. It's easy for children to learn their mother tongue and acquire language ability unconsciously (Li & Bu, 2006).

However, there are also several studies of first language acquisition (Douglas, 1964; Morris, 1966 etc.) that have shown girls to be better learners than boys. Trudgill (1974) showed that women used the prestige variants more frequently than men and related this phenomenon to female social insecurity. Differences between male and female L1

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learners appear more in studies conducted in bilingual settings; and such studies favor female learners in acquiring the languages they are exposed to. In a study of Punjabi migrant children in England, Agnihotri (1979) showed that girls assimilated the prestige variants faster than the boys; they were also better at resisting the stigmatized variants. Satyanath (1982) too found that Kannadiga women in Delhi showed a higher percentage of assimilation of linguistic features associated with Hindi and also a higher degree of usage than men. He found that younger women assimilated the host society's language and culture maximally. Unlike Trudgill (1974), who holds social insecurity to be responsible for greater use of prestige variants, Satyanath attributes it to the sociocultural aspects of the Kannadiga community which provides women a greater opportunity of interaction with the host society and this seems to be the underlying reason in female learners outscoring their counterparts.

2.2 Gender and Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

SLA, which is a subarea of applied linguistics, has become a genuine field of research for the last three decades. Previously, the research of gender and SLA basically focused on the topics valued in the area of SLA; nevertheless, with the change of perspectives it started to investigate the teachers and the learners more. In the previous period, only such studies that were based on positivist or post positivist assumptions were respected by many scholars. As (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004) states, real science meant only experimental or quasi experimental design, surveys, and post positivist qualitative studies to such scholars; and assuming only this hierarchy as the real track to follow neglects the wide range of contributions made through other paradigms (including gender) and excludes research participants' diverse experiences, "thereby creating conditions for inaccurate, inequitable and discriminatory outcomes" (p.388).

Such a hierarchy of predetermined research approaches, topics and participants, also, has the potential to cause discriminatory results against the teachers (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). Lin et al. (2004) explains the way that educators face "systematic, institutional suppression of research and teaching on minority and diversity issues" (p.497). They state that "senior staff identified research by minority scholars on marginalized groups—as opposed to the adult, middle-class, and white populations that have dominated SLA literature—as 'repetitive' and 'trivial'" (p.497).

Even though some significant SLA theorists (i.e. Long, 1998, Gass, 2000) believe that SLA researchers began to ask the right question, investigating these questions in a scientific way and accumulating results that allow them to further refine and make adjustments to existing theories, if we look closer how questions are related to gender have been explored, we cannot say that it is definitely the case (Block, 2002). As Jiménéz-Catalán (2000) utters, individual differences such as age, aptitude, learning style and motivation are very-well focused on in most SLA research studies, but gender is often ignored. Besides, as Ehrlich (1997) and Sunderland (2000) points out, even in studies where gender was included into research, it was perceived in an oversimplified way.

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2.3 Research Studies Conducted on Gender in SLA

In his prominent work The Study of Second Language Acquisition, Rod Ellis (1994) devotes only a few pages to gender in a section entitled sex, which is included in the section of "Social factors and second language acquisition". He shortly discusses the difference between the terms "sex" and "gender" and mentions the two principles Labov (1991) suggested:

1. In stable sociolinguistic stratification, men use a higher frequency of nonstandard forms than women
2. In the majority of linguistic changes, women use a higher frequency of the incomings forms than men (p.206-207).

Then he turns Labov's generalizations into an hypothesis that follows as "women might be better at L2 learning than men as they are likely to be more open to new linguistic forms in the L2 input and they will be more likely to rid themselves of inter language forms that deviate from target-language norms" (Ellis, 1994, p. 202).

Ellis then cites two studies, Burstall's (1975) research in England on primary school students of French and Boyle's (1987) research in Hong Kong on university students of English. Either of these studies reveals that female students were more successful than male students in the exams applied. However, Ellis does not reach conclusive results on these findings; he states that such generalizations might be misleading as Boyle's study also indicated higher achievement of male students in listening tests and the study by Bacon (1992) of university students of Spanish in the US found no such significant difference between boys and girls.

According to Ellis' review, there was nothing conclusive in studies of gender differences in SLA in achievement, attitudes and strategy use at that time. As a result, Ellis concluded the section about gender as follows:

Sex is, of course, likely to interact with other variables in determining L2proficiency. It will not always be the case, therefore, that females outperform males. Asian men in Britain generally attain higher levels of proficiency in L2 English than do Asian women for the simple reason that their jobs bring them into contact with the majority English speaking group, while women are often "enclosed" in the home. Sex interacts with such factors as age, ethnicity, and, in particular social class (Ellis, 1994, p. 204).

Several other SLA texts published at about the same time (i.e. Cook, 1993; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Towell & Hawkins, 1994, Mitchell & Myles, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; and Gass & Selinker, 2001) reveal that gender is neither listed in the index nor discussed in anything but a passing manner by any of these authors (Block, 2002).

2.4 Language Learning Strategies

Since the pioneering studies carried out in the mid-seventies (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) there has been an awareness that language learning strategies have the potential to be "an extremely powerful learning tool" (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo, 1985, p.43), "which results in better proficiency and better self confidence" (Oxford, 1990, p.9).

Awareness has slowly grown of the importance of the strategies used by learners in the language learning process, since ultimately, like the proverbial horse led to water but which must do the drinking itself, even with the best teachers and methods,

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students are the only ones who can actually do the learning (Griffiths, 2004). As Nyikos and Oxford (1993) put it: "learning begins with the learner" (p.11).

Even though scholars have been working on the subject for quite a long time now, defining and classifying language learning strategies is not an easy and completed task. There is currently no consensus among scholars on what a learning strategy really means in second language learning or how these strategies differ from other types of learner activities inside or outside of the class. Griffiths (2004) states that learning, teaching and communication strategies are often interlaced in discussions of language learning and are often applied to the same behavior; further, even within the group of activities most often referred to as learning strategies, there is considerable confusion about definitions of specific strategies and about the hierarchic relationship among strategies. Rubin (1975), who was one of the earliest researchers in this field, provided a very broad definition of learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge", (p.43). Ellis (1986), on the other hand, views strategies for learning and strategies for using, including communication strategies or "devices for compensating for inadequate resources" (p.165), as quite different manifestations of a more general phenomenon which he calls learner strategies.

Rigney (in O'Malley et al, 1985) defined learning strategies as being "operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information" (p.23). Then, Rubin (1981) went on to identify two kinds of learning strategies: those which contribute directly to learning, and those which contribute indirectly to learning. She divided direct learning strategies into six types (clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive differencing, deductive reasoning, practice), and the indirect learning strategies into two types (creating opportunities for practice, production tricks) (Griffiths, 2004).

Expanding the perspective, Oxford (1990) took the process one step further. She used Rigney's definition of language learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Oxford, 1990, p.8) as a base. Attempting to redress the perceived problem that many strategy inventories appeared to emphasize cognitive and metacognitive strategies and to ascribe much less importance to affective and social strategies, she classified learning strategies into six groups: memory strategies (which relate to how students remember language), cognitive strategies (which relate to how students think about their learning), compensation strategies (which enable students to make up for limited knowledge), metacognitive strategies (relating to how students manage their own learning), affective strategies (relating to students' feelings) and social strategies (which involve learning by interaction with others). Oxford's grouping of the language learning strategies also complies with the characteristics of good language learners in employing learning strategies, "such as taking advantage of practice opportunities, willingly and accurately guessing, handling emotional issues in language learning, consciously developing the L2 as a meaning system and a structure system, and monitoring one's own speech" (Naiman, Fröhlich, & Todesco, 1975; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1983 in Green & Oxford, 1995, p. 262).

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As for today, Oxford's classification is the one which is, more or less, the most widely accepted taxonomy. She made various additions (1992, 1995) in her classification in later years to better identify language learning strategies. However, it is still impossible to accept it as complete as many more strategies may be identified in the future. Oxford's classification will be explained in detail in a further section, it being the most cited one in the SLA literature.

2.5. The Taxonomy of Learning Strategies

One of the most prominent authors dealing with the issue of learning strategies is certainly the American psychologist Rebecca Oxford who constructed one of the most popular instruments for measuring learning strategies, the so-called SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) in 1990, which was validated in numerous languages and cultures around the world.

he taxonomy of learning strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) comprised six categories of learning strategies and the author classified them into direct and indirect strategies. The author included memory, cognitive and compensation strategies into the category of direct strategies, while the indirect strategies include metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Indirect strategies do not directly affect the target language, but have a significant role in language learning. Classification provided by Oxford was subjected to criticism, primarily because it was not based on factor analysis and achievements of cognitive science. In addition, no clear distinction between the strategies of language use and strategies of language learning had been established. Many strategy researchers (Purpura, 1999) do not believe that 'compensation' strategies belong to the language learning strategies, but communication strategies, and that it is problematic to separate communication strategies from memory strategies since the memory strategies actually constitute a subclass of cognitive strategies. This separation was motivated by the observation that most memory strategies (especially mnemonic devices, such as imagery, rhyming, and keywords) are associated with shallow processing, whereas most cognitive strategies are associated with deep processing (Purpura, 2006).

Nowadays the most widely accepted classification of learning strategies was offered by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), which is actually similar to the classification proposed by Oxford (1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) differentiate between cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies correspond to Oxford's (1990) memory strategies and cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies are a direct equivalent to Oxford's system, while social/affective strategies correspond to Oxford's social, affective and communication strategy categories. The empirical analysis conducted by Hsiao and Oxford (2002) confirmed that the explanatory power of the model proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) would be increased, provided that the social/affective strategies were classified as distinct groups of strategies. However, literature usually classifies social and affective strategies as a common group of strategies, and they are called socio-affective strategies. We can conclude that the typology of strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) is highly compatible, Purpura (1999) emphasized that the compatibility would be important if three changes were made, namely if communication strategies were

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excluded from the framework of learning strategies, if Oxford memory strategy and cognitive strategy were combined, and if social/affective strategies were separated as proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990). This is why Purpura (2006) proposes a typology of strategies that includes four main components of strategies: cognitive strategies (1) that include a specific manipulation or transformation of material to be learned, i.e. language input, such as repetition of material, summarizing of information, use of mnemonics, etc.; metacognitive strategies (2) as higher-order strategies which comprise analysis, monitoring, evaluation, planning and organizing one's own learning process; social strategies (3) which include interaction with other learners, the goal of which is to increase the amount of L2 communication and practice in a foreign language (initiating interaction with native speakers, cooperation with peers); affective strategies (4) which include the user's control over one's own emotions and experiences that reflect the user's subjective involvement in the learning process.

According to the interpretations of researchers there is no clear boundary between the metacognitive and cognitive strategies; therefore, most researchers agree that the metacognitive strategies are executive and cognitive strategies are operational strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The above implies that metacognitive strategies include thinking about the learning process, planning of learning, observation of understanding or production, and self-evaluation of learning. On the other hand, cognitive strategies refer to direct and specific tasks in the learning process and involve a direct manipulation or transformation of the content learned. Cohen and Purpura (2002) point out to the extreme importance of metacognitive strategies and define them as processes which learners consciously use to oversee their own learning and manage it. Metacognitive strategies allow you to control your own cognition so that learners plan their activities, check them and then evaluate. Numerous studies were conducted in the area of metacognitive and cognitive strategies, and their application and transfer to the new language tasks. The importance of metacognitive strategies crucial for successful learning has been emphasized in these studies. Learners who do not have a metacognitive approach or do not know how to apply it remain without a real goal and direction, without the possibility of planning their own learning, monitor their own progress and their achievements, and future goals of learning (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

2.6. Factors Influencing Strategy Choice

Although the research into language learning strategies used by successful and unsuccessful language learners has produced some interesting insights, it is not clear what causes the difference between strategy uses and preferences. An alternative approach used by researchers has been to study some of the various factors which influence individual students in their choice of learning strategies.

According to recent research studies there are several factors that influence strategy choice; such as awareness, personality traits, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectations, age, general learning style, purpose for learning language, motivation level, nationality, gender, etc.

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One factor influencing the strategy choice is the degree of awareness. Learners who are more aware of themselves and the process they are in, seem to use strategies more efficiently (Oxford, 1990).

Also, task requirements help determine the strategy choice. To illustrate, different strategies are used when rehearsing a grammar rule and trying to communicate with other parties.

Teacher expectation related to instructions and testing greatly influences the strategy choice as well. For example, if the teacher emphasizes grammar learning, student will develop learning strategies, such as analysis and reasoning rather than strategies for communication; and if the teacher emphasizes communication in the class the result will be vice versa.

Another factor that can be mentioned is age. Older and younger learners use different strategies. Their cognitive level, which is interdependent to biological development and social experiences, plays an immense role in their preference of strategy choice (Oxford, 1990).

2.7. The Classification of Language Learning Strategies

According to Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, language learning strategies are divided into two major classes: Direct Strategies and Indirect Strategies. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. Memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies are under the direct strategies while metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies are under the indirect strategies. Figure 2.1 shows Direct Strategies, Indirect Strategies and their subcategories.

DIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Memory Strategies
A. Creating mental linkages
B. Applying images and sounds
C. Reviewing well
D. Employing action
II. Cognitive Strategies
A. Practicing
B. Receiving and sending messages strategies
C. Analyzing and reasoning
D. Creating structure for input and output
III. Compensation strategies
A. Guessing intelligently
B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Metacognitive Strategies
A. Centering your learning
B. Arranging and planning your learning
C. Evaluating your learning
II. Affective Strategies
A. Lowering your anxiety
B. Encouraging yourself

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C. Taking your emotional temperature
III. Social Strategies
A. Asking questions
B. Cooperating with others
C. Empathizing with others
Figure 2.1: Direct and Indirect strategies (Oxford, 1990)

As Oxford (1999) states, though existing different groups, all these strategies are related to each other. Direct and indirect strategies support each other and the all the subgroups listed in six categories interact with and help one another. The first major class, direct strategies, is directly related with the language itself. The direct class is composed of memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information; cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language; and compensation strategies for using the language despite knowledge gaps (Oxford, 1989).

The other major class, indirect strategies, consists of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions and social strategies for learning with others. The functions that indirect strategies serve involve focusing, organizing, guiding, checking, correcting, coaching and encouraging (Oxford, 1989).

2.8. Research Studies Conducted on Interrelation of Gender and Language Learning Strategies and Success in the Target Language

Numerous research studies have been done about Interrelation of "gender", "Language Learning Strategies" and "proficiency in the target language" by SLA scholars. Below some significant ones will be mentioned due to their close relationship with the current study.

2.9. Language Learning Strategies and Gender

The first study which will be mentioned in this section was done by Green and Oxford (1995), which builds on previous research using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990). It is a large scale study including 374 participants conducted to find out language learning strategy use by students at three different course levels at the University of Puerto Rico. It relates strategy use to gender as well as to L2 proficiency level and includes analysis of variation in the use of individual strategies on the SILL. They found greater use of learning strategies among more successful learners and that females used much more strategies than men. What they also found was that with both proficiency level and gender, only some items showed significant variation and significant variation by proficiency level did not invariably mean more frequent strategy use by more successful students.

The strategies used frequently or moderately frequently by successful and unsuccessful learners alike are not necessarily unproductive. According to the authors, a more likely interpretation is that these are "bedrock strategies", which contribute significantly to the learning process of the more successful students, although not being in themselves sufficient to move the less successful students to higher proficiency levels.

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Another study by Kaylani (1996), conducted in Jordan, investigated the influence of gender and motivation on EFL learning strategy use. Kaylani's starting point was that there is evidence from a number of studies conducted across different cultures around the world that there are differences between male and female students of foreign and second languages as regards what strategies they use and how they use them when engaging in language learning tasks. What she wanted to know was why these differences existed, what their effect on teaching is, what similarities exist between successful male and female students and the role of socialization in gender differences. She was also interested in the relationship between motivation and strategy use, and as regards gender, what social factors affecting motivation exist which are distinct to male and female students. A sample of 255 students from two boys' and two girls' secondary schools were administered a version of Oxford's SILL (Oxford, 1990) translated into Arabic. A statistical analysis of questionnaire data revealed, among other things, that although there was a higher incidence of memory, cognitive compensation and affective strategies among female students, the relatively proficient/relatively non-proficient and successful/unsuccessful distinctions correlated more to strategy use than the male/female distinction. Kaylani goes beyond such a limited analysis and proceeds to discuss her findings "in terms of the sociocultural context of Jordan" (Kaylani, 1996, p.85). She cites an interesting finding from her interviews, namely that female students showed a far stronger tendency to use strategies sanctioned by their teachers than male students did. At first, she relates this finding to a suggestion made by Niyikos (1990) that female students seek social approval more than male students, a generalization not dissimilar to Labov's (1991) on the higher use among women of socially desirable linguistic forms. Far more interesting is Kaylani's subsequent attempt to relate the finding to "the socialization of girls to exhibit obedience in both private and public domains" (Kaylani, 1996, p. 86). According to the author, the socially prescribed role for women is to find a marriage partner and education may be seen as a way to better one's prospects in the context of the study, Jordan. Above all, going to university is desired by a girl because it "exposes her to more people who might consider her for marriage, it gives her status as being educated which is prized in Jordanian society, and it makes her employable upon graduation" (Kaylani, 1996, p. 87).

In another study, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that females taking the SILL reported using strategies far more often than did males in three of the five factors: formal rule-related practice, general study strategies and conversational input elicitation strategies.

Ehrman and Oxford (1989), who looked at the strategies used by 1200 university students, found that gender differences made a "profound influence" (p.296) on strategy use, and discovered significant gender differences in the SILL (favoring women again) in the following strategy classifications: general study strategies, strategies for authentic language use, strategies for searching for and communicating meaning and metacognitive or self-management strategies (in Tercanlioglu, 2004).

In Japan, Watanabe (1990) encountered a considerably contrasting strategy use between a major metropolitan university with both male and female students and a

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rural, all-female college (though location and prestige might have influenced the differences just as much as gender).

Sy (1994) discovered that students of English in the Republic of China showed significant gender differences on the SILL. In that study, females significantly surpassed males in their use of cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies.

Even though most of the studies in this area reported a greater use of language learning strategies by women, Tran (1988) found that Vietnamese women use much fewer language learning strategies.

The final study that will be cited here is one study conducted in Turkey by Leyla Tercanlioglu (2004). The aim of the study was to discover gender differences in language learning strategies used by foreign language learners using Oxford's (1990) SILL. A total of 184 pre-service teachers, 44 male (23.9%) and 140 female (76.1%), with ages ranging from 19 to 23, participated in the study. They were enrolled in the third year of their 4 year undergraduate teacher education program at Atatürk University.

The results show gender differences, favoring males, in students' strategy use. Therefore, the results of the mentioned study are not consistent with several other studies that have reported that female learners use strategies with greater frequency than male learners.

In conclusion, the discussion of the role of gender in SLA has been in the agenda of many scholars for a long time; yet the results they reached are still far from being conclusive. Because gender itself is not a stable factor; it depends on many variables such as biological factors, cultural and social elements etc. Besides, along with gender, there are various other factors that also affect the process of language acquisition; namely, motivation, attitude, nationality (…) and language learning strategies, one of the leading indicators of learning a foreign language. In this study, it is intended to reveal the interdependency of gender, language learning strategies and achievement in second language learning.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

A total number of sixty EFL learners were selected based on their performance on OPT test at Islamic Azad University of Rasht. The participants were at intermediate level in terms of their general foreign language proficiency based on OPT test direction.

.3.2 Instruments

The following instruments were used for the present study:

1) Oxford Placement Test (OPT)
2) The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), on the other hand, was used to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the participants.

3.3 Procedures

Before conducting the study, the researcher first informed the administration of Islamic Azad University about the study and received the required permission. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher herself. The students were informed to read the instruction paper before doing the test to make sure they answer the four parts of the test in the given tables for each part within the allotted time.

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After having finished the test, the answer sheets were gathered, marked and entered into the computer for data analyses. To increase the credibility of the responses to the questionnaires, the students were reminded that they should be sincere in their answers, and it was agreed that for getting more valid results, the students were given the opportunity to respond to the questionnaires at home and the students should handle the questionnaire the coming day. The 60 students were also asked to give an immediate response and that they shouldn't hesitate and change their answers. The questionnaires were collected the other day and the responses were entered into the computer for data analyses.

3.4 Data Analysis

In the analysis stage of the findings, the results achieved from the questionnaire were summed up and the procedures of descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, etc.) along with inferential statistics namely Mann Whitney U tests were run. The nonparametric Mann Whitney U tests were run in order to find out if there was any significant difference between the males' and females' groups in terms of their use of direct and indirect strategies. Before doing the main study, the reliability of the instruments employed in the study was estimated through a pilot study on 15 EFL students who were representative of the main group in terms of their general language proficiency.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Measure of Foreign Language Proficiency for selecting homogenous sample

In order to select a homogeneous sample the standardized Oxford Placement test (OPT) was given to 120 EFL students. The participants answered three parts including structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension sections of the test. The maximum possible score was 60 points. Sixty intermediate EFL learners (30 male and 30 female) were selected according to OPT test direction in which those respondents who got 31+ in grammar and vocabulary and 8+ in reading section were considered to be at intermediate level of foreign language proficiency. The results are presented in the following table:

Table 4.1:
Statistics for the OPT test

N	Valid	120
	Missing	0
Mean		50.3250
Median		48.5000
Mode		43.00
Std. Deviation		16.23367
Variance		263.532
Skewness		.221
Std. Error of Skewness		.221
Kurtosis		-.602
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.438
Range		66.00

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Minimum	21.00
Maximum	87.00
Sum	6039.00

4.1 Investigating the Research Question

In order to answer the research question, descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations were used to summarize the learners' responses to the strategy inventory questionnaire. The results are presented in tables 4.2 to 4.7:

Table 4.2:.
Item Statistics for memory strategies

Direct strategies (total mean =3.3701; total standard deviation= .33419)	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Part A memory strategies			
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in the SL.	**3.7833**	.95831	60
2. I use new SL words in a sentence so I can remember them.	3.4667	**.92913**	60
3. I connect the sound of a new SL word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	3.4500	1.03211	60
4. I remember a new SL word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.5167	1.04948	60
5. I use rhymes to remember new SL words.	2.4500	1.08025	60
6. I use flashcards to remember new SL words.	3.4833	1.03321	60
7. I physically act out new SL words.	**2.2500**	.93201	60
8. I review SL lessons often.	3.0333	1.00788	60
9. I remember new SL words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	3.4000	**1.21013**	60
Total mean $_{\text{memory strategies}}$ =3.203	Total SD= 0.444		

The first section of the questionnaire comprising 9 items examined the learners' use of direct strategies and included memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Table 4.2 depicts the results of the questionnaire for the memory strategies. The total mean rank for this sort of direct strategies equaled 5.00 with a standard deviation of 2.738.

The respondents' rating of the questionnaire showed that "Thinking of relationships between what they already know and new things they learn in the SL" was the most favored type of memory strategy(mean =3.7833). However, "acting out new SL words physically" was the least favored memory strategy in this category (mean = 2.2500).

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The students' were highly uniform in terms of their responses to the second item (SD=.92913). They had relatively identical views towards "using new SL words in a sentence to remember them". On the other hand, the responses were heterogeneous for the last item of this category. They reported divergent views towards" remembering new SL words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or …".

Table 4.3:
Item Statistics for cognitive strategies

Part B cognitive strategies	Mean	Standard deviation	N
10. I say or write new SL words several times.	3.2667	1.27381	
11. I try to talk like native SL speakers.	**4.0833**	.99646	60
12. I practice the sounds of SL.	3.8333	.94181	60
13. I use the SL words I know in different ways.	3.2833	.97584	60
14. I start conversations in the SL.	3.4667	1.03280	60
15. I watch SL TV shows spoken in SL or go to	3.9167	1.04625	60
movies spoken in SL.	3.3667	1.31441	60
16. I read for pleasure in the SL.	**3.0333**	**1.36502**	60
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in the	3.7167	1.16578	60
SL.	3.3167	1.17158	60
18. I first skim an SL passage then go back and read	3.6500	**.93564**	60
carefully.	3.5500	1.22716	60
19. I look for words in my language that are similar			60
to new words in the SL.	3.4667	1.19981	
20. I try to find patterns in the SL.	3.1167	1.22255	60
21. I find the meaning of an SL word by dividing it			60
into parts that I understand.			
22. I try not to translate word for word.			
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or			
read in the SL.			
Total mean $_{\text{Cognitive strategies}}$= 3.504	SD=0.411		

The second section of the questionnaire dealt with cognitive strategies. The total means for this category amounted 3.504 with standard deviation of .411.

While "trying to talk like native SL speakers" received the highest mean rank (mean=4.0833), "writing notes, messages, letters, or reports in the SL" was given the lowest mean rank (mean =3.0333). Moreover, the respondents were highly heterogeneous in terms of their answers to this item (SD=1.36502). However, they were uniform in their responses to item (20) that examined their views towards "trying to find patterns in the SL" (SD= .93564).

Table 4.4:
Item Statistics for compensation strategies

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Part C Compensation strategies	Mean	Standard deviation	N
24. To understand unfamiliar SL words, I make guesses.	3.6000	**1.09235**	60
25. When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in the SL, I use gestures.	3.1167	1.22255	60
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in the SL.	3.1167	**1.09066**	60
27. I read SL without looking up every new word.	3.4000	1.26491	60
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in the SL.	**2.8167**	**1.29525**	60
29. If I can't think of an SL word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	**3.7833**	1.16578	60
Total mean $_{\text{Compensation strategies}}$**=3.305**	**SD=0.624**		

Compensation strategies were the last subdivision of the direct strategies in which the total mean rank measured was (3.305) and standard deviation came to (.624).
As regards the rating for every individual items of this subsection of the direct strategies, "using a word or phrase that meant identical to a SL word that could not be called to mind" got the highest mean rank(mean=3.7833) . On the other hand, "trying to guess what the other person will say next in the SL" was given the lowest mean rank (mean =2.8167).
Concerning the extent of the diversity of the responses, the highest degree of diversity of views was seen for item (28) which had the lowest mean rank among other compensation strategies, too (SD= 1.29525). Additionally, the responses were consistent for item (26) that examined the respondents' ability to "make up new words if they did not know the right ones in the SL" (SD= 1.09066). This uniformity in responses was closely observed for item (24) that scrutinized their potential for "making guesses to understand unfamiliar SL words" (SD= 1.09235).

Table 4.5:
Item Statistics for meta- cognitive strategies

Indirect strategies (total mean =3.4405; total standard deviation= .440478)			
Part D Meta-cognitive strategies	mean	standard deviation	N
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my SL.	3.6500	1.10200	60
31. I notice my SL mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	4.1333	.94719	60
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking SL.	**4.1833**	.87317	60
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of SL.	**4.1833**	**.85354**	60

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34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study SL.	3.3333	1.05230	60
35. I look for people I can talk to in SL.	3.3833	1.19450	60
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in SL.	**3.2167**	1.12131	60
37. I have clear goals for improving my SL skills.	3.4167	**1.18310**	60
38. I think about my progress in learning SL.	3.9500	1.06445	60
Total mean $_{\text{meta-cognitive strategies}}$**=3.716**	**SD=0.522**		

The second main category of the questionnaire took measures concerning indirect strategies. It included meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies. The first subdivision of indirect strategies was related to meta- cognitive strategies that included 9 items. The total mean rank was equivalent to (3.716) and standard deviation amounted to (0.522).

Among meta-cognitive items, items (32) and (33) received the highest mean rank (mean = 4.1833). They examined the respondents' "reflection when someone was speaking SL and their endeavor to find out how to be a better learner of SL". However, the lowest mean rank was rated for item (36) that concerned "the respondents' aptness for looking for opportunities to read as much as possible in SL" (mean =3.2167).

When it comes to the standard deviation, the highest amount of uniformity among the responses was seen for item (33) which appraised their "capability for trying to find out how to be a better learner of SL" (SD=.85354.). On the other hand, the highest degree of dispersion was found among the responses for item (37) that assessed the respondents' "aptitude for having clear goals for improving their SL skills" (SD= 1.18310).

Table 4.6:
Item Statistics for affective strategies

Part E Affective strategies			
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using SL.	3.3833	**1.23634**	60
40. I encourage myself to speak SL even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.4833	**1.25538**	60
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in SL.	2.5333	**1.25505**	60
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using SL.	**3.6333**	1.31441	60
43. I write down my feelings in a language-learning dairy.	**2.2333**	1.35755	60
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning SL.	3.3667	**1.49538**	60
Total mean $_{\text{affective strategies}}$=3.105	SD=0.526		

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The second subdivision of the indirect strategies dealt with affective strategies. The total mean rank for this category equaled (3.105) and the standard deviation was (.526.) Item (42) that concerned the respondents' perception of their possible "edginess and nervousness when they were studying or using SL" (mean =3.6333). Despite that, the lowest rating was depicted for item (43) that checked out "the respondents' eagerness for writing down their feelings in a language-learning dairy" (mean =2.2333).
The highest degree of conformity among the responses was established for items (39 to 41). The respondents were roughly consistent in answering to item (40) that estimated their perceptions of "their ability to encourage themselves to speak SL even when they were afraid of making a mistake" (SD=1.25538). Moreover, they were homogenous regarding their answer to item (41) which dealt with "their eagerness to give themselves a reward or treat when they did well in SL" (SD=1.25505). Additionally, this homogeneity was also found among responses for item (39) that examined their "views towards trying to relax whenever they felt afraid of using SL" (SD=1.23634)

Table 4.7:
Item Statistics for social strategies

Part F Social strategies	mean	Standard deviation	N
45. If I do not understand something in SL, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	3.4833	1.33393	60
46. I ask SL speakers to correct me when I talk.	**3.0667**	1.37615	60
47. I practice SL with other students.	**3.0333**	1.23462	60
48. I ask for help from SL speakers.	3.3500	**1.38790**	60
49. I ask questions in SL.	3.4333	1.14042	60
50. I try to learn about the culture of SL speakers.	**3.8000**	**1.13197**	60

The final subdivision of indirect strategies was related to social strategies that included six items. The total mean rank was equal to (3.361) with standard deviation of (.699).
The highest mean rank was reported for item (50) that was related to the respondents' "enthusiasm to learn about the culture of SL speakers" (mean=3.8000). In spite of this, items (47) that rated their views towards "practicing SL with other students" (mean = 3.0333) and item (45) that weighed up their notion of "asking the other person to slow down or say something again if they did not understand something in SL" (mean =3.0667), were given the lowest mean rank.
Regarding the deviation of the responses, the highest amount of divergence was found for item (48) that evaluated their viewpoints respecting "asking for help from SL speakers" (SD=1.38790). All the same, the highest amount of uniformity among the responses was reported for item (50) which also held the highest mean rank of this category and was related to the "respondents' enthusiasm to learn about the culture of SL speakers" (SD=1.13197).

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To sum up, the total mean rank of the direct strategies (mean= 3.3701) was slightly lower than the total mean rank of indirect strategies (mean= 3.4405). However, the responses provided for the indirect strategies (SD= .44078) were more divergent than that of direct strategies (SD=.33419).

5. Conclusion

Based on the results of the test statistics run to the findings of the questionnaire, the significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of their use of direct strategies ($p \leq 0.05$). In other words, the two groups were not statistically different in terms of their use of indirect strategies ($p \geq 0.05$). Furthermore, there was statistically significant difference between males and females in terms of their use of memory and cognitive strategies ($p \leq 0.05$). Nevertheless, the two groups were not statistically different in terms of their use of compensation, meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies ($p \geq 0.05$). This rejects the second null hypothesis and suggests that there is a significant difference between Iranian female and male intermediate EFL learners in terms of their use of components of direct and indirect strategies including cognitive, socio- affective, meta-cognitive strategies…

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THE EFFECT OF MULTIPLICITY IN PRACTICAL-TRANSLATION COURSES ON IRANINA EFL LEARNERS' WRITTEN TRANSLATION ABILITY

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Abstract
This study examined the effect of multiplicity in practical-translation courses on Iranian EFL learners' written translation ability. It is argued that the multiplicity of courses does not affect EFL learners' translation ability. The purpose was to identify the sources of their inefficiency in translation and offer an optimal solution to the problem. The study was conducted at Islamic Azad University of Rasht; a total number of 60 Undergraduate translation students were selected and divided in experimental and control groups. They were tested on their translation ability through a posttest and the data were analyzed via applying a T-test. The content of posttest results of the samples revealed that multiplicity in practical courses does not influence students' translation ability and that translation is a more sophisticated skill that needs to work on it for betterment in the field.

Keywords: Practical-translation, Translation ability, Translation courses, Curriculum evaluation, applied translation studies.

1. Introduction

Generally speaking, one of the most important and crucial ways of gaining knowledge and experiencing the world around is translation. Catford (cited in Lotfipour, 2005) defined translation as the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language. A translator has a huge responsibility;

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he should exchange the language but keep the meaning and depth of the original text, so he should have the ability to produce something meaningful. In an Iranian (EFL) context, such as university, students pass several courses related to the translation and they are expected to master translating different text accurately also use the language properly for their future communication. These courses are designed to empower students' translation ability, by far, when they are given a text to translate the outcome is not satisfactory. The problem could be due to lack of translation ability or translation competence. The question is what is the benefit of teaching several courses while they are not useful enough to help students working out their problems?

The problem arise when teaching and training are being mixed in universities, in other words the curriculum programmed on teaching students and trained them how to translate and simultaneously they are expected to produce and reproduce the language through translation process. Students are supposed to be educated and be a translator in the four years of their academic education; this mismatch could be one of the several sources of difficulties. It should be noted that students are confused about the concept of translation; there is no exact workshop for them so that they can identify the border between theory and practice, to find out that translation is a process, product or both of them simultaneously. In other word, the courses are somehow ambiguous about the basic definition that translation is a re-writing process or it is about the creativity of translator to produce something new while keeping the meaning.

According to Sadeghi (2011), there are many courses for EFL majors in translation (including The Principle of Translation, Translating Simple Texts, and Advanced Translation) the output of such translation courses is usually less than satisfactory." (Sadeghi, 2011, p.1). Thus, lack of translation ability In EFL majors in translation is the problem under investigation in this study in other words it is aimed to investigate the effect of the variety in translation courses on Iranian EFL learners' translation ability.

2. Review of literature

"Translation develops three qualities essential to all language learning; accuracy, clarity and flexibility. It trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)" (DUFF, 1996, p.7). Translation has been existed from the existence of human in earth even when there was no such thing as "language". When we speak of history of translation, miscellaneous period of time and cultures emerge in our mind. In other words, translation history is about theories lies within the cultures also it goes back to thousands of years ago. According to Long (2005) history of translation can explain the re-formation of cultures, changes in literary trends, renewal of ideology, and the changes in human sciences in different area. "Translation is human activity that has been going on since language began to evolve and may be affected by all kinds of external events, as unexpected ad they are uncontrollable." (Long, 2007, p.64)

Translation has a very long history. Its origins date back to the moment of the appearance and the spread of different languages in different regions whereby people felt the necessity of translating texts from a language to another either orally or in writing. Thus, the main aim of translation has been to serve as a cross-cultural

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bilingual communication vehicle among peoples (Greding-Salas 2000). According to Hakkak (as cited in Ghorbani, Rahimi, Heidary Tabrizi, 2011) the date of translation tradition among Iranian translators went back to the manuscripts of Achaemenid dynasty. Kings of this dynasty were the establisher of the biggest kingdom in ancient world.

The process of translation between two different languages involves the translator changing an original written text in the original language into a written text in a different language (Munday, 2008). Translation Studies is an academic interdiscipline dealing with the systematic study of the theory, description, and application of translation, interpreting, and localization. As an interdiscipline, translation Studies borrows a lot from different fields of study that support translation. This field includes comparative literature, computer science, history, linguistics, philology, philosophy, semiotics, and terminology (Translation studies, 2013).

"A wide range of disciplines is involved in translation studies, including linguistics, sociology, cultural studies, neuroscience, cognitive psychology, and computer sciences" (Wills, 1999, p.133). There are two main branches in translation studies: the first one is pure translation studies and the second one is applied translation studies. Pure translation studies have many sub-branches that include the next level of descriptive translation studies (DTS). In addition, applied translation studies have four sub-branches that are dealing with training, aids, policy, and translation criticism (Quah, 2006).

The 'Linguistic Theory of Translation' (Catford, 1965) can be the best example for the communication line between translation and language levels like syntax and semantics. In Foreign Language Teaching (TEFL), translation has often been mentioned as a major component of the Grammar Translation Method of Language Teaching (Howatt, 1984). All the translation teachers are under the influence of their individual teaching on one or more theoretical concepts of translations. These are either possible or at least existing relationships between target texts and their own sources and these relationships allow would-be translators to produce what we consider the 'required' or 'desired' translations in the environment our students are going to work and live in (Pérez, 2005).

In fact, translation theory is neither a theory nor a science but it is the body part of knowledge that translators have and he or she should still have for the process of translating. Translation theory's main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods for the widest possible range of texts. Moreover, it provides a framework of principles, restricted rules, and hints for translating texts and criticizing translations, a background for problem-solving (Newmark, 1988). Newmark (1988) in his book "A textbook of Translation) explained the translation methods (word-for-word translation), (literal translation), (Faithful translation), (Semantic translation), (adaptation), (free translation), (idiomatic translation), and (communicative translation) in details as it can be seen in follows:

- The *word-for-word translation* methods, he stated that this is often demonstrated as interlinear translation that is the target language comes below the source language. In this method, the SL language word order is

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preserved, and the words translated by the first meaning out of the context, cultural word translated literally.

- The *Literal translation*: in which the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context.
- The *Faithful translation*: it attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It transfers cultural words and preserved the degree of grammatical and lexical abnormality.
- The *Semantic translation*: which differs from 'faithful translation' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the SL text.
- The *Adaptation*: which is the freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture is converted to the TL culture, and the text is rewritten. The distinction between 'faithful' and 'semantic' is that first is uncompromising and dogmatic but the latter one is more flexible, admits the creative exception to 100% fidelity, and allows for the translator's intuitive with the original text.
- The *Free translation*: it produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original.
- The *Idiomatic translation*: it reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.
- The *Communicative translation*: it attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership (1988b, pp. 45-47).

In order to be successful in teaching translation, instructors should be able to merge the techniques of language teaching that are the semester courses and are the best for their students with those of teaching translation. Translation competence is important because the several reasons, the most important one is designing translation-training session so that translators could improve their competence. "Translation competence" "has come to represent a motley set of academic understandings about what one has to know (and by implication what one has to learn or be taught) to become a translator". (Pym, 2003)

It is crucial that teachers have an understanding of curriculum theory, if they are aimed to bring out some changes in education in the future. Understanding curriculum theory and processes would provide teachers with an understanding of pedagogy and a capacity for cooperative works (Barret, 2010; Rischin, 2002; Beauchamp & Morton, 2011).

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 60 senior university students of translation program in the Islamic Azad University, Rasht branch. They were male and female in ages of 19 to 21, the reason of this selection refers to the topic, and the objective was to

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fulfill the aims of this study. The subjects meant to pass all theoretical as well as practical courses related to translation. They were selected via administering an OPT test for homogeneity; they were homogenized by selecting one SD below and above the mean. They were given a complete explanation about the research; furthermore, the issue of confidentiality and anonymity will be taken into account.

3.2 Instruments

The main materials used to conduct this study were an English excerpt passage printed and used in the classroom and students were supposed to translate it into Farsi, that is the only test employed in this study. The aim was to measure the two variable of the present study that are, participants` comprehension and elicit their ability of translation, it should be mentioned that the excerpt was at appropriate level of students' proficiency, students had to obtain at least a minimum score of 10 out 20.

3.3 Procedures

The research was conducted in Islamic Azad University, Rasht Branch. Participants were 60 senior university students that were homogenized through administering Oxford Placement Test and they were chosen one SD below and above the mean. Students supposed to pass all theoretical as well as practical courses related to translation, then they were divided into two groups: the experimental group (Ne=30) and the control group (Nc=30). The participants in the experimental group were those who have passed all practical courses of translation in the Iranian curriculum for translation program such as (Simple Text Translation, Advanced Translation (1). Advanced Translation (2), Literary Translation (2), Islamic Text Translation (1), Islamic Text Translation (2), Translation of Deeds and Documents, Political Translation, Economic Translation [2 course credits for each]) while the participants in the control group have passed only two courses from among the above list (Simple Text Translation and Advanced Translation (1)). The instructions and time were clearly explained to students of groups, the control group, and the experimental group, as the next step they were asked to help the researcher and answer the (post) test individually that was an excerpt derived from the Demonata saga written by Darren Shan. The rationale behind using literary text for students' evaluation, according to Iranian curriculum that was documented in 1995, for advance translation courses, the most difficult and advance texts credited to literary texts. The reliability of selected text was estimated in an inter-rater manner and it was 0.06.

Table 3.1. The difficulty level of the passage

The Excerpt	
Level of difficulty	8.1

Table 3.1 showed the difficulty level of the chosen passage, also it should be noted that the difficulty level of the excerpt was determined using the fog index of 'readability', and the calculated result was the reliable level of difficulty according to fog chart, as results the passage was at the proficiency level of students.

3.3.1. Scoring Procedure

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For the means of recognition and evaluation of written task that is the posttest, the total points of 20 were decided for scoring. The (post) test was scored in the following manner: if subjects' translation was correct, and the criteria for translating being considered in their translation then, they would get all the 20 points or if it was weak and not suitable, the scoring would be under 20. In general, they should obtain the minimum score of 10 out of 20 to pass the test. In Iran 20 is the standard and acceptable score of ministry of education for testing and evaluating students` ability.

3.4 Data Analysis

The data related to the hypothesis "multiplicity in practical-translation courses does not affect Iranian EFL Learners' written translation ability" and the internal consistency of this study will be analyzed via applying an independent sample T-test between the posttest scores of translation ability in both groups. The logical reason of applying an independent sample T-test is that difference between means of two groups are vital to this study so that we can compare the results and evaluate students` translation ability.

4. Findings and Discussion

Table (4.1) shows and reports the descriptive analysis of the posttest of translation ability among experimental group (that passed almost all practical courses) and control group (that passed few practical courses of translation) of the study:

Table4.1. Descriptive analysis of the Data of the Experimental and Control groups of the study

	MPT	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Translation Ability	+Multiplicity	30	17.2667	1.55216	.28338
	-Multiplicity	30	17.2333	1.90613	.34801

As it is reported in table (4.1), the number of participants who took part in the research was 30 in each groups of the study (N_e=30) and (N_c=30), it is obvious that all the selected participants participated and there has been no missing value. In this study due to the method of analyzing the data and calculation of the t value, the participants must given a label, as results, the experimental group labeled as (+ multiplicity) and the control group labeled as (- multiplicity).

According to the above table, the mean scores of posttest of translation ability for experimental and control groups was 17.26 and 17.23 respectively, as it is shown, the means were approximately close to each other and they are not significantly vary from each other. Similarly, standard deviation for experimental group was 1.55 and for control group was 1.90, the SD for these groups are somehow close too. It can be concluded from the participants' posttest mean scores that in some extent they were homogenous.

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Table4.2. The Independent sample t-test results of the study

		t-test for Equality of Means					
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		95%Confiedence Interval of the Difference	Std. Error difference
						Lower	Upper
Translation Ability	Equal variances assumed	.074	58	.941	.44880	-.86503	.93170
	Equal variances Not assumed	.074	55.713	.941	.44880	-.86581	.93248

According to table (4.2), the t value of the current study was calculated between the posttest of experimental and control groups, as it is indicated in the table (4.2) the posttest was on translation ability. The test was used to analyze the variance of the data gathered. Although the participants were selected via administering and OPT test, first Leven's test for equality of variance was done, as the sig. was larger than 0.05, so variances are the same. The observed t value that has been calculated by SPSS was 0.074 (t_{obs}=0.074) that is less than the t value critical at the .05 level of significance (t_{criti}=2.000) furthermore the degree of freedom was 58 (df=58). As it was reported in table (4.2), the level of sig. was 0.941 (p=0.941). As results, the p value is more than 0.05 so the means of two variables are the same and equality of means in 95% level is accepted. Therefore, it can be claimed that the control and experimental groups are not statistically different at posttest of the study. It should be said that the Eta squared calculated by its formula and it was .000, which confirmed that the mean difference was very small. Significance is a crucial element in interpreting the data for the means of rejection or supporting the hypothesis of the study that is explained in the following section.

4.2. Results of Hypothesis Testing

H: Multiplicity in practical-translation courses does not affect Iranian EFL Learners' written translation ability.

The prerequisite of parametric independent sample t-test that was used to analyze the data gathered. It was supposed that the obtained scores of participants of experimental and control groups must meet the condition of normality. The condition of normality is that the significance must be higher than the cut-off .05 to confirm the hypothesis of the study otherwise the condition of normality is violated and the hypothesis may be rejected.

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The hypothesis of the study that targeted the effect of multiplicity in practical translation courses on written translation ability of Iranian EFL learners was supported. There was logical evidence to verify support of the hypothesis. According to t-test results of the study, the observed t value calculated by SPSS was 0.074 (t_{obs}=0.074) while the critical t value at the 0.05 level of 2-tailed significance was 2.000 (t_{criti}=2.000). Therefore, the observed t was lower than the critical t, it was logical enough to support the hypothesis so it can be claimed that the hypothesis of the study was supported. Furthermore, the level of 2-tailed significance was 0.941 (p=0.941), since the p value was above the cut-off 0.05, the difference between the mean scores of posttest was very low. Thus, multiplicity in practical-translation courses does not affect Iranian EFL Learners' written translation ability.

5. Conclusion

This research was concerned with investigation of translation place in the current curriculum of Iranian EFL learners' translation ability and its effectiveness; therefore, the results suggested that translation of texts was not used sufficiently or effectively enough in practical way for students to master the art, since multiplicity of courses does not affect their translation ability. It would be useless to handing out some texts to the learners with the instruction "Translate". Students should not be obliged to translate without having enough practice in the skill. Generally, the findings have some significant implications for both EFL teachers at translator training programs and for material designer at EFL departments of education, particularly for the purpose advancement of EFL learners' translation ability. The argumentation and implication of current studies will be explained in two aspects, theoretical and pedagogical.

In theoretical view, the results and findings of the present study can be considered as an important contribution in latest translation theories and translation studies. This contribution is about course multiplicity and its ineffectiveness on translation ability of Iranian EFL learners. In pedagogical view, the results of the study can be magnified by its usage in Iranian ministry of sciences, researches, and technology; the findings are practical especially for material design. It is applicable for experts to design the syllabus and curriculum of the B.A level without being concerned about multiplicity of courses related to translation majors.

Material designer can easily take advantage of the result of the study. Present courses in translation major can be the same but the content should be more powerful so that they can convey more information. Furthermore, material designer could consider more workshop time to empower and promote students understanding of translation concept; this may results in improvement of their translation ability. Furthermore, they can publish new books that their contents are stronger in comparison with previous books. Moreover, the results of this study are important for EFL translator trainers at universities, they can provide students with more tasks to practice in this case their understanding of translation concept may be enhanced and at the end, this may lead to advancement of translation ability.

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THE EFFECT OF USING READING ALOUD ON IMPROVING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION OF WORD STRESS

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Abstract
This study aimed to investigate the improvement of Iranian EFL students' English pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words by reading-aloud after listening to a native speaker model. To achieve this purpose 60 EFL subjects were selected from among 120 EFL learners based on their performance on placement test of OPT and they were randomly assigned into two groups of control and experimental, 30 participants in each. An identical pretest and post test of pronunciation was run at the beginning and end of the study to show the possible pronunciation differences of the groups. The experimental group received treatment that was reading the recorded texts aloud after listening to the native models for ten sessions with one week time interval whereas the control group received placebo in which they just listened to the recorded texts but they did not read it aloud after the model. The data were analyzed with the use of basic statistics: mean, standard deviation, independent and paired t-test. The findings of the research showed that reading aloud will help students to improve their pronunciation specially the pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words.

Key terms : Pronunciation Ability, Read Aloud, Word Stress

1. Introduction

Pronunciation is the most significant area that EFL/ESL learners need to become proficient in it. As Penny Ur (2001), Jack C. Richard & Renandya (2002) stated,

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pronunciation is the sound of the language, or phonology; stress and rhythm; and intonation and contains the role of single sounds, segmental and supra segmental sounds. Hahn (2004, p. 201) accepts that there is little empirical study for claims that instructing supra-segmentals is helpful and that "knowing how the various prosodic features actually affect the way native speakers process nonnative speech would considerably build up the grounds for contemporary pronunciation pedagogy."

Reading aloud is mentioned in the academic literature by some of the researchers as an assessment technique by which reading is tested (Fordham, Holland &Millican, 1995; Alderson, 2000a), while others attach importance to it in a different way. Panova (1989) says that reading a text aloud is important for maintaining and perfecting the pronouncing skills of the learners. Panova's view supports that of Klychnikova (1972), according to whom by means of oral reading it is possible to master the sound system of a foreign language and it strengthens the phonetic ability to recode signals at the letter level, as well as at the level of word, sentence and text.

This study tried to answer the following question:

Does using reading aloud have any significant effect on improving Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words?

2. Literature Review

Pronunciation teaching in the ESL or EFL program of study has changed along with the historical structure of language learning theories and methodologies. Before advancement of the direct method in the late nineteenth century, not much attention was paid to pronunciation in the language classrooms.

Supporters of the direct method declared that a major attention on listening skill without forcing the learners to speak permits them to improve grammar inductively and to internalize the target sound system before speaking, nearly the same as the way children acquire their first language (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996, as cited in Aufderhaar, 2004).

The time-consuming nature of this method was criticized, so grammar translation approach reappeared again in which pronunciation received very little attention (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996, as cited in Aufderhaar, 2004).

Based on Skinner's (1957) theory of behaviorism in audio-lingual method the oral skills are gained by stimulus-response behaviors which was environmentally directed and insisted through careful oral drilling (Brown, 1997). In audio-lingual method unlike the grammar-translation method, pronunciation was considered to be the most important concern (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996, as cited in Aufderhaar, 2004).

The strongest critic of Audiolingualism was Chomsky (1957), whose introduction of the generative-transformational theory viewed the underlying meaning of the whole as being more important than any one part. His focus on the creative, rule-governed nature of competence and performance led many educators to the conclusion that pronunciation should remain inductively within the context of morphology and syntax (Kreidler, 1989). Based on his hypothesis all language skills, including listening comprehension, verbal production and pronunciation, are so merged that there is no need to consider them as unconnected and distinctive attribute (Brown, 1997).

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The domination of Chomsky's generative-transformational theory, accompanied by the cognitive-code theory of the 1960s, which centre on listening at the discourse level laid the foundations for the movement to disregard direct pronunciation teaching altogether. Moreover, the emergence of the communicative approach considered the teaching of pronunciation as unproductive, as an alternative, it stressed language functions higher up than forms. Mac Carthy (1976) stated that teaching pronunciation is unbeneficial and a kind of waste of time. Many communicative approach educators concluded that pronunciation expertise would be obtained innately within second or foreign language circumstances and communicative implementation.

Nevertheless, pronunciation was not absolutely disregarded in the time of the 1960s through the mid 1980s. The proponents of the audio-lingual approach considered language learning as a process of mastering hierarchies of structurally related items for encoding meaning (Morley, 1991). When pronunciation was considered, instruction was generally directed toward the drilling of single sounds through articulatory accounts and comparing minimal pairs (Chun, 2002).

Standpoints extended from significant interrogating as to whether pronunciation could be overtly instructed and acquired at all (Chun, 2002), to fixed declaration that adults were unprofessional to get second language pronunciation (Scovel, 1988).

Madsen and Bowen (1978) stated that ignoring pronunciation, which was common in the communicative approach and the belief that pronunciation could not be taught, caused that many EFL students failed to communicate effectively or even intelligibly in spite of the fact that they had been instructed for a long time. This gave rise to research in second language acquisition that suggested a shift from the traditional, bottom-up phonemic-based approach to pronunciation teaching toward a top-down orientation focusing on supra-segmental or prosodic aspects such as rhythm, intonation, and duration and stress pattern.

Teaching pronunciation is part of the communicative approach, and traditionally, teachers of English pronunciation have used the phonetic alphabet, and activities such as practicing of transcription, diagnosing passages, comprehensive description of the articulatory systems, discrimination/ recognition tasks, developmental guess drills, focused production tasks (e.g., minimal pairs drills, contextualized sentence practice, reading short passage or dialogue, reading aloud/ recitation), tongue twisters and games (e.g., pronunciation Bingo). Other popular methods are listening and imitating, using visual aids, practicing the vowel shifts and stress and recordings of learner's production (Celce- Murcia et al., 1996).

2.1 Pronunciation in applied linguistics

In spite of the fact that achieving native-like pronunciation that smooth the way for mutual intelligibility is regarded significant for many language learners and teachers, there have been few practical researches of pronunciation in applied linguistics (Derwing & Munro, 2006; Levis, 2005). For example, Munro and Derwing (2006, p. 386) stated, "It is widely acknowledged that supra-segmentals are very important to intelligibility, but so far few studies support this view." Other researchers such as Hahn (1994) and Levis (2005) also support this claim and state that over the past 25

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years there has been inspiration to teach supra-segmentals even though extremely little pedagogy has been originated in practical research confirm this statement.

The effectiveness of experiential research for developing more successful pronunciation teaching is evident. As Levis (2005) states, "instruction should bring into focus those properties that are most beneficial for apprehension and should ignore those that are comparatively unhelpful" (pp. 370-371). Based on Munro and Derwing (2006) verifying a set of preference for teaching is crucial. For example, if one aspect of pronunciation instruction encourages intelligibility than some other aspect, more attention should be paid to it. Obviously, the most important elements should be known to establish most advantageous instruction and learning results.

Hahn (2004, p. 201) accepts that there is little empirical evidence for claims that instructing supra-segmentals is beneficial and that "knowing how the various prosodic features actually affect the way native speakers process nonnative speech would considerably build up the grounds for contemporary pronunciation pedagogy." For that reason, Hahn (2004) restates that it is important to identify the phonological features that are principal for native listeners. Due to the complex relationship between supra-segmentals and intelligibility, Hahn (2004) argues, "it is helpful to separate distinct supra-segmental features for analyses" (p. 201). These arguments support the importance of the research in this study in which the effect of using reading aloud on improving Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words have been investigated.

Avery and Ehrlich, (1992, cited in Ohata, 2004) believed that the foreign accent of non-natives can be due to the influence of their native languages. It is also stated that the pronunciation errors made by second/foreign language learners are not random errors to produce unfamiliar sounds, but rather reflections of the sound inventory, rules of combining sounds, and the stress and intonation patterns of their first languages (Swan and Smith, 1987, cited in Ohata, 2004).

What Avery and Ehrlich (1992) mentioned here is that the role of the native language is very important to the second language pronunciation learning because the native language not only affects the ability to produce English sounds but also the ability to hear English sounds. Celce-Murcia and Goodwin (1991) suggest that the learner's L1 is effective in the acquisition of L2 pronunciation. She believes that L1 transfer is more prevalent in the area of pronunciation than in grammar and lexicon.

As the native language is a very influential factor affecting a learner's pronunciation, 'EFL teachers should be familiar with the sound system of a learner's native language to diagnose L1 – L2 carryovers' (Brown, 1994The phonological differences between the learner's native language and English can be exhibited not only in the individual sounds but also in combinations of sounds and features such as stress, intonation and rhythm (Kenworthy, 1987; Brown, 1994). To put it in a nut shell, "the more differences there are, the more difficulties the learner will have in pronouncing English" (Kenworthy, 1987, p.4).

Although some aspects of the contrastive phonology and phonetics of English and Persian have already been considered in a number of publications (e.g. in Yarmohammadi, 1969; Hayati, 1997; Fotovatnia, 2006), there are few studies investigating both segmental and suprasegmental problems of Iranian EFL learners

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together. The difficulties that Iranian EFL students might encounter in learning English pronunciation stem from the differences between English and Persian phonological features, which results in failure to perceive the English sound system.
Foreign language teachers have always thought of the sources of learners' errors in their written productions. In order to prove such a thing they tried to write down the sources of these errors by contrasting their native language and the target language through their observations of the students' performance (Kelly, 1969).In order to see the most important difference in terms of word stress between English and Persian (Farsi), the researcher reviewed the contrast of word stress in Persian and English in this paper based the title of the research.

2.1.1 Word Stress in Persian and English

Stress is defined as the production of a syllable or word with more force than the surrounding syllables or words (Celce – Murcia and Olshtain, 2000). Stress is a fundamental aspect in intelligible pronunciation that EFL learners should practice placing stress on syllables because English is a 'stress – timed' language (Pennington and Richards, 1986, p.210). Similarly, Pahuja (1995) underlined that the use of stress characterizes English compared to many African languages. Hence, our students deserve to learn word and sentence stress patterns of English with a better focus.
English word has 'a distinct stress pattern that interacts with other prosodic features', and with incorrect word stress, the entire utterances can go wrong (Celce – Murcia and Olshtain, 2000, p.33). In multi –syllabic English words one of the syllables will be produced in prominence (Roach, 1991). In other words, the stressed syllable is heard louder with its vowel held longer and the consonant pronounced clearly (Kenworthy, 1987). These factors work together in combinations, but syllables may sometimes be stressed by one or two of the factors (Roach, 1991). For example, the first syllable in the word 'mother' and the second syllable in the word 'about' are stressed – made prominent (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000, p.33).). In speech, we highlight the more important word by using stress to signal the listener to pay attention to the core meaning of utterances (Kenworthy, 1987). Thus, difficulty in using correct stress patterns will cause communication breakdown. In connection to this, Roach (1991) said one of the most important reasons of intelligibility problems of EFL learners is the incorrect stress placement so it needs to be taking care of very seriously.
According to Celce- Murcia et al. (2010), Stress placement in English words is for the most part a rule-governed phenomenon, and explicit teaching of word stress patterns should be part of ESL pronunciation curriculum. They also mentioned that incorrect placement of stress can cause misunderstanding.
Persian words pronounced in isolation have the strongest stress on one syllable. It is somewhat agreed that stress is predominantly on the final syllable of simple words.

ketab' (book) Ziba' (beautiful)
madar' (mother) name' (letter)

There are nevertheless some exceptions to this claim; that is, inflectional endings, infinitives of verbs, when added to the dictionary entry form of the simple words, cause a shift of stress (see Ferguson, 1957).

mir'-ravam. (I go)

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Ketab-ha' (books)
Ziba-tar' (more beautiful)
Name-rasan' (mailman)

In English, on the contrary, it is not so easily predictable. Knowing the number of syllables of the English words, one cannot predict the stress placement because the strongest stress could usually occur anywhere regardless of the grammatical functions of the words. It may fall on the first as in for'tunately, on the second as rheto'rical, on the third as in agricul'tural, on the fourth as in misrepresent'.

As far as the nominal compounds are concerned, the stress rule is different in both languages. In Persian it occurs finally but in English it falls on the first member of the compound.

English words in isolation or in connected speech naturally receive stress that eventually results in intonation carrying information over and above that which is expressed by the words in the utterance. Hence, English is a stress-timed language possessing a speech rhythm in which the stressed syllables recur at equal intervals of time (Richards et al. 1985). Word stress in Persian is progressive and consequently the stress falls on the final syllable of word

There are a number of activities teachers can do to help learners use word stress correctly. Lead perception exercises on duration of stress, loudness of stress, and pitch. According to Field (2005) these exercises will help learners distinguish the difference between stressed and unstressed syllables. For example, learners can be taught to recognize where stress falls in words with two or more syllables by learning the rules of parts of speech and word stress (e.g., the primary stress is on the first syllable in compound nouns such as airplane, lapscape). Learners can also use a pronunciation computer program, such as American Speech sounds (Hiser & Kopecky, 2009), to learn the duration and loudness of stress. Do exercises on recognizing and producing weak, unstressed syllables (Field, 2005). For example, one exercise helps learners identify computer voice recognition mistakes that have occurred because of mispronunciation of weak vowel forms (e.g., Alaska if she wants to come with us" instead of" I'll ask if she wants to come with us" (Hancock, 1998, p. 80). Present pronunciation rules for stress (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994). For example, teach learners that in reflexive pronouns, the stress is always on the syllable -self (e.g., herself, themselves (Grant, 2010, p. 57). Teach word stress when teaching vocabulary (Field, 2005). For example, any time that new words are introduced, point out to learners where the major stress falls. Use analogy exercises (Field, 2005). Words sharing similar stress patterns are easier for listeners to remember (Aitchison, 2003). For example, give learners a list of words with similar stress and ask them to state the rule (e.g., in compound adverbs of location, such as outside, downtown, and indoors, the stress is on the final syllable (Hancock, 1998, p. 69). Redpath, co-author of Incredible English, teacher trainer and ELT consultant, in his article (2011), discusses practicing and correcting pronunciation through activities that encourage students to read aloud in class. According to him the aim of reading aloud is important. One of these aims which often cited by teachers is to improve pronunciation. Reading aloud helps learners learn better, especially pronunciation. Whisper reading can help learners understand the conceptual information and inspire their imagination as well as guessing. Panova (1989) says that

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reading a text aloud is important for maintaining and perfecting the pronouncing skills of the learners.

2.2 Oral Reading or Reading Aloud

Reading aloud is mentioned in the academic literature by some of the researchers as an assessment technique by which reading is tested (Fordham, Holland & Millican, 1995; Alderson, 2000a), while others attach importance to it in a different way. Panova (1989) says that reading a text aloud is important for maintaining and perfecting the pronouncing skills of the learners. Panova's view supports that of Klychnikova (1972), according to whom by means of oral reading it is possible to master the sound system of a foreign language and it strengthens the phonetic ability to recode signals at the letter level, as well as at the level of word, sentence and text. She considers that at the elementary stage of language learning, reading aloud is an important means in developing a phonic reading technique, while at the advanced level it mainly plays the role of expressive reading. Medgyes (1997), states that he likes his learners to read a dialogue in English lessons aloud. He believes that reading aloud does not only improve the learners' pronunciation in the foreign language, but it also helps teachers to see whether the learners understood the meaning of the words, the sentences, and the discourse.

In contrast, Dwyer (1983) has objections to the teaching of oral reading. She considers that:

- it reinforces the idea that reading and pronunciation are related, thereby strengthening the tendency to subvocalize when reading silently;
- it slows down reading by forcing the student to focus on each word;
- when reading aloud, a student may lose all sense of the meaning of what he is reading, a fact that defeats the very purpose of reading;
- when students mispronounce and misread some words, the teacher interrupts the reading to correct miscues, thereby further impeding the flow of meaning extraction.

Perhaps one of the reasons why RA has been and still is regarded with suspicion is the fact that it is almost always employed as a while-reading comprehension activity. However, because of the difficulty of focusing on meaning and pronunciation at the same time, this is unlikely to be its most effective use. Also, there seems to be the assumption that RA has to involve individual students reading the whole or large chunks of texts, while the rest of the class sit inactive, and thus, unengaged.

Helgesen and Gakuin (1993) also list several disadvantages of oral reading, some of them resembling certain drawbacks pointed out by Dwyer (1983). Among these, the authors highlight the fact that oral reading is slower than silent reading, and they also stress readers' incapability to focus on meaning construction when reading aloud. Helgesen and Gakuin (1993) declare that the benefit of oral reading to language learners is questionable. They emphasize that oral reading following the traditional mechanism in the foreign language classroom – i.e. one learner is reading a printed text out loud while the others are supposed to listen – does not lead to language learning success at all, and "simple mumbl[ing] along in a sing-song drone" (p. 261) cannot result in learning. However, one should bear in mind when interpreting

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Helgesen and Gakuin's claims that the authors do not refer to any empirical evidence while calling attention to learner's oral reading as a teaching technique.
However, Helgesen and Gakuin (1993) admit that activities involving reading aloud are still very popular in many English as a FL classrooms around the world; therefore, they propose various tasks to be used in such classrooms. They suggest that at the beginning level oral reading should be employed in the classroom as it helps in acquiring proper spelling-sound correspondence. And It seems to be enjoying some renewed interest, if on a small scale. Gibson (2008) argues that it has a number of beneficial effects, such as promoting autonomous learning, improving pronunciation, helping to give anxious students the courage to speak, and use as a proofreading technique, and thus argues for its use in language teaching, albeit 'sparingly'. There are, also, many other possibilities for RA, including integrating it into speaking, pronunciation, pre- and post-reading activities, using it in intonation practice, and as a vehicle for vocabulary learning. As Mumford (2009) stated in his study about rethinking RA, part of the problem is the fact that RA is associated with a particular type of reading activity. RA is seen exclusively as a combined comprehension and pronunciation activity. In addition, As Grellet (1981) notes, most texts are not designed to be read aloud, however, we can easily create texts that are. Even those texts that are not can be a vehicle for activities which contain limited, selective elements of RA. In sum, the use of oral reading or reading aloud has claimed advantages as well as disadvantages. There is a debate over its relevance in the English language classroom. There has no consensus been reached yet, but oral reading/ RA continues to be applied in many EFL classes, and also, learners continue to make miscues when reading orally. For the purposes of this research, based on the academic literature the construct of reading aloud is defined as the process during which the learner listen to the native model and utters a printed text out loud in the English language lesson. The text pronounced by the learner is a printed passage in the learner's textbook which had been recorded by a standardized Native speaker.

2.3 Relates studies on the analysis of pronunciation of Iranian EFL learners stress pattern

Some studies showed that most of the Iranian EFL learners are facing some phonological difficulties while learning Modern Standard English as a foreign language.

In a study, Hayati (1997) compared the stress pattern in English with Persian. He found that Persian words pronounced in isolation have the strongest stress on one syllable; the rest remain less stressed or unstressed. Additionally, he maintains that in Persian, stress is mainly on the final syllable of simple words. As far as the nominal compounds are concerned, the stress rule is different in both languages. In Persian, it occurs finally but in English it falls on the first member of the compound.

Contrastive studies of Gordani and Khajavi(2012) of Persian-English on word stress showed that when the participants rendered "heavens" in the reading text as [hev'enz] thereby placing the primary stress on the final syllable. It may be argued that this error is due to the negative transfer of Persian where the primary stress tends to have its concentration on the final syllables of words and expressions.

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There are even cases in which the participants misplace the primary stress on the second syllable: e.g. "interesting" was rendered as [in'teresting] instead of [ˈintrəstinŋ]. This may be a case of detective teaching or the negative result of participants' meticulous attention to pronounce the word as correctly as possible. So, there is evidence that the students' L1 (Persian) has an effect on their production of speech sounds of the English language.

In supra- segmental mode Seddighi(2010) investigated that stress pattern was one of the most difficult areas for pronunciation, the beginners put the stress pattern on the second syllable of three-syllable words resulted in incorrect stress assignment. The intermediate level students put the stress on the second syllable in the word navy which should be placed on the first syllable. Among two syllable words, the advanced students changed the correct stress pattern. For instance, the stress of the word navy was placed on the second syllable and the word correct, on the first syllable which is not the case.

Vafaei ,Sadeghpour and Hassani(2013) investigated the pronunciation of stress pattern of 30 intermediate Iranian EFL learners in Jouya English institute in Tehran. 80 words selected from participants' text books. The words were divided into four groups according to the number of syllables and the place of stress; the first group consisted of 20 two-syllable words with stress on the first syllable, the second group was a 20 two-syllable words with stress is on the second syllable, the third group consisted of 20 three-syllable words with the stress was on the first syllable, and Lastly the fourth group included 20 three-syllable words with stress is on the second syllable. Participants were asked to read the words which were selected as a production test. Participants' performance was audio taped to find out on which syllable of the word the stress is put. The results revealed that participants were more successful in pronouncing the words whose stress was on the first syllable in comparison to those having stress on the second syllable.

2.4 Studies on Using Reading Aloud

Although reading aloud receives considerable emphasis in English as a first language, it is traditionally discouraged by EFL teachers and methodology specialists. Reading aloud is not a new activity, for a large number of teachers worldwide reading aloud constitutes a staple of the classroom diet» (Gabrielatos, 2002, p. 1) and several researchers have recently enhanced its value for the classroom (Birch, 2002; Gibson, 2008). According to the present paper author's EFL teaching experiences reading aloud after native model, in fact, is particularly important for EFL learners at the early stage of learning to improve their pronunciation. Only a few studies have examined reading aloud via authentic material which are reviewed in this paper.

Ortiz et al.(2009-2010) study on 45 students of 1st course of Foreign languages in the Faculty of Teacher Training in Cáceres, Spain showed that by using specific self-training reading aloud program consisted of different steps which was designed to cater for individual needs, teacher can help students to improve their weak pronunciation. These steps included; selection of authentic material, support, typing texts, ICT samples, authentic audio file. After the 4step of the study they noticed that most of the students had basically improved their pronunciation. Of course this

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improvement was directly related to the amount of practice each one had undertaken. The more they worked on it, the better yielding they got. The result of the study showed that the 54% of the students who had listened to the text more than twice a week got higher marks than the rest. A relative improvement in reading aloud was showed on 33% of the students who had practiced the text twice a week, and the 13% of the students who had listened to the text just once a week. The result of the study also indicated that providing students with authentic audio files when reading helped them to be successful in their pronunciation. Those students who practiced more than twice a week by means of authentic audio files got the highest marks .So it was noticeable that the use of authentic audio files by using specific self-training reading aloud program helped the students to acquire not only a good pronunciation but also suprasegmental features such as intonation, rhythm and speed when reading aloud.
Ibarrola's (2011) small scale pilot study on a group of 15Spanish university students showed the improvement of these EFL learners' English pronunciation through reading the texts aloud by imitating the pronunciation of the original recordings and focusing on connected speech features and intonation. During 14 weeks the students were provided with a wide range of recorded texts (mainly from films and TV series) Contrary to some textbook recordings, extracts from films and TV series provide natural and contextualized speech samples. Also, using this type of texts is probably more motivating for the students than simply using textbooks. It is thus Ibarrola's belief that these innovations make the reading aloud activity useful, attractive and challenging. In addition, this activity does not mean heavy workload for teachers. Therefore, it offers an alternative for those teachers who already use reading aloud activities in the traditional sense as well as for those teachers who simply wish to introduce new pronunciation tasks in their teaching practice. So the participants of this study simply had to listen to the extracts carefully and imitate them, that is, they had to read the texts aloud. At the end of the course they were also asked to speak freely about a topic of their choice (approx.1 minute). This was used to analyze if the students were able to transfer the pronunciation features used in the imitations to their own natural speech.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

In the present study, 60 Iranian EFL learners studying in Saba nonprofit junior high school in Rasht, Guilan province were selected and homogenized from among 120 female students of the third grades after administering a placement test. The students' age rang was between 14 to15.

3.2 Instruments

The following instruments were used for the present study:

3) Oxford Placement Test (OPT)
4) A Pronunciation test used to determine the ability of the learners in pronunciation of the problematic segmental phonemes and first -stressed two syllable words.

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3.3 Procedures

First, to homogenize the participants, an OPT test was administered which included three parts and the participants took the structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension sections of the test with a maximum possible score of 100 points. Those whom score fell + 1SD from the mean score were selected as the main sample for the present study. Second, the participants randomly assigned to two groups including one control group and one experimental group .Third, a short text of reading aloud which was chosen from the participants' English text book and contained about 25 first -stressed two syllable words was used as pre and post tests of pronunciation in this study. The researcher chose the text based on the frequencies of the determined variable included within the texts. Fourth, the treatment focus was on pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words through reading aloud. Despite that, the experimental group received a specific treatment on reading aloud after the model, which took place about 10 sessions with one week time interval that is 20 hours of input, the control group followed the traditional methods of practicing dialogues and texts without any consideration of the pronunciation through reading aloud. By the end of the study the students' pronunciation ability was tested again through administering a post test that was identical version of pre-test.

3.4 Data Analysis

In the analysis phase of this study, the results obtained from the pronunciation tests were summed up and the procedures of descriptive statistics (including frequencies, means, standard deviations, etc) were conducted on them. Independent samples t-tests were then run in order to find out if there was a significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of their pronunciation of first-stressed two syllable words. In order to investigate students' progress within groups, two paired t-tests were also run, which showed the subjects' progress in pre-test and post-test

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Examining the Normality of the Distribution

Before running the independent samples T-test, Skeweness analysis along with Kolmogrov – Smirnove test were done to check the normality assumption. The results of the Skewness analysis, as it is signified in Table 1, revealed that the assumption of normality was observed in the distribution of the scores. Skewness indices for all distributions were within the range of + 2. The results indicated that the distribution is symmetric. This sample of EFL learners averaged about 6.88 for Word stress (control group- pre test), 7.71 for Word stress (experimental group- pre test) .In post test these participants averaged 7.21 for Word stress (control group- post test), 10.35 for Word stress (experimental group- post test).

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Table1.
The results of the Skewness analysis

		Word stress (control group- pre test)	Word stress (experimental group- post test)	Word stress (control group- post test)	Word stress (experimental group- post test)
N	Valid	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		6.88	7.71	7.21	10.35
Skewness		**-.163**	**-.377**	**.254**	**.036**
Std. Error of Skewness		.427	.427	.427	.427
Kurtosis		**-1.118**	**.700**	**-.899**	**-1.097**
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.833	.833	.833	.833
Sum		206.50	231.50	216.50	310.50

4.2 Inter-Rator Correlations

The measure of inter- rater reliability for the two raters, which is the Pearson product-moment correlation, is reported in Table 2 and 3, the Pearson correlation provided the overall agreement of the two primary raters. The inter rater reliability measured by the Pearson correlation for word stress scores of the experimental and control groups were .805** and .881*, which are all considered to be acceptable.

Table 2.Inter rater correlation for the pre-test scores of the experimental group

		Word stress rater B
Word stress rater A	Pearson Correlation	**.805****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	30

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Table 3.
Inter rater correlation for the pre- test scores of the control group

		Word stress rater B
Word stress rater A	*Pearson Correlation*	***.881*** **
	Sig. (2-tailed)	*.000*
	N	*30*

4.3Descriptive Statistics for the Pre -Test Scores of the Pronunciation Tests
Before introducing the specific treatment on reading aloud for the experimental group and placebo for the control group, the two groups were examined in terms of their pronunciation of first-stressed two syllable words by administering a pronunciation pre test in the predetermined area. There was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in pre test of pronunciation tests ($p>0.05$), that is: the control and experimental groups were almost at the same level of proficiency in terms of their pronunciation ability in first- stressed two syllable words in the administered test at the beginning of the study.

Table 4.
Group statistics for the pre- test scores of the control and experimental groups

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Word stress	control	30	6.8833	2.19200	.40020
	experimental	30	7.7167	1.70032	.31043

4.1 Investigating the Research Question
To answer the research question, i.e., whether reading aloud affected the two groups' pronunciation proficiency in terms of Word stress, an independent t-test was run to the results of the post- test to compare the experimental and control groups. The results showed that reading aloud affected the pronunciation proficiency (Word stress) of the two groups differently ($t_{\text{Word stress}}= -6.23; 0.00 <.05$). In fact, learners' performance in the experimental group (mean $_{\text{Word stress}}$=10.3500) by a great deal exceeded that of the control group (mean $_{\text{Word stress}}$=7.2167) in post test.

Table5.
Group statistics for the post- test scores of the control and experimental groups

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Word stress (post test)	control	30	7.2167	1.76500	.32224
	experimental	30	10.3500	2.10971	.38518

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The mean score of the control group was 7.2167 and standard deviation was 1.76500, the mean and standard deviation of the experimental group were 10.3500, and 2.10971 respectively.

Table 6.
Independent samples test for the post- test scores of the control and experimental groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Word stress post test	Equal variances assumed	**1.23**	**.272**	**-6.23**	**58**	**.000**	**-3.13**	**.50**	**-4.13**	**-2.12**
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.23	56.24	.000	-3.13	.50	-4.13	-2.12

To answer the research question, i.e., whether reading aloud affected the two groups' pronunciation proficiency in terms of Word stress, an independent t-test was run to the results of the post- test to compare the experimental and control groups. The results of independent samples t-test for the post-test in tables 5 and 6, showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in their post- test ($p<0.05$). Actually, the experimental group notably performed better than the control group in the post-test of word stress. The results indicated that reading aloud had been effective in improving students' word stress in the experimental group and thus the second null hypothesis is rejected, too suggesting that reading aloud affects Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation proficiency in word stress.

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Table7.Paired samples Statistics for the two groups in pre and post tests

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Word stress (control group- pre test) - Word stress (control group- post test)	-.333	.92	.16	-.67	.01	-1.98	29	.057
Pair 2	Word stress (experimental group- pre test) - Word stress (experimental group- post test)	-2.63	2.72	.49	-3.65	-1.61	-5.28	29	.00

As depicted in the table 7 both control and experimental groups had progressed in the post-test. Based on the results of paired t-test, this progress is statistically significant just for the experimental group but not for the control group (P experimental group <0.05, P control group ≥0.05).

In other words, the experimental group made a substantially higher progress as compared to the control group in the post- pronunciation test in terms of pronunciation of first-stressed two syllable words

5. Conclusion

The present paper investigated the possible impact of reading aloud on Iranian grade three junior high school EFL students' pronunciation of first- stressed two syllable words. Based on the data obtained from the study, it was observed that the answer to the research questions is yes. In other words, subjects in the experimental group seemed to have improved their pronunciation of first – stressed two syllable words after receiving specific treatment on reading aloud. This also means that providing reading aloud enabled them to improve their pronunciation of word stress of foreign language. As a result the researcher can claim that based on the result of this study reading aloud can affect the improvement of pronunciation.

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THE STUDY OF DIFFERENT LANGUAGE VIEWS PREVALENT IN TEACHING A SECOND LANGUAGE: EVIDENCE FROM IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract
The present study investigates the distinction between two language views prevalent in English institutes: "language as system vs. language as discourse". Finding out the dominant linguistic approach in the teaching method at intermediate level was the goal of the study. To investigate the dominant approach in teaching method, 15 intermediate English classes were surveyed. Based on a questionnaire that all of the English learners of Rezvanshahr institutes (Guilan province, Iran) answered it, 15 teachers who got the best scores, were chosen for this study. Two checklists were developed the items of which represented the views of "language as system" and "language as discourse" to survey the views in the teachers' method of teaching. The data retrieved from the observations was analyzed through the nonparametric test namely Wilcoxon. The results indicated that the means of the two language views were significantly different and the prevalent language view in teaching was language as system.

Keywords: System, Discourse.

1. Introduction
Language teaching came into its own as a profession in the twentieth century. The whole foundation of contemporary language teaching was developed during the early part of the twentieth century, as applied linguists and others sought to develop

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principles and procedures for the design of teaching methods and materials, drawing on the developing fields of linguistics and psychology to support a succession of proposals for what were thought to be more effective and theoretically sound teaching methods. Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent changes and innovations and by the development of sometimes competing teaching ideologies.

Many researchers in the field of applied linguistics have been trying to find out teaching methods, classroom techniques, and instructional materials that would promote better language instruction. The theoretical concepts already discussed have helped applied linguists to derive useful conceptual guidelines about language teaching. They are aimed at addressing questions such as what is language, and what does it mean to know and use a language. They form the bases for effective language teaching. Kumaravadivelu (2006) observed:

Knowing an L_2 may be considered as having linguistic knowledge /ability and pragmatic knowledge/ ability required to use the language with grammatical accuracy and communicative appropriacy (p.24)

The task of the teacher in the context of classroom-based L_2 learning and teaching, is to help learners reach a desired level of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge. That addresses their needs and wants. In order to carry out such a task, the teacher should be aware of the factors and processes that are considered to facilitate L_2 development an important aspect of L_2 development is the conversion of language input into learner output.

2.1 Language as System

Over recent years, there has been considerable work in attempting to understand various aspects of speech and language in terms of dynamical systems. Some of the most elegant and well-developed work has focused on motor control, particularly within the domain of speech. One of the principal challenges has been whether or not these dynamical systems can deal in a satisfactory way with the apparently recursive nature of grammatical structure.

Unlike Chomskey who, as we all know, focused on the "ideal" speaker-hearer and abstract body of syntactic structures, Hymes, one of the critics of Chomskey, focused on the "real" speaker-hearer who operates in the concrete world of interpersonal communication. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) wrote:

Hymes maintains that in order to operate successfully within a speech community, a person has to be not just grammatically correct but communicatively appropriate also, that is, a person has to learn what to say, how to say it, when to say it and to whom to say it (p.117)

Crucial to understanding language is the idea of systematicity. Languages organize their parts of speech into classes according to their functions and positions relative to other parts. All languages, for instance, make a basic distinction between a group of words that denote things and concepts and a group of words that denote actions and events. Language as system enables the language user to combine phonemes to form words, words to form phrases, phrases to form sentences, and sentences to form

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spoken or written texts, each unit following its own rules as well as the rules of combination.

As we learn from any introductory textbook in linguistics, the central core of language as system consists of the phonological system that deals with the patterns of sound, the semantic system that deals with the meaning of words, and the syntactic system that deals with the rules of grammar. From one perspective, as Kumaravadivelu (2006) stated "a study of language is basically a study of its systems and subsystems" (p.4). By treating language as system, we are merely acknowledging that each unit of language, from a single sound to a complex word to a large text has a character of its own, and each is, in some principled way, delimited by and dependent upon its co-occurring unit.

2.2 Language as Discourse

Discourse is an elusive term and has been used by different people to mean different things. As McCarthy stated, the study of discourse has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline (McCarthy, 1991).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) stated "discourse (from Latin *discursus*, meaning 'running to and from') generally refers to 'written or spoken communication' (p.13). In the field of linguistics, the term *discourse* is used to refer generally to "an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g. words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor" (Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p.63). Thus understood, however, discourse refers to too wide an area of human life, therefore only discourse from the vantage point of linguistics, and especially applied linguistics, is explained here. The focus here is a connected and contextualized unit of language use.

McCarthy (1991) is also concerned with discourse as language in use but is more detailed in his definition, arguing that discourse is "a description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences with affect language in use" (p.7).

Both Cook and McCarthy approach discourse from a second language teaching and learning perspective. Gee (1990) distinguishes between *little d discourse* and *capital D Discourse*. Little d discourse is "connected stretches of language that make sense" i.e. related to cook's and McCarthy's definitions above. Capital d discourse, on the other hand, is:

A socially accepted association among ways of using language, of thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and of acting that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or social network or to signal a socially meaningful role (Cited in Moor, 1997, p.65)

Moor (1997) makes the point that Gee's conclusion is that discourses can be learned (and therefore taught) whereas Discourses are mastered through acquisition, not learning. However it would seem that the two discourses are not mutually exclusive but rather inextricably intertwined. The sense (or meaning) in discourse, i.e. in connected stretches of language, only makes sense within the context of particular Disourses.

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Discourse is language in use; language as communication; with an interest *above the sentence* in the contexts and cultural influences which affect the way that the language is used. Consequently an argument favoring teaching English as discourse means teaching English as it is used in real communication. Such an approach highlights the socio-cultural influences which contextualize the communicative event, and discerns how these influences drive the participants' language choices. The communication exists in the form of a text; therefore text is the logical starting point for analyzing discourse in the classroom. In a discourse approach, the text is unraveled to identify the influences acting on its construction, e.g. the nature of the social relationship between the participants and their communicative purposes. The teaching explicates the way these factors are encoded in language choices across all levels, from text structures (i.e. genre) and cohesive devices and to the grammatical structures and lexis at the sentence level.

It is important to note that this approach does not exclude a focus on grammar. Grammatical accuracy is obviously an important element in being able to communicate in a language. However as cook (1989) stated "we should recognize that there is more to producing and understanding meaningful language-to communicating- than knowing how to make or recognize correct sentences" (p.76). In summary, teaching English as discourse includes analysis of formal sentence grammar but more importantly, focuses *above the sentence* to systematically identify the socio-cultural influences which shape a text, including the choice of grammatical features at the sentence level.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

Participants of the study were 15 male teachers at intermediate classes of English institutes in Rezvanshahr, these teachers were selected based on a questionaire answered by all of the learners in Rezvanshahr institutes. The questionaire included 20 questions about the characteristics of effective teachers. Based on the results of the questionaire, 15 teachers who got the highest scores were selected for the observation part of the study. Each of these 15 classes was observed for three sessions.

3.2 Instruments

The following instruments were used for the present study:

1. A questionnaire for selecting the most effective teachers based on the learners' views
2. Two checklists, one for the features of language as system, the other for the features of language as discourse.

3.3 Procedures

First, to homogenize the participants, a questionnaire administered among all of the intermediate female EFL learners to select the most effective teachers. 15 teachers who got the best scores were chosen for this study. Then two checklists were prepared. Each of these checklists included the features of two language views, separately, one checklist for language as system, and the other for language as discourse. Each of these 15 teachers' classes were observed three sessions. For every teacher two check lists

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were completed, one for language as system, and the other for language as discourse. By the end of the study, the mean of every check list show the dominant view in teachers' method of teaching.

3.4 Data Analysis

Based on the data gathered, a number of statistical analyses were operated. In this study, quantitative along with qualitative methods were used for data analysis. The data was gathered by means of two questionnaires for the purpose of evaluating two language views. The reliability of the questionnaires was estimated through running Cronbach's Alpha to the results of the questionnaire through a pilot study. Finally, as there was one group in this study, according to the given research question, the nonparametric test namely Wilcoxon was run to answer the research questions.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Descriptive statistics for teaching questionnaire

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics for the teaching questionnaire (language as discourse)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1. The teacher teaches the vocabularies within the context.	2.0667	.96115	15
2. In teaching words, pragmatic meaning, in addition to semantic meaning is emphasized.	1.9333	.79881	15
3. Synonyms are offered while distinguishing their context of use.	2.2667	.88372	15
4. The teacher teaches grammatical rules using the context.	2.7333	.88372	15
5. The teacher corrects global/communicative errors.	2.4000	1.05560	15
6. The teacher makes the students work in dyads and groups to complete the communicative tasks.	2.5333	.91548	15
7. The teacher has the students cooperate.	**2.8667**	.83381	15
8. The teacher encourages using non-verbal language for communicative purposes (eye contact, proximics, etc).	2.1333	.83381	15
9. The teacher avails herself of teaching indirect speech act.	2.2667	.96115	15
10. Communication skills, written and spoken, are major focus in the classroom.	2.1333	.74322	15
11. The teacher uses tasks that involve information gap or information transfer.	2.2000	.67612	15
12. After presenting the dialogue of the course book, the teacher holds a discussion on the topic in the	2.0000	.84515	15

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classroom.			
13. The focus is on fluency as much as accuracy.	2.2000	.94112	15
14. Fluency and acceptable language (social appropriacy) is the primary goal.	**1.7333**	.79881	15
15. Communicative competence is the desired goal.	2.0000	.65465	15
16. The students are given problem-solving tasks.	2.3333	.61721	15
17. The teacher pays attention to discourse markers.	2.4000	.91026	15
18. The teacher observes cohesive devices. (ellipsis, substitution, etc)	2.2000	.94112	15
19. Coherence in any of the four skills is prominent in the class.	2.2667	.88372	15

Descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation were displayed for the questionnaire items. The total mean rank reported for this section of the questionnaire equaled (2.25). Moreover, the total standard deviation was (0.84).

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics for the teaching questionnaire (language as system)

	mean	Standard deviation	N
20. The teacher teaches the grammar by giving grammatical formulas out of context.	3.5333	.83381	15
21. The teacher uses single sentences to exemplify grammar rules.	**2.7333**	.96115	15
22. The teacher compares the rules of syntax in L1 vs. L2.	3.3333	.48795	15
23. The teacher corrects all the local grammatical errors.	2.4667	.99043	15
24. The teacher asks the students to translate the passage into L1 word for word.	3.2667	**.45774**	15
25. Students memorize the vocabularies out of context.	3.0667	.25820	15
26. Students apply the grammar rules to examples they are given.	3.0667	1.03280	15
27. The teacher makes use of pattern practice and various kinds of drills after she has presented a grammatical pattern.	3.2667	.79881	15
28. The teacher focuses on correct pronunciation and grammar irrespective of the context of use/communicative context. (Focus on accuracy)	3.1333	.63994	15
29. Words are taught through bilingual word lists.	3.5333	.63994	15
30. Linguistic competence is the desired goal.	**3.6667**	.81650	15
31. Correct spelling is emphasized.	3.3333	.61721	15

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32. The students work individually. (The focus is only on language points).	3.0667	**1.22280**	15
33. The students are trained to do mechanical exercises only.	3.4000	.63246	15
34. Synonyms are offered without explaining their difference in use.	3.3333	.89974	15
35. Interaction at textual level is observed.	2.4000	.63246	15

The results of the descriptive statistics for the second section of the teaching questionnaire revealed that the mean rank of language as system (mean=3.16) was relatively higher than that of language as discourse (mean=2.25). Additionally, the degree of standard deviation for language as system (SD= 0.74) was slightly lower than that of the language as discourse (SD= 0.84).

In order to provide sufficient data to answer the research question, the nonparametric test namely Wilcoxon for the two related samples (EFL teachers' reflection of language as discourse and language as system in their teaching) was run to test the probable differences between these two-paired ranks. The Wilcoxon signed-ranks method tested the null hypothesis that the two related medians were the same. This test compared paired medians from the same (or matched) sample. The results are presented in the following section:

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics for the teaching questionnaire

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
discourse	15	2.2456	.41235	1.68	2.84
system	15	3.1625	.24298	2.50	3.50

The descriptive statistics showed the mean and standard deviation along with minimum and maximum mean ranks for the two sections of the teaching questionnaire (discourse and system).

Table 4.4: Ranks for the two sections of the teaching questionnaire

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
system - discourse	Negative Ranks	0[a]	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15[b]	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0[c]		
	Total	15		

a. system < discourse
b. system > discourse
c. system = discourse

In the Wilcoxon test, ranks were based on the absolute value of the difference between the two test variables. The sign of the difference was used to classify cases into one of three groups: differences below zero (negative ranks), above zero (positive

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rank), or equal to zero (ties). Tied cases were ignored. The rank table disclosed that all 15 cases had positive differences whose ranks summed to 120.

Table 4.5: Test Statistics [a]

	system - discourse
Z	-3.408[b]
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
b. Based on negative ranks.

The standardized Z measured the distance between the rank sum of the negative group and its expected value.

The expected rank sum was 60 (half the sum of all ranks). The Z statistic was -3.408. The probability for the tests (sig= .001) was lower than (.05) indicating that there was a significant difference in EFL teachers' reflection of language as discourse and system in their teaching. This rejects the first null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the amount of consideration given by EFL teachers to one type of language view (system and discourse in their teaching). The following figure illustrates EFL teachers' reflection of language as discourse and system in their teaching methodologies.

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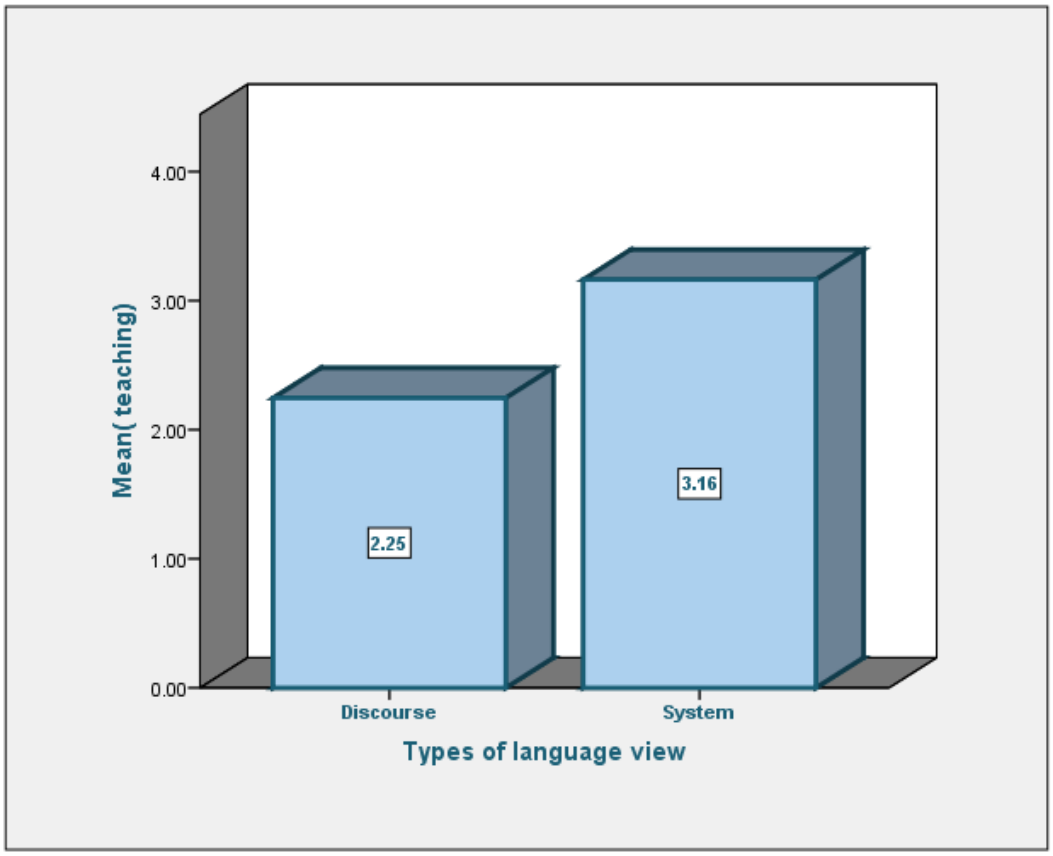

Figure 4.1 EFL teachers' reflection of language as discourse and system in their teaching

5. Conclusion

The difference between language as system and language as discourse was found to be significant at the level of o.91. It shows that the amount of consideration given to language as system by the teachers is higher than consideration paid to language as discourse. As the results show, the higher mean of 3.16 belongs to the category of language as system and the lower mean of 2.25 belongs to language as discourse. Therefore, it can be concluded that the view of language as system was the prevalent view in intermediate institute EFL classrooms based on the findings of the present study.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LOCATION OF THE TOPIC SENTENCE AND THE COMPREHENSION OF A PASSAGE BY IRANIAN ADVANCED EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract
The present article seeks to investigate the relationship between the location of the topic sentence (at the beginning, at the end) and the comprehension of a passage by Iranian advanced EFL learners. Administering version I of Cambridge first certificate test (1991), 60 students, both male and female, of advanced language proficiency were selected from among a total population of two hundred. Their age range was between 22-30. Afterwards, four advanced one-paragraph reading comprehension passages on general topics with topic sentences either at the beginning or at the end were assigned to them haphazardly. Half of the subjects (N=30) who had randomly received the passages with the topic sentences at the beginning were assigned to group A, and the other half (N=30) with the topic sentences at the end to group B. To find out whether the observed difference between the means of these two groups (A& B) on the reading tests was statistically significant, an independent t-test was run. From the obtained data, it could be concluded that the difference was not statistically significant at .05 level. As a result, it can be deduced that advanced learners comprehend reading passages to the same extent regardless of their topic sentence locations. This fact can be accounted for by the interactive compensatory model of reading comprehension proposed by Stanovich (1980).

Key words: topic sentence, reading comprehension, advanced learners, EFL

Introduction

Language is at the center of human life. In twenty first century, being able to speak English, the international language of the world is essential. So, for most people using the most recent methods and equipment, learning this language seems unavoidable. Learning any language requires one to learn all the four skills. From among which reading comprehension is by far considered the most important one, especially for second and foreign language learners. This importance is to the extent that one specific period in the history of language learning/ teaching an approach called reading comprehension emerged which emphasized on reading as an instrument for language

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teaching (Brown, 2000, p45). In the same line, Bright and Macgregor (1970) believe that a person who wants to learn English has to expose him/her self to reading passages a lot unless s/he can move into an English environment. Brusch (1991, p. 156) also states that "….. Where there is little reading, there will be little language learning." Zhang (2001, p. 175) contends that , "…. in "input-poor" environments where students receive very little natural exposure to the target language outside their course material and there may be very limited opportunities for conversing with native, fluent speakers , the receptive skill of reading may assume particularly high importance."

One major advantage of reading, as argued by Chastain (1988) is that language learners can have control over the speed at which they read. This is, in effect, a very important psychological and cognitive variable in learning a complex and new skill. The second benefit of reading is that learners can read in privacy which is an important psychological factor for learners who are worried about reciting in front of their peers. Reading privately in a foreign language for one's own enjoyment may even give the learner new motivation for foreign language grammar lessons in school (Brusch, 1991). Lack of exposure to the spoken mood of language usually causes foreign language learners to resort to its written form to learn it. In fact, most foreign language learners try to increase their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar so that they can read passages for comprehension and/or translation purposes. Furthermore, good reading texts also provide good models for writing, and opportunities to introduce new topics, and to stimulate discussion. Reading then is a skill which is highly valued by the students and students alike.

Reading has been viewed and defined differently in the area of teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language. Behaviorist view reading as a passive activity in so far as the reader's role is seen as only decoding visual symbols into sounds through an exact, detailed, sequential perception and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns. On the other hand, cognitivists believe that reading is an active process requiring the interaction of the reader with the text. Wallace (1992) states that there are two views of reading: reading as a product, and reading as a process. The former view sees the text as the output of the writer that can be recorded and studied. In the latter view, the focus is on the reader's process of constructing meaning from the text. With regard to the processes that readers go through to perform reading, four theoretical methods of reading comprehension have been proposed by scholars: bottom-up, top-down, interactive, and connectionist models.

Gough (1972) proposed what may be called a phonetics-based or data driven or "bottom-up" of the reading process which depicts processing in a serial fashion, from letters, to sounds, to phrases, to clauses, to meaning.

The second model that is set forth by Goodman (1967) is generally referred to as a "top-down" model based on which what readers bring to the text separately in terms of both their prior knowledge of the topic and their knowledge about the language; assist them in predicting what upcoming words will be.

Due to the fact that neither the bottom-up nor the top-down models totally accounts for what occurs during the reading process, Rumelhart (1997) proposed an interactive model in which both letter features or data driven sensory information and non-sensory information come together at one place. As Jannuzi (1997, p.4) maintains,

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"Interactive model attempts to reconcile and combine the apparent strength of the two opposing views (top-down vs. bottom-up) while eliminating the weakness of both." In the same line, Stanovich (1980) proposed a "compensatory interactive model" according to which a deficit in any knowledge source results in heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the processing hierarchy. Thus, the poor reader who has deficient word analysis skills might possibly show greater reliance on contextual factor.

Recently, researchers explain reading within a multi-component, connectionist model according to which information is processed through the interaction of simple computational units which are analogous to neurons. These units experience varying activation states and connected with one another through weight links over which activation flows. Units are usually arranged in layers, with all units in one layer sending connections to all the units in the next layer. If the weight is positive, the sending unit will tend to excite, or increase the activation of the recipient. If the weight is negative, the sender will inhibit the recipient. This effect becomes stronger with an increase in either the activation of the sending unit or the magnitude of the link weight. The activation state of a unit is based on the net effect of the excitation and inhibition produced by its incoming skills.

Regarding second language learning, after reading the fundamentals, one of the major objectives of teaching reading is to enable learners to get the meaning or the main idea of whatever they read. The main idea of a passage is usually in the topic sentence which may be located at the beginning, in the middle, at the end, or it may be implied. Almost all scholars held the view that a paragraph with an explicit topic sentence can help the reader to grasp the subject or main idea more efficiently.

Objectives of the study

The topic sentence of each passage can be located at different positions in a paragraph, or it may be implied. The present study intended to investigate whether there is any relationship between topic sentence location and Iranian advanced EFL learners' reading comprehension. In this relation the following null hypothesis was formulated: "there is no relationship between topic sentence location and Iranian advanced EFL learners' reading comprehension."

Significance of the study

The result of the study will be useful for both practical and theoretical considerations. It will be useful for both teachers and test makers in teaching reading comprehension strategies, selecting reading materials or making tests at the right level of students. Moreover, writers can take advantage of this study in effective paragraph writing.

Review of literature

Most scholars define topic sentence as a sentence that states the main idea of a paragraph (Nuttall, 1996; Chaplen, 1970; Arnaudent and Mary, 1981). But others define it as a sentence that makes a commitment, controls the paragraph, determines the unity of the paragraph, or makes an assertion about the topic of the subject. The topic sentence has two main parts: subject, and focus. Subject indicates what the paragraph

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is about, and focus refers to what the paragraph is going to say about the subject. To create an effective topic sentence the followings must be taken into account: (1) it should always be a complete sentence, (2) it should not merely state a single fact, and (3) it should be a general statement but not too broad or too vague.

English paragraphs usually consist of three main parts: a topic sentence, supporting material, and a concluding sentence. The topic sentence is the most important, since the writer of the paragraph makes an assertion in this sentence. Other sentences of the paragraph try to support and/or prove this assertion. Also unity and clarity of the paragraph is dependent on a good, efficient topic sentence. Without a good topic sentence a paragraph is nothing but a group of scrambled sentences (Chaplen, 1970; Baily and Powel, 1989).

The topic sentence may come initially, medially finally or may be implied. Almost all scholars believe that usually the topic sentence is the first sentence of the paragraph. They claim that this position facilitates the readers' and writers' job. This position also aids the writer to organize his subject better. Furthermore, it facilitates the readers' comprehension, since s/he can organize his thought by the help of topic sentence.

Popken (1988) examined the topic sentence use in scientific writing. He studied three dimensions of topic sentence use in a corpus of research articles (543 paragraphs) in biochemistry, geology, psychology, and sociology: (1) frequency of topic sentence use; (2) variation of topic sentence frequency in five rhetorical divisions; and (3) variations of topic sentence types in these rhetorical divisions. It was found that writers used topic sentences quit often in results, results/ discussion, and discussion, but quite seldom in methodology.

Sadeghi (2001) conducted a study to find out the effect of the position of the topic sentence (at the beginning, at the end) on the performance of EFL learners of on reading comprehension passages. It was found that the low-intermediate and intermediate subjects performed better on the reading tests entailing passages with the topic sentences at the beginning than the texts containing passages with the topic sentence at the end. But high-intermediate readers performed the same on both tests indicating that proficiency compensate for different types of text organization.

One issue that did not appear in the reviewed research, however, is the effect of topic sentence location on reading comprehension of EFL learners. As such, the present study intends to investigate this issue.

Methodology

Participants

Sixty students of advanced language proficiency served as the subject of this study. There were selected from among a total population of two hundred male (N=89) and female (N=111) among whom eighty were undergraduate senior students majoring in English teaching and translation at the department of English at Shiraz Azad university who had passed almost ninety credits of which sixteen were related to reading, and the rest were the advanced students of some language institutes in shiraz. Their age range was between 22-30. To sample the subjects a proficiency test, Version I of Cambridge First Certificate Test (1991), was administered to the population.

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Afterwards, sixty students who scored 85 and more were selected to serve as the subjects of the study.

Instruments

Version I of Cambridge First Certificate Test (1991) was used to measure the subjects' proficiency level. The reliability estimate of this test is reported to be .878 by Bachman (1998). Also four advanced one-paragraph reading passages which were on general topics were selected to measure students comprehension, it is worth noting that at first four passages whose topic sentences were at the beginning were selected and then their topic sentences moved to the end.

Administration procedure

First of all, the proficiency test was given to all participants (N=200). They were supposed to submit it in ninety minutes. Then sixty students both male (N= 27) and female (N=33), whose scores were above eighty five were randomly selected from among the participants. After that, different types of reading passages with initial and final topic sentences were randomly assigned to them. Based on topic sentence location, half of the subjects were assigned to group A (initial topic sentence) and the other half to group B (final topic sentence).

Results and Discussion

First the data was analyzed for descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation. Table 1.1 shows the descriptive statistics of the performance of the two groups on the proficiency test.

Table1.1. Descriptive statistics of the performance of the two groups on the proficiency test

	Number	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. Error mean
Group A	30	83.68	5.39	0.98

To find out whether the observed difference between the performances of these two groups (A&B) on the proficiency test was statistically significant, an independent sample t-test was run.

It indicated that this difference was not statistically significant at .05 level. (Table 1.2) therefore, it can be inferred that these two groups were homogeneous regarding their levels of proficiency.

Table1.2. Independent sample t-test for the quality of the means of the groups on the proficiency test

Groups	DF	t-value	2-tail sig.	Mean difference	Std. error difference
A&B	58	-.109	.913	-.150	1.37

P<.05

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Table1.3. presents the descriptive statistics of group A with initial topic sentences (N=30), and group B with final topic sentences (N=30).

Table1.3. Descriptive statistics of groups (A&B) on the reading test

	Number	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. Error mean
Group A	30	23.93	1.17	0.21
Group B	30	23.60	1.30	0.23

Ultimately to discover whether the observed difference between the means of these two groups (A&B) on the reading test was statistically significant, an independent sample t-test was run the result of which is shown in table 1.4.

Table1.4. Independent sample t-test for the equality of the means of two groups on the reading test

Groups	DF	t-value	2-tail	Mean difference	Std. Error difference
A&B	58	1.04	.30	.33	.32

P<.05

From the obtained data it could be concluded that the difference was not statistically significant at .05 level. As a result, it is inferred that advanced learners comprehend reading passages to the same extent regardless of their topic sentence location.

Discussion

As it appeared in the review of literature, Stanovich (1980) proposed an interactive model of reading comprehension generally known as "compensatory, interactive model". According to him (1980, p.63): "a deficit in any knowledge source results in heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the processing hierarchy". Thus, the poor reader who has deficient word analysis skills might possibly show greater reliance on contextual factors. Basically, what "compensatory interactive" means is that top-down cognition is used to fill in the gaps that FL learners inevitably experience as they incompletely and erroneously process L2 text (Jannuzi, 1997). In other words, less-skilled readers have to compensate for their weak word recognition skills by using contextual information, while the word recognition of skilled readers is good enough so that they do not need to rely on context. Therefore, the result of this study which comprehends reading passages by advanced learners is the same regardless of their topic sentence locations can be accounted for by Stanovich model. Due to the fact that proficient readers have no problem regarding word recognition and they are familiar with the organizational patterns of the text, they do not rely too much on the context and its features (i.e. topic sentence location) but rather the main idea of the paragraph. To put it another way, they make more use of top-down processing rather than bottom-up. Consequently, they comprehend reading passages to the same extent regardless of their topic sentence locations.

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Appendix

Like many human beings, hens make a great practice of snobbery because each has a special position on the barnyard social ladder; there is a rigid "pecking order". The top grand dame can peck at any without retaliation, but the poor biddy on bottom up rung has no one to peck at. This results in something that is quite common in human society, too. The hens far down on the ladder are often more snobbish toward the few

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under them that the grand dame is to the whole flock. Zoologists have long known that significant factors in a hen's social position are age, weight, health, and just plain brazenness. But recently zoologists have discovered that no less important are the clothes she wears—that is, the splendor of her head dress and feathers. If these change in contour or color, so does the hen's social position. Why, it is just like putting on a mink coat!

1. The snobbery hens shows up----------
a. Their headdresses b. the way they talk c. their pecking order d. the way they eat
2. The reason for social order among hens is----------.
a. That they are like people c. that they need a ladder
b. That they live in crowded barnyards d. not given in this selection
3. From this passage we can conclude that hens ----------
a. are exactly like people c. have a certain social organization
b. are very intelligent d. Have no social organization
4. The passage is primarily about----------
a. the grand dame among hens c. the clothes a hen wears
b. the science of zoology d. social positions among hens
5. When the hen's headdress and feathers change, her social position ----------.
a. Always improves b. changes c. remains the same d. is lost for ever

Adverse psychological responses to noise have been noted in several areas. Task performance is affected by noise that is intermittent, although steady state noise even up to 90 db (A) does not seem to have much effect. Complex tasks are affected more than simple ones, and accuracy is reduced more than quantity. Even when good performance is maintained, excess noise is fatiguing. People working in noisy environments are much less tolerant of noise in their non-occupational environment than those working in quiet surroundings. Time judgment is another response upset by noise. Certain types of noise can of course be helpful, such as rhythmic noises or those which mask distracting sounds. More commonly, however noise has been shown to produce anxiety symptoms such as headache, nausea, and irritability. One study indicated that mental hospital admissions are more numerous in noisy areas than in comparable quiet ones.

1. What is the passage mainly about?
   a. The effect of steady noise on task performance.
   b. The effect of noise on the quantity of complex tasks.
   c. The usefulness of rhythmic noises.
   d. Harmful mental reactions to noise.
2. Considering the passage, which of them is **not true?**
   a. An occasional noise affects job outcome more than a continuous one.
   b. Some types of noise are beneficial if they eliminate disturbing ones.
   c. Noise frequency results in increased productivity.
   d. Noisy environment can make people tolerant even when they are not at work.

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3. Which of the following is affected more by the noise?
   a. Simple tasks b. quality of the task c. accuracy of the task d. quantity of the task
4. Which of the following statements is not true according to the passage?
   a. The more complex the task, the more it is affected by the noise.
   b. The more the noise, the less the accuracy.
   c. The nosier the occupational environment, the more the tolerance of noise in other places.
   d. The noisier the place, the more the number of admissions to mental hospitals.
5. All are mentioned as anxiety symptoms that are produced by noise except------.
   a. Body malfunctioning b. fatigue c. irritability d. nausea

It is well known that when an individual joins a group he tends to accept the group's standards of behavior and thinking. He is expected to behave in accordance with these norms- in other words the group expects him to conform. Many illustrations could be given of this from everyday life, but what is of particular interest to psychologist is the extent to which people's judgments and opinions can be changed as a result of group pressure. Some remarkable conclusions were reported by Asch and others. They noticed that people in group would agree to statements that contradict their own beliefs. It would be a mistake to think that only particularly docile people are chosen to take part in experiments of this type. Usually highly intelligent and independent people are used and this, of course, makes the results even more disturbing.

1. When you join a group you are expected to ----------
   a. Contradict their beliefs c. adapt yourself to their norms
   b. Inform them when they make a mistake d. guide them to choose the right way
2. According to this passage ---------- are influenced easily.
   a. even independent people b. only docile individuals c.mostly psychologists d. only ordinary people
3. Group pressure forces individuals to ----------.
   a. change their idea b. learn more c. take part in experiment d. insist on their own norms
4. The results are disturbing because of participation of ---------- in experiments with the same results.

a.ordinary people b. psychologists c.easily influenced people d. intelligent individuals

5. According to this passage if you join a group which is against family planning you must probably want to have----------

a. few children b. many children c. more friends d. few friends

Some people nowadays suffer severely disabling symptoms, which they (and sometimes their medical advisors) attribute to low levels of synthetic chemicals in their environment. It is hypothesized that they are unusually sensitive to a wide range of substances, although the evidence for underlying toxic or immune mechanisms that

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might explain the phenomenon is currently unconvincing. An alternative explanation might be that symptoms represent a conditioned response to exposures perceived, for example, because of an odor or mild irritant effects. A conditioned response of this sort could be susceptible to cultural influences and prior beliefs, and if this is correct, it is possible that research into "multiple chemical sensitivity", by increasing public awareness of the problem and giving it scientific legitimacy, would promote its development where it would not otherwise occur. In deciding whether to commission research on the disorder, this concern would not be weighed against the potential benefits from a better scientific understanding of the condition. Therefore, still, there may be doubts about the acceptability of even posing some research questions, if there is a possibility that doing so could in itself cause harm.

1. According to this text----------.
   a. Prior beliefs do not affect the conditioned response to exposures perceived.
   b. The high level of synthetic chemicals in the environment causes disabling symptoms.
   c. Scientists are in doubt about posing some research questions, for doing so could be harmful.
   d. Posing any research question must be avoided, since we may interfere in people's affairs.
2. Which of the following is not true?
   a. There is no definite evidence on why some occupational disorders occur.
   b. Some research questions if not properly raised may lead to unwanted effects.
   c. Cultural factors play a role in people's susceptibility to disorders caused by chemicals.
   d. Disabling symptoms are irrelevant to any levels of synthetic chemicals.
3. " they" in line four refers to----------
   a. People b. disabling symptoms c. medical advisors d. synthetic chemicals
4. Which of the following factors is of little importance regarding disabling symptoms?
   a. Low level of synthetic chemicals in the environment
   b. Prior beliefs and culture of people.
   c. Lack of sensitivity to a wide range of substances.
   d. The awareness of the public chemical dangers.
5. This passage deals with----------
   a. Research about multi-chemical sensitivity.
   b. The role of prior beliefs in causing disabling problems.
   c. The level of synthetic chemicals in the environment
   d. Ethics in study design and conduct of research.

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THE STUDY OF THE AGE DIFFERENCES REGARDING THE TYPE AND THE AMOUNT OF DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS IN IRANIAN EFL CLASSES

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Abstract:
This study investigated the difference between the types and amount of student misbehaviors in adult and young EFL learners' classes. Three EFL adult learners' classes and three young learners' ones were observed during this study. Additionally, Forty Iranian EFL teachers, out of which twenty were practicing teaching in adult learners' classes and the other twenty in young learners' classes, responded to a questionnaire investigating the intensity of different types of discipline problems in their EFL classes. The results indicated that while distracting, activity-related misbehaviors, and assessment related problems were more common in young EFL classes, distracting, activity-related and assessment-related misbehaviors were more prevalent in adult classes. A significant difference was also found between the amount of discipline problems in young and adult learners in the misbehavior types of 'talking out of turn', 'distracting noise', 'cheeky or impertinent remarks', and 'forgetting learning materials' in which young learners' classes outnumbered adult learners' classes. Meanwhile, adult learners' classes significantly surpassed young learners' classes regarding the misbehavior type of 'cheating in exams' according to both observations and teachers' point of view.

Key words:
Classroom Management, Effective discipline, EFL Learner, EFL Class, Misbehavior (Discipline Problem)

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1. Introduction

Learning a second language is a difficult task for the learners. For this reason, teacher should provide a secure environment for the learners, which they have no feelings of fear or stress. One of the most noticeable factors influencing the learning environment is the conduct of learners; furthermore, maintaining discipline is seen to be a major problem, also it is the source of stress to educators. It is clear that learners' discipline constitutes an acute problem in the classroom. Some teachers think that discipline means a serious atmosphere which the students can't speak with each other and they are silent during the class. Sometimes, some students talk with each other or create a lot of noise or fight with each other during the class. These are kinds of discipline problems. Discipline does not mean to provide the class with formal and serious atmosphere. Those problems which disrupt the learning process, are called "discipline problem". Chastain (1988) believed that any study behavior that disrupts the learning process could be considered a discipline problem (p.157).

Burden (1995) defines that classroom discipline is a procedure of responding to student misbehavior in the classroom. Teachers should establish a secure atmosphere in the classroom and eliminate all discipline problems before they become habits of the learners. The students must feel secure in the classroom. Teachers shouldn't use any punishment measures during their teaching process. If the teachers understand the different discipline problems in their classroom, they will be able to carry out their plans better in the classroom. Teachers must discover the nature of these problems and find a way to eliminate it.

There are many differences in discipline conceptions among the teachers. Some teachers misuse discipline as punishment and use some strict and ineffective rules and measurements in the classroom, for this reason students misbehave during teaching-learning process. Another group use preventive strategies during this process and try to control their classes.

Many scholars believed that discipline relates to age and gender. They considered these two factors as affective factors that play important roles in class discipline. We can't say that the teachers should use which measurements or rules to control their classrooms. First, they understand their class' problems with regard to age, gender and background, then they use some rules to eliminate these problems. The results of these kinds of studies will help the teachers to understand what models and rules they should use to eliminate the discipline problems and control their classes better.

2. Review of literature

During most of its twenty-two year existence, the Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitude Toward the Public Schools has identified "lack of discipline" as the most serious problem facing the nation's educational system. The word discipline is usually confused with punishment. But this kind of thinking is a mistake, because it is related to those measures and rules that promote and maintain appropriate behavior in classroom setting. It refers to learning-appropriate behavior. Some people confused these two terms. The purpose of punishment is to stop a child from doing what you don't want. Effective discipline helps children learn to control their behavior. So that

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they act according to their ideas of what is right and wrong, not because they fear punishment.

2.1 Classroom Discipline

Slavin (2009) states that discipline includes methods and rules to respond or prevent to problem behaviors which the teachers would not to occur in the future. Chastain (1988) views discipline as "those rules and measures that promote and maintain learning-appropriate behavior in the classroom" (P.157:158).

Jones (1979) says that 'discipline is the business of enforcing simple classroom rules that facilitate learning and minimize disruption' (p.26). The term 'discipline' focuses on misbehaviors. Some teachers establish rules and procedures for their educational process during the year. They try to explain them for their students and also argue about their positive and negative consequences. The use of rules is a powerful component of classroom organization and management plans. Rules establish a set of consequences by specifying which behaviors are appropriate and they are reinforced by teachers and which behavior is not appropriate and they are prevented by their teachers.

Discipline shapes a learner's behavior and helps them to learn to control their behavior. It causes that learners are directly responsible for their behavior. It focuses on the student's behavior, not the student. Teachers need to encourage students to monitor their own behavior in the classroom.

The ultimate goal of discipline is that learners to understand their own behavior, take initiative, be responsible for their choices, and respect themselves and others. In other words, they internalize their appropriate behaviors which they can last forever.

In a study on discipline problems in EFL settings, Rahimi and Hosseini (2012) investigated Iranian EFL teachers' classroom discipline strategies from their students' point of view. The participants were one thousand and four hundred ninety seven students. They responded to a classroom discipline strategy questionnaire which examined their perceptions of the strategies used by their EFL teachers in order to deal with discipline problems in their classrooms. According to the results of this study, Iranian teachers use cognition/rewarding strategies more than punishment in their classrooms.

2.2 Classroom Management

Teachers have various roles in the classroom and one of the most important roles is that of classroom manager. When students misbehave, they learn less. In fact, the teachers should manage their classroom and control their learners and their behavior. Teachers play various roles in a typical classroom, but one of the most important is that of classroom manager. Effective teaching can take place in a well-managed classroom. The teachers create a creative setting to learn. They know how best to use homework and how to use questions and advance organizers, and so on. Additionally, they know when these strategies should be used with specific learners and specific content.

Chastain (1988) refers to classroom management as "means to establish and maintain order in the class and to organize classroom activities" (p.154). According to his

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definition, successful classroom management involves setting learning goals, organizes the class in an appropriate way to achieve the goals, and directs class activities according to established procedures.

Marzano et al. (2003) contend that "Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom" and "chaos becomes the norm" if students are not well organized, and there are no clear procedures that can guide their behavior in the class (p.1). In such classrooms, both teachers and students can't achieve the classroom's objectives. In general, classroom management is that set of teaching behaviors by the teachers which they establish and maintain conditions that enable students to learn efficiently. It enables teachers that promotes appropriate student behavior and eliminate inappropriate student behavior.

Jacob Kounin's (1971) constructed a model to advocate that classroom management can be used to modify learners' behavior (Charles, 1999:8). Kounin studied on 80 elementary classrooms. In this study, we observe 2 kinds of teachers; effective managers as those teachers whose classrooms were orderly, had a minimum of student misbehavior and ineffective managers as those teachers whose classrooms had a maximum of student misbehavior. He found that effective and ineffective managers did not differ in their methods. Instead, the effective teachers will reduce the likelihood of classroom disruption.

2.3 Misbehavior

Misbehavior can be defined in many ways. Levin and Nolan (1991) defines misbehavior as behavior that interferes with teaching-learning process. Burden (1995) argues that misbehavior is considered as any threat and challenge and disrupts learning process. He states that teachers should first identify all kinds of misbehaviors and then they plan classroom management. Charles (1999) believes that misbehavior will occur when the learners know their behaviors are not appropriate.

Wheldall and Merrett (1988) conducted a study with 198 teachers from 32 elementary schools in England. According to the results of this study, it was found out that among the most frequently encountered 10 misbehaviors were, 46% talking without permission and 25 % disturbing others. The rest of the misbehaviors were not seen as a misbehavior by 10 % of the teachers.

Lasley et. al. (1989) observed six middle grade teachers in a study examining ways of dealing with misbehavior. It was reported that effective classroom managers permitted the fewest misbehaviors and were most successful in stopping misbehavior once it occurred.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What are Iranian young and adult EFL learners' discipline problems?
2. Is there any significant difference in the amount of discipline problems observed in young learners' classes vs. adult learners' classes?
3. Is there any significant difference in the type of discipline problems observed in young learners' classes vs. adult learners' classes?

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In order to investigate the above-mentioned research questions, the following null hypotheses are formulated:
HO_1: There is no significant difference in the amount of discipline problems observed in young learners' classes vs. adult learners' classes.
HO_2: There is no significant difference in the type of discipline problems observed in young learners' classes vs. adult learners' classes.

4. Methodology

4.1 Categories and Types of Discipline Problems in This Study

Sixteen types of discipline problems were defined with adequate examples as a basis for the subsequent observation and questionnaire parts of the study, and they were organized in five general categories of EFL classroom misbehavior. These categories of discipline problems accompanied with their respective types of student misbehavior are as follows:

A. Distracting misbehaviors

1. Talking out of turn: In class, EFL learners talk out of turn, interrupt teacher or other learners' speaking. Examples: a) Answering a question which was asked from another student without teacher's permission. b) Speaking in the middle of teachers' talks.

2. Distracting noise: In class, EFL learners make noises either by talking to other learners or by using the objects around them which hinders lesson progress. Examples: a) Talking to another learner about an irrelevant subject during classroom discussion b) Dropping a book on the floor deliberately c) moving their seats frequently d) Making unusual sounds such as sounds of animals.

3. Cheeky or impertinent remarks: In class, EFL learners make statements or raise topics which are either not appropriate to be discussed in the class or unrelated to the topic of lesson. Examples: a) Asking a question about teacher's personal life b) Asking a question regarding sports while the class is discussing healthcare.

4. Silent distraction: In class, EFL learners silently distract teacher and other learners without making any noise and through facial expression or body language. Examples: a) Showing a picture to another learner that is not related to the lesson b) Making a rude gesture at another student.

B. Activity-related misbehaviors

1. Idleness or individual work avoidance: In class, EFL learners do not take part or show interest in individual activities. Examples: a) Daydreaming while other learners are doing a true-false exercise. b) Being quiet while teacher raises a question.

2. Pair work or group work avoidance: In class, EFL learners are not involved during pair work or group work. Examples: a) Being quiet while other group members are discussing a topic b) Frequently talking in mother tongue during a pair-work.

3. Forgetting learning materials: EFL Learners do not bring their textbooks, notebooks or other materials and objects they need to practice English to the class. Examples: a) A learner is sharing a textbook with another learner b) A learner borrows a pencil from another student during an exercise.

C. Abusive misbehaviors

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1. Verbal abuse of other students: In class, EFL learners verbally abuse other learners. Examples: a) Imitating a learner's accent b) Expressing a swearword at another student c) Giving a nickname to another learner.
2. Verbal abuse of teacher: In class, EFL learners verbally abuse the teacher. Examples: a) Imitating teacher's accent b) Expressing a swearword at teacher c) Giving a nickname to the teacher. d) Calling teacher with his or her first name.
3. Physical abuse of other students: In class, EFL learners physically abuse other learners. Examples: a) Mimicking a learner's movements b) Hitting another learner.
4. Physical abuse of teacher: In class, learners physically abuse the teacher. Examples: a) Mimicking teacher's movements b) Hitting teacher.

D. Rule-related misbehaviors

1. Misuse of cell-phones: In class, learners distract other learners and teacher by using their cell-phones. Bringing cell-phones to school is against the rules in Iran. Examples: a) Talking or texting on their cell-phone b) Sending a Bluetooth to another learner during class time c) Playing games on the cell-phone.
2. Unpunctuality: EFL learners do not attend the classes on time, or do not hand in their assignments on time. Examples: a) Arriving late at the class b) Handing in a writing while it was due last week.
3. Breaking class or school rules: In class learners break classroom or school rules. Examples: a) Breaking school's dress code b) Drawing on the classroom's wall or seats.

E. Assessment-related misbehaviors

1. Being unprepared for classroom assessment: EFL learners do not take their classroom assessment seriously or are not prepared for it. Examples: a) Expressing an excuse for not being ready for a quiz and asking the teacher to postpone it until next class. b) Answering an oral quiz in an amusing way.
2. Cheating in exams: Students cheat during their class exams which are held in teacher's presence. Examples: a) Providing the answer to an oral quiz for another learner either orally or using body language. b) Exchanging pieces of paper during a written exam.
These categories and types of EFL learner misbehavior were adequately explained for the observers who were responsible for the observation part of the study, and the teachers who participated in the questionnaire part in order to avoid any misunderstanding of these categories of student misbehavior.

4.2 Participants

This research will have two phases:

A) Observation: researcher will prepare a checklist to make records of the kind and frequency of discipline problems in young and adult learners' classes. For this phase, six Iranian language classes: 3 young learners' classes and 3 adult learners' classes are selected and each is observed for five sessions. Moreover, it is so important to conduct some interviews with language teachers after observation and questionnaires.
B) Questionnaire: researcher will prepare some questionnaires to collect data for further evaluation. For this phase, participants were 40 Iranian English teachers who were teaching in English Institutes. Twenty out of these 40 teachers were teachers for young EFL learners, and the other 20 teachers were

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teachers for adult EFL learners. Their ages varied from 32 to 41, and their first language was Persian.

4.3 Procedures

4.3.1 Observation

In this study, the researcher collected some data through audio recordings which allowed the researcher to analyze the type and the amount of discipline problems in young and adult learners' classes.

In this study, the highly structured observation was chosen, because a checklist was prepared to collect data. This checklist was prepared especially based on the classification of students' misbehavior in the Elton Report (1989), the researcher gained some valuable advices from her supervisor in this study. This checklist for observation consisted of sixteen types of discipline problems as explained and defined later.

4.3.2 Questionnaire

The purpose of this study is comparative and quantitative analysis was chosen for analyzing data, for this reason, 15 closed-ended items corresponding to the 15 target student misbehaviors were prepared for the questionnaire. These items were in the form of a ten-point Likert scale ranging from 'never' to 'very often' for each type of discipline problem. In order to find any other type of EFL student misbehavior which might have been overlooked by the researcher, one more item in the form of an Open-response item was added to the questionnaire asking the participants to mention any other type of discipline problem which they might face in their EFL classes aside from the existing types on the questionnaire.

Forty EFL teachers answered this questionnaire including twenty EFL teachers experienced at teaching young learners' classes, and twenty EFL teachers experienced at teaching adult learners' classes. These questionnaires were manually distributed to the participants.

4.4 Methods of Analyzing Data

After the data collection procedures were completed, the collected data was coded and analyzed using both quantitative and quantitative techniques in order to recognize the differences and the type of misbehaviors in adult learners' and young learners' classes.

According to the observation section of this study, descriptive statistics in the form of tables and charts were applied to indicate the amount of discipline problems in each group on the observation checklist at young and adult learners' classes and determine the types of discipline problems in the classes. These statistics were analyzed through qualitative techniques.

For questionnaire parts of this study, inferential statistics were used to compare the discipline problems through the quantitative techniques in adult learners' and young learners' classes.

After collecting the results of the Likert scale questionnaire, a Mann-Whitney U test was run to find out whether there is a significant difference between adult and young learners' classes' discipline problems in each type of misbehaviors.

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For this research, the researcher selected inferential statistics because two groups of raters were independent and the data which collected through questionnaire were of ordinal type. So, a non-parametric statistics was chosen for data analysis. SPSS software was used for running the test for each of the fifteen types of discipline problems on the questionnaire in order to find any significant difference between adult and young EFL learners with regard to that type of misbehavior. All participants' responses were included in the final Mann-Whitney U test performed by SPSS software.

5. Results and Discussion

The quantitative data from the questionnaire were also analysed using (SPSS) to obtain descriptive and inferential statistical results. The means, frequencies, and standard deviations were calculated. As for the statistical analyses, the data was examined through running Mann Whitney U test to compare the levels of the discipline problems for young learners' versus adult learners' classes as well as to examine the possible differences between the two classes in terms of their types of discipline problems.

Comparison between the mean ranks of the questionnaire items in young and adult learners' discipline problems illustrated that in general young learners had more discipline problems than adult learners(total $_{\text{mean young}}$=3.63, total $_{\text{mean adult}}$=2.60). For young learners, in comparison to other types of discipline problems, activity related problems (Mean rank= 4.22) showed the young students' highest misbehaviours among other discipline problems. This included instances such as forgetting their textbooks, notebooks or pens during their class activities or looking out of window, and thinking about things irrelevant to the lesson. With an overall mean rank of (3.25), young learners had quite low discipline problems in terms of rule- related factors.

The standard deviation column showed that the respondents in young classes were highly heterogeneous in providing the answer to item 11 "In class, learners break the classroom or school rules and ignore teachers' plans" (SD= 1.182). However, their respondents were highly homogenous in item (13) "in class, learners misuse their cell phones (by talking or texting, sending Bluetooth, playing games…)" (SD= .587).

An exact check- up of the discipline questionnaire items for adult learners depicted that assessment- related factors were among the highly frequent discipline misbehaviours for adult learners(mean $_{\text{assessment related factors}}$ = 3.83). The assessment related misbehaviours included not taking their classroom assessment seriously or not preparing for it. Moreover, adult learners were reported to frequently cheat during their class exams that were held in teacher's presence. On the other hand, just like young group, rule- related problems were among the lowest type of misbehaviours reported for the adult learners, too (mean $_{\text{rule related factors}}$= 2.37). The lowest and highest standard deviation for teachers in adult classes were related to items (8) and (13) respectively (SD $_{\text{item8}}$=.550, SD $_{\text{item13}}$=1.386).

For young class, distracting discipline problems reported were different. Silently distracting the class by showing something to another learner, facial expression, and body language were the most frequent misbehaviours depicted through the questionnaire (mean $_{\text{silent distracting}}$=3.95). However, the least frequent misbehaviour

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reported for this group was related to making cheeky or impertinent remarks during the lesson by the young learners (mean $_{\text{making cheeky or impertinent remarks}}$= 3.100).
For adult class, making cheeky remarks were reported to be the most frequent discipline problems than other types of misbehaviours (mean $_{\text{making cheeky or impertinent remarks}}$=3.200). Moreover, making distracting noise was seen to be the least frequent discipline problem for adult class (mean $_{\text{making distracting noise}}$ =1.7000).
Forgetting learning materials such as textbooks, notebooks or pens and idleness (mean= 4.22) were two activity- related misbehaviours reported for the young class. Furthermore, for adult class the mean of this category was lower (mean = 2.42).
Verbally abusing other learners was the most frequent abusive misbehaviour found in young class (mean $_{\text{verbally abusing other learners}}$=3.80). On the other hand, physically abusing the teacher was the least frequent abusive problem reported for this group. For adult group while verbally abusing other learners was the most prevalent abusive problem (mean $_{\text{verbally abusing other learners}}$= 3.80), physically abusing the teacher received the lowest mean rank for this category ($_{\text{mean physically abusing the teacher}}$=1.25).
In terms of rule-related problems, unpunctuality (mean= 3.65) had the highest mean rank for young classes. However, the lowest mean rank was depicted for misuse of cell-phones (mean= 2.35). For adult group just like the young class, unpunctuality was seen to be the most frequent misbehaviour (mean=3.75). Additionally, breaking the classroom or school rules and ignoring teachers' plans had the lowest mean rank among other items of this category (mean= 1.55).
And finally, regarding assessment- related problems, being unprepared for classroom assessment had the highest mean rank for the young class (mean=3.95). Besides, for the adult class cheating in exams (mean= 4.30) was the most frequent misbehavior.
The Mann Whitney U test procedure compared young class versus adult class in terms of their discipline problems. The data collected was in the form of ordinal data for two independent, random samples. The Mann-Whitney U test tested equality of these two distributions. The nonparametric test of Mann Whitney U test was run to determine whether or not the values of discipline problems differed between the two classes or not.
Moreover, the Mann-Whitney statistics tested the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the two groups in terms of their discipline problems.

Table 5.1. Ranks for the young and adult learners' classes

	teacher	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
total	young learners' teachers	20	30.30	606.00
	adult learners' teachers	20	10.70	214.00
	Total	40		

After ranking the cases, the ranks were summed within groups. Average ranks adjusted for differences in the number of respondents in both groups. If the groups were only randomly different, the average ranks should be about equal. For young learners' teachers, the average ranks were19.6 points higher than that of adult learners' teachers.

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Table 5.2. Test Statistics [a]

	total
Mann-Whitney U	4.000
Z	-5.307
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	**.000**

a. Grouping Variable: class

The sig (.00 < 0.05) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their amount of discipline problems. Thus, the first null hypothesis was rejected.

The statistic table below showed that the sample sizes of the young learners' class and adult learners' class were equal. Twenty cases answered the questionnaire items. The following descriptive table displayed the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and minimum and maximum for all five types of discipline problems for young and adult classes.

Table 5.3. Statistics for young class

		Distracting	Activity-related	Abusive	Rule-related	Assessment-related
N	Valid	20	20	20	20	20
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.9500	4.2250	3.3625	3.2500	3.4750
Std. Deviation		.49736	.47226	.55295	.46985	.71589
Minimum		3.00	3.00	2.00	2.67	2.00
Maximum		5.25	5.00	4.50	4.33	5.00
Sum		79.00	84.50	67.25	65.00	69.50

Table 5.3 shows statistics for five types of discipline problems including distracting, activity-related, abusive, rule- related and assessment related misbehaviours for the young learners' classes.

Table 5.4. Statistics for adult class

		Distracting	Activity related	Abusive	Rule related	Assessment related
N	Valid	20	20	20	20	20
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.4750	2.4250	2.3625	2.3667	3.8250
Std. Deviation		.48599	.71221	.51603	.61082	.69348
Minimum		1.75	1.50	1.50	1.33	2.50
Maximum		3.25	4.00	3.75	3.33	5.00
Sum		49.50	48.50	47.25	47.33	76.50

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the researcher computed mean, standard deviation, sample size, minimum and maximum for all five types of discipline problems for young learners' and adult learners' classes. Four types of discipline problems had higher mean ranks for the young learners' class in comparison to adult learners' class, assessment related problems were seen to be more frequent for adult learners' class than for young learners' class. According to the results of Mann Whitney U test this difference was found to be insignificant. In other words, although the two classes were found to be significantly different in terms of their types of discipline behaviours such as distracting, activity-related, abusive problems, and rule related misbehaviours, there was no significant difference between them regarding assessment related problems.

6. Discussion

This study aimed at identifying the difference between adult and young EFL classes regarding the types of discipline problems. Also, it investigated the difference between adult and young EFL classes in terms of the amount of misbehaviors based on direct observations and teachers' point of view through questionnaires.

The findings showed that while young EFL classes were marked by distracting, abusive and activity-related discipline problems, young classes demonstrated more instances of distracting, rule-related and assessment-related misbehaviors. Additionally, a significant difference was found between the amount of discipline problems in adult and young learners regarding the misbehavior types of 'talking out of turn', 'distracting noise', 'cheeky or impertinent remarks', and 'forgetting learning materials'.

The findings showed that young learners have the highest problems in activity related problems. This included instances such as forgetting their textbooks, notebooks or pens during their class activities or looking out of window, and thinking about things irrelevant to the lesson. Also, young learners had quite low discipline problems in terms of rule- related factors.

According to findings, the researcher concluded that assessment- related factors were among the highly frequent discipline misbehaviours for adult learners. The assessment related misbehaviours included not taking their classroom assessment seriously or not preparing for it. Moreover, adult learners were reported to frequently cheat during their class exams that were held in teacher's presence. Also, abusive problems have the lowest frequent among adult learners which included mimicking teachers' or other learners' movements or speaking, fighting other learners, and mocking a learner's accent.

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THE IMPACT OF PUSHED OUTPUT ON ORAL PROFICIENCY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract
Due to lack of quantitative investigations that either support or refute Pushed Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), the current study attempted to establish baseline quantitative data on the impacts of pushed output on oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.To achieve this purpose, 30 female EFL learners were selected from a whole population pool of 50 based on standard test of IELTS interview and were assigned into an experimental group and control group using a stratified random assignment procedure. The participants in the experimental group received pushed output treatment while the students in the control group received non-pushed output treatment. The data were collected through IELTS interview for measuring oral proficiency in both pre-test and post-test. The statistical results reveal that the experimental group outperformed the control group in oral proficiency ($p<0.05$). The positive impact of pushed output demonstrated in this study is consistent with the hypothesized function of pushed output in SLA. The results can provide some useful insights into syllabus design and English language teaching.

Key words: pushed output, oral proficiency, EFL learners

1.1. Introduction

Up to present, all scholars in the field of applied linguistic have been encouraged to study how second language learners can acquire oral proficiency. The demand for oral proficiency in English has been sharply increasing because of strong situation of English as a language for international communication.

Many studies in second language acquisition have been carried out to investigate how input and output contribute to language learning development. The results of all studies can be interpreted both from language learning perspectives and teaching perspectives. Output, as its name appears, refers to the language in which a learner produces and a listener perceives. In last two decades, researchers concentrated more on input rather than output in their studies as an element for acquiring second

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language. However, recently some researchers have focused more on the role of output practice in acquiring language (e.g., Hanaoka, 2007; Izumi, 2003; Kormos, 2006; Swain, 1995, 2005).

The understanding and definition of pushed output, for most part, is grounded in Swain' data collection from a Canadian French immersion program. Swain (1985, 1995) mentioned that immersion program in Canada proved that comprehensible input alone was insufficient to ensure that learners achieved language acquisition. Her observation showed that immersion students achieved near-native-like second language (L2) comprehension but they did not achieve near-native-like L2 production abilities.

Regarding what contributing factors can assist language learners to develop their oral proficiency, and scarcity of empirical studies that support or rebut Pushed Output Hypothesis (POH) (Swain, 1985); specifically, this study aims at examining the impact of Pushed Output (PO) on oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.

1.2. Pushed Output Hypothesis

As mentioned above, Merill Swain (1985) disregarded input as playing a significant role for language acquisition. Her observation on immersion program revealed that production was necessary to acquisition. Hence, Swain (1985) proposed a concept and termed Pushed Output Hypothesis (POH). According to Swain (1985), PO is the output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the desired meaning (p. 252). Swain (1985) also notes that when the learners are pushed to engage in production, they have the chance to deliver the messages which are precise, coherent and appropriate (p. 249). In other words, L2 learners are pushed to modify their initial production in order to facilitate native speakers' understanding by modifying their linguistic output in a more target-like way (Makey, 2012). Izumi (2002) notes "the importance of output in learning may be construed in terms of the learners' active deployment of their cognitive resources" (p.545). That is, the output requirement presents the learners with unique opportunities for processing language that may not be decisively necessary for comprehension (p.545). According to Swain (2005), it is possible for a learner to comprehend a message without having to look precisely at the structure. It should be noted that the idea behind PO is that the knowledge of L2 does not transfer automatically from reception to production. "Comprehension processes involve semantic decoding and production involves syntactic processing" (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 115).

Swain (1993) found evidence which suggested that a noteworthy part of the output hypothesis was PO. Mere production of speaking and writing might not be adequate for development of some features of L2 learning. She believed that language learner "need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness, and accuracy" (p.160).

A firm consensus has been reached as language learners are able to gain comprehensible output by pushing their production in a language interaction. As a

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result, drawing on this evidence PO can occur in L2 conversation or classroom interaction (Lynch, 1997; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996; Shehadeh, 2001; Swain 1995). According to POH, "producing the target language acts as one of the triggers that force language learners to pay attention to the means of expression needed to successfully convey their intended meaning" (Swain & Lapkin, 1986, p.7).

The act of pushing helps learners to try more in their oral production or "stretch" their IL resources. As the result, learners are obliged to process language efficiently and go beyond their present level of language. According to Krashen (1998), COH states that we acquire language when we attempt to transmit a message but we fail and have to try again. Eventually, we arrive at the correct form of our utterance, our conversational partner finally understands, and we acquire the new form we have produced. Gass and Mackey (2007) consider input alone is not sufficient for acquisition, because when one hears language, one can often interpret the meaning without use of syntax. Swain (1998) notes that output "forces" learners to move from semantic analysis of the target language to a more syntactic analysis of it (p. 79).
Muranoi (2007) stressed output as a vehicle through which learners could use practice to internalize acquired knowledge and develop proficiency. Swain and Lapkin (1995) noted that output might increase the opportunity for concentrating learners' attention on the means of expression to convey their messages. So they might become aware of the gaps in their iterlanguage either through external or internal feedback.

After suggesting Output Hypothesis, Swain refined output hypothesis and proposed different functions of POH in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Swain 1993, 1995, 1998, 2005). Noticing function states that L2 learners consciously understand their linguistic problems through PO activities. The hypothesis testing and feedback functions monitor that language acquisition is developed when L2 learners consciously use target form and reformulate it upon receiving feedback from interlocutors. Metalingustic function highlights the role of PO. It allows learners to reflect on their target language use in order to control and internalize linguistic knowledge. In other words, it "involves using output to talk about language" (de Bot, 1996, p. 552).Fluency function posits that PO is crucial in promoting learners' fluency or automatization of language use. And eventually, Swain (1985) believes that when language learners are pushed to produce output, they are forced to move from "semantic processing" predominant in comprehension to "syntactic processing" (p.249).

1.3. Pushed Output Tasks

PO tasks are sorts of activities which ask language learners to produce target language in oral or written modals. The door for the inclination toward completely study of PO tasks opened with Swain's (1995) output. In the light of POH, many empirical studies aimed to investigate the significant role of PO tasks in L2 acquisition. (e.g., Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2007; Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, & Fearnow,1999; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Mennim, 2007; Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Qin, 2008; Reinders, 2009; Song & Suh, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Yoshimura, 2006).They advocated the impact of PO tasks on L2 development.

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One-way and two-way tasks are two common dimensions of tasks which are interrelated with many studies of PO. Mackey (2012) defines one-way tasks as non-reciprocal tasks in which the learner does most of the talking and he or she is responsible to transmit the information to successfully complete the task like picture description task. In contrast, in two way tasks, both participants exchange the information (p.22-23). Shehadeh (1999) believes that evidence substantiates that it is one way tasks that create a situation for the leaner to produce PO rather than two way tasks. In one way tasks "the burden of completing successfully is placed on the participants who hold the information although other participants can contribute by demonstrating when they comprehend and when they do not" (Ellis, 2003, p.88).

Nation (2011) proposes that "pushed output occurs when the learners have to produce spoken language in tasks that they are not completely familiar with" (p.445). He maintains several features of tasks which lead to PO. First, L2 speakers may need to speak on the topics that they are not completely familiar to them. So, it is the role of instructors to design speaking tasks with unfamiliar topics in which provide an opportunity for the learners to be pushed. Second, learners may need to use various different text types in their speaking. Applying different texts may lead to provide not only a wide range of grammatical features and vocabularies but also informal and formal conditions for interaction. Finally, language learners' output can be pushed by the performance condition under which they have to talk.

The issue of feedback can well be yet another potential source of POH. Numerous studies confirmed that learners were pushed to modify their output when they were exposed to clarification requests or confirmation checks during negotiation (Iwashita, 1993; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Michell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989). These two types of feedback can help the speaker to draw attention to linguistic problems and lead them to notice the gaps between features of their interlanguage and the target language (Mackey, 2012). Takashami & Ellis (1999) explained that when a language learner produced an utterance that was not comprehended, the listener might respond with a clarification request, which caused the learner to subsequently reformulate the problematic utterance, as in this example:

Student: Cinderella change into the beautiful girl.
Teacher: Sorry?
Student: Cinderella changed into a beautiful girl. (Takashami & Ellis, 1999)

So, when learners received clarification requests, they were pushed to modify and produce an accurate and comprehensible target language. Hence these reflection and modification could contribute to SLA (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

Izumi and Izumi (2004) found that picture description task was used to elicit oral production and substantiated that picture description was the best task to provide a situation for students to be pushed in oral output. Also, Shehadeh (1999) simply found that picture description tasks gave more chances for using pushed output than opinion exchange. In an empirical study, Colina and

1.4. Oral proficiency

The concept of proficient speaker may vary for scholar to scholar. They may term proficient speaker as "good", "competent", "fluent", "knowledgeable" and so on

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(Galloway, 1987; McNamara, 1996). There seems to be no consensus concerning what exactly constitutes oral proficiency. According to Lesaux and Geva (2008) oral language proficiency is "a complex construct that . . . includes both receptive and expressive skills and can also encompass knowledge or use of specific aspects of oral language, including phonology, vocabulary, morphology, grammar, and discourse features, as well as pragmatic skills" (p. 29). Evans and Jones (2008) equate oral language proficiency with spoken language, and oral competencies. Oral proficiency is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 2001; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Oral proficiency is considered as a critical skill in learning a second or foreign language and the learner's success in acquiring a particular language is assessed in regard to his or her achievement in oral communication (Nunan, 2001). Palmer (2010) centers oral proficiency as the prime way of communicating and crucial features of learning process. So teachers must do their best to develop learners' communication skills.

There have been numerous investigations which aimed to figure out the componential structure of L2 oral proficiency. Most studies often assessed one or two aspects of oral proficiency (e.g., grammatical accuracy, vocabulary, syntactic complexity etc.) and others investigated a variety of features. In an empirical investigation, Iwashita, Brown, McNamara, and O'Hagan (2008) studied the nature of oral proficiency in English as second language so that they could develop a rating scale. They believed that the rating scale was used for written discourse could be applicable to oral performance. Oral proficiency test representing five distinctive tasks and five different proficiency levels were analyzed using a range of measure of grammatical accuracy, complexity, vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency. The result of the study showed the important role of vocabulary, fluency, grammatical accuracy and pronunciation in overall levels of performance. Other empirical works sought to measure the nature of oral proficiency through the unit of analysis of components (e.g. Halleck, 1995; Harington, 1986; Iwashita, 2010; Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Witte, Sodowsky & Roland, 1978).

1.5. Assessing Oral Proficiency

Assessment is an integral part of language teaching and learning and is carried out in the context of education as the instructors would like to judge the learners' performance (Burns & Joyce, 1997, p.102). Thornbury (2005, p.124) suggests two ways for measuring oral proficiency: formal and informal. Informal assessment is carried out at the beginning, during or end of a course of instruction by asking some questions to assess if the students have learned or not. Formal assessment can be standard examination like the Cambridge Certificate in English Language Speaking Skills (CELS), the International English Language Testing Service (IELTS) examination, and the examinations offered by Cambridge (ESOL). Lindsay and Knight (2006) suggest that teachers may use various rating systems in order to measure oral proficiency. Teachers may use holistic rating when they like to see the learners' overall performance or they may use analytic rating which involve the students' speech on one feature, say, vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, fluency, etc. (p. 124).

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1.6. Purpose of the Study

Regarding what contributing factors can assist language learners to develop their oral proficiency, and scarcity of empirical studies that support or rebut Pushed Output Hypothesis (POH) (Swain, 1985); specifically, this study aims at examining the impact of PO on oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.

This study plays a significant role in teaching oral proficiency to all English learners and the results of the study might propose positive impact of PO and it may lead us to conclude that English teachers can apply PO as an alternative to develop oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.

The PO practices in this study are revised form of practices in the textbooks or other sources according to principles of PO tasks. If PO practices are found to be more effective than the practices in the text book, this will lead us to conclude that practices in textbooks need revision based on principles of PO activities.

1.7. Research Questions and Hypotheses

To shed more light on our insights of the impact of PO on oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners, the study addresses the following research question.

1. Does pushed output have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' oral proficiency?

Based on the above – mentioned research questions, this study aims at testing the following null hypothesis:

Ho1: Pushed output does not have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' oral proficiency.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

This study was conducted with 30 upper-intermediate English language learners studying at Jihad Institute in Mashhad. All these 30 participants were females. The age of students ranged from 18 to 22 with an average of 19. These 30 language learners happened to have already passed 14 courses in general English which lent credence to their being at an upper-intermediate level. They were all Iranian nationals sharing the same language background. None of the participants had lived or stayed in an L1 English environment and they had virtually no opportunity to use English for communicative purposes outside the classroom context. The only contact they had with English outside the classroom was at school or university.

The selection of participants was determined using IELTS speaking administered by an IELTS examiner before the treatment. Those who obtained a score of below 4.5 in speaking were eliminated from the participant pool, while those who scored 4.5 to 6 were selected. A total of 30 out of 50 students met the requirement and were remained to participate in the experiment. In order to ensure appropriate sample selection, the remaining participants were assigned to two groups (15 participants in each group) using a stratified random assignment procedure that took the participants' pre-test

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performance into account. Experimental group received PO tasks, while the control group did not. The pretest was administered to ensure that the two groups were homogeneous before treatment, and the posttest was administered to compare the two groups after the treatments. In order to minimize the effects of teacher variability, the same teacher taught both the control and experimental classes.

2.2. Materials

For the purpose of the present study, a description of the instruction and assessment materials is provided in this section; these will be described in order.

2.2.1. Treatment Materials

As the difference between the two groups occurred in the practice stage, the activities utilized in each group were different. Experimental group received PO activities according to principles of POH while comparison group did not. They received non-pushed output tasks and mostly input actives. It must be noted that in the treatment sessions of the study two groups received the same amount of time but the differences were the type of tasks they engaged in for PO group and comparison group and type of feedback each group received.

2.2.1.1. Task Applied in the Experimental Group

For PO group, subjects had to involve in activities which forced them to produce the target language. As mentioned previously, According to POH, tasks must be designed in a way that the opportunity for production of the learners is maximized. Four communication tasks were selected and developed for the purpose of PO: picture description, retelling, ask and answer task and storytelling. The selection of these four types of tasks was motivated by previous investigations (Izumi& Izumi, 2004; Nation & Newton, 2009; Pica et al, 1989; Shehadeh, 2001).

One variable manipulated in the treatment condition was PO in the form of clarification requests (e.g., pardon? what? huh?). As mentioned in the review of literature, clarification requests were selected in order to provide more opportunities for L2 speakers to produce PO. For the study, a clarification request was defined as a correct reformulation of the error. An example of a clarification from an interaction is shown below. The teacher provided the correct form of walk in response to a student as in the following example.

Student: Yesterday, the old man walk in the park
Teacher: Sorry?
Student: He walked in the park and...

2.2.1.2. Tasks Applied in the Control Group

For the control group, subjects had to be involved in activities which did not push them to produce target language. Unlike PO, there are wide varieties of activities in the field of L2 that do not push the learner to speak. In all these tasks peers or teacher are not instructed to use specified feedback when the speaker produces erroneous target language and the teacher corrects the errors based upon the nature of errors. Picture sequencing, listen to news were sorts of tasks were used in control group.

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2.2.2. Testing material

Currently, the most widely known instrument for assessing oral proficiency is oral proficiency interview based on IELTS speaking test. This scale ranges from 1 to 9 with 1 representing no proficiency and 9 representing the oral proficiency of an educated NS. The speaking test is the last part of the IELTS test. Success in IELTS speaking test depends on the applicants' ability to converse in English with the examiner. Since the main focus of this study is oral proficiency, speaking module of IELTS test was employed to measure learners' oral proficiency before and after the implementation of the instructional program to find the impact of PO on participants' oral proficiency. The interviewers rated the participants based on the IELTS speaking assessment descriptors (public version). Basically, the IELTS speaking test takes between 11 and 14 minutes and the assessment takes into account fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and accuracy (Jakeman & McDowell, 2008). The test for both pretest and posttest which was used in this study was a sample IELTS speaking test from the books "Cambridge IELTS 5, 6,7,8,9 self pack" written by Cambridge ESOL (2006, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013). So, participants were not exposed to the same topics in two interviews so as to minimize any potential practice effect.

2.3. Procedure

The study was carried out in the spring semester of 2013 in Jihad Language Institute in Mashhad for twelve 30 minute sessions through 4-week semester and all instructions were in English. As mentioned previously, before the researcher performed the instruction all candidates were given the IELTS interview as a pretest in order to select participants for the study and assess the participants' current level of knowledge before treatment.

The interview was conducted by the head of IELTS department at Jahan-Elm higher education. The interviewer participated in the IELST examination on September 4, 2009 and obtained the overall score of 8 in academic module with the speaking band score of 9. To have inter-rater reliability, two other IELTS interviewers listened to the audio-taped interviews and agreed with the scores given by the first rater.

A week later, after the researcher assigned the available participants into experimental and control groups based upon stratified random assignment, the treatment started. Two groups received two types of tasks. The classification of materials was based on each particular group of participants. As there were differences among two groups in the practice stage, the tasks employed in each group were distinctive. For the sake of teaching students, 12 lessons were prepared to be taught in the experimental group and control group. To design the lessons for this research, a number of activities recommended by different scholars for the instruction of PO (e.g., Gass & Varonis, 1985; Mackey,1994; Mackey& Philip 1998; Nation & Newton ,2009; Pica et al, 1989; Shehadeh, 2001; Swain and Lapkin 2000; Van den Branden, 1997) was used.

PO group received the practices in focus of push output activities and the participants were engaged in picture description tasks, retelling, ask and answer tasks and storytelling on the first, second and the third session. The other treatment sessions

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were exactly the same as the first three sessions except the content of the materials. In contrast, the control group received non-pushed output activities like picture sequencing, scramble paragraph, and consensus tasks and other regular activities respectively in twelve sessions like experimental group sessions. During PO task peers or teacher were instructed to ask for clarification requests when a learner produced an inaccurate target language.

One week after the twelfth treatment session, the posttest was administered in order to determine any variation in participants' oral proficiency after treatment. The procedure for posttest was exactly the same as pretest.

2.4. Oral Proficiency Measure

As stated above, to measure oral proficiency, IELST speaking descriptors were taken into account by interviewer and the raters for assessing oral proficiency.

2.5. Data Analysis

In order to obtain quantitative data needed for analysis, each participant's IELTS score was used. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS, version 20) was used to analyze the data. Due to the fact that the sample size was small and the data were not normally distributed in oral proficiency scores, Mann-Whitney test, the non-parametric equivalent to independent samples t-test, was calculated to compare the experimental and control group before treatment and then finally Mann-Whitnney test was run again to show whether there was a statistically significant difference between control and experimental group after treatment.

3. Results

In response to the reserach question of the present study, the hypothesis predicted that PO would not have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' oral proficiency. To decide on the statistical procedure to be applied, first it was essential to figure out whether or not the participants' scores in pretest and posttest were distributed normally. With this aim, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was employed to the scores obtained in pretest and posttest for measuring oral proficiency. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test demonstrated that values conformed to the non-parametric forms ($p<0.05$) in oral proficiency data in pretest and posttest in both experimental and control groups. Therefore, the nonparametric forms of data analyses, Mann-Whitney test, was run for the analysis of the data. The next assumption to be tested was that both groups in this study should not be significantly different in pretest. Mann-Whitney test, the non-parametric equivalent to the independent samples t-test, was calculated to compare the groups and determine if there were differences between groups. As is shown in Table 1 and 2, there was no significant difference between the mean ranks of experimental and control groups in the pre-test, $z = -0.130$, $p = .896$, suggesting the homogeneity of both control and experimental groups in terms of oral proficiency at the entry level.

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Table 1
Mean Ranks for the Pretests of Groups Experimental and Control

Pretest	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Experimental Group	15	15.30	229.50
Control Group	15	15.70	235.50
Total	30		

Table 2
Mann-Whitney Test Statistics for Pretests of Groups Experimental and Control

Pretests	Pretest
Mann-Whitney U	109.500
Wilcoxon W	229.500
Z	-.130
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.896
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.902[a]

Note.a.Not corrected for ties.

To definitely answer the research that is, "Does PO have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' oral proficiency?" The nonparametric version of independent samples t-test, Mann-Whitney test, was run again.

Table 3
Mean Ranks for the Posttests of Groups Experimental and Control

Pretest	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Experimental Group	15	20.60	309.00
Control Group	15	10.40	156.00
Total	30		

In fact, as mean ranks were taken into account when Mann-Whitney test was applied, the first impression was confirmed, since the experimental group's mean rank is much higher than the other group's (see Table 3).

Table 4
Mann-Whitney Test Statistics for Posttests of Groups Experimental and Control

Posttests	Posttests
Mann-Whitney U	36.000
Wilcoxon W	156.000
Z	-3.263
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.001[a]

Note. a. Not corrected for ties

The result of the Mann-Whitnney test in Table 4 showed that there was a statistically significant difference, z =-3.263, p =.001, between control and experimental

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group regarding oral proficiency. So, the null hypothesis "PO does not have any significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' oral proficiency" was rejected. In other words, there was a significant improvement in the performance of the participants in experimental group in the aspect of oral proficiency after going through treatment phase.

4. Discussion

The first null hypothesis of this study aimed at determining if PO had any impact on the oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. The review of existing literature showed that no study was conducted to confirm whether PO could enhance oral proficiency or not. The study indicated that the students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group despite their initial homogeneity.

Despite of the fact that the body of literature rejected the notion of PO on speaking (Krashen & Terrel, 1983; Krashen, 1985), this study was in light of theoretical conclusions which were presented by Swain (1985, 1995, and 2005). Krashen (1985) considered output as an insufficient ingredient for language acquisition and maintained that it was input which was vital for acquisition of language. Also, Krashen (1985) believed that "speaking is the result of acquisition, not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly, but emerges on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input" (p.2) whereas Swain (1985,1995,2005) substantiated the weakness of oral proficiency of immersion students was due to the lack of production of PO. The act of pushing helped learners try more in their oral production or "stretch" their interlanguage resources. As the result, learners were obliged to process language efficiently and went beyond their present level of language.

Comparing these two groups, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of oral proficiency. This is most probably due to the nature of PO tasks. In PO tasks, students were pushed to produce target language. These tasks might offer that the learners were interacting at a high level of language not merely using routinized or memorized chunks of language. For instance, Izumi and Izumi (2004) found that picture description as a popular PO task was used to elicit oral production and substantiated that picture description was the best task to provide a situation for student to be pushed in oral output Therefore, it could be claimed that Swain's POH was partly supported by the result of this study

One possible reason for the success of PO group to make substantial improvement in this study might be that there was indeed the effect of abundance of production among the participants in PO tasks. During the treatment, students were asked to produce target language, and this production in target language helped learners to improve significantly on oral proficiency. This interpretation was in line with prediction of Swain (1985) in immersion program. She believed that the weakness of students in immersion program was due to lack of production and this production not reception helped the learner achieve near-native-like proficiency.

5. Conclusion

The motivation for the present study was several hypotheses which were formulated regarding the effect of PO on oral proficiency. Up to now most evidence

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supporting Swain's (1985) POH has been qualitative in nature. This thesis has added quantitative investigation to our understanding of how PO contributed to oral proficiency, therefore, this study tried to provide empirical support for Swain's POH. The results of this study suggested that PO might help learners to develop oral proficiency.

The main aspect that is considered important when it comes to oral proficiency is to work with it a lot and often. When students work a lot and often, they get used to speaking in front of others in different situations and with different people. Various PO tasks such as those listed above can contribute a great deal to students in developing oral proficiency necessary for life. Hopefully, those activities make learners more active to speak in the target language in the learning process and at the same time make their learning more meaningful. So, it is possible for a non-native speaker to possess near native-like proficiency in an EFL context if he or she has adequate and effective PO. This is quite in agreement with the theories of Swain's comprehensible output.

All in all, COH is one way of teaching which is based upon too many years of research and practical application by hundreds of thousands of scholars and applied linguists, now exist for virtually every imaginable instructional purpose. Moreover, we now recognize a great deal about the impacts of POH work on students and the condition necessary for oral proficiency. The positive findings in this study revealed that POH was an effective technique for improving learners' oral proficiency

In view of the results obtained in the present study, some pedagogical implications are proposed. One pedagogical implication of this study relates to the use of PO as a means for increasing oral proficiency. So, curriculum designers are suggested to include POH in the English textbooks

All research studies have limitations, and the current study is no exception. This study had certain limitations in examining the impact of PO on the enhancement of oral proficiency. One important limitation of the research was the length of the treatment; the experiment lasted for 12 sessions only half an hour for every session which was short for this type of experimental study. Therefore, various long term investigations, consequently, are required to be investigated. Due to the fact that it was very difficult to access to large number of population, this study was conducted with small number of participants, as only 30 females were evaluated further investigations are expected to gather data from a greater number of participants to increase the external validity or generalizability. Also, since the present study evaluated the effect of PO on females, it should be noted that these results may not be generalized to men. Researches with male or both male and female are necessary to be able to generalize the findings of further studies.

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THE IMPACT OF READING STRATEGIS' INSTRUCTION ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION PERFORMANCE

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Abstract
The present study investigated reading strategy use of Iranian college students learning English as a foreign language when they read reading comprehension texts in English. This study explored the relationship between the use of reading strategies and reading comprehension performance. In order to provide a homogeneous population to test if instruction of reading strategies has a significant effect on EFL learners reading comprehension performance, a population of 40 EFL learners were selected through an OPT test from among students of EFL program at Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon. So the study is conducted under a quasi-experimental design. From this population 20 intermediate students were selected as control group and 20 students as experimental group. Then a pretest was taken by two groups. Then the experimental group was exposed to reading strategies instruction for 10 sessions. The skimming and scanning strategies were two reading strategies which were selected for the purpose of treatment and when the students received efficient information about these reading strategies during 10 sessions of treatment the post test was given . Both groups were given the same post test and testees were asked to answer to 10 multiple-choice questions. Students in experimental group were expected to read the reading comprehension texts using the skimming and scanning strategies then answer the questions. Then using the spss software the scores of the two groups were analyzed through the t-test method and the t observed was calculated and compared with t critical.The results showed that The Iranian intermediate college students' reading comprehension performance was related to their reading strategy use; the more their reading comprehension performance, the more they utilized major reading strategies.

Key Words: Reading comprehension, Reading strategy, EFL, Skimming, Scanning.

Introduction

Reading is one of the basic skills students must learn. EFL students have a lot of various texts to read, like text books or other reading materials. By means of reading

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they learn most of their knowledge and understanding of the various fields, and reading shapes the basis of follow-up work like class free discussions or homework activities. For these reasons it is necessary for students to have suitable English reading competence for understanding what they have read. EFL learners can gain the above traits successfully by employing suitable and effective reading strategies.

Block (1986) believes that RS are a set of methods and techniques used by readers, so that they can achieve success in reading. In addition to Block , Cohen(1986) defined reading strategies as the mental process chosen by the reader consciously in order to achieve certain reading tasks., However, Mcnamara (2007) sees that reading strategies refer to the different cognitive and behavioural actions readers use under the purpose of achieving comprehension in reading. Also, Gough (1985) claims that the bottom up processing involves a series of steps the reader has to go through i.e, a series that involve moving from a step to another one, departing from recognising the key features of every letter and then words, sentences untill reaching the meaning of the text.

An important result of using reading strategies situated mostly in the ability to achieve meaningful reading. Reading strategies, like prediction, skimming, scanning, inferring, guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words and self monitoring are the most important reading strategies that help EFL learners to comprehend while reading.

Statement of the problem

Reading comprehension is a receptive skill in that the reader is receiving a message from the writer (Chastain 1988). The importance of reading skill in language learning is clear to us.

According to a pilot study it has been observed that Iranian EFL learners in Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon, when reading certain texts are unable to use certain effective reading strategies to access to the comprehension, and they show lack of awareness of these strategies. So does the lack of using appropriate reading strategies lead to lack of understanding texts?

Beck and Margaret (2005) described reading as a complex process composed of a number of interacting sub processes and abilities. Moreover, Pang et al (2003) have defined reading as "a complex activity that involves both perception and tought ."Cohen (1986) defined reading strategies as a mental process chosen by the reader consciously, in order to achieve certain reading tasks. In addition to that Block (1986) believes that reading strategies are a set of methods and techniques used by readers, so that they can achieve success in reading . According to Mcnamara (2007) reading strategies refer to the different cognitive and behavioral actions that readers use, under the purpose of achieving comprehension in reading.

Oxford (1990) has suggested six reading strategies from learning strategies. The suggested strategies are as follows: predicting, skimming, scanning, inferring, and guessing the meaning of familiar words and self monitoring.

Many documents have shown the value and importance of reading strategies and their effect on promoting and developing reading comprehension. thus since the lack of suitable performance of reading has been observed in Iranian EFL learners this study aims to investigate if the true use of appropriate reading strategies makes EFL

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learners strategic readers who can read and understand English language texts more effectively and accurately.

The basic aim of this study is to investigate Iranian college students' use of reading strategies while they read English texts. The other purpose is to explore whether the students' use of reading strategies has any effect on their reading comprehention performance.

To achieve these goals, the study adresses these research questions. First, the study helps to supply an insight from Iranian college students' reading strategy use when they read some texts in English. The study also makes English teachers aware of what reading strategies their students make use of while reading authentic texts in English. In addition, the teachers will discover how proficient English readers and weak English readers use reading strategies in a different way, particularly regarding kinds and frequency. This data will be useful to the Iranian EFL teachers that can correct their teaching methods to help their students to choose the proper reading strategies , particularly non-proficient students, reach higher levels of reading comprehension of their English textbooks.

Research Question

In order to tackle the problem of the research in a very consolidated way, two research questions have been formulated as follows:

1- Does the true employment of appropriate reading strategies make EFL learners strategic readers who can read and comprehend more effectively?

2- Does the lack of using appropriate and workable reading strategies lead to lack of understanding of texts?

Research Hypothesis

To answer the research questions of the study, two research hypotheses have been formulated as follows:

1- Instruction of reading strategies to EFL learners effects meaningful reading comprehension.

2- Iranian EFL learners' lack of understanding English texts roots from lack of appropriate reading strategy.

Review of literature

Reading is considered one of the most complicated cognitive processes achieved by human beings. Gates (1949) states that reading is "a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes… [that] …can and should embrace all types of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning, and problem-solving" (as cited in Hoover & Gough, 1990, p. 127). Substantial efforts to define and explain the process of reading have been done in various research areas. Over the past decades, subsequent research in the area of reading mostly focused on explaining reading from the perspective of the process and components involved in the process (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Goodman, 1967; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Just & Carpenter, 1980; Stanovich, 1980). The efforts to understand the process of reading have brought various models and views of reading. There are some that are cited most frequently in

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research of L1 and L2 reading: Goodman's (1967) "psycholinguistic" model, Smith's (1971) "top-down" model, Gough's (1972) "bottom-up" model, and Stanovich's (1980) "interactive approaches". Reading as a research area is an extremely large field and an issue about which much has been written. Following is an introduction to widely-accepted views and models to briefly explain the reading process in a first language, and to provide some fundamental background and theories for comparison with reading in English as a second/foreign language.

Through a very comprehensive review of many reading models, Barnett (1988) categorizes the models into three basic types: "bottom-up" models, "top-down" models, and interactive models. In "bottom-up" processing, the reader begins decoding letters, words, phrases, and sentences and finally building up meaning from this incoming text. Phonics would be one example employing "bottom-up" processing, where a reader learns letter/sound relationships, moves to decoding words, reading sentences and then focus on the meaning of a text (Reynher, 2008). In "top-down" processing, the reader begins with higher-order concepts (general knowledge of the world or a specific situation) and full texts (paragraphs and sentences), and works down to the actual features of the texts (e.g., letters, words, phrases, and grammatical structures). Whole language would be one example employing "top-down" processing, where a reader constructs meaning for a text based on his/her prior knowledge (Reynher, 2008). The terms of 'text-based' and 'reader-based' are frequently used for "bottom-up" and "top-down" respectively. Regarding terminology of "top-down", Urquhart and Weir (1998) indicate that the term 'top-down' is deceptive, appearing to offer a neat converse to 'bottom up', a converse which in reality does not exist…Given the somewhat misleading nature of the term 'top-down', we suggest that the related terms 'text (or data)-driven' and 'reader-driven' are more generally useful when describing the contrast between 'bottom-up' and 'topdown'(p. 42).

Interactive models posit interaction between "bottom-up" processing and "top-down" processing (Rumelhart, 1985; Stanovich, 1980). Rumelhart (1985) states that reading involves both "top-down" and "bottom-up" processing. Stanovich (1980) points out that "interactive models assume that a pattern is synthesized based on information provided simultaneously from several knowledge sources a deficit in any knowledge source results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources, regardless of their level in the processing hierarchy" (p. 63). Grabe (1991) points out that interactive approaches refer to two different conceptions: general interaction between a reader and a text, and interaction of many component skills. Most second language researchers stress the general interaction of which the basic concept is that the reader constructs meanings of the text based on both the knowledge drawn from the text and background knowledge of the reader. In contrast, most cognitive psychologists and education psychologists stress the interaction of component skills, implying that reading involves both lower-level skills, such as decoding, and higher-level skills, such as comprehension.

The interactive model incorporates the role of background knowledge in the language comprehension process. A theoretical model to explain and formalize the role played by background knowledge in language comprehension is known as

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schema theory (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). Hadley (2001) briefly describes the schema theory in language learning as follows:

One of the basic tenets of this theory is that any given text does not carry meaning in and of itself. Rather, it provides direction for listeners or readers so that they can construct meaning from their own cognitive structure (previously acquired or background knowledge). The previously acquired knowledge structures accessed in the comprehension process are called schemata (p. 147). Schema theory, emphasizing the role of background knowledge in language comprehension, also indicates that "bottom-up" processing and "top-down" processing occur at all levels simultaneously; "The data that are needed to instantiate, or fill out, the schemata become available through bottom-up processing; top-down processing facilitates their assimilation if they are anticipated by or consistent with the listener/reader's conceptual expectations" (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983, p. 557).

Methodology

Introduction

Our investigation, will be designed using an experiment that consists of ; Group one and Group two. Group 1 participant, will be designed as the control group who receive no treatment, and whereas Group 2 participants, will play the role of the experimental groups and receive further instruction and information from the part of the instructor about the text used in the experiment.

All the participants of the two groups are tested to investigate their reading comprehension, through using the Multiple-Choice Formats. In order to discuss the results obtained from the groups, we use the t .test for independent group design. This test is very useful and helpful one to conduct the obtained scores of the groups together, as well as to confirm if our hypothesis is true or false.

Design of the study

The design of the study is quasi-experimental design which is a pre-test and post-test design.

Participants

A population of 40 intermediate EFL learners were selected through an OPT test among 100 students of EFL program at Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon. So the study was conducted under a quasi-experimental design. From this population 20 students were selected as control group and 20 students as experimental group. Then a pretest was taken by two groups. Then the experimental group was exposed to reading strategies instruction for 10 sessions. The skimming and scanning strategies were two reading strategies which were selected for the purpose of treatment and when the students received efficient information about these reading strategies during 10 sessions of treatment the post test was given . Both groups were given a same post test and subjects were asked to answer to 10 multiple-choice questions. Students in experimental group were expected to read the reading comprehension texts using the skimming and scanning strategies then answer the questions.

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Materials

This research scheme takes advantage of three types of tests for the sake of data collection. An OPT (Oxford placement test) not released and publicized in order to measure the subjects' current status of proficiency level. The test covered the areas of reading, and grammar proficiency (see Appendix A). The subjects in both groups were screened and equated as far as their proficiency levels were concerned.

A pre-test of reading was given to the subjects to measure the subjects' initial differences in reading comprehension. both groups were given the same text but, they encountered two different multiple- choice questions. both groups' exercises stated " select the answer you think is correct" followed by 10 multiple choice questions in which experimental group participants have to find quickly the main idea of each paragraph, and to select one answer from 4 suggested ones to answer the ten questions. The control group participants were provided with 10 questions selected from experimental group exercises. And finally a post test of reading was administered to both groups to find out the effectiveness of the treatment.

Procedure

Our experiment has taken place at Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon as it mentioned before. In this experiment, we will test the effect of skimming and scanning strategies on EFL learners' reading comprehension , Each group is provided with 10 questions to answer, and they are asked to select the right answer in the ten given questions choosing from 4 suggested statements in each question. Learners are given a text to read followed by comprehension questions namely, multiple-choice questions (appendix B). We will apply skimming and scanning strategy on the experimental group.

The two groups work on the same text with different questions and we have set 2 points for every question i.e. 20 points for all the questions.

Statistical analysis

We aim to test readers' comprehension through the multiple- choice questions given to every group. In order to show the difference between the obtained scores of all the participants of the groups, calculating the mean of the groups'scores will show to us more clearly the difference among the groups.

The data of the study was computed based on computer assisted program spss software. T-test was used to present the analysis and result of the study.

Data analysis and result:

Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of this study is to determine the impact of reading strategies instruction on Iranian EFL learners reading comprehension performance. After giving a proficiency test to 100 students , 40 intermediate students were chosen .20 of them were randomly assigned as experimental group to receive the treatment , the other 20 students were served as control group . after giving a pre-test to both groups , the experimental group received a treatment and after the end of the treatment , they sat

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for the post test .in order to examine the effect of treatment on experimental group , T-test was used.

Table 4.2. Mean scores of experimental and control group on pre-test

	Mean	*STDEV*
Experimental	*14.7222*	*6.03171*
Control	*15.3222*	*4.1537*

The result of t-test showed that the means of control group and experimental group students at pre-test are not significantly different from each other.

Q1 : 1- Does the true employment of appropriate reading strategies make EFL learners strategic readers who can read and comprehend more effectively?

To answer this question T-test was used as follows: see the appendix D

In table 4.4 in appendix D "1" stands for instruction and " 0 " stands for no instruction , it shows the 20 experimental group's post –test scores which are numbered with " 1" received treatment and 20 control group's post –test scores which are numbered with " 0 " did not received the treatment .

Table 4.5.Group statistics

Instruction	*N*	*mean*	*S.D*	*Std.Error mean*
Reading instruction	*20*	*19.2576*	*5.45*	*1.420*
No instruction	*20*	*14.5733*	*4.75*	*1.070*

This table shows the comparison of mean scores of strategy instruction and no strategy instruction ; it is found that the experimental group who received strategy instruction got better scores , hence the study concluded that the strategy instruction has positive effect on the students' reading comprehension performance.

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Table 4.6. T-test for equality of means

						95% confidence interval of the difference	
					std.error difference		
	t	df	sig.(2-tailed)	mean difference		lower	upper
reading	2.46	47	.002	4.355	1.476	2.087	6.53
equal variances not assumed	2.46	45	.002	4.355	1.476	2.073	6.53

This table shows t between post test scores of experimental and control group ; in this table t (critical values of students' distribution) is 2.46, and by comparison of this t with t critical , the study concluded that the hypothesis is not correct.

Hence the hypothesis teaching reading strategies do not have any effect on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance, is rejected , because when t observe is bigger than the t critical , the hypothesis is rejected , so the study showed that strategy instruction has positive effect on students' reading comprehension performance.

Q 2- Does the lack of using appropriate and workable reading strategies lead to lack of understanding of texts?

To answer this question the t-test statistics was used as follows :

By comparing the scores of pre-test and post-test , it is found that the post test scores are higher than pre-test scores , and it is because of strategy instruction the experimental group received during the specific period.

Table 4.7.Statistical analysis on the collected data of pre-test and post-test

	Test	N	mean	S.D	std.error mean
Score	pre	20	14.53	6.02	1.35
	Post	20	19.73	5.7	1.22

This table shows that the mean scores of students in experimental group in their pre-test is lower than their mean scores in post test , so this study showed that after strategy instruction the students' scores improved , hence the study showed that there is a significant difference between students' mean scores in their pre-test and post-test of reading comprehension in experimental group.

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Table 4.8. levenes' test for equality of variances

Levenes' test for equality of variances				*t-test for equality of means*			
						95% confidence interval of the difference	
	Sig.	*DF*	*sig.(2-tailed)*	*mean difference*	*Std.error difference*	*lower*	*upper*
Score equal variances Assumed	*.665*	*56*	*.002*	*-4.73*	*1.573*	*-7.35*	*-1.70*
Equal variances Not assumed		*55.39*	*.002*	*-4.73*	*1.573*	*-7.35*	*-1.70*

Based on this table the study found that the difference between the mean scores of students in experimental group in their pre-test and post –test is not by chance, it is real and because of the strategy instruction and because the level of significance reference value is 0.05 and in this study the level of significance is computed as 0.02 , so the level of significance of this study is lower than standard level of significance. Then the study showed that this difference in mean scores is real and because of instruction not by chance. So the second hypothesis is supported.

Implication

The findings of this study can suggest some educational implications for EFL teaching and learning in Iran. The implications are obviously intended for Iranian college students who were the target subjects for this study, but the implications might not be limited only to them.

First, Iranian EFL teachers might want to identify their students' profiles in reading strategy use when the students read authentic expository/technical English texts. In order to identify the profiles, the teachers might use diverse techniques, such as questionnaire, observation, interview, journal, and think-aloud protocol. A questionnaire like the SORS can be a good option for profiling the students' typical reading strategy use and wide array of reading strategies, particularly in a large classroom setting like a Iranian EFL teaching/learning environment. The modified SORS can be also a good choice for identifying the students' text specific reading strategy use. With the identification of the profile, Iranian EFL teacher could incorporate reading strategies into their teaching of reading.

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Second, as shown in this study, Iranian college students who have good reading comprehension ability seem to use a certain type of reading strategies (i.e., Global strategy) and some specific reading strategies, such as 'using prior knowledge', 'adjusting reading speed', 'using typographical features (e.g., bold, italics)', 'using context clues', 'checking understanding when new information presents', and 'guessing meaning of unknown words', more often than their colleagues who have less proficient reading comprehension ability. Therefore, it is suggested that Iranian EFL teachers introduce high proficiency students' characteristics of using these reading strategies to their students, especially low proficiency English readers, and encourage them to use these reading strategies that they might not be aware of and therefore not be taking advantage of.

Third, Iranian college students showed that they do not frequently use certain reading strategies, such as 'asking oneself question' and 'analyzing and evaluating what is read', for successful comprehension. It is important for readers to be aware of whether their comprehension breaks down or not (Carrell et al., 1998). These two strategies help readers monitor and evaluate if their comprehension is successful or unsuccessful during or after reading. It is quite probable that Iranian college students are not familiar with sophisticated reading strategies including these two. Although effects of reading strategy instruction in L2 contexts have been less than conclusive, some studies showed a positive effect of reading strategy instruction on reading comprehension (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Kitajima, 1997). Accordingly, it is recommended that Iranian EFL teachers provide their students with instruction that helps them know what those reading strategies are, how to use them, why to use them, and when to use them, and finally leads the students to be more active strategic English readers. In the mean time, Iranian EFL teachers should keep in mind that reading strategy use might be able to help the improvement of their students' reading comprehension, and they also should develop their own awareness of reading strategies.

Fourth, this study showed that Iranian college students seem to use larger variety of reading strategies when reading authentic expository/technical texts than when reading authentic narrative texts, and they seem to use certain reading strategies, such as 'previewing text before reading', 'underlining information in text', 'using context clues', 'going back and forth in text', 're-reading for better understanding', and 'analyzing and evaluating what is read', more frequently when reading authentic expository/technical texts than when reading authentic narrative texts. Therefore, it is suggested that Iranian EFL teachers help their students who are not familiar with authentic expository/technical English texts be aware that they might need larger variety of reading strategies than they used to employ, and they might need certain reading strategies that they have not often employed previously in order to comprehend the authentic expository/technical texts. Especially college freshmen, who are forced to read authentic expository/technical English texts as soon as they enter college, might have problems to comprehend the texts with their linguistic knowledge and reading strategies that used to be effective enough for non-authentic texts. After all, Iranian EFL teachers should help the students recognize that they might have to be active strategic readers to comprehend their demanding authentic expository/technical texts and to achieve academic success in their college lives.

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ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL TEACHERS'CRITICAL THINKING AND SELF-EFFICACY

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Abstract
The present study aimed at substantiating the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking and self–efficacy. The sample was composed of 120 EFL teachers' including71 females and 49 males. The critical thinking ability of 120 Iranian EFL teachers was assessed using Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal. In addition, the teachers' self-efficacy was estimated using Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale. The Pearson product-moment correlation analysis indicated a statistically significant relationship between the two sets of measures. The result of the study showed that there is positive relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking and self-efficacy. The findings have several implications for EFL teachers as well as EFL teacher education programs.

Key words: Critical Thinking, Self-efficacy, EFL Teachers

1. Introduction

After the post method era, there has been more attention on the role learners play in the process of learning and the notions such as learner autonomy, and learner awareness got prominence. Thus, the new approach to second language (SL) teaching showed a reorientation toward learning–centered pedagogy. The role of the teacher, based on the new paradigm, is critical and she is ''one of the main factors that have a lot of influence on students' achievement'' (Chen, 2012, p. 213).

In the new wave of interest toward learner-centered pedagogy, critical thinking (CT) has found a great importance. The aim of the education is to develop not only students who are able to think critically but teachers who are equipped with such a construct.

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As such, research studies have begun to delve into the role of CT in education. Among different researchers interested in CT, Davidson and Dunham (1997) suggest that CT skills could be incorporated in to EFL instruction. In addition, their findings revealed the influential role EFL teachers can play in scaffolding activities and procedures which nurture and foster EFL learners' CT abilities. Davidson (1998) also, points that the concept of CT is even more essential for L2 teachers than L1 teachers. He adds that if we do not possess such a construct, "our students may well flounder when they are confronted with necessity of thinking critically, especially in an academic setting" (p. 121).That is why, Thompson (2002) argues that ways in which CT might be interpreted and taught in educational contexts especially L2 context, have more recently become highly debated questions for L2 learning scholars and practitioners.

Indeed, the notion of CT is by no means new since it was Socrates who introduced this approach of thinking about two thousand years ago (Fisher, 2001). However, despite the long history of critical thinking tradition, there is no single and agreed-upon definition for what constitutes critical thinking. As Fisher (2001) notes, Dewey (1933) is the father of modern critical thinking, and Dewy defined CT as; "active, persistent, and careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds which support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 9). In line with Dewey, there is consensus that CT is one of the fundamental goals of learning and particularly central to higher education (Ennis, 1996; Paul, 1987). Furthermore, the notion of CT has a fundamental role in assessing students' engagement. In the same line CT also effects on teachers' strategies, and classroom management. However, it should be kept in mind that CT is related to other affective and socio-cognitive variables such as self-efficacy. Thus, much research related to self-efficacy and especially teacher self-efficacy has gained significant insights as important factors in teaching and learning (Bandura, 2007).

The importance of critical thinking can be related to some variables, such as teachers' self-efficacy (TSE) which can be positively affected through teacher education activities that encourage reflective thought. Bandura (1986) also, claims that teachers can make use of various sources of efficacy-building information, including 'mastery' experiences of succeeding in similar tasks. Recent findings have shown that, the perspective of teacher self-efficacy was derived from Bandura's social cognitive theory and self-efficacy. Furthermore, the teacher self-efficacy instruments that were founded in social cognitive theory are the teacher self-efficacy scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Self-efficacy beliefs have a remarkable position in different aspects of our today's life (Maddux, 2002); also it plays an important role in individuals' decision making process, thinking modes and problems solving approaches (Dweck& Leggett, 1988). Recent findings have shown that, the powerful effect of self-efficacy is evident in the teachers' activities. Therefore, teacher behavior varies with their self-efficacy beliefs and teachers with high instructional self-efficacy spend more time planning and organizing classroom activities (Allinder, 1994). Furthermore, teachers with high instructional self-efficacy spend a larger section of classroom time on educational system for providing students with the guidance they need to succeed, praise students' accomplishments (Gibson &Dembo, 1984), are willing to develop classrooms with mastery goal structures, and focus on learning and improvement (Wolters &

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Daugherty, 2007). On the contrary, teachers with low instructional self-efficacy devote more time to non-academic matters, criticize students for their failures and ignore students who do not succeed quickly. Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) conclude that teachers with high self-efficacy exhibit greater enthusiasm and commitment for teaching, and are more likely to remain in the teaching profession.
Promoted by the idea that teachers' critical thinking and self-efficacy in particular, are related to each other; the present study made an attempt to answer the fallowing research question:
Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking and self-efficacy?

To conduct the study, the following null hypothesis was formed:
There is no relationship between EFL teacher's critical thinking and self-efficacy.

4. Methodology
The design of the present study was ex post facto because the aim of the researcher was to investigate the relationship between two variables i.e. teachers' critical thinking and the teachers' self-efficacy. In this type of design, the researcher has no control over what has happened to the subjects before and no treatment was given to them. Also, correlational designs are used to determine and compare the possible relationships (Hatch and Farhady, 1981).

4.1 Participants
To accomplish the purpose of the research, one group of EFL teachers took part in this research. The subjects participating in this research were all Iranian EFL teachers who were randomly selected. The sample was composed of 120 EFL teachers' including 71 females and 49 males. The sample included faculty members of Islamic Azad University Kermanshah Branch as well as teachers from high schools, and language schools in Kermanshah. The teachers were holding PhD, MA and BA degrees.

4.2 Instruments
In this study two questioners were utilized, one of them was related to Watson–Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA-FA) designed by Watson- Glaser (1980), and the other was related to self-efficacy Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES)designed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). Hence, there were two answer sheets for two questioners.
The first instrument in this study was Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal developing by Watson-Glaser (1980). This instrument was applied to investigate the mentioned English teachers' CT Abilities (CTA), and it has different version, so the researcher selected the Farsi Version. Hajjarian (2008) reported the reliability of Watson-Glaser test for Iranian EFL teachers to be 0.73. Mohamadyari (2002) also argues for the reliability and validity of the (CTA) test in Iranian EFL setting.
Another questionnaire used in this study was the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES), designed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). The long form of the questionnaire that was utilized in the present study comprises three subscales. So,

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this questionnaire consists of 24 questions answered on a 9 point likert scale ranging from 1-nothing to 9-a great deal. Additionally, TSES includes three subcomponents (efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for instructional strategies, and efficacy for classroom management) each of which is measured through eight questions. Based on the instrument, the higher the score a participant gains, the higher his/her self-efficacy beliefs. The time for answering CT questionnaire was 60 mints and for S-E questionnaire25 mints. Since it was not possible to give the questionnaire to all participants in one setting, they were asked answer the questions at home and return the questionnaire in a week. The teachers were also told that the results would remain confidential and would be kept for the purpose of the study.

5. Results

As it was stated in previous parts, two questionnaires, Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal and Teachers' Self-efficacy, were administered in order to determine the CTA and self-efficacy of EFL teachers. Table 1shows the central distribution of the scores obtained in these questioners. As it can be seen, minimum and maximum scores obtained in the CT questioner were 17.00 and 51.00 respectively which suggest a mean of 30.82 with a standard deviation of 5.93 from the mean. As Table 2 shows, minimum and maximum scores obtained in the self-efficacy questioner were 33.00 and 36.00 respectively which suggest a mean of 35.2 with a standard deviation of 1.03 from the mean.

Table 1
Central distribution of the scores, statistical acquired critical thinking, and self-efficacy subscales

	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Critical Thinking	30.8250	30.0000	5.93475	17.00	**51.00**
Self-efficacy	35.2000	35.50000	1.03388	33.00	**36.00**

Regarding the nature of the present investigation which is mainly concentrated on comparing the mean scores of the one group of EFL teachers, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation formula was used to describe the possible correlation between the mean scores of the participants on the two questionnaires. As can be seen in Table 2, there is a positive correlation between tests' scores and *sig* of two-tailed is .03 which is less than probability level(.030<.05), thus reject the null hypothesis.

Table 2
Inferential statistics of paired samples of the hypothesize

Correlations			
		Critical thinking	**Self-efficacy**
Critical thinking	Pearson Correlation	1	.278
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.030
	N	120	120
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.278	1

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	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	
	N	120	120

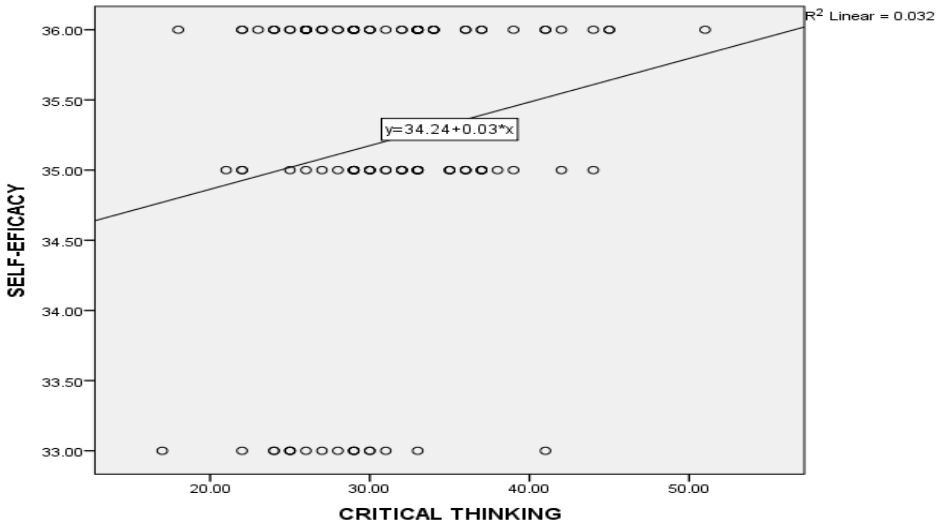

Figure 1, teachers' critical thinking and self-efficacy

Pearson Product-moment correlation analysis results indicate that the null hypothesis can be rejected. Therefore, there is a correlation between critical thinking and self-efficacy of Iranian EFL teachers.

5. Conclusion

More recently, the study of characteristics of effective teachers has found a great importance. So, among these traits critical thinking and self-efficacy have been recognized to play a critical role in teachers' success in the classroom. This research reports on the study that examined the relationships between two major theoretical frame works: self-efficacy and critical thinking in Iranian EFL teachers. The findings indicated a significant positive relationship between these variables, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis. It can be concluded that, when teachers use their critical thinking ability and think more critically they are more active and motivated in classroom; thus, they have high level of self-efficacy. In addition, it can be concluded that teachers with high levels of critical thinking may possess high levels of self-efficacy. The findings have several implications for EFL teachers as well as EFL teacher education programs. One of the suggestions is that since CT has a critical role in teachers' daily life as well as their career and because there is positive correlation between teachers CT and their other traits there should be an attempt to give teachers, especially EFL practitioners, awareness regarding the crucial role of CT. As such, in service courses are needed to familiarize teachers with the advantages of critical thinking. Moreover, EFL teachers should be made aware that teachers' sense of self-

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efficacy is an important factor in determining teachers' opinion about their career, and their classroom performance.

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EXPLORING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION TEST PERFORMANCE: THE ROLE OF KNOWLEDGE OF READING STRATEGIES AS AN EXTERNAL FACTOR

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Abstract
The ability to read individual words and to analyze the vocabularies and structure of the sentences does not suffice for comprehending texts. A factor affecting reading comprehension test performance of EFL learners is their knowledge of reading strategies which was the focus of this study. The main objective of the present study was to find the reading strategies that carry more weight and are more significant so that we can capitalize on them in education. A total of 207 students (102 males, and105 females) participated in this study. First a reading comprehension test and then a strategy questionnaire was given to them. The analysis of the data was then carried out through conducting linear regression analyses. The results showed that, among the selected variables the most effective one was learner's knowledge of metacognitive strategies, the next was their knowledge of compensation strategies, and the least effective one was their knowledge of testing strategies. Moreover, it was proved that the effect of the knowledge of reading strategies on reading comprehension test performance was stronger in the male group than the female group. These reading strategies, which are highly ignored in EFL classes, need to be highlighted to assist learners in reading comprehension. The results of the present study will help language instructors and curriculum organizers to make more proficient decisions on the reading strategies to be emphasized in language programs.

Keywords: reading comprehension, strategy, external factor, influence

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1. Introduction

Reading is considered particularly valuable under the foreign language context as it is an influential activity through which learners can be exposed to language input (Laufer, 2010, as cited in Jafari & Ketabi, 2012). It is a composite of many abilities and an interactive process between the reader and the text resulting in comprehension which is its principal point (Carnine, Silbert, & Kameenui, 1997). Nowadays reading comprehension (RC) is an indispensable part of high-stakes exams such as TOEFL, IELTS, MSRT, TOLIMOE, TELP, and even entrance exams for universities and it seems crucial for the students to become proficient in the reading process. As a result, finding a way to enhance reading comprehension is of great importance in the field of reading research. A factor affecting reading comprehension test performance of EFL learners is their knowledge of reading strategies. It requires further research, especially in an EFL context such as Iran since the small number of studies in the literature is not sufficient to come to any clear conclusion about the true nature of the effects of this factor.

2. Literature Review

Reading comprehension strategies are tools that students can use to help determine the meaning of what they read. Researchers of second/foreign language reading (e.g., Brantmeier, 2002; Slataci & Akyel, 2002) have long investigated reading comprehension strategies whose integration and application is believed to lead to efficient reading comprehension. It is believed that the use of appropriate reading strategies can improve reading comprehension (Olsen & Gee, 1991). Such strategies involve memory and compensation strategies together with cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social, and test-taking strategies (Chamot, 2005; Caverly, 1997; Oxford, 1996; and Zhang, 1993).

According to Anderson (1991), Cohen (1990), Pressley (2002), and Zhang, Gu, and Hu (2008) reading strategies used by readers range from the more traditionally well-known ones like skimming, scanning, and inferring to the more recently recognized ones such as generating questions, activating schemata, using mental imagery, recognizing text structure, monitoring comprehension, visualizing, evaluating strategy use, etc. Researchers have pointed out that strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but they have the potential to be used effectively or ineffectively in different contexts (Cohen, 2003, 2007; Grabe, 2004; Hadwin et al., 2001; Paris, 2002; and Zhang, 2003).

2.1 Studies on Reading Strategy

In the literature, studies on reading strategy are divided into two major categories. The first category describes the readers' strategy use as different among more and less proficient readers (Carrell, 1989; Janzen, 1996). As an instance, Yau (2005) in a study on language learning strategy use found that proficient readers apply more sophisticated approaches to reading than less-proficient ones. In his study the skilled reader employed strategies of inferring, summarizing, and synthesizing during and after reading, while the less skilled reader used bridging inferences, paraphrasing, and repetition. Yaali Jahromi (2002) also found that the high proficient students used more strategies. Similarly, the results of a study by Al-Melhi (2000) on a random sample of

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fourth-year Saudi college students as they read in English as a foreign language proved that some differences did exist between the skilled and less-skilled readers in terms of their actual and reported reading strategies, their metacognitive awareness, their use of global and local strategies, their self-confidence as readers, and their perception of a good reader.

The second category of studies investigates the impact of reading strategy instruction on the readers' reading performance. Implying the crucial importance of reading strategies, some studies support the effectiveness of reading strategies instruction (Carrel, 1998; Dreyer &Nel, 2003; Kern, 1989; Meng, 2004), while others refer to reading strategies instruction as a useless activity (Barnett, 1988). The main findings of Alsamadani's (2009, as cited in Alsamadani, 2011) quantitative data also showed that using reading strategies is not always a guarantee for good comprehension. Saudi EFL learners showed great awareness and use of reading strategies, though their reading comprehension level was still below the average.

Studies carried out on reading instruction and reading strategies (e.g., Khosravi, 2000; Salataci & Akyel, 2002; Shokrpour & Fotovatian , 2009 ; Wright & Brown, 2006) revealed that reading comprehension strategy instruction had either a positive impact on learners' reading comprehension ability or their awareness of reading comprehension strategies. Singhal (2001) maintained that "reading strategies are of interest for the way readers manage their interaction with written text and how these strategies are related to the text comprehension" (p. 1).

A number of researchers express little doubt that instruction is able to develop reading skill (Connor, Morrison, & Petrella, 2004; Pani, 2003; Salataci and Akyel, 2002; Khosravi, 2000; and Ayaduray and Jacobst, 1997). Salataci and Akyel (2002), for example, investigated the possible effects of reading instruction on reading in Turkish and English and proved the positive effect of strategy instruction on both Turkish and English reading strategies and on reading comprehension in English.

According to Kintsch & Kintsch (2005), reading comprehension process involves the integration of decoding ability, vocabulary knowledge, prior knowledge of the topic considered, and relevant strategies to make sense of a text and understand it. As a result, reading strategy instruction could partially change the behavior of reading in the students. Likewise, Carrell and Grabe (2002) stated that "a reader engages in processing at the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and discourse levels, as well as goal setting, text-summary building, interpretive elaborating from knowledge resources, monitoring, and assessment of goal achievement" (p. 234).

Shokrpour and Fotovatian (2009) conducted an experimental study to determine the effects of consciousness-raising of metacognitive strategies on a group of Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension. The results of this study revealed that in comparison to the control group, the experimental group showed a significant improvement in reading comprehension at the end of the treatment period.

3. Objectives of the Study and the Research Questions

Many factors (internal and external) are claimed to influence EFL learners' reading comprehension test performance. Among them all, their "knowledge of reading strategies" was chosen for this study. In addition to the limited literature available, the

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existence of contradictory results highlights the necessity to conduct a survey with different participants and at a different setting. The main objective of the present study was to find the reading strategies that carry more weight and are more significant so that we can capitalize on them in education. The researcher seeks to investigate their relative influence on RC in order to discover the hierarchical order in which these strategies contributing to RC test performance can be put. These hierarchically ordered strategies can then assist curriculum designers in choosing strategies to include in reading instruction programs. The present research also endeavors to discover the difference between male and female Iranian EFL learners in this regard. Research questions under investigation are as follows:

1. How can the strategies under investigation be hierarchically ordered on the basis of their influence on RC test performance?
2. Is there any significant difference between Iranian male and female EFL learners regarding the extent to which their RC test performance is influenced by the selected strategies?

4. Method

4.1 Participants

A total of 207 students (102 males and105 females) participated in this study. They were Iranian EFL learners comprising students of an upper intermediate level at a private language institute (Navid English Institute, Shiraz branch). All students were native speakers of Persian, at the average age of 20 who had been studying English for almost 10 semesters. They were assured that their performance would be kept confidential and would only be used for research purposes. In accordance with the ethical guidelines, participation was strictly voluntary and the students were informed that participation or non-participation would not affect their final grade or relationship with the institute in any way.

4.2 Instruments

Tow instruments were utilized in this study. The first one was a reading comprehension test taken from the TOEFL actual test (2005, pp. 25-35) which was a standardized reading comprehension test composed of five passages. Each passage was followed by ten multiple-choice questions. Thus there were 50 questions in total. The passages were on different topics including biology, language, and nature. Regarding the validity and reliability of the test, as an established standardized language test, all of the official TOEFL tests have been carefully pretested for validity and reliability before being put into actual use.

The second instrument was a reading strategy questionnaire which was also employed by Shang (2010). It is adopted from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL version 7.0), Carrell's (1989) Metacognitive Questionnaire, Pintrich *et al.*'s (1991) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), and Baker and Boonkit's (2004) English Reading Strategies Questionnaire. It contains altogether 43 items to elicit subjects' self-reported use of the 10 sets of selected reading strategies categorized into four groups: cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, and testing strategies (see Table 1). Students were asked to rate certain statements on a 5-

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point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) "never or almost never true of me" to (5) "always or almost always true of me". The questionnaire was pilot-tested with a group of 7 students from the same population pool to check clarity and comprehensibility of its items. In addition, the amount of time needed to answer the questions was calculated. Some modifications were made to the questionnaire in response to problems arising from the pilot test. The questionnaire is reported to have good reliability and validity (Shang 2010), however; for the sake of certainty the reliability estimation was repeated in this study (Cronbach's Alpha= .84).

Table 1: Ten Sets of Reading Strategies

Strategy	Sets of Reading Strategies	Number of Items	Total
Cognitive	Rehearsal Elaboration Organizational	3 (items 1-3) 5 (items 4-8) 5 (items9 -13)	13
Metacognitive	Planning Monitoring Regulating	3 (items 14-16) 4 (items 17-20) 5 (items 21-25)	12
Compensation	Linguistic Semantic	5 (items 26-30) 5 (items 31-35)	10
Testing	Skimming Eliminating	4 (items 36-39) 4 (items 40 -43)	8

4.3 Procedure and Design of the Study

The data was collected from the participants at the two branches of the aforementioned institute in two consecutive days after the approval for collecting the data was obtained from the manager of the institute. First the reading comprehension test was given to the students within a time limit (55 minutes), and then the strategy questionnaire was given to the students under no time pressure and their questions regarding the comprehension of the items of this questionnaire were answered. After the grading procedure, individual students were delivered a report on their performance in sealed envelopes; confidentiality was respected throughout the research process. The design of the present study was quantitative where measurement is a major key. Moreover, this study in terms of its time frame was cross-sectional. To carry out the statistical analysis, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 21.0 was used. Scores gathered through selected instruments were arranged in different columns so that along with showing students' gender and age in the first two columns there were other columns for each student showing his/her scores. The analysis of the data was then carried out through conducting linear regression analyses.

5. Data Analysis and Results

5.1 Relative Influence of Reading Strategies on RC Test Performance

The first aim of this study was to investigate how the selected reading strategies-cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, and testing strategies - can be hierarchically

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ordered on the basis of their relative influence on RC test performance. To this end, a multiple linear regression analysis was carried out. This type of analysis estimates the coefficients of the linear equation, involving independent variables that best predict the value of the dependent variable.

The hypotheses under investigation in this phase of research were as follows:

H_0: $ß_1 = ß_2 = ß_3 = \ldots ß_k = 0$ (None of the independent variables affects the dependent one.)

H_1: $ß_i \neq 0$ (At least one of the independent variables affects the dependent one.)

Before conducting the analyses, the outliers were checked through Cook's and Leverage values and they were deleted from the data. Then normal distribution of the dependent variable (RC score) was assured through one-sample kolmogorov-smirnov test (sig. = .09 > α = .05, Table 2).

Table 2: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		RC score
N		207
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	25.77
	Std. Deviation	7.250
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.086
	Positive	.086
	Negative	-.048
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.241
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.092

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

The regression was then run and the results of collinearity diagnostics indicated multiple colliniarity which means that linear correlation was diagnosed between the independent variables. As a result, a stepwise method was employed.

The results of the stepwise regression analysis (Table 3) show that regression line and the independent variables account for 46 percent of the variance in RC test scores (R^2=.46).

Table 3: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.622[a]	.387	.384	5.689
2	.656[b]	.430	.424	5.500
3	.677[c]	.459	.451	5.373

a. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS
b. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS, TESTINGS
c. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS, TESTINGS, COMPENSATIONS

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Table 4 provides evidence for the significance of the results (sig. = .00 < α = .05)

Table 4: ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4191.298	1	4191.298	129.486	.000[b]
	Residual	6635.572	205	32.369		
	Total	10826.870	206			
2	Regression	4655.203	2	2327.602	76.937	.000[c]
	Residual	6171.666	204	30.253		
	Total	10826.870	206			
3	Regression	4967.432	3	1655.811	57.365	.000[d]
	Residual	5859.438	203	28.864		
	Total	10826.870	206			

a. Dependent Variable: RC score
b. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS
c. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS, TESTINGS
d. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS, TESTINGS, COMPENSATIONS

The results (Table 5) also indicated that among the four independent variables, three were included in the regression model (model 3). They were metacognitive, testing, and compensation strategies. However; one (cognitive strategies) was found to have collinearity (linear correlation) with the other independent variables and as a result was excluded from the model. This means that in the presence of those variables which were included in the model there was no need for cognitive strategies.

Table 5: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.633	1.813		3.107	.002
	METACOGS	.440	.039	.622	11.379	.000
2	(Constant)	14.425	2.848		5.064	.000
	METACOGS	.435	.037	.615	11.630	.000
	TESTINGS	.112	.081	.102	1.916	.000
3	(Constant)	11.230	2.947		3.811	.000
	METACOGS	.338	.047	.478	7.196	.000
	TESTINGS	.143	.079	.123	2.329	.000
	COMPENSATIONS	.231	.070	.219	3.289	.001

a. Dependent Variable: RC score

The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative one (at least one of the independent variables affects the dependent one) was confirmed. Moreover, the

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following linear equation was proved to help predict the value of the dependent variable, RC test performance on the basis of EFL learners' knowledge of metacognitive, testing, and compensation strategies:
RC test performance= 11.23+ (.33* metacognitive grade) + (.14* testing grade) + (.23* compensation grade)
As Table 5 shows, among the selected variables the most effective one was found to be learner's knowledge of metacognitive strategies (ß=.47), the next was knowledge of compensation strategies (ß=.21) , and the least effective one was knowledge of testing strategies (ß=.12). Therefore, on the basis of their relative influence on RC test performance, the independent variables can be hierarchically ordered as follows:
knowledge of metacognitive strategies > knowledge of compensation strategies > knowledge of testing strategies
This means that with regard to RC test performance of Iranian EFL learners, their knowledge of metacognitive strategies is more significant than knowledge of compensation strategies and knowledge of testing strategies; moreover, knowledge of compensation strategies carries more significance than knowledge of testing strategies. For the analysis of the remainders see appendix.

5.2 Influence of Reading Strategies on RC Test Performance of Males vs. Females
To investigate the influence of the selected internal factor, knowledge of reading strategies, on RC test performance of males versus females, the SPSS file was first split based on the participants' gender and then a multiple linear regression was carried out. A comparison between the two linear equations and path coefficients can reveal whether any gender influence exists. In both groups the hypotheses under investigation were as follows:
H_0: $ß_1 = 0$ (The independent variable does not affect the dependent one.)
H_1: $ß_1 \# 0$ (The independent variable affects the dependent one.)
According to the results of the regression analysis (Table 6), regression line and the independent variables accounted for 29 percent (R^2=.287) of the variance in RC test scores in the male group, and 22 percent (R^2=.221) of the variance in RC test scores in the female group.

Table 6: Model Summary

gender	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
male	1	.536[a]	.287	.280	5.604
female	1	.470[a]	.221	.213	6.919

a. Predictors: (Constant), strategy grade

Table 7 provides evidence for the significance of the results (sig.= .00 < α = .05).

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Table 7: ANOVA[a]

gender	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
male	1	Regression	1266.950	1	1266.950	40.346	.000[b]
		Residual	3140.197	100	31.402		
		Total	4407.147	101			
female	1	Regression	1398.454	1	1398.454	29.216	.000[b]
		Residual	4930.174	103	47.866		
		Total	6328.629	104			

a. Dependent Variable: RC score
b. Predictors: (Constant), strategy grade

The null hypothesis was rejected no matter what the gender was. In both groups knowledge of reading strategies was proved to improve reading comprehension test performance of EFL learners, however; as Table 8 indicates the effect was stronger in the male group (ß=.53) than the female group (ß=.47).

Table 8: Coefficients[a]

gender	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
male	1	(Constant)	3.873	3.596		1.077	.284
		strategy grade	.149	.023	.536	6.352	.000
female	1	(Constant)	-2.272	5.112		-.445	.658
		strategy grade	.184	.034	.470	5.405	.000

a. Dependent Variable: RC score

The following figures (Figure 1 and Figure 2) can clearly show the difference.

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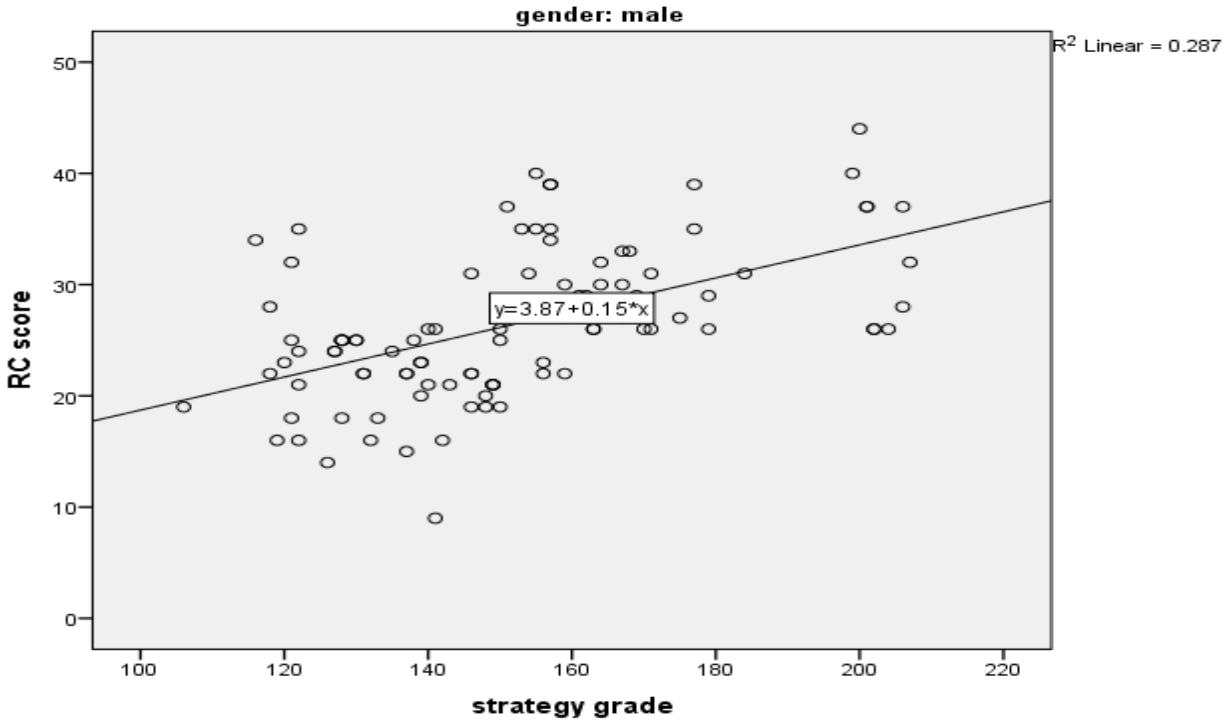

Figure 1: Impact of the knowledge of reading strategies on reading comprehension in males

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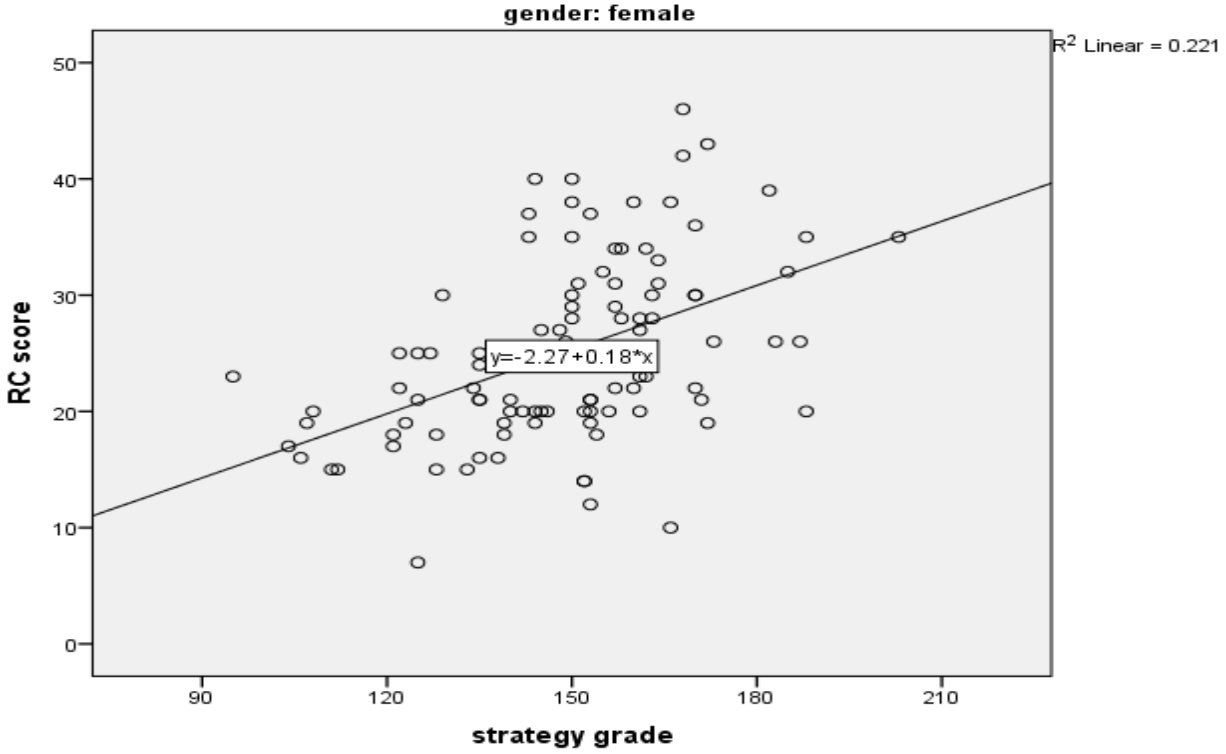

Figure 2: Impact of the knowledge of reading strategies on reading comprehension in female

6. Discussion

Concerning the role of reading strategies in RC, support to the findings of this study comes from Caverly (1997), Chamot (2005), Olsen and Gee (1991), Oxford (1996), and Zhang (1993), who believed that the use of appropriate reading strategies can improve reading comprehension. Shokrpour and Fotovatian (2009) also conducted an experimental study to determine the effects of consciousness-raising of metacognitive strategies on a group of Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension and revealed that in comparison to the control group, the experimental group showed a significant improvement in reading comprehension.

Findings are also partly in agreement with those of Shang (2010) who conducted a research on a group of Taiwanese EFL learners' use of three reading strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, and compensation strategies), their perceived impact on the learners' self-efficacy, and the link between reading strategy use and perceived self-efficacy on their English reading comprehension. The results of his investigation proved that metacognitive strategy was used most frequently, followed by compensation strategy, and then cognitive strategy. The results of the present study also lend support to Phakiti's (2008) study that investigated the relationship between test-takers' use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and the EFL reading

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comprehension test performance and found that the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies had a positive correlation with the reading test performance, and highly successful test-takers reported considerably higher metacognitive strategy use than the moderately successful ones who in turn reported higher use of these strategies than the unsuccessful test takers.

7. Conclusions

Reading strategies, which are highly ignored in EFL classes, need to be highlighted to assist learners in reading comprehension. In fact, if L2 curriculum developers and teachers aim at helping students read better and comprehend faster, they are advised to increase the EFL learners' knowledge of such factors through diverse means such as explicit instruction. Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of cognitive strategies was proved to have linear correlation with their knowledge of the other kinds of strategies selected for this study. As a result, learners' knowledge of cognitive strategies should be improved if we want to boost their knowledge of those other kinds of reading strategies. Moreover, since knowledge of metacognitive strategies was proved more significant than knowledge of compensation and testing strategies, in reading classes the focus should firstly be on the instruction of metacognitive strategies, secondly on compensation strategies, and then on testing strategies.

Nation (2001) noted that strategy training is very useful in broadening students' strategic knowledge. Moreover, there is no doubt that teachers have an important role to play in the strategy training of students. They should offer opportunities for students to learn about and practice reading strategies. Regarding the advantages of reading strategy instruction, it seems necessary for teachers to be trained in strategy instruction and assessment. They should receive instruction on how to teach strategies in their classrooms. McNamara (2009) argues that reading problems stem from several sources. He believes that the students may lack the reading strategies necessary to overcome challenges in reading materials. As a result, teaching readers how to use specific reading strategies should be a prime consideration in the reading classrooms (Anderson, 1999; Oxford, 1990).

All those who have experienced Iran EFL context will presumably assert that reading strategies instruction is a neglected point in English teaching and learning. In teaching reading comprehension to the students in Iran, according to Mehrpour (2004), the focus is on aiding students to master the content of the reading comprehension passages and no attention is paid to the teaching of reading strategies. It is time for EFL instructors to present effective reading comprehension strategies in their curricula to enhance students' English reading comprehension.

8. Pedagogical Implications

These results will inform language instructors, EFL students, and curriculum organizers of the significance of the selected external factor in reading comprehension. The findings will shed more light on the importance of the selected factor in better performance of EFL students in RC tests. It should always be remembered that reading comprehension is a difficult and challenging task due to the many variables of internal and external nature which participate in this intricate psycholinguistic process. The

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findings of the present study offer several pedagogical implications for teaching reading comprehension in EFL contexts and can help language developers, syllabus designers and decision makers to develop programs and design syllabi that cover various effective factors to promote EFL learners. Conducting studies like the present one is useful for L2 curriculum developers because the results of the study can help them make more proficient decisions on the reading strategies to be emphasized in language programs.

9. Limitations and Directions for Further Research

There are several limitations in the research design. The subjects of this study were EFL students in Iran. Thus, the generalization of the results to other populations with different native languages may be limited. In addition, since this study only focused on investigating students' reading comprehension on the TOEFL test, more studies with different types of tests and tasks should be conducted in the future to examine major barriers to comprehending reading texts. Due to the limitations of this study, the analysis was done on the basis of the participants' performance in one reading comprehension test only. Moreover, no control group was available in this study. To obtain a more complete picture of the effects of different factors on EFL reading achievement, a control group and an experimental group should be designed properly to analyze their performance differences. In future research, it is suggested that the experiment with two groups be carried out involving more than one type of comprehension test in use.

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION; FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE

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Abstract
Since learners' first language (L1) has an influential role in second language (L2) learning/teaching processes, a number of researchers have considered the attitudes and perceptions of language learners toward the use of L1 in foreign language (FL) classrooms. The present research investigated the role of L1in teaching and the relationship between learners' language proficiency level, sex, type of the institute (monolingual [ML] or bilingual [BL]) they study at as well as their attitudes towards L1 use and degree of awareness of its benefits. To achieve such a goal a 16-item-questionnaire was administered to the students from different levels of English language proficiency after taking Oxford placement test in a BL and a ML language institute, both located in Shiraz, southwest Iran. Qualitative and quantitative tests were used as appropriated to analyze the data. The participants were asked to read the items and then decide to state whether they agreed or disagreed with the mentioned statements. The results of the present investigation showed there was no difference between male and female students' attitudes towards the use of L1 in the classroom, while a sharp difference between the advanced students and the two other groups of elementary and intermediate was observed. Our findings revealed that learner's level of proficiency is an important factor since the higher the level of proficiency of the language learners, the lower the degree of their willingness to use their L1 in learning procedure. There was also a difference between the attitudes of students of ML and BL institutes towards L1 use.

Keywords: First language (L1); Second language (L2); Monolingual; Bilingual

Introduction:
The role of the mother tongue in second language acquisition/learning has been the subject of much debate and controversy (Ferrer, 2008). It is a topic which is often ignored in discussions of methodology and in teacher training (Atkinson, 1987). Very often, the use of L1 is perceived to hinder the learning of L2 even though the reasons for such avoidance are rarely stated (Cook 2001). Thus, it is safe to assume that the avoidance of the students' mother tongue is based solely on a belief rather than research (Zacharias, 2008).

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The idea of avoiding mother tongue in language teaching dates back to the direct method era (Harbord 1992). The subsequent growth of a British-based teacher training movement out of the need to provide training for teachers working with multilingual classes served to reinforce the strategy of mother tongue avoidance (Harbord 1992).

The origins of the disagreement over the role of the learner's first language in the process of foreign/second language learning/acquisition (L2 learning) can be traced back to the late nineteenth-century Reform Movement (Howatt, 1984), which arose from the excesses of the Grammar-Translation Method, which was widespread until the World War II (Bowen, Madsen, and Hilferty, 1985). But the extremisms over the use of the mother tongue came from the Direct Method (Howatt, 1984), a movement on the rise at the twentieth century shortly preceded by Lambert Sauveur's Natural Method (Howatt, 1984) and followed by the Army's Method, or the Audio-lingual Method (ALM), as it is widely known (Hitotuzi, 2006).

The ALM is also fixed on the behaviorist school whose main contributor was the Russian psychologist, Ivan Pavlov (Newton, in Celce-Murcia & L. McIntosh, 1979). This trend in psychology spread its roots to L2 learning; so much so that, in 1957, after Watson (1913) had termed Pavlov's findings behaviorisms, B. F. Skinner (1957) established a new objective in the world of L2 learning with his Verbal Behavior. And on the basis of Skinnerian view of both language and language learning, the ALM was born; and for over two decades (from the 1950's to the first quarter of the 1970's), undervalued the importance of learner L1 in the process of L2 learning. Yet, back in the 1960's, the cognitive psychologist David Ausubel (Ausubel, 1964) made some sound criticism about the ALM. He pointed out, amongst other things, that the rote learning practice of ALM drills could benefit neither L1 nor L2 learners; that learners' L1 could function as a facilitator in the process of L2 learning. A number of other theorists also proved that cognitive paradigms (on which L2 teaching was now based) can help the use of learners' L1 in the developmental process of L2 learning. One of them is Rivers (1972; 1981), a powerful critic of the ALM. She emphasizes that learner L1 is always present in the process of L2 learning; therefore, teachers can use their pupils' L1 mainly for giving instructions or clarifying difficult language. It is implied in her work (1981) that use of learner L1 may help accelerate the process of learning a target language. During these centuries of controversy over the role of L1 in the L2 learning context, many teaching practices involved and many of them excluded learners' L1 (Hitotuzi, 2006).

In recent years, English language teaching professionals have suggested examining the English-only approach and providing more opportunities for the students' mother tongue (Prodromou 2002, Atkinson 1987, and Deller and Rinvolucri 2002). This is especially because English is commonly taught in classes where the students and teachers share the same mother tongue. In this situation, the students' mother tongue could be used as a resource for teaching and learning English.

Research shows that complete deletion of L1 in L2 situations is not appropriate (Schweers, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Nation, 2003; Butzcamm, 2003). When used appropriately, the use of L1 can be very beneficial. Brown (2000, p. 68) claims that "first language can be a facilitating factor and not just an interfering factor", and

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Schweers (1999) encourages teachers to incorporate the native language into lessons to influence the classroom dynamics, and suggests that "starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners' lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves" (p. 7).

As Nazari (2008) states, anecdotal evidence suggests that some EFL teachers strongly believe that they should never use even a single word from the mother tongue in the classroom. These teachers are followers of the so-called 'Monolingual Approach', and others who are somehow skeptical about the use of L1 or use it wisely in their classes are the proponents of 'Bilingual approach'.

However, the monolingual approach is not without its criticisms. One of them is that excluding the students' L1 for the sake of maximizing students' exposure to the L2 is not necessarily productive (Dujmovic, 2007). In addition, Auerbach (1993) criticizes these tough exposures to the target language by calling them "all-or-nothing views", and adds: "acquiring a second language is to some extent dependent on the societally determined value attributed to the L1, which can be either reinforced or challenged inside the classroom" (p.16).

During its history, bilingual approach gained support and validation form many scholars and research findings. Auerbach (1993, p.18) believes that "when the native language is used, practitioners, researchers, and learners consistently report positive results". In fact there has been a gradual move over the years away from the "English only" dogma that has long been a part of the British and American ELT movement (Baker, 2003). Miles (2004) advocates the use of Bilingual approach and discredits the monolingual approach in three ways: 1: it is impractical, 2: native teachers are not necessarily the best teachers and 3: exposure alone is not sufficient for learning. In support of the bilingual approach Atkinson proposes his theory called "Judicious use theory" (p. 21), in which he advocates the idea that L1 works as a vital source and also a communicative tool both for students and teachers (as cited in Mattioli, 2004). Altogether, the attitudes towards the benefite of using L1 for teaching L2 set the stage for the appearance of bilingual education.

Bilingual education is the practice of teaching non-English speaking students core subjects in their native language as they learn English. Developed in the 1970's, such programs were intended to help children keep up with their peers in subjects such as math, science and social studies while they studied English. Bilingual program students are separated from other students for most of the school day. It is meant to be a transitional program for non-English speaking children that would enable them to move into regular classrooms within three years.

The followings are several different types of bilingual education program models; Transitional bilingual education, Two-Way or Dual Language Immersion Bilingual Education, Dual Language program, Late-Exit or Developmental Bilingual Education, Dodson's Bilingual Method.

The importance of bilingual education is highlighted when schools need to provide children quality education in their primary language; therefore, they give them two things: knowledge and literacy. The knowledge that children get through their first language helps make the English they hear and read more comprehensible. Literacy developed in the primary language transfers to the second language. The reason is

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simple: Because we learn to read by reading--that is, by making sense of what is on the page (Smith, 1994)--it is easier to learn to read in a language we understand.

The combination of first language subject matter teaching and literacy development that characterizes good bilingual programs indirectly but powerfully aids students as they strive for a third factor essential to their success: English proficiency. Of course, we also want to teach in English directly, via high quality English-as-a-Second Language (ESL) classes, and through sheltered subject matter teaching, where intermediate-level English language acquirers learn subject matter taught in English(Krashen, 1996).

Since there has been very little research done on what role the use of L1 actually plays in practice in the classroom and what the perceptions of students, teachers and teacher educators are on this subject, this researcher tries to explore the Iranian students' attitudes and perceptions toward the use of L1in both monolingual (ML) and bilingual (BL) institutes in Shiraz. This study investigates the relationship between the learners' language proficiency level, sex, type of the institute (monolingual or bilingual) they study at and their attitudes and degree of awareness of the benefits of L1 use.

Research Questions

As there has been little research so far in this area, this study may help to find evidence to support the theory that L1 can facilitate L2 acquisition and to reject the existing notion that L1 acts as a hindrance.

Following the above objectives, the main questions to be pursued in the present study are as follows:

1) Do Iranian EFL students at private institutes in Shiraz have a positive or negative attitude toward the use of L1in their classroom?

2) Do students with different levels of proficiency have different views and attitudes toward the importance of L1?

3) What is the difference between the attitude of males and females toward the L1 use in their classroom?

4) What is the difference between the attitudes of the students of monolingual and bilingual institutes toward the L1 use in their classroom?

Methodology

Participants

This study was carried out during spring and summer 2010. Participants of this study were selected out of a big population of two hundred and ten EFL learners studying at a BL (Omid) and a ML (Jahad-e-Daneshgahi) language institute. The population consisted of 80 learners from the BL and 130 learners from the ML Language Institutes. The present study included both male and female students.

Instruments

One of the instruments used in the study was Oxford Quick Placement Test (Allan, 2004), which was given to 210 learners. The placement test contains 60 multiple-choice items with 60 total points which included 3 sections: general multiple choice (5 items), cloze passages (25 items), grammar and vocabulary (30 items).The test consists of two

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parts. Part one (question1-40) is taken by all students and is aimed at those who are intermediate or below. The second part (questions 41-60) is only taken by students who score more than 36 out of 40 on the first part and can be used for higher ability students. The beginner and intermediate learners according to the instruction mentioned in the booklet were asked to do only part one, and for advanced learners after they had finished the first part and their papers were marked using the overlay, those who scored more than 36 were asked to carry on with part two. The participants were allowed 30 minutes to finish the test.

The main instrument that is a questionnaire taken from a related previous study (Prodromou, 2002) is used for the exploration of the students' and teachers' attitudes. This questionnaire (Appendix I) has two parts. Part I includes demographic information such as name, family name, age and proficiency levels of students. Part II includes 16 items on a two-choice scale to define students' and teachers' attitudes toward the use of L1 in the classroom. The reliability of the questionnaire estimated through Coefficient Cronbach alpha was found to be .81.

Procedures

All participants from various levels of language (elementary, intermediate and advanced), studying at a BL and an ML language institute, were selected randomly from different classes and their levels were matched using the Oxford placement test. Then a 16-item-questionnaire was administered to the students from different levels of English language proficiency. After giving a short introduction to the project and identifying its advantages for participants, they were asked to read the items and then decide whether they agreed or disagreed with the mentioned statements.

Data Analysis

The process of the data collection followed these steps: All participants' questionnaires were divided into three parts, according to their levels of language proficiency (Elementary, Intermediate, and Advanced), their sex, and the type of institute. The obtained data was entered into the SPSS version 11 and the variables of sex, level and school were determined. Each group's data was analyzed and the frequencies of agreement and disagreement marks were calculated. Later, obtained frequencies of all items were converted to percentages to determine which group of students agreed and disagreed on the use of their first language in their L2 classes.

In order to analyze the obtained data, first the scores were calculated to find the degree of agreement on the items in different levels, sex and institutes. On the basis of the obtained scores, then a Three-way ANOVA was run in order to see if the difference between the means of each group with different sex ,and in different levels and schools (for both teachers and students) are statistically significant or not. A post hoc test (Tukey HSD Honestly Significant Different Test) illustrated the exact locations of the differences.

Results and Discussion:

After the process of data collection, each group's data were analyzed and the frequencies of agreement and disagreement marks were calculated. Later, obtained

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frequencies of all items were converted to percentages to determine which group of students agreed and disagreed on the use of their first language in their L2 classes. Finally the obtained frequencies and percentages were put into tables for better depiction and further analytic decisions. After each group's data were analyzed, the means and standard deviations of the learners' were calculated (Table 1and 2)

Table 1- Descriptive statistics of the attitudes of all the groups of students towards L1 use in the classroom

	Gender		School		Level		
	Male	Female	Monolingual	Bilingual	Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced
Mean	8.566	8.016	7.183	9.40	9.82	9.10	5.95
SD	3.894	3.887	4.014	3.42	3.97	2.76	3.71

As can be observed in Table 1, there are differences between the mean scores of male and female, the students of monolingual and bilingual institutes, and among those at different levels. It seems that males and females in both institutes have almost the same attitudes towards the use of L1, but there are differences in the attitudes of students at different levels of proficiency and students of different institutes. These differences do not indicate anything unless they are proved to be statistically significant. Thus, a Three -way ANOVA was run for both groups to determine whether the observed differences between groups are significant at the .05 level or not. The results are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2- Three-way ANOVA for students

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
gender	9.075	1	9.075	.969	.327
level	339.517	2	169.758	18.129	.000
institute	147.408	1	147.408	15.742	.000
gender * level	21.350	2	10.675	1.140	.324
gender * institute	147.408	1	147.408	15.742	.000
gender * level * institute	92.517	2	46.258	4.940	.009

*F= F value (the ratio of two mean squares). df =degree of freedom

Referring to Table 2, one can see that the observed significance for gender is .327 which shows there is no significant difference between male and female students' perceptions of L1 use in the class. The observed significances for institutes and levels

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are .000. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences among the groups at the .05 level of significance. The reported means indicates that the students of bilingual institute (Mean=9.4) agree more than the students of monolingual institute (Mean=7.183) on the use of L1.Also it shows that the students at different levels are noticeably different, but nothing tells us which of the three groups are different from each other and whether the difference is significant and meaningful. This can be investigated by conducting a post hoc test. To this end, a Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Different Test) test would serve the purpose. The groups were compared two by two and the results are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Multiple Comparisons

(I)level (J)level	Mean difference	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower bound	Upper bound
elementary intermediate advanced	.7250 3.8750(*)	.68425 .68425	.572 .000	-.9734 2.1766	2.4234 5.5734
intermediate elementary advanced	-.7250 3.1500(*)	.68425 .68425	.572 .000	-2.4234 1.4516	.9714 4.8484
advanced elementary intermediate	-3.8750(*) -3.1500(*)	.68425 .68425	.000 .000	-5.5734 -4.8484	-2.1766 -1.4516

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The levels are compared two by two and the results are given in the table 3. The difference between elementary and advanced levels is significant (P= .000). Since the mean difference is negative (-3.8750), it can be concluded that the mean of elementary level is greater than the mean in advanced level. This means that the students who study at the elementary level have more positive attitudes towards L1than the students who study at the advanced level. The intermediate level does significantly differ from the advanced level (P=.000). Since the mean difference is negative (-3.1500), one can conclude that the mean of the intermediate level is greater than the mean of the advanced level. This indicates that the students who study at the intermediate level have more positive attitudes towards L1than the students who study at the advanced level. The difference between elementary and intermediate is not significant (P= .572). The mean difference of elementary and intermediate level is negative (-.7250). Thus, the mean of elementary is greater than that of intermediate. It can be concluded that the participants who study at elementary level have more positive attitudes towards L1 use.

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The overall findings show that Iranian students at private institutes are unwilling to use their mother tongue and refuse it for the sake of better exposure to L2. The transcribed data in this research show that, overall, the majority of students from all the three proficiency levels do not believe on the effectiveness and importance of L1 use. The advanced students in comparison with elementary and intermediate students showed fewer tendencies to use their L1 in their classroom activities and did not expect their teachers to use L1 either. The results can be discussed in several ways by considering the main points of this study.

According to the figures, 78.3% of the students believe that the teacher should know the students' mother tongue. The main question in the questionnaire "Should the teacher use the mother tongue in class?" The percentage numerals of agreements in all groups are 48.3% which indicates that the function of L1 is really neglected by the learners. They think when their teacher speaks English all the time, it is stressful but their English develops, and by being exposed to English all the time, they will learn even without knowing that they are learning.

In item 3 (Should the students use their mother-tongue?) students reported their agreements as 44%. Among the next four items which addressed the use of L1 for explanations (item 4, 5, 6 and 7, see Appendix II), items 5, 6 and 7 received more support from the students (item 4: explaining new words [40%], item 5: explaining grammar [62.5%], item 6: explaining differences between L1 and L2 grammar [76.5%], and item 7: explaining differences in the use of L1 and L2 rules [60%]). Because students feel that they learn *better* when L1and L2 are compared, it helps them to notice differences and avoid mistakes.

In items 8 and 9 (giving instructions and talking in pairs and groups) only few students perceived the learners' mother tongue as useful (item 8 [40%] and item 9 [21.7%]). Item 10 aims to check the students' preference for checking comprehension. As the results show, only 40.8% of students agreed on the use of L1 when asking for an English-equivalent of a word.

Items 11-13 address the issue of translation as a useful classroom activity, including its incorporation in tests. Duff (1989) expounds on the merits of translation as a language learning activity. He describes how translation can help develop three characteristics essential for language learning: flexibility, accuracy, and clarity. He states: "translation trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words what is meant (clarity). This combination of freedom and constraint allows the students to contribute their own thoughts to a discussion which has a clear focus-the text" (Duff, 1989, p. 7). According to the results (items 11, 12 and 13) students revealed a greater preference for the use of translation of L2 texts (76.7%) into L1 and the use of translation as a test (65%), whereas 50% agreed on the use of translation of L2 words into L1.

Items 14 and 15 tried to elicit the students' attitudes toward the use of L1 in checking listening and reading comprehension. Here, 36.7% of students responded positively to item 14, and 37.5% of them on item 15. Finally, the last item (item 16) highlights the importance of mother tongue for discussing the methods used in classroom. Warford (2007) believes the L1 function for explaining classroom

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procedures and teaching methods; however, the students' responses show a neutral attitude (51.7%).

Among the questionnaire items, item1 (the teacher should know the students' mother tongue) obtained the highest average percentage of 78.3% and this shows that most of the students prefer a bilingual teacher. Choong (2006) points out that the bilingual teachers are more sensitive to the language problems of their students and would be able to share their own experience of learning a foreign language. Item 9, with the average percentage of 21.7% indicates that students rarely use their L1 while talking in pairs or groups.

The result obtained from the post hoc analysis (Table 3) showed a very sharp difference between advanced students and the other two groups at the .05 level of significance. It provides sufficient evidence to answer the third research question. Noticeably, the students who study at elementary level have more positive attitudes towards L1than the students who study at advanced level. And the students who study at intermediate level have more positive attitudes towards L1than the students who study at advanced level. The difference between elementary and intermediate is not significant, but the mean of elementary is greater than that of intermediate. It shows that the students at elementary level have more positive attitudes towards L1 use.

The relationship between the students' language proficiency level and their views on the use of L1 is an important issue. Cole (1998) states L1 is most useful at beginning and low levels. If students have little or no knowledge of the target language, L1 can be used to introduce the major differences between L1 and L2, and the main grammatical characteristics of L2 that they should be aware of. This gives them a head start and saves a lot of guessing. As Butzcamm (2003) continues "with growing proficiency in the foreign language, the use of the mother tongue becomes largely redundant and the FL will stand on its own two feet" (p. 36). By a careful analysis of the results it can be concluded that all of the students from three levels of English language proficiency had a 'negative attitude'. This is likely due to their teachers' insistence on not using the L1 and identifying it as a hindrance for language learning. The obtained data reveals the fact that advanced students, in comparison with the two other groups, have a deeper negative attitude toward the first language use. The variance in their point of views might be due to two reasons: first, they are not like elementary students who have no choice except using their L1 in the classroom, and second they do not have comprehended the importance of L1 functions for enhancing both their language fluency and accuracy (Nazari, 2008).

Referring to data analysis there is no significant difference between male and female students' perceptions of L1 use in the class. But the mean of male students are greater than female students which show that males have a more positive attitudes towards L1.May be it is because female students take learning more serious than males, and they want to do their best as they outperformed their male counterparts in placement tests.

Moreover, results obtained from the data analysis show that there are statistically significant differences among the groups at the .05 level of significance. The reported means in the Table 1 indicates that the students of bilingual institute (Mean=9.4) agree

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more than the students of monolingual institute (Mean=7.183) on the use of L1.That`s why they chose this type of the institute.

They do not know too much about the advantages of bilingual education, but they concluded that ignoring mother tongue in the process of learning does not help them anymore. Some of the students from bilingual institute claim that this is not the first time they study English. They tried some monolingual institutes before that could not satisfy them. The most important problem for them was that they could not understand all the concepts and words the teacher introduced in the class even in upper levels. This type of exposure is not what they need.

But on the other side, the students of monolingual institutes strongly reject the idea of using L1 for different reasons. When they are asked why, they mostly answer 'you need to learn to think in English'. As Ferrer (2008) states:

It has been my experience that the 'you need to learn to think in English' popular belief which accounts for how languages should ideally be learned may have been fed into the students so systematically that it may have become ingrained into their perception of the best way to learn(p ,2) .

However, the present investigation can help EFL teachers have a better view on learners' mother tongue in teaching process. In this way, they make use of L1 wisely for transferring the lesson, maintaining discipline, setting up pair and group work, sorting out an activity which is clearly not working, checking comprehension, and giving feedback.

Finally, the present research adds perspectives to students' perception of their mother tongue as a resource that can facilitate their progress towards the other tongue and the other culture.

Conclusion

Generally the use of the students' mother tongue in English language teaching is considered to be incredibly advantageous. At the same time, the belief that the L1 should be kept to a minimum so as not to interfere with the students' attempts to be exposed to English is prevalent. There is still some doubt about indistinguishable distinction between what constituted use and misuse of the mother tongue. But no one can ignore the invaluable role of L1 in the classes especially for introducing theoretical concepts. Thus several conclusions can be drawn from the present study.

First, students' proficiency levels and the type of institute (monolingual and bilingual) are the factors which effect their attitudes and degree of awareness of the benefits of L1 use in the classes. But the gender is not a determining factor.

Furthermore, using the students' mother tongue creates a less threatening atmosphere for students, and it is also observed that in many cases the students responded favorably when their mother tongue was used, even if they do not believe on the effectiveness and importance of L1 use because some learners need the security of the mother tongue. They may be the type of learner that needs to relate concepts in English to equivalents in their L1. This may be their most effective way of learning vocabulary. They may also feel that having a mother tongue equivalent is a far more efficient way of arriving at meaning than a constant process of working things out.

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And the last but not the least is that most of teachers strongly reject L1 as if it is absolutely counterproductive, but it can be seen that, despite the teachers' willingness to use it as little as possible, the L1 was always present in the classroom, in one way or another .So instead of absolute rejection of students mother tongue, it is worthwhile for them to study up on the characteristics of the L1 and to learn how to use some of it when it is necessary. It is possible to develop teaching skills by careful consideration of when and how to use L1

So there are needs for more attention of educators to bilingual approach of teaching rather than sticking to the traditional approaches. Undoubtedly bilingual approach has more room for maneuver if it is tried appropriately.

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APPENDIX I

The Questionnaire sample

Part I Personal Information
Name & Family Name: ----------
Age: ------ Sex: Male [ ] Female [ ]
English class level: Beginner [ ] Intermediate [ ] Advanced [ ]
Part II Mark: Agree (A) / Disagree (D)
1: Should the teacher know the students' mother-tongue? ----
2: Should the teacher use the students' mother-tongue? ----
3: Should the students use their mother-tongue? ----
- It is useful if the teacher uses L1 when:
4: explaining new words ----
5: explaining grammar ----
6: explaining differences between L1 and L2 grammar ----
7: explaining differences in the use of L1 and L2 rules ----
8: giving instructions ----
-Students should be allowed to use L1 when:
9: talking in pairs and groups ----
10: asking how do we say '...' in English? ----
11: translating an L2 word into L1 to show they understand it ----
12: translating a text from L2 to L1 to show they understand it ----
13: translating as a test ----
- The teacher and students can use L1 to:
14: check listening comprehension ----
15: check reading comprehension ----
16: discuss the methods used in class ----

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNER'S NEED AND RETENTION OF WORDS IN ESP CONTEXTS

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Abstract

The purpose of learning a language is to communicate. For a communication to take place, a fixed set of knowledge is required one of which is vocabulary; something without which communication or negotiation of meaning is hindered. Vocabulary emerges at the very early stages of language learning. Since meaning is more important than form in communication, vocabulary knowledge seems to have priority over some other aspects of language such as grammar. A many conducted research in the realm of lexical knowledge, focuses on offering and suggesting appropriate ways to facilitate the process of vocabulary learning/acquisition, specifically in EFL and ESL environments. To motivate the learners to make use of the best approaches to achieve desired goals, materials of the study should be selected with care. This research study attempts to investigate any probable differences between retention of general and technical vocabularies among undergraduate EFL learners. A group of students majored in nursery took part in this study, the result of the given test, analyzed through matched t-test, indicates that samples remembered more specific vocabularies in comparison to general ones. That is, through the same strategy or technique of vocabulary learning, learners retained more technical words in a specific period of time. It is argued that relatedness of the materials, based on the needs of the learners, is crucial in this regard.

Key words: general/ specific vocabulary, nursery, needs of the learners, remembering

Introduction

Vocabulary knowledge can be defined as the size or number of the words a person knows. "A sum or stock of words employed by a language, group, individual, or work or in a field of knowledge" (Merriam-Webster, 2003, p. 1400). Vocabulary knowledge is viewed in terms of active and passive. There are some language learners who know a majority of words, but cannot make use of them in speaking or writing. There are, also, some others who cannot remember the covered words after a short

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time. In educational settings, forgetting occurs shortly after the materials have been taught, perhaps due to lack of interest, motivation, concentration, practice, memory load, and the same. The important point is to help language learners, through different strategies, to retain the taught materials for a longer period of time. Since vocabulary knowledge is required, by the language learners, for the next encounters and without adequate vocabulary size learners cannot communicate clearly, lack of adequate lexical knowledge results in frustration, and removes the motivation to learn new items in the language. Language learners in EFL context, especially, experience this situation and usually complain that they have had enough practice, but they cannot remember the taught words at the moment. In this connection, different strategies are offered to help the language learners learn and retain lexical knowledge for a longer period of time, among which is the role of CALL in achieving the goal (Andreea, 2007).

Vocabulary is of a great importance in learning a language. As Zimmerman (1991) argues vocabulary is central to language and is of high significance for language learners. Learning of vocabulary is longitudinal and demand a careful planning . Mokhtar etal (2010, p.72) state that "vocabulary knowledge is not something that can be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens over the course of a lifetime." Several research emphasizes the critical role of vocabulary in language learning (Nation, 2001). Learning and teaching of vocabulary in a semantic field is, also, emphasized by others (Amer, 2002). In addition to understanding the basic sense of a word, Amer argues that identifying the relation of a word with other words with the same meaning, is recommended for EFL/ ESL learners. Shirai (2007) suggests mnemonics techniques for learning new words in English.

Lexical knowledge has a critical role in learning all language skills. Vocabulary knowledge, for example, plays a key role in reading comprehension (Chanier and Selva, 1998). Surely the syllable design in ESP, nursing here, is different; the needs of the learners, in addition to the objective of the course should be considered. It seems that the nurse has to be fluent at least in reading skill and has to be able to comprehend what s/he reads; that is in ESP contexts reading comprehension is more the focus of attention. Andreea (2007) argues that there is a relationship between language learners' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. He states that wider reading using appropriate reading strategies is an important way of increasing one's vocabulary knowledge. He points to the significant role of multimedia in this connection. Although the mere knowledge of vocabulary is not adequate for comprehension of a given utterances, it is of great help. Vocabulary knowledge satisfies the prerequisite of language use and results finally in communicative proficiency (Cervatiuc, 2007, p. 172).

Without sufficient knowledge of vocabulary, negotiation of meaning in a particular language is impossible and it will result in misunderstanding. So, it can be claimed that individuals can communicate and understand each other if they have just mastered an acceptable range of lexical knowledge, without necessarily being able to produce grammatically correct utterances. It does not mean that grammar is not important at all and should be sacrificed; rather superiority is given to knowledge of words and lexicon in all languages. To be able to understand what we hear and read, and to say what we want to express when writing and speaking, we need a wide range

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of vocabulary size. We study a large number of words in our listening, reading and writing, but learning all the words seems to be a very demanding task. It is important, however, to know which words to learn and how to learn them. Learning of the words that are important for one's subject and the words one meets repeatedly and frequently seems essential. To learn the selected words, a variety of ways are possible including writing them down (Dehghani, Moatamadi, Mahbudi,2011), using flashcards, repeating the words orally, using the words in speech and writing and the same.

Writing as a means of putting one's mind into words requires an acceptable range of vocabulary size for both native and non-native speakers of English. Regarding the range of vocabulary size, different studies suggest different results. Cervatiuc (2007) states that on average, a highly proficient non-native speaker knows nearly16500 vocabularies, and this size of vocabulary for a native speaker with university education, as Goulden, Nation and Read (1990) state is about 17200 on average. (cited in Cervatiuc,2008). The vocabulary size of a non-native speaker of English is claimed to be about 2650 base word annually (Milton and Meara, 1995). Since the samples of their study were highly fluent in English, this may suggest that this size of vocabulary is lower on average for most second language learners of English who are at lower levels. As Cervatiuc (2008) argues an individual who knows 2000 most frequent word families, he/ she can understand eighty percent of the words in different contexts. He, also, adds that this range of vocabulary size only gives the readers a general idea about the text; readers require understanding, at least, 90% of the words in a given text.

Learning requires understanding; it is not limited to just one's native language. All EFL learners need to understand the material in the target language to be able to expand their knowledge in specific subjects. They find a lot of materials on different web sites and other resources which are too conducive in this regard. Surely, in case of self-practicing, L2 learners mostly adhere to relevant and motivating materials which are related to their field of studies. Fiorito (2005, p.1) argues that

> As a matter of fact, ESP combines subject matter and English language teaching. Such a combination is highly motivating because students are able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their main field of study. ESP assesses needs and integrates motivation, subject matter and content for the teaching of relevant skills.

Since the teacher is not always present to help, L2 learners have to learn to rely on their own knowledge to cope with the problems. To achieve it, putting aside all other techniques necessary to comprehend a text, vocabulary knowledge plays a fundamental role, and it is viewed as the underlying feature of getting the gist or the main idea of a particular text. Perhaps one can argue that EFL learners, in general, are from different ages with different levels of ability. ESP learners are generally adult students who have had some experience in English and they learn English due to the requirement of their educational carriers. Negotiation of meaning is their primary objectives and the focus of attention is, primarily, on meaning rather than structures or forms of the language.

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> The more learners pay attention to the meaning of the language they hear or read, the more they are successful; the more they have to focus on the linguistic input or isolated language structures, the less they are motivated to attend their classes (Fiorito 2005, p. 3).

Due to the importance of ESP, the following points should be considered: meeting the needs of the learners (Steven 1998), targeting adults learners both in intermediate and advance levels (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998) applying appropriate teaching methodology and planning (Sysoyve, 2000) and putting a heavier burden on the shoulders of instructors due to the learner- oriented and goal- driven property of ESP (Tsao, Wei & Fang, 2008). All the above-mentioned researchers point to the significance of teaching English to special groups of learners with pre-specified goals and objectives. Offering suitable techniques and strategies to acquire the items is very conducive. Mark (2006) argues that to avoid loss of new words, rehearsal activity should be encouraged. He proposes game as a fun and motivating activity which helps consolidation of vocabulary. In his opinion forgetting of new words is due to lack of complete understanding. So, revision of the taught materials over a fixed period of time, as he points, is helpful to retain one's memory. He suggests some ways of recycling vocabulary which seems useful for both language learners and instructors, most of which reinforce the role of repetition and increasing individuals' motivation for learning new words in language through fun activities.

Brown (2013) on a research study entitled teaching a medical English content and language integrated learning course with vocabulary learning strategies instruction in Japan, reports that students' feedback highlights the benefit of relevant and motivating content that help them in their future job and that it helps the learners to improve their vocabulary knowledge, communicative skill, and learning medical English.

Riahipour, P. & Saba, Z. (2012) in their research study on nursing students in Iran found that game as a fun activity motivates the learners and facilitates the process of vocabulary learning. They believe that games create a fun environment in all language classes, and through careful planning on the part of instructors one can achieve the final goal.

Sarani and Farzaneh Sahebi (2012) conducted a study to investigate the impact of task-based approach on vocabulary learning in ESP and found that this approach in comparison to the traditional one is more useful for teaching technical words. They, also, concluded that male learners outperformed the females. Dehghani, Motamadi, Mahbudi (2011) found that there is a close relationship between learning the newly taught vocabularies and writing them down, that is, when EFL beginners write the words along with their definition on notebooks, as a part of their homework assignments, they remember the words for a longer period of time.

In another research study by Tsao, Wei and Fang (2008) entitled ESP for college students in Taiwan; they concluded that students are in favor of ESP rather than EGP, while this case is reverse for the instructors. They, also, found that students should have a base of English language proficiency before attending ESP classes. Lack

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of qualified instructors, limitation of class time and narrowing the objective of the course to learning typical words and translation of texts were among their concerns.
Jurković (2006) conducted a study concerning vocabulary learning strategies in an ESP context and found that vocabulary should be taught explicitly for ESP contexts, and argues that if learners are aware of the whole strategies, they are able to choose the most effective ones among them. So, familiarizing the students with different techniques and strategies are suggested.

In sum, there is a close relationship between vocabulary knowledge and learning a foreign language (Riahipour and Saba, 2012). This research study, however, is carried out, by considering the significance of lexical knowledge in learning a language, which aims at identifying retaining and remembering of general and specific vocabulary knowledge. So, the researchers in this study investigate whether the language learners can remember the taught words for a long period of time. To evaluate the retention of general and technical words, the following research study is conducted. The result of the study is conducive to course designers, instructors and language learners.

The present study has relied on the following questions:
Which category of words, general and specific, is more emphasized by the learners?
Does general or specific lexical knowledge lasts equally in one's memory?
Do L2 learners of English apply different strategies for learning and retaining of general and specific words?
The given hypotheses are:
There is a close relationship between retention of vocabulary and needs of the learners.
L2 learners apply the same strategies for consolidation of general and specific vocabularies.

Method

Both EGP and ESP courses are required for nursery students in Iran, that is, they have to study both EGP and ESP courses during their education. They learn English vocabularies mostly through reading comprehension, the medium of vocabulary instruction is mainly through reading comprehension activities. Generally, most of the learners are not fluent enough to use the taught words in different contexts, neither in written nor oral forms. A few students are capable to speak English during the semester; those who have attended English classes at an English language institute and, as a result, are more proficient. Participants of the study comprised of 30 nursing students, having their ESP courses, after administering a pre-test to select homogeneous subjects for the study. The validity of the teacher- made pre-test, including general and specific words, was determined by some experienced English instructors, and the reliability of test was, also, determined. The researchers introduced a text book in addition to some complementary materials. One of the researchers was the instructor of the course. The instructor asked the students to provide the materials before attending the class. The students were required to prepare the assigned materials at home for the next classes. All the materials were covered and for the parts students had more problems with, additional explanations were given. Equivalents of new words by considering the context in which the words had been used were

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provided. Both categories of words were emphasized equally by the instructor and students. The participants of the study were unaware of the post-test held at the end of the semester. The post-test was identical to the pre-test. The items of the tests were selected from the materials that had been covered at the beginning of the semester. The test consisted of the taught general and specific words in two different columns, each with 26 items, without any use of context; to reduce the chance of guessing the meaning(s) of the given words form the context. The subjects were asked to respond to the given items. The researchers asked them not to seek help from other classmates and friends and not to write their names on the papers, to insure a better result.

The data were collected and analyzed data using matched t-test which indicated that the subjects have retained and remembered more specific words in comparison to general ones. It may be, to some extent, due to the fact that learners pay more attention to technical words that are relevant to their needs and academic carriers. The researchers claim that both hypotheses are supported and it is claimed that individuals' needs are too important in mastering the newly taught items, regardless of the strategies they apply in acquiring the materials. No evidence was found that EFL learners used different strategies for acquiring the technical or general words. They wrote down the words and practiced them through memorization or repeated exercises at home. However, through the same technique of vocabulary teaching and learning, where both general and specific vocabularies were emphasized equally by the researchers, participants retained more technical words.

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
test1	16.0000	30	5.53982	1.01143
test2	11.0000	30	4.46558	*.81530.*

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 test1 - test2	4.70000	5.34435	.97574	2.70439	6.69561	4.817	29	.000

Test 1 stands for the test containing technical words and test 2 for general words. As it is shown, in the above table, the participants' mean scores on technical words is higher than that of general words, and the differences between the tests' scores are significant. The participants of the study retained and remembered more specific words at a given

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period of time; the participants' word loss is lower in specific(technical) words, in nursery.

Discussion

Identifying and classifying target tasks, deriving and sequencing pedagogic tasks, implementing appropriate methodology and assessing learners' acheivment are the basic steps in analysing the needs of the learners, based on TBLT (Long & Noris,2000). Learners should be asked to use the taught words, the greater their vocabulary knowledge, the more successful they will in negotiation of meanings. So, pedagogic tasks should be aimed at enabling the learners to use the taght words in target language during and after the course.

The result, however, indicates that technical vocabularies remain for a longer period of time in students' memories; the participant could remember specific words in nursery for a longer period of time. It is the needs of the learners which help consolidation of materials. So, the researchers argue that the selection of materials, in both general and specific contexts, should be based on the real needs of the learners. If so, the learners will be motivated to learn more and more new items and even they will be encouraged to practice and gain materials on their own. This claim is in line with the views of Hutchinson and Waters (1987) who stress materials design on the basis of the learners' needs, and Freihat and Al-Makhzoomi, (2012) who claim the importance of need analysis for course designing in both ESP and EGP.

It is argued that language learners in ESP contexts need a particular range of general lexical knowledge to be successful in achieving the pre-determined goals. Both general and specific knowledge of vocabulary are essential to learn a foreign language. Surely, to understand a text with more technical words, the learner has to know an acceptable range of general vocabulary size; they are both required to comprehend a given text in a specialized field of study. This research study is bias in favor of the significance of neither general nor technical vocabulary learning and teaching, rather it focuses on word retention generally and emphasizes the importance of "need analysis" in designing materials for EFL learners. To investigate if the same result occurs in long term (after one, two or even more years), further research studies are suggested. Further research studies are, also, suggested to determine the appropriate vocabulary learning strategies in other courses and to identify the relatedness of the materials to the needs of the learners. Sometimes, most of the material for a particular course is not in accordance with the learners' needs. The size of the vocabulary to be taught has to be taken into consideration to avoid the memory load. Instructors should pay equal attention to both general and technical words and should motivate the learners to acquire both of them effectively and, if possible, offer suitable strategies. However, due to the frequency of technical words,tendency of the learners in acquiring this class of words and the relevance of the taught words to the basic needs of the learners are among the foundomental factors affecting the test results, that is, relatedness of the materials to the learners' needs, and motivating the learners are very conducive in learning newly taught lexical items.

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