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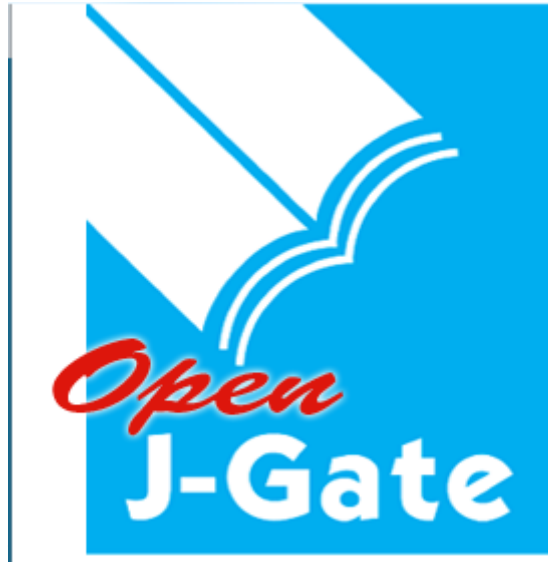
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THE IMPACT OF METAPRAGMATIC INSTRUCTION ON SPEECH ACT AWARENESS OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNER

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ABSTRACT
This study dealt with the application of the pragmatics research to EFL teaching. The study explored the relationship between metapragmatic instructions and the use of speech acts of intermediate EFL learners. The speech act of request was selected as the focus of teaching. Teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping, role plays, and other pragmatically oriented tasks were used to promote the learning of speech acts. A total number of 60 Iranian students based on OPT (Oxford Placement Test) test were selected for the study. Discourse Completion Test was developed as a pretest and posttest to measure the effects of instruction on the pragmatic awareness of the learners. The need for language learners to utilize a form of speech acts such as request which involves a series of strategies was considered to be significance of the study. The present article reveals the researcher's interest in a set of strategies in which native speakers of target language use for performing speech activities. Consequently the results of the data analysis revealed a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the use of request speech act in experimental group.

KEYWORDS: Metapragmatics, Speech act awareness, Sociolinguistics, pragmatic competence

1. Introduction
One of the most compelling notions in the study of language is the notion of speech acts. A speech act is created when speaker/writer S makes an utterance U to hearer/reader H in context C. It is agreed upon that speech act theory is built on the foundation laid by Wittgenstein and Austin. Speech act theory originated directly from the work of J L Austin, and particularly from William James Lectures delivered at Harvard in 1955, and published later as How To Do Things With Words in 1962. John Searle then improved this theory. The speech act is an utterance that expresses an intention. The speech act can be a sentence, a word or a phrase. When somebody speaks, they perform an act. So speech does something and speech act stresses the intent of the act as a whole. Searle believes understanding the speaker's intention is essential for capturing the meaning. Without the speaker's intention, it is impossible to understand the words as a speech act. Searle proposes that there are five basic kinds of action that one can perform in speaking, by means of the following five types of utterance:(1) representatives (example: asserting, concluding, etc) (2) directives (example: requesting, questioning) (3) commissives (example: promising, threatening, offering) (4) expressives (example: thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulation) (5) declarations (example: declaring war, christening, firing from employment). Likewise, apologizing and requesting, two of the specific forms of utterance, have taken a lot of attention among linguists and those who are concerned with pragmatic studies. In fact, most works of apologizing and requesting up to now have been done in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics, as part of the CCSARP (Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Patterns) project. The project was done by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), aiming at investigating the realization patterns of two speech acts (requests and

apologies) in different languages and cultures in order to establish similarities and differences in these patterns linguistically and between native and non-native usage to the same social constraints. The investigated languages were English, French, Danish, German, Hebrew and Spanish.

Trying to get the meaning across, nonnatives may simply translate speech acts from their mother tongues to the second language. The communicative aspect of the language can be said to be realized as 'pragmatic competence', which refers to "the ability to perform language functions in a context" (Taguchi, 2008, p. 34). This competence involves the contextual meanings and purposes of the utterances, that is, the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation (Winkler, 2007). Lin (2008) identified three factors causing pragmatic failure, namely, cultural differences, pragmatic transfer, and the lack of pragmatic knowledge. The first factor, the differences between the L1 culture and the target culture, may cause negative transfer, or errors induced by the speakers' mother tongue. The next factor, pragmatic transfer, involves the effects of L1 speech patterns used when producing L2 utterances; for example, using a direct speech act where a native speaker may use an indirect one. The third factor, the lack of pragmatic knowledge, is mainly an important factor affecting the inefficient communication. To achieve the communicative goals efficiently, therefore, both linguistic and pragmatic competence are required. Pragmatic failures often pass unchecked by the teachers or, worse, they are attributed to some other causes, such as rudeness. So language teachers teach the rules of appropriate language use.

2. Literature Review

Pragmatic competence is considered to be "an understanding of the relationship between form and context that enables us, accurately and appropriately, to express and interpret intended meaning" (Murray, 2010, p. 293). Mastery of pragmatic competence, therefore, involving ability to "employ different linguistic formulae in an appropriate way when interacting in a particular social and cultural context" (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Floor, 2008, p. 349), is very challenging for students, especially in EFL contexts. "Learners of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess comparable pragmatic competence" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Bouton, 1996; Kasper 1997). Even advanced learners who are competent in grammar may use language inappropriately and show differences from target-language pragmatic norms. "The development of communicative competence should be the goal of language teaching" (Bouton, 1996). He proposes three major directions that researchers can take in order to further contribute to the theory of communicative competence: (1) the refinement of the study of speech acts which occur in different cultures, (2) an investigation to determine the extent to which explicit instruction can increase the rate at which nonnative speakers develop different factors of their pragmatic competence, and (3) the contribution pragmatics can make to the presentation of different functions of a language in textbooks designed for second language learners.

Recently, international scholars and practitioners from different foreign language contexts investigated the role of pragmatics for teaching purposes, for learning purposes, as well as for testing purposes. In order to learn pragmatics in foreign language contexts, DuFon (2008) examined Language Socialization theory in relation to acquisition of pragmatics in FL classrooms. Hassal (2008) considered language learners' perceptions in relation to pragmatic performance. Further Nikula (2008) investigated learning pragmatics in content-based instructional settings, whereas Gonzales-Lloret (2008) examined computer-mediated learning of L2 pragmatics.

Regarding teaching pragmatics in foreign language contexts, Kondo (2008) explored the effects of awareness-raising instruction on pragmatic development of refusals by Japanese EFL learners, while Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008) were concerned with enhancing of the pragmatic competence of non-native English-speaking teacher candidates in an EFL instructional context. Moreover, House (2008) considered using translation to improve pragmatic competence.

Concerning testing pragmatics in foreign language contexts, Yamashita (2008) explored testing of interlanguage pragmatic ability. Brown (2008) investigated raters, functions, item types, as well as the dependability of L2 pragmatics tests, whereas Roever (2008) examined rater, item and candidate effects in Discourse Completion Tests.

Teaching speech acts enables EFL students to become aware of the sociolinguistic conventions of language use and cultural differences which constitutes appropriate use in English as opposed to their first socio-linguistic systems. This study made contribution in the area, namely, effect of instruction on pragmatic competence.

The main aim of the study was to find out the effect of metapragmatic instructions on speech act awareness of intermediate EFL students at institute level. The minor aim of the present research was to show the possibility of teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting with the assumption that this problem can be overcome by giving the students the tools to make the processes of pragmatic decision-making explicit. It is claimed that helping students to make the process of pragmatic decision making explicitly will help in successful communication and appropriate use of the second language and will hopefully promote cross-cultural understanding and appreciation. This study was planned and conducted to investigate strategies of request speech acts dealing with explicit teaching of its behavior. Considering request as an important component of speech act is vital since to understand a language, one must understand the speaker's intention. It is an utterance that expresses an intention. The study is hoped to shed light on the area of speech act and actions to be taken in EFL schools and universities to train potentially intelligible learners. This research is an attempt to present a profound answer to the question whether formal instruction of request speech act enhance Iranian intermediate EFL learners' use of it or not.

3. Methodology
3.1 The Design of the Study
A quasi-experimental design was employed in which a control group, an experimental group and the manipulation of three basic characteristics: 1) a pre-test, 2) a treatment during the course of study, and 3) a final measurement of the treatment (posttest) were used. Teaching metapragmatic instructions as an independent variable divided the participants into two groups, the experimental group that received the instructions, and the control group that was just taught according to the institute's syllabus. The use of the request was measured by the extent to which participants answered the twenty given questions. Each correct item was awarded one mark, and the maximum score a participant could achieve on the test was 20.

3.2 Participants
The participants who took part in the study were 60 EFL learners from 4 branches of Shokouh English Institute in Rasht, Iran. Participants of all classes were all above 18 year old, and they were all Persian native speakers. Altogether 60 respondents answered all the required discourse completion questionnaires in written English.

3.3 Data Collection Instrument
Three research instruments were used in the study. The first was the grammar part of the OPT (Allan, 2004) administered at the beginning of the study to ascertain the proficiency levels of the students. The test included 50 items, and the scores above 25 that was the average score of the participants were chosen for the purpose of the study. The second instrument was informative papers prepared by the researcher from different sources. They were downloaded from different sources on Internet or taken from original English text books. During 10 treatment sessions, the participants of the test were asked to become familiar with the important and useful points involved in the articles and use them in their role plays. The third instrument was a questionnaire that consisted of a Discourse Completion Test for the use of request speech act. The DCT-questionnaire developed by (Jalilifar, 2009) included 20 situations followed by a blank space in which the participants were asked to write a request accordingly. It was in written form so that the learners could give their replies without any language difficulties. While choosing the items composing the task, the most important criterion was the situations' relevance to a university student's life, so that the subjects would not have difficulty in imagining the situations described in the scenarios (Bardovi-Harlig, 1998; Jernigan, 2007). This questionnaire was designed to explore the realization patterns of the speech act of request in English and the strategies EFL learners used in given situations.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure
Before starting to fill in the questionnaires, the participants were explained in detail about the main objective of the investigation as well as how to answer each question. 30 students were assigned randomly as control group and 30 students as experimental group. The experimental group received teaching materials covering ten classroom sessions of 30 minutes; each was developed on the basis of deviance find in the answers to the questionnaire. The explicit metapragmatic instructions for the experimental group began by a teacher-fronted discussion of various meanings that a single utterance might convey in different contexts (e.g., the

menu please). Examples of request speech acts were provided, emphasizing the fact that a specific form can have several functions in the language, and a function can be realized through different forms depending on contextual variables.

After the teacher started the discussion, students were divided into different groups and asked to come up with examples of the request speech acts in their first language and second language and to discuss the differences and similarities in the realization patterns of the speech acts in their first language and the second language. Volunteer students were asked to do role plays of the intended speech acts for the whole class. Frequent sociopragmatic or paralinguistic deviations, observed in the learners' examples, were taken as teaching points and pertinent metapragmatic information or comments on the intended speech act set were provided to the whole class. Necessary reference was made to the instructional materials which students had in order to further establish and internalize the relevant metapragmatic knowledge for any patterns and strategies of the request speech act. The materials were prepared by the researcher based on the available literature on the request speech acts. The students were then provided with dialogues in English and asked to extract the request speech acts performed by the native speakers in those dialogues and to compare them with their own strategies. In the control group classrooms, no explicit metapragmatic instruction was given. The students were just taught in accordance with the usual instructional programs of the institute. The post teaching questionnaire was given after ten teaching sessions and was the same as pre-teaching phase of the request speech act. During the investigation, the participants were asked to keep silent and were not allowed to communicate with each other, and no time limit was set for them.

The research was conducted based on teaching the request speech act for the experimental group and just instructing the syllabus of the institute (not teaching request speech act) for the control group. During 10 sessions, learners became familiar with different aspects of request and their questions were answered by the researcher. This process helped the participants to have a correct understanding of request speech act. Furthermore, the data were collected by the researcher in the same classes where participants studied in the institute after 10 sessions of practicing. This familiar environment helped the students feel that everything is normal. They were given the test that they received at the beginning of the study and answered them under the same conditions that they had experienced.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedure

Two dependent and independent factors were considered in this study. The independent variable was the explicit teaching materials, and the dependent variable was request speech act awareness. Moreover, a set of independent t-tests were utilized to compare the mean scores of the two groups in the pretest and posttest. It also clarified the effect of the instructions on the experimental group.
In order to increase the reliability and stability of the test scores, the researcher used the test and the retest method. The test and the retest were taken at the beginning and at the end of the term.

4. Results

As the participants were selected based on administration of a proficiency test, they were considered to be homogeneous and no pre-existing difference in terms of general English proficiency was taken into account. Apart from general proficiency, participants needed to be tested regarding their request abilities at the beginning of the study to make sure the results obtained from the study was due to the treatment. In analyzing the data, a statistical package (SPSS) was used to generate the frequencies, percentages of each variable and the relationships between them. Independent sample T-test was applied between the scores of pre-test of two groups and the results achieved. In terms of the use of request speech act, the mean of the pretest of the control group was 16.30 and that of experimental group was 17.10. The p value, a predetermined significance level to be compared with observed level, was 0.05 in the study. The p value (0.070) > 0.05 revealed the fact that the two groups were not significantly different at 0.05 level in terms of the use and awareness of request. It demonstrated that the two groups were not significantly different in both pre-tests for the use of request speech act at the commencement of the study prior to the treatment. It proved that the two groups were homogeneous.

Table 1. Group statistics of the pre-test scores of experimental and control group

Group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Control	30	16.3000	1.93248	.35282

Experimental	30	17.1000	1.91815	.35021

In terms of the use of request speech act, the mean of the post test of the control group was 14.63 and that of experimental group was 18.30. A significant difference was between the two groups in terms of the mean. In addition, the p value of 0.00 < 0.05 indicated that the two groups were different significantly. In all of the post tests of the use of request speech acts, the observed t (9.299) exceeded the critical t (2.00) (observed t > critical t = 9.299 > 2.00) as well. So by 95% confidence, it was obvious that there were differences between control group and experimental group.

Table 2. Group statistics of the post test scores of experimental and control group

Group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Control	30	14.6333	1.75152	.31978
Experimental	30	18.3000	1.26355	.23069

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the data analysis of the study confirmed the claim that explicit metapragmatic instruction facilitates interlanguage pragmatic development. Although the study ignored the 'sequence' of obtaining speech act patterns and strategies, it illustrated that explicit metapragmatic instruction in these specific patterns and strategies makes significant contributions to the students' speech act comprehension processes. The findings showed that pragmatic competence develops as a result of explicit metapragmatic instruction.

In a study by Salmani (2008) on Persian requests, it was found that Persian speakers used conventionally indirect (CI) strategies in their requestive speech acts. The results supported the claim that L2 learners may not detect relevant input features in purely meaning-based L2 use (c.f., Schmidt, 1983; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). It is claimed that in order to notice what happens, input might have to be made apparent through input enhancement, which will raise the students' consciousness about the target features.

The results of the study revealed the rather controversial issue of what effects explicit instruction have on interlanguage development in an EFL setting like Iran. As was shown, findings of the data analysis of the study showed that explicit metapragmatic instruction by providing input enhancement in the L2 classroom, raising L2 students' awareness about the input features, and entangling them in productive class activities and language use precipitated and facilitated interlanguage pragmatic development to a considerable degree. The study appeared the vital role that explicit instruction can play in an Iranian EFL settings.

Teaching speech acts as a factor of socio-cultural skill is ignored in our English institutes, high schools and universities. For this reason, Iranian EFL learners often fail to recognize the correct function of speech acts in EFL educational settings. As the solution to the above-mentioned problem, teachers should help the students learn the appropriate techniques by applying comprehensive teaching methodologies which are considered to be an indispensable part of any EFL teaching programs. Studies to investigate strategies of request is rare in Iran; therefore, it is essential to deal with the problems by examining a communicative method of teaching in which speech acts are explicitly taught with due attention to the cross-cultural differences which are found between Persian and English. The present study revealed that at the end of the process there were differences between homogeneous students' pretest and posttest scores. Accordingly, there were differences between students' knowledge of request speech act in experimental group that received the instructions and the teaching materials, and the control group that did not.

To sum up, it should be mentioned that teaching pragmatics enables learners to experience and experiment with the language at a deeper level, and consequently make them able to participate in the purpose of language communication, rather than just words. These kinds of issues have been paid too little attention in Iranian FLT contexts. This research can have very valuable theoretical and pedagogical implications and applications for these underestimated issues. The result of the pretest of the study proved that intermediate learners of English did not have pragmatic awareness of request speech act in the absence of any pertinent instruction. This depicts that some form of metapragmatic instruction-deductive, inductive, explicit or implicit- is essential.

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HOW IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS PERCEIVE THE EFFECT OF WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN THEIR WRITING PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT
The study investigated how Iranian EFL learners perceive the effect of written corrective feedback in their writing performance. To conduct the study, 32 female students were chosen through judgment sampling and were divided equally into two homogeneous groups (experimental & control) consisting of 16 students. They were studying at the Iran language institute in Bushehr (ILI). The data was gathered from an interview; however, a pre-test and a post-test were conducted before the interview was held. The experimental group received corrective feedback on their writing from the teacher whereas the control did not receive any feedback. The results of the post-test revealed that the experimental group was able to enhance their writing performance while the control showed no increase in their scores on the post-test. The interview was then held in order to perceive experimental group's perception of the feedback they received. It illustrated that the experimental group was satisfied with the feedback they received as they believed that it was very effective and helpful and wanted it to be continued, that is, the majority of them regarded corrections as essential and wanted to be corrected regularly even though few at the same time find corrections embarrassing to varying degrees.

KEYWORDS: written corrective feedback, EFL writing, EFL writers, feedback, and perception.

Introduction
Writing which has once considered the domain of the elite and well-educated, has become an essential tool for people of all walks of life in today's global community and the ability to write accurately is becoming essential today, and instruction in writing is thus assuming an increasing role in both second- and foreign-language instruction. Whether used in reporting analyses of current events for newspapers or web-pages, composing academic essays, business reports, letters, or e-mail messages, the ability to write correctly allows individuals from different cultures and backgrounds to communicate. And as advances in transportation and technology allow people from nations and cultures throughout the world to interact with each other, communication across language becomes ever more necessary. As a result, the ability to write a second language is becoming widely recognized as an important skill for educational, business, and personal reasons. Furthermore, it is now widely recognized that writing plays a vital role not only in conveying information, but also in transforming knowledge to create new knowledge. Writing has also become more important as tenets of communicative language teaching- that is, teaching language as a system of communication rather than as an object of study- have taken hold in both second- and foreign- language settings. It is thus of central importance to students in academic and second language programs throughout the world.

The majority of second and foreign language learners regard corrections as essential and want to be corrected regularly (see e.g. Havranek, 2002; Schulz, 2001) even though many at the same time find corrections embarrassing to varying degrees. Most teachers also assume that corrections are important; but they frequently worry about whether potential negative affective reactions may not outweigh the positive effect on the learners' language development (Kleppin & Konigs, 1991; Schulz, 2001). Establishing that a correction "succeeded in modifying the learner's inter-language rule so that the error is eliminated from further production" (Chaudron, 1988, p.150) would require long-term observation of the learner's production of the corrected structure while at the same time making sure that there is no further input of the same structure, ruling out any other source of learning.

Literature review
2.1. Previous research on students' perceptions of teacher-written feedback

Many studies regarding teacher-written feedback on L2 writing have examined students' (not teachers') both use of and preference for different types of feedback (Enginarlar, 1993; Goldstein, 2001). Studies examining students' use of feedback have demonstrated that, though several scholars have argued that feedback is not helpful, students still believe that it is and use this feedback to improve not only their L2 writing but L2 grammar as well (Ferris, 1995; Hyland, 1998). In addition, studies examining students' perceptions of and preferences for types of feedback have demonstrated that students do have strong opinions on both the amount and type of feedback given by their teachers. For example, Cohen (1987) examined 217 students in various university language classes who completed surveys on the amount and the effectiveness of teacher-written feedback. The results of this study indicated that students felt that teachers do and should focus their feedback on local issues (such as grammar and mechanics) more than on global writing issues (such as ideas, content, and organization). Ferris (1995) replicated Cohen's study in a product context (i.e., in a situation where students had to complete only one draft of a composition). In her survey of 155 students, Ferris found similar results to Cohen, and also found that students are more attentive to feedback given during the writing process instead of after they have already finished a composition. Such findings demonstrate students' strong preference for local feedback and also demonstrate how and how much students use this feedback to improve their writing.

Although these studies indicate student preferences and perceptions about feedback, these perceptions are rarely compared to actual teacher feedback or teachers' self-assessments of that feedback. In fact, it is surprising, despite their importance in assessing the effectiveness of writing feedback, how few studies have examined how teachers' self-assessments relate to their use of feedback. Recently, researchers have called for research that examines the complex relationships in the classroom that affect feedback, advocating more research that compares student perceptions with teacher self-assessments and actual teacher feedback (e.g., Goldstein, 2001, 2006).

One study that has examined all three aspects of written feedback is Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990), which examined teachers' self-assessments with student perceptions and actual written feedback in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and native language (L1) programs in both institute and university contexts. This study found a strong link between teacher self-assessments and actual performance in all categories examined (content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics), at least in the university EFL context. While this study examined teacher self-assessment, student perception, and actual performance, it only examined the behavior of three teachers and nine students. In addition, the Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) study did not explain whether teachers were told how their self-assessments compared to the feedback they had actually given. The current study attempts to build on the findings of Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) by examining a much larger database of student perceptions, teacher self-assessments, and actual teacher feedback as well as by discussing how teachers responded to the findings of the study (Julie L. Montgomery, Wendy Baker, 2007).

2.2. Related studies

Feedback is a crucial aspect in the writing process and that it plays a central role in learning this skill. Through feedback, learners come to distinguish for themselves whether they are performing well or not. When they are not performing well, however, further feedback helps them to take corrective action about their writing in order to improve it and reach an acceptable level of performance (Freedman, 1987). Another valuable feature of feedback is that it serves as a good identification of how ESL students are progressing in

learning the written language and, therefore, assist the teachers in diagnosing and assessing their students' problematic areas (Hedge, 1988).

The importance of feedback lies in quality, not frequency. There are some important aspects to consider before feedback is given. Firstly, does the feedback take the students' development into account? By showing their progress, it could be an extra motivation for them. Also, a teacher should emphasize the efforts the students made, not the positive effect the outcome has on the teacher. There is a difference between these two teacher's comments "I see that you have worked very hard, good job!" and "I appreciate the hard work you have done!" The second comment suggests that the work was done for the teacher, the first focuses on the students' effort. The students should feel that they work for themselves, not for the teacher (Good, 1994, p.147). There are also two other aspects to consider when it comes to feedback. Is the feedback based on a conscious strategy? And does the teacher vary it from time to time? Writing a mere "Wow!" by the teacher does not say much about the work the students have carried out. It is better to point out the parts that are impressive and explain why. Also variation is necessary. If a teacher constantly writes "Good job!" students might not find it genuine and disregard it (Good, 1994). Keeping these points in mind could help to make feedback more useful for the students, and also more appreciated.

Chandler (2003: 292) concluded that if error correction is accompanied by students' revisions, the students' subsequent new writing will be more accurate. She also did not reject the probability of the effect of students' attitudes on accuracy of subsequent writing, for example, "marginal description of type of error had the most negative effect on accuracy of subsequent writing of any feedback methods used in either study, perhaps because of students' attitudes toward it". Truscott's (2004) continuous rebuttal arguments regarding the efficacy of error correction can be traced in recent response to Chandler. In this response, Truscott tries to show that Chandler's (2003) claims are not more than conjectures. He argues that no previous research findings support the effectiveness of correction plus revision.

Last but not the least issue which has attracted the attention of researchers is the different error treatments by teachers. Hyland and Anan (2006: 517) surveyed different groups of teachers (i.e., Japanese teachers, native English speaker non- teachers, and native English speakers as teachers from UK) and concluded that "Although the teachers viewed error correction as a positive pedagogic strategy, they performed the task in different ways". In fact, Japanese teachers as non-natives were less lenient while native English speaking teachers identified fewer errors and judged errors considering their appropriacy. The source of this contrast can be traced back in teachers' prior experience, in addition to their background and teaching context (khodabakhshzade, 2006).

Method
3.1. Participants
32 female students who were studying English as a foreign language for almost three years participated in this study. They were enrolled in high-intermediate classes at the Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Bushehr. They met twice a week for 90 min, 21 sessions a semester, and 4 times a year with approximately equal length in each term. Ages ranged from early twenties to late forties, but the majority was in their late twenties and early thirties. In order to make the participants homogeneous, the researcher administered a pre-test. The participants whose scores were close the mean were selected for the present study. They were in two different classes which consisted of sixteen students in each class. Later, the students were divided in two groups, experimental and control.

3.2. Instruments
There were three major data collection instruments to the course for both classes: An assigned textbook provided practice in grammar, lexical resource, and pronunciation with a workbook provided assignments given students practice in refining and improving exercises on grammar, punctuation notes, reading comprehension and so on; essays and writing assignments which the students produced during the semester; the interview scheme including some items to organize the information in the way things happen in the classroom and finally a rating scale by Jacob et al. to evaluate the students' progress at the end of the treatment.

3.3.Data collection
Following the administration of the post-tests, some of the learners in the experimental group were selected for an interview. The interview was designed in a way to show how the learners in the experimental group perceived the feedback given to them. The interview transcripts collected in this way, were used for a later analysis.

The students were surveyed using a follow-up interview in Persian (the students' mother tongue). The interview contained statements about their teacher's error correction practices as well as the students' own beliefs and attitudes about error correction. The follow-up interview invited students to elaborate on some of the statements. All the above research processes were piloted by the same teacher-researcher. Based on the pilot results, the processes were revised and finalized. It was hoped that these three sources of data (i.e., pre-test, teacher error correction task, post-test, and student survey) would yield useful information about how error correction was perceived by students, how effective error correction could be in student writing

3.4. Data analysis

The research question was more qualitative than quantitative. It dealt with the Iranian EFL learners' perception of corrective feedback in their writing. To end this, some days after the post-test, the participants in the experimental group were provided with an interview about the treatment they received. It was an opportunity to write down their opinions on the feedback given to them during the study.

Feedback is a way to involve the students in their assessment. In other words, the learners feel that they are negotiated with regard to their performance. In this way, it could improve the writing performance of the learners. As a proof in this regard, results of the interview showed that the participants in the experimental group positively perceived the role of feedback in their writing performance.

Results & Discussion

The research question concerned the qualitative aspects of the study which focused on the learners' perception of direct written feedback. After the quantitative tests (pre-test/ post-test) were done during the research, the learners in the experimental group were interviewed in order to access the way the learners perceived corrective feedback. The items were concerned with the role of explicit instruction in writing and the attitudes of the respondents for their perceived role of error correction. The interview was presented in learners' first language (Persian) in order not to let comprehension problems arise.

To investigate the perception of the participants, 12 learners in the experimental group were randomly selected to be interviewed. There existed eight questions which employed open-ended qualitative exploration in order to support qualitative data collection.

The first question in the interview was related to the students' opinion on this type of feedback generally and the answers received all showed a kind of satisfaction toward this feedback and proved to be helpful in writing progress. The next item questioned if direct feedback caused frustration or not which was responded in a way that showed it did not create any negative feelings but caused improvement in students' writing performance. As examples here, the third and fourth interview questions and the answers given are brought below respectively:

۳-" آیا بهتر بود فید یکی داده نشود؟"

" خیر فید یک داده شود بهتر است برای اینکه بدانیم چه اشکالاتی داریم."

۴- " فکر میکنید فید بک مستقیم بصورت نوشتاری باعث پیشرفت مهارت نوشتن میشود؟ "

" در صورت ادامه پیدا کردن باعث بهتر شدن و پیشرفت میشود و اشتباهات مشابه را تا حد زیادی تکرار نمیکنیم"

The results here illustrated that almost all of the interviewees considered a high status for direct error correction and they all agreed that this type of feedback had a crucial role in their learning. In addition, their writing performance was getting much more progressed. And the main objective which was to reveal the learners' opinion toward this issue in language learning was gained. It also showed that feedback procedure worked well and it had nothing to do with frustration and embarrassment on the part of the learners.

In sum, it can be said that the introduction of feedback procedure in the Iranian EFL writing classes is quite welcome. As interview findings showed, it did not create any problems for the students. Moreover, it greatly contributed to the students' improvement in both their overall writing and grammatical accuracy of the writing.

Conclusion

The research question was more qualitative than quantitative. It dealt with the Iranian EFL learners' perception of corrective feedback in their writing. To end this, some days after the post-test, the participants in the experimental group were provided with an interview in their own mother tongue about the treatment they received and it was an opportunity to speak out their opinions on the feedback given to them during the

study. Interestingly, almost all of the interviewees were satisfied with the feedback they received and they even wanted it to be continued. Some of them stated that it facilitated learning for them and they could notice significant improvement over their previous essay writings. Although the writing tasks that the participants were asked to perform were not an integral part of their course, a high degree of motivation to improve the accuracy of their writings was evident from the comments many of the made at the end of the course. For example, a number of them made explicit reference to the importance of written accuracy in their assignments and said that the appreciated every opportunity they were given to learn more.

Appendix 1

سوالات مصاحبه با دانش آموزان

نظر شما راجع به نوع فید بک چیست ؟

مشکلات این فیدبک چیست؟

نوع فید بک مورد پسند شما چیست؟

آیا فکر می کنید این نوع فید بک دادن باعث پیشرفت مهارت نوشتن می شود؟

آیا از نظر روانی این نوع فید بک باعث ایجاد احساس نارضایتی در شما می شود؟

آیا بهتر بود فید بکی داده نشود؟

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CULTURAL NATIVIZATION VERSUS CULTURAL PREVIEW) ON THE READING COMPREHENSION OF INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study investigated the effect of cultural nativization of short stories on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate learners in Iran language institute in Rasht. To achieve this goal, a sample population of 60 learners was homogenized out of 100 students and further divided into three groups. The questions to be answered were if nativization and cultural previewing could improve Iranian intermediate English language learners' reading comprehension. Also the attitudes of fifteen teachers towards cultural nativization versus the cultural previewing were asked. To answer the research questions, the One-Way ANOVA procedure produced a one-way analysis of variance for the quantitative dependent variable to be specific reading comprehension scores by the factor or independent variables (cultural Nativization and Cultural preview of the short story). Analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis and to compare the means of the three groups on the reading comprehension test. The results proved that nativization had a significant positive effect on Iranian intermediate English language learners' reading comprehension. Additionally, it was found that cultural previewing also had a significant positive effect on Iranian intermediate English language learners' reading comprehension.

KEYWORDS: Culture; English Language Learners; Nativization; Previewing; Reading Comprehension

Introduction
Reading is a basic and complementary skill in language learning. "Second language students need to learn to read for communication and to read greater and greater quantities of authentic materials. Students can use reading materials as a primary source of comprehensible input as they learn the language" (Chastain, 1988, p. 216). The current understanding of reading strategies has been shaped significantly by research on what expert readers do (Bazerman, 1985; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). These studies demonstrate that successful comprehension does not occur automatically. Skilled readers tend to use reading comprehension strategies such as re-reading, generating questions, predictions, and so on. According to the pilot study that has been done among 20 junior students of translation training program studying at the Islamic Azad University of Rasht, Iran, a TOFEL test that included two passages with 45 multiple choice tests were given to the students. Approximately, half of them had the scores under 10 out of 20. So it is determined that the subjects had problem in their reading comprehension ability.

It seems that the 'how' question of reading comprehension still poses a problem to these learners despite being at a high level and having learnt English for several years of their schooling experience. This means that the learners need to be trained in effective use of strategies to take control of their learning process in reading comprehension ability. Reading is the most important of all for most of students of English through-

out the world, especially in the countries that foreign language learners have not the opportunity to interact with native speakers but have access to written form of that language (Birjandi, Mosallanejad, Bagheridoust, 2006). Ladan JavdanFaghat and Zaidaha Zainal (2010) stressed that the system of education in Iran had not produced the desired objectives of reading classes which had emphasis on the high- cognitive domains.

The common problem that students face with in reading classes is the comprehension of texts which are loaded with cultural terms. For most of them comprehending a text with new words and an unknown topic is difficult. The purpose of the present study was the elaborations on the benefits of awareness raising activities on the L2 learner's comprehension of cultural texts. Cultural differences among different nations can cause communication problems which are worsen while reading. Since the interaction takes place between the text and the reader and the writer is not present to diminish ambiguities, it is more difficult to make sense of a text. Based on what has been reviewed EFL and ESL reading classes what is being worked on now seems inefficient and accordingly this research tries to shed light on this issue through the following experiment. Brown (2007) identifies comprehension as "the process of receiving language; listening or reading; input" (p. 379). Comprehension is the ability to take in information, analyze it in its respective segments, and come up with an understanding of the input in a cohesive and accurate manner. Well-developed comprehension abilities involve interactive strategy use to come up with a meaningful understanding of the input (Lin, 2010). Above all, comprehension can be identified as an interactive, strategic process which, when fully developed, results in reading fluency. According to Ziegler (2005), reading is a process of understanding speech written down. There are factors that affect reading comprehension and they include Lexical Processing, eye tracking, cultural familiarity, and first language effect. Many studies showed that there exists a positive correlation between cultural familiarity and reading comprehension (Brantmeier, 2003; Erten & Razi, 2009). It showed that if the reading is more familiar in terms of cultural content, it is easier to comprehend. Also it is suggested that L2 comprehension development possibly varies from culture to culture because of a varying combination of information organization preferences between groups (Grabe, 1991).

Brantmeier (2003) argues that L2 learners tend to make different judgments on the level of a text's reading difficulty depending on how familiar the cultural content is to the reader. Certain reading strategies may be common among certain cultures, but it is important to remember that individuals are more than the stereotypes and generalizations of their cultures and may not necessarily use the same approaches as the dominant culture in order to improve reading proficiency in the L2. This is important to consider when choosing reading texts, also, as the interpretation of a text will vary from culture to culture (Brantmeier, 2003).

If reader confront with unfamiliar cultural patterns, L2 readers will often revert to their own cultural norms in an attempt to interpret the text, which may result in unsuccessful comprehension (Erten & Razi, 2009). They conducted a study in order to determine whether or not the "nativization"—using culture-specific information in order to make text meaningful and thus comprehensible—of a text provided enough cultural familiarity to better comprehend a text. The result of their research indicates that cultural nativization plays a role in increased text understanding, decreases the cognitive load needed for comprehension, and increases the motivation to learn.

Grabe (1991) classified five most important areas of current research on the issue of schemata and language skills which are still prominent. They include "schema theory, language skills and automaticity, vocabulary development, comprehension strategy training, and reading-writing relations" (p. 375). Automaticity may be defined as "occurring when the reader is unaware of the process, not consciously controlling the process, and using little processing capacity. (ibid, p. 379-380). There has been a lot of research which investigated the influence of cultural background knowledge on reading comprehension like the works of (Carrell, 1987; Droop & Verhoeven, 1998; Johnson, 1981; Steffensen & Joag-dev, 1992; Steffensen, Joag-dev, & Anderson, 1979, Yeut Hung Chan, 2003). Some of them are described in details.

In terms of research methodology, most studies have used at least two groups of subjects who hold different cultural backgrounds. They used two passages which were supposed to be linguistically and rhetorically similar. One of the passages belonged to the culture of the target group and another one belonged to the culture of the foreign language and given to the second group. Generally, results showed that the groups reading in their own culture were better able to understand the text rather than readings in foreign culture.

One of the first studies of this type was conducted by Chihara, Sakurai, and Oller (1989). They have the basic assumption that "very simple things like nouns referring to persons and places carry with them some fairly subtle semantic and pragmatic information" (p. 144). They changed several culturally unfamiliar words from two English texts into more familiar words for the Japanese participants. They left the other words intact. Of course, they could control other possible intervening variables including the content and

syntactic complexity of the two texts. The results in the cloze test showed that the participants' performance was significantly better on the culturally modified version of the reading than on the original texts. Following these studies, Jalilifar & Assi (2008) in another study explored the role of cultural nativization in reading comprehension of target language short stories in Iranian EFL learners. The results clearly demonstrated that cultural nativization had a facilitative effect on comprehension of the stories. They also concluded that, the facilitative effect was both at the literal and at the inferential level of comprehension. Changes to the original English text through using culturally familiar words was extensively used by Alptekin (2002, as cited in Razi, 2003) who was the first person who introduced the notion of cultural nativization in comprehension of the target language short stories. In his more recent work, Alptekin (2006) defines cultural nativization as "sociological, semantic and pragmatic adaptation of the textual and contextual cues of the original story into the learner's own culture, while keeping its linguistic and rhetorical content essentially intact" (p. 499). Based on the problem mentioned that the readers face the problem of comprehension while reading the short story with a different cultural schema this paper tried to answer the following research questions:

RQ1-Does cultural nativization of a short story have any effect on the intermediate learners' comprehension of the same text?

RQ2-Does cultural preview of an original text have any effect on the reading comprehension of intermediate learners of the short story?

RQ3-What are the teachers' attitudes towards the nativization process of short stories reading comprehension versus the previewing of the text with cultural load?

Based on the questions raised, the following hypotheses will be proposed:

H01-There is no relationship between the cultural familiarity of a short story and the intermediate learners' comprehension of the same text.

H02- Cultural preview of an original short story does not have any effect on the reading comprehension of intermediate learners of the same text.

Methods of reaserach

In this study, it was aimed to investigate the effect of cultural nativization of short stories on the reading comprehension ability of adult intermediate leaners of English. Thus, the research design was an experimental design. There were three non-equal groups. There was one control group which received the intact story. There were two experimental groups. One of the experimental groups received the nativized story which was known as experimental group A.The third group was considered as the experimental group B. This third group received the original intact story along with a warm up on culture. For the experimental group B, the reading is accompanied with a preview activity. In this activity the group received some warm up in terms of discussing the cultural issues of the story and brain storming them. The allocated time for this activity was around ten minutes. At the end, a multiple choice test was given and their performance was compared against each other through ANOVA. The independent variable was the nativization of the text. The mean scores of all groups were compared afterwards.

Participants

The present study tried to investigate the effect of cultural nativization of short stories on the reading comprehension ability of adult male and female intermediate leaners of English. To reach this goal, a sample of 60 participants was selected from among the students who study at Iran language institute in Rasht, Guilan. The students were intermediate level learners of English which already had been classified as intermediate by the institute. However, to make sure of the group homogeneity an OPT test was administered to the group. After the test administration 60 students were selected as intermediate learners of English (N=60). They were learners with the age range of 14 to 20 considered as adult learners of English.

Procedure

The control group revived the original story and the group was given 20 minutes to answer the questions. There were two experimental groups as well. One of the experimental groups received the original story with the cultural preview that was provided by teacher. The teacher had a warm up about the cultural elements of the story like talking about the customs of marriage in Iran. Then the participants started the reading. They were also given the same amount of time. Finally the nativised version of the same story was given to the second experimental group. Without any warm up they read the story and answered the questions in 20 minutes.

Thus all the students took a reading comprehension test which would be an indicator of the students' performance. Then, the students' achievement would be compared in three groups through ANOVA. The

groups' mean scores would indicate the effect of nativization of the short story or the cultural preview on the learners' reading comprehension achievement. To find out the attitudes of teachers on the nativization procedure, their opinions were gathered through an interview conducted by the researcher. Fifteen teachers took part in this interview.

To answer the research questions, the One-Way ANOVA procedure produced a one-way analysis of variance for the quantitative dependent variable to be specific reading comprehension scores by the factor or independent variables (Nativization and Cultural preview). Analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis that the means of the three groups were equal on reading comprehension test.

After establishing the normality assumption, ANOVA was run to the results of the reading test. The descriptive statistics for the multiple- choice reading comprehension test is presented in the following table:

Table. 1: Descriptive statistics for the reading comprehension test scores

		Nativized reading	Original reading	Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture
N	Valid	20	20	20
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		**17.0500**	**15.8000**	**17.8000**
Std. Error of Mean		.28539	.27720	.20000
Median		17.0000	16.0000	18.0000
Mode		16.00	16.00	17.00[a]
Std. Deviation		1.27630	1.23969	.89443
Variance		1.629	1.537	.800
Skewness		.573	-.501	-.059
Std. Error of Skewness		.512	.512	.512
Kurtosis		-.205	.067	-.859
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.992	.992	.992
Range		5.00	5.00	3.00
Minimum		15.00	13.00	16.00
Maximum		20.00	18.00	19.00
Sum		341.00	316.00	356.00
a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown				

The results of the reading comprehension test showed that the Mean of the (control group) = 15.80, Mean (experimental A- Nativized reading - group) = 17.05, and Mean (experimental B- Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture - group) = 17.80, differed statistically. The significance value of the F test in the ANOVA table (see table 4.6) was less than (.05). Thus, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the reading test were equal across the three groups was rejected (F 2, 57= 15.44, Sig. = .000≤.05).

Table.2: Multiple Comparisons for the results of the posttest

Dependent Variable: reading comprehension scores						
Scheffe						
(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EX. A- Nativized reading	Original reading	1.25000*	.36358	**.005**	.3361	2.1639
	Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture	-.75000	.36358	.128	-1.6639	.1639
Control group- Original reading	Nativized reading	-1.25000*	.36358	**.005**	-2.1639	-.3361
	Original reading with a warm up about foreign cul-	-2.00000*	.36358	**.000**	-2.9139	-1.0861

	ture					
EX. B- Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture	Nativized reading	.75000	.36358	.128	-.1639	1.6639
	Original reading	2.00000*	.36358	**.000**	1.0861	2.9139
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						

The highest mean difference was found between experimental (B) group and the control group (mean difference= 2.00). On the other hand, the lowest mean difference was reported for experimental (B) group and experimental (A) group (mean difference= .75).

As it is shown in Table 4.2, experimental group (B) - Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture- outweighed the other two groups in terms of their reading comprehension (mean Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture- group =17.80; SD=.89). In the second place, experimental group (A) – Nativized reading- performed better than the control group (mean Nativized reading group =17.05; SD= 1.27). Finally, the control group's performance was lower than the other two groups (mean control group- Original reading- = 15.80; SD= 1.23).

According to Table.2, the difference between experimental (A) group that received specific treatment of "Nativized reading" and the control group that practiced on "Original reading" was statistically significant (p≤ .05). Besides, the difference between the experimental group (B) that worked on "Original reading with a warm up about foreign culture" and the control group was also statistically significant (p≤ .05). However, the findings showed that the difference between the two experimental groups was not statically significant. Although experimental (B) outperformed experimental (A) in reading comprehension test, the difference between the mean scores of the two groups was not significant (p≥ .05). Thus, the results of the statistical analyses rejected the null hypotheses and confirmed that Nativization significantly improved Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension. Additionally, it was found that cultural preview also had a significant positive effect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension.

Findings from the Interview

To answer the third question that is what the perceptions of the teachers on the culture preview versus nativization fifteen teachers took part in the interview by the researcher. They were asked one by one this question. They answered the following question:

-What do you think about cultural nativization versus cultural preview in reading short stories?

The interview was structured in which all teachers answered the research question which had been prepared beforehand. The teachers answered the questions and they were asked to justify on their preference over their desired method. Some of the opinions are as follows:

Ms. Eshghi: "In order to communicate you need to know the culture of the language. Language and culture are not separable."

Ms. Fazeli: "Proposing such question is wrong since culture is embodied in the language for example in the vocabulary. One who needs learning a language needs to communicate and one who communicates needs culture."

Ms. Savare Rakhsh: "Learning a language will be facilitated through learning the culture of that language, for instance when teaching the word Christmas we need to familiarize the learners with the culture of this celebration and take them to the environment if possible, culture must definitely be taught."

Opposite the results of quantitative research which has shown the outperformance of the both experimental groups comparing to that of the control group, the teachers' attitudes were considerably different regarding the cultural nativization of the short stories. Out of 15 teachers 13 answered that they would definitely believe in teaching culture and that the nativization process would lead to the exclusion of language elements which the students are needed to learn. They believed that nativization would be totally unacceptable. On the other hand, they agreed that cultural preview would be very beneficial to familiarize the learners with the cultural elements of the story. However, two of the teachers did not agree that culture needs to be worked on and agreed on nativization of culture in the short stories.

Results and discussion

It can be concluded that both cultural nativization and cultural preview can have a facilitative role in the reading comprehension of the short stories among the participants of the present study. Recent trends in research on the role of cultural background knowledge in L2 reading comprehension have focused on two groups of subjects with the same cultural background and one text in two different contexts. That is, several

culturally unfamiliar words in the original text are changed to more familiar ones in the modified version. Then each group reads either the culturally familiar or the culturally unfamiliar version of the text. The first study of this type was carried out by Chihara, Sakurai, and Oller (1989). Based on the assumption that "very simple things like nouns referring to persons and places carry with them some fairly subtle semantic and pragmatic information" (p. 144), they changed several culturally unfamiliar words (e.g. Nicholas, Athen, Klein) from two English texts into more familiar words (Ben, Osaka, Daiei) for the Japanese participants leaving all other words intact, Chihara et al. Others like Razi (2003), Chihara et al.'s (1989), Al-Fallay (1994, as cited in Oller, 1995) came to the same positive results.

Some studies applied previewing tool like Karakaş (2005) like what was applied in this study. For example, they showed that a combination of previewing and brainstorming is more effective than merely using brainstorming with short stories. Along the same lines, Chen and Graves (1995) explored the effectiveness of previewing and providing background knowledge and concluded that previewing is more effective than providing background knowledge. Carrell (1984) suggested that pre-reading activities such as text previewing, pre-teaching unfamiliar vocabulary, and providing pre-reading questions for EFL students.

The implications of the study

This study has some pedagogical implications. Considering the result of this study in which the scores of the participants with a cultural preview and a naitivised reading overweighed that of the original story, it can be implied that if the content of the language learning materials are familiar for the learners in terms of cultural elements, it can have a facilitative effect on the reading comprehension ability of the learners in this context. Theoretically, there has always been abundant evidence that activating the right schemata can be a facilitative factor in the reading process as mentioned by Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Anderson (1999), Harmer (2001) and the others like (Carrell and Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1987; Alptekin 1993; 2002; 2003; Singhal 1998; Stott 2001) believe that every reader brings his own language schemata to the reading process. It is implied that one's own cultural schemata can play a very important role in either facilitating or debilitating the process of comprehension.

Suggestions for further research

The result of the present research and the ones reviewed in the literature can have generalizations for the educators, students, and text book writers. The effective use of culture nativization and culture preview can play an important role in improving the skill of reading comprehension specifically among intermediate learners of English. Like the similar results which had been reached in studies of (Alderson, 2000; Alptekin, 2006; Ketchum, 2006; Oller, 1995; Pulido, 2003; Steffensen et al., 1979), it can be suggested that there is strong possibility that learners can benefit from cultural preview and cultural nativization of the reading tasks in the groups of participants. However, it is worth mentioning that there is a need to ensure how individual learners could perform when such previewing or nativization is applied and the cognitive processes which the learners could have possibly used. More introspective research can shed light on which cognitive factors could also play a role in the outperformance of the two groups.

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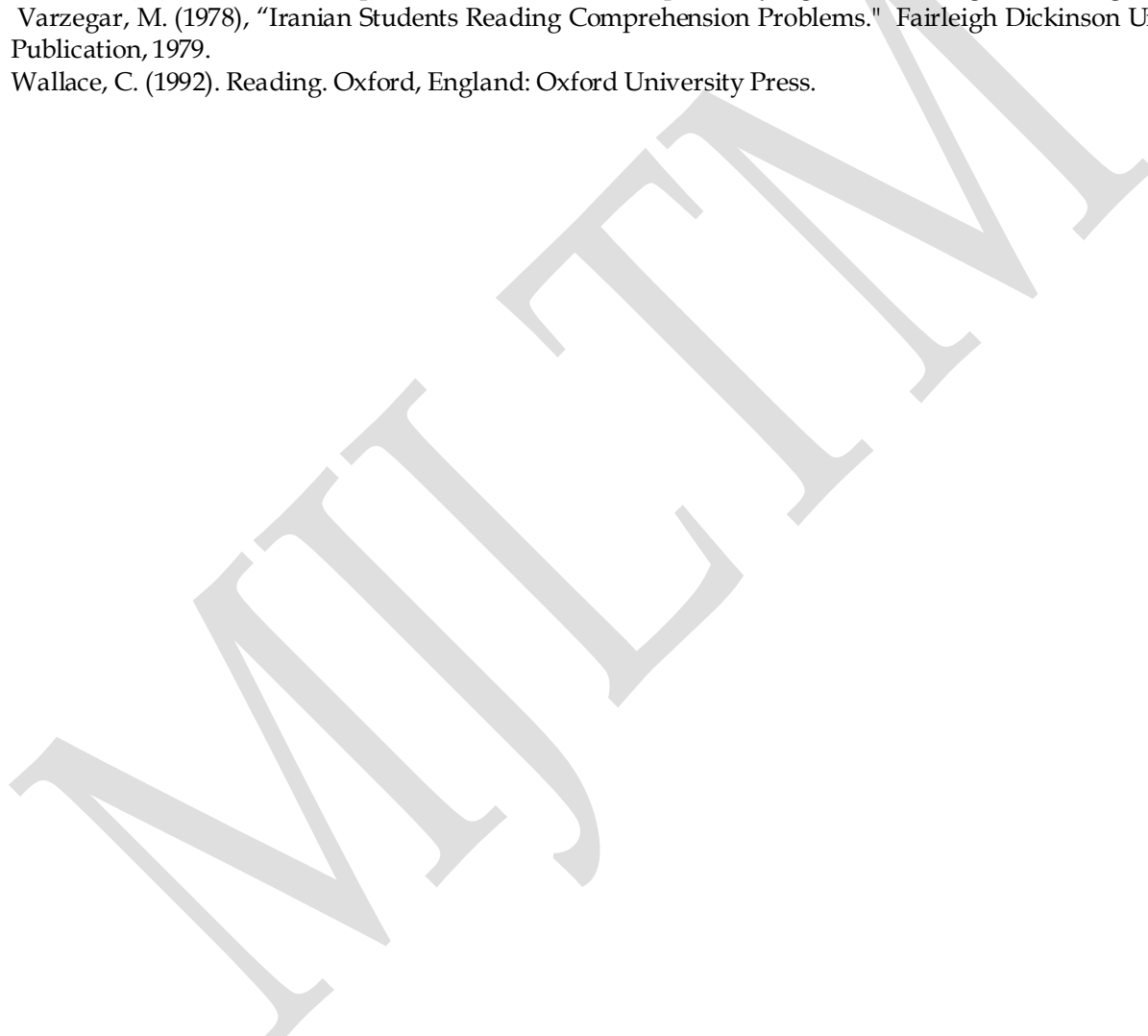
THE IMPACT OF PRAGMATIC – FOCUSED INSTRUCTION ON SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
The present study was performed with70 Persian speaking intermediate female learners at the age of 19 and26 through intact group pre-test- post-test design. After the pre-test of (WDCT), the experimental group received two types of materials during eight weeks, including meta-pragmatic information as well as film segments containing compliment exchanges. The control group received no treatment. After the post-test of (WDCT), paired-samples *t*-tests and ANCOVA showed that Experimental group outperformed the control group. In conclusion, applying Pragmatic – Focused Instruction will improve Sociolinguistic Competence.

KEY WORDS*:* meta-pragmatic, (WDCT), Pragmatic – Focused Instruction, Sociolinguistic Competence.

1. Introduction

For many years, the learning of a second or foreign language was assumed linguistic or grammatical accuracy. But recently, the role of communicative approach has been emphasized. Indeed, students may know the rules of linguistic usage, however be unable to use the language (Widdowson1978). It was clarified that communication required that students perform certain functions as well, including, promising, inviting and declining invitations within a social context (Wilkins 1976). So it can be said that being able to communicate required more than linguistic competence; it required communicative competence (Hymes 1971).

Canal and Swain in 1980 and 1983 divided the communicative competence into four parts:
(1) Linguistic competence, the ability to use the linguistic code, grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary correctly.
(2) Discourse competence, the ability to maintain cohesion between segments of discourse.
(3) Strategic competence, learner's ability to repair communication breakdown and work around gaps in his or her knowledge of the target language.
4) Sociolinguistic competence, the ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts. According to Canal and Swain (1980), pragmatic ability is included under *sociolinguistic competence* called *rules of use*.
When language learners learn how to manipulate their utterances to make them appropriate to the situation in which they are speaking, it is said that they have achieved to sociolinguistic competence in that language (Kasper & Rose 2001). But often the learner is unaware of these differences, and uses the rules of speaking of his or her native culture when communicating in the foreign language. This process, called pragmatic transfer, results in misunderstanding between the speech participants, and can cause serious breakdowns in communication (Crystal 1997). An obvious possibility might be to teach culture and sociolinguistic issues explicitly in the classroom.

Kasper and Roever (2005, p. 318) explain becoming pragmatically competent as "…the process of establishing socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic competence and the increasing ability to understand and produce socio-pragmatic meanings with pragma-linguistic conventions

2. Statement of the problem

Since, the main objective of language learning is communication; a learner must develop in terms of not only linguistic competence, but also socio-cultural awareness, attaining a useful understanding of how language functions in social and cultural contexts. The problem is that, teachers of EFL especially in Iran, due to the difficulty in teaching communicative knowledge, often ignore teaching it, and instead, focus on the grammatical aspects of language.   Indeed, at institutions, only textbooks with conversation are designed to be models for learners, while these textbooks neither can provide realistic input to the learners, nor help learners in interpreting and producing a speech act in a particular context, and also it cannot provide an opportunity for learner to distinguish the appropriateness of an utterance within a given context, as a result, EFL students are extremely weak in this issue.

Now, in the present study, through considering the instruction of pragmatics as the purpose of classroom research, the researcher aims to know whether it helps learners produce and recognize socially appropriate language in context or not. In other words, the ability of learners to use social deixis according to social distance, social power, rights, obligations as well as the degree of imposition involved in a particular communication is examined.

3. Method
3.1. Participants and design

For the purpose of this study, two classes from Kanoon Zaban institute in Tehran were chosen. They were 70 Persian speaking intermediate female learners at the age range between 19 and26. Because of institutional constraints, it was not possible to assign students randomly. So the appropriate design for this research would be intact group pre-test- post-test design.

3.2. Procedure
3.2.2. Pre-test

After administrating Nelson Language proficiency test to both groups, a written discourse-completion task test (WDCT) was carried out as pre-test to both groups. The questionnaires incorporated eighteen compliment scenarios. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of the scale turned out to be .93. This test requires the students to read a written description of a situation (including such factors as setting, participant roles, degree of imposition) and ask them to write what they would say in that context. See (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1983; Johnston, Kasper & Rose, 1998). Then three raters rated the questionnaires.

3.2.3. Treatment

In experimental group, students received instruction in compliment during eight weeks that consisted of lessons about Persian compliment, English compliment, comparing Persian and English and they provided with meta-pragmatic information; however the control group received no treatment; Of course the same "KANNON books" was covered in both groups as part of the regular course curriculum.

The treatment lasted approximately 30 minutes every session. The experimental group received two types of materials each session. One was handouts in which detailed meta-pragmatic information on the target compliment forms was provided. Of course, meta-pragmatic explanation was presented in both first language and target language, as suggested by Bardovi-Harlig (1996).

The second treatment included film segments containing compliment exchanges; it's crucial to point that, film is capable of providing both the target language for detailed discussion and analysis and the rich contextual detail useful for such analysis.

3.2.4. Post-test

The same pre-test was administrated as post-test to both group at the end of treatment , then a *t*-Test was conducted to see whether there is a significant difference between two means or not.

4. Results
4.1. Data Analysis for the Nelson Test
First a Nelson battery tests item facility, item discrimination and choice distribution were calculated. The reliability of the test was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha formula which was 0.845. It included 50 items administrated to both groups. After gathering the data, regarding the Nelson test and estimating the mean scores of both groups, those who were one standard deviation upper and lower than the mean score were discarded.

Table 1. NELSON test descriptive statics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
score of Nelson-test	75	32	18	50	42.21	5.171
Valid N (listwise)	75					

Table 1 present the descriptive statistics of the initial participants of this study who took the NELSON test

4.2. WDCTs analysis
The students' scores on WDCTs were used on the pretest and posttest. Since three raters rated the WDCTs, it was necessary to calculate the inter-rater reliability of the ratings. This was done by computing Intra-class correlation (ICC) coefficients among the three raters' ratings on the two groups' pretests and posttests.

Table 2. ICC coefficients among the raters

Average of raters	Number of cases	Number of raters	ICC correlation
Pretest-control	15	3	.98
Posttest-control	15	3	.97
Pretest-experimental	15	3	.97
Posttest-experimental	15	3	.98

Table 2 presents all the ICC coefficients, which are evidently acceptable, that is above .90. Next, the average of the three ratings was used.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of the average ratings on WDCTs

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.	Skewness
Pretest - control	15	31.67	49.00	41.8667	5.30319	-.835
Posttest - control	15	31.00	49.67	41.8444	5.75680	-.447
Pretest - experimental	15	31.00	51.67	42.8000	7.00204	-.634
Posttest - experimental	15	41.00	58.33	51.1556	5.16992	-.728
Valid N (listwise)	15					

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics of these average ratings for the two groups. Evidently, all the skewness values (table 3) are within the acceptable range (between -1 and 1) which shows that the data is normally distributed. So it allows for running paired-samples t test as a parametric test.

Table 4. 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	Control-pretest/posttest	.0222	4.40502	1.13737	-2.4172	2.4616	.020	14	.985
Pair 2	Experimental-pretest/posttest	-8.3556	6.23032	1.60866	-11.8058	-4.9053	-5.194	14	.000

Table 4 presents the results of paired-samples *t*-tests, which is indicative of the fact that only the experimental group has shown significant improvement in terms of sociolinguistic competence on the posttest; experimental group t (14) = -5.194, p < .05, control group t (14) = .020, p > .05. As the descriptive statistics show the pretest means of the groups are not equal, and in order to compare the posttest means of the two groups one needs to control the differences of the pretest means (covariate) of the two groups by means of employing ANCOVA.

In order to employ ANCOVA, the first one is normality, which was just found. Since the skewness values are within the acceptable range (i.e. between 1 and -1). The next assumption is the homogeneity of variances, which was found met based on Table 5 (p > .05).

Table 5. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances(a)

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.035	1	28	.853

Table 6. ANCOVA results

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
GROUP * pretest (interaction)	33.792	1	33.792	1.681	.206	
Pretest (covariate)	281.690	1	281.690	13.668	.001	.336
GROUP	581.841	1	581.841	28.231	.000	.511
Error	556.473	27	20.610			
Total	66355.889	30				
Corrected Total	1488.389	29				

Table 6 demonstrates the results of the check on the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes and the main ANCOVA results. The first row in Table 6 indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes is met; Interaction $F(1,27)$ = 1.681, p > .05.

The second row shows that the groups were indeed different on the pretest; Pretest effect $F(1,27)$ = 13.668, p < .05, and finally the next row shows that the groups are significantly different on the posttest; Group $F(1,27)$ = 28.231, p < .05, eta squared = .51 large effect size.

Table 7. Unadjusted means before controlling the covariate (Pretest)

GROUP	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Experimental	51.1556	5.16992	15
Control	41.8444	5.75680	15
Total	46.5000	7.16406	30

Table 8. Adjusted means after controlling the covariate (Pretest)

GROUP	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Experimental	50.917(a)	1.174	48.508	53.326
Control	42.083(a)	1.174	39.674	44.492

Tables 7 and 8 provide the posttest means of the groups before and after being adjusted after taking into account the effect of pretest mean differences (i.e. covariate). Evidently, the experimental group is of higher mean both before and after ANCOVA adjustments. In sum, the above results indicate that the null hypothesis of this study is rejected.

5. Discussion

The study which was carried out by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998) indicated that environment effect is inevitable. It means that SL situation confers an advantage for the development of sociolinguistic competence that is not provided in the FL setting. But the results of the present study showed that it is possible to

improve learner's sociolinguistic competence in the FL setting. It appears that the instructional approach enabled the learners to improve their ability. students in experimental group showed differences in ways which they constructed their talk. According to Crozet & Liddicoat (1999) awareness of differences between first language and target language is critical for language learners, particularly in their interaction with NSs of the target language.

Learners became more sensitive to use language socially appropriate than linguistically correct, the researcher claims that adoption of socio cultural rules as one's own in an L2 became an interesting activity for learners. They were eager to become familiar with socio cultural rules, even less proficient learner. As Takahashi and Beeb (1987) found that proficiency didn't make a difference in the EFL group among learners in using language appropriately.

The other implication is the use of discourse completion questionnaire: a Discourse completion questionnaire provides the learner with a description of a situation designed to elicit a specific *illocutionary act* (for example an apology) and the asks learners to write down what they would say in such a situation or asks them to select what they would say from choices provided. It is used to investigate learners' l2 *pragmatic competence.*

According to (Wiliam, 1988; Kasper, 1997b) providing material for learner is a basic responsibility of classroom instruction, watching film segments can be considered as an effective authentic material especially in teaching pragmatics. In the present study, watching film was not overlooked by researcher.

6. Further research

Researchers have indicated that gender is an important variable in every study. With regard to the purpose of the study, gender finds more importance, but because of the institutional constraints, it was impeccable to taking part male and female participants in a class. So, it is recommended to replicate the experiment with male or mixed-sex participants.

Learners who took part in the present study were intermediate learner in Kannon Zaban and they were highly competent participants. As indicated by rather their high scores on proficiency test (Nelson test) scores. So it is not clear whether similar results would be obtained with less advanced student. Although limited, the work by Tateyama et al (1997), appears to indicate that pragmatics is teachable to beginning learners, which should be encouraging to language instructors particularly in foreign language settings, where learners do not have as many opportunities, to interact with NSs of the target language as in the second language (L2) setting and the role of instruction becomes more important. Future research could look at how pragmatic-focused instruction affects beginner learners in a foreign language context.

The advantage of oral discourse completion task (ODCT) over written discourse completion task (WDCT) is that ODCT encourage oral production (both listening and speaking). The researcher in the present study was eager to use ODCT for gathering data, but because of institutional constraints, it was difficult to administer, it requires two audio cassette recorders, so, it is recommended to replicate the experiment with using ODCT instead of (WDCT) and finally, the question of time must also be considered. The experimental group received instruction for 90 minutes every week. All learners showed some developments in their ability to use language appropriately, however, it is unclear whether more practice time or a longer period of instruction would have resulted in greater overall gains.

Acknowledgement

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THE EFFECT OF USING ACROSTIC DEVICE ON IMPROVING IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND RETENTION

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ABSTRACT
Using literature and different literary devices in language teaching programs have been investigated over the past decade to reveal their effectiveness on learning language skills. Most of these researches indicated positive effect of literature on EFL teaching claiming that literature should be included in language learning programs. The present research investigated the effect of using Acrostic Device (AD), as a literary device, on improving Iranian junior high school students' vocabulary knowledge and retention. A number of 60 junior high school EFL male students aged between 14 to 16, learning English in elementary level at school, partici-pated in this study. They were divided into two groups. The experimental group practiced acrostic for active words of the readings of textbook and control group taught without providing any treatment. The analysis of the results obtained through the pretest and the posttest indicated that using AD had a significant effect on improving students' vocabulary knowledge.

KEY WORDS: Acrostic Device (AD), vocabulary knowledge, retention, EFL learner

1. Introduction

English teachers as well as researchers have made efforts to explore strategies and techniques for teaching English vocabulary. They have become aware of the importance of vocabulary learning in the process of learning a language. Due to this, learning vocabulary is a basic component of language proficiency. Inade-quate vocabulary knowledge is one of the most difficult tasks for Iranian students affecting their language skills development and learning ability.

Traditionally, teaching English language in Iranian schools, in many cases, has focused on Learners Eng-lish grammar. It is based on the assumption that that knowing about the language would lead learners to use the language in real life situations. However, real life language use cannot be equated with the knowing on language usage. It is a complex process that needs integration of all language skills.

Certainly, the integration of skills cannot be done by chance, as there are some methods and techniques that help this integration. Most of English teachers and researchers agree that students' vocabulary knowledge is an important part of language learning process and they should have a vast knowledge of English vocabulary in order to communicate effectively. Unfortunately, learning vocabulary is something problematic for students in Iranian context. Iranian students develop their vocabulary knowledge in class-room, but their learned vocabulary is often forgotten and they cannot utilize them in their daily conversa-tions. One technique to overcome this problem is learning English vocabulary in a meaningful way that is learning vocabularies in context. AD can provide students a meaningful text and a fun way to improve their vocabulary knowledge, but most of the students are unfamiliar with the benefits of these techniques.

2. Review of Literature

The use of literature and literary device has been a controversy for many years. A lot of researchers studied the effectiveness of using literature. Lazar (1993) lists some reasons for inclusion of literature in lan-guage classes. He claims that literature should be used in EFL teaching as it is very motivating, it is authentic material, it has general educational value, it is found in many syllabuses, it helps students to understand an-

other culture, it is a stimulus for language acquisition, it develops students' interpretive abilities, students enjoy it and it is fun, it is highly valued and has a high status, it expands students' language awareness, and finally, it encourages students to talk about their opinions and feelings.

However, from time to time the importance of teaching English through literature in the language classroom has been questioned. McKay (1982) and Sell (2005) claimed that English literature is too difficult for foreign language students to cope with and therefore it will be out of their ability. Thus, for almost two or three decades, literature which had played an essential role in foreign language teaching in many countries has been excluded from language classroom. Gradually, it seemed to disappear more and more in language educational programs. According to Freeman (2000) the significant role of literature faded as communicative approaches became the focal point of language programs.

On the other hand, many researchers and teachers believe that literature develops learners' language skills. Murcia (2001) referred to the positive effects of literature use and claimed that literature should be included in language learning programs. She pointed to three major advantages of literature usage in achieving communicative goals, integrating four skills of language, and raising students' and teachers' cross-cultural awareness.

Furthermore, according to Collie and Slater (1990), there are four reasons for teachers to include literary texts in the classroom. Being authentic, culturally rich, linguistically rich and making personal involvement are the reasons pointed out. In short, literature should have a place in EFL classes. For many students, literature can provide an authentic and motivating text which encourages them to read more and more. For all the students, literature is a means for using the language naturally.

The researcher claims that this is the first time that a person wants to investigate the effect of using acrostic as a tool in language classroom. So, the materials- book, article, or thesis- are very scarce related to this topic. Because of scarcity of related materials, the researcher is going to only define the term, speak about the procedures done for implementing acrostic in the classroom, and mention some advantages of employing this device in the classroom. In this study, the researcher wishes to introduce a new technique for improvement of vocabulary knowledge through acrostic writing. In order to maximize opportunities for expansion and development of vocabulary knowledge, acrostic device gives an excellent technique for doing so. According to an ancient Chinese proverb; tell me, I forget, show me, I remember, involve me, I understand. Teachers can involve students in active word learning through word play, so acrostic writing can be challenging with involving students and can result in learning. These types of activates interest even the most unmotivated student and appeal to the kinesthetic learner in the classroom.

According to Pinker (2006), an acrostic is a literary device in which the first letters of words or lines follow the order of the alphabet, or the first letter and subsequent letters in some observable order form names, messages, and the like. However, the definition that the researcher prefers in this study is: acrostic is a poem or a word puzzle which has certain letters in each line which form a word. The words are therefore created using one word, which is always written vertically. They are made from defined letters which construct a word.

In order to understand the reasons for the use of the acrostic in teaching language, it is necessary to comprehend that why a poet uses acrostic. In this regard, Pinker (2006) claimed that among the motives for its use are aesthetics, mnemonics, organization, completeness, and author's prowess. On the other hand, some teachers nowadays use acrostic as a word puzzle to add more fun to their classes. It is also a good way to discover students' emotional feelings about different persons or things.

Acrostic is easy to write, and most of the earliest acrostic writings use names. In the first step, after teacher's clarification, students write their names vertically on a piece of paper using capital letters. Then, they are asked to brainstorm or search their dictionaries to find a word or phrase that describes them that begins with the vertical letters. Students need to use all of their knowledge to solve these puzzles. Dictionaries are key material used in this technique and knowing how to use a dictionary is a prerequisite. They bring their writings to group discussion. After revision, their writings are collected in their portfolio.

3.   Method

A.   Research Questions and Research Hypotheses
    The purpose of this study is to answer the following questions:
1.   Does the use of AD play an important role on improving English vocabulary knowledge of Iranian junior high school students?

2.   Does the use of AD contribute to efficient English vocabulary retention of Iranian junior high school students?

Based on different studies and researches concluded so far and also according to the literature discussed in the previous section, the following null hypotheses have been provided:

$H_0$1. AD does not have significant effect on improving Iranian junior high school students' vocabulary knowledge.

$H_0$2. Students' English vocabulary retention through the use of AD does not change by time.

B: Participants

In this study, subjects were chosen from state school students. Due to the school constraints, it was not possible to assign students randomly to different groups. Thus, it was necessary to work with intact classes. The population for this study consisted of students at Shahid Bahonar School in Poldasht and the participants of the study were 60 grade- three male junior high school students aged between '14 to 16'. It is worth reminding that all learners were bilingual. Their first languages were Turkish and Kurdish and their second language was Persian. So, they studied English as a foreign language. There were 30 learners in the experimental group and 30 learners in control group. The experimental group was taught using AD, while the control group received no treatment. All of the participants were in the third grade of junior high school.

C: Design of the Study

This study has been conducted as a quasi-experimental research design involving a pretest, treatment, an immediate posttest, and a delayed posttest. All tests included 40 items relating to the content of the reading texts of the book, using intact EFL classrooms. Learners in two intact classes formed experimental group and received treatment, while the other one served as the control group. SPSS software was employed to analyze and compare the results in order to answer the research questions.

D: Variables

In this study using AD is taken as independent variable, the effect of which is going to be determined on the dependent variable which is the improvement and retention of vocabulary knowledge. On the other hand, the extraneous variable which is likely to have an effect on the relationship between dependent and independent variable is tried to be controlled or eliminated as much as possible.

E: Materials and Procedures

The materials used to conduct this study were first a pretest prepared from the content of four reading texts of the book including 40 items; all questions were related to new active words presented in the lessons. The questions type was multiple choices with for options. There was only one correct choice for each item. So, for each correct answer 2.5 points and for each wrong or unrelated answer 0 was considered. It is worth mentioning that for each unanswered question 0 point was considered, too. Then, during 4 sessions, four reading texts of grade three junior high school text book were taught in all three groups with selecting some active words to write acrostic. The words have been selected very carefully. After the treatment an immediate parallel posttest with the same characteristics of the pretest was given to the students to examine the effects of using AD on students' vocabulary improvement.

Finally, a delayed posttest with parallel form of pretest and immediate posttest was given to the students after passing one month to examine the vocabulary retention. The data were analyzed by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Comparing performance of the two groups accomplished by doing a T-test.

4.   Data Analysis
Pretest

As a longitudinal study, it took about 8 weeks to conduct the research experiment. Data were gathered from control and experimental groups before and after the treatment. To ensure the homogeneity of the groups in terms of their language proficiency a pretest was administered to the groups in this study. To do exact analysis, descriptive statistics for the two groups were analyzed and the findings were fed to SPSS software as shown in Table 1. This Table provides the means, standard deviations, and standard errors of measurement for all the participants in experimental and control groups.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for the two groups at pretest

Group				statistic	Std. Error
Pretest	Acrostic device	Mean		48.3333	3.29649
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	41.5913	
			Upper Bound	55.0754	
		5% Trimmed Mean		47.5000	
		Median		42.5000	
		Variance		326.006	
		Std. Deviation		1.80556E1	
		Minimum		17.50	
		Maximum		92.50	
		Range		75.00	
		Interquartile Range		25.62	
		Skewedness		.755	.427
		Kurtosis		.320	.833

Pretest	Control	Mean		48.5833	3.20444
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	42.0295	
			Upper Bound	55.1371	
		5% Trimmed Mean		47.9630	
		Median		50.0000	
		Variance		308.053	
		Std. Deviation		1.75514E1	
		Minimum		17.50	
		Maximum		92.50	
		Range		75.00	
		Interquartile Range		25.00	
		Skewedness		.568	.427
		Kurtosis		.179	.833

The study tried to check the normality of the distribution of scores in the three groups.

Table 2: Test of normality for the three groups at pretest

Pretest	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
Group	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
EX1	.160	30	.048	.941	30	.097
Control	.106	30	.200*	.961	30	.328

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

As table 2 represents, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that the second group (Control) is not normally distributed, that is, the distribution of scores is not normal, and therefore, the researcher had to resort to non-parametric statistics. It is not possible to run T-test analysis here because the distribution of one of the

groups is not normal. The researcher therefore applied Kruskal-Wallis test which is non-parametric variant and alternative of T-test.

Table 3: Kruskal-Wallis rank table

Pretest	Group	N	Mean Rank
	EX1	30	45.78
	Control	30	46.13
	Total	60	

As table 3 indicates, control group enjoys higher rank than the experimental group, that is, the students in this group outperformed the other students in the experimental group.

As table 4 shows, there is no significant difference (sig > 0.05) between the two groups at the pretest, therefore, the researcher was confident that the groups were similar at the beginning of the study.

Table 4: Kruskal-Wallis significance test

	Pretest
Chi-Square	.058
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.971

Results of pretest indicate that the two groups are homogenies and even the control group enjoys the higher rank, that is, the students in this group outperformed the other students in the experimental group.

Immediate Posttest

The immediate posttest step of data analysis aims at answering the first research question that is:
1. Does the use of SPs improve English vocabulary knowledge of Iranian junior high school students?
After 4 sessions of treatment in experimental group of learners, an immediate posttest with the same quality and characteristics with pretest was given to the groups.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics for the two groups at immediate posttest

Group				statistic	Std. Error
Immediate posttest	ACROSTIC DEVICE	Mean		63.0833	3.89275
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	55.1218	
			Upper Bound	71.0449	
		5% Trimmed Mean		63.0093	
		Median		65.0000	
		Variance		454.605	
		Std. Deviation		2.13215E1	
		Minimum		27.50	
		Maximum		100.00	
		Range		75.50	
		Interquartile Range		36.25	
		Skewedness		-.119	.427
		Kurtosis		-1.049	.833

Immediate posttest	Control	Mean		61.5833	2.76338
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	55.9316	
			Upper Bound	67.2351	
		5% Trimmed Mean		61.2963	
		Median		62.5000	
		Variance		229.088	
		Std. Deviation		1.51356E1	
		Minimum		37.50	
		Maximum		90.00	
		Range		52.50	
		Interquartile Range		21.25	
		Skewedness		.301	.427
		Kurtosis		-.737	.833

The finding revealed that the immediate vocabulary tests show enhancement in learning English vocabulary through the use of AD was 63.08%.

Table 6: Tests of Normality for the two groups at posttest

Immediate posttest		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	GROUPS	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
	ACROSTIC DEVICE	.085	30	.200*	.960	30	.301
	CONTROL	.111	30	.200*	.957	30	.259

As table 6 shows none of the groups enjoyed normal distribution. Therefore, the researcher had to resort to non-parametric statistics. The researcher used Kruskal-wallis test.

Table 7: Ranks

Immediate posttest	GROUPS	N	Mean Rank
	ACROSTIC DEVICE	30	40.77
	CONTROL	30	37.38
	Total	60	

As table 7 shows the AD group outperformed the control group since their mean rank was (40.77). Table 8 shows that this difference in immediate posttest was significant (sig=.004). Therefore the instruction proved to be effective at the immediate posttest and the experimental group outperformed the control group.

Table 8: Test Statistics[a,b]

	IMMEDIATE POSTTEST
Chi-Square	11.161
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.004

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: GROUPS

Delayed Posttest

The delayed test step of data analysis aims at answering the second research questions that is:

Does the use of SPs contribute to efficient English vocabulary retention of Iranian junior high school students?

Table 9: Descriptive statistics for the two groups at delayed posttest

Group				statistic	Std. Error
Delayed posttest	ACROSTIC DEVICE	Mean		61.7500	3.51342
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	54.5643	
			Upper Bound	68.9357	
		5% Trimmed Mean		61.1574	
		Median		60.0000	
		Variance		370.325	
		Std. Deviation		1.92438E1	
		Minimum		35.00	
		Maximum		100.00	
		Range		65.00	
		Interquartile Range		30.00	
		Skewedness		.499	.427
		Kurtosis		-.705	.833

Delayed posttest	Control	Mean		54.7500	4.10941
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	46.3453	
			Upper Bound	63.1547	
		5% Trimmed Mean		54.2130	
		Median		46.2500	
		Variance		506.616	
		Std. Deviation		2.25081E1	
		Minimum		22..50	
		Maximum		97.50	
		Range		75.00	
		Interquartile Range		45.00	
		Skewedness		.291	.427
		Kurtosis		-1.363	.833

The finding revealed that the vocabulary delayed tests show retention in learning English vocabulary through the use of AD was 61.75%.

Table 10: Tests of Normality

Delayed posttest		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
	EX1	.133	30	.186	.938	30	.081

Control	.174	30	.022	.914	30	.019

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The test of normality above shows that the control group is not normally distributed therefore, we have to use non parametric test of Kruskal-wallis and it tells us that the experimental group outperformed the other group (rank= 44.67).

Table 11: Ranks

Pretest	Group	N	Mean Rank
	EX1	30	44.67
	Control	30	35.45
	Total	60	

The ranks table above indicates that the experimental group has outperformed the other group with an average of 44.67, and the control group had the lower mean.

Table 12: Test Statistics[a,b]

	DELAYED POSTTEST
Chi-Square	9.694
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.008

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Group

The table above indicates that the difference between groups was significant because the significance level is (.008) and it is below (0.05) therefore, the difference between the groups is significant and the experimental methods of teaching are significantly effective in this study.

5.   Conclusion

The purpose of this study was twofold: first, to apply AD in junior high school students' classrooms and to see their effectiveness on learners' vocabulary knowledge improvement, and second, to investigate the role of using AD on retention of vocabulary knowledge. The first question addressed was 'whether using AD in the classroom affected Iranian junior high school students' vocabulary knowledge or not'. Analysis of the findings in immediate posttest indicated that AD resulted in considerable vocabulary knowledge improvement after 4 sessions of treatment. As for student's vocabulary acquisition, the second research question, it was concluded that the students' vocabulary acquisition was improved by the use of AD.

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ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY AMONG UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY STUDENTS IN TAIWAN

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ABSTRACT

This study was aimed to exploring the differences between genders as well as the proficiency differences of students who experienced English speaking anxiety at a university of technology in Taiwan. The participants were 679 randomly selected students at a university of technology in Taiwan. An English speaking anxiety questionnaire was adopted for data collection. The results have shown that students attributed the cause of anxiety to lack of practice, lack of confidence, a fear of making mistakes, and lower English speaking proficiency The results showed there was no significant difference between male and female students in terms of their English speaking anxieties in this study. On the contrary, the results showed there was a significant difference between two different proficiency groups in terms of their English speaking anxieties. On the average, lower level speaking proficiency group students had higher English speaking anxieties than higher level speaking proficiency group students.

KEYWORDS: EFL speaking anxiety, gender, proficiency levels, college students

Introduction

More and more attention has been drawn to the individual differences in language learning since 1970s. Individual differences can be attributed to cognitive and affective sides of language learning. In general, both cognitive and affective sides of language learning might achieve successful language learning and instruction; however, to date, research has been concentrated on cognitive aspects of the language learners.
Brown (2000) stated that affective domain of second/foreign language learning which included several factors such as motivation, empathy, self-esteem, and anxiety. These affective factors of language learners might influence the learners' language learning processes, positively or negatively. The heart of this affective domain plays an important role called foreign language anxiety which can significantly impact the development of foreign language learners, and foreign language teachers should be sensitive to foreign language learning anxiety in their classrooms in order to make their teaching more effective (Horwitz, 2001). To date, foreign language learning anxiety has been explored to a large extent. For instance, Horwitz (2001) mentioned the consistent negative correlations between foreign language learning anxiety and foreign language achievement. Horwitz (2001) also stated that a significant and high correlation was found between classroom anxiety and speaking anxiety, thus indicating that the English language classroom context is a source of speaking anxiety. In addition to this, Liu and Jackson (2008) found that language anxiety was positively correlated with unwillingness to communicate. More recently, Wang (2010) has shown that over 50 % of the students reported experiencing moderate or high levels of speaking anxiety and mutual influences existed between language achievement and speaking anxiety. As mentioned above, we can clearly find that speaking anxiety plays a vital part for foreign language learners, however; research has shown that there is still a need to improve on the students' English speaking proficiency and reduce learners' speaking anxiety. The investigation of speaking anxiety is of special importance to these participants, especially non-English majors who usually have little contact with and few chances to use the target language in their daily life. Based on this, this study aims to explore how English as a foreign language (EFL) anxiety affects undergraduate non-English majors in English conversation class in Taiwan.

Hopefully, the findings of this study might help to overcome foreign language speaking anxiety, put forth suggestions, give pedagogical implications, share general insights, and conclusions that are learned from this study, and then help English teachers in Taiwan deal with the problem of foreign language speak-

ing anxiety in their own teaching situations. More specifically, the study seeks to answer the following three major concerns:

1. To what extent do Taiwanese EFL learners experience speaking in English conversation classroom?
2. Does the EFL speaking anxiety they experience differ significantly in terms of gender?
3. Does the EFL speaking anxiety they experience differ significantly in terms of various speaking proficiency groups (the lower and the higher groups)?

Literature Reviews

Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

Kelly (2002) states anxiety is a complicated psychological term covering various variables. In its simplest form, anxiety can be defined as "a general feeling of apprehension including hyper-vigilance, increased sympathetic nervous system activity, and difficulty concentrating" (p.54). According to Horwitz (2001), language anxiety is a kind of anxiety specifically associated with second/foreign language learning contexts. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) stated foreign language anxiety is "a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). It happens when learners attempt to successfully adopt a foreign language which they have not yet adequately or fully mastered. Besides this, they also identified three kinds of related anxieties as components of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension (the fear of communicating with other people), test anxiety (fear of exams and other assignments adopted to evaluate the students' performance), and fear of negative evaluation (the worry about how others view the learner) (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope,1986).

For many students, foreign language class can be more anxiety-provoking than other courses they attend (Kitano, 2001). Maclntyre and Gardner (1991) further argued that " if anxious students could focus on positive experiences in the second language , rather than on negative ones, the debilitating effects of language anxiety could be reduced" (p.297). Therefore, foreign language anxiety is a distinct variable in the language learning process and has significant influence on language learning. In addition to this, Maclntyre (1999) synthesizes some findings of language anxiety research and provides the following general conclusions: (1) anxiety stems from negative learning experiences early in the language learning experience; (2) language anxiety negatively correlates with L2 learning achievement and with self-perception of L2 proficiency; and (3) anxious learners get lower grades, spend more time studying, and so on. With respect to literature on anxiety in language learning, Young (1991) identified six kinds of potential sources of language anxiety: 1) personal and interpersonal anxieties; 2) learners' belief about language learning; 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching; 4) instructor-learner interactions; 5)classroom procedures; and 6)language testing" (p.426).

Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

Apart from foreign language anxiety, some students are anxious of participating in speaking class. As a matter of fact, speaking is the most anxiety-provoking language skill in foreign language learning situations (Cheng et al., 1999). To date, anxiety over speaking has received the most empirical attention in the literature (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Woodrow, 2006). According to Ayres (1996), the fear of making a speech and an oral presentation ranks as the top number fear among students and adults from various backgrounds. Also, Young (1992) mentioned that speaking is considered the most stressful of the four skills from the perspective of foreign language teachers and students. More Recently, Wang (2010) revealed that over 50 % of the students reported experiencing moderate or high levels of speaking anxiety. There has been a great deal of research conducted in the field of oral or speech presentation, but only a few studies have focused on the sources of it (Kitano, 2001). A closer examination of sources of foreign language speaking anxiety showed a correlation between a) anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, and b) anxiety and perception of lower ability in relation to peer groups and native speakers (Kitano, 2001).

Wu (2004) stated that there exists a positive correlation between a student's language anxiety and English speaking proficiency. In addition, Hsu (2008) also mentioned that male students show more anxiety concerning their insufficient English ability in class, while female ones felt more anxious because they didn't have enough preparation before speaking in class. Liu (2007) revealed that most students became more anxious while speaking English in class, especially at the front of class. There were several factors causing to anxiety such as lack of vocabulary and low English proficiency. In a more recent study, Fang and Dong (2010) con-

firmed that the students having higher anxiety also have lower spoken English ability. Moreover, the more influential factors leading to high anxiety cover: the attention to intonation and pronunciation, the motivation and so on. All of these above studies provided valuable insights into the correlation between speaking anxiety and learner's achievement and proficiency

Method
Participants
A total of 679 (324 males, 355 females) freshmen non-English majors at a University in Taiwan participated in the study. A self-evaluation format attached to the questionnaire asked the participants to report their own confidence levels of their speaking proficiencies on a scale of as "the lower" and "the higher" A note was provided within the format in order to help the participants to determine their proficiency levels. Therefore, they were divided into two kinds of groups: the lower group (n=312), and the higher group (n=367). The age reported had a mean of 18.5 years, ranging from 18 to 19. All the students were enrolled in an English oral practice course, which was required and credit-bearing.

Instruments
The instruments used in the study included one questionnaire (Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety) (Appendix A), which designed by McCroskey (1970). It is composed of 34 items measuring foreign language learner's speaking anxiety. The questionnaire was administered in the participants' native language, Chinese. For the current study, the overall reliability was computed as .87. On the whole, reliability with values higher than .80 identified good reliability for research purposes (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). All the items of the questionnaire except the background questionnaire items were placed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

Data Collection and Analysis
All participants completed the questionnaire during class time, and the survey questionnaires took around 20 minutes to complete. The students were informed that the survey would have no effect on their grade. The data were analyzed to obtain descriptive and inferential statistics, the results of which are reported below.

4. Results
Descriptive statistics showed that the participants demonstrated a wide range of average anxiety levels, ranging from 2.42 to 4.73. The overall mean was 3.52 (SD=.43), which indicated an overall highly moderate rating of anxiety levels.

An independent t-test was used to explore whether there were gender differences in perceptions of English speaking anxiety, and the results showed there was no significant difference between male and female students in terms of their English speaking anxieties due to $p > .05$. Also, an independent t-test was used to explore whether there were differences between the higher level speaking proficiency group and the lower level speaking proficiency group in perceptions of English speaking anxiety and the results showed there was a significant difference between these two different proficiency groups in terms of their English speaking anxieties due to $t(678)=2.323$, $p=.021$ with alpha set as .05. On the average, lower level speaking proficiency group students (M=4.51, SD=2.02) had higher English speaking anxieties than higher level speaking proficiency group students (M=3.13, SD=1.02) based on statistical analysis. The current finding of this study is consistent with Fang and Dong's findings (2010). They mentioned that the students having higher anxiety also have lower spoken English ability.

Conclusions and Implications
Based on the analyses and results in the previous section, it can be concluded EFL speaking anxiety, was provoked by a variety variables such as (lack of practice, lack of confidence, a fear of making mistakes, and lower English speaking proficiency). Obviously, most of the students seemed to be helpless and uncomfortable about being anxious when speaking English in class. It is the right time for English teachers to help them enhance their awareness and also discover coping methods.

In order to help reduce learner anxiety, English teachers should be aware of the existence of speaking anxiety among EFL learners and show empathy to them in class. In doing so, teachers may create a non-threatening and relaxed atmosphere in the speech and conversation classroom, because the mood dimension of trait anxiety is an influential factor on speaking anxiety. In the state of good mood, the students are less

likely to experience speaking anxiety. It is also useful for English teachers to design various classroom activities to help students to get rid of their speaking pressure such as ice-breakers and conversation partners. On the other hand, English teachers should develop the suitable and effective strategies to help learners reduce or eliminate their speaking anxiety in English classes based on various speaking proficiency levels.

As this study is only focused on the students of a university of technology in Taiwan, findings are restricted to this context. In addition to this, the study had to depend on learners' self-evaluated proficiency levels since no official assessment record on their speaking proficiencies was adopted. More research is required with more combination of data collecting methods to generalize the findings confidently.

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Appendix A: Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA) survey by McCroskey(1970)

1. While preparing for giving a speech, I feel tense and nervous.
2. I feel tense when I see the words "speech" and "public speech" on a course outline when studying.

3. My thought become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
4. Right after giving a speech I feel that I have had a pleasant experience.
5. I get anxious when I think about a speech coming up.
6. I have no fear of giving a speech.
7. Although I am nervous just starting a speech, I soon settle down after starting and feel calm and comfortable.
8. I look forward to giving a speech.
9. When the instructor announces a speaking assignment in class, I can feel myself getting tense.
10. My hands tremble when I am giving a speech.
11. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
12. I enjoy preparing a speech.
13. I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to say.
14. I get nervous if someone asks me something about my topic that I don't know.
15. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
16. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself while giving a speech.
17. My mind is clear when giving a speech.
18. I do not dread giving a speech.
19. I prepare just before starting a speech.
20. My heart beats very fast just as I start a speech.
21. I experience considerable anxiety while sitting in the room just before my speech starts.
22. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
23. Realizing that only a little time remains in a speech makes me very tense and anxious.
24. While giving a speech, I know I can control my feelings of tension and stress.
25. I breathe faster just before starting a speech.
26. I feel comfortable and relaxed in the hour or so just before giving a speech.
27. I do poorer on speeches because I am anxious.
28. I feel anxious when the teacher announces the date of a speaking assignment.
29. When I make a mistake while giving a speech, I find it hard to concentrate on the parts that follow.
30. During an important speech I experience a feeling of helplessness building up inside me.
31. I have trouble falling asleep the night before a speech.
32. My heart beats very fast while I present a speech.
33. I feel anxious while waiting to give my speech.
34. While giving a speech, I get so nervous facts I really know.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SYNTACTIC KNOWLEDGE IN READING COMPREHENSION TEST PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT
Syntactic knowledge seems to play a function in the meaning construction and interpretation of texts. This study was conducted to investigate the relative contribution of knowledge of syntax to L2 reading comprehension. Seventy five students studying at Navid English Institute were randomly selected (33 males and 42 females). Three types of instruments; vocabulary, structure, and reading comprehension tests were used to gather the data which were analyzed using Pearson correlation and independent t-tests. Results of the statistical analyses revealed that a) the interrelation among grammatical knowledge and RC is high and positive; b) knowledge of syntax provides a significant contribution to RC; the students whose performance is better than others on the structure test, outperformed them on reading comprehension test as well; and c) there aren't any significant difference between males and females' scores on these two tests. These findings provided empirical support for the importance of syntactic knowledge in reading comprehension and have implications for EFL students, English language instructors, and curriculum experts.

KEY WORDS: reading comprehension, grammatical knowledge, syntax, contribution

1. Introduction
Reading comprehension is much more than the ability to read individual words and know what those words mean. In order to comprehend the reading material one needs to understand the meaningful message sent by the author. The entire reading process seems to be affected by the reader's knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Global text comprehension can be severely impaired if readers generate inaccurate and/or incomplete local text representation (Koda, 2007). As a result, although reading comprehension is mostly conceptual, it still is impacted by the knowledge of grammar either directly or indirectly. However, the role of grammar in L2 reading has not received much attention by researchers (Alderson, 1984; Nassaji, 2007; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). This may be due to the nature of reading as a receptive language skill for comprehending the messages of the texts. Hence, knowledge of structure was regarded to have less to do with comprehending a text than other components such as vocabulary, background knowledge, and reading strategies. In addition, the 30-year long dominance of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has downgraded the need to address the issue of the role of grammar in L2 reading (Han & D'Angelo, 2009; Urquhart & Weir, 1998).
Individual differences in reading ability may be accounted for by such factors as vocabulary knowledge, word recognition skills, phonological awareness, and working memory span (Baddeley *et al.*, 1985; Cunningham *et al.*, 1990; Jackson and McClelland, 1979; Palmer *et al.*, 1985). Nevertheless, Urquhart and Weir (1998: 269), note: "Grammar is a component of reading that has been almost ignored in the research. It seems to us that this is an interesting and potentially valuable research area which L2 teachers and applied linguists are in a good position to investigate." More recently, in his book on reading assessment, Alderson (2000: 37) refers to "the importance of knowledge of particular syntactic structures, or the ability to process

them, to some aspects of second language reading" and claims that "[t]he ability to parse sentences into their correct syntactic structure appears to be an important element in understanding text".

Sampson (1975: 38) defines syntax as ". . . how words are put together to form sentences". For Richards *et al.* (1992) grammar is "the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language" (p. 161). Grammatical or syntactic knowledge would seem to be primarily concerned with the well-formedness (or ill-formedness) of a sentence or subparts of a sentence such as a clause or a phrase. In this paper, following Urquhart and Weir (1998) "grammar" is used in the traditional sense, to refer either to syntax, or to syntactic knowledge.

2. Background

Second language (L2) reading is defined as receiving and interpreting information encoded in L2 via the medium of print (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). L2 reading is supposed to be more complex than L1 reading since L2 readers "start to read in the second language before achieving the kind of grammatical maturity and the level of oral vocabulary that L1 readers attain before they begin to read" (Shiotsu, 2009, p. 16). Even though grammatical competence is believed to be crucial for identifying syntactic relations of sentence components, there has been little research on how readers' knowledge of grammar contributes to L2 reading comprehension (Alderson, 1984; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Most studies addressing the role of grammar in L2 reading explored the issue by measuring the correlation between learners' grammatical knowledge and their L2 reading comprehension ability (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). For example, Alderson (1993) reviewed the data from the English Language Testing Services (ELTS) Revision Project and found a considerable overlap between scores on the grammar test and the reading test, which led him to propose a significant role of grammar in L2 reading. Similarly, in Kuhn and Stahl's (2003) review of theories and research on reading instruction, training L2 readers to parse sentences into meaningful phrases and providing them with already syntactically segmented texts were proved to promote L2 reading comprehension to a significant level. That is to say, the abilities to dissect sentences into meaningful chunks, identify syntactic roles of words, and recognize the syntactic structure of a sentence seem beneficial in the construction of meaning from the text. Further evidence of the role of grammar in L2 reading comes from studies that compared the relative importance of grammar with that of other L2 reading components, such as background knowledge and vocabulary (Barnett, 1986; Barry & Lazarte, 1995, 1998; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007). In Barnett's (1986) study that explored the relative contribution made by grammar and vocabulary to L2 reading, grammatical knowledge was shown to have a comparable effect on L2 comprehension to that of vocabulary knowledge. On that account, Barnett asserts that too much emphasis on vocabulary growth or inferencing skills at the expense of ignoring the importance of grammar may not suffice to promote the development of L2 reading ability. In a more recent study conducted by Shiotsu and Weir (2007), where the scope of grammar was clearly explained as including the knowledge of inflectional morphology, verb forms, and transformations, grammatical knowledge emerged as a stronger predictor of L2 reading ability.

On the other hand Ulijn stated that poor L2 reading is not due to the deficiency in L2 grammar, but inadequate knowledge of vocabulary that bears semantic information (Ulijn, 1981; Ulijn & Kempen, 1976). This speculation is supported by findings from Brisbois's (1995) and Haynes and Carr's (1990) studies, where vocabulary knowledge was shown to be a better predictor of L2 reading ability than grammar.

However there is also research showing that grammar has a comparable or a stronger effect on L2 reading (Alderson, 1993; Barnett, 1986; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007; van Gelderen, et al., 2004). For example, Barnett studied the relative importance of vocabulary and grammar in L2 reading using cloze items, half depending on vocabulary and the other half depending on grammar. The results of ANOVA showed that vocabulary and grammar had almost symmetrical effects on L2 reading comprehension, which led Barnett to assert the need for a balanced emphasis on vocabulary and grammar in L2 reading instruction. Also, in more recent studies done by van Gelderen et al. (2004, 2007) and Shiotsu and Weir (2007), each of the latent grammar and vocabulary variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in the latent L2 reading comprehension variable. Based on the results, it is claimed that "the role of vocabulary appears somewhat overstated while that of grammar understated" (Shiotsu & Weir, 2007, p. 104).

Early studies on syntactic development in reading impaired children suggest that reading disabled children have deficiencies in their application as well as understanding of syntax. Cromer and Wiener (1966) proposed that unskilled readers do not use syntax to assist and help in decoding written material. Vogel (1975) demonstrated that reading impaired children had deficits in areas measuring "the syntax of expressive language" and found a significant correlation between productive syntax scores and reading comprehension

scores, while Anderson (1982) revealed that poor readers exhibit syntactic deficiencies in the written language. There exists two approaches with regard to impaired readers and the origin of their inferior performance. Researchers who associate poor readers' difficulties with underlying phonological processing deficits (Macaruso, Bar-Shalom, Crain and Shankweiler, 1989; Liberman and Shankweiler, 1985; Shankweiler and Crain, 1986; Shankweiler et al., 1995; Smith, Macaruso, Shankweiler and Crain, 1989) support the Processing Deficit Hypothesis (PDH). According to PDH unskilled readers do not experience deficits in representing or processing syntactic information but do experience difficulty in processing and retaining phonological information in working memory. This deficiency keeps information from being delivered at the necessary pace and with the required precision for higher level processing. Shankweiler and Crain (1986) propose that difficulty in the processing of complex syntactic structures should be interpreted as difficulty at the phonological rather than the syntactic level. On the other hand the Structural Deficit Hypothesis (SDH) attributes difficulties in the acquisition of reading to syntactic processing deficiencies (Bentin, Deutsch and Liberman, 1990; Bowey, 1986a, 1986b; Menyuk et al., 1991; Scarborough, 1991; Stein, Cairns and Zurif, 1984). The SDH states that an absence of grammatical knowledge or lack of processing ability interferes with higher level text comprehension.

Ulijn (1981; 1984) claims on the basis of his research that L2 reading requires little syntactic processing but much lexical-conceptual processing. On the other hand, in his work on the English Language Testing Service (ELTS) Revision Project, Alderson (1993) found high correlations between a grammar test and tests of academic reading. During the development of the IELTS test, he found that there were very high correlations between the grammar test and different tests of reading. In fact, Alderson found that grammar correlated more strongly with different reading measures than these different reading measures did among themselves. However, studies in this area are problematic. Alderson (1993) observed that "the results, then, appear to show that a (vaguely defined) generalized grammatical ability is an important component in reading in a foreign language" (p. 218). But, as he himself admits, he was unable to avoid a degree of "contamination" of the grammar variable, since his grammar measure involved the processing of sentence semantics, e.g. the referential and sense meanings of lexical items. Similarly, qualitative research by Bernhardt (1991; 2000) suggests that syntax plays a significant role in L2 reading ability.

There are few other published studies involving separate measures of syntax, vocabulary, and reading skills in L2. Barnett's (1986) data led her to conclude that both syntactic and vocabulary knowledge affect reading comprehension, as increases in the levels of syntactic and vocabulary knowledge of her students seemed almost symmetrical in their effects on reading recall performance. Haynes and Carr (1990) found their students' reading comprehension performance correlating better with vocabulary than grammar but the students' reading speed showed the reverse pattern. In his study of the reading performance of L2 learners of Dutch, Bossers's data (1992) indicated that vocabulary and grammar were both significant predictors, with vocabulary achieving a slightly stronger prediction.

3. Method
3.1. Subjects
The participants in this study were 104 high intermediate level students - male and female- studying English at Navid English Institute in Shiraz, Iran. These randomly selected students were between 16 to 22 years of age and from one language background, Persian. A Word Level Test was given to them and 75 of the students (33 males and 42 females) whose grades proved to be significantly indifferent and as a result were supposed to be at the same level of vocabulary knowledge were selected to take structure and Reading Comprehension Tests.

3.2. Instruments
Urquhart and Weir (1998), and Alderson (1993) point out that in testing grammar/syntax our instruments should reflect as closely as possible that construct alone. We must minimize the overlap in the behaviors sampled in what is meant to be a test of syntax with those in the test of reading comprehension. Most measures of L2 syntactic knowledge involve the processing of visually presented text, judged as a kind of reading. Also, the more meaning extraction is integrated in the task and the more contextualized the task becomes, the more it seems to include the characteristics of reading. Therefore, a test of syntactic knowledge should attempt to decrease the need for semantic processing and keep contextualization to a minimum in order to achieve independence from a test of RC.

Three instruments were used to measure participants' knowledge of vocabulary and sentence structure and their reading comprehension ability. Each will be described below.

1) Vocabulary test:

In their investigation to the role of depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners, Rashidi & Khosravi (2010) used a test originally called the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983, cited in Qian 2002).This English vocabulary size test (VS) has been used to measure the learner's size of vocabulary knowledge. It is composed of five different levels, namely, the 2000 word-family level, the 3000 word family level, the 5000 word-family level, the university word list level, and the 10000 word-family list. Rashidi & Khosravi (2010) used a revised version of Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) by Schmitt et al (2001) that has 150 items. They stated that VLT has a reliability of above .90 and used an equivalent version of the test developed by Norbert Schmitt to confirm the validity of VLT. The reported Pearson Product Moment correlation between the two tests was above .95. The test has been accepted by a number of L2 researchers as an appropriate and valid measure of vocabulary size (e.g., Laufer and Paribakht, 1998; Qian, 1999). The same test was used in this study to investigate the students' vocabulary knowledge.

2) Structure test**:**

This test is a standardized test taken from the TOEFL consisting of 40 multiple-choice questions. It consisted of two parts. The first part was a fifteen 4-choice, fill in the blank items, and the second part was a twenty five 4-choice, underlined items (Considering one point for each item, the total score for this section was forty points).

3) Reading comprehension (RC) test:

This is a standardized reading comprehension test taken from the TOEFL consisting of five passages with 50 multiple-choice questions.

3.3. Procedures

After gathering the required data, statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 18. The data of the study were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics upon which the results and conclusions were made. In descriptive statistics mean and standard deviation were utilized to summarize the data and in the inferential statistics a Pearson Correlation was run to see if there is any significant relationship between Structure and RC scores. Also two separate Independent Sample T-tests were carried out to check the significance of differences between male and female scores. In order to eliminate pressure, the students were notified that the test scores would not have any effects on their regular class performance and the purpose of the study was clearly explained to them.

4. Data Analysis and Results

The mean and standard deviation of the scores is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Students' Scores on structure and reading comprehension

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
structure	28.55	3.804	75
reading comprehension	29.00	4.970	75

As Table 1 clarifies, the average amount of variation from the mean score (SD) for each variable is not so great, and the individual scores are distributed not far from the mean.

In order to examine the existence and the degree of correlation between students' scores on Sentence Structure and RC (Reading Comprehension), Pearson Correlation was used. Table 2 shows the correlation results.

Table 2: Correlation between students' score on sentence structure and RC

		structure	comprehension
structure	Pearson Correlation	1	.629**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	75	75
comprehension	Pearson Correlation	.629**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

N	75	75

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

This table reveals that there is a significant linear positive relationship between students' Sentence Structure knowledge and their RC performance; the Pearson correlation is .629, and it is significant at the 0.01 level. One interpretation may be that syntactic knowledge is one of the deciding factors in the performance on text reading comprehension.

Descriptive statistics showed different means obtained from structure and RC test scores of the two groups (males and females). The results can be seen in the following tables.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Structure Test)

gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
male	33	29.18	3.566
female	42	28.05	3.951

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics (RC Test)

gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
male	33	28.82	4.733
female	42	29.14	5.201

Since there were two independent groups of participants, to prove the significance of these differences Independent T-tests were run between male and female students' scores on Sentence Structure and RC. The results of the t-tests are represented in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5: Independent Samples T-test between Students' Scores on Structure

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
structure	Equal variances assumed	1.282	.261	1.288	73	.202
	Equal variances not assumed			1.304	71.547	.197

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances indicates that Sig=.261>.05 which proves the equality of variances at .05 level of significance. T-test for Equality of Means demonstrate that Sig=.202>.05. So the difference between the means obtained from structure test scores of the two groups is proved to be insignificant; the two groups performed equally well on the structure test.

Table 6: Independent Samples T-test between Students' Scores on RC

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
structure	Equal variances assumed	0.433	0.508	-0.279	73	0.78

	Equal variances not assumed			-0.282	71.27	0.77

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances indicates that Sig=.508>.05 which proves the equality of variances at .05 level of significance. T-test for Equality of Means demonstrate that Sig=.78>.05. So the difference between the means obtained from RC test scores of the two groups is proved to be insignificant; the two groups performed equally well on the RC test.

6. Discussion

Concerning the role of syntactic knowledge in RC, support to the findings of this study comes from Alderson (1993), Kuhn and Stahl (2003), Shiotsu and Weir (2007), and van Gelderen et al. (2004, 2007), who believed in the significant role of grammar in L2 reading. Alderson (1993) found high correlations between a grammar test and tests of academic reading. During the development of the IELTS test, he found that there were very high correlations between the grammar test and different tests of reading. The results of the present study also lend support to the Structural Deficit Hypothesis (SDH) which attributes difficulties in the acquisition of reading to syntactic processing deficiencies (Bentin, Deutsch and Liberman, 1990; Bowey, 1986a, 1986b; Menyuk et al., 1991; Scarborough, 1991; Stein, Cairns and Zurif, 1984) .Findings are also in agreement with those of Bernhardt (1991; 2000), who carried out qualitative research suggesting that syntax plays a significant role in L2 reading ability.

7. Conclusions

The broad goal of this study was to discern the role that syntactic knowledge plays in the reading comprehension performance of Iranian students of English as a foreign language. The results we presented point to a strong relationship between syntactic skills and reading comprehension abilities in both the female and male participants of the study; a significant positive linear correlation was proved to exist. Therefore, it is concluded that the students who perform better in sentence structure tests have better grades on the RC tests and the students whose performance is not as good as others have pitfalls in their RC as well. These findings strongly suggest that without the suitable knowledge of structure the probability of a perfect reading comprehension is low. Moreover, as there was no significant difference between the two groups –males and females did equally well on the structure test and reading comprehension test- it is concluded that gender has no role in Iranian EFL learners' performance on these tests.

8. Implications and limitations of the study

This study provides evidence about the significant role of grammar in L2 reading The results of the present study inform language instructors, EFL learners, and curriculum designers of the significance of the knowledge of syntax in reading comprehension. Conducting studies like the present one is useful for L2 curriculum developers because the findings of the study can help them make more proficient decisions on the language skills to be emphasized in language programs. This study only focused on investigating students' reading comprehension on the TOEFL test; as a result, more studies with different types of tests and tasks should be conducted in the future to examine major barriers to comprehending reading texts.

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METACOGNITIVE ONLINE READING STRATEGIES AMONG GRADUATE STUDENTS: DOES THE PROFICIENCY LEVEL MAKE A DIFFERENCE?

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this study was to identify the type and frequency of metacognitive reading strategies Iranian EFL learners use when they encounter academic texts on the Internet. The main focus of the study was to find about any difference in the type and frequency of metacognitive online reading strategies proficient and less proficient learners apply. Also the problems and difficulties both groups experience while reading online texts were to be determined. To achieve these goals a 38-item Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS) with an adapted Internet use questionnaire, think-aloud sessions, and TOEFL reading comprehension test were administered. The participants reported that they were willing to use Global strategies significantly more than others. The proficient and less proficient groups reported significant differences in applying 18 strategies. Furthermore, they reported that they had difficulties more in dealing with vocabulary when they read academic texts online.

KEYWORDS
Metacognitive reading strategies, Internet, Global Reading strategies, Problem-solving Reading strategies, Support Reading strategies, Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS), Proficient student, Less proficient student

1. Introduction
People who are studying English for whether academic or non-academic purposes like self-study for long life learning, in order to be knowledgeable and successful in English have to learn all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, reading is the most essential skill, because the ability to read in English will make progress and attain greater development in all academic areas for learners in academic and non-academic contexts (Anderson, 1999). Therefor reading can be done by traditional offline or printed materials like textbooks, and by online materials such as Internet. The focus of this study was to reading on the Internet for academic purposes.
Within the era of information technology reading on the Internet is increasingly important by EFL learners, because they access to a huge bulk of information on different webpages, specifically for their academic purposes. On the importance of the Internet in reading comprehension Coiro claims that
"Electronic texts introduce new supports as well as new challenges that can have a great impact on an individual's ability to comprehend what he or she reads. The Internet, in particular, provides new text formats, new purposes for reading, and new ways to interact with information that can confuse and overwhelm people taught to extract meaning from only conventional print" (2003, p. 458).
Is reading offline (printed) or online materials enough to be a good learner or to get prosperity in learning in general, and language learning in particular? The answer is too clear, "NO''. If language learners want to be successful in their language learning process, they have to be equipped with the ability to exploit some on-the-spot measures, commonly known as "learning strategies'', to enhance learning efficiency while involved

in the process of learning. Oxford (1990) defines them as "specific actions" employed by a learner to make the learning task easier and faster by giving it the qualities of enjoyment, self-directedness, effectiveness, and transferability to other situations.

Therefore there is a classification which bunches these strategies in different groups. Oxford (2003) classifies learning strategies into six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social. These six categories (which underlie the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) used by Oxford and others for a great deal of research in the learning strategy field) were further divided into direct strategies (those which directly involve the target language such as reviewing and practicing) and indirect strategies (those which provide indirect support for language learning such as planning, co-operating and seeking opportunities). The six groups can be utilized for all the language skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

In the scope of reading comprehension ability the learners can use and be aware of three types of metacognitive strategies whether encountering offline or online texts: 1) Global Reading Strategies, 2) Problem-solving Reading Strategies, and 3) Support Reading Strategies. "Specifically, in the era of digital information, having the skills and strategies to comprehend and respond to information on the Internet [as the most important online source] undeniably plays a crucial role in students' success", Pookcharoen (2009, p. 2) asserts. The reason of this claim is that the new technology has been altered as an inevitable part of the teaching and learning process, particularly language curriculums. The focus of this study was on the above three metacognitive strategies used by the learners who wanted to read academic texts on the Internet.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Reading is a source of difficulty for second language (L2) learners. The problems that they encounter could be due to a number of factors including lack of appropriate reading strategies, lack of background knowledge related to the topic, the target language, or attitudes toward reading, to mention a few (Al-Tamini, 2006). Teaching reading skills has usually been problematic and challenging at all levels of instruction, whether the learners are children or adults (Celce-Murcia, 2001). A noticeable recent development is that large quantities of offline texts and prints are now changing into online materials (Pookcharoen 2009).

In the scope of language teaching and learning, the Internet has entered language classrooms faster than televisions, audio/video, or any other form of information and communication technology (Leu, 2002). Iran is not an exception to this general trend. As a web reference, Internet World's (2012) stunning statistics show that the number of Iranian Internet users increased from 250.000 users in 2000 to 42.000.000 in 2012 (more than 53% of the population). This dramatic rise of Internet use has switched Iranian EFL learners' attention from printed textbooks and offline texts more and more to online ones. Online reading is viewed as an engagement with multimodal texts (Pahl & Rowsell, 2005) since online texts are integrated to other media such as audios, videos and flash banners. Regarding such developments, reading strategies which might be different from traditional ones and adjustable to the nature of online reading are required in order for online readers to locate, evaluate, synthesize, and communicate information on the Internet (Coiro & Dobler, 2007).

Pookcharoen, In, Lee, & Kigamwa (2009) pinpointed some difficulties that readers encountered while engaging in online reading tasks. In their study they found that the readers are not aware of many useful strategies that would facilitate their reading on the Internet. Based on the findings, they proposed that teachers should pay special attention to selecting texts that address students' interests and their English proficiency. While many studies conducted in countries that the speakers are native such as USA (Leu et al., 2007; Corio, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu 2008), very little attention paid to ESL and EFL contexts like Iran in which the learners are nonnative. It can be also said that there are few works on knowing the metacognitive reading strategies and learners' difficulties while reading online texts. The present study had its niche in metacognitive online reading strategies among Iranian EFL learners, a nonnative context. It will be intended to fill the gap by reporting how proficient and less proficient EFL university students in Iran utilize metacognitive reading strategies when reading academic texts on the Internet.

1.3. Purpose of the study

Reading is the most important skill for foreign language learners, because they have little exposure to the target language outside the classroom and most of the information in English comes through reading (Al-Tamini, 2006). In other words they need a huge bulk of comprehensible input while reading materials, the easier and more available sources, Chastain (1988) claims. Since the learners gather meaning from what they read, they need some helping reading strategies to comprehend better the materials and then be successful in their language learning process. "Reading strategies are of interest for what they reveal about the way

readers manage their interactions with written text, and how these strategies are related to reading comprehension" (Takallou, 2011, p. 274).

Metacognition is an important feature of effective reading and reading instruction (Israel, 2007), so is metacognitive awareness of the reading strategies one uses while reading an online text. Based on the importance of reading in the process of language learning and the key role of metacognitive reading strategies while dealing with online texts, the fundamental purposes of this study were: (1) to determine what metacognitive online reading strategies students use in reading for academic purposes, and (2) to find about any difference in type of metacognitive online reading strategies that learners with different levels of proficiency in reading comprehension use while encountering academic texts on the Internet. The study also shed light on the types of difficulties proficient and less proficient readers reported to be experiencing and to have encountered when reading academic texts online.

1.4. Research Questions

Since Internet is a new issue in the process of foreign language learning, particularly in reading skill, and because metacognitive reading strategies play an inevitable role in understanding the online texts, the following questions generated by the investigator, and then the study carried out centered on them:

1.   What are the type and frequency of online reading strategies Iranian EFL learners apply while reading online academic texts?
2.   Do reading strategies applied by more proficient and less proficient EFL readers differ in type and frequency?
3.   What types of problems and difficulties do more proficient and less proficient readers encounter when reading academic texts on the Internet?

2. Literature Review

Based on the categorization of metacognitive reading strategies i.e. Global Reading Strategies, Problem-solving Reading Strategies, Support Reading Strategies, numerous studies were undertaken to gather evidence on second language learners' use of metacognitive strategies in both printed and digital text environments.

Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) shed light to investigate metacognitive reading strategies by introducing the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). However, Anderson (2003), who wanted to investigate the EFL and ESL differences in metacognitive reading strategies while encountering Internet texts, introduced a new questionnaire which is an alternate for SORS. He called it Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS). It can be said that Anderson's OSORS paved the way for researchers who want shift their reading studies from offline to online methods. The following studies are some of the researches done in the scope of investigation of metacognitive reading strategies in both offline and online reading contexts.

Taki and Soleimani (2012) investigated the online reading strategies used by Iranian EFL students and the differences between male and female learners in terms of online reading strategy use. It also made an attempt to answer the question of whether skilled strategy users in the offline environment are skilled strategy users in the online environment. Participants in this study were 30 students (15 males and 15 females) selected from among 50 MA students at IAU University of Shahreza, Iran. The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) and Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS) were adapted to the purposes of the study. The results indicated that participants used online reading strategies moderately. Problem-solving Strategies and Global Reading Strategies were used the most. The findings revealed while there were no overall significant differences between males and females in terms of online reading strategy use, they did differ significantly on a number of individual strategies. The findings also represented that active strategy users in the offline environment were active strategy users in the online environment.

Ghyasi, Safdarian and AminiFarsani's (2011) study was an attempt to investigate metacognitive awareness of Iranian EFL Learners at higher education level. To this end, SORS questionnaire was employed to gauge Global, Problem-solving, and Support Strategies of 194 learners majoring English at different universities in Tehran, Iran. Semi-structured interview was also conducted in addition to the questionnaire. The findings demonstrated that the participants are moderately aware of reading strategies and the most frequently used strategies were Problem-solving Strategy, followed by Global, and then Support Strategy. Also, interview findings revealed some Problem-solving Strategies which were not covered by the questionnaire, whereas the Support Strategies mostly assessed by the questionnaire were not reported by the interviewees.

Ilustre (2011) carried out a study aimed to explore whether metacognitive reading strategies or beliefs about reading is a better predictor of text comprehension. 226 Filipino college students in a private university were

asked to accomplish SORS, and then answer a researcher-made reading comprehension test. Results showed that among the three subscales of metacognitive reading strategies, only Problem-solving Strategies correlated positively with text comprehension, with those students who reported to be using this strategy obtaining relatively higher scores in the reading tasks. The findings also showed that active beliefs, and not passive beliefs about reading, were positively correlated with text comprehension. Moreover, the results suggested that, over the effects of active views about reading, Problem-solving Reading Strategies contributed to text understanding.

Pookcharoen (2009) conducted a study in which he wanted to investigate metacognitive online reading strategies used by university students in Thailand who are EFL learners. He used OSORS to find the type and frequency of the metacognitive online reading strategies, and think-aloud and interview to find the problems that proficient and less proficient EFL learners have while reading an online text. The results indicated that the proficient readers' and the less proficient readers' methods of employing metacognitive strategies differed from each other in terms of both frequency and quality of use. It was also revealed that the less proficient reader group struggled with overwhelming vocabulary leading to inaccurate understandings of the online academic texts.

The focus of the present study was to identify metacognitive reading strategies EFL learners apply while they read online texts.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

For doing this study 50 graduate students of English as a foreign language (EFL) participated. These students were selected through availability random sampling from the population of graduate students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) at Islamic Azad University branches in Fars Province, Iran.

The participants were a combination of different levels of proficiency in English. Since the aim of the study is carrying out some investigations on students with low and high levels of proficiency 62% of the subject was female (N=31) and 38% was male (N=19). This shows that gender was not important for analyzing the data collected from the subjects.

As mentioned before the goal of the present project was to study the relationships between level of proficiency and strategies utilized by the subjects while reading online academic texts. Hence, 46% of the subjects was in high proficiency level (N=23) and 54% of them was in low proficiency level (N=27).

3.2. Instrumentation

Four types of instruments were used for data collection in this research. The first one was the Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS) introduced by Anderson (2003). This questionnaire is an alternative to SORS introduced by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) which will be utilized in order to find the frequency of the metacognitive strategies including Global Reading, Problem-Solving, and Support Reading Strategies. Some items of OSORS revised and normalized regarding to Iranian EFL learners.

The second instrument was an Internet use questionnaire which was designed to elicit general information about the participants' personal background and their ability and experience ratings with reading on the Internet. This questionnaire introduced by Coiro and Dobler (2007) and comprises 14 items. This questionnaire added to OSORS.

The third instrument was an online reading comprehension TEOFL test with 30 standardized multiple choice items.

And finally the forth instrument was think-aloud protocols used to find about the problems and difficulties proficient and less proficient students experience while encountering online texts.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

In order to grasp information for answering the first question of the research OSORS was used. After selecting the sample members, the researcher collected their E-mail addresses. OSORS which was a MS Word file was sent to them via their E-mails in order to complete it. A seven-day deadline determined and the researcher wanted the subjects to send the completed questionnaires to him via E-mail at most on August, 13, 2013. In the questionnaire, he introduced the questionnaire and its goal, and how to complete the MS Word file.

As mentioned before the subjects divided into two groups: a. proficient, and b. less proficient. The researcher analyzed the OSORS and TOEFL reading proficiency test, and then grouped the participants. In order to answer the third question of the study the OSORS reports collected and data analyzed by descriptive analysis. Results determined the percentage of using metacognitive reading strategies in three groups of Global, Prob-

lem-solving, and Support Reading Strategies. Clearly the results showed the frequency of each metacognitive reading strategies group used by proficient and less proficient learners. Also the results ranked the metacognitive reading strategies groups used by proficient and less proficient learners, separately for each group of subjects.

In order to find the appropriate answer for the third question of the study the investigator applied think-aloud protocols. He invited 5 proficient and 5 less proficient subjects of the study that determined as proficient and less proficient before. By simple random sampling, the subjects of this portion of the study selected from all of the participants meaning that 5 of proficient and 5 of less proficient participants.

After selecting the participants in think-aloud session, they invited for participation. Firstly the researcher introduced think-aloud protocols and how the participants would tell him what they are thinking during reading an online text. While they were encountering the text they reported their way of thinking, the metacognitive reading strategies they used, and difficulties and problems they had in reading, and their voice recorded by "RedForge Pro" software installed on a "Sony Ericsson Xperia" model cell phone. They had 45 minutes to read, report their thinking, and answer the reading comprehension questions of the text. It would be considered that the reading comprehension questions made by the own researcher. The surveyed individuals' recorded voices transcribed in order to analyze. Other sources for gathering data to answer this question were 11th item of OSORS and Internet use questionnaire which was added to OSORS.

3.4. Data Analysis Methods

To answer the first question of the study descriptive statistics like mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) applied. All of the surveys distributed through E-mail collected back, and then all the 39 itms of the OSORS which had a 5 Likert scale entered to common research computer software named Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. Then frequency of each item obtained from means (M) and standard deviations (SD).

In order to answer the second question two statistical operations needed. Firstly, means (M) and standard deviations (SD) were applied by similar method utilized for answering the first question. Secondly, by applying Independent sample t-test the results obtained.

Finally, in order to answer the third question of the research the qualitative data of 11th item of OSORS, Internet use questionnaire, and transcribed information recorded through think-aloud session obtained and recode to quantitative data. Only one statistical method, which is named percentage, was applied.

4. Results

As mentioned before in order to answer the first question of the research, by using SPSS software, means (M) and standard deviation (SD) computed. Table 1 depicts the results obtained from data analysis of both proficient and less proficient groups. The results ranked from high to low frequency of use by considering mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) for each item of OSORS.

Table 1 The Means and Standard Deviations for Each OSORS Item Reported by All Participants from High to Low

n. of Items	Strategies	Type	MEAN	SD
18	I use tables, figures, and pictures in the online text to increase my understanding.	GLOBAL	3.84	.912
11	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.60	1.143
32	I scan the online text to get a basic idea of whether it will serve my purposes before choosing to read it.	GLOBAL	3.60	1.125
10	I review the online text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	GLOBAL	3.56	1.198
9	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading online.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.42	1.162
31	When I read online, I guess the	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.34	1.189

	meaning of unknown words or phrases.			
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read online.	GLOBAL	3.32	1.151
30	I check to see if my guesses about the online text are right or wrong.	GLOBAL	3.32	1.168
33	I skip words or sections I find difficult or unfamiliar.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.32	1.168
7	When online text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	SUPPORT	3.28	1.126
6	I first scroll through the online text to see what it is about before reading it.	GLOBAL	3.26	1.157
20	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading online.	GLOBAL	3.26	1.242
8	I analyze whether the content of the online text fits my reading purpose.	GLOBAL	3.24	1.205
5	I think about what I already know to help me understand what I read online.	GLOBAL	3.22	1.200
13	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading online.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.22	1.200
16	When online text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.18	1.240
27	I try to guess what the content of the online text is about when I read.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.18	1.173
28	When online text becomes difficult, I reread it to increase my understanding.	GLOBAL	3.14	.948
34	I critically evaluate the online text before choosing to use information I read online.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.08	1.226
38	When reading online, I think about information in both English and Farsi.	SUPPORT	3.02	1.097
14	When reading online, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore	GLOBAL	2.98	1.169
24	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the online text.	GLOBAL	2.96	1.160
39	When I encounter difficult reading in English, I seek material on the same topic in Farsi.	SUPPORT	2.96	1.355
15	I use reference materials (e.g., an online dictionary) to help me understand what I read online.	SUPPORT	2.94	1.300

37	When reading online, I translate from English into Farsi.	SUPPORT	2.88	1.365
23	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	GLOBAL	2.86	1.278
4	I take notes while reading online to help me understand what I read.	SUPPORT	2.84	.997
36	When reading online, I look for sites that cover both sides of an issue.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	2.82	1.173
35	I can distinguish between fact and opinion in online texts.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	2.80	1.195
25	I go back and forth in the online text to find relationships among ideas in it.	SUPPORT	2.74	1.084
19	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading online.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	2.62	1.123
29	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the online text.	SUPPORT	2.60	1.107
22	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read online.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	2.58	1.180
21	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read online.	SUPPORT	2.56	1.146
26	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	GLOBAL	2.56	1.091
17	When academic sites have links to other sites, I click on them to see what they are.	GLOBAL	2.42	1.032
12	I print out a hard copy of the online text then underline or circle information to help me remember it.	SUPPORT	2.38	1.354
2	I participate in live chat with other learners of English.	GLOBAL	1.56	.705
3	I participate in live chat with native speakers of English.	GLOBAL	1.12	.328

The main information needed to answer the first question of the study depicted in table 2 and 3. It means that the most and the least frequency of the strategies reported by all participants should be in consideration for answer the question. 5 top and 5 bottom reported strategies will be illustrated in the following tables.

Table 2 Reported Strategies Used Most by All Participants

No. of items	Most used Strategies	Type	MEAN	SD
18	I use tables, figures, and pictures in the online text to increase my understanding.	GLOBAL	3.84	.912
11	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.60	1.143
32	I scan the online text to get a basic idea of whether it will serve my pur-	GLOBAL	3.60	1.125

	poses before choosing to read it.			
10	I review the online text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	GLOBAL	3.56	1.198
9	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading online.	PROBLEM-SOLVING	3.42	1.162

The most frequent reported strategy was no.18 *I use tables, figures, and pictures in the online text to increase my understanding* (M = 3.84). This strategy categorized as Global Reading Strategy. This strategy with the highest mean was followed by strategies no.*11 I try to get back on track when I lose concentration* (M =3.60) as a Problem-solving Strategy , no. 32 *I scan the online text to get a basic idea of whether it will serve my purposes before choosing to read it* (M = 3.60) as a Global Strategy, n.10 *I review the online text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization* (M=3.56) as a Global Strategy, and finally n.*9 I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading online* (M=3.42) as a Problem-solving Strategy.

Table 3. Reported Strategies Used Least by All Participants

No. of items	Least used Strategies	Type	MEAN	SD
3	I participate in live chat with native speakers of English.	GLOBAL	1.12	.328
2	I participate in live chat with other learners of English.	GLOBAL	1.56	.705
12	I print out a hard copy of the online text then underline or circle information to help me remember it.	SUPPORT	2.38	1.354
17	When academic sites have links to other sites, I click on them to see what they are.	GLOBAL	2.42	1.032
26	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	GLOBAL	2.56	1.091

The strategy with the lowest mean was no.3 *I participate in live chat with native speakers of English* (M =1.12) which categorized as Global Strategy, followed by no.2 *I participate in live chat with other learners of English* (M=1.56) as Global Strategy, no.12 *I print out a hard copy of the online text then underline or circle information to help me remember it* (M = 2.38) as Support Strategy, no.17 *when academic sites have links to other sites, I click on them to see what they are* (M=2.42) as Global Strategy, and then no. 26 *I check my understanding when I come across new information* (M=2.56) as Global Strategy.

The aim of answering the second question, which was the main focus of the present study, was to find differences in type and frequency of use of the metacognitive reading strategies applied by proficient and less proficient EFL learners when they are reading academic texts online. By reporting the results of an Independent sample t-test the question can be answered. Table 4 represents the obtained results.

Table 4 Independent Sample t-test Results

n. of Items	Type	N	Mean	T	Sig.
1	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.3	-0.088	0.93
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.33		
2	Global	Proficient Group 23	1.35	-2.027	0.048
		Less Proficient Group 27	1.74		
3	Global	Proficient Group 23	1.04	-1.543	0.129
		Less Proficient Group 27	1.19		
4	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.74	-0.656	0.515

		Less Proficient Group 27	2.93		
5	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.74	3.053	0.004
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.78		
6	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.52	1.495	0.142
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.04		
7	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.96	-1.927	0.06
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.56		
8	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.17	-0.355	0.724
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.3		
9	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.09	-1.921	0.061
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.7		
10	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.52	-0.206	0.837
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.59		
11	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.35	-1.456	0.152
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.81		
12	Support	Proficient Group 23	1.83	-2.86	0.006
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.85		
13	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.78	3.367	0.002
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.74		
14	Global	Proficient Group 23	2.96	-0.13	0.897
		Less Proficient Group 27	3		
15	Support	Proficient Group 23	3.22	1.406	0.166
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.7		
16	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.74	3.209	0.002
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.7		
17	Global	Proficient Group 23	2.61	1.199	0.237
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.26		
18	Global	Proficient Group 23	4.22	2.899	0.006
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.52		
19	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	2	-4.16	.000
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.15		
20	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.52	1.388	0.172
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.04		
21	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.65	0.521	0.605
		27	2.48		
22	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	2.22	-2.073	0.044
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.89		
23	Global	Proficient Group 23	2.13	-4.356	.000
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.48		
24	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.52	3.506	0.001
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.48		
25	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.87	0.777	0.441
		Less Proficient Teroup 27	2.63		
26	Global	Proficient Group 23	2.48	-0.485	0.63
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.63		

27	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.74	3.438	0.001
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.7		
28	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.13	-0.065	0.948
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.15		
29	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.57	-0.203	0.84
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.63		
30	Global	Proficient Group 23	3.48	0.882	0.382
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.19		
31	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.57	1.244	0.22
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.15		
32	Global	Proficient Group 23	4.04	2.738	0.009
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.22		
33	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	2.83	-2.971	0.005
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.74		
34	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.52	2.47	0.017
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.7		
35	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.35	3.275	0.002
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.33		
36	Problem-solving	Proficient Group 23	3.43	3.882	.000
		Less Proficient Group 27	2.3		
37	Support	Proficient Group 23	1.78	-7.847	.000
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.81		
38	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.74	-1.703	0.095
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.26		
39	Support	Proficient Group 23	2.26	-3.803	.000
		Less Proficient Group 27	3.56		

Although the mean of items reported by two groups of the study were different in all cases, the above table shows that since the Sig. value in 21 items was more than .05 (Sig.>.05) there were no significant in 21 items of OSORS, meaning that there was no difference between proficient and less proficient groups to apply metacognitive reading strategies when they read academic texts online in those 21 strategies. However, in 18 items there were a significant value less than .05 (Sig. <.05) meaning that the proficient and less proficient readers, in the case of frequency, are different in using the strategies. Table 5 describes 18 significantly different OSORS items reported by participants.

Table 5 18 Significantly Different Strategies

n. of Items	Strategies	Type
2	I participate in live chat with other learners of English.	Global
5	I think about what I already know to help me understand what I read online.	Global
12	I print out a hard copy of the online text then underline or circle information to help me remember it.	Support
13	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading online.	Problem-solving
16	When online text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	Problem-solving
18	I use tables, figures, and pictures in the online text to increase my understanding.	Global
19	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading online.	Problem-

		solving
22	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read online.	Problem-solving
23	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	Global
24	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the online text.	Global
27	I try to guess what the content of the online text is about when I read.	Global
32	I scan the online text to get a basic idea of whether it will serve my purposes before choosing to read it.	Global
33	I skip words or sections I find difficult or unfamiliar.	Problem-solving
34	I critically evaluate the online text before choosing to use information I read online.	Problem-solving
35	I can distinguish between fact and opinion in online texts.	Problem-solving
36	When reading online, I look for sites that cover both sides of an issue.	Problem-solving
37	When reading online, I translate from English into Farsi.	Support
39	When I encounter difficult reading in English, I seek material on the same topic in Farsi.	Support

As revealed from above table Problem-solving Strategies are the most strategies different in frequency reported by the two groups of the study (N=8 strategies). This type of strategy followed by Global Strategies with 7 strategies (N=7). And finally, Support Strategies are the least strategies reported different by two groups of subjects (N=3).

To sum up it can be said that the difference seen in type and frequency of the OSORS items reported by proficient and less proficient EFL graduate students who participated in the present study was not for all the items, meaning that they did not report that they are different in frequency of using metacognitive reading strategies while they are reading academic texts on the Internet. Also they reported that they apply Problem-solving, Global, and Support Reading Strategies, respectively, in 18 items of OSORS differently, of course in the case of frequency. Table 6 and Figure 1 demonstrate the information.

Table 6 Frequency of Difference of 18 Significantly Different Strategies

Type of Strategy	N. of Different Items	Percent
Problem-solving	8	44%
Global	7	39%
Support	3	17%
Total	18	100%

Figure 1 Percentage of Frequency of Difference of 18
Significantly Different Strategies
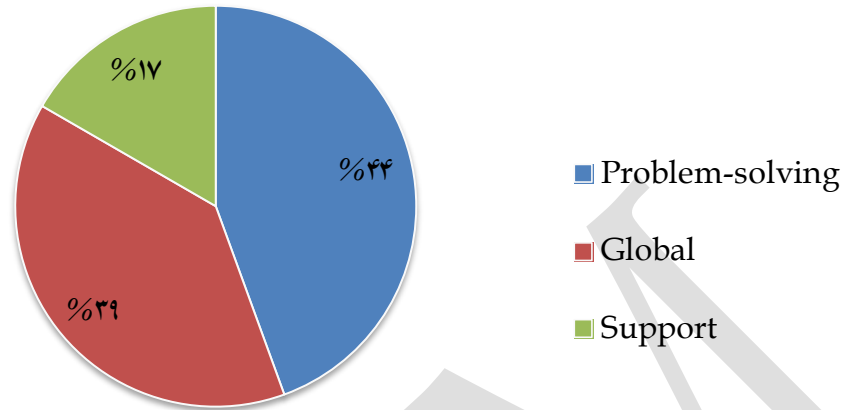
The third research question explored different types of difficulties that were both reported and encountered by the participants in this study. In order to response to this question the 11th question of the OSORS analyzed. This question is: What types of difficulties do you encounter when reading academic texts online? Another source for answering the third question of the study was observations through think-aloud session. The third instrument was Internet use questionnaire. By analyzing this qualitative data the following results obtained. After of all, according to research limitations and because some of the students did not respond to the 11th question of the survey, 5 proficient and 5 less proficient students were selected.

By analyzing the qualitative data of 11th question of the survey of 10 selected students, think aloud session, and Internet use questionnaire the four types of difficulties were found: 1) vocabulary, 2) structure, 3) text length and organization, and 4) comprehension.

The differences between frequency of problems and difficulties reported by two groups of the participants i.e. proficient and less proficient students depicts in the following table and figure.

Table 7 Frequency of Difficulties Reported by Both Groups of Participants

Type of Difficulties	Proficiency Group	Percentage
Vocabulary	Proficient	71%
	Less Proficient	74.5%
Structure	Proficient	9%
	Less Proficient	12.5%
Text Length and Organization	Proficient	11.5%
	Less	6%
Comprehension	Proficient	8.5%
	Less Proficient	7%

Figure 2 Differences in Difficulties between Both Groups of Participants
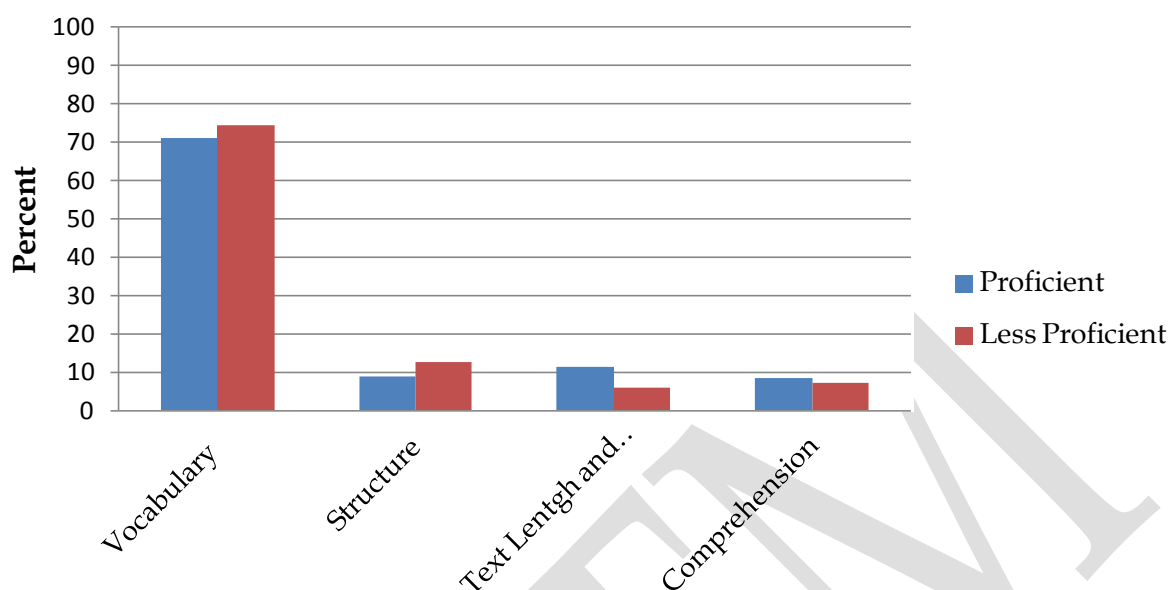
As revealed from above table and figure less proficient students had more difficulty in vocabulary (74.5%). Again they had problems more than proficient students in structure (12.5%). However, Text length and organization (11.5%), and comprehension (8%) were more problematic for proficient students.

Conclusion
The present study carried out in order to identify the differences between type and frequency of use of meta-cognitive online reading strategies applied by graduate Iranian EFL learners. Based on the obtained results, the respondents reported that they are willing to apply Global strategies more than others. The second most strategies used were of Problem-solving type of strategies. Support Strategies had no case in 5 top strategies. Again they reported that they are interested in using some Global Strategies less than others. They reported that they used Support Strategies as the second least type. Problem-solving strategies had no case in 5 bottom strategies. The reason of these results may be the distribution of Global strategies with 17 items in OSORS.
For the sake of the main goal of the research, which was differences between types and frequency of use of metacognitive online reading strategies between proficient and less proficient students, it should be said that proficient and less proficient students were different in using metacognitive online reading strategies in 18 strategies (46.15%). They were not different in applying type and frequency of strategies in 21 items of OSORS (53.85%). In 18 strategies reported difference in frequency of Problem-solving strategies were more frequent with 8 reported items, and a percentage of 44%. Global and Support items followed it with 7 (39%) and 3 (17%) strategies, respectively. Based on before results indicating that less proficient learners used more Problem-solving strategies, and since this strategy is more used differently between two groups it can be concluded that less proficient group made the difference by using more this type of strategy.
Minor objective of the study was to indicate the types of difficulties and problems both groups of the study i.e. proficient and less proficient students face while encountering online academic texts. As revealed from the results, both groups reported vocabulary difficulties as the most type of difficulties. It can be concluded that the reason of this great amount of difficulty for vocabulary when reading is that word knowledge of EFL learners is not enough. This low level vocabulary repertoire often results from limited exposure to the use of the target language outside of the classroom. It means that although EFL leaners need to learn an exceedingly large number of words, there is very limited amount of time for vocabulary instruction in the EFL context. So when they are reading English texts, a great deal of unfamiliar words prevent them from fully comprehending the information.

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THE ROLE OF VERBAL INTELLIGENCE IN L2 GRAMMAR LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

After Gardner's (1995) Multiple Intelligence theory, the literature was enriched with a variety of studies on the relationship between different types of multiple intelligences and various areas of language learning. This study aimed at investigating the role Verbal IQ can have in language learners' grammar learning.

To this end, 68 adult English learners were selected as the participants based on random sampling technique. These participants took a verbal IQ test which indicated their verbal IQ level. Based on the scores achieved, the participants were divided into low and high verbal IQ groups. Afterwards, they were provided with the structures of all three types of English conditional sentences, both inductively and deductively. Finally, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to see if there is any significant relationship between verbal intelligence and the ways learners learn grammar.

KEY WORDS: Verbal IQ, Deductive learning, Inductive learning.

1.   Introduction

Previous research has demonstrated the key role of multiple intelligences in higher education learning. It has also been proved that in learning a foreign language, all seven intelligences (as proposed by Gardner, 1983) should be taken into consideration. The existence of multiple intelligences determines how easy or difficult it is for a student to learn information when it is presented in a particular manner. This is commonly referred to as a learning style. Many learning styles can be found within one classroom. Therefore, it is impossible, as well as impractical, for a teacher to accommodate every lesson to all of the learning styles found within the classroom. Nevertheless, the teacher can show students how to use their more developed intelligences to assist in the understanding of a subject which normally employs their weaker intelligences. As a result, the important issue of individual differences in general, and specific intelligences in particular come into spotlight. Learning can be an easier experience for the learners with specific intelligences.

Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence is the ability to use language masterfully to express oneself rhetorically or poetically. In addition, it allows one to use language as a means to remember information. People who are strong in linguistic-verbal intelligence are able to use words well, both when writing and speaking. These individuals are typically very good at writing stories, memorizing information and reading.

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between L1 verbal intelligence and L2 grammatical learning abilities. It illustrated that how L1verbal intelligence influence L2 grammatical learning abilities. In the same line, the study offered evidence to show that students with good L1 verbal intelligence have better performance in producing accurate L2 sentences. The findings of this study lead to the selection of the most appropriate target method for teaching grammar based on individual differences. Besides it can provide insight to language learners on how to approach the target language learning based on their specific type of intelligence and their individual characteristics.

2.   Statement of the problem

The debate over whether multiple intelligences should be taken into consideration in EFL teaching/learning contexts or not has been a contentious issue for a long time. Multitudes of researchers have performed a lot of research most of which proved that there is a relationship between different types of intelligences and the learning or teaching experience. It has been a point of interest in the related literature to state that in learning a foreign language, all seven intelligences (as proposed by Gardner, 1983) should be taken into consideration. This standpoint had motivated many research studies to be conducted. However, while reviewing the

literature, a gap was observed with regard to the role verbal or linguistic intelligence plays in the process of L2 grammar learning. The problem highlighted was the inherent correlation between the verbal intelligence and language learning which was at times overlooked in the previous records of studies (Harmer, 2007).

In spite of the great body of research studies on the relationship between MI and aspects of learning language skills, there have been fewer reports in the literature to explore the relation between Verbal IQ and language learners' grammar learning. This study aimed at addressing this detected problem to find whether there is any relationship between EFL learners' Verbal IQs ,which is one of the individual factors, and language learners' grammar learning. The result can shed more light on how learners' grammar learning may be facilitated by considering the level of Verbal IQs.

3.   Objectives of the study

Based on the problem detected, the objectives of the present study were determined in two categories. Firstly, it aimed to determine the potential impact of verbal intelligence on L2 grammar abilities. This can be elaborated as examining the degree and extend of learning and using L2 grammar accurately by those EFL learners who enjoy from this specific type of intelligence. In other words, the first objective of the present study is to specify whether or not individuals with verbal intelligence can learn L2 grammar better and in a more accurate way. The second objective of the study is to understand if EFL learners with varying degrees of verbal intelligence have specific preferences for certain types of grammar teaching approaches. Put differently, it aimed to correlate certain methods of grammar teaching preferences to individuals possessing verbal intelligence at varying levels.

4.   Research questions and hypotheses

Based on the objectives of the study, the following research questions and the subsequent null hypotheses are posed:

1. Does verbal intelligence have any impacts on grammar learning abilities?
2. Do EFL learners with different verbal IQ levels have different preferences for various grammar teaching approaches?

H0-1 Verbal intelligence has no impacts on grammar learning abilities.

H0-2 Learners with different verbal IQ levels have different preferences for various grammar teaching approaches.

5.   Theoretical framework

Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligence theory based the underlying theoretical framework of this study. This theory has emerged from recent cognitive research and "documents the extent to which students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways," according to Gardner (1991).

According to this theory, "we are all able to know the world through language, logical-mathematical analysis, spatial representation, musical thinking, the use of the body to solve problems or to make things, an understanding of other individuals, and an understanding of ourselves. Where individuals differ is in the strength of these intelligences - the so-called profile of intelligences -and in the ways in which such intelligences are invoked and combined to carry out different tasks, solve diverse problems, and progress in various domains."

Gardner says that these differences "challenge an educational system that assumes that everyone can learn the same materials in the same way and that a uniform, universal measure suffices to test student learning. Indeed, as currently constituted, our educational system is heavily biased toward linguistic modes of instruction and assessment and, to a somewhat lesser degree, toward logical-quantitative modes as well." Gardner argues that "a contrasting set of assumptions is more likely to be educationally effective. Students learn in ways that are identifiably distinctive. The broad spectrum of students - and perhaps the society as a whole - would be better served if disciplines could be presented in a numbers of ways and learning could be assessed through a variety of means."

6.   Methodology

6.1 Participants

The participants of the study were comprised of 68 adult English learners selected based on random sampling technique among a population of one hundred participants. These participants, male and female,

ranged from 22 to 30 years of age. Besides, all of them had passed the same basic elementary courses and were at the pre-intermediate level at the time of the treatment. All the participants who took part in this study shared the same L1 and L2, Persian being their mother tongue and English being their target language. These participants took part in an IQ test as well as a grammar test (which tested the knowledge of conditional sentences) to make the researcher capable of determining any potential relationship between the IQ level and the suitable grammar method based on their individual differences concerning the verbal IQ.

6.2 Instruments

The first instrument used was Wechsler's Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS III) (1981), which was utilized to measure the participants' IQ level. The second instrument used in this study was a TOEFL grammar test. This test was administered before the treatment. The reason for the utilization of this test was to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. The third instrument employed in the current study was a quiz developed to test the participants' knowledge of English conditional sentences both before and after the treatment. This test served both as the pre-test and post-test of this study and the results obtained were used for final comparison to provide answers to the research questions.

6.3 Procedure

The TOEFL test was administered to the participants of the study prior to any treatment. The verbal IQ test was then administered in order to check the participants' verbal IQs. Based on the scores achieved, the participants were divided into low and high verbal IQ groups. A quiz on conditional sentences was later administered. The results obtained provided the required data for the pre-test of the study. Afterwards, the participants of the study were provided with the structures of all three types of English conditional sentences, both inductively and deductively. Finally, the same quiz on conditional structures was administered to the participants after the treatment, the result of which served as the post-test for the study. Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to see if there is any significant relationship between verbal intelligence and the ways learners learn grammar.

7.   Results and discussion

The first research question aimed at determining any potential impact of verbal intelligence on grammar learning abilities. In other words, the researcher tried to discover any potential relationship between verbal intelligence and the way language learners engage in grammar learning. Based on the first objective of this study, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to see if there is any significant relationship between the variables under investigation. Table 1 manifests the results of correlation data analysis.

Table 1. Correlations

		VIQ	TOEFL
VIQ	Pearson Correlation	1	.665**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	68	68
TOEFL	Pearson Correlation	.665**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be interpreted from the Table above, the Correlation Coefficient is determined at .655 between two variables of Verbal intelligence and L2 learners' abilities of learning the grammar of English. The results show that there is a significant and positive relationship between verbal intelligence scores and grammar scores. As a result, the first null hypothesis of the study which predicted no significant relationship between verbal intelligence and grammar learning is rejected. The results of this part are in line with the results of previous studies (Genesee, 1976; McLaughlin, 1990; Skehan, 1989; Gardner, 2006). In the work of Genesee (1976) the results suggested that a second language program whose goals are centered on learning the grammar of L2 should consider results of tests of linguistic intelligence. In addition, this study also appears to corroborate the findings of other studies. Skehan (1989) investigated the relationship between different types of intelligences and the way children learned the language. He found a significant correlation (as high

as 0.50) between these two sets of measures. This indicated that there is evidence of an innate aptitude (intelligence) for language learning.

Most of the researchers are unified on the relationship between higher intelligence and greater success with academic L2 language learning. Yet, the field of SLA is in need of much more extensive work in the area of intelligence and acquisition. Recent developments in related fields and a climate that is conducive to new inquiry make the situation promising.

The second objective of this study was to determine if different L2 language learners with different verbal intelligence levels have different preferences for various grammar teaching approaches. To this end, all the participants took part in an IQ test as well as a grammar test (which tested the knowledge of conditional sentences) to make the researcher capable of determining any potential relationship between the IQ level and the suitable grammar method based on their individual differences concerning the verbal IQ. Based on the results of this test, the participants of the study were divided into two groups of low and high verbal IQ groups (the criterion for this division was considering the participants' verbal IQ scores which fell one SD above and below the Mean). The main purpose for this division was to examine the correlation between verbal IQ and suitable type of grammar teaching which directly addresses the second research question of this study.

Table 2 demonstrates descriptive statistics for high vs. low verbal IQ participants based on inductive method of teaching grammar. The results indicate Means and Standard Deviations10.86 and 1.45 for the participants with high verbal IQ and 8.85 and 1.00 for the participants with low verbal IQ levels respectively.

Table 2. Group Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Inductive	High VIQ	47	10.8670	1.45200	.21180
	Low VIQ	21	8.8572	1.00482	.21927

Group 1: High VIQ Group
Group 2: Low VIQ Group

Having descriptive statistics available for the inductive approach, an independent sample t-test was run to see if there is any statistically significant difference between high VIQ and low VIQ participants' performance on the post-test. As demonstrated in Table 3, the results indicate that high VIQ group outperformed low VIQ group in the first post-test (Inductive). Simply put, this means that those participants with higher levels of VIQ tend to benefit more from inductive way of grammar teaching as compared to the participants with lower level of VIQ.

Table 3. Independent Samples Test

		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
Inductive	Equal variances assumed	.305	.582	5.747	66	.000	2.00983	.34974	1.31156	2.70810
	Equal variances not as-			6.593	54.212	.000	2.00983	.30485	1.39869	2.62097

sumed										

The same procedures were followed for the deductive approach of grammar teaching. Table 4 demonstrates descriptive statistics for participants with high and low VIQ levels concerning deductive method in teaching L2 grammar. As shown in Table 4, the Means and Standard Deviations for the high VIQ participants are 8.96 and .77 respectively, while 10.70 and .58 for the participants with low VIQ level respectively.

Table 4. Group Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Deductive	High VIQ	47	8.9628	.77491	.11303
	Low VIQ	21	10.7024	.58959	.12866

Having descriptive statistics available for the deductive approach, another independent samples t-test was run to see if there is any statistically significant difference between high VIQ and low VIQ participants' performance on the post-test. As demonstrated in Table 5, the results indicate that low VIQ group outperformed high VIQ group in the second post-test (deductive). Simply put, this means that those participants with higher levels of VIQ tend to benefit more from inductive way of grammar teaching as compared to the participants with lower level of VIQ. The results show that participants in the high VIQ group did better in the first post-test (Inductive) as compared to their second post-test (Deductive) while the participants in the low VIQ group gained better results in the second post-test (Deductive) as compared to their first post-test (Inductive).

Table 5. Independent Samples t-Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Deductive	Equal variances assumed	2.784	.100	-9.157	66	.000	-1.73961	.18998	-2.11892	-1.36031
	Equal variances not assumed			-10.158	49.871	.000	-1.73961	.17126	-2.08362	-1.39561

8.   Conclusions

The first research question of the study sought the impact that verbal intelligence may have on learners' grammar teaching ability. The results obtained from Pearson Correlation Coefficient indicated that there is a significant and positive relationship (r=.655) between verbal intelligence scores and grammar scores. Based on such finding, the first research hypothesis was thus rejected.

The second research question of this study sought if different language learners with different verbal intelligence levels have different preferences for various grammar teaching approaches. Results indicated that individuals who have higher degree of VIQ prefer inductive grammar teaching. Further, results demonstrated that low VIQ group outperformed high VIQ group in the second post-test (deductive). It was also found that the participants in the high VIQ group did better in the first post-test (Inductive) as compared to their second

post-test (Deductive) while the participants in the low VIQ group gained better results in the second post-test (Deductive) as compared to their first post-test (Inductive).

9. Pedagogical Implications

The present study has some useful implications for classroom instruction. Based on the results of the present study, it can be concluded that no single method of teaching grammar can suit all types of learners. Since grammar is shown to be differentially related to different types of intelligence, and since human beings enjoy different levels of the various types of intelligence, the logical conclusion to be drawn is that learners will experience differential success no matter how they are taught grammar. This may be construed as a call for some sort of eclecticism in our instructional method (Heydari, and Panahandeh,, 2013). Based on this study it is hoped that teachers become more aware of the differences among students, so that they can take into account these differences and the materials should be taught in different ways. If these conditions are fulfilled, the students have more opportunities to learn and to understand the materials being taught. If they do not comprehend the material in one way, they might comprehend it in another way, thus their achievement is likely to improve.

The findings of the present study seem to imply that teachers need to take into account the type of intelligence characterizing individual learners in grouping them and in assigning each group of learners to a different type of treatment. It is in fact the teachers' responsibility to consider the role of multiple intelligences when they want to teach a certain grammatical pint during English classrooms and to create more opportunities for students with different degrees of multiple intelligence to adapt themselves well during teaching as they may need additional support and the highest quality of instruction and materials at their instructional level. For instance, multiple programs such as appropriate materials, extra classes and remedial lessons might be necessary to be provided for some learners (Javanmard, 2012).

The findings can also have implications for materials developers and syllabus designers to guide them to make more informed decisions in designing language courses in general and grammar curses in particular courses for people with particular types of verbal intelligence.

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L2 LITERACY PROFICIENCY AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE

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ABSTRACT
Language learning strategies are the leading lights of the language learning process and play an important role in successful language performance. To become proficient, learners should know how to learn on their own. The present study aims at determining whether the use of language learning strategies is related to L2 literacy proficiency among Iranian female learners. Moreover, it was to find whether this relationship could be modified by the use of language learning strategies in light of proficiency level. To this end, 64 advanced learners from Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Shiraz participated in a correlational study. Learners completed a Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1989) to give information about their language learning strategies use preferences. On the other hand, to compare literacy proficiency levels, the reading and writing sections of a sample TOEFL (2001) test was administered. Descriptive statistics, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, and independent- samples *t*-tests were applied to analyze the data. The results of the study revealed that there is a meaningful relationship between overall literacy proficiency and language learning strategy use among Iranian EFL female learners. The findings also showed that the more proficient the learners, the more they employed language learning strategies. Higher proficient learners also used language learning strategies to learn the language more effectively.

KEYWORDS: Language proficiency, Learning strategy, Literacy proficiency.

1. Introduction
Learning strategies are very important because they form the basis for knowledge development. Foreign language learning which entails both knowledge accumulation and skill development is an endeavor that shows the importance of learning strategies quite clearly. Therefore, getting to know how to exploit learning strategies in the course of learning a foreign language is a task that is most critical; it is a kind of interaction between the learner and the language which implies a degree of knowledge of the world and target language.   Learners often encounter problems in learning a foreign language and understanding its meanings. In fact, there are many factors that affect efficacy in learning a language in a foreign country of which one of the most important ones is lack of using appropriate learning strategies. In general, research on language learning strategies started in the 1970s. In general, research on language learning strategies started in the 1970s; however, empirical investigations on learning strategies use and its relationship to successful and unsuccessful second language learners have been carried out only recently (Pazhakh, 2006; Zare-ee, 2009; Takallou, 2011). Research studies in second language contexts have demonstrated that strategy use is different in more and less proficient learn-

ers; that is, more proficient learners use different types of strategies in different ways than less proficient learners. From another point of view, it is found that using learning strategies facilitates learning and helps learners become more proficient and autonomous learners (e.g., Park, 1997; Shmais, 2003; Khalil, 2005; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007).

The problem of how to develop L2 literacy proficiency is one of the main concerns for learners of English as a foreign language and English teachers in Iran since literacy proficiency is the major activity in the public language education. In addition, it is an unquestionable fact that literacy proficiency plays a vital and prominent role in the language especially in a foreign country. Language learners have to learn language learning strategies in order to improve their literacy proficiency and language learning which is really important in our time. Unfortunately, studies investigating learning strategies used by language learners or the effect of applying such strategies have been rare in spite of the fact that EFL learners have to heavily rely on their ability to learn English in a foreign language.

To fulfill the purpose of this study, which was to determine whether the use of language learning strategies is related to L2 literacy proficiency among Iranian language learners, the following questions were raised:

1.   Is there any significant relationship between language learning strategies use and literacy proficiency of Iranian EFL learners?

   2. Does proficiency level modify such a relationship?

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The need for learning a new language, especially English which is employed by many speakers in the world today is an indispensable part of every person`s life. Thus English learners whose native language is not English must learn it to find some techniques that could be utilized to simplify the process of language learning. A large number of language learners in a country like Iran suffer from poor English language proficiency, perhaps due to a variety of reasons open to regular and preferably collective research studies. Learners' difficulties in learning and using English as a foreign language might be due to a number of reasons. In public education, learners at schools have some English courses which are not effective enough. Many students, unfortunately, merely rely on English courses offered at English classes and do not try to develop the ability to communicate effectively in English as a foreign language in their language learning. In particular, they do not get the opportunity to develop and improve their English learning skills and strategies. Therefore, most of them are unfamiliar with the employment of English learning strategies that potentially enhance their proficiency. That might be the reason why researchers have observed that Iranian EFL learners, in spite of having a certain level of English proficiency, experience problems in applying effective learning strategies to learn the language more effectively. Thus research on strategies used by Iranian EFL learners seems to help us better figure out how they deal with their English learning and how they could better manage their practical use of the language.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The results of this study may help educators gain more understanding about the present curricula and materials and whether they assist learners to have more control over their own learning and to become better language learners. Above all, it may provide teachers with ideas for rethinking the curricula and instruction with an eye toward enhancing students' learning skills. Some teacher professionals believe that a better understanding of the use of strategies enable them to develop materials which suit the needs of their learners. A carefully designed Language learning strategies instruction program can enhance the performance of the learner and help promote learner autonomy (Yang, 1994).

2. Literature Review

The literature abounds in various definitions of Language Learning Strategies. Language learning strategies (LLS) are defined as "the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal" (Chamot, 2004). Through repeated use, these strategies become automatic. However, learners, if required, can call them to conscious awareness (Chamot, 2005). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define learning strategies as special ways in information processing that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of information. Research on the use of learning strategies (see e.g., Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Harris, 2003; Park, 1997; Wharton, 2000) suggests that language learners, whether consciously or unconsciously, utilize a variety of learning strategies. Successful language learners, however, employ more effective and diverse language learning strategies than less successful learners. Chamot (2004, p.14) stated that

strategic language learners possess "metacognitive knowledge about their own thinking and learning approaches, a good understanding of what a task entails, and the ability to orchestrate the strategies that best meet both the task demands and their own strengths." Accordingly, in order to help second language learners in general and less successful learners in particular, researchers have recommended integrating strategy training into language curricula (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Tyacke, 1991). Interest in LLSs emerged from studies that attempted to investigate the behavior and qualities of a good and successful language learner, with a view to teaching these qualities to less successful learners in order to make them more effective second language learners (Chamot et al., 1999; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Harris, 2003).

Research into LLSs started with the identification and description of learning strategies used by language learners (see e.g., Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987; Stern, 1975). Later, research explored the correlation between these strategies and other learner variables such as proficiency, gender, motivation, self-efficacy, self-rating, cultural background, and the like (see e.g., El-Dib, 2004; Green & Oxford, 1995; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Khalil, 2005; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Nisbet, Tindel & Arroyo, 2005; Shmais, 2003). More recently, research investigated how other variables such as the task itself and the target language affect the selection and use of learning strategies (Chamot & Keatley, 2004). Although researchers have proposed different classifications and conceptualizations of language learning strategies (see e.g., O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001), Oxford (1990) developed the most comprehensive, detailed and systematic taxonomy of strategies to date. Contrary to O'Malley & Chamot (1990) who divided LLSs into three categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective, Oxford (1990) classified them into six groups: memory, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Based on this broad classification, Oxford (1990) designed a strategy assessment survey, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to collect information about learners' use of language learning strategies. The fact that numerous studies established a significant relationship between strategies and language proficiency as measured in a variety of ways (grades, TOEFL scores, self-ratings, etc.) gives the instrument a high validity according to Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995).

The researches on learning strategies had two major goals: (1) identify and compare the learning strategies used by more and less successful language learners, and (2) provide instruction to less successful learners that help them become more successful in their language study (Chamot, 2001, pp. 25-26).

Much of the previous research in the field of language learning strategies has provided inconclusive or even contradictory results. The pioneering studies by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975) and Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, (1978) concentrated on investigating what it is that good language learners do that makes them successful, while other researchers such as Porte (1988), Sinclair-Bell (1995) and Vann and Abraham (1990) approached the issue from the point of view of the unsuccessful learner. Although these studies have provided some interesting insights, the picture which emerges is far from unified.

One of the earliest researchers in this area, Rubin (1975), defining strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p.43) concluded that successful language learners had a strong desire to communicate, were willing to guess when unsure, and were not afraid of being wrong or appearing foolish. This did not mean that they did not care about correctness, however: good language learners also paid attention to form and meaning in their language. In addition, good language learners practice and monitor their own language and the language of those around them. Rubin noted that the employment of these strategies depended on a number of variables such as target language proficiency, age, situation and cultural differences.

In another pioneering piece of research, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, (1978) also tried to find out what people known to be good at languages had in common. Identified as "essential for successful language learning" (p.225) were strategies for coming to grips with the language as a system, for using the language in real communication, for monitoring the interlanguage, for coming to terms with the affective demands of language learning and for coping with ambiguity. In spite of identifying these behaviors as typical of good language learners, Naiman *et al.* (1978, p.224) caution: "The study as a whole suggests that *the* successful or good language learner, with predetermined overall characteristics does not exist. There are many individual ways of learning a language successfully".

Takeuchi (2003), in an attempt to ascertain the specific strategies preferred by Japanese good language learners through learners' biographies, identified that good language learners had paid much attention to the use of metacognitive strategies and some strategies seemed to be closely connected to a certain stage of learning. On the contrary, Politzer and MacGroarty (1985), found that good language learners' language proficiency did not relate to categories of strategy use as a whole, but, that there were certain individual strategy items

which showed significant association with their proficiency measures. Also some research have revealed that both successful and less successful learners had used a larger number of strategies more frequently while less successful learners were deficient in selecting and orchestrating strategies appropriate to the task at hand (Vann & Abraham, 1990).

Another study by Abu Radwan (2009), investigated the use of language learning strategies by 128 students majoring in English at Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in Oman. Using Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL), the study seeks to extend knowledge by examining the relationship between the use of language learning strategies (LLS) and English proficiency, measured using a three-way criteria: students' grade point average (GPA) in English courses, study duration in the English Department, and students' perceived self-rating. Results of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the students used metacognitive strategies significantly more than any other category of strategies, with memory strategies ranking last on students' preference scale. Moreover, ANOVA results revealed that more proficient students used more cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies than less proficient students. To find out which type of strategy predicted learners' L2 proficiency, a backward stepwise logistic regression analysis was performed on students' data, revealing that use of cognitive strategies was the only predictor that distinguished between students with high GPAs and those with low GPAs. The study suggested that the EFL cultural setting may be a factor that determines the type of strategies preferred by learners.

Pazhakh (2006) attempted to determine whether there is any relationship between language learning strategies employed by language learners, and if so what relationship exists between them. Furthermore, the researcher tried to investigate what effective and useful strategies the learners employ while learning English as a foreign language correspondent with their proficiency levels. A simulated TOEFL test was initially administered to classify the learners into three classes of proficiency levels. Oxford's (1989) Strategy Inventory, SILL, was used to determine the frequency of the language learning strategies applied by learners. This study showed that there is a direct and strong relationship between the learner's proficiency level and their application of the learning strategies. That is, the more proficient the learners are, the greater strategies they apply and vice versa.

In an investigation into the effect of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on the reduction of test anxiety among guidance school girls (Shokrpour, N., Zarei, E., Zahedi, S., & Rafatbakhsh, M., 2011), for example, concluded that training on cognitive and metacognitive strategies reduces test anxiety and improves educational performance. Data were collected from among 84 randomly selected students of guidance schools, employing an anxiety questionnaire and the students' GPA in the first and second terms. The participants were divided into experimental and control groups. The students in the experimental group were trained on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies summary writing, taking responsibilities, supervision, control, assessment, review, etc. The findings proved the positive effect of such training on the reduction of test anxiety and the learners' improvement of educational performance.

Takallou (2011) attempted to examine the effect of metacognitive (planning & self-monitoring) strategy instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance (on authentic and inauthentic texts) and their metacognitive awareness. To this end, two tests (TOEFL and a reading comprehension test) and a Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were administered to 93 male and female EFL learners. Data analysis revealed that the two experimental groups which received instruction on 'planning' and 'self-monitoring' outperformed the control group in the reading comprehension test. Moreover, text type played an important role in the participants' reading comprehension. They performed better on authentic texts. In addition, the results showed that the experimental groups' awareness of metacognitive strategies significantly increased after instruction.

Zare-ee (2009) examined the relationships between the use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies on the one hand and EFL reading achievement, on the other hand. Data were collected from 30 randomly selected EFL learners studying English Language and Literature at Kashan University, Iran. Results indicated that the correlation between reading achievement and metacognitive strategies was 0.39 and it was significant at the 0.05 level. However, the correlation between cognitive strategies and reading achievement was 0.128 and insignificant, showing only a slight trend. The results obtained from conducting Pearson product moment correlations showed that the correlation between meta-cognitive strategies and cognitive strategies was .630 which was significant at the 0.01 level of probability. The results of MANOVA also showed that students at higher levels of reading ability use meta-cognitive strategies more often that less successful readers. The findings of the study suggest that the use of meta-cognitive strategies can account for variation in EFL read-

ing achievement and needs to be promoted by EFL teachers. It was also found that gender did not have a determining role in the use of either cognitive or meta-cognitive strategies in this study.

Carol Griffiths (2003), in an attempt to find the relationship between language learning strategy use and proficiency, carried out a research in three stages in a private language school in Auckland, New Zealand. Part A, Section 1 used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) as the basic instrument to investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and proficiency and to examine the strategy patterns used by more proficient students. Part A, Section 2 used the same data to investigate language learning strategy use according to learner variables (nationality, gender, age). Part B used interviews to investigate language learning strategy use by individuals and Part C used a classroom based program to explore means of instructing students in language learning strategy use and also to construct an original questionnaire using student input (the English Language Learning Strategy Inventory or ELLSI). This questionnaire was used to further investigate the relationship between language learning strategy use and proficiency and also changes in strategy use overtime as well as teachers' perspectives on language learning strategy use.

The results of the SILL phase of the study revealed a significant relationship between language learning strategies and proficiency (a finding supported by the results of the ELLSI study) and also significant differences in strategy use according to nationality, while the interviews revealed some useful insights regarding the use of language learning strategies by individuals. From the longitudinal section of the study it was found that those students who made the most progress were the ones who most increased the frequency of their language learning strategy use.

According to O'Malley *et al*. (1985) language learning strategies have the potential to be "an extremely powerful learning tool". However, as a result of their study they concluded that many students used language learning strategies "inefficiently" (p.43).

Proficiency is the goal of second language teaching in a second language, and this has been stated in terms of objectives or standards as is argued by Stern (1997). Stern considers the conceptualization and description of proficiency an important phase in second language learning. To (Bowen, D. J., Madsen., H. & Hilfery, A., 1985), proficiency is a general ability or readiness special for a certain program which is determined via a placement test. But to McLaughlin (1987), proficiency is the marks a student obtains on an examination planned to assess.

Literacy proficiency is defined as the ability to read and write in a language. The inability to read or write is known as illiteracy. In recent years, several different approaches to the study of literacy have developed in education and applied linguistics, including a linguistic approach which focuses on oral-written language relationships, language variation, and genres; a cognitive approach which focuses on perception and reading, writing and comprehension processes; and a sociocultural perspective which treats literacy as social practice and deals with issues such as socialization into literacy, the sociocultural context of literacy, and the authority of written discourse (Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R., 2002). Whatever the definition is, literature shows that a simple classification of proficiency has been offered (Stern, 1992) as the four skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing, especially for curriculum design and testing since the sixties. Yet, today several classes of proficiency levels have been presented by various researchers (Vossoughi & Javaherian, 2000; Brown, 2001) other than specified on the four skills.

Stern offers five language proficiency levels: (1) elementary proficiency; (2) limited working proficiency; (3) minimum professional proficiency; (4) full professional proficiency; and (5) native or bilingual proficiency. He also stated that language proficiency of different groups of second language learners ranges from zero to native-like proficiency. The initial stage is not usually zero since the second language learners speak one language at least, i.e., their mother tongue. On the opposite, total competence is rarely achieved by second language learners, and it is assumed among theorists and teachers wasteful to try to reach such a level.

Vossoughi and Javaherian (2000) presented the guidelines established by ACTFL (American Council on Teaching Foreign Language) about the levels of proficiency. The proficiency guidelines have described four proficiency levels of language learners as: novice, intermediate, advanced, and superior. These guidelines are applied to investigate the degree of general proficiency set up for communication tasks to rate the proficiency level of language learners.

Brown (2001) stated that nowadays nobody defines learners' proficiency levels with the terms, beginning, intermediate, or advanced. The definition of these terms differs among language teachers. Brown argues that at the American Language Institute of San Francisco University, beginning means levels at which learners already know just a small number of English words, approximately 200, and can use a few common survival

phrases. Yet, in other institutes they are labeled as false beginners on the opposite of true beginners. On the other hand, advanced level is not like the ESL writing courses presented for credit in the same English departments of university. In brief, what is beginning for some may not be the same for others.

Having experimentally worked on the learning strategies and language proficiency, researchers have explored a tangible relationship between them (Rubin, 1975; Cummins & Swain, 1983; Chastain, 1988; Cook, 1991; Ellis, 1994). Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, & Todesco, (1978) claimed that successful second language learners think in L2 and make use of affective language learning strategies. In line with this, Rubin (1975) offered the following strategies of proficient L2 learners: (a) they are willing to make accurate guesses; (b) they would like to communicate; (c) they are ready to make wild guesses (d) they focus on both structure and meaning; (e) they benefit from all practice opportunities; and (f) they monitor their own speech and the speech of others.

With regard to the relationship between L2 literacy proficiency, Salahshour, Sharifi, and Salahshour, (2013) attempted to explore the relationship between choice of learning strategies and frequency of their use and level of proficiency in English. The results revealed that Iranian high school learners employed learning strategies with medium frequency; meta-cognitive strategies were the most frequent while cognitive strategies were the least frequent. Results indicate that high proficiency learners reported higher mean scores in all of the six strategy categories than low proficiency learners.

To be more precise, learners with higher proficiency levels used all types of strategies more frequently than those with lower levels of proficiency. The most preferred strategy types for high proficiency level learners were meta-cognitive strategies (M=3.53) and social strategies (M=3.27) respectively, while for learners with lower proficiency levels cognitive strategies (M=2.80) and compensation strategies (M=2.80) were most preferred strategy types. Also, the least preferred category for high proficiency group was affective category (M=2.75), and for low proficiency subjects was meta-cognitive category (M=2.42). Results of the *t*-test showed a statistically significant difference in overall strategy use between high proficiency and low proficiency groups of learners ($p<.046$). It is further revealed that the difference is significant for two strategy categories: meta-cognitive strategies ($p<.002$) and social strategies ($p<.025$). These two strategy types were employed significantly more by high proficiency group than the low proficiency group.

Investigating the relationship between strategy use of Korean university students and language proficiency, Park (1997) found a significant relationship between SILL learning strategies and English proficiency as measured by students' TOEFL scores. Additionally, the study showed that cognitive and social strategies were more predictive of TOEFL scores than other strategies.

Furthermore, Ganjooei and Rahimi's study (2008) investigated whether language learning strategy use can predict the proficiency level of the learners and the other way round. Two hundred (200) Iranian undergraduate EFL learners arranged in two groups participated in this study. The first group of 100 learners was selected from Shiraz Virtual University who were exposed to an e-learning program, and the second one was a 100-learner group going through a traditional course studying at Shiraz University. This study was also conducted with Oxford's SILL. Their finding indicated that the type of education system has no contribution to language learning strategy use. No significant differences were observed with respect to the frequency with which the learners use each strategy type. It was also revealed that the effective use of strategies and the way learners usually go about learning is highly influenced by their level of proficiency in both groups. Finally, it was found that the use of learning strategies is predictable by learners' level of proficiency and the other way round.

As can be seen in the literature, there seems to be dearth of research on the relationship between language learning strategies use and literacy proficiency among Iranian EFL learners. Such being the case, the present study tried to fill in the gap by dealing with the issue.

3. Methodology
3.1 Participants
The study was carried out at the Iran Language Institute, Shiraz. A total of 64 Iranian female language learners enrolled at advanced-level classes ranging in age from 18 to 22 took part in the study. All of the participants had experienced formal instruction in English for a period of 7 years during their public education, and they had different educational backgrounds.

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was used in order to measure and classify the literacy proficiency level of the participants into high and low levels, the reading and writing sections of a paper and pencil version extracted from the Longman complete course (2001) for the TOEFL was administered. The first section included 5 reading passages and 50 multiple-choice questions; each passage was followed by 10 questions. The second section which was on writing required the participants to write an essay about their attitudes towards the idea expressed in a statement and also to support their attitudes with enough reasons.

3.2.2 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Questionnaire (SILL)

To determine the type of strategies used by language learners in general and to categorize strategy types in light of student's proficiency levels in particular, the Oxford's (1989) Version 7.0 of the SILL designed to elicit information from EFL/ESL learners. Due to the high level of reliability that this survey instrument enjoys, it has been used widely in more than 50 studies, assessing the frequency of strategy use by students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The SILL uses a five-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 ("Never or almost never true of me") to 5 ("Always or almost always true of me") (See the appendices for details of the questionnaire). The questionnaire items are 50 statements about strategies likely to be used by language learners covering six broad categories of strategies including memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensatory strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies, each represented by a number of items.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

Observing the Iran Language Institute (ILI) schedule and regulations, two classes of advanced-level with 70 students were taken as intact groups to participate in the study. During the tests, 3-5 students from both classes were repeatedly absent due to some personal reasons. Thus, scores from those who did not sit both tests were not included in the data analysis procedure which was done based on 64 students' performance on the tests.

The TOEFL test and the SILL questionnaire were administered during separate sessions. For the TOEFL test, the participants were required to answer the questions in 85 minutes, 55 minutes of which was allocated to the reading section and 30 minutes for the writing section. The overall TOEFL scores were basically used to distinguish participants' literacy proficiency level. Writing and reading scores were also used to determine the participants' level of proficiency in this regard.

3.4 Data Analysis

Percentages and frequency counts were used to give a description of the data from the questionnaire regarding the language learning strategies self-reported by learners at different levels of proficiency.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to check for any meaningful relationships between literacy proficiency and strategy use in general and such relationships for proficiency groups within the sample participants in particular.

In addition, independent-samples *t*-tests were run to double-check the proficiency difference between the two proficiency groups on the one hand, and difference in patterns of strategy use by the same groups, on the other.

4. Results

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between language learning strategies use and literacy proficiency among Iranian EFL learners?

To address this question, the results of the TOEFL reading and writing tests were analyzed. Students' responses to the tests were evaluated on the basis of frequencies in strategy use, thus; a correlation analysis was done. The results are reported in the following table.

Table 1. Correlation between Reading/Writing Proficiency and Strategy Use

		Writing Scores	Reading Scores
Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation	.741**	.717**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000

N	64	64	

As Table 1 shows, there is a significant relationship between the variables of interest. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a meaningful relationship between writing proficiency and language learning strategy use (correlation coefficient=.741) on the one hand and between reading proficiency and language learning strategy use (correlation coefficient=.717), on the other.

In order to gain more evidence for rejecting the null hypotheses with greater confidence, another analysis of correlation between language learning strategy use and the overall literacy proficiency was done.

Table 2. Correlation between Overall Literacy Proficiency and Strategy Use

		Literacy Proficiency	Strategy Use
Literacy Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1	.741**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	64	64
Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation	.741**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	64	64

Table 2 represents the results of the second correlation analysis. As the findings show, there is a significant relationship (correlation coefficient=.741) between language learning strategy use and overall literacy proficiency.

Q2: Does proficiency level modify such a relationship?

Following the objectives of the study, the second question of the study delved into the role proficiency level plays in the relationship between literacy proficiency and learning strategy use which was addressed in the first research question; that is, whether such a relationship is modified by literacy proficiency level.

As mentioned before, the participants were 64 advanced language learners. These participants took a TOEFL test so that it was made possible to distinguish two proficiency levels. Based on the results of the TOEFL test, participants were divided into high and low proficiency levels in the way elaborated below.

Table 3 . Descriptive Statistics of Literacy Proficiency

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficiency	64	27.00	70.00	51.9531	10.07028

As Table 3 shows, the mean score for the whole group was 51.95. The scores higher than the mean score were considered as high and the ones lower than mean were categorized as low. Accordingly, 35 participants were considered as high-proficient and 29 as low-proficient learners. To make sure that the two groups were really different in terms of literacy proficiency, an independent sample t-test was used. The pertaining results are presented below.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for High and Low Proficiency Groups on Literacy Proficiency

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Literacy Proficiency	High	35	59.6286	4.67840	.79079
	Low	29	42.6897	6.25131	1.16084

As Table 4 shows, the high proficiency group (mean= 59.62) outperformed the low proficiency group (mean=42.68) in terms of the literacy proficiency.

Table 5. T-test Results for the High- and Low-Proficient Groups on Literacy Proficiency

	Levene's Test Equality of Variances	fort-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Literacy Proficiency	Equal variances assumed	3.377	.071	12.388	62	.000	16.93892	1.36735
	Equal variances not assumed			12.060	50.977	.000	16.93892	1.40460

As Table 5 shows, it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the high and low proficiency groups regarding literacy proficiency. That is, the two groups were really different in terms of literacy proficiency.

To check the relationships between literacy proficiency and strategy use for proficiency groups, separate analyses of correlation between the variables for proficiency groups were done. The results are given below.

Table 6. Correlation between Literacy Proficiency and Strategy Use for the High Proficiency Group

		Literacy Proficiency	Strategy Use
Literacy Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1	.754**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	35	35
Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation	.754**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	35	35

Based on the information presented in Table 6, it can be inferred that there is a significant relationship between literacy proficiency and language learning strategy use for the high-proficient group. To investigate such a relationship for the low-proficient group and to make a comparison between the two proficiency groups possible, another correlation analysis was run. The results presented in Table 7 show that no significant relationship (r =. 296) between literacy proficiency and learning strategy use could be found for the low-proficient group.

Table 7 . Correlation between Literacy Proficiency and Strategy Use for Low Proficiency Group

		Literacy Proficiency	Strategy Use
Literacy Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1	.296
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.119
	N	29	29
Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation	.296	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.119	
	N	29	29

To double-check the difference between the two proficiency groups regarding language learning strategy use, an independent-samples *t*-test was run. The results of the analysis are given in the following tables.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for High and Low Proficiency Groups on Strategy Use

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Strategy Use	High	35	176.4000	22.96314	3.88148
	Low	29	141.4483	21.34510	3.96369

Table 9. T-test Results for the High- and Low-Proficient Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	fort-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	t	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differ-ence	Std. Error Dif-ference
Strategy Use	Equal variances assumed	.135	.715	6.257	62	.000	34.95172	5.58635
	Equal variances not assumed			6.300	61.145	.000	34.95172	5.54767

Based on the results presented in Tables 8 and 9, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the high and low proficiency groups regarding self-reported language learning strategy use.

5. Discussion
5.1. Research Question 1
Is there any significant relationship between language learning strategies use and literacy proficiency among Iranian EFL learners?

In order to find the relationship between self-reported language learning strategies use and literacy proficiency, a language learning strategy questionnaire was administrated to the participants and the data were analyzed by using literacy proficiency scores of the participants gained with a TOEFL sub-test (see Table 1). Findings indicated that the more proficient the learners, the more they used language learning strategies. It means that there is a significant relationship between literacy proficiency and language learning strategy use as determined with participants self-reports. Apparently, learners employ such strategies as mental routines or procedures for achieving learning goals, understanding a language in this case. Results also revealed that these learners also tended to use strategies to achieve more success in their learning.

The findings are in line with previous research findings as regards strategy use and proficiency levels (Watanabe, 1990; Chang, 1991; Green, 1991; Phillips, 1991; Mullins, 1992; Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Cohen, 1998; Chamot et al., 1999; Riding, 2005). According to Ehrman and Oxford (1990), it has been found in many studies that more proficient language learners use a "wider range of LLSs than do less proficient learners" (p.312). Numerous studies have already reported a significant relationship between students' proficiency levels and their strategy use (Oxford, 1996).

Generally speaking, language learning strategies are mental and communicative processes learners deploy to learn a second or a foreign language. Language learning strategies which learners consciously choose are the activities they have chosen for the purpose of regulating their own learning, and it helps them to learn the language better and become more enthusiastic in the language learning. These strategies raise students' awareness of the language being learned and let them learn more successfully.

5.2. Research Question 2
Does proficiency level modify the relationship between language learning strategy use and literacy proficiency?

As mentioned before, the participants in this study were 64 EFL advanced learners. These participants were divided into two proficiency levels on the basis of their performance in a TOEFL sub-test. The findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between literacy proficiency and learning strategy use for the high-proficient group but such a relationship could not be found for the low-proficient group. It denotes that learners who were more proficient in English as a foreign language, applied more learning strategies than learners who were less proficient. As Oxford and Nyikos (1989, p.295) remark "language proficiency can be either the effect or cause of strategy use." They further hold that "use of appropriate strategies leads to enhanced actual and perceived proficiency, which in turn creates high self-esteem, which leads to strong motivation, spiraling to still more use of strategies, great actual and perceived proficiency, high self-esteem, improved motivation, and so on" (p.296).

Proficient learners similarly pay more attention to specific strategies so as to increase their understanding of the language. Proficient learners demonstrate both accuracy and fluency, and use a variety of learning strategies. They meaningfully apply learning strategies in the course of learning a language.

Although proficiency levels can be determined with different measures, such as standardized tests, teachers' grading and students' self-rating, the results all lead to the same conclusion: more highly proficient learners tend to be more conscious of their mental processes of learning and use a greater variety of more appropriate

strategies with learning tasks (O'Malley & Chamot, Kupper, Russo & Stewner-Manzanares, 1985a; Gu, 1996; Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown, 1999). Learners work on these strategies to make learning understandable. According to MacIntyre (1994), either proficiency influences the choice of strategies or strategy choice is simply a sign of proficiency level. In line with MacIntyre's view, Green and Oxford (1995) claim that active use of strategies helps learners attain higher proficiency, which, in turn, makes it more likely that proficient learners ma active use of strategies. Briefly stated, more proficient learners significantly utilize these strategies, to discover the delicacies of the language they are learning and use them in order to become more proficient in the language. Accordingly, strategies fortify learners' learning and help them acquire more of the language.

6. Conclusion

It is evident that strategy use has become an important part of proficient language learners. It is also needed to further stress that EFL high-proficient learners use language learning strategies more and more efficiently than low proficient learners. In EFL contexts, strategy use provides rich and abundant opportunities which are required to develop students' overall language proficiency. From a practical point of view, strategy use is just what EFL students need mostly both in their learning a language and in their future career. The present study was an attempt to assess the relationship between L2 literacy proficiency and language learning strategies use. The analysis of findings of the study demonstrated a strong and meaningful relationship between self-reported language learning strategies use and literacy proficiency among Iranian EFL learners.

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IN-CLASS DOUBLE-STUDENT PEER REVIEW PRIOR TO SUBMISSION:
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ABSTRACT
Whether the course instructs EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language) students or is a Composition 1, Composition 2, or Business Writing course, the ultimate goal is to improve the writing and communicative abilities of those receiving instruction (Goldenberg, 2008). However, many studies have demonstrated that even professionals have insufficient writing aptitudes (Quible & Griffin, 2007). The purpose of this study is to measure the pros and cons of the peer review learning strategy when implemented as an in-class double-student strategy prior to student submission of their work in order to demonstrate the significant benefit potential that can be realized from consistent use. There are a multitude of beneficial attributes associated with peer review that are overlooked since peer review is often underused in professional and educational settings. Through mixed qualitative and quantitative research methods, this study will demonstrate the improvement achieved using in-class double-student peer review as a learning strategy to improve student writing. Over the course of three years, this study encompasses 480 students that attended a total of 24 Freshman Composition 1, Freshman Composition 2, or Business Writing classes that I have taught. The overall results of the study support the position of this author, which is that the majority of the students that were participants of the in-class double-student peer reviews indicated that they felt stronger in their English abilities and were able to write clearer, had better comprehension when reading, and it became easier to identify their peer's writing errors as the course progressed.

KEYWORDS: peer review, Folder method, peer assessment, student review, student writing, elf/esl, learning strategy, peer feedback

Introduction
The intention of this study is to examine factors that affect student achievement and provide information to the field of education about the benefits of including peer review as part of the tools included with successful implementation of change initiatives to improve student writing (Moore & Teather, 2013). Throughout this literature, the term "peer review" will be defined a structured process in which peers review the products of each other's professional or educational processes with the intent of helping to improve such products (Brill & Hodges, 2011). The percentage of students struggling with their writing or linguistic skills in elementary school contributes to the number of future "at-risk" students that will potentially drop out of high school (Ball, 2010).

As educators, it is the responsibility of the teacher to implement an educational change initiative that will close the learning gap for underperforming students. Increased student achievement requires teachers with meticulous pedagogical skills and high self-efficacy to influence the learning environment (Goldenberg, 2008). Since children often learn and develop social habits in accordance with the actions and norms of their peers, a great method to help children learn is by allowing scaffolding to occur through the process of peer review (Campbell, Combs, Kovar, Napper-Owen, & Worrell, 2009). Although previously considered as a negative by educators, this examination of the in-class double-student peer review process intends to demonstrate the numerous benefits to students and teachers that can be realized through the consistent, integrative use of peer-review methods.

Research Question

As an educator, I work diligently in my writing classes to help my students gain confidence in their use of English throughout the semesters by having students provide feedback on their peers' papers using two response methods. The student reviewing the paper is instructed to provide comments using annotations on their peers' papers, as well as oral feedback through discussion. Since integrating this two-fold peer review method, I have noticed that students are able to better edit their own papers much more carefully and correctly. This observation has inspired the development of the primary research question for this study, which is: Should students conduct in class peer-reviews twice before submitting their final essay? It is the contention of this author that peer review provides numerous benefits for students, with the most positive element being the development of self-efficacy and confidence in their writing or communicative abilities. The confidence is gained through the development of beliefs in their own abilities

This research will examine the pros and cons of using peer review methods, such as the in-class double-student peer review process and the Folder method, to assist students in improving their literacy skills. Since literacy includes reading, writing, and comprehension, these three elements will be discussed in the

Literature **Review** to provide the supportive detail regarding improvement of written communication. This section will also discuss the impact of the teacher and the learning environment on the educational outcomes of the student. The next section will detail the

Theoretical **Framework Supporting Peer Review**

The peer review learning strategy is considered as an educational method among the highest cognitive areas of Bloom et al.'s taxonomy of the cognitive domains , as illustrated in

Figure *1: Revised Hierarchical Structure of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain*, as cited by Huitt and adapted from Wilson, where the highlighted level of '*Evaluate*' represents the cognitive level required to perform peer review.

Figure 1: Revised Hierarchical Structure of Bloom *et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive* Domain
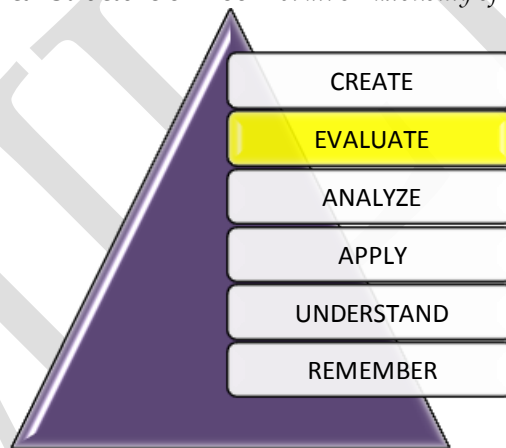
This hierarchical structure is better conceptualized in the definitive explanation detailed in

Table 1: Revision of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain with Knowledge Dimensions below, as cited by Huitt and adapted from Anderson et al. , where the highlighted cells under the 'Evaluate' heading represents the degree of cognitive skills necessary for students to perform peer reviews.

Table 1: Revision of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain with Knowledge **Dimensions**

		COGNITIVE PROCESS DIMENSION					
KNOWLEDGE DIMENSION		**Remember**	**Understand**	**Apply**	**Analyze**	**Evaluate**	**Create**
Factual Knowledge	Terminology Elements & Components	Label map List names	Interpret paragraph Summarize book	Use math algorithm	Categorize words	Critique article	Create short story
Concep-	Categories	Define	Describe	Write	Differenti-	Critique	Create

tual Knowledge	Principles Theories	levels of cognitive taxonomy	taxonomy in own words	objectives using taxonomy	ate levels of cognitive taxonomy	written objectives	new classification system
Procedural Knowledge	Specific Skills & Techniques Criteria for Use	List steps in problem solving	Paraphrase problem solving process in own words	Use problem solving process for assigned task	Compare convergent and divergent techniques	Critique appropriateness of techniques used in case analysis	Develop original approach to problem solving
Meta-Cognitive Knowledge	General Knowledge Self Knowledge	List elements of personal learning style	Describe implications of learning style	Develop study skills appropriate to learning style	Compare elements of dimensions in learning style	Critique appropriateness of particular learning style theory to own learning	Create an original learning style theory

As the table illustrates, critical thinking skills are essential to any student's ability to review their peers' work.

The strong impact of the preliminary use of peer review learning strategies has entrenched these methods into educational routines as deeply as the traditional lecture, write, and correct routines. To stay current with the syllabus, many teachers employ lecture-type methods of instruction that can account for an average of 50% of lesson time and causes disinterest among students. Research has demonstrated that approximately 53% of junior secondary EFL/ESL students indicated that they find it difficult to understand subjects taught in English and more than 40% of EFL/ESL students indicated that they are only able to comprehend less than 60% of the lessons taught in English. The lack of available educators that are proficient bilingual speakers of the native and/or target language and can successfully engage students to help them maintain their native tongue while learning the additional language impedes the ability of the student to progress at the same pace as their native-speaking peers . In such settings, students that are slower learners typically loose motivation and resort to disruptive classroom behavior.

Impact of the Instructor on Peer Review Outcomes
The application of the social cognitive theory revealed that student achievement is influenced by the perceived self-efficacy of the teacher. Social cognitive theory was developed by Albert Bandura and posits that the social environment influences the development of behavior, as well as learning and this theory was extended to emphasize the role of self-efficacy as a key structure for examining psychological procedures, which directly impacts the strength of individual self-efficacy. The teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy create classroom environments that can strengthen or weaken the students' own sense of efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy is rooted in social cognitive theory because the level of belief in one's own abilities empowers the individual to produce the desired effects, making it both the incentive and inhibitor.

The phonological competence of the instructor is also a key contributing factor in literacy acquisition. Successful literacy acquisition is contingent on the educator's ability to adequately instill phonological awareness skills in addition to a strong understanding of language structure. Pragmatic linguistic knowledge means that the individual is aware of the overall intent of communication and how language can be used to accomplish that objective. Peer review can help reinforce this pragmatic understanding by representing how written language can be used to articulate purpose. The elocution and linguistic variations assumed are also substantiation of the improvement of the development of registers and pragmatic linguistic knowledge.

How Peer Review Helps Language Development

The social setting also plays a significant role in student development of linguistic diversity, especially for EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language) students. The presence of concrete referents that contribute to symbol formation and conceptual development also has a primary role in the acquisition of linguistic knowledge of the target language. The primary determinant is based on the individual that is modeling the target language and their linguistic development. Despite the continual support for a standard lexical definition of the English language, the consistently shifting dynamics of modern society makes demand that such an establishment would, by default, also have to constantly be changing to remain accurate.

Mastery of proper grammar and diction is vital in any method of communication, particularly in written messages. The purpose of proper grammar is to assist in precise communication absent the physical presence of the sender, so written documents must be precise in order to assist in conveying an accurate version of the author's perceptions, thoughts, and position regarding the topic of the document. Although the subject of English is consistently taught throughout the average student's academic career, the importance of it is never adequately stressed as a lifelong tool for communication. Additionally, some teachers have worse grammar than the students they are supposed to be teaching, resulting in a conundrum of confusion for the student that they carry with them throughout their academic career.

Effectual Methods of Peer Review

Like any learning strategy, the efficacy of the peer review method is contingent upon the manner and consistency in which the instructor implements the activities. As a prelude to each engagement, the instructor should be precise in discussing with students the benefits to the person in the role of peer reviewer and the individual whose work is being reviewed. Further research identifies the importance of helping students recognize their peers as effective reviewers capable of providing useful feedback that can help the author improve the quality of the paper if incorporated. This emphasizes the importance of clearly delineating the parameters that distinguish what constitutes as 'useful feedback' and implement accountability guidelines that reward students that genuinely attempt to provide relevant feedback.

In situations where web-based peer review tools are used, it must be understood by the facilitator that such methods differ from traditional face-to-face writing instructional contexts, but they also allow students to envisage their thoughts to assist in the problem solving aspect of writing, which can be complicated. Interactively designed assignments embolden students to provide high quality written feedback, which increases their motivation and responsibility for learning. When students are supported as they construct texts via web-based reciprocal peer review, they are able to experience the processes of scaffolding, modelling, reflection, articulation, coaching, and exploration. These six processes help students externalize and visualize their inner writing progressions so that they are able to observe and learn from as well as support peers in writing and making text revisions.

Design assignments to align assignment criteria, peer review criteria, and instructional goals. Ideally, instructional goals span multiple courses and expectations for student performance are consistently aligned and developed throughout those educational experiences. Make your expectations explicit and explain the criteria for a writing assignment to students by using rubrics as a means of defining assignment criteria to students. Descriptions of what constitutes different levels of performance deepens student understanding of the intent of criteria and helps them to provide better feedback to peers while they gain a better understanding of the learning goals.

'Folder' Method of Peer Review

As demonstrated in previous research, the use of a manila or other type of folder will allow each student to take ownership of his/her prior and recent writing mistakes, serve as a portfolio, and provide some relief for the writing teacher in a real scholastic setting over a period of time. In this peer review method, the flaps of the folder contain lists that are used to track the student's assignments, strengths, weaknesses, and writing ideas. This methodology assesses the reactions and progress of the student in order to determine the efficacy of the 'Folder' methodology as a means of improving the writing of both English-speaking and ESL/EFL students taking collegiate writing courses . This method is similar to the in-class double-student peer review method employed in this study in that both amalgamate the results of multiple peer reviews has acquired the necessary linguistic and academic skills for post-secondary education. The primary goal of this 'Folder' methodology is to help to track progress.

Research Methods used to accumulate the data presented in the
Results and **Discussion** section of this paper.   The
Results and **Discussion** will review and analyze the findings gathered from the implementation of the in-class double-student peer review method and the Conclusion will summarize the research and detail observed

Literature Review

The pressure to perform academically has always been a significant source of stress for students. Parental pressure to excel and gain admission into the best schools can be extreme. Additional research has determined that the academic test scores of some students can be used as predictors of their overall degree of life satisfaction (Wei, Brok, & Zhou, 2009). The scholastic environment is intended to act as a cushion and protect the students' psychological well-being as they develop. Research has indicated that a teacher's effect on their students is often the result of the students' psychological responses to the teacher's behavior (Sadker & Zittleman, 2009; Samson & Collins, 2012).

This makes the use of student perceptions both valuable and necessary when evaluating the learning environment and in scrutinizing its effect on learning outcomes. The scholastic or learning environment includes factors, such as the level of supportive services available through school forums and the classroom context, which includes any language barriers that may exist, as these elements are also directly related to scholastic achievement in writing, as well as other learning areas (Sadker & Zittleman, 2009). The numerous studies conducted on the effect of the classroom environment, support of the educator, the student's sense of belonging within their academic surroundings, academic achievement, and peer interactions on the self-perception and moods of the students has revealed that these factors have a direct influence on learning and classroom behavior (Hertzog, 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Samson & Collins, 2012; Wei, Brok, & Zhou, 2009). This enables the use of peer review to significantly contribute to the educational experience of students by providing a unique instructional method that will enhance retention of the material (Boase-Jelinek, Parker, & Herrington, 2013).

Impressions of the Pros & Cons of Peer Review

As previously iterated, it is the contention of this researcher that peer review provides a multitude of benefits to both the student and the teacher. Although the purpose of this research is to demonstrate the truth of this position, the purpose of this portion of the Literature Review is to effectively represent both sides of the argument so that inaccurate beliefs represented in popular literature can successfully be debunked. The most commonly stated cons will be discussed first followed by the justifications supporting the pros associated with peer review.

Cons of Peer Review

Researchers and critics perceive peer review as a process of the "blind leading the blind" since it involves inexperienced editors coaching novice writers (Liu & Chai, 2009). Furthermore, research has illuminated the tendency of some students to avoid providing any direct negative feedback due disparities in cultural norms and as an alternative offer positive or mitigated remarks for their peers (Wang, 2009). An additional tendency noted by some researchers is for the power structures created through these writing groups to encourage communal inaccuracies in groupthink situations that reinforce conformity rather than negotiate new meaning (Brammer & Rees, 2007). Although students value peer review, they often give poor advice to peers they wish to please or impress and, in classrooms that have a mixture of EFL/ESL and native speaking students, peer review is typically most useful to those most proficient in the target language (Kao, 2013; Lan, 2009). In such circumstances, the students that are inexperienced or non-native speakers tended to make minimal or surfactant suggestions, while experienced writers make meaningful revisions suggestions to improve others' essay quality (Wang, 2009). In these instances, students have expressed displeasure with peer review because their peers do not catch all their mistakes and they interpret the process as a waste of time (Brammer & Rees, 2007).

Educators have expressed displeasure with the peer review process because they state that students' papers remain of poor quality because the writer did not stay on task and the reviewer did not correct the error during the peer review process (Brammer & Rees, 2007). Initially, the peer review method was exclusively used in educational settings that emphasized decentralizing the role of educator, which placed the technique as a cutting edge, progressive methodology (Brammer & Rees, 2007). However, instructors often indicate a con-

flict in aims that tends to emerge when forming peer review collaborative groups, such that socializing becomes the focus of the interaction above academic improvement (Brammer & Rees, 2007). Furthermore, many educators are concerned with how much their students can actually learn through the peer review process (Timmerman & Strickland, 2008). Finally, even when students developed high levels of confidence in the peer review process over time, they remained skeptical regarding the fairness and consistency of the peer review process (Kaufman & Schunn, 2011).

Pros of Peer Review
Peer review is not a new pedagogical technique and theorists endorse the use of instructional methods that encourage active participation in the learning process, use of complex problem solving skills, engaging experiential approaches, the inclusion of group activities, and innovative inclusion of current technology (Barst, Brooks, Cempellin, & Kleinjan, 2011). Research has determined that such use promotes student communication and collaboration, active problem solving, critical thinking, decision-making, and a concept called digital citizenship, which describes a positive attitude toward using technologies that strengthens collaboration (Brill & Hodges, 2011). Using peer review benefits both teachers and students because it allows instructors to integrate more writing assignments without increasing their personal workload, which provides students with more opportunities to practice their writing skills (Poschl, 2012). In this manner, peer review helps improve student content knowledge through writing and strengthens their reasoning skills (Timmerman & Strickland, 2008). Furthermore, research asserts that effective peer review frameworks use a strong collaboration component as a strategy for determining timely tiers of supports to help students gain academic proficiency (Brill & Hodges, 2011). Among other benefits, students reported that peer review improved their general content knowledge, their scientific writing skills, as well as directly impacting the assignment at hand, and their critical thinking skills (Timmerman & Strickland, 2008).

Theoretical Framework Supporting Peer Review
The peer review learning strategy is considered as an educational method among the highest cognitive areas of Bloom et al.'s taxonomy of the cognitive domains (Brill & Hodges, 2011), as illustrated in
Figure *1: Revised Hierarchical Structure of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain*, as cited by Huitt (2011) and adapted from Wilson (2006), where the highlighted level of '*Evaluate*' represents the cognitive level required to perform peer review.

Figure 1: Revised Hierarchical Structure of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain
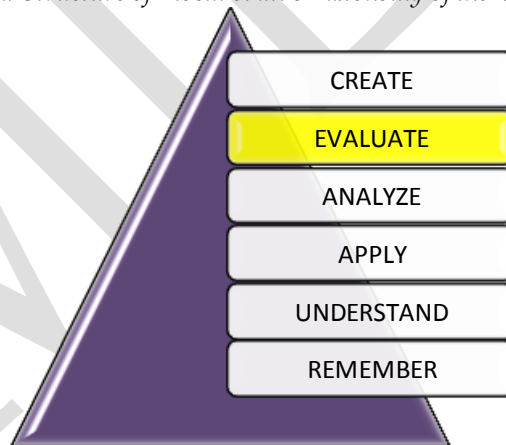
This hierarchical structure is better conceptualized in the definitive explanation detailed in
Table 1: Revision of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain with Knowledge **Dimensions** below, as cited by Huitt (2011) and adapted from Anderson et al. (2001), where the highlighted cells under the 'Evaluate' heading represents the degree of cognitive skills necessary for students to perform peer reviews.

Table 1: Revision of Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain with Knowledge Dimensions

		COGNITIVE PROCESS DIMENSION					
KNOWLEDGE		**Remem-**	**Under-**	**Apply**	**Analyze**	**Evaluate**	**Create**

DIMENSION		ber	stand				
Factual Knowledge	Terminology Elements & Components	Label map List names	Interpret paragraph Summarize book	Use math algorithm	Categorize words	Critique article	Create short story
Conceptual Knowledge	Categories Principles Theories	Define levels of cognitive taxonomy	Describe taxonomy in own words	Write objectives using taxonomy	Differentiate levels of cognitive taxonomy	Critique written objectives	Create new classification system
Procedural Knowledge	Specific Skills & Techniques Criteria for Use	List steps in problem solving	Paraphrase problem solving process in own words	Use problem solving process for assigned task	Compare convergent and divergent techniques	Critique appropriateness of techniques used in case analysis	Develop original approach to problem solving
Meta-Cognitive Knowledge	General Knowledge Self Knowledge	List elements of personal learning style	Describe implications of learning style	Develop study skills appropriate to learning style	Compare elements of dimensions in learning style	Critique appropriateness of particular learning style theory to own learning	Create an original learning style theory

As the table illustrates, critical thinking skills are essential to any student's ability to review their peers' work (Huitt, 2011; Wilson, 2006).

The strong impact of the preliminary use of peer review learning strategies has entrenched these methods into educational routines as deeply as the traditional lecture, write, and correct routines (Brammer & Rees, 2007). To stay current with the syllabus, many teachers employ lecture-type methods of instruction that can account for an average of 50% of lesson time and causes disinterest among students (Goldenberg, 2008). Research has demonstrated that approximately 53% of junior secondary EFL/ESL students indicated that they find it difficult to understand subjects taught in English (Liu & Chai, 2009) and more than 40% of EFL/ESL students indicated that they are only able to comprehend less than 60% of the lessons taught in English (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The lack of available educators that are proficient bilingual speakers of the native and/or target language and can successfully engage students to help them maintain their native tongue while learning the additional language impedes the ability of the student to progress at the same pace as their native-speaking peers (Ball, 2010). In such settings, students that are slower learners typically loose motivation and resort to disruptive classroom behavior.

Impact of the Instructor on Peer Review Outcomes
The application of the social cognitive theory revealed that student achievement is influenced by the perceived self-efficacy of the teacher (Hertzog, 2011). Social cognitive theory was developed by Albert Bandura and posits that the social environment influences the development of behavior, as well as learning and this theory was extended to emphasize the role of self-efficacy as a key structure for examining psychological procedures, which directly impacts the strength of individual self-efficacy (Decker, Decker, Freeman, & Knopf, 2009). The teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy create classroom environments that can strengthen or weaken the students' own sense of efficacy (Sadker & Zittleman, 2009). Perceived self-efficacy is rooted in social cognitive theory because the level of belief in one's own abilities empowers the individual to produce the desired effects, making it both the incentive and inhibitor.

The phonological competence of the instructor is also a key contributing factor in literacy acquisition (Crim, et al., 2008). Successful literacy acquisition is contingent on the educator's ability to adequately instill pho-

nological awareness skills in addition to a strong understanding of language structure (Crim, et al., 2008). Pragmatic linguistic knowledge means that the individual is aware of the overall intent of communication and how language can be used to accomplish that objective (Brill & Hodges, 2011). Peer review can help reinforce this pragmatic understanding by representing how written language can be used to articulate purpose (Trautmann, 2009). The elocution and linguistic variations assumed are also substantiation of the improvement of the development of registers and pragmatic linguistic knowledge (Otto, 2010).

How Peer Review Helps Language Development

The social setting also plays a significant role in student development of linguistic diversity, especially for EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language) students. The presence of concrete referents that contribute to symbol formation and conceptual development also has a primary role in the acquisition of linguistic knowledge of the target language (Ma, 2012). The primary determinant is based on the individual that is modeling the target language and their linguistic development (Hertzog, 2011). Despite the continual support for a standard lexical definition of the English language, the consistently shifting dynamics of modern society makes demand that such an establishment would, by default, also have to constantly be changing to remain accurate.

Mastery of proper grammar and diction is vital in any method of communication, particularly in written messages. The purpose of proper grammar is to assist in precise communication absent the physical presence of the sender, so written documents must be precise in order to assist in conveying an accurate version of the author's perceptions, thoughts, and position regarding the topic of the document (Crim, et al., 2008). Although the subject of English is consistently taught throughout the average student's academic career, the importance of it is never adequately stressed as a lifelong tool for communication. Additionally, some teachers have worse grammar than the students they are supposed to be teaching, resulting in a conundrum of confusion for the student that they carry with them throughout their academic career.

Effectual Methods of Peer Review

Like any learning strategy, the efficacy of the peer review method is contingent upon the manner and consistency in which the instructor implements the activities. As a prelude to each engagement, the instructor should be precise in discussing with students the benefits to the person in the role of peer reviewer and the individual whose work is being reviewed (Lawson, 2011). Further research identifies the importance of helping students recognize their peers as effective reviewers capable of providing useful feedback that can help the author improve the quality of the paper if incorporated (Hartberg, Gunersel, Simspon, & Balester, 2008). This emphasizes the importance of clearly delineating the parameters that distinguish what constitutes as 'useful feedback' and implement accountability guidelines that reward students that genuinely attempt to provide relevant feedback (Timmerman & Strickland, 2008).

In situations where web-based peer review tools are used, it must be understood by the facilitator that such methods differ from traditional face-to-face writing instructional contexts, but they also allow students to envisage their thoughts to assist in the problem solving aspect of writing, which can be complicated (Yang, 2011). Interactively designed assignments embolden students to provide high quality written feedback, which increases their motivation and responsibility for learning (Trautmann, 2009). When students are supported as they construct texts via web-based reciprocal peer review, they are able to experience the processes of scaffolding, modelling, reflection, articulation, coaching, and exploration (Likkel, 2012). These six processes help students externalize and visualize their inner writing progressions so that they are able to observe and learn from as well as support peers in writing and making text revisions (Yang, 2011).

Design assignments to align assignment criteria, peer review criteria, and instructional goals. Ideally, instructional goals span multiple courses and expectations for student performance are consistently aligned and developed throughout those educational experiences (Boase-Jelinek, Parker, & Herrington, 2013). Make your expectations explicit and explain the criteria for a writing assignment to students by using rubrics as a means of defining assignment criteria to students. Descriptions of what constitutes different levels of performance deepens student understanding of the intent of criteria and helps them to provide better feedback to peers while they gain a better understanding of the learning goals (Timmerman & Strickland, 2008).

'Folder' Method of Peer Review

As demonstrated in previous research, the use of a manila or other type of folder will allow each student to take ownership of his/her prior and recent writing mistakes, serve as a portfolio, and provide some relief for

the writing teacher in a real scholastic setting over a period of time (Goodwin, 2012). In this peer review method, the flaps of the folder contain lists that are used to track the student's assignments, strengths, weaknesses, and writing ideas. This methodology assesses the reactions and progress of the student in order to determine the efficacy of the 'Folder' methodology as a means of improving the writing of both English-speaking and ESL/EFL students taking collegiate writing courses (Goodwin, 2012). This method is similar to the in-class double-student peer review method employed in this study in that both amalgamate the results of multiple peer reviews has acquired the necessary linguistic and academic skills for post-secondary education. The primary goal of this 'Folder' methodology is to help to track progress.

Research Methods
The research design elucidates the strategy used to integrate the various facets of the research project in a coherent and cohesive manner (Flick, 2011). For this research, the mixed method design was selected to help determine the efficacy and impressions held regarding the use of peer review to improve student writing. In this research, there are elements that quantitative or qualitative methods alone cannot provide answers to, which is why a collaboration of these methods was applied to the study conducted. Mixed method research is one of the three paradigms where quantitative and qualitative research approaches, techniques, and analysis are amalgamated in one study (Graziano & Raulin, 2009). According to Creswell (2009), the mixed method approach provides a better understanding of the research problem. Furthermore, the mixed method approach is used because it enables the researcher to examine the opinions, attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs of the research subjects through statistical quantification of the collected data.

Qualitative Research Strategy
Qualitative research consists of several procedures based on of various systemic questions relative to the selected topic designed to assist the researcher in gaining an in-depth understanding about the particular issue (Graziano & Raulin, 2009). According to theorists, qualitative research is not bound by adherence to pre-specified methods or a static hypothesis (Willis, 2008). Examining the use of qualitative research designs such as interviews, case studies, ethnographies, and historical research has shown that these methods explore essential interactions and are typified by a research paradigm that develops as the researchers understanding of the material progresses (Patton, 2008).

The benefits of the qualitative research process has encouraged the implementation of this method in the context of this study to enlist engaging data objectively while depicting detailed participant perspectives so that this research introduces a comprehensive understanding of their impressions (Babbie, 2007). Adapting the qualitative methodology present the greatest measure of clarity for the statistical analyses representing the data collected. This qualitative approach will examine existing research and literature to formulate a conceptual theoretical framework in which the research will be formatted.

Quantitative Research Strategy
A correlational non-experimental observational design is appropriate for this study because variables occur naturally and relationships among two or more phenomena can be explored. Quantitative research methodology is a systematic process using techniques to gather measurable data to develop new information about phenomena and investigate possible relationships. Quantitative research methodology uses deductive approaches following a linear path, which emphasizes explicit standardized procedures to measure variables and test hypotheses to form plausible relationships. The quantitative methodology was more suited for this study because correlational research examines and quantifies the relationship between variables using a numerical index. According to Creswell (2012) reviewing existing instruments for data collection allows researchers to select a current version that meets good validity and reliability scores. Descriptive statistical analysis will be calculated from the demographic information to describe trends and or make comparisons among the respondents.

Research Design
The use of the in-class double-student peer review process is a methodology constructed as an extension of the 'Folder' Method previously pioneered in classroom settings (Goodwin, 2012). I applied this methodology in the Freshman Composition 1 and Freshman Composition 2, as well as with Business Writing classes I taught over a three year period. I had approximately 20 students per class teaching four classes per semester, which amounts to 24 classes, and 480 students. This constituted my sample population.

In this variation of the peer review stratagem, each student gave me their assignment at the beginning of the class. I randomly distributed the assignment to the class so that no student got their own paper. Each student was instructed to write his/her name in the top left-hand corner of their peer's paper so I would know who reviewed the paper. The class was then allowed to spend time reading and writing comments/annotations on their peer's paper with the directive to point out errors, suggest better ways of writing a sentence, give suggestions for flow enhancements, and propose corrections according to any current material discussed in class, (such as syntax, alliteration, tenses, topic clarity, or other relevant suggestions). When the peer-reviewing session was complete, the peer reviewer returned the paper to its author so the student could review the remarks on the paper and discuss any comments with the peer reviewer that lacked clarity. If further elucidation is necessary, the teacher is called into the discussion so both the peer reviewer and author learn from the experience. During the peer-review sessions, I walked around the classroom facilitating the exercise and reading over shoulders to place my comments on the author's paper during the peer-review session when I saw errors. The conference that the students have following the review process lasts about ten minutes to confirm the errors, see if the author agrees or disagrees with the peer-reviewers comments, and ensure comprehension of the results of the review. If the students do not agree, then, I am called to listen, to review and to teach.

Student Survey
At the end of each course every semester, I asked my students to complete and return a simple three question survey designed to gauge their impressions to determine the students' perception of the benefits they have realized from the peer review methods used. The questions asked are organized in
Table **2: Survey Questions**, presented below.

Table 2: Survey Questions

Survey Questions
1)   Do you like peer reviewing? Why or why not?
2)   Did peer reviewing improve your English ability in writing? If yes, why; if no, why not?
3)   Do you feel stronger in your writing abilities? If yes, why; if no, why not?

In total, 480 surveys were returned, although all three questions were not always fully answered. Negative and biased terminologies are excluded from the questionnaire to avoid misinterpretations or biased results (Babbie, 2007). The compiled results are recorded in Table 3: Results of Survey located in the

Research **Methods** section.

Ethical Considerations
Research ethics necessitate respect for those indirectly or directly involved in the research. The current research has complied with all relevant codes of ethics during the course of the secondary and primary investigation (Graziano & Raulin, 2009). The respondents in the primary investigation were truthfully acquainted with the purpose, nature, and mode of execution of the study, as well as how the findings would be processed and reported. Informed consent of the participants was granted. The welfare and interest of all the directly or implicitly associated respondents and the establishment were taken into consideration. Furthermore, participant privacy was respected and subjective data interpretations were avoided to maintain the integrity of the participant/researcher relationship (Flick, 2011). The collection, treatment and disclosure of the accumulated data or information was performed according to all relevant statutes, with careful consideration given to research ethical implications with regard to the economic, political, communal, and psychological consequences of this work.

Results and Discussion
This section will first present the results of the surveyed students regarding their impressions of their learning experience using the in-class double-student peer review process in my Freshman Composition 1, Freshman Composition 2, and Business Writing classes. The results will be presented in the form of tables and graphs to illustrate the research findings. Following the presentation of the results, a discussion of the

determinations that can be drawn from these results will ensue. The discussion will also categorically de-bunk each con associated with peer review that was presented in the
Cons of Peer **Review** section of the

Literature **Review** using accepted parallel research to support the validity of the findings.

Results of In-Class Double-Student Peer Review

The summative results of the student surveys collected are presented in Table 3: Results of Survey, which illustrates the aggregate responses for each question asked in the questionnaire and a compilation of the most common responses received from the students.

Table 3: Results of Survey

Question	# of Students	Responses
Do you like peer reviewing? Why or why not?	360	**Response 1)** Stated yes, as they could show the author of the paper their mistakes and most of the time, they knew why the mistakes were made.
	100	**Response 2)** Stated no, as they did not believe that it helped them in any way
	20	**Response 3)** Did not answer the question completely.
Did peer reviewing improve your English ability in writing? If yes, why; if no, why not?	377	**Response 1)** Stated that they knew that it improved their English ability, as their papers received fewer error marks from the professor and they made high grades.
	89	**Response 2)** Stated that they did not believe that it improved their English writing abilities as they continued to make low grades and some stated they did not write much on their peer's papers.
	14	**Response 3)** Did not answer the question completely.
Do you feel stronger in your writing abilities? If yes, why; if no, why not?	386	Stated they felt stronger in their English abilities as they were able to write better, had improved comprehension, and their peer's writing errors much easier to identify than in the past.
	83	**Response 2)** Stated that they were weak and maybe improved in some areas but still did not feel stronger in writing.
	11	**Response 3)** Did not answer the question completely.

The individual results for each question in the survey are illustrated in Figures 2-4 and each response is represented according to the number for the respective question. The graphical illustration for the first question is presented in Figure 2: Results for Survey Question 1 presented below, where the section marked 'Response 1' correlates to the appropriate response in Table 3: Results of Survey for the answer to each question on every graph.

Figure 2: Results for Survey Question 1

Do you like peer reviewing? Why or why not?
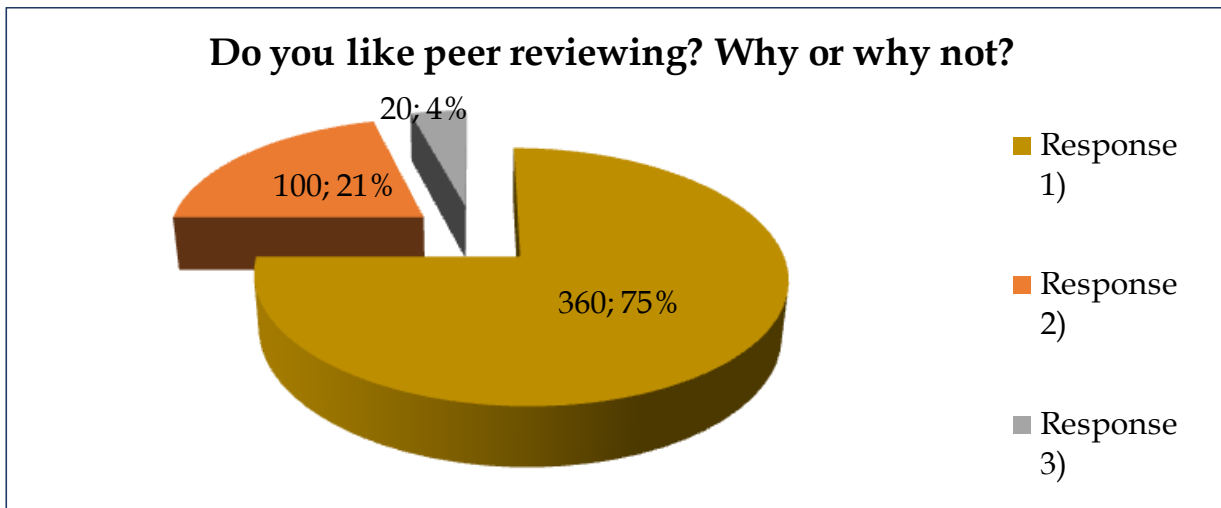
The graphical illustration for the second question is presented in Figure 3: Results for Survey Question 2 presented below.

Figure 3: Results for Survey Question 2

Did peer reviewing improve your English ability in writing? If yes, why; if no, why not?
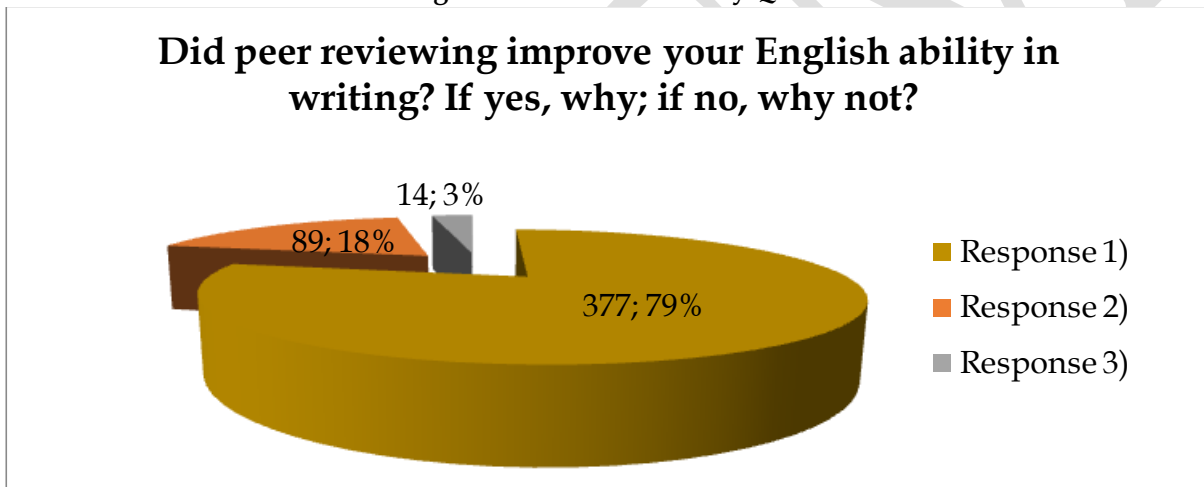
Figure 4: Results for Survey Question 3

Do you feel stronger in your writing abilities? If yes, why; if no, why not?
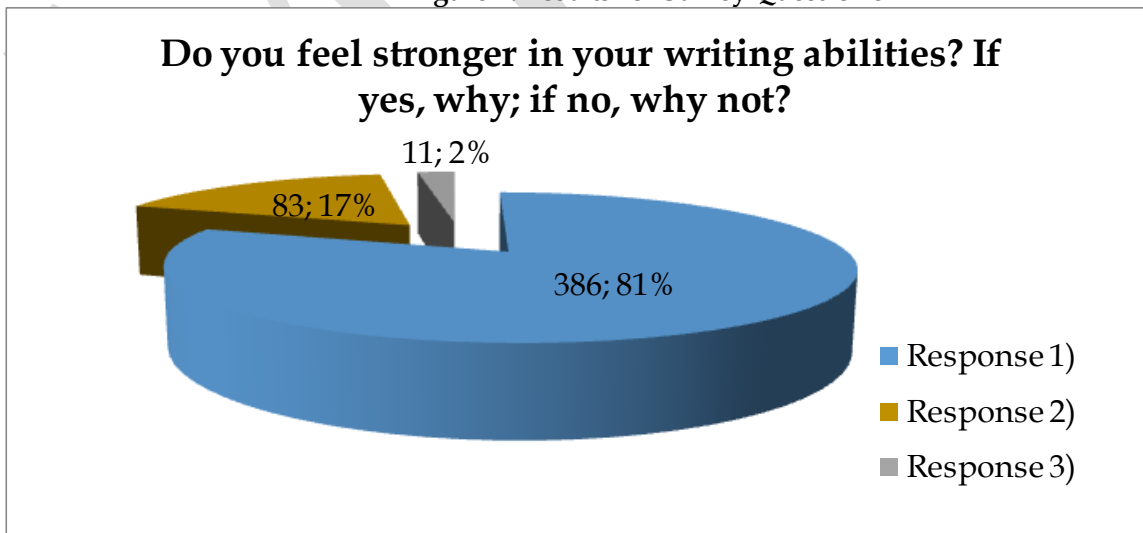
These aggregate results are analyzed in detail below in the discussion of results.

Discussion of Results

In direct response to the several cons illuminated in the part of the

Literature **Review** discusses the

Cons of Peer **Review**, this section will directly relate how the research, supported by current literature, debunks each negative claim regarding the efficacy of peer review as a learning strategy. The first perception mentioned stated that the inexperience of the students detracted from the ability of students to learn from the activity, but the student observations presented from the first research question showed that 75% of students stated that they felt they had learned from the experience. Although 21% were in agreement with the common rebuff that peer review was a waste of time and they did not benefit from the exercise, the majority of respondents related that they realized strong improvements in comprehension of the types of errors they were encountering and indicated that they were often able to locate errors and suggest corrections (Lundstrom & Baker, 2008).

The second question helps debunk the contention that students did not provide relevant feedback since 79% of the respondents indicated that they felt their writing abilities had grown stronger. However, 18% of the students answering this second question supported the critique that students did not comment sufficiently on their peers' papers, even though the overwhelming majority responded in support of the author's position and stated that their papers were evidently improved in that there were fewer errors, which resulted in better grades. This minority of 18% also stated that they continued to receive low grades on their writing assignments, but they also indicated that they did not typically make many corrections on their peers' papers, suggesting poor outcomes due to lack of participation (Poschl, 2012).

The final research question presents evidence to debunk the contentions regarding that peer review does not improve the abilities of EFL/ESL students completely since 81% of the respondents indicated that they felt stronger in their English abilities, were able to write better, had improved comprehension, and their peer's writing errors much easier to identify than in the past while an additional 17% stated that, although they were weak, they had improved in some areas, but still did not feel stronger in writing.

It is the belief of this author that these results do challenge the negative theories surrounding the merits of peer review. The results have shown that, while not all students know the answers and do miss errors; peer-reviewing is still beneficial even in these instances. In all instances where the students fully participate by providing relevant comments, everybody learns from the exercise, even the students that write very well. This methodology shows students exactly what is correct and not correct in writing genres, grammar, sentence structure, and flow of ideas even though the peer reviewer is not required to correct the errors, but point them out and the teacher can support the learning with feedback, as well.

Realized Benefits of Peer Review

Several immediate benefits of peer review are that students are able to identify their peers' errors prior to grading; they are able to recognize these same mistakes when they make them and improve their own writing; and it reinforces the rules associated with the mistakes their peers make (Bowman-Perrott, et al., 2013; Odom, Glenn, Sanner, & Cannella, 2009). However, one commonly stressed drawback of the peer review method is that students often indicate their peer reviewer did a poor job, which typically occurs when the reviewer is less advanced than their peer or is at the bottom of the grading scale due to lack of initiative (Lavy & Yadin, 2010). Despite the benefits mentioned, some possible problems encountered include:

- The student who reviewed the paper is weak or
- The student who reviewed the paper did not read the paper carefully.

Noting these two possible problems is why I have the peer-reviewers write their names in the top left-hand corner of the paper so that, if the paper is lacking good review, I can confront the peer reviewer privately to learn why. Additionally, two peer reviewers are used in this method because it is unlikely that the student will get two reviewers that do not review the paper well.

Linguistic, social, emotional, and cognitive development have been established as complimentary processes that work in concert Semantic development describes the technical aspect of knowledge acquisition and comprehension (Otto, 2010). Semantic knowledge deals with the relationships between words, objects, and the conceptual connection between the two, including how interrelated objects can be grouped together according to their similarities (Otto, 2010). Development of these aspects allows each person to form syntactic

and morphemic understandings of word construction (Otto, 2010). Construction of these language dimensions facilitates the ability to analyze, gauge, and create new words while progressing to further stages of literacy and spelling while they develop the knowledge that even when pronunciation changes, the spelling often stays constant (Anderson, et al., 2001; Crim, et al., 2008).

It has been established that language learning is especially successful when the objective language is used to facilitate an understanding of the language overall and for the purpose of enhancing their reading or listening skills. To achieve this end, EFL/ESL educators encourage their students to participate vocally in language classrooms and produce intelligible feedback. Such involvement can help students establish a foundation that will enable them to accurately communicate what they want to say and can be the determining factor in whether they are able to say it. Furthermore, student "participation in verbal interaction offers language learners the opportunity to follow up on new words and structures to which they have been ex-posed during language lessons and to practice them in context" (Tong, 2010, p. 240). These factors can provide students with the motivation to learn and improve their conversational skills and behavioral patterns.

Reviews concerning the efficacy of pairing EFL students in groups to encourage oral participation found that when second language learners worked in groups, their motivation increased, they took more initiative, and experienced lower levels of anxiety regarding their learning (Lan, 2009; Wei, Brok, & Zhou, 2009). Overall, production can encourage learners to analyze input grammatically, with accuracy also increased by the negative feedback that verbal hypothesis testing elicits. When comments are available from every round of revision, as with the mentioned Folder Method; it significantly improves the outcomes of the peer review process because the author can review their work at each stage of the process to note deficiencies that can be improved or avoided in future writing (Goodwin, 2012; Pulverer, 2010).

Conclusion

Peer assessment is an integral and important component of the teaching and learning process for both educators and students. The powerful motivating effect of assessment on students is understood and tasks are designed to encourage valued study habits. There is a clear connection between expected learning outcomes, what is taught and learned, and the knowledge and skills assessed. Assessment tasks evaluate student's abilities to analyze and synthesize new information as well as concepts rather than rote memorization abilities. The perpetual deficiencies in primary educational forums have nullified the conviction that a student's ability to meet basic English entry requirements ensures that the individual has the fundamental writing skills for post-secondary education (Boase-Jelinek, Parker, & Herrington, 2013). The primary goal of this 'folder' methodology is to help to stimulate my students' intrinsic motivation by allowing them to track and take responsibility for their own progress by increasing student autonomy, goal setting, and student reinforcement.

To be effective with increasing student achievement, district leaders and school personnel must collaborate to foster learning environments that encourage the development of high levels of self-efficacy for all participants (Anderson, et al., 2001). Higher efficacy beliefs correlate to increased student performance and the teacher must accept responsibility for implementing proven instructional strategies (Dai, 2010). The relationship between educator and student self-efficacy is vital to academic progress, instructional performance, and the development of a positive learning environments (Decker, Decker, Freeman, & Knopf, 2009). The use of in-class peer review encourages students to be enthusiastic about learning and writing, which is displayed through improved curricular demonstration (Barst, Brooks, Cempellin, & Kleinjan, 2011).

Limitations

Limitations provide clarity about potential weaknesses that may affect the study and usability of the results for future researchers to advance the findings into other situations (Cresswell, 2012). This study is limited in several manners. The first limitation is that the research was conducted on a small sample of students. This limited sample size may decrease the generalizability to a larger population because all areas of K-12 public education were not included, such as middle school and high school (Creswell, 2009). The next limitation is that a purposive sampling to collect data may not yield the desired participants from each category to measure appropriately and compare the results. Third, the study is dependent upon the survey respondents' willingness to participant and answer honestly, which some did not. Furthermore, the disadvantage of using surveys is that researchers cannot manipulate the conditions under which the respondent completes the instrument, ensure completion, or expedite return times. It is also posited that social desirability bias affects

the ability of researchers to obtain accurate answers because respondents may overstate an attitude or behavior to conform to social norms (Draugalis, Coons, & Plaza, 2008).

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ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE THE USE OF PROVERBS TO DEVELOP FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

Through proverbs, students develop their thinking and imagination, enrich their vocabulary and they are introduced to folk wisdom.The study aimed at demonstrating to teachers the activities and exercises designed to use in the classroom to increase their awareness of teaching proverbs. The study of the potential of a proverb in English language teaching has revealed that it can be used in many ways to improve the students' skills and develop their understanding of the language. These activities not only helped the students improve their methodology, experimentation and attentiveness, but the teachers benifited as well. These activities enable young people to learn and use proverbs in the right context in their daily lives.

KEY WORDS: Proverb, culture, Turkish, English, methodology

1.Introduction

Culture is one of the essential elements that distinguishes a society from most of otherbcommunities, and it is a complex combination of elements, such as language, history, literature, art, folklore, etc. In general, culture includes all the social practices that bind people together but also those which distinguish them from others. The culture expresses the ideas, material and spiritual values of the community that are acquired over and are reflected in the culture. Proverbs are combination of "universal" and "national-cultural" factors, which are interwoven. The proverbs are common to all communities and though each culture has its own set of proverbs, the same wisdom can usually be recognised in a different culture. (Gozpinar, 2014)

Proverbs are a matter of educating feelings and emotions of the society. It is the 'training of the heart and mind' and consists in developing socially accepted feelings and emotions. Like poetry, sometimes it is 'caught' rather than taught. There are several factors (social background, age, sex, status, etc.) in the formation of a culture, and those are important factors for the interpretation of proverbs in order to achieve better results in our lessons related to proverbs. It is essentially a matter of creating the right atmosphere, imitation and learning by example. Proverbs help moral development which includes both thinking and behaving morally.

Proverbs make our speech fluent, natural and colourful, can allow us to perform certain communicative functions, and can increase our understanding and awareness of the target language and culture. Ignorance of those expressions can create communication problems. Most researchers nowadays believe that the study of modern phraseology is impossible without taking into account cultural aspects of language (Piirainen, 2007: 208).

In the research done by Can (2011), when the subjects were asked in what situations and for what purposes they were using or would use English proverbs, they could mention a wide range of situations and purposes as given below:

- For communicating with native speakers better
- For creating humour
- For expressing oneself better and for being understood better
- For supporting the arguments
- For showing that you have a good command of the language and that you have learnt it well
- For beautifying and embellishing the language
- For exemplifying

- For describing an event better
- In oral presentations
- For comprehending native speakers
- For writing effective compositions
- For expressing many things with few words
- For warning someone politely
- For summarizing
- In daily and informal communication with close friends
- For giving advice

The comments above illustrate how proverbs can be incorporated in language classrooms in secondary schools to help the development of students' language knowledge. Most importantly, their knowledge of proverbs can enable them to have access to native speakers' culture so that the learners can enjoy language learning and teaching in a more meaningful way.

Native speakers mostly tend to use simple, concrete, everyday vocabulary when they address the second language learner. That seemingly positive attitude of the native speaker unfortunately cannot help the second language learner understand and learn more about the culture and the proverbs of that nation. However, if a language teacher doesn't design a systematic plan, or give special attention to teaching proverbs to foreign language learners, and if foreign language teachers also avoid using or handling these cultural expressions, students cannot learn and use them appropriately. English teachers may have problems with the textbooks they are using in classes due to the lack of exercises dealing with proverbs, so there is a need for teachers to create activities to teach various language skills. If proverbs chosen by teachers to be used in classes are frequently used ones with less difficult vocabulary, then proverbs gets more attention than the other units in them (Gozpinar, 2014).

Teachers should be careful not to overload students with too many proverbs. Seven is probably a good number for one class. If teachers teach proverbs in context by using texts rather than teaching them in isolation, it may be more effective and enjoyable.Teachers can prepare a list of proverbs in advance to encourage students to use the proverbs in meaningful contexts or motivate learners to use proverbs as topics for writing exercises. The teacher should have the idea of teaching the identical and similar proverbs before proverbs which are difficult to comprehend. When students learn one proverb from the other culture, they will be willing to find out the counterparts of the proverbs in their own languages.

One of the issues related to teaching proverbs is age factor. If the teacher follows just the traditional teaching methodologies, then any age seems suitable for teaching proverbs which can be an enjoyable process for learners.

As a Turkish language lecturer in Georgia for 5 years, I have different activity series while teaching Turkish to Turkish minor program students whose major is English in Samtskhe-Javakheti State University. I adopted one activity and designed a similiar lesson plan for intermediate level students in order to promote proverb knowledge in English language teaching classes.

If the proverbs are used in the right place, they will be more helpful. Proverbs teach lessons or provide certain instructions on what should be done and what should not be done and they also gain the status of arguments.A good language teacher should teach proverbs in a communicative and meaningful way together with the culture of that target language in order to foster the pragmatic competence in it. By doing so, the teacher not only helps the student understand the culture, but also helps the existence of the proverb in the following years because the more frequently a proverb is heard, the more easily it will be retained and recalled in the future (Gozpinar, 2014).

We have some ideas for using proverbs in the classroom. I believe that there are many ways to inspire children to learn about the foreign language. I wanted to guarantee fun when I was able to incorporate English proverbs into my lesson plan. Proverbs whose content relates to cultural, educational development and awareness have potential to become a useful and a motivational device in foreign language classes. Below, I have teacher-written class activities that create a climate for proverb learning and could be useful for the teachers who are looking for further ways to inspire students to learn proverbs.

In the exercises, we aimed at bringing and strengthening motivation through a context. I believe that if the teachers are interested in using authentic materials in foreign language classes, carefully chosen proverbs can be used with learners from elementary level up. If the learner wants to be an efficient user of a foreign language, he/she should be culturally aware of the foreign language as well.

2. Sample Exercise
Step 1: Grouping the Equivalent Proverbs

Students were given the following equivalent proverbs in order to group them. The Turkish ones were not given with their translated versions in English.

1.   Long absent soon forgotten.
2.   Dereyi görmeden paçayı sıvama. **English Translation :**Don't roll up trousers before reaching the stream.
3.   Hamlet without the prince of Denmark.
4.   Ateş düştüğü yeri yakar. **English Translation**: The fire burns the place where it falls.
5.   You can not get blood out of a stone.
6.   Öfke ile kalkan zararla oturur. **English Translation**: He who rises up with wrath will sit down with loss.
7.   Only the wearer knows where the shoe pinches.
8.   Kambersiz düğün olmaz. **English Translation**: No feast is complete without a jester.
9.   Experince is the best teacher.
10.   Yoktan yonga çıkmaz. **English Translation:** You can not get wood chips from a non-existent log.
11.   Anger punishes itself.
12.   Bin nasihatten bir musibet yeğdir. **English Translation**: One misfortune is better than a thousand pieces of advice.
13.   Don't count your chickens before they are hatched.
14.   Gözden ırak olan gönülden ırak olur. **English Translation**: Away from the eyes away from the heart.

Answers: (1;14 – 2;13 – 3;8 – 4;7- 5;10- 6;11- 9;12)

Because the teacher chose less metaphorically expressed proverbs or literally easy ones, that made the lesson more enjoyable and fun. As we have observed, activities were enjoyable for them and for their self confidence after having the results of 100 %.

Step 2: Talking about Turkey and Guessing the English Proverb

This exercise will help the students learn more about the other country and culture. I aimed to improve the students' knowledge of Turkey, Turkish language, culture and finally learn a proverb. The students were asked to answer the following questions to find the missing proverb. The first letter of each answer helped them find the English proverb.

1.   What is the most famous dessert in Turkey? (Baklava)
2.   What is "bread" in Turkish? (Ekmek)
3.   What is the most popular drink in Turkey? (Tea)
4.   What team did Georgian footballers Shota and Archil Arveladze play for Turkey? (Trabzonspor)
5.   In which city is the biggest mosque of Turkey? (Edirne)
6.   In which city is "tea" grown in Turkey? (Rize)
7.   What is the currency in Turkey? (Lira)
8.   What is the capital of Turkey? (Ankara)
9.   What is "Ok" in Turkish? (Tamam)
10.   What does "İngiltere" mean in Turkish? (England)
11.   What does the word "lale" mean in English? (Tulip)
12.   What is the most famous see food in the Black Sea region. (Hamsi)
13.   What is "Hamsi" in English? (Anchovy)
14.   Where is Cappadocia in Turkey? (Nevşehir)
15.   According to biblical tradition what came to rest on the Mountains of Ararat, now in eastern Turkey? (Noah's Ark)
16.   Which part of Turkey does "Eastern Thrace" refer to? (European)
17.   What is the name of the largest lake of Turkey? (Van)
18.   It is an ancient city located near the Aegean Sea in Turkey and one of the Seven Wonders of the World. (Ephesus)
19.   One colour of the Turkish flag. (Red)

(Answer: Better late than never.)

Step 3: Proverbs about Asking for Advice
In this activity, the students were asked to speak about **"how important it is to ask for advice from other people".** One of the objectives was to give the students opportunity to speak about the topic **"asking for advice"** individually and work in pairs about the topic. The students are expected not to ignore other people for their advice when they have problems. This step was completed in two teaching hours time. We aimed to make **speaking, reading class and vocabulary teaching** at the same time.

a)   Reading the Dialogue
Tom: I appreciate your concern as usual.
Celin: No problem! Does my support help you cope better during troubling times?
Tom: You are always here when I need you and you help me with your good advice. Should I take this new job? Or should I stick with my current one?
Celin: As I have told you many times, it's time for a change.
Tom: Why do you think so?
Celin: You always get your salary late and that makes you unhappy.
Tom: Do you really think so?
Celin: I've been listening to you complain for over a year now. Trust me. Take the job. What do you have to lose?

b)   Answering Some General Questions
We told them to speak about those questions after they were given the questions on a piece of paper:
1.   What would you do if you had to decide about a major problem in your life?
2.   Would you ask others for advice?
3.   Do you sometimes hesitate to ask for advice or help?
4.   Do you trust your friends easily?
5.   How often do you follow others' advice?
6.   How often does a piece of advice from others help you?
7.   Do you ignore advice from others?
8.   When you need to resolve problems, who do you trust and why?
9.   Are you interested in what proverbs say about your problem?
10.   Do you take proverbs into consideration while making important decisions?
11.   Do you think proverbs can help us with our problems?

c)   Complete the Following Proverbs by Using One Word from the List Below
consult - tongue – counsel - advise- asked- astray
- He who has a …………………in his mouth can go anywhere. **(tongue)**
- Better to ask the way than go …………… **(astray)**
- Good ……………… has no price. **(counsel)**
- If you wish good advice, ………………… an old man. **(consult)**
- Though old and wise, yet still ……………….**(advise)**
- Give neither counsel nor salt unless …………………**(asked)**

3. Conclusions
To sum up, in our activities, we hoped to help other foreign language teachers include proverbs in their classes to enrich the educational experience as much as possible. The study of the potential of a proverb in foreign language teaching has revealed that it can be used in many ways to improve the students' skills and develop their understanding of the language. I think that teachers should collaborate to investigate how teenagers can be taught proverbial wisdom as expressions of laws of life and proverbs can be used as a way of teaching moral values. In the exercises above, you see some values to be taught in classes by means of different activity types about proverbs. It is a cross cultural study of proverbs in English and Turkish languages.
I also think that proverbs should be presented in the way that students can learn proverbs about different topics rather than listing proverbs about one topic. Proverbs which contradict with each other shouldn't be given one after the other. The proverbs can be given to students at different times.

Becasue we have proverbs from two nations, it will help for the development of multicultural perspective of the students. The order of the following proverbs should be according to the priorities of the class students and their ages. The point is that teachers should be alert to use proverbs in classes anytime.

The proverbs for those activities were specifically chosen from daily life to help the students create their stories easily, and one "value" for character development was meant to be taught. Our goal of letting the students show their understanding of proverbs with effective moral messages was a success from the point of learning. Learning is defined as a process in which students find opportunity to communicate, ask questions, reflect on their thinking. Thus, the study automatically gave them this chance.

Children may use the didactic and moral value of proverbs later in their future lives. I hope the students will connect a proverb to a situation after this valuable and motivational series of activities. Rather than studying the proverbs as time fillers, we wanted to teach the students how to use them in the correct context. This is because I believe that by learning words when we need them and then immediately place them in context with known words, the person learns faster and commits this learning to long term memory, which can contribute to the improvement of pragmatic competence.

I was motivated to teach proverbs by preparing contextual activities, because proverbs are true and meaningful depending on the context they are used in. I think that if the student learns how to apply the proverb to various contexts, the benefit of this is achieved for the long term. Students were motivated to understand the literal meaning first and then context by interpreting the figurative language.

When studying proverbs in a foreign language class, it facilitates the learning process, and at the same time, proverbs create an interactive atmosphere within the classroom. Students learned numerous proverbs, and learned how to use them in meaningful contexts by illustrating them. At the end of the activity, the students were encouraged to participate in the learning process by expressing their own ideas, and that their comprehension was also improved with the help of those wisdom tips.

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EXPLORING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION TEST PERFORMANCE: THE ROLE OF KNOWLEDGE OF READING STRATEGIES AS AN INTERNAL 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

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 strat-

egies 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 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 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-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 | 4 (items 36-39) | |
| | Eliminating | 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 con-secutive 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 se-lected 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 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:

$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \ldots \beta_k = 0$ (None of the independent variables affects the dependent one.)

$H_1: \exists i \quad \beta i \neq 0$ (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 vari-ables 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	.677c	.459	.451	5.373

a. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS
b. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS, TESTINGS
c. Predictors: (Constant), METACOGS, TESTINGS, COMPENSATIONS

Table 4 provides evidence for the significance of the results (sig. = .00 < α = .05)

Table 4: ANOVAa

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4191.298	1	4191.298	129.486	.000b
	Residual	6635.572	205	32.369		
	Total	10826.870	206			
2	Regression	4655.203	2	2327.602	76.937	.000c
	Residual	6171.666	204	30.253		
	Total	10826.870	206			
3	Regression	4967.432	3	1655.811	57.365	.000d
	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: Coefficientsa

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 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: $ß_1 \neq 0$ (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).

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.
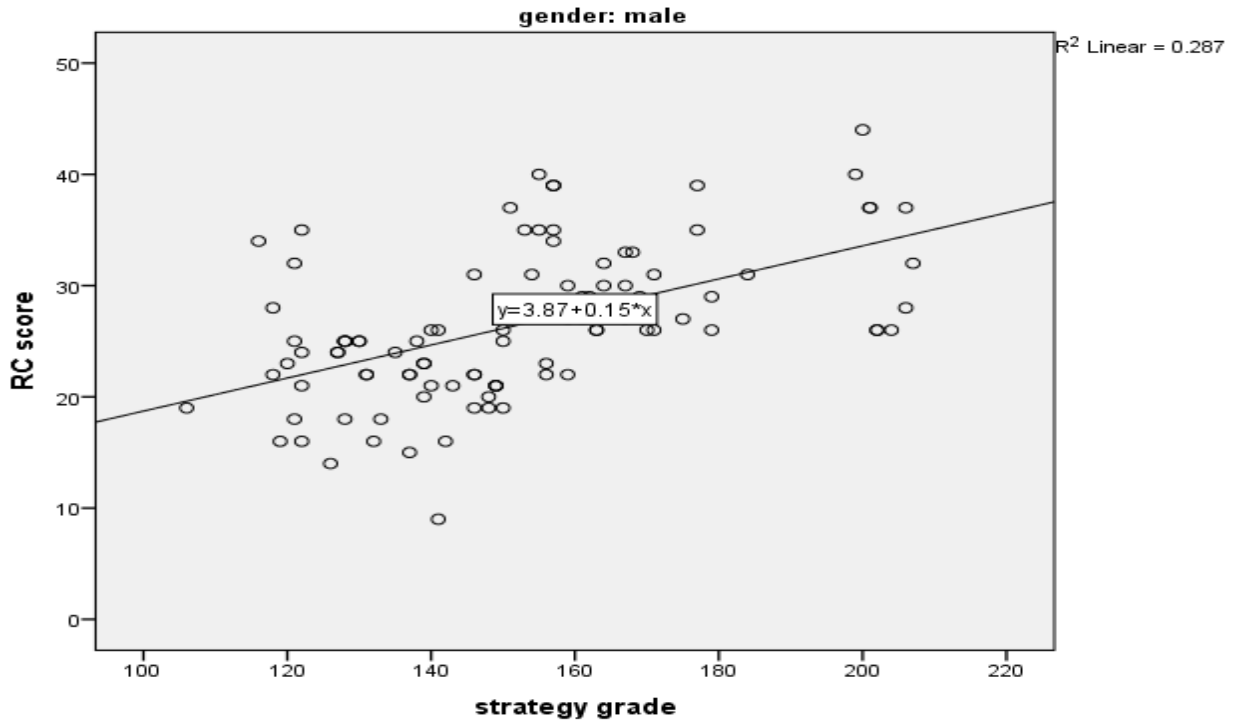

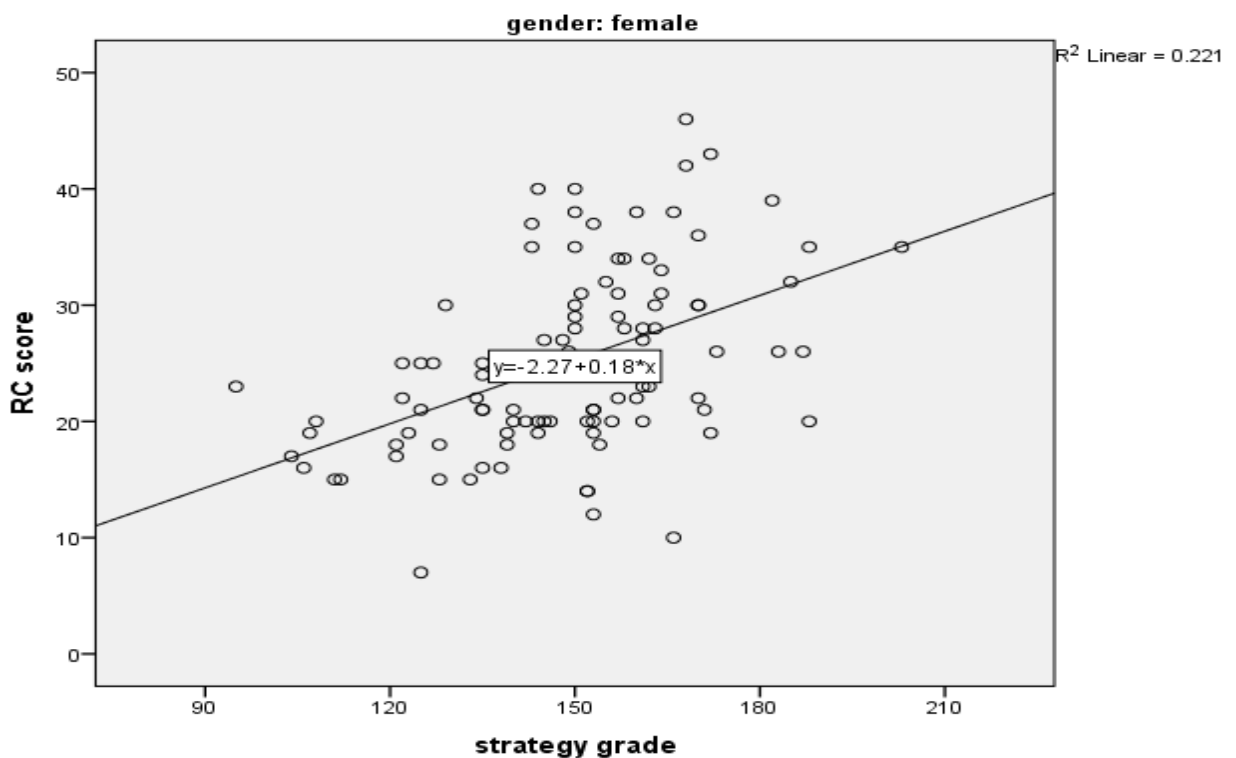**Figure 1: Impact of the knowledge of reading strategies on reading comprehension in males**

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 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 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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PERCEPTION OF PICTORIAL METAPHORS IN CROSS-CULTURAL ADVERTISEMENTS

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ABSTRACT
The primary objective of this research is to investigate whether or not perception of pictorial metaphors in advertisements and billboards is conditioned by culture. To this end, the study examined the frequency of each iconic, indexical and symbolic interpretation made by 100 undergraduate and graduate EFL students. The results were first analyzed through Chi-square test, and then in order to explore the mean difference in interpretations, Friedman test was employed. It was concluded that most of the participants showed more comfort in perceiving implicit indexical and symbolic metaphors. Besides, there was a significant difference in Iranian EFL learners' perception of the metaphorical signs in English and Persian ads. These findings may contribute to the explanation of some of the concerns of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory such as why some mappings from source domain to target domain do not happen or why some mapping are just partial and selective. This study might also help teachers who intend to use cross cultural advertisements in their classrooms.

KEY TERMS: *Pictorial Metaphor, Cross-Cultural advertisements, Conceptual Metaphor Theory*

I. **Introduction**
It is commonly believed that using advertisements in the English Language classrooms may bring a number of benefits to teachers (Davis, 1997; Erkaya, 2005) because they present authentic content, variety of Englishes, and variety of voices (Smith & Rawley, 1997). Besides, the visual elements of the advertisements provide catchy and entertaining scaffolding for students to understand the linguistic meanings in the commercial (Smith & Rawley, 1997). Finally, it commercials are useful to foster critical thinking and culture (McGee & Fujita, 2000). However, these can happen only and only if the teachers have the right competence for choosing the right materials (Richards, 2001).
Research has shown that people's perception of metaphorical properties in advertising is directly correlated with their individual characteristics such as gender, thinking, feeling and intuition (McGee and Fujita, 2000). Therefore, learning about the complicated process of perceiving metaphorical properties in advertising becomes necessary for teachers if they are to choose the right ads for teaching various topics such as discrete linguistic and lexical elements, or culture and values in the target language.
Traditionally it was believed that images reflect objects in the real world. However, as people's interpretation of reality is based on their perception of what reality is, not on the reality itself, the world that is perceived is the world that is behaviorally important, not the real world itself. This existing tension in advertising, has led some advertisers to acknowledge that the meaning of an image does not illustrate any metaphorical properties of its own (Fowles, 1996; Phillips, 1997). This implies that interpretation of visual language will be different across cultures. In the same vein, Hall and Hall (1990) emphasizes the role of culture in rou-

tine communication and postulates that that there is a tendency to use high-context messages over low-context messages, and holds that most eastern cultures [such as Persian], rely on high-context communication style and most western cultures [such as English], on the other hand, use low-context communication styles. In the meantime, the Conceptual Metaphor Theory is still working towards explaining why some mappings from source domain to target domain do not happen or why some mappings are just partial and selective (Grady, 1997, 1999, as cited in Rodriguez & Moreno, 2009, p.240).

Understanding how the metaphoric properties are portrayed and perceived in cross cultural advertisements may serve many, including ESL/EFL teachers, who intend to provide as many opportunities as possible for their students to practice various conceptual and meaningful interaction of two different cultures.

II. Literature review

Almost thirty years ago metaphor was considered as an insignificant part of language use and was mostly regarded as a decorative tool in poems and arts. Yet, the original idea dates back to Aristotle (1909, p. 63) who defined metaphor as a symbol of genius and creativity; therefore an "intuitive perception of similarity in dissimilarity" is the connotation of a good metaphor (As cited in Punter, 2007, p. 11). Following that Zaltman and coulter (1995) took a more extreme view and stated that "without metaphors we cannot imagine; they are the engines of imagination" (As cited in Trong Tuan, 2010, p. 75). However, today the concept of metaphor changed drastically, especially after the work of Lackoff and Johnson (1980), and also with the arrival of cognitive linguistics. Within this special context, metaphor appeared as a conceptual process that is ubiquitous in our everyday language and has a key role in our interaction with the world and people around us and consequently it has the capacity in the creation of meaning (Lundmark, 2005, p. 1).

Although over the past few decades we have witnessed great number of publications on metaphors, lots of these publications put their primary focus on verbal metaphors, whereas Johnson (2007) states that a theory of metaphor which aims to complete communication cannot ignore pictures. Forceville (1996) indicated that there is an indisputable difference between verbal and pictorial metaphor and explained uses of the primary and secondary subjects are the crucial parts of verbal metaphors, however most of the time the primary subject is absent in pictorial metaphors and the context itself has the duty of presenting the primary subject. That is, if one were to delete all textual materials from an advertisement, and the two terms of the metaphor could still be identified, then the metaphor in question is a pictorial metaphor or simile" (1996, p. 159).

Similarly, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) believe "metaphor is primarily a matter of thought and action, and only derivatively a matter of language" (as cited in Forceville, 1995, p. 1). They maintain that our conceptual system is essentially metaphorical and affects both our language and our everyday activities and interaction with the world around us. In fact, we live with them. (1980, p. 3). This claim can be manifested by a metaphor: namely, TIME IS MONEY:

- ❖ You're *wasting* my time.
- ❖ This gadget will *save* you hours.
- ❖ That flat tire *costs* me an hour.
- ❖ I don't *have* the time to *give* you.
- ❖ How do you *spend* your time these days?
- ❖ I've *invested* a lot of time in her and etc.

(Lakoff & Johnson 1980, pp. 7-8)

In the same vein, Wood and Tinajero (2002) argue that pictures can evoke mental images to help learners recall a term or concept; they are easily accessible and can reinforce literal, critical and creative thinking. From the Cognitive perspective, pictorial metaphors are reduplication rather than manifestation of thought, and thereby thought can give rise to non-verbal metaphor. Forceville (1996) , as the pioneer of depicting pictorial metaphor in advertisements, maintains that pictures, printed advertisements and billboards are the common channels of metaphors, thus understanding cultural embedded knowledge and beliefs requires scrutinizing into non-verbal information. Forceville (1996, 2006) distinguishes four types of pictorial metaphors:

1. Hybrid type of pictorial metaphor: X IS Y: source and target are fused together in one single 'Gestalt'.

2.   Contextual type of pictorial metaphor: X IS Y …: but X or Y (source or target, here the target) is absent and must be inferred from the context. It is understood as being something else due to the visual context in which it is depicted.

3.   Pictorial simile: X IS like Y: source domain (to which the product is compared) and target domain (product) are exposed separated from each other.

4.   Integrated metaphor: A phenomenon that is experienced as a unified object or gestalt is represented in its entirety in such a manner that it resembles another object or gestalt even without contextual cues. (Forceville, 2006)

Forceville bases his theory upon Max Black's (1962) interaction theory—which is compatible with cognitive framework (Black , 1962, as cited in Forceville, 1995, pp. 5-6)—and expresses the essence of interaction in this way:

1.   Each metaphor has two separate and distinct subjects. One of them is called 'primary' subject and the other is identified as the 'secondary' subject.

2.   The secondary subject is to be considered as a system and not an individual thing.

3.   In each metaphorical utterance a set of 'associated implications' will be projected from the secondary subject upon the primary subject.

4.   The creator of metaphorical statements has the responsibility of selecting, emphasizing, suppressing and also organizing the common features of the primary subject. He will do this by applying the isomorphic statements with the primary subjects with the 'implicative complex' of the secondary subject or subjects.

5.   The primary and secondary subjects of each metaphorical statement 'interact' in the following manner: (a) the presence of the primary subject stimulates the reader or hearer to choose some of the particular properties of the secondary subject; and (b) incites him create a 'parallel implication- complex' for the primary subject; and (c) mutually induces equal changes in the secondary subjects.

Thus, according to the interaction theory (Forceville, 1995, p. 11), for realizing a metaphorical statement as a matching process, a kind of mutual adjustment between primary and secondary subject is essential. Sperber and Wilson (1986) suggest in order to be successful in any communication, the "communication intention" which is relevant to the communicator must be totally manifest for the addresses. For transferring a certain message which can affect the cognitive system of readers, choosing an appropriate 'stimulus' and 'context' are essential. They are by no means pre-determined. (p. 11). Moreover, Kittay (1987) pointed out that each metaphorical statement, except the projectable feature from the secondary subject to the primary subject requires semantic and also pragmatic accounts for its full comprehension and consequently a correct interpretation. Kovecses (2003) gives special names to the two domains of a conceptual metaphor: source domain and target domain and defines source domain as the conceptual domain from which we draw metaphorical expressions to understand another conceptual domain, and the target domain as the conceptual domain that is understood in this way. The most ordinary source domains are those which are tangible for us and we know them very well, such as different parts of human body, different animals, plants, sports, money, darkness and light, movement and direction and many many other physical and tangible objects. However, target domains are abstract, diffuse, and lack clear delineation; they "cry out" metaphorical conceptualization". The most productive target domains involve psychological and mental statements such as emotion, desire, morality and thought, personal states such as time, life, and death, social states such as economy (Kovecses, 2003, p. 2).

Bower and Flinders (1990) claim that understanding of pictorial metaphors is totally essential for teachers because they "provide the schemes or cognitive models that are the basis of thought" (p. 11). Consequently, a significant and crucial point in research is indicating if such metaphors are correctly understood by different audience. Of course the cognitive development of audience plays a key role in the comprehension of metaphors, which can, in turn, affect learning (Trong Tuan, 2010, p. 75).

Accordingly, many researchers, such as Amouzadeh and Tavangar (2004), put their primary focus of studies on pictorial metaphors and concluded that time and place of communication will have the most indisputable impact on the types of interpretation (p. 147). Considering the wide use of pictorial metaphors in ads, and their availability for English language teachers to use them in their classes, and their power in introducing cultural change on the learners (Lackoff & Johnson 1980) it becomes necessary not only to understand how metaphors can occur in pictures, but also how to provide a framework within which these pictorial metaphors can be analyzed. Consequently, this study raised two questions:

1.   What aspects do the Iranian EFL learners interpret more readily in the metaphorical signs in two types of ads (Persian/ English): the icon, the index, and the symbol?

2.   Is there a significant difference in Persian EFL learners' perception of the metaphoric signs-the icon, the index, and the symbol-in English and Persian ads?

III. Method

A. Participants

It was assumed that the participants of this study need to have two characteristics: (1) have prior language learning experience; (2) be English literate, because these students in comparison to other students have more experience in the appreciation and interpretation of English advertisement, as well as English culture. Accordingly, a total number of 100 (72 females & 28 males) undergraduate and graduate EFL students from six classes were selected to provide the researchers with the required data to accomplish the objectives of this research. The participants (from 20 to 28 years old) were all from the student population of the University of Guilan, who shared their perceptions of two sets of cross-cultural advertisement on similar topics.

B. Materials

Persian and English advertisements

In order to investigate the role of culture in the participants' interpretation, two distinct sets of topic familiar cross-cultural ads were required. One set was taken from Persian language which is known to be a very high-context culture in which communications and accordingly their proper interpretations are highly dependent on situational contexts (Hall &Hall, 1990). The other set was from the English language which is characterized as a low-context culture in which communication relies heavily on explicit and straightforward cues in terms of communication conveyance (Hall & Hall, 1990). It was postulated that people from high- context cultures are more capable to extract implicit meaning of pictorial metaphors in printed advertisements. Besides, in order to minimize biased interpretation, information on the origin of the images was deliberately withheld from the participants and the images were ordered randomly. All pictures were marked with a number on the top and any written texts on the ads remained intact. More specifically, twelve of the selected pictures were Persian advertisements identified by numbers 4, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 18, 19, 22 and 23, and the remaining eleven images contained English advertisements marked by numbers 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 13, 14, 17, 20 and 21 (see appendix).

C. Procedure

Two sets of English and Persian advertisements were presented to the participants who were all Iranian English - related students. They were briefed on the aim of the research and they were asked to ignore what the advertiser may have intended to transfer and instead only transcribe their own judgments about the pictures. There was no time limitation for them and they were even allowed to write their perception in either English or Persian.

D. Data-Analysis

Having gathered the data, the researchers used the statistical package for the social scientists software (SPSS, version 19.0) to analyze the data and find the answers to the research questions. It should be mentioned that since three of the students did not take part in the interpretation of the advertisements, the data from those learners were discarded from the final analysis, and thus the analysis was done based on the performance of the remaining students. As the data were mostly based on the frequency count of the occurrences of each type of interpretation(symbolic, iconic and indexical) in the sets of images, and considering the number of variables in this study (one independent variable--pictorial metaphor in advertisement--with two layers--English & Persian--, and one dependent variable--interpretation—with three layers: icon, index and symbol), the Chi square statistical techniques was chosen to compare the frequency of cases found in the various categories of one variable across the different categories of another variable and determine whether or not the two categorical variables were related. For the second research question, the researchers employed the Friedman test to find out the statistical significance of the two different mean ranks of interpretations among English and Persian advertisements. In other words, the study tries to understand if the Persian students come any close to the intended meanings of the images and if yes, what kind of interpretation they employ.

VI. Results

In order to answer the first research question " *what aspects do the Iranian EFL learners interpret more readily in the metaphorical signs in two types of ads (Persian/ English): the icon, the index, and the symbol?*", the students' perception of Persian and English images were analyzed and the frequencies of occurrences for each iconic, indexical and symbolic interpretation were tallied and analyzed using non-parametric statistics (Chi-square). The results appear in table 1 below.

Table 1. Details of students' responses to each of English and Persian advertisement

English & Persian advertisements	Iconic %	Indexical %	Symbolic %	NO answer %	Total %	df	sig
Picture 1/E	37.1	23.7	30.9	8.2	100	3	.000
Picture 2/E	4.1	53.6	37.1	5.2	100	3	.000
Picture 3/E	15.5	51.5	29.9	3.1	100	3	.000
Picture 4/P	3.1	2.1	90.7	4.1	100	3	.000
Picture 5/E	67.0	24.7	4.1	4.1	100	3	.000
Picture 6/E	20.6	36.1	30.9	12.4	100	3	.000
Picture 7/P	11.3	33.0	23.7	32.0	100	3	.000
Picture 8/P	0.0	50.5	36.1	13.4	100	3	.000
Picture 9/E	62.9	14.4	16.5	6/2	100	3	.000
Picture 10/P	25.8	41.2	15.5	17.5	100	3	**.001**.
Picture 11/P	35.1	15.5	32.0	17.5	100	3	.009
Picture 12/P	36.1	20.6	29.9	13.4	100	3	.009
Picture 13/E	22.7	24.7	45.4	7.2	100	3	.000
Picture 14/E	37.1	22.7	26.8	13.4	100	3	**.010**
Picture 15/P	46.4	25.8	19.6	8.2	100	3	.000
Picture 16/P	26.8	38.1	26.8	8.2	100	3	.000
Picture 17/E	17.5	41.2	32.0	9.3	100	3	.000
Picture 18/P	18.6	37.1	33.0	11.3	100	3	.001
Picture 19/P	12.4	27.8	44.3	15.5	100	3	.000
Picture 20/E	1.0	8.2	71.1	19.6	100	3	.000
Picture 21/E	16.5	46.4	32.0	5.2	100	3	.000
Picture 22/P	13.4	33.0	37.1	16.5	100	3	.001
Picture 23/P	21.6	26.8	40.2	11.3	100	3	.001

0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 24.3

As the value the 'minimum expected frequency' in the footnote indicates that '0' cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than '5', we concluded that we have not violated the assumption. In addition, the sig. value level of all of the twenty three pictures was smaller than .05 which means that the performance of learners in English and Persian ads was significantly related. Further the breakdown of the responses for iconic, indexical and symbolic interpretations of English and Persian advertisements (see table 2) indicates that the participants showed more ability for implicit and symbolic type of interpretation.

Table 2. Results of Chi-Square test for two types of ads
Ads * Answers Crosstabulation

			Answers				
			No answer	Iconic	indexical	symbolic	Total
Ads	English	Count	91	293	337	346	1067
		Expected Count	122.0	256.3	324.3	364.4	1067.0
		% within Ads	8.5%	27.5%	31.6%	32.4%	100.0%
		% within Answers	35.7%	54.7%	49.7%	45.4%	47.8%
		% of Total	4.1%	13.1%	15.1%	15.5%	47.8%
	Persian	Count	164	243	341	416	1164

	Expected Count	133.0	279.7	353.7	397.6	1164.0
	% within Ads	14.1%	20.9%	29.3%	35.7%	100.0%
	% within Answers	64.3%	45.3%	50.3%	54.6%	52.2%
	% of Total	7.4%	10.9%	15.3%	18.6%	52.2%
Total	Count	255	536	678	762	2231
	Expected Count	255.0	536.0	678.0	762.0	2231.0
	% within Ads	11.4%	24.0%	30.4%	34.2%	100.0%
	% within Answers	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.4%	24.0%	30.4%	34.2%	100.0%

According to table 2, 27.5 percent of the responses (interpretations) to English ads were iconic --the most explicit type of interpretations-- and 31.6 percent of students gave indexical responses. The most frequent interpretation includes symbolic (32.4 of responses). For the Persian advertisements, 20.9 per cent of learners provided iconic responses, 29.3 per cent provided indexical ones and the majority of answers were symbolic (35.7 per cent of the responses). Also, the table shows that 24 per cent of responses were iconic and 30.4 per cent of them were indexical, 34.2 per cent of them were symbolic. According to the result, symbolic interpretation was the most frequent behavior observed and the differences between the interpretations of two sets of ads were significant.

As one of the main aims of the study was to compare the means obtained from cross-cultural advertisements with similar contents, for the second research question "*Is there a significant difference in Persian EFL learners' perception of the metaphoric signs-the icon, the index, and the symbol-in English and Persian ads?*" Friedman test was used to find out whether or not there was a significant difference in Iranian EFL learners' perception of the metaphoric signs in English and Persian ads. The test compared the mean ranks between the related groups and indicated how the groups differed for this reason. As Table 3 indicates, there is an overall statistically significant difference between the mean ranks of the related groups.

Table 3. Friedman Test

	Mean Rank
English pictures Persian pictures	**1.49**
English pictures Persian pictures	**1.51**
N	2231
Chi-Square	41.000
Df	1
Asymp. Sig.	**.000**

The results in tables 3 suggest that there is significant difference between the EFL learners' perception of English and Persian images. This is indicated by sig. level of .000. . Comparing the mean rank for the two sets of ads, it appears that the learners interpret Persian ads more implicitly.

V. Conclusion & discussion
This study intended to explore whether or not the EFL learners' perception of pictorial metaphors in cross-cultural advertisements and billboards was conditioned by culture. The results indicated that learners' perception of metaphorical properties was correlated with the type of advertisement. Besides, a significant difference was found between two types of ads regarding learners' cognitive perceptions. The results shed more light on some of the concerns of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory and suggest that the one of the reasons for lack of transparency in the pattern of mapping from source domain to target domain be partly

sought in the cultural differences which impose different social norms on the cognitive and psychological tendencies of the learners.

The results are consistent with previous studies that metaphoric use varies across languages and respectively interpretations of metaphors are highly context-dependent. In this study, the participants who were from a high-context culture made use of implicit interpretations.

In addition, Friedman test verified that the extent of difference between different modes of expressing a metaphor had a significant impact on its meaning and interpretation. Of course it should be admitted that this might not be applicable to all students because there are other factors such as students' diverse ways of thinking, feeling and intuition which might also affect the results. In the case of this study, for instance, the participants were all English literate that might have added to their willingness to see the experience as enjoyable and motivating enough to try their best to understand the language diversity across cultures and hence decode the intended message of the visuals. Yet, other students who do not have this degree of need and motivation might act differently. Therefore a shift in further studies from the formal level of visual metaphors to the psychological, social and cognitive status of the interpreters is required to complete the analyses of visual metaphors.

Owing to the fact that use of advertisements in EFL classroom brings a number of benefits to language teachers, teacher's background knowledge of such influential factors on students' behavior and taking them into consideration while choosing appropriate materials plays a key role in the outcome of the activities devised on the basis of such materials.

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THE IMPACT OF CREATIVITY ON THE COGNITIVE AND META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES IN EFL READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
The main objective of this study was to find out whether more creative individuals, as compared to less creative ones, use cognitive and metacognitive strategies more when they read English as a foreign language. The participants of this study were comprised of 60 freshman students, male and female, studying English at Shiraz Islamic Azad University, Iran. The selected sample received a creativity questionnaire and was divided into two groups based on their level of creativity. The more creative students were assigned to the experimental group and the less creative students were assigned to the control group. To measure the creativity levels of the participants, Torrance Test of Creative Thinking TTCT (Torrance, 1990) was administered. An Oxford Proficiency Test was also used to determine the students' level of proficiency. Findings suggested that the two variables of the creativity level of the participants of the experimental group and their use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension are significantly and directly related. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between the creativity level of the participants and the extent to which they apply cognitive and metacognitive strategies in their reading comprehension tasks. This finding signifies that there is a direct and statistically significant relationship between the creativity level and the utilization of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension.

KEY WORDS: Cognitive strategies, Metacognitive strategies, Learning styles, EFL setting.

Introduction
Reading comprehension is one of the most important elements of language learning and teaching and as such learning and teaching this skill have always been a concern for language teachers, learners and scholars. Although language teachers try to help their students to properly manage reading comprehension passages (by teaching them a variety of reading strategies), difficulties continue to exist in this complex process. Creativity is also an important trait which has been a point of interest for many researchers in the literature. The present study aimed at figuring out the impacts of creativity on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension in an EFL context.
The rationale which motivated this study was that injecting a series of pre-defined cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies can rob the students out of their creativity. Sometimes the students apply a variety of techniques which can be helpful in the process of reading comprehension. Training EFL learners to utilize cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies while reading in EFL contexts can assist them in the achievement of higher levels of reading comprehension (Avila & Baetiong, 2012). Based on Cummins' (1983) Interdependence Hypothesis, cognitive and metacognitive reading strategy training can increase English reading performance. Therefore, motivating students to employ cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies can foster a better learning and comprehension in reading. Therefore, the present study tried to examine the potential impacts of creativity on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension in an EFL context.

Statement of the Problem

Reading comprehension is one of the most important building blocks of language and as such learning and teaching this skill have always been a concern for language teachers, learners and scholars. EFL learners often experience problems in understanding the printed word (Cummins, 1990). Although language teachers try to help their students to properly manage reading comprehension passages (by teaching them a variety of reading strategies), difficulties continue to exist in this complex process.

The problem is that injecting a series of pre-defined cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies can rob the students out of their creativity. Sometimes we observe that our students apply a variety of techniques which can be helpful in the process of reading comprehension. Training EFL learners to utilize cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies while reading in EFL contexts can assist them in the achievement of higher levels of reading comprehension. Based on Cummins' (1983) Interdependence Hypothesis, cognitive and metacognitive reading strategy training can increase English reading performance. Therefore, motivating students to employ cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies can foster a better learning and comprehension in reading. Such being the case, the present study aims at investigating the potential impacts of creativity on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension in an EFL context.

Significance of the Study

The present study is novel due to the fact that no study has delved into such an issue to examine the impact of language learners' creativity on their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategy use in reading comprehension. Plenty of research has examined language learning strategies as used by Iranian EFL learners. However, no point is directed toward creativity and its impact on the use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies in reading comprehension. The present study will, therefore, attempt to fill in such a gap.

Research Questions

Based on the objective of the study, the following research questions and the subsequent null hypotheses were posed:

1.   Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' creativity level and their use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension?
2.   Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' creativity level and their use of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension?

H0-1: There is no relationship between Iranian EFL learners' creativity level and their use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension.
H0-2: There is no relationship between Iranian EFL learners' creativity level and their use of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension.

Literature review

Different researchers have investigated how cognitive and metacognitive strategies can help language learners be more successful in their language learning process. In an investigation into the effect of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on the reduction of test anxiety among guidance school girls, Shokrpour et al. (2011), for example, concluded that training on cognitive and metacognitive strategies reduces test anxiety and improves educational performance. Data were collected from among 84 randomly selected students of guidance schools, employing an anxiety questionnaire and the students' GPA in the first and second terms. The participants were divided into experimental and control groups. The students in the experimental group were trained on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies summary writing, taking responsibilities, supervision, control, assessment, review, etc.. The findings proved the positive effect of such training on the reduction of test anxiety and the learners' improvement of educational performance.

Similarly, Shokrpour and Nasiri (2011) investigated the use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies by good and poor academic IELTS test takers. The purpose was to see which group used strategies better. Data required for the study were gathered from among 94 academic IELTS test takers in two institutes. They were given the academic reading section of the test followed by the cognitive and metacognitive strategy questionnaire. Findings revealed that there was not a significant difference between good and poor readers in the use of cognitive strategies. Yet, these two groups differed significantly in using metacognitive strategies. In fact, good readers outperformed the poor readers in employing metacognitive strategies.

Takallou (2011) examining the effect of metacognitive (planning & self-monitoring) strategy instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance (on authentic and inauthentic texts) and their metacogni-

tive awareness. To this end, two tests (TOEFL and a reading comprehension test) and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were administered to 93 male and female EFL learners. Data analysis revealed that the two experimental groups which received instruction on 'planning' and 'self-monitoring' outperformed the control group on the reading comprehension test. Moreover, text type played an important role in the subjects' reading comprehension. The subjects performed better on authentic texts. In addition, the results showed that experimental groups' awareness on metacognitive strategies significantly increased after instruction.

Phakiti (2003b), through the use of a cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire drawn from the existing literature, retrospective interviews and an EFL achievement test, investigated the relationship between 384 Thai learners' cognitive and metacognitive strategy use and their reading test performance. Unlike Purpura (1999), the test takers completed the test first and immediately after the test completion, they answered the questionnaire on the degree of their strategy use during the test taking. The rationale underlying this design was that strategy use, like other online cognitive processes would be more directly related to specific language performance than to general strategy use. Using the factor structures to form composites of cognitive and metacognitive strategies for further quantitative analyses, Phakiti found that metacognitive strategies were statistically positively related to cognitive strategies (the correction for- attenuation correlation = 0.76). In his qualitative data analysis, cognitive and metacognitive strategy use by successful test-takers was highly complex. For example, when they translated part of a text (cognitive strategy use), they aimed to see if it made sense (evaluating strategy use), and when they made efforts to summarize the passage (cognitive strategy use), they checked for comprehension (monitoring strategy use). In regards to the relationships between strategies and test performance, cognitive and metacognitive strategies were both positively correlated with the reading test performance.

Phakiti (2003b) also compared the differences in the strategy use and reading performance among highly successful, moderately successful and unsuccessful learners by means of factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and found the significant differences among these learner groups. There was strong evidence that the highly successful learners reported significantly higher use of metacognitive strategies than the moderately successful ones, who in turn reported higher use of these strategies than the unsuccessful ones. The qualitative data analysis further supported such findings, suggesting that the successful learners approached the test tasks more strategically than the less successful ones. In his subsequent study, Phakiti (2003a) reported the differences between males and females in terms of strategy use and L2 reading performance. Phakiti (2003a) found that although males and females did not differ in their reading performance and their use of cognitive strategies, males were found to report significantly higher use of metacognitive strategies than females. However, at the gender plus success level, no gender difference was found (e.g., highly successful males did not differ in terms of L2 reading performance and strategy use from their female counterparts).

In his subsequent study, Phakiti (2006) examined the nature of cognitive strategies (comprehending, retrieval and memory strategies) and metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring and evaluating strategies) and their direct and indirect relationships to English as a foreign language (EFL) reading test performance, employing the structural equation modeling (SEM) approach. The study was carried out at a government university in Thailand in which 358 students took a reading comprehension test and immediately after completing it, answered a questionnaire on their strategy use. The SEM results show that: (1) memory and retrieval strategies facilitated EFL reading test performance via comprehending strategies; (2) monitoring strategies performed an executive function on memory strategies, whereas evaluating strategies regulated retrieval strategies; (3) planning strategies did not directly regulate memory, retrieval or comprehending strategies, but instead regulated these cognitive strategies via monitoring and evaluating strategies; and (4) only comprehending strategies were found to directly influence EFL reading test performance.

Song (2004) investigated the extent to which cognitive and metacognitive strategy use accounted for Chinese test-takers' performance in the College English Test Band 4 through regression analyses. Song employed a revised strategy questionnaire mainly based on Purpura (1999). Song found that cognitive and metacognitive strategies accounted for 8.6% of the test score.

In the context of the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery Melbourne Papers in Language Testing (MELAB) with 161 test-takers, Song (2005) found that test-takers' perceptions of cognitive strategy use fall into six dimensions (i.e., repeating/confirming information strategies, writing strategies, practicing strategies, generating strategies, applying rules strategies and linking with prior knowledge strategies), whereas their metacognitive strategy use perceptions fall into three factors (i.e., evaluating, monitoring and as-

sessing). The effects of strategy use on the language performance were found to be weak (explaining about 12.5 to 21.4% of the score variance).

Zare-ee (2009) examined the relationships between the use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies on the one hand and EFL reading achievement on the other hand. Data were collected from 30 randomly selected EFL learners studying English Language and Literature at Kashan University, Iran. The participants included six male (20%) and 24 female (80 %) learners, who were further classified into highly successful (n=6), moderately successful (n=19), and unsuccessful (n=5). The collected data included reading comprehension achievement scores and responses to a 35-item five-point Likert-scale cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire. Transcripts of retrospective interviews with 4 highly successful and 4 unsuccessful test-takers were also used to further clarify the quantitative analyses. Results of the analyses indicated that the correlation between reading achievement and metacognitive strategies was 0.39 and it was significant at the 0.05 level. However, the correlation between cognitive strategies and reading achievement was 0.128 and insignificant, showing only a slight trend. The results obtained from conducting Pearson product moment correlations showed that the correlation between meta-cognitive strategies and cognitive strategies was .630 and it is significant at the 0.01 level. MANOVA also showed that students at higher levels of reading ability use meta-cognitive strategies more often that less successful readers. The findings of the study suggest that the use of meta-cognitive strategies can account for variation in EFL reading achievement and needs to be promoted by EFL teachers. It was also found that gender did not have a determining role in the use of either cognitive or meta-cognitive strategies in this study.

Siam and Soozandehfar (2011) explored language learners' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies which may ensure their differences in autonomy and the success they achieve in their reading tasks. Data were collected from 40 students of English (15 males, 25 females) who were studying in institutes. Results indicated that the extent of the learners' metacognitive awareness of the reading strategies affects their comprehension of the texts. It was concluded that the more strategic, or better to say, the more learners are aware of the reading strategies, the more constructively responsive they are to the reading tasks.

Rezvani and Tavakoli (2013) investigated Iranian test-takers' use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies while performing on IELTS reading tests. Specifically, the study set out to investigate: a) the relationship between Iranian test-takers' use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and their L2 reading test performance on the reading section of the IELTS test; and b) the role gender might play in Iranian test-takers' use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. To this end, 60 adult Iranian EFL learners who had recently completed an IELTS preparation course took a sample IELTS test, followed by a cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire on how they thought while completing the reading section. Pearson correlation and independent samples t-test were run to analyze the data. The results suggested that there was a strong positive correlation between Iranian test-takers' use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and their performance on the reading section of the IELTS test. It was also found that there was no significant difference in strategy use between male and female Iranian test-takers.

Method
Participants
The participants of this study were comprised of 60 freshman students, male and female, studying English at Shiraz Islamic Azad University, Iran. The age range of these students varied from 18 to 22 years of age. An Oxford Proficiency Test was also administered to both groups prior to the experiment to ensure homogeneity of the sample. These participants were randomly selected from the population of the students majoring in English Translation and were assigned into two groups. The selected sample received a creativity questionnaire and was divided into two groups based on their level of creativity. The more creative students were assigned to the experimental group and the less creative students were assigned to the control group.

Instruments
To measure the creativity levels of the participants, Torrance Test of Creative Thinking TTCT (Torrance, 1990) was administered. This test has been widely used in different educational studies and its reliability is reported to be 0.80 (Fasko, 2001). The test consisted of 60 questions each followed by three choices that included different hypothetical situations of responding for the participants. The time allocated for this test to be done was 30 minutes. An Oxford placement test was also used to determine the students' level of proficiency.

Prior to the treatment, the participants in both groups took a pre-test on reading comprehension. The obtained grades from the pre-test were recorded for the purpose of further comparison. As for the post-test, all participants of the study took a reading comprehension test to see if their scores on the reading comprehension test mark improvement.

Procedures

Before the experiment, all the subjects were given the creativity questionnaire. This instrument was utilized to estimate the creativity level of the participants. The target objective of this was to classify more creative and less creative students. Besides, the participants took a reading comprehension test which served as the pre-test. At the end of the instruction, all the participants took another reading comprehension test which served as the post-test. Finally, both groups' achievements in the reading comprehension were compared to examine the potential effect of creativity on this skill.

Results and discussion

Data analysis procedures for this study were comprised of quantitative data analyses using *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS). The results answered research questions of this study through some descriptive statistics which represented Means and Standard Deviations of different variables under investigation and Pearson Correlation Coefficients.

As stated previously in this research report, the present study aimed to examine the impact of language learners' creativity on their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategy used in reading comprehension. The main objective of this study was to find out whether more creative individuals use cognitive and metacognitive strategies more when they read English as a foreign language.

Table 1 has provided descriptive statistics of the variable of creativity for both experimental and control groups.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for the Variable of Creativity Level

Creativity level	N	Mean	Max	Std. Deviation
Experimental group	34	5.95	10	2.57
Control group	26	4.46	10	1.78

As shown in this table, 34 of the participants of the study were categorized as more creative than the 26 ones remaining. More creative participants were put in the experimental group. The Mean and Standard Deviation of these 34 participants in the experimental group were 5.59 and 2.57 respectively. Twenty six of the participant were categorized as less creative ones and were put in the control group. The Mean and Standard Deviation of these 26 participants in the control group were 4.46 and 1.78 respectively.

Before engaging the participants in reading classes and before teaching a number of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, the Oxford Proficiency Test was administered to both groups. The aim was to determine, examine and compare the way through which reading comprehension task is performed by the participants. The results of this test served the information needed as the pre-test. Besides, the administration of this proficiency test could assure the researcher about the homogeneity of the participants in both groups. The reliability of the test was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha which signified a relatively high reliability index (r=0.79). The descriptive statistics of the language proficiency test and the reliability of the sub-tests of writing, reading, speaking, listening, and use of English are shown in Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics of the Oxford Proficiency Test

Oxford Proficiency Test	N	Mean	SD	SEM	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness	Reliability
Experimental	34	80.90	7.58	1.48	-0.114	0.46	
Control	26	78.55	10.26	2.16	-0.089	0.42	0.79

As it is shown in Table 2, the results of skewness in the proficiency test analysis indicated that both distributions are normal because the ratio for the experimental group is -0.168 and for the control group the ratio equals -0.189 both of which fall within the range of -1.96 and +1.96.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics of the Subtests of Oxford Proficiency Test

Test	N	Mean	SD	Reliability
Writing	50	3.497	0.692	0.93
Reading	50	25.900	3.759	0.78
Speaking	50	12.860	1.457	0.76
Listening	50	19.440	2.734	0.76

Table 3 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the subtests of the Oxford proficiency test. The table depicts the mean values, standard deviations and the reliability index of the test. The performance of both experimental and control groups on the proficiency test marked remarkable similarities. However, to ensure that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their reading ability, the participants' scores on the reading section of the test was considered as their reading pretest.

Table 4 provided information on the reading pretest. It has summarized the results of a *t*-test which was calculated between the mean score of the reading pretest in experimental group (M=26.500, SD=3.408) and the control group (M=25.250, SD=4.078) to check whether there was any significant differences between the reading means of the two groups. The descriptive statistics of the reading pre-test are presented in the Tables 4.4 and 4.5 respectively.

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics of the Reading Pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEM	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness
Experimental	34	26.500	3.408	0.668	-0.538	0.456
Control	26	25.250	4.078	0.832	0.080	0.472

As shown in Table 4, the results of the skewness of the reading pre-test analysis indicated ratio levels of -1.179 and 0.169 for the experimental and the control groups respectively and both fall within the range of -1.96 and +1.96. This indicates that both groups' scores are normally distributed.

Table 5 Comparing Means of the Reading Pre-test

Levene's Test for Equality of variances			t-Test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	T	Sig. (2-tailed)	Df	Mean Difference
Equal Variance Assumed	1.452	0.234	1.179	0.244	48	1.250

As Table 5 illustrates, with the variance assumed equal [F=1.452, p=0.234], the t-test results indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the reading pre-test, t(48)=1.179, p=0.244 (two-tailed) and thus, the two groups belonged to the same population before the treatment.

After the treatment, a reading test which was utilized in pre-test again was used for the reading post-test. Again, the results of the skewness analysis signified that both distributions met the normality assumption (the ratio of -0.151 and -0.224 for the experimental and the control groups respectively falling within the range of -1.96 and +1.96). The descriptive statistics of the experimental group (M=30.269, SD=2.600) and the control group (M=26.583, SD=2.872) are demonstrated in Table 6.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics of the Reading Post-test

Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEM	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness
Experimental	26	30.269	2.600	0.510	-0.069	-0.106
Control	24	26.583	2.872	0.586	0.456	0.472

The means of the two groups on the reading post-test were compared through another t-test. As Table 7 shows, F=0.01, p=0.970 confirmed the equality of the variances and t(48)=4.762, p=0.00(two-tailed) suggested that the mean difference 3.685 is significant which proves that the treatment of applying a number of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies has been effective.

Table 7 Comparing Means of the Reading Post-test

Levene's Test for Equality of variances			t-test for Equality of Means				Eta Squared (η^2)
	F	Sig.	T	Sig. (2-tailed)	Df	Mean Difference	
Equal Variance Assumed	0.01	0.970	4.762	0.00	48	3.685	0.24

The results of data analyses demonstrated that there is statistically significant difference in pre- and post-tests of both experimental and control groups' performances in reading comprehension. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the experimental group had the participants who were categorized as more creative students, while the control group was comprised of less creative participants. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a direct relationship between the creativity level and using cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension. As such, both research questions of the study which predict no relationship between creativity level and the use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies are rejected. However, in order to specify the exact point of difference between the experimental and control groups' performances before and after the treatment, and to determine the relationship direction more carefully and precisely, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was calculated for both groups before and after the treatment. Tables 8 and 9 represent the results of Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the participants' creativity level and the extent to which they utilize cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension in the experimental group.

Table 8 Correlation between Creativity Level and Use of Cognitive Strategies in the Experimental Group

		Use of Cognitive Strategies
Students' Creativity Level	Pearson Correlation	.391**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N (E)	34

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown above in Table 8, the correlation coefficient between two variables of the creativity level of the participants of the experimental group and their use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension has been calculated and indexed. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between the creativity level of the participants and the extent to which they apply cognitive strategies in their reading comprehension tasks. The result indicate that the significance level for the use of cognitive strategies is .002 (Sig=.002<0.01) for those who are more creative. This finding signifies that there is a direct and statistically significant relationship between the creativity level and the utilization of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension. The same procedures were taken for the variable of metacognitive strategies. The results are tabulated below.

Table 9 Correlation between Creativity Level and Use of Metacognitive Strategies in the Experimental Group

		Use of Metacognitive Strategies
Students' Creativity Level	Pearson Correlation	.349**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006
	N (E)	34

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown above in Table 9, the correlation coefficient between two variables of the creativity level of the participants of the experimental group and their use of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension has been calculated and indexed. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between the creativity level of the participants and the extent to which they apply metacognitive strategies in their reading comprehension tasks. The result indicate that the significance level for the use of metacognitive strategies is .006 (Sig=.006<0.01) for those who are more creative. This finding signifies that there is a direct and statistically significant relationship between the creativity level and the utilization of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension.

Discussion

As mentioned earlier, Brown (2007) has mentioned that "Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself" (p.134). Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies.

O'Malley *et al*. (1985) state that metacognitive is an expression to indicate an executive function, strategies which involve planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, observing of one's production or comprehension, correcting your own mistakes, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Based on O'Malley's classification, advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation are included among the major metacognitive strategies.

The results of this study indicate that creativity and the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension interact strongly to allow an individual to use information in new and different ways. They are connected in that creative thought processes allow the thinker to focus on different elements in a situation and to combine those features into something that is unique. This connection requires the students to become aware of stimulation and then to process and organize what they have noticed.

The results of this study approve previous research studies which demonstrated that many factors affect the choice learning strategies. Those factors ranged from biological factors such as sex and age to psychological factors such as degree of awareness, learning style and creativity (Zare & Nooreen, 2011; Khamkhien, 2010; Rahimi, *et al*. 2008; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2007; Green and Oxford, 1995; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989). Existing research has shown that professional readers make choices as to what to read.

With regard to the relationship between language learning strategies and creativity, the results confirmed the findings of the study conducted by Rezaei and Almasian (2007) which attempted to explore the relation-

ship between language learning strategies, creativity, and language proficiency. The participants were 29 freshman students studying English Language and Literature at the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Tehran University. Results showed that creativity and degree of strategy use were correlated. Moreover, a significant correlation was discovered between creativity and language proficiency.

Tercanlioglu (2004) proved that when readers encounter comprehension problems, they use both cognitive and metacognitive strategies to overcome their difficulties. Different learners seem to approach reading tasks in different ways and some of these ways appear to lead to better comprehension (Tercanlioglu, 2004, p.2).

Conclusions

Findings suggested that the two variables of the creativity level of the participants of the experimental group and their use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension are significantly and directly related. The results indicate that there is a significant relationship between the creativity level of the participants and the extent to which they apply cognitive and metacognitive strategies in their reading comprehension tasks. The significance level for the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies is .002 (Sig=.002<0.01) and .006 (Sig=.006<0.01) respectively, for those who are more creative. This finding signifies that there is a direct and statistically significant relationship between the creativity level and the utilization of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension.

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INVESTIGATING POLITENESS TRANSFER STRATEGIES IN TRANSLATION OF JAIN AUSTEN'S NOVELS WITH A FOCUS ON NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT
Emergence of pragmatics in translation studies has raised a lot of research questions in the area. One of the debatable issues in translation of pragmatics is politeness theory. Politeness theory, as proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) focuses mostly on verbal elements of language and little has been done on nonverbal aspects of politeness. This study investigated the nonverbal elements in literary texts and related translation problematic issues in this respect. Related data was collected from two English novels "Sense and Sensibility" and "Emma" by Jane Austen and then compared with their Persian translations. The results showed the importance of translating nonverbal politeness acts, the problems which translators may face, the methods translators took in rendering these nonverbal acts and the most frequent types of nonverbal politeness acts.

1. Introduction

Translation studies have expanded recently and now is known as an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary phenomenon. Lots of research studies have been conducted regarding the influence of other fields of study such as linguistics, philosophy, etc. on translation studies. Linguistic features and models of translation have been of vital importance, especially in the second stage of translation studies. Many research studies have tried to find out the connection between linguistics and translation by analyzing translations in accordance with linguistic features of source texts and target texts. With the emergence of cultural turn in translation studies the focus of this field changed and such macro factors as translator, history, culture and politics in target contexts became the focus of translation studies (Munday, 2001).

One of the debatable cultural aspects of language is politeness. Leech (1983: 6) defines politeness as "the study of meaning in relation to speech situations". Politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) has been an issue of interest for many researchers. Politeness and face-saving acts were developed mainly by Brown and Levinson. In fact, they extended Goffman's (1967) face theory. As discussed by Mills (2003), politeness is the speaker's intention to reduce the face threats of the face threatening acts toward another.

Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that politeness has a socially basic role: It can monitor potential conflicts among the communicators. They hold that their theory concerns a universal feature existing in all languages. However, the politeness of an utterance is evaluated by culture-bound norms and values. In other words, the actions which threat "face" or the politeness strategies that are used in a context will vary across culture to culture. Generally speaking, it is strongly recommended that people be polite in their communication with those whom they do not know very well so they are accepted and valued as a member of a social group. Meyerhoff (2006) asserts that the politeness theory provides a criterion for distinguishing similarities and differences between cultures in the way of using politeness in the society.

In this theory the main focus is on verbal communication and little attention has been paid to nonverbal communication. Since nonverbal communication is considered as a culture-bound matter, more attention is needed to be paid to it.

Poyatos (1997) believes that nonverbal communication descriptions in literary works play an important role in characterization and in the creation of fictional realism and it has led to concerns about the effectiveness of translation in preserving their functions. Indeed, these nonverbal elements sometimes constitute a major translation problem. The complexity involved in translating the descriptions of body language arises out of the nature of the translation exercise.

1.1 Statement of the problem

Traditionally seen as a sub-branch of linguistics and comparative literature, the field of translation studies has been gradually enriched by other relevant disciplines since the 1980s. Many approaches recently changed the direction of translation studies. The study of pragmatics has had a great influence on translation studies. One of the significant issues in pragmatics is politeness principle which contains cultural connotations.

One of the most important aspects of politeness theory is nonverbal behavior which has been ignored to some extent. According to Goffman (1967) a great deal of facework occurs through expressive behavior and nonverbal channels of communication. Therefore, the interpretation of polite utterances is not just through verbal channels of communication and non verbal acts play an important role in understanding these utterances to save face.

The present study moves beyond a purely linguistic theory of politeness to examine the communication of politeness through nonlinguistic channels. Brown and Levinson's (1987) work on politeness described the linguistic strategies individuals use to communicate face threats and examined how power, distance, and size of imposition affect strategy usage. The present study attempted to explore nonlinguistic cues used to communicate politeness.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

This study tries to investigate the importance of translation of nonverbal communication in relation to politeness theory in literary texts. To achieve the goal of the research two English novels by Jane Austen named "*Sense and sensibility*" and "*Emma*" will be compared and contrasted with their two Persian translations.

Findings of this research are mapped to improve the quality of translation by turning translators' attention to the importance of nonverbal communication in transferring politeness strategies from one language to another when translating. The finding can also be a help to translation teachers to turn students' attention to the role that nonverbal politeness act play in translation.

1.3. Research Questions

Considering the issue of nonverbal politeness acts in literary works the following two main questions were raised to be answered in this study:

1. To what extent are nonverbal communications as politeness strategies translatable in literary texts?
2. To what extent does mistranslation of nonverbal politeness acts cause problems in translation?

2. Review of Related Literature

Today the world doesn't look that big and huge as it seemed to be in the past. According to Y. Wang, people are forced to live in this global world. With the increase of globalization, intercultural communication has become more significant than ever before. (Wang Y., 2006).

According to Watts, Ide, and Ehlich (2005) politeness helps us to have effective social living. Ferguson (1976, 138) defines politeness as formulas in terms of "interpersonal rituals". The social relationships outlined through history in near Eastern and later European societies show the manner in which the forms of politeness gradually evolved in specific conditions.

Yu (2003) states that "although the core ideas in the previous politeness theories are claimed as universal, it is not necessarily the case that the conception of politeness and the degree of politeness are the same among different cultures" (p. 5).

The politeness theory was developed by Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson (1978/1987) which was based on the data from different languages (e.g., Tzeltal; Tamil). This theory was based on face and face needs. Goffman introduced the term face-work, which refers to a mechanism which is responsible for people's actions being consistent with face. People are expected to keep face of others during interaction. This face-keeping can be done in two kinds.

The realization of politeness principles in Persian was investigated by Akbari (2002). This study extracted and categorized the range of politeness strategies (positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record politeness) used by Persian mono-lingual speakers in certain situations and compared and contrasted them with those employed in English, based on the model proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987).

Ning (2003) studied the difference of English and Chinese norms of politeness and translation. The study elaborates on the content of politeness from the perspective of western pragmatics and social science as well as the connotation of politeness in traditional Chinese culture.

Shehab (2005) investigated the problems that exist in the translation of terms of address between Arabic and English. In order to do so, she studied difficult honorifics in a novel. Her study showed that relational terms of address are more difficult to translate than absolute ones.

Methven (2006) studied the difficulties in translating kinship address terms and honorific pronouns in Chinese and English. He reported that since there are large lexical gaps in translating Chinese family terms of address and honorifics into English, the only way for their translation is through the pragmatic translation of address terms into its simple deictic equivalent. (p. 3)

In another study by Alizadeh, (2008), differences between Iranian male and females in the use of politeness strategies was investigated. However, the question of the differences between male and female speakers has been explored by many researchers without arriving at any general agreement.

The effect of positive politeness strategies in business letters has been investigated by Jansen and Janssen (2010). According to this study, Brown and Levinson's (1987) typology of politeness strategies, derived from the basic wants of a model person, leaves the question unanswered as to what extent these strategies are perceived and evaluated as contributions to the quality of communication. In this paper, the researchers discuss the effects of adding and combining positive politeness strategies to letters denying claims to policy holders.

Yaqubi and Afghari (2011)investigated the problems associated with translation of requests made by sub-strategies of negative and off-record politeness and to analyze the students' translations in order to find the most frequently used politeness sub-strategies and to know how to unmask and reveal implicit and hidden meanings behind requests. It also sheds light on the applicability of Newmark's strategies on the translation of FTAs and by doing so, it will help the researcher to find the most frequent translation strategy for transferring the intended meaning of FTAs especially indirect requests.

Pishghadam and Navari (2012) studied the universality of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. They assert that one crucial factor that makes Brown and Levinson's (1987) model as a reliable source for analyzing politeness strategies may be its universality and the fact that almost all of our daily interactions are under their impact.

Another study based on politeness theory was conducted by Elmianvari and Kheirabadi (2013). This study was carried out to see if the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) was applicable to data elicited from EFL students attending a language institute in Iran. Students were asked to e-mail their teacher as a class activity and make a request in an appropriate and polite form. Different viewpoints regarding the status of request politeness perspective and also student-teacher relation in language classrooms in Iran were discussed.

3. Methodology
3.1 Materials

This study focuses on nonverbal politeness strategies that are used in the Source texts and compares them with two different Persian translations. Two novels by Jane Austen were selected with the following considerations: at first, effort was made to choose novels that were written by the same writer in a specific period of time because cultural aspects of language can be influenced by time and gender. The second factor was the translations. Since two translations were needed to be investigated these two novels were chosen to fulfill the needs of the research.

3.2 Procedure

Having considered politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), and according to the classification of nonverbal elements in literary texts mentioned by Poyatos (2008) the researcher tried to collect related data based on the scope of the study. This paper, through analyzing nonverbal politeness strategies in *Emma* and *Sense and Sensibility*, is intended to show the roles played by nonverbal forms of politeness in literary works.   Since the focus of the study was on nonverbal politeness strategies, based on what Poyatos (2008) has classified, paralinguistic behaviors and kinesic and proxemic behaviors were selected to

be investigate. According to Poyatos(2008), paralinguistic behaviors are mostly attached to words. Some examples are "harsh", "haughtily", "bitterly", etc. which are sometimes transcribed through punctuation. Poyatos believes that describing these behaviors is more difficult than describing a posture or gesture. He believes that proxemic behaviors are associated with movement. Here is an example:

"Oh, Mr.Watla!" She said gaily, holding out her smooth white arm on a level with her eyes and dropping her hand gracefully. (Desire, G, ⅠⅠ, cited in Poyatos, 2002, 51)

According to Poyatos (2008) kinesic behaviors are mostly related to facial expressions corresponding to certain voice characteristics. Following is an example of kinesic behaviors:

The Colonel took up his cup, saw there was nothing in it, and put it down firmly with a little chink. (Woolf, Y, 1880, cited in Poyatos, 2002, 51)

Poyatos (2002) believes that the handling of the cup is an example of kinesics or phono kinesics, which needs an accurate translation of the word "chink" which would denote the same sound.

As it was mentioned before, two Persian translations of *Emma* by Aghakhani (1362) and by Rezaee (1389) and two Persian translations of *Sense and Sensibility* by Karami (1374) and by Rezaee (1390) were chosen. At first, it was needed to select paragraphs from the two English novels for analysis; Nonverbal politeness strategies were considered in choosing texts from the novels. Next, the researcher tried to find the equivalent translated texts in two Persian translations. The selected texts were first compared and contrasted with their source texts and then compared and contrasted with their translations.

4.   Results

The data were collected through analyzing two translations of the novel "*Sense and Sensibility*" by different translators: Rezaee and Karami Far and two Persian translations of "*Emma*" by Rezaee and Aghakhani. These translations were analyzed to find cases of nonverbal face-threatening and face- keeping acts. The results showed that translators have tried to convey the same nonverbal massage in their translations, but there were some cases where the translators could not convey the exact nonverbal act in the target texts.

First, the percentage of nonverbal politeness acts which were presented in the first novel "*Sense and Sensibility*" and its two Persian translations will be shown. Table 4.1 shows the acts that have threatened the face of the addressor (sender of the act) or the addressee (receiver of the act), and those which keep the face of the addressor or the addressee.

	Source text	Translation by Rezaee	Translation by Karimi Far
Acts that Keep Face of Addressor	20	20	16
Acts that Lose Face of Addressor	18	18	16
Acts that Keep Face of Addressee	16	16	14
Acts that Lose Face of Addressee	16	16	11

Table 4.1 Face keeping and threatening acts in "Sense and Sensibility" and its two Persian translations

In Karami Far's translation some paragraphs were omitted. Therefore, no translations were found, but there were some cases that translator has preferred the deletion of nonverbal acts. Table 4.2 shows the percentage of translated and deleted non verbal politeness acts in Karimi far's translation.

	Karimi Far's Translation
Translated Nonverbal Politeness Acts	58
Deleted Nonverbal Politeness Acts	2
Omitted Paragraphs	10

Table 4.2. Translation of Nonverbal Acts by Karami Far

In the following, there are some examples of each case. First the source text is presented; the first translation is by Rezaee and the second one is by Karami Far.

Translated nonverbal politeness act:

- *Turning from her at intervals to press Colonel Brandons hand, with a look which spoke at once her gratitude, and her conviction of his sharing with herself in the bliss of the moment. (260)*

- چند بار به طرف کلنل برندون برگشت و دستش را فشرد ، با نگاهی که هم حاکی از تشکر بود و هم حاکی از این که می داند او هم در این لحظه

در احساس خوش او سهیم است . (رضایی، ص ۳۵۶)

قدردانی نموده ،و ...(کرمی فر،ص۳۵۵) - ... به نوبت دست کلنل براندون را نیز می فشرد ، و با آن نگاه خود که سپاسگذاری را می رساند

As it is clear in this example both translators have tried to translate the non verbal act.

-… with a more **warm, though less public , assurance** , from john to Elinor ….(233)

- جان **با لحنی گرم تر و خودمانی تر اطمینان داد** که .... (رضایی، ص ۳۲۱)

- به النور **اصمینان داد** که...(کرمی فر،ص۳۱۱)

Here Karami Far has not translated the nonverbal act but Rezaee has translated it.

- He entered the room **with a look of self consequence , slightly bowed to the ladies , without speaking a word, and , after briefly surveying them and their apartments , took up a newspaper from the table , and continue to read it as long as he staid**.(85)

- **سری برای خانم ها تکان داد بی آنکه کلمه ای به زبان بیاورد ، و بعد کمی آن ها و خانه را برانداز کرد** .(رضایی ،ص ۱۱۹)

In this part the whole paragraph has been omitted in Karami Far's translation.

Table 4.3 is based on the second novel "Emma" and its two translations. The percentage of Face keeping and Face threatening acts are shown.

	Source Text	Translation by Rezaee	Translation by Aghakhani
Keep Face of Sender	14	14	5
Lose Face of Sender	15	15	5
Keep Face of Addressee	29	29	5
Lose Face of Addressee	12	12	2

Table.4.3. Face keeping and threatening acts and its two Persian translations

Table.4.4 will show the percentage of translated non verbal acts, deleted ones, and omitted paragraphs in Aghakhani's translation.

	Aghakhani's Translation
Translated Nonverbal Acts	17
Deleted Nonverbal Acts	21
Omitted Paragraphs	32

Table.4.4. Translation of Nonverbal Acts by Aghakhani

Further examples are presented here to elaborate table 4.4 better. The first translation is by Rezaee and the second one is by Aghakhani.

Translated nonverbal acts:

- He **stopped again, rose again, and seemed quite embarrassed**. (224)

- باز **ساکت شد ، باز بلند شد ، کاملاً هم دستپاچه به نظر** می رسید .(رضایی ،ص ۳۰۰)

- او **با تردید و بی میلی برخاست و بطرف پنجره رفت**.(آقاخانی ،ص۱۲۱)

- …Harriet **blushed and smiled** …(27)

- هریت **قرمز شد ، لبخند زد** ، ...(رضایی ،ص ۴۵)

- هاریت **سرخ شده و با لبخند** گفت...(آقاخانی ،ص۱۶)

In the above translations the two translators have conveyed the nonverbal acts in their translations.

Deleted nonverbal politeness acts:

- Emma's politeness **was at hand directly, to say, with smiling interest.** (132)

- اما بلافاصله نزاکت به خرج داد و **با علاقه لبخندی زد** ...(رضایی ،ص ۱۸۱)

- گفت...(آقاخانی ،ص۵۷)

This example shows that Rezaee has translated the nonverbal act but Aghakhani has not translated it.

Omitted paragraphs:

- … Made it expedient to compress all her friendly and all her congratulatory sensations in to a **very, very earnest shake of the hand**. (394)

- مجبور شد همه ی احساسات دوستانه و آرزوهای خوشی را که می خواست به زبان بیاورد خلاصه کند **در فشردن بسیار صمیمانه دستش**.

(رضایی ،ص ۵۱۹)

Here the whole paragraph has been omitted by Aghakhani but Rezaee has translated the related nonverbal act.

In figure 1 the data analysis shows the translation of nonverbal acts. Four factors were taken into consideration: translation of nonverbal acts to the same nonverbal acts in the target text, translation of nonverbal acts to verbal ones, omission of non verbal acts, and translation of nonverbal acts to a different nonverbal act in target language. Two translations of "*Sense and Sensibility*" by Rezaee and Karimi Far are compared first.
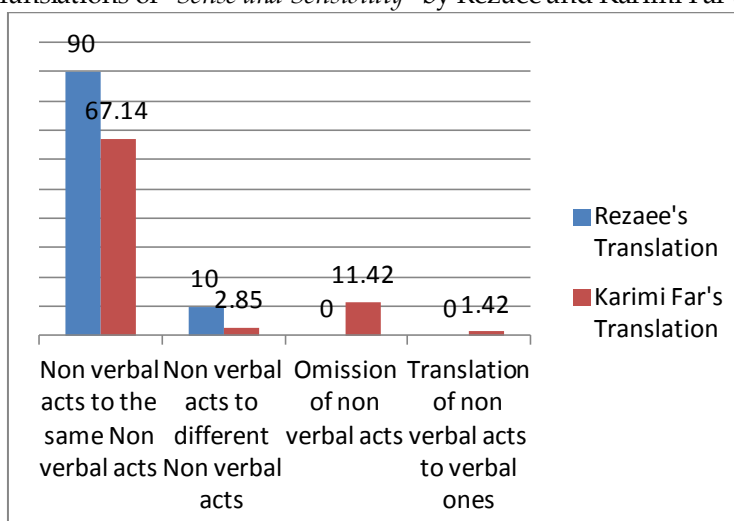
Figure 4.1 Translation of Nonverbal Acts in "*Sense and Sensibility*"

As it was mentioned before, in 14.28 percent of collected data translated by Karimi far, the whole paragraph has been omitted. Here are some examples for each case. The first translations are by Rezaee and the second ones are by Karimi Far.

Translation of nonverbal act to the same non verbal act:
- His **colored increased ; and with his eyes fixed on the ground** he only replied .(62)

- ویلوبی **قرمز تر شد ، نگاهش را به پایین دوخت** و فقط گفت ..(رضایی ،ص ۸۷)

- **رنگ صورتش غلیظ تر شد ، و با نگاه ثابتش که به زمین خیره مانده بود** فقط پاسخ داد...(کرمی فر ،ص۱۰۲)

Translation of a nonverbal act to a different nonverbal act:
- … Willoughby….she soon caught his eye, and **he immediately bowed** … (136)

- ویلوبی زود چشمش به الینور افتاد و **بلافاصله سر تکان داد** ،... (رضایی، ص ۱۸۹)

- کمی بعد نگاهش به او افتاد ، و ویلوف بای **با اشاره سر تعظیم نمود** ،...(کرمی فر ،ص ۱۹۸)

Omission of nonverbal acts:
- With a **more warm , though less public , assurance** , from john to Elinor ….(233)

- جان با **لحنی گرم تر و خودمانی تر** اطمینان داد که .... (رضایی ،ص ۳۲۱)

- به النور اصمینان داد که...(کریمی فر ،ص۳۱۱)

Translation of nonverbal acts to verbal ones:
  - Elinor was disappointed too; but at the same time her **regard for Colonel Brandon ensured his welcome with her**. (126)

- الینور نیز سر خورده شد. اما ، چون به کلنل برندن احترام می گذاشت ، از **او به خوبی استقبال** کرد. (رضایی ،ص ۱۷۵)

- النور هم نا امید گشته اما در همان لحظه احترام او نسبت به کلنل براندون باعث شد **به او خوش آمد بگوید**...(کرمی فر ،ص۱۸۰)

As the above examples show the translators have chosen different ways to render the translation of nonverbal acts.

Figure 4.2 shows the percentage of ways of translating nonverbal politeness acts in two translations of "*Emma*" by Rezaee and Aghakhani.
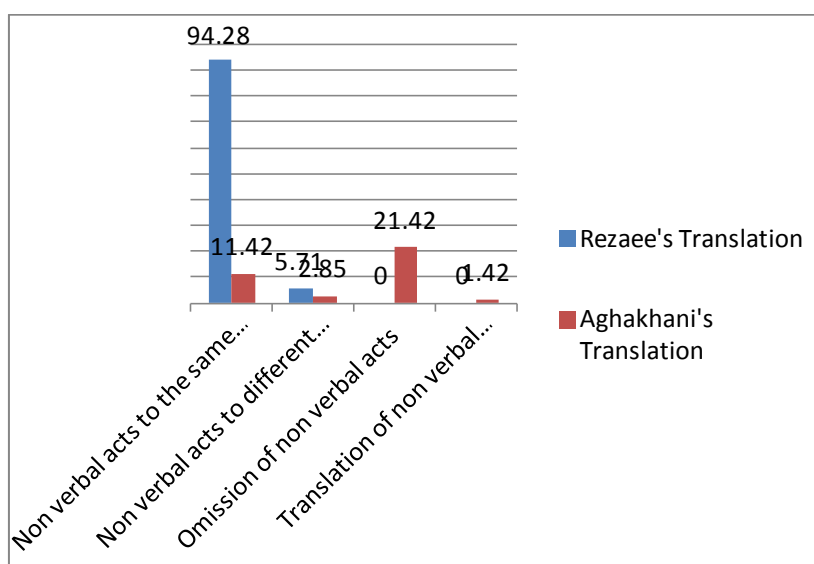
Figure 4. 2 Translation of Nonverbal Acts in "Emma"

According to what was said before, some paragraphs were completely omitted by Aghakhani which formed about 46 percent of collected data. As figure 4.2 Indicates no cases of omission or translation of non verbal acts to verbal ones were seen in Rezaee's translation. In the following, some examples are presented for a better understanding of figure 5.6

Translation of nonverbal act to the same nonverbal act:

- Harriet **was silent**. (42)

- هریت **ساکت ماند** .(ص ۶۵)

- هاریت **جوابی نداد**.(ص ۲۱)

In this sentence, like the source text, both translators have rendered the nonverbal act, which is **silence** here, to the same nonverbal act in the target texts.

Translation of nonverbal act to other non verbal acts:

- … (**with a gallant bow**). (164)

- ... **سری به علامت ادب خم کرد** و ادامه داد ...(ص ۲۲۲)

- No Translation(ص۷۵)

In this example "bow' in the source text has been translated into a "nod" which conveys the same meaning in Rezaee's translation, but Aghakhani has not translated this part.

Omission of non verbal acts:

- Emma's **politeness was at hand directly, to say, with smiling interest. (**132)

-اما بلافاصله **نزاکت به خرج داد و با علاقه لبخندی زد** ...(ص ۱۸۱)

- گفت... (ص۵۷)

Here Rezaee has translated the same nonverbal act but Aghakhani has deleted the nonverbal act in her translation.

5.   Discussion

Based on Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness (1987) face-threatening acts are mostly verbal but can be conveyed through tone, inflection, etc. As it was mentioned in the review of literature, little has been done on nonverbal aspects of this theory. The present study tried to bring nonverbal aspects of politeness theory in literary texts into focus. In order to locate these nonverbal elements first a complete definition of nonverbal acts in literary text was needed to be presented. Poyatos' (2008) presentation of nonverbal components of narrative texts was used. The related nonverbal acts were chosen form two English novels "*Sense and Sensibility*" and "*Emma*" by Jane Austen and then were compared and caparisoned with their two counterpart translations. The results were presented in previous chapter.

  As presented in Table 4.1, the frequency of face keeping and threatening acts of both addressor and addressee in Rezaee's translation of "*Sense and Sensibility* "and the source text were the same but Karami Far's translation was found to be different. On the other hand, Table 4.3, illustrates the difference between

Aghakhani's translation of "*Emma*" and the source text, regarding face keeping and threatening acts of both sender and addressee. Considering Rezaee's translations we can conclude that nonverbal politeness acts in literary texts are mostly translatable. Findings of Karami Far and Aghakhani's translation show that if translators do not find an adequate equivalent for a nonverbal politeness act the same effect will not be produced. Following are some examples for a better understanding of the issue.

It is clear that Rezaee has rendered translation of nonverbal politeness acts to the same nonverbal politeness acts in source text that is Persian; He has translated them into different nonverbal politeness acts. The former can be considered as Yuan's Foreinizing strategy and the later can seen as Yuan's Substitution strategy. No cases of other strategies were found in this research.

As much as the findings of the study show and based on what Poyatos (2008) points out, some nonverbal politeness acts in literally text can be presented as below.

"Silence" is one of the most frequent non verbal acts which were seen in both novels and it could keep or threaten the face of sender or addressee.

Other non verbal acts which were found in this study include body movements, way of look, facial expressions, etc.

6.   Conclusion

This comparative analysis located within Translation studies from a cultural viewpoint can help translators to pay more attention to nonverbal politeness acts in rendering literary texts. Since, translators, play an important role in conveying the writer's message, it is necessary to bear in mind the importance of culturally different nonverbal acts and producing the same politeness equivalent in target language.

The findings indicate nonverbal acts as well as verbal acts are crucial in translation. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) since politeness theory is universal and every language with every culture we will face this theory. Therefore it is important how to convey this cultural issue.

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THE IMPACT OF CONFERENCING ON EFL LEARNERS' CRITICAL THINKING

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ABSTRACT
Since Critical thinking has been an important focus of psychological and educational research during the last decades. Various methods of promoting EFL learner Critical thinking have been attempted, and different theoretical approaches have been proposed. Consequently, the main goal of the present study was to investigate the impact of Conferencing on EFL learner Critical thinking. Therefore, two groups each with 30 elementary learners selected as the experimental and control group. In the experimental group, Conferencing was practiced. The conferences conducted orally and the teacher gave students enough time to speak about their problems provides students appropriate feedback. The participants also were asked to take part in the whole classes and individual conferences after writing each text. The participants of control group received their scored writings without any oral and written feedback by the teacher. Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (CTA) questionnaire was used as the measure of learners' Critical Thinking .The result of the study indicated that there was significant difference between performance of the experimental group and the control group on the post test and learners' Critical Thinking increases as an effect of Conferencing.

KEYWORDS: Self-assessment, Conferencing, EFL learners, Critical thinking.

Introduction
Critical thinking is said to entails such features as interpretation, analysis, assessment, presumption, explanation, and self-regulation. Halpern(2003) mentioned that "critical thinking is one of the cognitive abilities that "increase[s] the probability of a desirable outcome, … the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods and making decisions" (p.6). According to Chaffee (1988) critical thinking is "our active purposeful and organized efforts to make sense of world by carefully examining our thinking, and the thinking of others, in order to clarify and improve our understanding (p. 29)".
As Brookfield (1991) says "Critical Thinking involves recognizing and researching assumptions that undergird thoughts and actions (p 17)". He suggest that critical thinking entail research skills, being able to scrutinize the source of our knowledge, and how we use it in making decision.
Critical thinking described by Ivie (2001) in terms of thoughtful practice enabling learners to "establish clear and logical connections between beginning premises, relevant facts and warranted conclusions" (Ivie, 2001, p.10).
Similarly, newly, in attaining academic objectives the ideas relating to critical thinking have become a principal examination for EFL and ESL researchers and practitioners. Critical thinking skills are teachable and can be supported through different techniques and activities applied in the classroom setting that have appeared from these studies. For example, Dantas-Whitney (2002) pointed out that the use of thoughtful audiotape journals improved ESL University students' critical thinking.
A more recent and growing line of research investigate the differential methods and strategies for finding a way to increase learners' critical thinking. One of which might be conferencing.
According to Genesee and Upsure (1996) conferences are different from other forms of assessment in that "they focus directly on learning process and strategies" (p.110).

Brown and Hudson (1998) asserted the advantages of conferences are that teachers can use them as:
- Foster student reflection on their own learning process;
- Help students develop better self-images;
- Elicit language performances on particular tasks, skills or other language points;
- Inform, observe, mold and gather information about students (p.663).

Methodology

The participants were 60 both male and female adult English learners all elementary studying English in 2 classes. In one, conferencing was practiced and the other class served as the control group (didn't receive any special treatment). None of the candidates knew that they were part of a research project so there was a kind of randomization to ensure the validity of the results. The Persian version of Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTQ) was administered in class prior to the study as a pre-test and after the implementation span at the end of one semester. Regarding validity, the Watson-Glaser test enjoys all areas of face, content, criterion and construction validity (Mirzai, 2012). In the current study, the Persian version of the Watson-Glaser test, Form A (WGCTA-FA) was run to measure the participants' critical thinking. The test consists of five subsections, namely drawing inferences, recognizing assumptions, making deductions, interpreting evidence, and evaluating arguments, each comprising 16 items. As said by Mohammadyari (2002), this test and its subscales do have reliability and validity in Iranian culture. To analyze the reliability of the questionnaire, split-half reliability estimate was utilized. With the adapted version in Iran, the reliability was found to be 0.98 and the results of the factor analysis provided some support for the inventory hypothesized structure (Mohammadyari, 2002). The test-retest reliability of the original version of this critical thinking appraisal (r = 0.81) has been reported by (Glaser 1980), and the reliability coefficient of its Farsi version has been estimated by Cronbach's Alpha to be (α = 0.85) in **(**Faravani 2006).

Table.1: five subsections in the Critical Thinking Questionnaire

Section	Number of items	Focus	
Subsection 1	16 items	Drawing inferences	
Subsection 2	16 items	Recognizing assumptions	
Subsection 3	16 items	Making deductions	
Subsection4	16 items	Interpreting evidence	
Subsection 5	16 items	Evaluating arguments	

To ensure that the groups are not significantly different in terms of CT, the Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTQ) was administered as a pretest to both groups and the data obtained were analyzed using independent t-test (table.2).The results show that there is no significant difference between the groups (.84>.05)

Table: 2. statistics for CTQ as a pretest.

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
VAR00001	**Control**	30	72.10	6.20	2.95	.91	8	.84
	EXP	30	73.00	20.02	3.65			

Different subsections of the CT questionnaire used in the study were analyzed using t-test.

Statistical Data Analysis of Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTA) Subsections

To find out whether the participants' critical thinking was fostered, an independent samples t-test was administered. The CTA was used to the group before and after the treatment span, therefore the mean value of the post-test in each subsection of the CAT in the control group could be compared to the mean value of the experimental group in the post-test. The posttest mean scores of each subsection in each group were compared and the results are presented below.

Table. 3: Statistics for Subsections of CTQ

Subsections		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig.(2tailed)
Subsections 1	Cnt	30	51.53	10.57	1.93	.56	58	.000
	Exp	30	62.06	9.46	1.72			
Subsections 2	Cnt	30	5.23	1.73	.31	6.99	58	.000
	Exp	30	7.73	0.90	.16			
Subsections 3	Cnt	30	5.70	1.95	.35	4.34	58	.000
	Exp	30	7.40	.89	.16			
Subsections 4	Cnt	30	6.68	2.32	.42	1.34	58	.183
	Exp	30	7.70	2.07	.37			
Subsections 5	Cnt	30	8.03	1.29	.23	4.98	58	.000
	Exp	30	9.56	1.07	.19			

CTQ contains eighty subsections, each subsection with 16 questions. In the first subsection- drawing inferences, the Likert scale was used. Table3 indicates that there is a difference in the extent the students in groups are ready to participate in Conferencing activities when learning English after the implementation period.

In the second subsection- recognizing assumption-, as observed in Table 3, there seems to be an impact of Conferencing on critical thinking.

The third subsection of the questionnaire aims to discover making deductions of the learners. The dimension has got sixteen items too. As indicated in table.3 show that Conferencing has affect one the learners' critical thinking in this subsection.

The fourth subsection of the questionnaire evaluates the interpreting evidence of leaners in term of their critical thinking. As indicated in table.3 show that Conferencing can not affect the learners' critical thinking.

The fifth subsection aims to investigate the learners' attitudes toward the evaluating arguments. As the table.3 shows that Conferencing has positive impact on learners' critical thinking.

The CTQ used in this study aims to survey to what extent the students' CT can be increase. Consequently, it was favorable that the experimental group has higher scores which may show a stronger orientation toward Critical thinking after one semester implementation span. In this section, the Critical thinking of the participants will be analyzed as whole.

Table: 4. statistics for CTQ as a posttest.

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
VAR00001	**Control**	30	77.00	17.4	3.23	1.7	58	.007
	EXP	30	90.13	18.92	3.45			

As shown in table 4, the experimental (EXP) group has reached the mean of 90.13 which increased as compared to the mean of the control group which is 77.00. Also the significance of .007 which is less than the alpha decision level (.05) is an indication of the significant difference between the groups as a whole.

Conclusion

The study aimed to investigate the impact of Conferencing on EFL learners' critical thinking in Asian communities who might be teacher center.

In a research conducted by Yeh (2004) studied the effect of a computer simulation program on developing student teachers' thoughtful thinking. The conclusion disclosed that computer simulation is an efficient instrument for teaching general critical thinking skills.

Likewise, Liaw (2007) in his study displayed that the achievement of content-based approach encourages EFL learner's critical thinking skills. Briefly the conclusions of the studies verified Davidson and Dunham (1997) argument that critical thinking skills could be taught as part of EFL teaching. Moreover, as Davidson (1998) recorded, because "part of the English teacher's task is to prepare learners to interact with native speakers who value explicit comment, intelligent criticism, and intellectual assertion" (p. 121), familiarizing learners to critical thinking is even more vital for L2 teachers than L1 teachers (Davidson, 1998). He supposed that "if we do not, our students may well flounder when they are confronted with necessity of thinking critically, especially in an academic setting" (p. 121).

The present study tries to investigate a way to increase learner critical thinking in an Asian context. Conferencing was practiced as a way to develop learner critical thinking. The results of the study indicate that Conferencing can enhance learner critical thinking in general and in all subsections except subsection four. Develops some of the subsections and not all, it can be resulted that Conferencing causes to increase EFL learners' critical thinking.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-REGULATION AND CRITICAL THINKING AMONG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
The present paper investigated the relationship among self-regulation and critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners. To attain the purpose of the study, 40 EFL learners from three language schools were selected to participate in the study. It was determined that they were at the intermediate-level of language proficiency. The participants were requested to complete the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) (Brown, Miller & Lawendowski, 1999) and the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) (Facione & Facione, 1992). Data analyses indicated that there was a link between self-regulation and critical thinking among the participants. The findings have implications for pedagogy as well as further research.

KEYWORDS: Self-regulation, Critical thinking, EFL learners.

1.   Introduction
Reforms in the area of education and teaching have emphasized the importance of educational psychology in the learning and teaching processes. In educational psychology, theorists are paying more attentions to the learning styles as ways in which students can increase their level of achievement. In addition, there has been a growing interest in learner autonomy as well as learner independence. This has lead to emphasis on self-regulation and CT as two most important constructs in this regard, because a self-regulated person who can think critically, can learn more effectively and easily in a shorter period of time than a person who does not possess there traits (Dickinson, 1987; Zimmerman, 2000). The role of self-regulation and critical thinking in improving academic success of students are emphasized in a large number of studies (e.g. Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner,2000; Zimmerman, 2000; Halpern,2002; Duron, et al., 2006; Schraw, Crippen & Hartley, 2006**).**
In addition, in our country, Iran, some research studies have been done which have investigated the relationship between self-regulation and CT (e.g. Ghanizadeh, 2011; Ghanizadeh & Mirzaee, 2012). In sum, the major purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between EFL students' self-regulation and CT.

2.   Review of the literature
2.1. Self-regulation
Facione (1998) defines self regulation as the ability to self-examination and self-correction that can be as simple as asking "How am I doing?" or "Have I missed anything important?" He believes it improves critical thinking. Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) define self-regulation as learners' self-generated thought, feelings and behaviors which are organized systematically toward achievement of educational goals.
 "Although there are various theoretical models of self-regulation, most frameworks assume
that self-regulated learners engage in the use of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies for learning" (Wolters & Pintrich, 1998 as cited in Phan, 2010). Zimmerman (2008) claimed that self-regulation is a proac-

tive process that enables learners to acquire academic skill, for example goal setting, choosing strategies, and self-monitoring of one's own progress.

Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) believe that self-regulation changes during the life span, like other characteristics of human being. Besides, Azevedo et al. (2010, as cited in Schraw, 2010) claim that self-regulation is a dynamic process that constantly changes over time. So, it needs different varieties of measurement strategies that span all phases of self-regulation as learners' preparation for learning, construct meaning, monitor, and integrate what they have learned.

2.2. Critical thinking

Nowadays, CT is one of the main concepts under consideration in education. "The concept of critical thinking arises from the practice of reflective thinking, where this construct has been shown to relate positively to students' academic success (Lee & Loughran, 2000 as cited in Phan, 2010). CT is not a new concept; its root goes back to Socrates' ideas about teaching approach 2500 years ago. He believed that the realities of things were different from what they were in appearance and to see and understand the reality of things the human mind should be trained. During 15th and 16th centuries a large number of European scholars tried to employ CT about different concepts like human nature, religion, art and so on. They discussed that this kind of thinking needed to analyze evaluate and judge. In the 20th century, CT was investigated more seriously and after that till now its importance is increasingly emphasized (Paul, Elder & Bartell, 1997). Nowadays, it is widely recognized that CT has become a necessary ingredient in all educational levels. Educators emphasized that one of the desirable goals of education is students' ability to think critically (Hongladarom, 2002). More recently, considerable research studies has been directed to understand the process of critical thinking, and how it may fit into the main framework of self-regulated learning and motivation (e.g., Leung & Kember, 2003; Phan, 2007, 2009, 2010).

Based on Schafersman (1991), developing CT is one of the aims of education which has often been neglected. As he maintains, an educational system should enable learners think effectively about different subject matters. This means that they should be taught "how to think". Having such a purpose in mind, CT provides an opportunity for students to " ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world to live in and act successfully in it" (p.2).

2.4. Self-regulation and critical thinking

Self-regulation and CT are among the most important elements discussed in recent related literature and are believed to be inter related because a self-regulated person who can think critically, can learn more effectively and easily in a shorter period of time than a person who does not possess these features (Dickinson, 1987; Zimmerman, 2000). There are some theoretical contentions including a relationship between self-regulation and CT in learning. For example, Phan (2010) believed that critical thinking can facilitate self-regulated learning. He added "critical thinking, as a cognitive practice, helps in self-regulation in learning (p.228). He claimed that CT is linked with the applying of higher-order strategies. One of these strategies is self- regulating strategies which used for analyzing information and evaluating class activities.

According to Facione (1998), critical thinkers may have a set of cognitive skills, such as self-regulation, interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference and explanation. In the field of education and instruction, Astleitner (2002) argued that in order to develop CT abilities effective programs are needed to support self-regulation activities.

Phan (2010) introduced critical thinking as a sub-process self-regulated learning that enables learners to change their mental abilities into performance outcome. In a similar vein, the self-regulation process may enable learners to acquire the academic skill of critical thinking, such as the ability to interpret, analyze, and evaluate (Ignatavicius, 2001, as cited in Phan, 2010). Critical thinking takes part in the cyclic cyclic process of self-regulation that included the sub-processes of self-efficacy beliefs, outcomes, intrinsic motivation, and goal setting (Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2002, 2008). "In this cyclic cyclic process of self-regulation the skill of critical thinking also situates in the metacognitive process of self regulated learning"(Phan, 2010, p. 285). Zimmerman (2008) suggested that critical thinking has a main role in the self-reflection phase processes. He explained that the engagement with critical thinking may help learners to take responsibility for their own learning and to improve self-efficacy beliefs when they face with quick decision making.

According to Butler (2002) the first thing for the improvement of self-regulation is developing students' capacity to analyze tasks and to analyze the task they need to employ CT. Watson and Glaser (2002) maintain

that the ability to thinking critically is directly related to other abilities, for instance, deduction of factual statements, finding main assumptions and interacting between them in a series of statements, interpreting and evaluating the context. And all of these abilities are interrelated with self-regulation according to Zimmerman's (2000) definition of self-regulation: "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals" (p. 14).

Ghanizadeh (2011) explored the possible relationship between self-regulation and CT ability of Iranian EFL teachers' in language institutes or not. The author used the 'Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal' and the 'Teacher Self-Regulation Scale' anonymously as instruments to collect data. The results supported the relationship between self-regulation and CT. Furthermore, there were positive correlations between teachers' self-regulation, their teaching experience, and their age.

In the same line, Ghanizadeh and Mirzaee (2012) also studied the relationship between self-regulation, CT ability in Iranian EFL learners and language achievement. The participants were asked to complete the Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal and the Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire. And also, the average grade of their previous term is earned. The results showed significant correlation between self-regulation and CT. Besides, the results indicated that self-regulation and CT of EFL learners' can predict the learners' language achievement to some extent.

3. Method
3.1. Participants

A total of 40 Iranian EFL learners participated in this study. They were students who were studying English at three different language schools; Mahde Zaban branch one, Mahde Zaban branch two and Ghazal Institute in Kermanshah, a city in the west of Iran. They were randomly selected among the students who were reported to be intermediate-level learners. The TOEFL test was explored to make sure whether the participants were homogeneous in terms of language proficiency. Students whose score were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were admitted to this program and were regarded as intermediate-level proficiency group. The age range participants varied from 18 to 23 years old. There were 29 females and 11 males. They were all native speakers of Persian and learners of English as a foreign language.

3.2. Instrumentation

The instruments that were used in this study consisted of: TOEFL Actual test, California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) (Facione & Facione, 1992), and the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) (Brown, Miller & Lawendowski, 1999).

In order to check the homogeneity of the two groups, first an Actual test of TOEFL (2004) was administered. The test involved 140 multiple-choice items. It had 3 parts; the first part was listening comprehension that included 50 items. The second part was structure and written expression including 40 items and the third part was reading comprehension with50 items. For each question one point was assigned and the time allocated to take this test was 100 minutes; 40 minutes for the first, 25 minutes for the second and 35 minutes for the third part.

To measure Critical Thinking the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) (Facione & Facione, 1992, as cited in Rezaee, et al., 2012) was used. The test involved 34 multi-choice questions. The reliability and validity of the test were reported to be reasonable. In fact, the test coefficient for reliability was .62. (Khalli & Hossein Zadeh, 2003, as cited in Rezaee, et al., 2012). This test measured 5 factors including Analysis, Evaluation, Inference, Inductive and Deductive Reasoning.

Another instrument was Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) (Brown, Miller & Lawendowski, 1999). The SRQ involved 63 items to assess the self-regulatory processes through self-report. These items were developed to answer each of the seven sub-scales of the SRQ. Sub-scales collected relevant information, evaluating the information and comparing it to the norms, triggering change, searching for options, formulating a plan, implementing the plan and assessing the plan's effectiveness that recycled to the first step. Students answered the items by indicating one of five choices ranging from a score of one to a score of five (on a Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree).

3.3. Procedures

As the first step, students who were studying at intermediate-level group in three language institutes were asked to participate in the study. The researcher asked the students not to write their names on the ques-

tionnaire so that no one would be aware of what each student's grade was. Therefore, a code was assigned to each learner. Moreover, the researcher emphasized the importance of the students' honest responses and real grades in reaching reliable outcomes of the study. The participants also were assured that their grades would not be used in any purpose other than this study. The TOEFL test was administered to make sure about homogeneity of students. Students were asked to answer the test in 100 minutes. The result of this test revealed that out of 60 students, 40 students whose score were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were homogeneous and chosen as the participants of the study.

As the next phase of the study, both groups were asked to answer the two questionnaires; California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) and Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ). They were given 50 minutes to answer the CCTST. Then the students rest for 15 minutes and after that they were given 60 minutes for SRQ.

3.4. Data analysis
In the next step, the data was analyzed. The date was analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics. All data were processed using version 17.0 SPSS software. Pearson correlation was used to analyze data to indicate the relationship between self-regulation and CT and, if any, to investigate the reliability of self-regulation and CT questionnaires, Corenbach's alpha formula through SPSS was explored.

4.   Results
This chapter is devoted to the description of the statistical analyses which were performed to answer the question formulated for the purpose of this research. The following analyses were done to answer the research question.

Q: Is there any relationship between EFL students' self-regulation and CT?

To investigate the relationship between EFL learners' CT and their self-regulation, a Pearson product-moment correlation was applied.

Table 1. Correlations between CT and self-regulation

		critical thinking	self regulation
critical thinking	Pearson Correlation	1	.604**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	40	40
self regulation	Pearson Correlation	.604**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	40	40

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on table 1, the Sig. is .00< .01. So the results of correlation revealed that there was a significant correlation between CT and self-regulation. Therefore, the fifth hypothesis was accepted.

To investigate the reliability of self-regulation and CT questionnaires the following analysis was done.

Table 2. Cronbach's alpha test

Variables	α
Self regulation	.76
Critical thinking	.71

Based on table 2, Cronbach's alpha (α) for self regulation and CT scales were calculated with the value presented (α= .76) and (α= .71). In both cases, (α) were higher than .60. It means that the self-regulation and CT questionnaires that were used in this research had acceptable reliable range.

5. Conclusion

The findings of this study proved that promoting EFL learners' CT abilities correlates with the self-regulation enhancement in the learners. Therefore, by focusing on activities linked to promoting CT abilities, the learners may improve their self-regulation as well.

The findings of this study provide practical implications and suggestions for EFL learners, teachers, educators and administrators to improve qualities of material, syllabus design and learning processes by cultivating the relationship between CT and self-regulation among EFL students. Furthermore, improving CT and self-regulation may have a great significance in helping learners to be autonomous language learners. Learners and teachers are recommended to develop and integrate the abilities related to self-regulation and CT in and out of the classroom context through different procedures such as self-assessment check list or other self-assessment techniques such as concept mapping, portfolio and journal writing. In sum, it is hoped that language teachers in EFL contexts will consider the significant role of self-regulation and CT in promoting self-directed learning.

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DIFFERENCES BETWEEN WEBSTER'S *DADDY LONG LEGS* TRANSLATION FOR PUBLICATION AND ANIMATION: INSIGHTS FROM VAN DIJK 'S IDEOLOGY FRAMEWORK OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT
Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is an analytic approach that attempts to reveal connections between language use, power and ideology of text and discourse. The integration of CDA into Translation Studies (TS) is a new field of research. The aim of the present paper is to find out differences between translation for the purpose of book publication and translation for the purpose of film dubbing according to van Dijk's ideology framework in CDA. In the present study, two different Persian translations of Jean Webster's novel *Daddy Long Legs* were critically analyzed against its original English text. One of the translations had been prepared for animation dubbing (the film tape script) and the other one for book publication. To do the analyses, some episodes from the animation and the equivalent chapters from the book were selected through purposive sampling and were then compared to the original text of the novel. The data observed were analyzed through chi-square test. Based on the ideology framework, the results showed that translating for the purpose of publication is different from that of dubbing (sig. = .000 , p< .05). In addition, the study revealed that ideology framework in CDA is more applicable to book publication than to animation dubbing, apparently because these two channels of communication have different audiences whose needs may demand different translation strategies.

KEYTERMS: Critical Discourse Analysis, Ideology, Translation, Animation Dubbing

1. Introduction
Unquestionably, communication plays a vital role in the presently globalizing world in all fields. Translation is a purposeful activity through which we will acquire essential information, different experiences, and different skills from different people who live all around the world with different races, cultures and languages. Critical Discourse Analysis is a linguistic discipline that attempts to reveal hidden meanings as the ideological loads of the discourse whether they are embedded in the Source Text (ST) or Target Text (TT). Discourse encompasses the use of spoken, written and signed language and multimedia forms of communication, and it is not restricted to non-fictional (e.g. stylistics) nor verbal (e.g. gesture and visual) materials.
In this study the researchers dealt with CDA as the guiding framework to signify any existing difference between translation as publication and as dubbing. Though these two channels of communication have different audiences, CDA studies the ways social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social context. The two main concerns of CDA are how powerful groups control the public discourse and what social consequences of such control and inequality are. According to van Dijk (1995) ideologies are formed, changed and reproduced largely through socially situated discourse and communication.

2. Review of literature

Translation as an act of communication involves implicit power (ideology) which is realized through language. A fundamental focus of critical discourse analysis is power, which is about relations of difference, and particularly about the effects of differences in social structures (Wodak, 2004). Two main methods of language transfer in use today through media are subtitling and revoicing. As Luyken (1991) points out, the goal of dubbing and subtitling is to carry out a fine balancing act between the creation of a new set of messages which are easily comprehensible to the viewer and with which he is comfortable.

In the 1980s, van Dijk (News Analysis, 1988) started to apply his discourse analysis theory to media texts, mainly focusing on the representation of ethnic groups and minorities in Europe. CDA provides facets to consider the relationships between discourse and society, text and context, and language and power (Fairclough 2001b; Luke 1995, 1996, 2002).

Chilton has a seminal work concentrated on the language of the nuclear arms debate (Chilton 1985). Iranian researchers also have conducted relevant researches to manifest the close link between discourse and ideological manipulations (e.g., Yarmohammadi, 2000, 2001).

The elements producing van Dijk's (1995) Ideology model are briefly reviewed in this section:

Surface structures: Variable forms of expression at the level of phonological and graphical realization of underlying syntactic, semantic or pragmatic discourse structures.

Syntax: Variation in the order or hierarchical relations of the structures of clauses and sentences.

Lexicon: Are the words being chosen to express a concept.

Local semantics: Defined as trying to make a good impression or avoid a bad impression.

Global semantics: The overall coherence of the discourse.

Rhetoric: Specific structures of discourse to make information less prominent whereas negative information is emphasized or vice versa.

3. Methodology:

3.1. Materials

In search for the materials appropriate for the purpose of this study, some issues should be considered. To begin with, the selected text must have been translated for both purposes, namely publication and dubbing. The second issue is the target language which is Persian in the present study. The other item deals with the extent to which the objectives of this study can be generalized to slangs, colloquialisms, expression, dialects, and so on. These can be the criteria needed in this regard. The novel of *Daddy Long-Legs* (Webster, 1912) was then selected to be studied. Accordingly, two Persian translations were selected for a comparative study. The publication version, which is available on market, was translated by Mahdavian (2006). The animation version was prepared for the purpose of cartoon dubbing broadcast on national TV (IRIB). The Japanese adaptation of the animation *Daddy Long Legs* (1990) was dubbed into English in The United State, and then into Persian in Iran and was broadcast on TV in 1993.

3.2. Data Collection Procedures

Daddy Long-Legs series includes 35 episodes of approximately 13 to 28 minutes each. Through purposive sampling, the researchers separated the main character's life into three main phases, each including 5 episodes (total 15 episodes). The first phase included 5 episodes (Episodes 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) that were about her life in an orphanage. The second phase (Episodes 9, 10, 11, 12, 13) was about her life at school, and the third part (Episodes 31, 32, 33, 34, and 35) was about her life after school. From the book, the researchers chose the parts that were equivalent to these three phases.

The source text (English text) was compared carefully with its two TTs (Persian texts) based on van Dijk's (1995) model of ideology. This model was applied to compare the Persian translation (animation) with the English text. Then the same procedure was applied in comparing the other Persian text (publication) to the English text. The framework introduced is composed of six elements which were applied to both Persian translations in under study to seek the significant differences between the two Persian translations.

3.3. Data Analysis Procedure

Within the present framework, both Persian translations of the publication and transcription of the animation were separately compared to the original English text in light of van Dijk's (1995) framework of ideology. Then, the chi-Square test (in SPSS) was conducted to see if any significant statistical differences existed between the elements of ideology introduced by van Dijk. In other words, the test was carried out to make

comparisons between the translated versions and the publication, on the one hand, and the animation, on the other. Finally, the results and findings were illustrated in tables.

4. Findings and Results

The total number of elements found in the book and animation dubbing were 120 and 30 respectively. In order to investigate the descriptive data of the study, the mean and the standard deviation for the number of frequencies obtained from analyses of book variable and animation dubbing variable with the original (English) text based on each element of ideology is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviation of Elements of Daddy Long Legs' Book and Animation

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Local Semantics	2	8.5000	9.19239	2.00	15.00
Syntax	2	10.5000	1.48492E1	.00	21.00
Lexicon	2	26.5000	1.48492E1	16.00	37.00
Global Semantics	2	1.0000	.00000	1.0	1.00
Surface Structure	2	1.0000	9.89949	2.00	16.00
Rhetoric	2	19.5000	1.48492E1	9.00	30

The mean, standard deviation and variance of book and animation, considering the total number of elements in each variable, are presented below in Table 2, which provides the descriptive data between the two variables of the book and animation.

Table 2. Mean and Standard Deviation of Daddy Long Legs Book and Animation in General

	N	Mean	SD	Variance	Min	Max
Animation and Book	2	75.000	6.36396E1	4.050E3	30.00	120.00

As mentioned above, the research question seeks to find any significant difference between translating for the purpose of publication and translating for the purpose of animation dubbing within van Dijk's ideology framework of CDA. Chi-square test was conducted six times: The first five tests were conducted for each element of ideology in both translations and the sixth one for the total number of elements found in book and dubbing.

As the results of the chi-square tests revealed, there were significant differences between elements of 'Ideology' (local semantics, syntax, lexicon, surface structure and rhetoric) in translation for the purpose of publication and that for the purpose of animation dubbing according to van Dijk's framework of CDA. There was not any difference between the elements of "global semantics" in both translations. The results of the first chi-square tests showed differences between two variables (book and dubbing) varying from .004 to 1. The results of chi-square tests are as follows.

Table 3. Chi-square for Local Semantics Between Daddy Log Legs' Book and Animation

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. sig
Local Semantics	9.941a	1	.002

0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 8.5.

Considering Table 3, one can recognize that the difference between frequencies of local semantics is signifi-cant between the two variables, i.e. sig. =.002 (p< .05).

Table 4. Chi-square for Lexicon between Daddy Log Legs Book and Animation

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. sig
Lexicon	8.321a	1	.004

a.   0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 26.5.
    As Table 4 shows, lexicon has the highest frequency among other elements, indicating a significant dif-ference between variables, i.e. sig. = .004 (p< .05).

Table 5. Chi-square for Global Semantics between Daddy Log Legs' Book and Animation

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. sig
Global Semantics	.000a	1	1.000

a.   2 cells (100.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 1.0.
According to Table 5, the difference between global semantics in both versions is the lowest, showing no significance between them, i.e. sig. = 1 (p> .05).

Table 6. Chi-square for Surface Structure between Daddy Log Legs Book and Animation

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. sig
Surface Structure	10.889a	1	.001

 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 9.0.

Table 6 shows the difference between element of surface structure in both variables as well as a significant difference between them, i.e. sig = .001 (p< .05).

Table 7. Chi-square for Rhetoric between Daddy Log Legs Book and Animation

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. sig
Rhetoric	11.308a	1	.002

0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 19.5

Based on the results from Table 7, there is a significant difference between element of rhetoric in both variables, i.e. sig = .001 (p< .05). There were five chi-square tests between five pairs of elements of ideology. From among all the six elements, syntax showed the frequency of 0 and 21 in animation and book respectively. According to the logic of the chi-square test, when one variable is 0, it certainly shows difference between two variables and the result of chi-square test is 0, i.e. sig= 0 (p< .05).

Table 8. Chi-square of Total Number of Elements between Daddy Log Legs' Book and Animation

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. sig
Total	54.000a	1	.000

0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 75.0.

As Table 8 illustrates, there is a significant difference between the total number of elements found in translations of *Daddy Long Legs* book and animation dubbing, i.e. sig = .000 (p< .05).

Some examples of all the elements introduced by van Dijk(1995) are presented as follow.

Local Semantics:

1. …bother some little charge…

کوچولوهایی که سرپرستی آنها را به عهده گرفته بودند

This example shows how the translator tried to reduce the negative sense, while the image of being an orphan was represented in a positive way by referring to "bother some charges" as little nice children.

2. At least homesick is one disease that I've escaped.

اگر نسبت به یک درد مصونیت داشته باشم همان درد دلتنگی برای خانه است.

Since the character is an orphan and does not have a home, having feelings for family members and missing them is presented as an *illness*. In the translation, not having a family is regarded as a positive aspect, because you do not have an illness.

Lexicon:

1. Asylum's guests

مهمانان

In order to reduce the feeling of being an orphan, this phrase was only translated into "guests", because this book was available for adolescence: apparently it tried not to make an annoying image, scare the audience, or even remind them of the Iraq-Iran War and loss of families in Iran, because this book was first published shortly after the war.

2. Christian name

اسم کوچک

As a matter of fact, this phrase was translated as *first name* in the Persian text, since Iran's religion is Islam and the translator did not seek to focus on other religions, resorting to a religious ideology shift here.

3. Upper class

دانشجویان سال بالا

According to the story of the book, this phrase means "rich people", but in order to blur the differences between rich and poor, it has been translated completely different as *students*.

Syntax:

He believes that you have originality, and he is planning to educate you to become a writer.

او فکرمی کند تو قوّه خلاقه ی خوبی داری و میتوائی تحصیل کنی و نویسنده شوی

In Persian the sense that someone else is paying for her education and being her guardian is omitted and education was highlighted as the important part, *not* the person behind it.

The money will be sent to you by the gentleman's private secretary once a month.

منشی مخصوص آقا این پول را هر ماه برایت می فرستد.

The person who is sending money became more important than *money*. Receiving money is notable here not the sender. The first need of orphans is money because there is not any family to support them.

Global Semantics:

I can't believe this is really Judy. You and the Good Lord give me more than I deserve.

باورم نمی شود که اینجا هستم. خودم را مستحق این همه لطف پروردگار نمی دانم

The theme of the story is being an orphan, facing problems in life and being supported by others. But the translation shows an ordinary life without serious problems.
Surface Structure:
Whenever a Trustee spoke.

اگر یکی از اعضای هیئت امنا...

Trustee was written bold in English text to show its prominence, but in order to reduce its importance (not showing being an orphan) in translation it was not printed in bold.
I'm going to love being FREE.

...آزاد خواهم بود

Being free was an important issue for orphans who were like prisoners, so the original text showed the importance by writing "free" in capital letters. Not writing this word in bold or capital letters decreased the sense of the word and shows neutral meaning.
Rhetoric:
… I live to see Paris!

...کشته و مرده ی سفر به پاریس هستم

Translator used hyperbole to show the character's eagerness to visit Paris, but, on the contrary, this choice conceals the fact that she is an orphan and has never seen any other cities in her life.
I am mad about my book.

کتابم همه ی زندگی ام شده است

Translation used hyperbole to show the importance of character's book to her and her attempts to be a free and independent person.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study represents images of differences between translation for the purpose of publication and translation for the purpose of dubbing in Webster's *Daddy Long Legs* (1912), based on van Dijk's ideology framework of critical discourse analysis. This study dealt with the integration of van Dijk's (1995) ideology framework of CDA into the translation of books and films. The integration of the CDA in the translation was based on the earlier works of TS scholars such as Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997), Schäffner (1997, 2002, 2003, 2004), Valdeón (2007), and others.

Ideology is a discursive practice referring to frameworks shaping the social cognition of an individual or group (van Dijk, 1993b). The statistics from the frequencies used in the translation for publication and translation for dubbing indicated the higher number of frequencies in the publication version compared to the dubbed version. This showed that the 'Ideology' framework of CDA was more applicable to this book than to animation dubbing. Ideologies are assumed to control the development, structure and application of sociocultural knowledge, through the minds of the members. This study revealed how translators conveyed information from the source text and controlled audience's understanding whether by reading the book or by watching its animation. The researchers found out that translation of *Daddy Long Legs* book manipulated the actual information of the source text and aimed to control the mind of its audience, more than its animation dubbing.

The results from all (six) chi-square tests showed that there were significant differences between these two purposes of translation. The researchers' analyses showed that the frequencies of elements found in two translations were different between these two translations, except for the "global semantics" that was used with the equal frequency in both translations. All the elements were found in two variables with variation in frequencies, except for the syntax that was not found in animation dubbing which still indicated the difference.

According to the first five chi-square tests, the difference between the elements used in two translations varies from 1 to .004. According to the standards if the statistic is less than .05($p < .05$), there is a significant difference between variables, otherwise it shows no difference between them. Therefore the elements which were less than .05 (local semantics, syntax, lexicon, surface structure, rhetoric) showed the difference among elements used in both variables (publication and dubbing), but the element that was more than .05 ($p > .05$) (global semantics) indicted no difference between elements of ideology.

Ideologies are assumed to control the development, structure and application of socio cultural knowledge, through the minds of the members. This study manifested how translators conveyed information from the source text and controlled audience's mind whether by reading its book or by watching its animation.

According to the results obtained from analyzing the two Persian translations with different purposes of publication and film dubbing, it is apparent that ideology framework of CDA was applicable to publication translation but not practicable on animation dubbing. As it is apparent from the analyses, the groups of audience of books and film are also different, demanding different translation strategies for each group based on ideology framework. The study showed that there was a significant difference between translating for publication and film dubbing using "ideology" framework, even though one element (global semantics) had the same frequency in both translations, and this shows that translation of *Daddy Long Legs* book manipulated the actual information of the source text and aimed to control the mind of its audience, more than its animation dubbing.

Since CDA is a multi-disciplinary field recently emerging in the many branches of social sciences including TS, students of other fields of science will find the results useful. Furthermore, this study has an important role in media translation, which can make translators to be better producers of target language (Persian).

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT TYPES OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE AND LEXICAL AWARENESS: EVIDENCE FROM ADULT IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

This study was an enquiry to find the possible relationship between multiple intelligences and vocabulary knowledge of Iranian adult EFL learners. The participants in this study were 60 adult males and females studying at high intermediate level of an English learning institute. They filled two questionnaires at the very beginning of the study; the former was a multiple intelligences inventory surveying nine types of intelligences based on Gardner's (1983) theory and the latter was a four-format vocabulary test checking the students' vocabulary knowledge. The results showed that musical intelligence and linguistic intelligence have a positive relationship with vocabulary test total score. In better words, these two intelligence types have been the liable predictors of lexical awareness of the study's participants. The other intelligences have no meaningful correlations with vocabulary test total score. It was also found that some positive relationships can be found between musical intelligence and matching test format, logical-mathematical intelligence and gap filling at sentence level, linguistic intelligence and matching format, and intrapersonal intelligence and synonym and gap filling at sentence level format. Interestingly, the results suggested that for males none of the intelligence types were correlated with any of vocabulary test formats while for females some significant relationships were found between the intelligence types and some of vocabulary test formats.

KEYWORDS: multiple intelligence theory, lexical awareness, vocabulary test formats

1.   Introduction

In the last decade, EFL field has seen enthusiastic interest in the role of vocabulary in foreign language courses. This recent interest has led to research with practical classroom applications for foreign language classrooms. In order to progress in a foreign language, learners need to be able to understand what they are hearing and reading. That is, the input must be comprehensible in order for it to be useful and meaningful to the learner and help with acquisition (Krashen, 1982), but if learners do not understand a sizable portion of the vocabulary in the language that they are reading or hearing, then this language is not comprehensible and therefore cannot be useful for acquisition. Many argue that vocabulary is one of the most important-if not *the* most important components in learning a foreign language, and foreign language curricula must reflect this.

Learning vocabulary is one of the first steps in learning a second language, but a learner never finishes vocabulary acquisition. Whether in one's native language or a second language, the acquisition of new vocabulary is an ongoing process. There are many techniques which help one acquire new vocabulary. Individuals are smart in many different and often surprising ways, and some of those ways are hardly ever recognized in the system of teaching. The framework presented by the theory of multiple intelligences can bring new ideas to the foreign language classrooms. Hitherto not many studies have investigated the role of multiple intelligences in foreign language learning and teaching context. It can be argued that MI might have a highly positive role in communicative competence which is the essence of language learning.

Though each language has its own vocabulary intricacies, the vocabulary needs and learning processes of the learners of foreign languages are similar. Support for this position comes from vocabulary research from a wide variety of foreign languages, including research with Dutch learners of French, English learners of Japanese, Swedish learners of Finnish, and Chinese learners of English. In fact, some of the most useful foreign language vocabulary research for classroom teachers has come out of the Iran (Hajhashemi, 2011) and China (Han, 2006). What emerges from these studies are *vocabulary universals* that are not tied to anyone language; these include the importance of vocabulary, the variety of learner strategies, and the value of explicit vocabulary teaching.

According to Gardner (1983, p. 48), each individual has a multitude of intelligences that are quite independent of each other. In this regard, he defined intelligence as "the ability to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings". Through the MI theory, Gardner (*ibid*) posited that each individual has varying levels of intelligences and each individual has a unique cognitive profile. Seven of the intelligences were introduced in 1983 and later two more were added to the list some 3 years later. They are verbal-linguistic, musical-rhythmic, logical-mathematical, visual- spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, intrapersonal, interpersonal, naturalist and existential intelligences.

The main objective of the present study was to investigate the relationship between two variables of Multiple Intelligence and vocabulary knowledge of adult Iranian English learners, and also whether there is any statistically significant difference between their performances with different intelligence preferences. Therefore, it was hoped that the findings can help the researchers examine the role of MI on different vocabulary test formats. The study attempted to find reasonable answers to the following research questions:

- Is there any significant relationship between adult language learners' Multiple Intelligence profiles and their lexical awareness?
- Which intelligence types are more prominent for adult English learners with superior vocabulary proficiency?
- Is there any difference between the participants of both genders in terms of intelligence type(s) and their performances on different formats of vocabulary test?

2. Literature review

Intelligence has been an important and controversial topic throughout psychology history. In addition to questions of exactly how to define intelligence, the debate continues today about whether it can be accurately measured. In order to gain a deeper understanding of intelligence it is important to understand the history of intelligence testing, the scientific research that has been conducted and the findings that have emerged. Legg and Hutter (2006, p. 8) have found that most of the definitions of intelligence share similar features. Pulling out commonly occurring features of different definitions, he found that intelligence is:

- A property that an individual agent has as it interacts with its environment or environments.
- Related to the agent's ability to succeed or profit with respect to some goal or objective.
- Dependent on how able the agent is to adapt to different objectives and environments.

Putting these key attributes together produces the informal definition of Intelligence that Legg and Hutter (2006, p. 8) have adopted: "Intelligence measures an agent's ability to achieve goals in a wide range of environments."

Interest in intelligence dates back to thousands of years ago, but it wasn't until psychologist Binet (1905) was commissioned to identify students who needed educational assistance that the first IQ test was born. Faced with this task, Binet and his colleague Simon (1905) began developing a number of questions that focused on things that had not been taught in school such as attention, memory and problem-solving skills. Using these questions, Binet (*ibid)* determined which ones served as the best predictors of school success. He quickly realized that some children were able to answer more advanced questions that older children were generally able to answer, while other children of the same age were only able to answer questions that younger children could typically answer. Based on this observation, he suggested the concept of a mental age, or a measure of intelligence based on the average abilities of children of a certain age group. This first intelligence test, referred to today as the Binet-Simon scale (1905), became the basis for the intelligence tests still in use today. Binet (*ibid*) stressed the limitations of the test, suggesting that intelligence is far too broad a concept to quantify with a single number. Instead, he insisted that intelligence is influenced by a number of factors, changes over time and can only be compared among children with similar backgrounds (Siegler, 1992).

The next development in the history of intelligence testing was the creation of a new measurement instrument by American psychologist Wechsler (1939). Much like Binet, he believed that intelligence involved a

number of different mental abilities, describing intelligence as, "the global capacity of a person to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (p. 229). Wechsler (*ibid*) also developed two different tests specifically for use with children: the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) and the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI). The adult version of the test has been revised since its original publication and is now known as the WAIS-III.

The WAIS-III contains 14 subtests on two scales and provides three scores: a composite IQ score, a verbal IQ score and a performance IQ score. Subtest scores on the WAIS-III can be useful in identifying learning disabilities, such as cases where a low score on some areas combined with a high score in other areas may indicate that the individual has a specific learning difficulty (Kaufman, 1990). The WAIS is scored by comparing the test taker's score to the scores of others in the same age group. The average score is fixed at 100, with two-thirds of scores lying in the normal range between 85 and 115.

The theory of multiple intelligences was proposed by Gardner in 1983 as a model of intelligence that differentiates intelligence into various specific (primarily sensory) modalities rather than seeing it as dominated by a single general ability. Gardner (*ibid*) argued that there is a wide range of cognitive abilities, and that there are only very weak correlations between these. For example, the theory predicts that a child who learns to multiply easily is not necessarily generally more intelligent than a child who has more difficulty on this task. The child who takes more time to master simple multiplication 1) may best learn to multiply through a different approach, 2) may excel in a field outside of mathematics, or 3) may even be looking at and understanding the multiplication process at a fundamentally deeper level, or perhaps as an entirely different process. Such a fundamentally deeper understanding can result in what looks like slowness and can hide a mathematical intelligence potentially higher than that of a child who quickly memorizes the multiplication table despite a less detailed understanding of the process of multiplication. The theory has been met with mixed responses. Traditional intelligence tests and psychometrics have generally found high correlations between different tasks and aspects of intelligence, rather than the low correlations which Gardner's theory (1983) predicts. Nevertheless, many educationalists support the practical value of the approaches suggested by the theory (Anderson, 1998). Gardner (1983) articulated several criteria for a behavior to be an intelligent. He classified the following nine types of intelligences:

- Naturalist Intelligence (Nature Smart) _ This type of intelligence designates the human ability to discriminate among living things (plants, animals) as well as sensitivity to other features of the natural world (clouds, rock configurations). This ability was clearly of value in our evolutionary past as hunters, gardeners, and farmers; it continues to be central in such roles as botanist or chef. It is also speculated that much of our consumer society exploits the naturalist intelligences, which can be mobilized in the discrimination among cars, sneakers, kinds of makeup, and the like.

- Musical Intelligence (Musical Smart) _ Musical intelligence is the capacity to discern pitch, rhythm, timbre, and tone. This intelligence enables us to recognize, create, reproduce, and reflect on music, as demonstrated by composers, conductors, musicians, vocalist, and sensitive listeners. Interestingly, there is often an affective connection between music and the emotions; and mathematical and musical intelligences may share common thinking processes. Young adults with this kind of intelligence are usually singing or drumming to themselves. They are usually quite aware of sounds others may miss.

- Logical-Mathematical Intelligence (Number/Reasoning Smart) _ Logical-mathematical intelligence is the ability to calculate, quantify, consider propositions and hypotheses, and carry out complete mathematical operations. It enables us to perceive relationships and connections and to use abstract, symbolic thought; sequential reasoning skills; and inductive and deductive thinking patterns. Logical intelligence is usually well developed in mathematicians, scientists, and detectives. Young adults with lots of logical intelligence are interested in patterns, categories, and relationships. They are drawn to arithmetic problems, strategy games and experiments.

- Existential Intelligence_ This type of intelligence has to do with sensitivity and capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why do we die, and how did we get here.

- Interpersonal Intelligence (People Smart) _ Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand and interact effectively with others. It involves effective verbal and nonverbal communication, the ability to note distinctions among others, sensitivity to the moods and temperaments of others, and the ability to entertain multiple perspectives. Teachers, social workers, actors, and politicians all exhibit interpersonal intelligence. Young adults with this kind of intelligence are leaders among their peers, are good at communicating, and seem to understand others' feelings and motives.

- Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence (Body Smart)_ Bodily kinesthetic intelligence is the capacity to manipulate objects and use a variety of physical skills. This intelligence also involves a sense of timing and the perfection of skills through mind–body union. Athletes, dancers, surgeons, and craftspeople exhibit well-developed bodily kinesthetic intelligence.

- Linguistic Intelligence (Word Smart) _ Linguistic intelligence is the ability to think in words and to use language to express and appreciate complex meanings. Linguistic intelligence allows us to understand the order and meaning of words and to apply meta-linguistic skills to reflect on our use of language. Linguistic intelligence is the most widely shared human competence and is evident in poets, novelists, journalists, and effective public speakers. Young adults with this kind of intelligence enjoy writing, reading, telling stories or doing crossword puzzles.

- Intra-personal Intelligence (Self Smart) _ Intra-personal intelligence is the capacity to understand oneself and one's thoughts and feelings, and to use such knowledge in planning and directing one's life. Intra-personal intelligence involves not only an appreciation of the self, but also of the human condition. It is evident in psychologist, spiritual leaders, and philosophers. These young adults may be shy. They are very aware of their own feelings and are self-motivated.

- Spatial Intelligence (Picture Smart) _ Spatial intelligence is the ability to think in three dimensions. Core capacities include mental imagery, spatial reasoning, image manipulation, graphic and artistic skills, and an active imagination. Sailors, pilots, sculptors, painters, and architects all exhibit spatial intelligence. Young adults with this kind of intelligence may be fascinated with mazes or jigsaw puzzles, or spend free time drawing or daydreaming.

McGuire (1994) conducted an experimental research about application of MI theory in primary school English class. The research data showed that MI-based reading contributed significantly to arousing pupils' interest toward English reading and improving pupils' reading proficiency. Ahmadian (2012) tried to investigate possible relationship between L2 learners' multiple intelligence (MI) and their writing performance. The correlation analysis of the results revealed a statistically significant relationship between participants' MI and their performance on writing. Furthermore, the results of regression analysis showed that among all eight intelligences, linguistic intelligence is the best predictor of writing performance.

In a research by Pearson (1988), an inter-rater reliability study of a self-assessment for the Multiple Intelligences, it is revealed that the naturalist and intrapersonal scales have the highest percentage of exact agreement while the spatial and intrapersonal scales have the lowest. The overall highest rates of agreement category is 96% for kinesthetic and 95% for intrapersonal. Then contrary to some research findings, these data support the idea that people know themselves well enough. The importance of Intrapersonal intelligence is a key human ability has supported human survival in the face of adversity for millennia as well as the development of a complex civilization. Humans must be able to deploy their cognitive capacities to their best advantage and an accurate self-appraisal is an essential skill in this process.

McFarlane (2011) examined the theory of multiple intelligences as the most viable and effective platform for 21st century educational and instructional methodologies. He concluded that human's global 21st century society demands that they embrace differences, whether emanating from the individuals around them, or from the physical and unseen environments. Recognizing that each individual serves a purpose and that the classroom and school of the 21st century are "diversity mirrors" of their world, then it becomes only logical that there is need for a broader conceptual framework for teaching and learning. Multiple intelligences (MI) theory offers the opportunity to develop their perspectives, selves and institutions by allowing them to recognize and appreciate an expanse of human skills and abilities.

Zhu (2011) tried to explore the feasibility of combining the basic concepts of Gardner's(1983) multiple intelligence theory with the practice of college English teaching in order to develop the multiple intelligences on the part of learners and improve the quality of teaching as well as the comprehensive qualities of students. He found that MI theory is to catalyze ideas. Therefore, MI model should not be considered as rigid or prescriptive pedagogical formula. Rather, it can be seen as a framework by which language teachers employ in creative, exploratory and trial-and- error reform. So, MI theory is a useful tool for planning language learning tasks which insure that students can cope in the presence of challenge. When learners see what they can do, this has a positive effect on their self-esteem and can lead to enhancing success in language learning.

In another study by Jasmine (1996), the relationship between MI and learning grammar in EFL setting was examined. Based on the statistical findings, it was found that there is significant relationship between MI of male and female EFL learners and their grammar knowledge. It was also found that there is no difference

between the grammar performance of male and female EFL learners whose dominant intelligence is linguistic intelligence.

Amiriani (2010) investigated the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and multiple intelligences. She found that there exists a significant negative relationship between anxiety and five intelligence types, namely logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, naturalistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences while the results of the regression analysis showed that none of the five intelligences or their combinations had the power to predict the variance in anxiety.

Loori (2005) studied how multiple-intelligence strategies and instructions can be used to improve the writing ability of students. The experimental group was taught the five multiple intelligences related to writing: verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, visual-spatial, interpersonal and intrapersonal. Students were also taught the five multiple-intelligence strategies related to writing that were brainstorming, topic-word association, rank ordering, mind-mapping, and met cognition. Both the experimental and the control groups were given two compositions: a narrative and an expository. After two months of training they were given a post-test to find out whether there was any significant difference in the writing ability of students. Significant improvement is seen in the overall writing ability of students and also in the six traits analyzed after two months of training.

Fahim (2010) investigated the hypothetical relationship between the multiple intelligences of test takers and their performance on the reading sections of TOEFL and IELTS. The results showed that the correlations observed do not imply a cause-effect relationship between the intelligences and the dependent variables, and this kind of misinterpretation of the results, called *post hoc fallacy*, needs to be avoided. These and the low correlations observed preclude carrying the implications too far. However, the popularity of MI among educators over other theories of intelligence makes it apt as one of the promising bases (if not the one) of language teaching and testing.

Lane et al. (2006) in their study investigated the relationship between students' gender and intelligence types, the relationship between particular intelligence types and students' success in grammar, listening and writing in English as a foreign language and the relationship between parental education and students' types of intelligences. Analysis of the data revealed no significant gender differences in the intelligence types held by the participants except for that between gender and linguistic intelligence which was positive. Negative but significant relationships were found between success in students' test scores in grammar and bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, and intrapersonal intelligences whereas the relationship between musical intelligence and writing was found to be significant and positive. Finally, no significant relationship was found between parental education and students' intelligence types.

To determine the relationship between MI and language proficiency, Razmjoo (2008) did a study in which the researcher aimed to investigate the relationship between MI and language proficiency of Iranian EFL Ph.D candidates, to explore whether one of the intelligence type or a combination of intelligences are predictors of language proficiency, and to examine the effect of gender on language proficiency and types of intelligences. The data revealed that there was no significant relationship between language proficiency and the combination of intelligences in general and the types of intelligence in particular. Likewise, no significant difference was found between male and female students and between their MI and language proficiency.

Bas (2008) studied implementation of multiple intelligences supported project-based learning in EFL/ESL classrooms. In this study, after Multiple Intelligences supported Project-based learning was presented shortly, the implementation of this learning method into English classrooms. Implementation process of MI supported project-based learning was explained and then teacher and student roles in this process were discussed. Some of the key stages in the application of Multiple Intelligences supported project-based learning method in EFL/ESL classrooms were stated. After that, some sample projects and the evaluation process of these projects were given that could be used easily in EFL/ESL classrooms. In the light of these processes, projects that could be integrated with the intelligence types in the theory of multiple intelligences were held and discussed in practice.

Moheb (2013) found that there is a low to moderate but significant correlation among different kinds of intelligence and related school subject scores. Additionally, it was found that the female students in the study were superior in intrapersonal intelligence while the male students were superior in visual-spatial intelligence, and there was no significant difference between them regarding other intelligences.

Sadri (2007) studied the relationship between multiple intelligences and vocabulary learning knowledge and vocabulary learning strategies among Iranian EFL learners. The findings revealed that there is a relationship between MI and vocabulary knowledge (vocabulary breadth). Moreover, stepwise multiple regression anal-

ysis showed that linguistic verbal intelligence is the best predictor of vocabulary knowledge. With respect to the relationship between MI and vocabulary strategies, the results indicate that among five categories of strategies determination, social and memory strategies have significant relationship with bodily, natural and interpersonal intelligences, respectively.

Kamin (1995) investigated the effectiveness of using a suggested strategy based on the multiple intelligences theory on assessing and developing the speaking skills. The sample of the study was third year primary school Arabic native speakers' students. Instruments of the study included the training program (student's book and a teacher's guide), multiple intelligences scale and a checklist of the study showed the usefulness of the training program based on the multiple intelligences theory.

Numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the perceptions of language learners concerning their intelligence type. For example, Cohen (1990) conducted a study to "assess the variability of the use of a self-report checklist identifying aspects of giftedness in a sample of 192 Chinese secondary students from a multiple intelligences perspective" (p. 215). It was found that participants perceived the seven intelligences almost as distinct abilities. However, "the self-estimations of the various intelligences did not generally predict the conventional measures, suggesting that the seven intelligences and the conventional measures provided independent and possibly complementary information on aspects of giftedness" (p. 251). Chan also discussed the significance of developing profiles of strengths and weaknesses from an MI perspective for programming and identification purposes.

3.   Method of research
3.1.   Participants

The participants of this study were EFL learners at Saba Language Institute in Boushehr, Iran. Seventy students were chosen among males and females adult English learners. They had just finished intermediate level and were starting high intermediate level at the institute. Thirty-five of them were males and the other half were females. They were taught by similar teacher and studied the same course book. Their ages ranged from 21 to 33 and the mean of their age was 25. Ten of participants were excluded from the data analysis because of some problems in their papers and not returning the MI questionnaire or having exactly the same answers. Ultimately, the responses of sixty participants constituted the data set of this study.

3.2.   Instruments and materials

Multiple Intelligence Inventory was the first instrument which was developed by McKenzie (1999). This questionnaire had ninety items and consisted of nine sections; each having ten items measured one type of intelligence. The participants had to choose the ones (more than one choice for each section) that best described their traits. The reliability and validity of this questionnaire were checked through previous studies by other researchers in this field. The following table shows what type of intelligence each section taps.

Table 1. Multiple intelligence inventory sections

Section	Intelligence type
١	Naturalistic intelligence
٢	Musical intelligence
٣	Logical intelligence
٤	Interpersonal intelligence
٥	Kinesthetic intelligence
٦	Verbal intelligence
٧	Intrapersonal intelligence
٨	Visual intelligence

The second instrument of the study was a vocabulary test which was composed of four different sets of vocabulary test items. The items of all four types were selected from standardized book 504 absolutely essential words by Bialystok (1990), Iran's university entrance exam in 2013. The test was appropriate for intermediate English learners. Each test formats consisted of fifteen items. The first format to be administered was vocabulary test in the form of gap filling at sentence level. The second format was a cloze test that was the form

of gap filling at text level. The third format was synonyms/antonym test. And the fourth format was a matching form test. The following table shows the number and type of vocabulary test in each section.

Table 2. Composition of vocabulary test items

Vocabulary test format	Number of items
Gap filling at sentence level	١٥
Gap filling at text level	١٥
Synonyms	١٥
Matching	١٥

The reliability of this questionnaire was calculated through Cronbach's alpha. The index was 0.83 which indicates that the instrument was reliable. To ensure the validity of the test the confirmation of the institute teacher was sought that confirmed the content validity of this questionnaire. The number of items in this study was 65.

3.3.   Procedure

The data were collected from the participants in five sessions. The multiple intelligences questionnaires were the first to be administered by the researchers. To fill the first questionnaire dealing with multiple intelligences the participants were supposed to complete each section by placing a checkmark next to each statement they felt accurately describing them or leave it blank if it was not correct about them. Two days after the collection of MI questionnaire, the first test of vocabulary was administered. The other three tests were administered in three successive sessions. They were also allowed to ask their questions about the test. The reason for the administration of vocabulary tests in different sessions was to prevent any interference of different test formats on performance on other formats and the limitation of time.

 After scoring all participants, their vocabulary total score was calculated. And the score of each intelligence type was determined for all of the participants. Then the correlation analysis of each intelligences and vocabulary total score was done to answer the first question which was to investigate whether there is any relationship between multiple intelligences and vocabulary knowledge. Next, the correlation analysis of each vocabulary test format scores was found to answer the second question which was to investigate the relationship between types of intelligence and the participants' performance on different formats of vocabulary test. Finally, some multiple regression analyses were run to investigate the third question which was to find which type of multiple intelligences, contributes more to a better performance on different vocabulary test formats.

The design of this study was correlational since it seeks to find the relationship between multiple intelligences and vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners. The interesting thing about the correlational study is that it provides a mechanism for ensuring internal validity. This kind of study provides one of the most salient means for the quantification of data in a given experiment. The ability to statistically quantify results serves as the basis for promoting the integrity of data collected through this process (Christensen, 2001).

To find the relationship between multiple intelligences and vocabulary knowledge, a series of correlations was run. One question was concerned with the relationship between multiple intelligences and the vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, the correlation between multiple intelligences score and vocabulary test once as a whole and another time the score on each test format were calculated. The second question was intended to find out which intelligence type is more prominent among adult English learners with superior vocabulary proficiency; it means which one is better predictor of the performance on vocabulary tests. In this regard a multiple regression analysis was used to find which intelligence types have more impact on the vocabulary knowledge of the participants.

4.   Results and discussion
4.1.   Results

To investigate the first research question, a correlation analysis of each intelligence type and vocabulary scores was performed which is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Correlation between each intelligence type and vocabulary score

Intelligence type	Vocabulary total score	
Musical	**.54**	
Body-kinesthetic	.33	
Logical-mathematical	.33	
Spatial	.20	
Linguistic	.65	
Interpersonal	.30	
Intrapersonal	.38	
Naturalistic	.23	

As Table 3 depicts, musical intelligence and linguistic intelligence have a positive relationship with vocabulary test scores. This means that the higher the level of these intelligence types in a language learners, the higher his/her lexical awareness will be. The other intelligences have no correlation with vocabulary test total score. To investigate the second research question a correlation analysis of each intelligence type and each vocabulary test format was run which is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Correlational analysis of each intelligence type and each vocabulary test format

Intelligences	Synonym	Matching	Gap filling at content level	Gap filling at sentence level
Musical	.001	**.556**	.087	079
Bodily/kinesthetic	.148	.331	.101	.32
Logical/mathematical	.228	.083	.203	**.522**
Spatial	.253	.131	.529	.100
Linguistic	.363	**.518**	.326	.161
Interpersonal	.201	.016	.214	.271
Intrapersonal	**.531**	.169	.202	**.622**
Naturalistic	.183	.100	.313	.057

 As the table shows that some positive relationships can be found between musical intelligence and matching test format, logical-mathematical intelligence and gap filling at sentence level, linguistic intelligence and matching format, and intrapersonal intelligence and synonym and gap filling at sentence level format. However, as it is evident from the table, these correlations are low. However, according to Hatch and Lazarton (1991), "low correlation in educational research might be very important." (p. 442). In order to answer the third research question the relationship between gender and quality of performance on different vocabulary test's sections was explored. The following tables depict the performance of male and female participants respectively.

Table 5. Males' performance on the different sections of the vocabulary test

		Synonym	Matching	Gap filling at context level	Gap filling at sentence level
Naturalistic	Pearson correlation	.157	.146	.077	.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.232	.264	.557	.580
	N	30	30	30	30
Musical	Pearson Correlation	.129	.28	.115	.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.324	.025	.382	.858
	N	30	30	30	30
Logical	Pearson Correlation	.203	.156	0.26	.059
		.120	.233	.047	.655

Sig. (2-tailed) N	30	30	30	30
Interpersonal Pearson Correlation	.131	.089	.011	.049
Sig. (2-tailed)	.317	.499	.933	.710
N	30	30	30	30
Kinesthetic Pearson correlation	.184	.226	.143	.080
Sig. (2-tailed)	.159	.083	.274	.546
N	30	30	30	30
Verbal Pearson Correlation	.056	.111	.072	.001
Sig. (2-tailed)	.671	.398	.522	.992
N	30	30	30	30
Intrapersonal Pearson correlation	.103	.013	.184	.240
Sig. (2-tailed)	.435	.923	.156	.065
N	30	30	30	30
Visual Pearson correlation	.103	.211	.119	.003
Sig. (2-tailed)	.435	.106	.363	.981
N	30	30	30	30

Table 6. Females' performance on the different sections of the vocabulary test

	Synonym	Matching	Gap filling at sentence level	Gap filling at sentence level
Naturalistic Pearson Correlation	.159	.203	.094	.235
Sig. (2-tailed)	.224	.120	.475	.070
N	30	30	30	30
Musical Pearson Correlation	.151	**.30**	.115	.024
Sig. (2-tailed)	.251	.025	.382	.858
N	30	30	30	30
Logical Pearson Correlation	**0.32**	**0.29**	**0.26**	.059
Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.026	.047	.655
N	30	30	30	30
Interpersonal Pearson Correlation	.169	.21	.050	.191
Sig. (2-tailed)	.197	.034	.705	.144
N	30	30	30	30
Kinesthetic Pearson correlation	.222	.165	-.067	.032
Sig. (2-tailed)	.088	.209	.612	.805
N	30	30	30	30
Verbal Pearson Correlation	**.45**0	.100	.084	.090
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.448	.522	.493
N	30	30	30	30
Intrapersonal Pearson correlation	**0.27**	.154	.082	.116
Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	.240	.532	.377
	30	30	30	30

	N				
Visual lation	Pearson corre- Sig. (2-tailed) N	**0.28** .028 30	.220 .092 30	.163 .213 30	.135 .305 30

As it is discernible, none of the intelligence types are correlated with any of vocabulary test formats for males while some significant relationships were found between intelligence type and performance on different vocabulary test's formats for females; four intelligences (logical, verbal, intrapersonal and visual) have relationship with performing on the synonym format, musical and logical intelligences were correlated with matching format and one logical intelligence was related with gap filling at sentence level.

4.2.   Discussion
The finding of a study that done by Razmjoo, Sahragard, and Sadri (2009) revealed that there is a relationship between MI and vocabulary learning knowledge. Furthermore, among different domains of intelligence, the linguistic and natural intelligences make statistically significant contribution to the prediction of vocabulary learning knowledge, while findings of this study do not support such a relationship between MI and performance in tests of vocabulary. Moreover, among different domains of intelligence, only musical, logical, verbal, intrapersonal and visual intelligences contribute more to a better performance on different vocabulary test formats. However, the results of the present study are somehow in agreement with a study done by Razmjoo (2008), as he found only musical, logical, verbal, intrapersonal and visual intelligences have some significant relationship with English language proficiency.
As it was mentioned in the literature (e.g. Armstrong, 1999), the theory of Multiple Intelligences argues for individualized education. The purpose of individualized education is to find out each person's intelligence preferences and fine tune the educational practices in order to cater for individual differences regarding intelligence. One major reason for lack of relationship between MI and participants' performance in this study can be attributed to the fact that the participants did not match the prerequisite of individualized education as favored by MI theory. They were not trained to use their intelligences in performing different tasks including linguistics tasks. It can be argued that they all vaguely used the same strategies in learning vocabulary and taking vocabulary tests.

5.   Conclusion
The results of this study indicated that musical intelligence and linguistic intelligence have a positive relationship with lexical awareness. The results also showed that some positive relationships can be found between musical intelligence and matching test format, logical-mathematical intelligence and gap filling at sentence level, linguistic intelligence and matching format, and intrapersonal intelligence and synonym and gap filling at sentence level format. It was also found that none of the intelligence types are correlated with any of vocabulary test formats among males while some significant relationships were found between intelligence type and performance on different vocabulary test's formats for females; four intelligences _ i.e., logical, verbal, intrapersonal and visual_ have relationship with performing on the synonym format, musical and logical intelligences were correlated with matching format and one logical intelligence was related with gap filling at sentence level.
This study indicated that participants' intelligence preferences do play a significant part in their performance on vocabulary test. The participants' performances on vocabulary test can be attributed to individuals' differences and their intelligence preferences and also the styles and strategies that they employ in vocabulary learning tasks. Therefore, based on the study's results, musical and linguistic intelligences were found to be accountable predictors of one's success or failure in learning vocabulary tasks or taking vocabulary tests. It was also found that gender was a determining factor as performance on different vocabulary test formats.
The findings of this study have important implications both for language teaching and language testing. MI model has been provided with the opportunity to look differently at curriculum, instruction, and assessment. MI pedagogy provides opportunities for authentic learning based on student's needs, interests, and talents. Based on this study it is hoped that teachers become more aware of the differences among students, so that they can take into account these differences and the materials should be taught in different ways. If these conditions are fulfilled, the students have more opportunities to learn and to understand the materials

being taught. If they do not comprehend the material in one way, they might comprehend it in another way, thus their achievement is likely to improve.

The utilization of activities which engage different intelligences in the classroom will give this opportunity to language learners with different intelligence preferences to make use of the classroom environment and learning activities. Language teachers should be made familiar with their students' strengths and weaknesses regarding intelligence to make learning environments appropriate for them. Because it was found that there is meaningful relationship bodily-kinesthetic intelligence and performance in tests of vocabulary, teacher can use more activities like role play, movement, sports and physical games in their classroom, since students with bodily-kinesthetic intelligence need such activities in order to learn best. In the case of language testing, utilizing the implications of MI leads to more authentic language testing, that is, the testing situation and the test materials will be more meaningful to language learner. Language tests should be developed in a way that it allows test takers with different intelligence preferences to use their intelligences in test taking.

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INSTRUCTORS' PERCEPTIONS ON TEACHING ESP: LANGUAGE SPECIALIST INSTRUCTORS VS. DOMAIN SPECIAL-IST INSTRUCTORS

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ABSTRACT
Issues related to Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) have been very controversial among ESP in-structors. The present study was an attempt to investigate the perceptions of language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors concerning the needs of their EST (English for Science and Technology) students at Payam Noor University of Qeshm and Bandar-Abbas, and Islamic Azad University of Qeshm. This study also investigated the language specialist and domain specialist instructors' perceptions of the need for teaching English language, ESP textbooks and materials, skills and activities in EST courses. The perceptions of the need for language specialist and domain specialist instructors have been investigated by means of a questionnaire. The participants of the study were 28 domain specialist instructors and language specialist instructors at Payam Noor and Azad Universities. The results of this study indicated that the per-ceptions of the need for cooperation and coordination between English language and domain specialist in-structors were very low in the present situation of Iran. This study suggests that it is preferable that ESP courses be taught by language specialist instructors rather than domain specialist instructors or specialists in the field. Domain specialist instructors interested in teaching English should acquire the necessary qualifica-tions for language teaching.

KEYTERMS: ESP; EST; Language specialist instructors; Domain specialist instructors; General English; Per-ceptions

1. Introduction

In the rapidly changing world, teaching English for specific purposes (ESP) has become one of the most prominent types of the English language teaching education. Because of the apparent complexity of ESP and its difference with General English, ESP practitioners face new challenges and opportunities. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) consider ESP as an approach for language teaching in which all decisions regarding con-tent and methods are based on the learners' reasons for learning. ESP teaching focuses on using English ef-fectively in specific academic fields such as business, law, medicine, sciences, etc.

Language specialist instructors are expected to help students identify the externally set requirements of the academic and professional world and adapt these requirements with their own internally felt needs for learning English. Nevertheless, experience has shown that instructors are not always aware of the im-portance of having clear defined ESP goals and the skills of evaluating the textbooks and teaching materials accordingly (Thaher & Abu Shmais, 2005). In many cases, Iranian instructors use the most available text-books in the market, like SAMT publications, without a prior and proper assessment of their suitability in

terms of the very specific needs of the learners. In addition, the learners themselves are not often aware of the fact that many professions require particular linguistic skills that they must learn.

There has been much discussion among subject-matter specialists and Language specialist instructors as to who is more qualified to teach ESP courses, EFL/ESL instructors or specialists in the field? Some people claim that language specialist instructors who teach ESP courses do not possess the necessary grip of the subject matter, and therefore they may not be able to exchange ideas which contribute to bringing about the intended learning outcomes. However, what defines the intended learning outcome raises a number of questions which should be directly addressed. Moreover, English language instructors claim that ESP teaching is inside an English language instructor's career and it is therefore their responsibility to design or teach such courses. While it is true that "The emphasis in the definition of ESP has been on how ESP teaching develops procedures appropriate for learners whose main purpose is learning English for a purpose other than just learning the language system" (Davoodifard & Eslami Rasekh, 2005), the meaning of the word "specific" that goes with the term ESP does not mean "specialized", and the aim of teaching ESP is not to teach special terminology or jargon in a specific field of study (Maleki, 2005).

In general, the aim of this study is to show who has sufficient qualification for teaching ESP courses in terms of instructors' and students' perceptions. Finally, this study focuses on the perceptions of both domain specialist and English language instructors regarding EST students' needs at Azad and Payame Noor Universities in the south of Iran. It also highlights the need for unanimous selection of qualified instructors among domain specialist and language specialist instructors. It is also an effort to select relevant and appropriate materials and activities based on their perceptions of the needs of their students.

1.2   The ESP Instructors

Are ESP teachers teachers of General English with some unique 'additional competences' who coincidently can be used to teach English in a specific area? Or are they teachers having been undergoing a special training for teaching ESP? Streven (1988) believes that:

Who are ESP teachers? Almost always he or she is a teacher of General English who has expectedly found him/herself required to teach students with special purposes…Two areas in particular can cause real difficulties for teachers unaccustomed to ESP. The first is the attitudes of the content subjects which English is used in (Math, science, economy, medical science, etc.). The content subjects are usually pragmatic, objective, analytical, and unemotional (in the contrary to literary language which are mostly emotional and subjective). The second is the gap between the learner's knowledge of the special content subject and the teacher's (p. 2).

The ESP teachers are also called facilitators because they are responsible to facilitate learners' task of learning the language through organizing the course according to the learners' needs. Therefore, based on the above quotation, the teachers or facilitators of ESP must be at least equipped with two teaching traits. They should be able to understand and become familiar with the content subject in which English is used and taught, and they should be able to bridge the gap between the learner's knowledge of the special content subject and that of the teacher (Dasuki & Widjojokoesoeme, 2009). In line with the two traits, Strevens (1988) suggests that teachers use three techniques to cope with ESP materials. He believes that teachers should become familiar with the ESP course materials, they should become familiar with the language of the subject (especially the vocabulary), and they should allow the students to correct them (the teachers) in the matter of the subject.

ESP teachers are supposed to be knowledgeable in content areas as well as being able to elicit knowledge from students. However, language teachers have not been trained to teach a content subject. They have just received instructions in teaching linguistic knowledge. As a result, they may be insufficiently grounded to teach subject matters (Richards & Rodgers, 2003). Savas (2009: 398) puts it in this way:

Teachers of ESP are therefore the least lucky ones of this profession; they are generally much less informed about the content of what they are expected to teach than even their students, who have been studying their subjects all through their school years. It seems as if they are forced to teach what they are unfamiliar with. As they do not know the content knowledge of the field their students are studying they are not competent in the language in which this content has been encoded, either. In short, they are also novice learners of academic English.

Therefore, since ESP teachers lack specific background knowledge of their learners' specialist academic disciplines, teaching presents a clear challenge to them. Bell (1996) believes that this situation is a result of the traditional emphasis on the training of prospective EFL teachers on language and study skills is inadequate.

It seems therefore necessary for EAP practitioners to possess a certain level of background knowledge in their students' academic subjects of ESP teaching in order to meet this challenge.

1.3   Collaboration

According to Gray (1989: 7):

Collaboration is a process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited vision of what is possible. With collaboration, both departments will share ideas and resolve differences with one vision in mind. Collaboration can be used effectively to settle disputes between the parties in different departments.

Collaboration involves a more direct working together of language and subject teachers outside the classroom to prepare learners for particular tasks or courses. Three options are available for such collaboration (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998: 44):

1.   The planning of a series of classes where the language class prepares the students for a subsequent subject class taught in English.

2.   The running of a class on a specific skill or related to a specific task where the subject department has a specific input to the materials or the language teacher uses materials produced by the department.

3.   The North American 'adjunct' model, in which the adjunct acts as a back-up class to the subject, helping students with difficulties with that class.

Collaboration can denote partnership. Levine (1990, Cited in Creese, 2005) defines partnership teaching as an attempt to make specific conditions for more than one teacher to support students' learning. Bailey et al. (1992) talk about Coordinated Team Type teaching in which there is no joint responsibility for a common group of learners. Instead, two or more teachers teaching the same curriculum to separate groups of learners do a joint planning. Nunan (1997) also emphasizes on shared power and shared decision-making in collaborative teaching. English language teacher being involved in discussing students' language learning needs or their academic language problems with the content teacher is another aspect of integrated teaching (Crandall, 1998; Vance & Crosling, 1998).

Having collaboration or doing team-teaching, although very useful, may be difficult at times. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 47) believe that:

It is not uncommon for language and subject teachers to be rather suspicious of each other, sometimes even highly critical. Clearly where there is suspicion or hostility, collaboration or team-teaching is unlikely to be successful.

1.4   Statement of the Problem & Significance of the Study

Almost all universities in Iran offer English courses to undergraduates. These are usually two types of courses: General English (GE) and specific or technical English. GE is offered by an instructor who has a degree in TEFL or in another field of language, i.e. linguistics, literature and translation. Offering ESP or technical English depends on the policy of the university. It may be presented by a domain specialist instructor who has adequate background knowledge of English or an English language instructor (language specialist) who has high experience in ELT and, very likely, sufficient background knowledge of the discipline. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the roles and functions of the language specialist instructors through their conceptions.

This study seems to be significant for decision makers to cope with the dilemma of delivering ESP courses to language specialist instructors or domain specialist instructors without interference of any factors like their accessibility and personal decisions.

In addition, it is important for those who offer EST/ESP teacher training programs to prepare well-trained and well-informed EST instructors, who have sufficient knowledge of both language and the subject. It is also significant for course designers and developers to take into consideration students' needs and interests when designing materials for EST courses offered by universities.

1.5   Purpose of the Study

This study is an attempt to investigate the discrepancies in the perceptions of language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors on teaching ESP. To this end, the perceptual differences between the two groups of teachers were examined with regard to the needs of their students. Also, the difference in their perceptions as to the need for cooperation and coordination, as well as textbooks and materials in EST courses, focusing teaching English language in EST courses and skills and language activities in these courses were investigated.

1.6   Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this research project, attempt was made to seek answers to the following questions:

1.   Is there any significant difference between the perceptions of English language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors of the needs of their EST students?

2.   Is there any significant difference between the perceptions of language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors concerning the need for a) cooperation and coordination, b) textbooks and materials in EST courses, c) focusing teaching English language in EST courses, d) skills and language activities in EST courses?

With regard to the above four research questions, the following null hypotheses were formed:

H01. There is no significant difference between the perceptions of English language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors of the needs of their EST students.

H02. There is no significant difference between the perceptions of Language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors concerning the need for a) cooperation and coordination, b) textbooks and materials in EST courses, c) focusing teaching English language in EST courses, d) skills and language activities in EST courses.

2.   Method
2.1   Participants

In the present study two groups of Subject-matter and language specialist instructors participated. A total of 28 instructors in different EST majors (physics, chemistry, mathematics, engineering, management, and computer science) at Islamic Azad University of Geshm and Payame Noor University of Gheshm and Bandar-Abbas kindheartedly participated in this study. All the language specialist instructors had studied English formally for six years academically, and all the domain specialist instructors were quite fluent in and had a good command of English though they were expert in their own field of study. The instructors ranged in age from 27 to 37. They attended two class sessions a week (each 75 minutes) and the purpose of the course was to improve reading comprehension and to familiarize students with technical terms within the total number of 16 sessions.

2.2   The Instructors' Questionnaire

The questionnaire developed by Thacher and Abu Shmais (2005) was adopted to investigate the EST students' needs, the domain and English specialist instructors' perceptions of the need for cooperation and coordination between them, the need for teaching English language in EST courses, and the need for textbooks and activities for EST courses. Twenty-eight questionnaires were distributed (14 for language specialist instructors and 14 for domain specialist instructors). The participants responded to the questionnaire on a 5 point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=undecided; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree). The subjects were told that the questionnaire would be used for research purposes only.

  The questionnaire contained 47 items as in Appendix A, and consisted of the following domains (Thacher & Abu Shmais, 2005: 1391-2):

1- Items (1-7) showed domain specialist and English instructors' perceptions regarding EST Students' needs.

2- Items (8-12) showed domain specialist instructors' perceptions, from the view point of English instructors.

3- Items (13-19) showed English language instructors' perceptions from the view point of domain specialist instructors.

4- Items (20-24) showed the perceptions of English language instructors and domain specialist instructors of the need for cooperation and coordination between them.

5- Items (27-33) showed the perceptions of English language instructors and domain specialist instructors of the need for textbooks and materials in EST courses.

6- Items (34-44) showed the perceptions of English language instructors and domain specialist instructors of the need for teaching English language in EST courses.

7- Items (45-48) showed the perceptions of English language instructors and domain specialist instructors of the need for skills and language activities in EST courses.

2.3   Data Analysis

The collected data by the subject-matter and language specialist instructors were analyzed using SPSS. For comparative analysis, an Independent Sample t-test and Mann-Whitney U were used in order to find the differences between variables.

3. Results

3.1 Instructors' Perceptions of the Needs of their Students

Items 1 to 7 of the language specialist and domain specialist questionnaire (Appendix 1) aimed to examine the perception of language and domain specialist instructors of the needs of EST students. In order to examine the differences between the perception of language and domain specialist instructor on the needs of EST students an independent-samples t test was performed. The result as appeared in Table 3.1, indicates that there is a significant difference (t(26)=5.13, p=.00) between the perception of language and domain specialist instructor on the needs of EST students. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large based on Cohen's (1988) guideline (eta squared=.50). Although their perception is relatively homogenous, the higher mean of language instructors indicates that they are more concerned with the needs of EST students.

Table 3.1. T-test Results of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Needs of Students across the Two Groups of Instructors

	Group		*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	*t*	*df*	*Sig*
Perceptions of the Needs of Students	Language specialist instructors		14	25.71	3.52	.94	5.13	26	.00
	Domain specialist instructors		14	18.50	3.92	1.05			

As can be seen in Table 3.2, further analysis of the items showed that these two groups of instructors have similar views on question 1 (i.e., The teacher's character and personality affects comprehension in English classes) and 2 (i.e., EST students need more challenging EST comprehension texts than the current ones). However, their perceptions are significantly different from each other on items 3 (i.e., Students should decide their needs), 4 (i.e., Students' attend the English classes because they are required to fulfill the university requirement), 5 (i.e., Three hours a week are enough time for an English course for science students), 6 (i.e., The passing grade for an English course for EST students should be more than 60%) and 7 (i.e., Improving speaking skills is a priority for EST students).

Table 3.2. Item-by-Item Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Needs of Students at Item Level

	The teacher's character and personality affects comprehension in English classes	EST students need more challenging EST comprehension texts than the current ones	Students should decide their needs	Students' attend the English classes because they are required to fulfill the university requirement	Three hours a week are enough time for an English course for science students	The passing grade for an English course for EST students should be more than 60%	Improving speaking skills is a priority for EST students
Mann-Whitney U	72.5	65	17	42	10.5	32	53
Wilcoxon W	177.5	170	122	147	115.5	137	158
Z	-1.21	-1.550	-3.81	-2.63	-4.12	-3.11	-2.12
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.23	.12	.00	.01	.00	.00	.03

3.2 The Need for Cooperation, Textbooks, Focusing Teaching English Language, and Language Activities

This study aimed to examine whether there is any significant difference between the perceptions of Language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors concerning the need for a) cooperation and coordination, b) textbooks and materials in EST courses, c) focusing teaching English language in EST courses, d) skills and language activities in EST courses.

Mann-Whitney U test was used to evaluate the perceptions of language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors concerning the need for a) cooperation and coordination, b) textbooks and materials in EST courses, c) focusing teaching English language in EST courses, d) skills and language activities in EST courses.

a) Cooperation and coordination: As can be seen in Table 3.3, there is not a significant difference (t(26)=0.5, *p*=.623) between the perception of language and domain specialist instructor on the needs for cooperation and coordination.

Table 3.3. T-test Results of the of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Need for Cooperation and Coordination across the Two Groups of Instructors

Perceptions of Cooperation and Coordination	*Group*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	*t*	*df*	*Sig*
	Language specialist instructors	14	26.92	2.64	.71	-0.5	26	.623
	Domain specialist instructors	14	27.5	3.4	0.91			

As can be seen in Table 3.4, the item-by-item analysis of the items on the perceptions of instructors of the need for cooperation and coordination indicates that from items 20 to 27, the two groups of instructors have significantly different perceptions on items 23 (i.e., A domain specialist instructors should be trained in the English Department before being assigned to a science department) and 24 (i.e., English teachers should be encouraged to attend lectures or lab-sessions every now and then in the science department in an attempt to determine the quality and quantity of English used inside the classroom).

Table 3.4. Item-by-Item Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Need for Cooperation and Coordination

	English language teachers, subject matter teachers and students should all take part in planning textbooks	Contacts between Eng language teachers and subject matter teachers about attitudes, needs and expectations should be encouraged	There should be cooperation between students, ESP teachers and teachers in deciding students' needs	A subject matter teacher should be trained in the Eng Department before being assigned to a science department	Eng teachers should be encouraged to attend lectures or lab-sessions every now and then in the science department in an attempt to determine the quality and quantity of Eng used inside the class	Knowledge of rules of Formal contacts between the Eng Department and the science departments should be encouraged	There should be coordination between ESP teachers on matters like choosing textbooks, course plan and unified exams
Mann-Whitney U	88.50	79	73.50	4	50.50	94.50	86.50
Wilcoxon W	193.50	184	178.50	109	155.50	199.50	191.50
Z	-.47	-.95	-1.2	-4.43	-2.33	-.17	-.57
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.64	.34	.23	.00	.02	.87	.57

b) Textbooks and materials in EST courses: Items 27 to 33 of the language specialist and domain specialist questionnaire (Appendix 1) examined the perception of language and domain specialist instructors of textbooks and materials. An independent-samples t test was run to examine the differences between the percep-

tion of language and domain specialist instructor regarding textbooks and materials. The result as appeared in Table 3.5 indicates that there is a significant difference (t(26)=7.33, *p*=.00) between the perception of language and domain specialist instructor in this connection. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large based on Cohen's (1988) guideline (eta squared=.67).

Table 3.5. T-test Results of the of the Instructors' Perceptions of Textbooks and Materials across the Two Groups of Instructors

	Group		*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	*t*	*df*	*Sig*
Perceptions of Textbooks and Materials	Language specialist instructors		14	27.50	3.67	.98	7.32	26	.00
	Domain specialist instructors		14	17.86	3.28	0.88			

The results of the item-by-item analysis of items 27 to 33 of the questionnaire on teachers' perceptions are shown in Table 3.6. As can be seen in the table, except items 27 (i.e., The materials offered in the English courses for science are useful) and 33 (i.e., ESP courses should help students practice English in real life situations e.g. lab sessions, workshops, and conferences), on the other items (i.e., items 28, 29, 30, 31, 32), the perceptions of the instructors from the two groups are found to be significantly different.

Table 3.6. Item-by –Item Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Need for Textbooks and Materials

	The materials offered in the English courses for science are useful	There is a need for a course on Writing for Science	There is a need to divide the ESP courses into language levels and occupational divisions separating the pharmacy students from agriculture and science students	EST students should be exposed to authentic texts in their general English courses	Adapted scientific texts are more fruitful than texts that are authentic (i.e. taken directly from science books	ESP texts that students use have enough emphasis on culture	ESP courses should help students practice English in real life situations e.g. lab sessions, workshops, and conferences
Mann-Whitney U	82.50	35.50	14.50	29.50	17	14.00	85
Wilcoxon W	187.50	140.50	119.50	134.50	122	119	190
Z	-.73	-2.97	-3.93	-3.21	-3.81	-3.96	-.62
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.47	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.54

c) Focusing teaching English language in EST courses: Items 34 to 44 of the language specialist and domain specialist questionnaire (Appendix 1) addressed the perception of language and domain specialist instructors on focusing teaching English language in EST courses. The results of an independent-samples t test as appeared in Table 3.7 indicate that there is a significant difference (t(26)=12.94, *p*=.00) between the perception of language and domain specialist instructor in this regard. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large based on Cohen's (1988) guideline (eta squared=.86).

Table 3.7. T-test Results of the of the Instructors' Perceptions on Focusing teaching English Language in EST Courses across the Two Groups of Instructors

	Group	N	M	SD	SEM	t	df	Sig
Perceptions on teaching Eng in EST Cours-es	Language specialist instructors	14	47.5	2.77	.74	12.94	26	.00
	Domain specialist instructors	14	30.86	3.94	1.05			

As can be seen in Table 3.8, further analysis of the items on the instructors' perceptions of the need for focusing teaching English language in EST courses showed that these two groups of instructors have similar views on item 34 (i.e., The English language is important for teaching science), item 43 (i.e., The number of students in the English classes should be large) and item 44 (i.e., Students should put in the necessary effort to improve their English). However, the instructors have significantly different perceptions in this connection on items 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41 and 42 (see Appendix 1).

Table 3. 8. Item-by-Item Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Need for Focusing Teaching English Language in EST Courses

	The English language is important for teaching science	The use of the mother tongue in teaching English for science is useful	ESP courses should be introduced as pre-requisites at an early stage (i.e. before majoring)	ESP courses affect EST students' motivation since the materials are science-based	Students have a positive attitude toward the English language	English is a major course just like the science college requirements	There is a need for EST	A general English course has proved to be successful	Formal learning environments are more beneficial than informal surroundings	The number of students in the English classes should be large	Students should put in the necessary effort to improve their English
Mann-Whitney U	98	5	23	23	52.50	5.50	15	19	5	98	84
Wilcoxon W	203	110	128	128	157.50	110.50	120	124	110	203	189
Z	.00	-4.38	-3.55	-3.53	-2.16	-4.37	-3.92	-3.71	-4.42	.000	-.72
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	1	.00	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	1	.47

d) Skills and language activities in EST courses: Items 45 to 48 of the language specialist and domain special-ist questionnaire (Appendix 1) tried to examine the perception of language and domain specialist instructors on skills and language activities in EST courses. An independent-samples t test was performed and it was found that with regard to skills and language activities there is a significant difference (t(26)=3.68, *p*=.001) between the perception of the two groups of instructors (Table 3.9). The magnitude of the differences in the means was large based on Cohen's (1988) guideline (eta squared=.34).

Table 3.9. T-test Results of the of the Instructors' Perceptions on Skills and Language Activities in EST Courses across the Two Groups of Instructors

	Group	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	*t*	*df*	*Sig*
Perceptions on Skills and Lng Activities in EST Courses	Language specialist instructors	14	16.00	2.15	.57	3.68	26	.001
	Domain specialist instructors	14	11.21	4.37	1.17			

The results of the item-by-item analysis of items 45 to 48 of the questionnaire on teachers' perceptions are shown in Table 3.10. As can be seen in the table, except item 48 (i.e., Tutorial work is necessary to understand the scientific text) on which the perceptions of the two groups of instructors are found not to be different, on the other items (45, 46, 47), their perceptions are significantly different.

Table 3.10. Item-by-Item Mann-Whitney U Test Analysis of the Instructors' Perceptions of the Skills and Language Activities

	There is a need for communicative approaches in EST courses such as individual, pair, or group work to provide a different learning style	Using lists of vocabulary overcomes the students' weakness in English for science classes	Summarizing the lecture in English is useful in EST courses	Tutorial work is necessary to understand the scientific text
Mann-Whitney U	42.50	31	14.50	86.50
Wilcoxon W	147.50	136	119.50	191.50
Z	-2.62	-3.22	-3.94	-.54
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.01	.00	.00	.59

4. Discussion
4.1 Instructors' Perceptions of the Needs of their Students
The final two research questions dealt with the possible difference between language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors. The results of this study showed that the two groups of instructors differed significantly, on the whole, in their perceptions of students' needs.

The two groups of instructors seem to agree on the influence of teacher's personality and the need for more challenging text, which constitute the theme of the first two out of seven questions of the questionnaire. However, in the next five, their conceptions diverge. These questions can be reduced to two main factors. The first one is the role of the learners in ESP course-related issues (question 3), and the second factor (questions 5, 6 and 7) is the issues related to planning and setting the purposes of ESP courses.

4.2 The Need for Cooperation, Textbooks, Focusing Teaching English language, and Language Activities
On the need for cooperation and coordination between language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors, there seems to be not a significant difference (Table 4.5). These two groups, however, seem to diverge significantly in their conceptions concerning a) the textbooks and materials, b) the need for focusing teaching English language in EST courses, and c) the skills and language activities.

Collaboration and coordination, which can be realized in different ways, is gaining interest among scholars in the recent two decades. Creese (2005), Nunan (1997), Crandall (1998), and Vance and Crosling (1998) all emphasize discuss the importance and different possible ways of practicing collaborative ESP teaching. The relative agreement of language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors on the need for collaboration is positive token in the fulfillment of the much emphasized ESP teaching trend. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and Gray (1998) are among the numerous scholars emphasizing the importance and advantages of collaborative ESP teaching. The former, in accordance with other scholars, mention being a col-

laborator as one of the roles of ESP teachers. Collegiality, a possible by-product of collaboration, would help improve ESP teaching practice (among others Hargreaves, 1992 and Bennet et al., 1992).

In the discussion of the collaborative teaching, possible interpersonal and interdepartmental differences are outlined by some scholars (e.g. Wright, 2007; and Benesch, 2001, etc). The significant difference of conceptions between the two groups of instructors considered in the present study corroborates the fact. This divergence could lead to tension and, therefore, threaten the intended outcome of the ESP courses. Even in some cases, the language specialist teachers are reported to be marginalized (Creese, 2002). Considering the results presented for the first and second research questions, this would be detrimental to the ESP teaching practice.

To develop a better understanding among teachers and departments, and thus create an atmosphere conducive to better results, negotiation among them is recommended (Jacobs, 2007).

5. Conclusions

This study aimed at investigating the perceptions of domain specialist instructors and Language specialist instructors of EST and students' needs at Payam-Nur and Islamic Azad universities of the south. According to many scholars, including Robinson (1991), the controversy as who, language instructors or domain specialist instructors, perform more effectively on teaching ESP courses was discussed in the present research. According to the students' perceptions, those students who attended language specialist instructors' classes were more content with the teaching and obtained higher scores on the final achievement test. Everything being equal, the analysis of the final examinations and questionnaires confirmed that EFL/Language specialist instructors can fulfill the course goals much better than domain specialist instructors/specialists in the field. Therefore, it is strongly recommend that ESP courses be taught by EFL/Language specialist instructors rather than specialists in the field. Those specialists interested in teaching English should attain the necessary qualifications. The careful development and practice of collaborative teaching is also advisable.

The results indicated a significant difference between the perceptions of the domain specialist instructors and the language specialist instructors of the need for appropriate textbooks and materials. The researchers believe that the role of EST textbooks, on one hand, is a critical one, since the kind of materials and textbooks should answer the question whether the scientific discourse should be simplified or kept authentic. Preparing EST teachers, on the other hand, is not easy, either, since they need to develop competence, experience and training on how to choose texts that meet students' needs and how to teach them. EST in the south of Iran is still in its infancy and a lot needs to be done, because each new course requires creativity. It is believed that cooperation and coordination between subject teachers in EST faculties and language specialist instructors at the English department should be planned with cautions if they are to be effective in EST teaching situations of Iran and responsive to students' needs.

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Appendix 1
The Questionnaire
Language Specialist and Domain Specialist Instructors
Dear Colleagues
The questionnaire you are going to answer will be used for research purposes only.
Remember there is no correct answer. So, please be as objective as possible.

(1)   Students' Needs

No.	Item	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Undecided 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree
1	The teacher's character and personality affects comprehension in English classes.	1 2 3 4 5
2	EST students need more challenging EST comprehension texts than the current ones.	1 2 3 4 5
3	Students should decide their needs.	1 2 3 4 5
4	Students' attend the English classes because they are required to fulfill the university requirement.	1 2 3 4 5
5	Three hours a week are enough time for an English course for science students.	1 2 3 4 5
6	The passing grade for an English course for EST students should be more than 60%.	1 2 3 4 5
7	Improving speaking skills is a priority for EST students.	1 2 3 4 5

(2) Domain specialist instructors' Perceptions

No.	Item	Scale
8	The domain specialist should not decide the students' needs.	1 2 3 4 5
9	The domain specialist isn't able to determine what bad grammar is.	1 2 3 4 5
10	The domain specialist should take into consideration English teachers' concern regarding teaching correct English language to EST students.	1 2 3 4 5
11	Domain specialist instructors cannot teach proper English.	1 2 3 4 5
12	domain specialist whose English is weak should not be trained in the English Department.	1 2 3 4 5

(3) Language specialist instructors' Perceptions

No.	Item	Scale
13	The English language teacher's lack of scientific knowledge doesn't affect	1 2 3 4 5

	his/her confidence.					
14	Language specialist instructors should be exposed to written scientific texts in order to function more effectively (i.e. by attending lectures in the science department and sitting in lab. sessions).	1	2	3	4	5
15	ESP teachers (English teachers) should decide students' needs.	1	2	3	4	5
16	English teachers should allow EST students to fill in the information gap in ESP courses.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Knowledge of rules of English language is important for giving a successful EST lecture (i.e. sending the message, receiving feedback and communicating).	1	2	3	4	5
18	Students' weak English affects comprehension and communication in EST classes.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Due to having English knowledge, it is easier to be ESP teacher.	1	2	3	4	5

(4) Perceptions of Cooperation and Coordination

20	Language specialist instructors, domain specialist instructors and students should all take part in planning textbooks.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Contacts between Language specialist instructors and domain specialist instructors about attitudes, needs and expectations should be encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5
22	There should be cooperation between students, ESP teachers and teachers in deciding students' needs.	1	2	3	4	5
23	A domain specialist instructor should be trained in the English Department before being assigned to a science department.	1	2	3	4	5
24	English teachers should be encouraged to attend lectures or lab-sessions every now and then in the science department in an attempt to determine the quality and quantity of English used inside the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Knowledge of rules of Formal contacts between the English Department and the science departments should be encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5
26	There should be coordination between ESP teachers on matters like choosing textbooks, course plan and unified exams.	1	2	3	4	5

(5) Perceptions of Textbooks and Materials

27	The materials offered in the English courses for science are useful.	1	2	3	4	5
28	There is a need for a course on Writing for Science.	1	2	3	4	5
29	There is a need to divide the ESP courses into language levels and occupational divisions separating the pharmacy students from agriculture and science students.	1	2	3	4	5
30	EST students should be exposed to authentic texts in their general English courses.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Adapted scientific texts are more fruitful than texts that are authentic (i.e. taken directly from science books).	1	2	3	4	5
32	ESP texts that students use have enough emphasis on culture.	1	2	3	4	5
33	ESP courses should help students practice English in real life situations e.g. lab sessions, workshops, and conferences.	1	2	3	4	5

(6)Perceptions of the Need for Teaching English Language in EST Courses

34	The English language is important for teaching science.	1	2	3	4	5
35	The use of the mother tongue in teaching English for science is useful.	1	2	3	4	5
36	ESP courses should be introduced as pre- requisites at an early stage (i.e. before majoring).	1	2	3	4	5
37	ESP courses affect EST students' motivation since the materials are science-based.	1	2	3	4	5
38	Students have a positive attitude toward the English language.	1	2	3	4	5
39	English is a major course just like the science college requirements.	1	2	3	4	5

40	There is a need for EST.	1 2 3 4 5
41	A general English course has proved to be successful.	1 2 3 4 5
42	Formal learning environments are more beneficial than informal surroundings.	1 2 3 4 5
43	The number of students in the English classes should be large.	1 2 3 4 5
44	Students should put in the necessary effort to improve their English.	1 2 3 4 5

(7) Perceptions of Skills and Language Activities

45	There is a need for communicative approaches in EST courses such as individual, pair, or group work to provide a different learning style.	1 2 3 4 5
46	Using lists of vocabulary overcomes the students' weakness in English for science classes.	1 2 3 4 5
47	Summarizing the lecture in English is useful in EST courses.	1 2 3 4 5
48	Tutorial work is necessary to understand the scientific text.	1 2 3 4 5

THE EFFECT OF CRITICAL THINKING ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
The present study attempted to discover the effect of critical thinking on the improvement of the speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. After administrating a TOEFL proficiency test 48 advanced EFL learners were selected as the subjects of the study . Right after an oral-interview pre-test, the experimental and control groups received the instruction in 6 sessions, each 90 minutes. In both groups, similar topics were proposed for group discussion such as air pollution, education, friendship, drug addiction, unemployment, etc. In the experimental group, in addition to having discussion on the given issues, the teacher devoted some time for teaching critical thinking techniques during the class time and gave learners time to practice these skills. After the treatment, both groups took part in an oral interview post-test. After analyzing the data, the obtained results showed that the performance of the subjects in the experimental group was significantly better than that of the control group, supporting the argument that if learners get involved in critical thinking techniques their speaking ability would improve.

KEY WORDS: critical thinking, speaking ability.

Introduction
Critical thinking is a very hotly controversial topic these days, there is a general consensus that critical thinking can be influential in almost every discipline and occupation, due to its association with abilities such as problem solving and decision-making. In educational setting, it is widely accepted that learning to think is one of the most important goals of formal schooling (Malmir, Shoorcheh, 2012). Dewey (1933) stated that the central purpose of education is learning to think. As part of that education, learners need to develop and learn to apply critical thinking skills to their academic studies effectively (Kealey, Holland & Watson, 2005), to the complex problems that they will face in their professions (Yeh, 2004), and to the critical choices they will be forced to make as a result of the information explosion and other rapid technological changes (Oliver & Utermohlen, 1995). In L2 context, it seems that attention to critical thinking deserves the additional considerations due to the position of problem-solving, attitudes, self-regulation, and metacognitive abilities in L2 classes.

All educators are now aware of the importance of equipping learners' with critical thinking techniques, and teachers are making efforts to teach these techniques in the most appropriate way. Critical thinking is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information gathered from, or generated by observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action (Sezer, 2008).

Children are not born with critical thinking skills. So how can we make critical thinkers out of children to succeed in their whole life? To start with, education could be the first step for promoting critical thinking among the students. Fisher and Scriven (1997) stated critical thinking skills are required to be taught since students' thinking skills are not enough to face the problems students deal with either in education or in their daily life. Therefore, educators are required to focus on teaching critical thinking to inform them how to learn instead of just transmitting information that is what to say. Emphasizing on making critical thinking as

a part of educational courses, scholars have suggested that critical thinking can be taught in different classroom areas, such as those suggested by Shafersman(1991) including lectures, laboratories, writing activities, term papers, exam questions, home work, and quantitative exercises. Paul (2004) believed that students , in most educational systems, gain lower order learning which is associative, and rote memorization resulting in misunderstanding, prejudice, and discouragement in which students develop techniques for short term memorization and performance. These techniques block the students' thinking seriously about what they learn.

The issue of incorporating critical thinking skills in education has raised many contradictory ideas about whether critical thinking can be taught or not. A variety of approaches and models of teaching, measuring and assessing critical thinking skills and abilities have been developed. In addition, teaching critical thinking skills has raised many issues such as culture, emotion, transferability and generalizability of the taught skills which are discussed and answered by the experts. Despite all the contradictory ideas and beliefs on teaching critical thinking skills, however, everyone agreed that thinking critically is the major goal of education (Reed, 1998).

Unfortunately, in Iran, teachers based on traditional teaching methods, disregard the learners' views and opinions, not giving them the chance to express themselves. Consequently, students do not learn to use their thinking skills. Therefore, the task of teachers as people who play the pivotal role of training critical thinkers is very crucial, particularly in a language classroom in which students should get the opportunity to express themselves and evaluate the arguments of their peers. Up to this date, little is known about the importance of teaching critical thinking skills in language classroom. Since students are not trained as critical thinkers in their first language educational system in Iran, providing Iranian EFL learners with a situation to develop critical thinking dispositions is of crucial important. Therefore, it is highly worth to probe whether teaching critical thinking skills could help Iranian EFL learners improve their speaking ability.

Critical Thinking

Over the past twenty years critical thinking has moved from a small corner of the stage in philosophy and the social sciences to front and center. Higher education writers agree that critical thinking should be included in the undergraduate curriculum. However, there seems to be little agreement on exactly what critical thinking is (Allen, Rubenfield, & Scheffer, 2004).

A person who thinks critically employs the scientific method for understanding the ordinary world. This is true because critical thinking mimics the well-known method of scientific investigation: a question is identified, a hypothesis is formulated, relevant data are gathered, the hypothesis is logically tested and evaluated, and reliable conclusions are drawn from the result (Stapleton, 2002; Angeli &Valanides, 2009). All of the skills of scientific investigations are matched by critical thinking, which is therefore nothing more than scientific method used in everyday life.

Robert and Ennis (1987) defined critical thinking as a "Reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do. In addition to 12 critical thinking abilities, critical thinking also includes 14 dispositions. Namely: to seek a clear statement of the thesis or question; to seek reasons; to try to be well informed; to use credible sources and mention them; to take into account the total situation; to try to remain relevant to the main point; to keep in mind the original or basic concern; to look for alternatives; to be openminded; to take a position when the evidence and reasons are sufficient to do so; to seek as much precision as the subject permits; to deal in an orderly manner with the parts of a complex whole; to use one's critical thinking abilities; to be sensitive to feelings, level of knowledge, and degree of sophistication of others". Based on Browne and Keeley (2000) critical thinking is a process that begins with an argument and progresses toward evaluation. The process is activated by three interrelated activities:

a. Asking key questions designed to identify and assess what is being said,

b. Answering those questions by focusing on their impact on stated inferences,

c. Displaying the desire to deploy critical questions.

Wade (1995) identified eight characteristics of critical thinkers: Critical thinkers involve in asking questions, defining a problem, examining evidence, analyzing assumptions and biases, avoiding emotional reasoning, avoiding oversimplification, considering other interpretations, and tolerating ambiguity. Dealing with ambiguity is also seen by Strohm and Baukus (1995) as an essential part of critical thinking, "Ambiguity and doubt serve a critical-thinking function and are a necessary and even a productive part of the process" (p. 56).

According to Bracken, Brown, and Feng (2009) the importance of teaching critical thinking is nowadays obvious to all educators. Critical thinking is essential as a tool of inquiry. As such, critical thinking is a liber-

ating force in education and a powerful resource in one's personal and civic life. While not synonymous with good thinking, critical thinking is a pervasive and self-rectifying human phenomenon. Fisher (2003) also emphasized the significance of teaching critical thinking skills. He contended that critical thinking skills are required to be taught since students' thinking skills are not enough to face the problems students deal with either in education or in daily life. Therefore, educators are required to focus on teaching critical thinking to inform them how to learn instead of just transmitting information that is what to say. Freely and Steinberg (2000) highlighted the important role of debates, group discussions, and individual problem solving activities to enhance critical thinking in the students. They argued that debates improve critical thinking if the ideal opportunity is provided by the instructor for students. As far as it is a process of asking and answering questions and finding information to arrive at a reasoned judgment on a proposition, students have got the chance of coming against a theory. In that case, they not only increase their knowledge but also try to win a decision. Consequently, they greatly use their ability of critical thinking. By setting group discussions, students are made to come up with a single decision through a collaborative activity analyzing others' beliefs, using the same standards and values of the members of the group, and taking the responsibility of supporting the group (Freely & Steinberg, 2000, p.9). As Wallace (2003) has claimed setting some sort of activities upon which individual decisions are made can promote critical thinking skills in students. It would be a kind of individual decision making while all the dimensions of a problem are controlled by the person without any further support. So that the person reflects on his own opinion, monitors himself, and makes the final decision on his own.

Speaking ability

Speaking skills are often considered the most important part of an EFL course. With the growing need for international communication in the information age, many language learners attend language classes to improve their speaking ability. Even though many students have mastered basic speaking skills, some students are much more effective in their oral communication than others. And those who are more effective communicators experience more success in school and in other areas of their lives. According to Folse (2006), for most people, the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language since speech is the most basic means of human communication. Nevertheless, speaking in a second or foreign language has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four language skills. Speaking a language is especially difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions. Diversity in interaction involves not only verbal communication, but also paralinguistic elements of speech such as pitch, stress, and intonation (Seligson, 1997; Fulcher, 2003).

As far as assessing speaking is concerned, Joiner and Jones (2003) contended that among the macro skills of language, it has been widely recognized that speaking, particularly in a second or foreign language, is the most difficult language skill to assess. The method used for assessing oral communication skills depends on the purpose of the assessment. According to Luoma (2004) two methods are used for assessing speaking skills. In the observational approach, the student's behavior is observed and assessed unobtrusively. In the structured approach, the student is asked to perform one or more specific oral communication tasks. His or her performance on the task is then evaluated. The task can be administered in a one-on-one setting, with the test administrator and one student, or in a group or class setting. In the present study we adopted a structured approach for interviewing each learner individually at the end of the course. Both observational and structured approaches use a variety of rating systems. A holistic rating captures a general impression of the student's performance. A primary trait score assesses the student's ability to achieve a specific communication purpose, for example, to persuade the listener to adopt a certain point of view. Analytic scales capture the student's performance on various aspects of communication, such as delivery, organization, content, and language. Rating systems may describe varying degrees of competence along a scale or may indicate the presence or absence of a characteristic (Luoma, 2004).

Critical thinking has gained widespread popularity in various disciplines nowadays. Educators have realized the importance of nurturing students who are critical thinkers and have a critical eye to look at the world surrounding them. Although lots of studies have been conducted in various fields to examine the significance of critical thinking and the methods of teaching it, we don't know much about the relationship between critical thinking and speaking ability. To this end the following research question was proposed and investigated in this study:

- Does critical thinking strategies training affect EFL learners' skill?

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were 48 advanced students from a language institute in Mashhad, Iran. After administering a TOEFL proficiency test, they were randomly assigned in two experimental and control groups. Although both male and female had participated in this study but gender was not considered as a moderator. They were advanced EFL learners who were participated in a TOEFL preparation course.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study included a proficiency test which was the truncated version of TOEFL (TOEFL, published by ETS, 2010) proficiency, oral interviews as pre-test, and post-test as well. In order to achieve homogeneity between the subjects regarding their general English proficiency, a TOEFL test was administered at the beginning of the study. This research project exploited oral interviews both prior to the beginning of the course and also right after the end of the course like pre-test and post-test. Subjects in both control and experimental groups were interviewed orally prior to the beginning of the course. All subjects were asked the same questions by their own teacher. The interviews were recorded for further detailed, analytic scorning. Each taped-interview was rated by two raters in order to ensure the inter-rater reliability of the assessments. The first interviews, pre-test, were carried out prior to the beginning of the course to be compared with those conducted at the end of the course. The second interviews, post-test, which were conducted at the end of the course were to determine how much of a difference the treatment given to the experimental group, made in comparison with the control group which did not receive such a treatment. The results of the first interviews which were assessed by two raters, then compared with those of the second interviews to see whether the treatment given to the experimental group, had any impact upon their oral proficiency level in comparison with subjects in the control group who had no such treatment. It was worth mentioning that the raters use Luoma interview checklist (2004).

Procedure

Since the purpose of this research was to investigate the impact of critical thinking on the improvement of speaking skill, an experimental method was selected. Through administering alanguage proficiency test 48 advanced students who attended the TOEFL proficiency class in a language institute in Mashhad, Iran were selected as the subjects of the study. In order to fulfill the research, the treatment applied in 6 sessions, each 90 minutes, between two experimental and control groups. In both groups, similar topics were proposed for group discussion such as air pollution, education, friendship, drug addiction, unemployment, etc. The teacher played the role of a discussion leader who tried to make sure everyone got the opportunity to express his/her opinions on proposed topics. The students were required to read on the topic before coming to the class and be ready for discussing their views on suggested topics. In the experimental class, in addition to having discussion on the given issues, the teacher devoted some time for teaching critical thinking techniques during the class time. These skills include involving learners in problem solving activities, raising questions, teaching logical reasoning, evaluating others' arguments, etc. Everything was the same for the control and experimental group except for the treatment.

Results

A TOEFL proficiency test was administered to 48 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 control groups of this study. The descriptive statistics of the homogeneity test were calculated (table 1).

Table 1.Descriptive Statistics of the Homogeneity Test

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

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

Table 2.Descriptive Statistics of the Oral Interview- Pretest

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

The inter-rater reliability of the oral interview 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 speaking 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 speaking ability before undergoing the treatment.

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

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F-observed	F-critical	t-observed	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error 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 oral interview, post-test. The descriptive statistics of the post-test for both groups are presented in table 5.

Table 5.Descriptive Statistics of the Oral Interview- Posttest

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

The interviews 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 post-test (table 6).

Table 6.inter-Rater Reliability of the Groups on the Post-test

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 post-test. 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 teaching critical thinking strategies would improve the speaking ability of the learners.

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 | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
	F-observed	F-critical	t-observed	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error 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

to determine the impact of critical thinking on the improvement of the speaking ability of the subjects, a matched t-test was also conducted for the mean achievement of the experimental group on the pretest and posttest. The results are presented in table 8. The calculated t value for the means of the experimental group before and after the treatment was 10.42, which exceeded the critical t value of 2.06 for a two-tailed test at 0.05 level of significance at 23 degrees of freedom.

Table 8. Matched t-Test between the Pre-test and Post-test of the Experimental Group

| | | Paired Differences | | | | |
		Mean difference	t-observed	t-critical	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
experimental	**Pre-test & Post-test**	**2.52**	**10.42**	**2.06**	**23**	**0.01**

Table 9 presents matched t-test results conducted on the pre and posttest of the control group. The t observed of 0.36 is lower than the t critical of 2.06 at 0.05 level of significance at 23 degrees of freedom. In other words, it could be claimed that there was not any statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students in the control group, who didn't receive critical thinking instruction.

Table 9. Matched t-Test between the Pre-test and Post-test of the Control Group

| | | Paired Differences | | | | |
		Mean difference	t-observed	t-critical	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
control	**Pre-test & Post-test**	**0.10**	**0.36**	**2.06**	**23**	**0.95**

Based on the above findings, it was concluded again that the performance of the subjects in the experimental group was significantly better than that of the control group.

Discussion
Critical thinking techniques helped the learners to use evidence skillfully and impartially in their interactions with their classmates during the treatment. Such kind of techniques motivated the learners to organize their thoughts and to articulate them concisely and coherently in their oral productions. According to Bracken and Brown (2009) Critical-thinking strategies helped the learners to become active participants in the interaction process by listening carefully to other students lectures, by judging on those utterances, and by making the best decisions about what to say in response to what has been said in the conversation by other interactants. In fact, critical thinking strategies help the learners consider all the characteristics of a good conversation when they were talking in the classroom.

The findings of the current study revealed that experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test. That is the students who received instruction on critical thinking strategies did better on the oral interview post-test. Of course both groups showed improvements in their speaking skills in comparison with

their status at the beginning of the study. Namely both groups speaking improved irrespective of the methodology for teaching speaking. But there was a significant difference between the performances of the two groups after the special treatment was given to the experimental group. So it was concluded that critical thinking training had a crucial impact on promoting speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners.

Conclusion

As mentioned earlier, the main aim of this study was to find out the impact of teaching critical thinking strategies on students' speaking ability. The results of quantitative data analysis indicated that critical thinking instruction affected the students' achievement in their overall speaking ability. To some extent, the results are also in accord with Malmir and Shoorcheh's (2012) findings that critical thinking training generally improves students' speaking ability.

As it was mentioned above, the good results of critical thinking strategies instruction are not limited to the speaking ability and they are helpful for other language skills. Thus the researchers of the study think that further research is needed to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking on the other language skills and sub-skills like listening comprehension, reading comprehension, writing, vocabulary and grammar.

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO PERSIAN AND TURKISH PARAMETRIC DIRECTIONALITY (HEAD-INITIAL, HEAD-FINAL) AND PASSIVIZATION WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF X-BAR SYNTAX

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ABSTRACT
The present article aims to give a descriptive account of Persian and Turkish parametric directionality and passivization. Parametric directionality refers to the position of heads within sentences. Languages are supposed to be either head-initial or head-final. Moreover, passivization reflects a situation in which the doer of action is not present for any reason. Through the analysis of the examples provided and in line with a number of previous studies, Persian is both regarded as head- initial in a number of phrases and head-final in a number of others. Moreover, due to evidence, it was revealed that Turkish is head-final. What is more, in terms of passivization, the two languages appear to behave somehow similarly. Needless to say, the results of the present study will bring about a number of pedagogical implications in the field of language teaching and learning.

KEYWORDS: Head-initial, Head-final, Parametric directionality, Passivization.

1.   Introduction
In the process of its acquiring a mother tongue, an infant has to construct a grammatical system in the first place. As Chomsky (1981) states, the infant's language acquisition device (LAD) incorporates a theory of Universal Grammar (UG) comprising:

- a set of universal *principles* of grammatical structure which are invariant across languages, and
- a set of structural *parameters* which impose strict constraints on the range of structural variation permitted in natural languages.

 Thus, given the universal principles as part of his/her genetic endowment, the infant's sole job is restricted to what is called *parameter-setting* in his subtle journey of first language acquisition . As the process of first language acquisition follows a straightforward and rapid pace for all children irrespective of where they embark on first language acquisition task, parameters-setting seems to be remarkably manageable and error-free. For instance, Radford (1990) observes such truth in acquiring English as a first language. From the very beginning even as young as 18 months old, children appear to set the head parameter at its appropriate setting that is evident in their early productions. The consistency of the relative position of a head and its complement at phrase level have been investigated by Greenberg (1963).

Greenberg, as cited also in Chomsky (1972) and Jackendoff (1977), argues for the consistency of appropriate head parameter setting across various categories within a language in his discussion of language universals. Chomsky (1981), following the lines of Greenberg , claims that the relative position of heads and complements for all phrases needs to be specified once in a given language. Rather than a long list of individual rules specifying the position of the head in each phrase type, a single generalization (a or b) suffices.

a) Heads are *last* in the phrase.

b) Heads are *first* in the phrase.

As Chomsky (in Pinker 1984) believes, nouns, verbs, prepositions and adjectives as lexical heads can be categorized under a single entry called X. What is more, XP emerges as the result of the combination of lexical heads with their complements. "Just plug in noun, verb, adjective, or preposition for X, Y, Z, and you have the actual phrase structure rules that spell the phrases. This streamlined version of phrase structure is called the X-bar theory" (Pinker 1994, 119). Within this endocentric syntactic framework, properties of the whole phrase are determined by the properties of the single lexical head, X.

In a related vein, Atkinson (1992) proposes that thematic properties of lexical items in accordance with the principles of X-bar theory, ascertain the type of possible D-structures in a grammar once the relevant parameter governing directionality is fixed. Due to this perspective, it is expected that X-bar principles constrain the child's grammatical system from a very early age.

In the same line of reasoning, based on Cook and Newson (1996) a particular theory of phrase structure called X-bar syntax, is catered for in principles and parameters theory. Due to this theory, all languages welcome a number of generalizations in terms of their phrase structure. Accordingly, it is asserted that the fundamental element in each phrase is **head**. Moreover, as they put forward, languages differ when it comes to the position of heads in disparate phrase structures. Put it differently, "the head of the phrases can occur on the left of the complements or on their right" (ibid, p 14). It has been claimed that, Persian is a head-final language (Soheili, 1989), 'no exception to Radford's findings, we also found evidence from Turkish L1 data displaying conformity to the syntactic patterns of Turkish in terms of parametric value being head-last. " (Ekmekci, F. Ö, 1979)

In addition, as Güray König (1985) puts forward, linguists have been keen on investigating the nature of passive voice from the beginning of early studies in linguistics. In Traditional grammar , the passive has been 'analyzed on the basis of the way it is used. In later studies, the association between active and passive sentences has been the locus of continuous investigation. As such, the link between passive and active sentences has been regarded as one of the pre-eminent arguments in linguistics.

The passive voice has been entertained as subordinate to the active voice for the very reason that the former is derived from the latter . For this rationale, active and passive sentences cannot be regarded as synonymous. Mc Kerrow (1922, Cited in Svartvik 1966:2) states that, "If we were now starting for the first time to construct a grammar of modem English, without knowledge of or reference to the classics, it might never occur to us to postulate a passive voice at all. It seem to me that it is questionable."

Rroin Lakoff (1971) points out –that passivization contributes semantically a little to the sentence , rather it complicates "the sentence syntactically and morphologically". On the other hand, Alien (1959:290) states that "a great deal of harm has been done by teaching the passive voice as if it were merely another way of expressing sentence in the active voice. ... We ought to stress the fact that the passive voice has an important and special place in the language; most sentences that are good in the active voice are just grotesque curiosities when put into the passive voice".

As witnessed, passive voice has been welcomed in all world languages. Slobin (1971 ;33) has stressed that "sentences are used to express meanings in situations and language allows for arrange of syntactic expressions because they are called for in a range of communicative contexts". In the same line, Sinha (1974;633) 'has shown that. the contrast between the 'active and the passive emphasizes the significant ,information and when the passive is changed into the active the effect is lost.

As Givon (1990:566) points out, "the notion of voice is fundamentally pragmatic." The very same semantically-transitive event, coded by the very same verb, agent and patient, may be rendered from several discourse-pragmatic perspectives." Commenting on the passive structure, Halliday (1985:169) argues that besides agent, there are other participants such as the patient and the beneficiary, which can be selected as subject of the clause, as a result of which the verb will be in the passive form. Typically, in an active sentence, the agent is represented by the syntactic subject and the patient or the beneficiary is represented by a syntactic object. But in a passive sentence, it is the patient or the beneficiary, which is selected as the subject of the sentence.

Perlmutter & Postal (1977) propose the following universal phenomena engendered by the transition of a clause from the active to the passive voice:

a. A direct object of an active is the (superficial) subject of the 'corresponding' passive.

b. The subject of an active clause is neither the (superficial) subject nor the (superficial) direct object of the 'corresponding' passive.

c. In the absence of another rule permitting some further nominal to be the direct object of the

clause, a passive clause is a (superficially) intransitive clause. (ibid: 76)
Given the aforementioned ideas, this study sets out to investigate into Turkish and Persian in terms of parametric directionality and passivization. To this end, a number of instances have been analyzed.

2.   Head Parameter in Persian

Head parameter determines the position of the Head (main element) within each phrase (Richards, et al., 1992). Based on Radford (1997), "In the case of head parameter (i.e. the parameter which determines: the relative positioning of head with respect to the complement.), UG allows only a <u>binary</u> set of possibilities-namely, that a language may either be consistently head-first or consistently head-last" .

Nevertheless, as Jahangard (2010) asserts, it is not a good idea to consider Persian exclusively as either head-firs or head-last based on the evidence as the heads are not situated consistently before or after their complements. While in noun, prepositional, and adjective phrases heads *precede* their complements, in verb phrases head(verbs) *follow* their complements. Consider the following examples :

   1. Ali <u>dokhtare</u> ra <u>dost darad.</u> (verb phrase)
     complement   head
3.   <u>khaneye</u>   <u>bozorg</u> (adjective phrase)

           complement   head
4.   <u>in</u>   <u>mard</u> (specifiers)
      complement   head
5.   <u>kodam</u>   <u>ketab </u>(interrogative dependents)
    complement   head
6.   <u>se </u>   <u>mard </u>(numeral dependence)
   complement   head

7.   <u>ajab </u>   <u>havaee</u> (exclamatory dependents)
   complement   head

7. <u>daneshjoo1ye</u> <u>zabaanshenaasi</u> (noun phrase)
     head   complement
8. <u>az</u>   <u>madreseh </u> (prepositional phrase)
   head   complement
9. <u>alaaqemand</u> <u>beh varzesh</u> (adjectival phrase)
     head   complement
10. <u>qazaayatraa</u> <u>boxor</u> (verb phrase)
        complement   head
11. <u>naamehatra xandam </u> (verb phrase)
      head   complement

 In the Persian examples above **(g, h, I, k)**, the heads precede their complements. Likewise, in **(a, b, c, d, e, f, j),** heads follow their complements. Consequently**,** Persian as is evident from the examples above, does not position heads consistently before or consistently after complements, i.e. regarding prepositional, adjective, and noun phrases it falls within head-first classification of languages whereas in case of verb phrases, it seems to be in the head-last classification. Consequently, this piece of evidence opposes Radford (1997)'s claim with respect to the binary nature of head parameter.

To sum up, as witnessed , heads and complements do not behave consistently in terms of the positions they occupy in different phrases in Persian. The heads both precede and follow their complements; hence, Persian can be considered both head-initial and head-final. Thus, it does not seem sensible to restrict different languages to either or dichotomy with respect to head parameter.

3. The Position of the Functional Heads in Turkish

It is a widely agreed-upon fact that accurate head –parameter setting in any natural language plays a fundamental role in syntactic development in the process of language acquisition (Cook, 1994; Haegeman, 1995; Radford, 1990, 1997).

Lexical heads including nouns, verbs, postpositions and adjectives follow their complements in Turkish, in contrast to English, in which heads precede their complements. In this regard the following instances prove illuminating:

12. [$_S$[$_{NP}$ Balkondaki <u>kız</u>] Ali'yi seviyor.]
          HEAD N

13. [$_S$[$_{PP}$ Ev-<u>den</u>] geliyorum.]
          HEAD Pro

In the Turkish NP *balkondaki kız* (12), the head N *kız* follows its complement *balkondaki*. Likewise, in the Turkish PP *evden* (13), the postposition *-den* follows its complement N *ev*.

Accordingly, in concert with the above instances, the following ones from Ekmekci, F. Ö (1979) produced by an infant have been also presented in conformity with the head-final nature of Turkish:

    (14)a. [sokak / ev *ayakkabım*]
    (outdoor / indoor shoe-1.sg.)
    (14)b. [ayak *tarağı*]*
    (foot comb-CmpM.)
    (14)c. [tualet *sabunu*]
    (toilet soap- CmpM.)
    (14)d. [mai *sabun*]
    (blue soap)
    (14)e. [ınga *bebek*]*
    (cry baby)
    (14)f. [ça *badaı*]
    (tea glass- CmpM.)
    (14)g. [burun *damlası*]
    (nose drops- CmpM.)
    (14)h. [çocuk *abi*]*
    (child elder brother)
    (14)i. [deniz *mayom*]
    (sea swimming suit-1.sg.]
    (14)j. [Özden teyze]
    (Özden aunt)
    (14)k. [ağlayan *bebek*]
    (cry-SbjP. baby]
    (15)a. [yodan *çekilin*]
    (street-Abl. get away-2.pl.)
    (15)b. [kitat *adı*]
    (book take-Past)
    (15)c. [yede *yatıyoyum*]
    (floor-Loc sleep-Prog..-1.sg.)
    (15)d. [Ameritata *gitti*]
    (The US-Dat. go-Past)
    (15)e. [elimizi *yıkayoz*]
    (hand-1.pl.-Acc. wash-Prog.-1.pl.)
    (15)f. [kitabımı *getir*]
    (book-1.sg.-Acc. bring-2.sg)
    (15)g. [*bıktım* denden]*
    (be fed up-Past-1.sg. you-Abl.)
    (15)h. [yüzünü *kapatmış*]
    (face-3.sg.-Acc. cover-Rep.Past)
    (15)i. [çiçek *topluyoduk*]
    (flower pick-Prog.-Past-1.pl.)
    (15)j. [gürültü *yapacam*]
    (noise make-Fut.-1.sg)

(15)k. [onu *döğmüşler*]
    (s/he-Acc. beat-Rep.Past-3.pl.)
(16)a. [kotuk-*tan***]** kayacam
(armchair-Abl.) slide-Fut.1.sg.
(16)b. [Kateti-*te***]** ditti
(Kayseri-Dat.) go-Past
(16)c. [ye-*de***]** yatıyoyum
 (floor-Loc) sleep-Prog.-1.sg.
(16)d. [elin-*den***]** yedi
(hand-3.sg.-Abl.) eat-Past
(16)e. [araba-*la***]** dittik
    (car-with) go-Past-1.pl.
(16)f. [restoran-*a***]** gidecem
(restaurant-Dat.) go-Fut.1sg.
(16)g. [kürek-*le***]** döğmüşler
(shovel-with) beat-Rep.Past-3.pl.

To conclude, the evidence from the given utterances in Turkish by an infant despite their discrepancy with adult speech, can be described successfully assuming head final structure .

4. Passivization in Persian

The passive structure in Persian has always been controversial among linguists and there is still no agreement about its existence in Persian. Some linguists such as Marashi (1970:18), Palmer (1971:98), Soheyli-Esfahani (1976:164), and Hajati (1977:17) argue for the existence of this structure in Persian. Adopting a formal approach, Moyne (1974) maintains that there is no passive in Persian and that what is called passive, is in reality a kind of 'inchoative structure'.

However, Dabir-Moghadam (1985), Jabbari (2003), and Rezai (2010) differentiate between passive and inchoative structures. As Richards (1992) points out, an inchoative verb expresses a change in the state of things, as exemplified by the verb *yellow* in *The leaves yellowed*. According to Hadian, Rizi and Amouzade (2013), inchoative and passive structures are similar because both, unlike the active, select the patient (or the beneficiary) as the syntactic subject of a sentence. However, despite this superficial overlapping, the agent (which has the feature 'volition') is present in the passive sentence, even if it is not expressed overtly. By contrast, in an inchoative sentence there is no agent or actor. The following examples are revealing:

17- The door opened (inchoative).
18- John opened the door (active).
19- The door is opened (passive).

Dabir-Moghadam (1985) points out that the passive and the inchoative are two distinct structures in Persian, although both are expressed with the light verb **shodan** ; for instance: as already mentioned, the semantic role of agent is implied in a passive sentence while inchoative sentences lack a volitional agent participant. In order to differentiate between passive and inchoative sentences, Dabir-Moghadam (ibid) proposes a test whereby passive sentences can be distinguished from inchoative ones. On the basis of this test, the expression **khod-be-khod** ('spontaneously or on its own') can be inserted into an inchoative sentence without creating semantic anomaly, whereas passive sentences do not admit of such insertion.
Consider the following sentences:

20. ab (xod-be-xhod) sard shod. (inchotive)
Besides this structure, as Dabir-Moghadam (ibid) and Sahrai (2006) point out, compound verbs which are made up of an adjective and the transitive auxiliary **kardan,** can turn into a passive structure through replacing the auxiliary **kardan** with the light verb **shodan**; for instance,

21. anha xane ra xarab kardand.
 So this structure is also treated as passive and, in order to distinguish passive from inchoative structures, we use **xod-be-xod** as a diagnostic test, as well as the information presented by the context of the discourse, since the ambiguity between the passive and the inchoative is due a to lack of information about the pres-

ence of an actor or agent in a specific event. In other words, regarding the information conveyed by the context of situation, it is clear whether that event or action happened by an agent or not.

From another perspective, as Rezaei (1389) believes, passivization has been a controversial issue in traditional linguistics. According to her, a number of linguists have ignored this structure in Persian and have considered it as deformed verb (Khayampour, 1352), intransitive structures (Moein, 1974), and compound verbs (Vahedi Langroudi, 1377). From another perspective, many a number have labeled such a structure evident and have identified several kinds for it (Bteni, 1348; Lambton, 1984; Dabirmoghadam, 1364; Tayeb, 2001; Pakravan, 1381).

As Rezaei (1389) claims, disparate interpretations exist amongst people who have rejected passivization in Persian. Khayampour (1352) has denied passivization as there is no special inflection for expressing it. He asserts "passive verb idiom and vice verb in a sentence like *Ali koshte shod* have been driven from the deformed verb of <u>*shod*</u> and the word <u>*koshte*</u> can be regarded as its complementarity which has been obviously taken from Arabic."

Moreover, Moein (1974) has also argued that passivization does not exist in modern Persian and the structures which have been mistakenly called passive, are intransitive structures indeed. This way, he induced the instrument concept and prepositions which are placed before the doer of the action in passive structures thanks to historical evolution of Persian. Due to the above he concludes that such structure does not exist in Persian.

In the same vein, Vahedi Langroudi (1377) has also questioned the presence of this structure in Persian. To him, the verb <u>*shodan*</u> is regarded as a light main verb. Since a light verb has got an incomplete semantic content, another non-morphological element which can play the role of past participle, noun or adjective has to be attached to it and this way a compound predicate should be made. From Vahedi Langroudi's perspective, passivization with <u>*shodan*</u> is regarded as a compound verb. He includes passive sentences in the category of nominative sentences. Given the above introduction, there seems to exist two kinds of passive structures in Persian. The first one is made from the past participle of the verb <u>*shodan*</u> and the second one carries third person plural inflection without subject. Rezaei (1389) terms the first main passive structure and the second impersonal passive structure.

(1)   Main Passive Structure in Persian
As mentioned before, grammarians and linguists alike have considered three special grammatical structures as passive structures. The first one is the so-called (past participle+ shodan). Based on Rezaei (1389), in such sentences affected nominal group is put in the subject position and effective nominal group is either completely omitted or is turned into a peripheral prepositional phrase.

22. **a) Shekarchi ahou ra kosht.**
   b) Ahou koshte shod.
   c) Ahou be daste shekarchi koshte shod.

In the first sentence **shekarchi** has appeared as effective. In addition, in the second one, <u>*ahou*</u> is regarded as affected and in the third one <u>*shekarchi*</u> has been mentioned as a peripheral prepositional phrase. According to Mahoutiyan (1997: 143), passivization is used in Persian when the doer of the action is unknown or there is no intention to mention him or her. Therefore, passivization is devoid of doer in this language as the following examples illuminate:

23. a) Ma nameh ra neveshtim.
   b) Nameh neveshteh shod.

24. a) Bacheha shisheh ra shekastand.
   b) Shisheh shekasteh shod.

There is no doubt that such passive structures have been agreed upon by both grammarians and linguists who believe in the existence of passivization in Persian. (Bateni 1348; Natel Khanlari 1364; Vahidiyan Kamyar 1371; Tayeb 2001; Pakravan 1381). Following Rezaei (1389), this type of passivization has been regarded as the main passive structure which exists as the commonest one in the world languages.

(2)   Impersonal Passive Structures

As Rezaei (1389) claims, another passive structure which some linguists and grammarians have put forward is associated with subjectless sentences that carry third person plural inflection including:

25. Mashin ra dozdidand=Mashin dozdideh shod.

26. Khaneh ra xarab kardand.=Khaneh xarab shod.

Bateni (as cited in Rezaei 1389), has called the above structures semantic passive structures. However, Tayeb (2001) has termed them as fixed person passive structures. Furthermore, Keenon (1985: 247) has pointed out that in languages which do not enjoy main passive structures, another type of grammaticalized structure is utilized to express passive role equivalece. He has called this structure impersonal passives as plural inflection does not refer to certain people.

In a similar vein, as Rezaei (1389) assumes a minor change in the structure of the above sentences can change such structures into active voice. For instance:

27. Mashin ra dozdid.

28. xaneh ra xarab kard.

It is crystal clear that sentences (25 & 26) differ both semantically and pragmatically from their corresponding sentences (27 & 28). In sentences (27 & 28), omission of subject noun phrase is justified due to the fact that such noun phrases are inferred from discourse context and are regarded as given information. That is why they have been naturally deleted. As Rezaei and Tayeb (1385) argue, subject noun phrases which are not treated as new information are omitted in Persian. However, in sentences (25 & 26), subject omission does not represent their being implied from the context for the very fact that the subject isn't known to the speaker and hearer.

Linguists and grammarians like Vahidiyan Kamyar (1371), Nobahar (1372), Bateni (1348), Jabari (1382), and Tayeb (2001) have also labeled such structures as passive ones. As Nobahar (1372: 32) claims, passive structures do not always call upon special regularities associated with them wherein passive subject guarantees a sentence in its being passive.

5. Passivization in Turkish

As common, passive construction can apply to just transitive verbs in a number of languages, but it is not the case in Turkish. Since, the intransitive verbs which do not take an object can also occur in passive constructions. As there is no subject in such sentences to satisfy the nominative case, third person suffix is added to the verb.

Therefore, as Güray König (1985) believes, the two types of passivization can be witnessed in Turkish. The transitive verb with a subject is called personal passive and the intransitive one without an agent is called impersonal passive.

According to Ozlem Kurtouglu (2010), in order to make passives in Turkish, some suffixes have to be attached to the main verbs as to satisfy the agglutinative nature of this language. Correspondingly, personal passive constructions are shaped from verbs which take a direct object. The direct object is prompted to subject position, takes the nominative case marker and triggers verb agreement. The verb is marked with the passive morphology *ılı-In* The underlying subject is usually deleted. but may be expressed in a postpositional phrase.

Based on Ozlem Kurtoglu (2010), "Turkish is an agglutinative language and voice is indicated by attachment of a number of suffixes to active verbs to make the passive. In the order of verbal suffixes on a verbal complex, passive is inserted between verb and tense marker." The passive suffix in Turkish is of three types:

a.   –n (attached to stems ending in a vowel)
b.   –In (attached to stems ending in the consonant l)
c.   –Il (attached to stems ending with all other consonants) (Goksel & Kerslake, 2005: 76)

As Ozlem Kurtoglu (2010) puts forward, Turkish follows a similar route in the process of passivization of transitives like some other languages including English. Any active sentence with an object can undergo the process of passivization. This way, a passive sentence is constructed by moving NP to the subject position. What is more, it is possible to make passives from both transitive and intransitive verbs.

29. **Adalara artlk deniz otobusuyle mi gidilecek?** (Goksel & Kerslake, 2005: 151)
This is also Ozlem Kurtoglu' (2010) view that Turkish enjoys double passivization. The suffix /-In/ doesn't always connotes passive meaning as reflexive and passive forms are homophonous. In order to resolve the ambiguity, the passive is distinguished by s double passive suffix in such words.
In the first place /-In/ suffix is used. Then /-Il/ is used after the /n/ of /-In/ (Sahinel, 1988;19). From another perspective, Ozkaragoz (1986) is of the idea that there are grammatical sentences in Turkish formed by impersonally passivizing a personal passive. For instance, the following sentence is composed of a verb which is suffixed with two passive morphemes.

30. **Bu sato-da bog-ul-un-ur.** "In this chateau one is strangled by one**.**"

From Ozlem Kurtoglu' (2010) point of view, Turkish does not passivize transitive verbs solely. Intransitive verbs are also included in the passivization process. Take for example the following instance:
31. Hep beraber maca gidildi. "We went to the match altogether.

6. Conclusions

Head-position values do not follow a strict mode in a number of languages including Persian.

That is, both of the values might be present in a language with one of them having the dominant role. For instance, regarding prepositional, adjective, and noun phrases it falls within head-first classification of languages whereas in case of verb phrases, it seems to be in the head-last classification. Besides, Turkish can be thought of as a head-final language. Furthermore, with regard to passivization the two languages behave somehow similarly. Namely, there seems to exist two kinds of passive structures in Persian. The first one is made from the past participle of the verb _shodan_ and the second one carries third person plural inflection without subject. The first has been called main passive structure and the second impersonal passive structure. In addition, as mentioned above, two types of passivization can be witnessed in Turkish. The transitive verb with a subject is called personal passive and the intransitive one without an agent is called impersonal passive.

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AN EVALUATION OF TWO SPEECH ACTS IN 'TACTICS FOR LISTENING SERIES' SERIES: (APOLOGY, REQUEST)

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ABSTRACT
The present study aimed to investigate the frequency and percentage of speech acts of apology, and request, in the three volumes of the course book "Tactics for listening" series (Basic, Developing and Expanding) by Jack C. Richards with Grant Trew (2010), published by Oxford University Press. For this purpose, speech acts strategies in the conversations were recognized and codified. To this end, two major speech acts strategies were selected including apology, and request speech acts. Qualitative analysis was used to codify and classify the speech acts. They were put in tables of the targeted forms for the sake of an overall comparison. In addition, quantitative part of the study analyzed items on the basis of socio-pragmatic features and pragma-linguistic forms of major English speech acts. Descriptive statistics includes frequency and percentage of pragma-linguistic forms. It was found that the books were rich in terms of the frequency of two speech acts. However, there were some variations in terms of linguistic forms. Bar graph analysis demonstrated the difference in the proportion of these strategies in three books of the series. It was concluded that the absence of some of the strategies in the speech acts in conversations of these series can be regarded as a weak point of these textbooks.

KEYWORDS: Pragmatics; Socio-pragmatic; Interlanguage pragmatics; Communicative competence; Speech act; apology; request

Introduction
Text books are important devices in any teaching/learning process, and in some cases, they are the only available source of information to the learners. Correspondingly and as point out by Hutchinson and Torres (1994), a textbook can have a very important role to play in teaching and learning of English. Also, they state that textbooks provide the essential input into classrooms lessons through different activities.
According to Riazi (2003) "textbooks play a very crucial role in the realm of language teaching and learning and are considered the next important factor in the second/foreign language classroom after the teacher" (p. 52).
Kasper (1997) defines pragmatic competence as the knowledge of communication action and the ability of use language according to contextual factors. According to Taguchi (2008) communicative properties of the language can be said as the 'pragmatic competence', refers to "the ability to produce language functions in the context" (p. 34).

Communicative competence has impact on learning and teaching languages. Competence, in Hymes (1972) terms, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations that is related to language, its features and uses. Sociolinguistic competence, significant of all includes both socio-cultural and discourse rules. Therefore, language learners must be aware of the target language social and pragmatic features in order to achieve true communication. Socio-linguistic information, conducted systematically and analyzed objectively, can obtain information as to what specific formulas and routines are in use in a particular speech community, and their patterns of frequency and appropriateness in different speech environment.

Studies suggest that foreign language learners face problems in using speech acts due to their lower levels of socio-pragmatic competence in comparison to linguistic competence. Although speech acts can be found almost in all languages, their representations differ according to the culture of the community. Cross- cultural studies of speech acts have shown that L2 learners usually face problems in using speech acts when they communicate with native speakers of the target language (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993). As Wolfson (1983) pointed out, "… a speech act or act sequence, whether it be apologizing, thanking, scolding, complimenting, inviting, greeting or parting, or even telling of a performed story, has important cultural information embedded in it …" (p. 90). As a result, this study intended to investigate whether available course books pr ovide learners with adequate linguistic forms in different social contexts to develop their pragmatic knowledge.

2. Method
2.1 Materials
The first and only material used in this study is 'Tactics for Listening' series (all of the listening exercises in the books, specifically) written by Jack C. Richards with Grant Trew published by Oxford University Press. The series are three-level for English learners- Basic, Developing, and Expanding- includes a comprehensive course in listening skills. Each series consisted of student book, tactics for testing, audio program and teacher's book.

In student book series, students practice listening for a variety of purposes and listen to examples of different types of spoken English including casual conversations, and suggestions. Essential listening skills practiced throughout the text. These skills include listening for key words, details, and gist; listening and making inferences; listening for attitudes; listening to questions and responding; and recognizing and identifying information. The Tactics for testing materials help students develop better test-taking skills while exposing them to formats from the listening sections of TOEIC test, the TOEFL test, IELTS, and other exams. The complete audio program for the Tactics for listening student book is available as a set of four Class Audio CDs. The teacher's book provided teaching notes, answer keys, optional activities audio scripts.

In addition, several frameworks used to qualitatively and quantitatively analyze the conversations of the textbook in terms of major English speech acts. The frameworks include the range of linguistic structures used in English for each speech act attributing to different socio-pragmatic features.

2.2 Procedure
The study enjoyed a mix-methods approach including both quantitative and qualitative approaches. These approaches analyzed socio-pragmatic features and pragma-linguistic forms of English speech acts in 'Tactics for listening' series. The data were collected and coded from the series directly. They were double checked by the researcher and her assistant.

For the quantitative part of the study, the frequencies and also percentages of the major speech acts were calculated in the 'tactics for listening' series. The qualitative part of the study started with creating a complete list of data source file organized in a variety of ways. Once transcriptions completed, they were put and compared with tables of available speech act strategies. This is an essential preliminary step to develop a coding scheme. After transcribing the data, the researcher began with coding and reducing process. This is the core of qualitative analysis and includes identification of categories. Coding of items was done in order to recognize the differences and similarities in the data patterns of major speech acts. After all data were coded and placed all speech acts having the same coding together, once coding of transcriptions was completed and all speech acts with a particular code placed together, they were reviewed by the researchers' assistant to ensure the accuracy of the coding procedure. The process of coding and categorizing was done for all speech acts. The next step was summarizing all conversations and exercises of the textbooks based on their socio-pragmatic features and pragma-linguistic forms. They were classified to find whether the textbooks follow a certain pattern of pragmatic representation. Finally, the frameworks of the major speech act

emerged. Once data completely analyzed and themes developed, the next was interpretation and making generalization based on the connections and common aspects of categories and patterns.

2.3 Data analysis

The study enjoyed both qualitative and quantitative approaches analyzing socio-pragmatic features and pragma-linguistic forms of English speech acts in 'Tactics for Listening' series. The qualitative part started with transcription of all major speech acts. The data were coded and classified. Finally, the patterns of the major speech act emerged. For the quantitative part of the study, the frequency and percentages were analyzed on the basis of socio-pragmatic features and pragma-linguistic form of major English speech acts.

3.   Result

3.1 Results of data analysis

As mentioned before, both qualitative and quantitative findings were used to answer the questions of the study. In what follows, first the qualitative results of codified and classified forms are mentioned, and then the frequencies and percentages are mentioned as complementary quantitative analysis.

3.1.1 Qualitative data

According to Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen and Razavieh (2010), qualitative analysis involves transcription, codification and classification. Accordingly, in this study all target speech acts were transcribed. Then they were codified according to the available English speech act frameworks. Finally, reference tables with specific graphic forms were used to show the completeness and adequacy of each speech act in the series.

3.1.1.1 The speech act of apology

Table 3.1 shows Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) general pattern of English apology speech act. The framework was used in this study to codify and classify apology speech act in the series.

Table 3.1. English Apology Speech Act Framework

1.   An expression of apology (Illocutionary Force Indicating Device IFID)
1.1.   An expression of regret (e.g. I'm sorry)
1.2.   An offer of apology (I apologize)
1.3.   A request for forgiveness (forgive me)
2.   An offer of repair (I'll pay for your damage)
3.   An explanation of an account (I missed the bus)
4.   Acknowledging responsibility for the offense (it's my fault)
5.   A promise of forbearance (I'll never forget it again)

After the data were codified, the same reference table (table 4.2) was used to show which pragma-linguistic forms are available and practiced in the series. Black color in the table means that the form is used, while gray means the forms could not be found in the series.

Table 3. 2. Apology speech Act Representation in 'Tactics for listening'

BASIC	DEVELOPING	EXPANDING	Total
IFIDA(-INTS) *IFIDB* *IFIDC*	*IFIDA (+INTS)* *IFIDB* *IFIDC*	*IFIDA (+INTS)* *IFIDB* *IFIDC*	*IFIDA (+INTS)* *IFIDB* *IFIDC*
An offer of repair	*An offer of repair*	*An offer of repair*	*An offer of repair*
An explanation of an account	*An explanation of an account*	*An explanation of an account*	*An explanation of an account*
Acknowledging responsibility for the offense	*Acknowledging responsibility for the offense*	*Acknowledging responsibility for the offense*	*Acknowledging responsibility for the offense*
A promise of forbearance	*A promise of forbearance*	*A promise of forbearance*	*-A promise of forbearance*

As represented in the table, it seems that all major pragma-linguistic forms of apology speech act are presented in the series. In terms of head act or IFID, structures with 'sorry' (IFIDA) are the only forms practiced in the 'basic' level. No intensification is seen in this book. In 'developing' and 'expanding' levels, however, IFIDA is accompanied with intensification, and IFID B is also added. The only missing form in the series is IFIDC (asking for forgiveness like 'forgive me').

Two points should be mentioned here. First, if the series intends to teach how to perform apology in English, the most frequent forms are presented. However, if presenting all possible forms is also necessary, it can be concluded that learners will not learn all possible and available forms of apology speech act in English.

In terms of supportive acts, all major forms are presented in the series. It should also be noted that the missing structures in lower levels can be found in upper levels. This can be considered as a positive point that new and possibly more difficult forms are added gradually to previous forms.

3.1.1.2 The speech act of request

Table 4.3 shows House and Kasper's (1981) general pattern of English request speech act. The framework was used in this study to codify and classify apology speech act in the series.

Table 3.3. English Request Speech Act Framework

A: conventionally indirect
  1. Query preparatory ability or permission
 1. a Ability: can you move over a little brother?
  1. b Permission: "may I borrow a pen"?
   2. Query preparatory availability:"… is there a menu or not"
B: Non conventionally indirect
1. Question hint (are you going home?)
 2. Statement hint ('…I don't have a pen')
C: Direct
1. Imperative full. ('…please wash my dirty clothes.')
2. Imperative elided. (the menu?)
3. Want statement. (' I want Tempo magazine father')
4. Goal statement. ('… I try these shoes, size42.')
5. Hedged performative. (I would like you to give your lecture a week earlier)
6. Explicit performative. (… I asked for just fried rice.')

After the data were codified, the same reference table (table 3.4) was used to show which pragma-linguistic forms are available and practiced in the series. Black color in the table means that the form is used, while gray means the forms could not be found in the series.

Table 3. 4 Request speech Act Representation in 'Tactics for listening'

BASIC	DEVELOPING	EXPANDING	TOTAL INTERPRET
Query preparatory ability	*Query preparatory ability*	*Query preparatory ability*	*Query preparatory ability*
Query preparatory permission	*Query preparatory permission*	*Query preparatory permission*	*Query preparatory permission*
Query preparatory availability	Query preparatory availability	Query preparatory availability	Query preparatory availability
Question hint	**Question hint**	**Question hint**	**Question hint**
Statement hint	**Statement hint**	*Statement hint*	**Statement hint**
Hedged performative	**Hedged performative**	*Hedged performative*	**Hedged performative**
Imperativefull	**Imperativefull**	*Imperativefull*	**Imperativefull**
Imperative elided	*Imperative elided*	*Imperative elided*	*Imperative elided*
Explicit performative	*Explicit performative*	*Explicit performative*	*Explicit per formative*
Want statement	**Want statement**	**Want statement**	**Want statement**
Goal statement	**Goal statement**	**Goal statement**	**Goal statement**

As represented in the table, it seems that all major pragma-linguistic forms of request speech act are presented in the series. In terms of conventionally indirect,query preparatory ability form is seen in this book. The structures missing form in the series are query preparatory permission (like "may I borrow a pen?"), and query preparatory availability (like "… is there a menu or not"). But in terms of non-conventionally indirect, the only structures seen in the series is question hint (like "are you going home?").

Two points should be mentioned here. First, if the series intends to teach how to perform request in English, the most frequent forms are presented. However, if presenting all possible forms is also necessary, it can be concluded that learners will not learn all possible and available forms of request speech act in English.

In terms of directs, it seems all major forms are presented in the series, except imperative elided (like, the menu?) which are not seen in the series. It should also be noted that the missing structures in upper levels can be found in lowers levels. This can be considered as a negative point that new and possibly more difficult forms are added gradually to previous forms.

3.1.2 Quantitative data
Quantitative data analysis involved analysis of the frequencies and percentages of the speech act strategies in the series.

3.1.2.1The speech act of apology
In terms of frequency, the total number of apologies found was 80. Of this total number, 18 belonged to basic, 20 to developing, and 42 to expanding. The most frequent type of head act in expanding was an 'expression of regret', while this type was the least frequent one in developing, five only. The following table summarizes the detailed information of the frequencies and percentages.

Table 3.5 Descriptive statistic of apology speech act strategy

Strategies	Basic		Developing		Expanding		Overall	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
An expression of regret	6	33.33	7	35	9	21.42	22	27.5
An offer of apology	0	0	0	0	8	19.04	8	10
A request for forgiveness	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
An offer of repair	1	5.55	7	35	3	7.14	11	13.75
an explanation of an account	11	61.11	5	25	15	35.71	31	38.75
Acknowledging responsibility for the offense	0	0	1	5	4	9.52	5	6.25
A promise of forbearance	0	0	0	0	3	7.14	3	3.75
TOTAL	18	100	20	100	42	100	80	100

In terms of apology head acts, the most frequent one is 'an expression of regret' with 27.5% of total structures. Correspondingly, the same head act is the most frequent among native speakers (Afghari, 2007). The second frequent head act is 'an offer of apology' with 10% of total structures. The most frequent supportive act is 'an explanation of an account' with 38.75% followed by 'an offer of repair' (13.75%), 'acknowledgement of responsibility' (6.25%) and 'a promise for forbearance' (3.75%).

٣.1.2.2 *The speech act of request*

In terms of frequency, the total number of request found was 214. Of this total number, 70 belong to basic, 131 to developing, and 13 to expanding. The most frequent type of strategies in developing was 'query preparatory ability', while this type was the least frequent one in expanding, six only. The following table summarizes the detailed information of the frequencies and percentages.

Table٣.٦ Descriptive statistic of request speech act strategy

Strategies	Basic		Developing		Expanding		OVERALL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Query preparatory ability	20	28.5	43	32.8	6	46.1	69	32.2
Query preparatory permission	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Query preparatory availability	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Question hint	13	18.5	20	15.2	4	30.7	37	17.2
Statement hint	1	1.4	3	2.2	0	0	4	1.8
Hedged performative	1	1.4	9	6.8	0	0	10	4.6
Imperative full	15	21.4	17	12.9	0	0	32	14.9
Imperative elided	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Explicit performative	2	2.8	0	0	0	0	2	.9
Want statement	4	5.7	12	9.1	1	7.6	17	7.9
Goal statement	14	20	27	20.6	2	15.3	43	20
TOTAL	70	100	131	100	13	100	214	100

In terms of request conventionally indirect, the most frequent one is 'an expression of regret' with (32.2%) of total structures. The most frequent 'non conventionally indirect' is 'question hint' with (17.2%) followed by 'statement hint' (1.8%). In terms of direct, the most frequent is 'goal statement' with (20%) followed by 'imperative full' (14.9%), 'want statement' (7.9%), 'hedged performative' (4.6%) and 'explicit performative' (.9%).

4.   Discussion and conclusion

4.1 Qualitative discussion

The analysis of the results in qualitative section indicated that in general terms, the books turn out to present apology, and request adequately in terms of strategy types for each speech acts. However, attention seemed to be on one or two particular structures. In other words, not all pragma-linguistic forms were covered in the series.

A.   As it was revealed in the results section, out of the seven strategies in apology framework, one strategy a 'request for forgiveness strategy' was absent among the other strategies in the series. In other words, six strategies of apology framework including, 'an expression of regret', 'an offer of apology', 'an offer of repair', 'an explanation of an account', 'acknowledging responsibility for the offense', 'a promise of forbearance', were present in the series (table 4.2). There fore, in apology speech act was an 'explanation of an account', 'an expression of regret', and an 'offer of repair strategies' more dominant but a 'request for forgiveness' strategy did not exist and a 'promise of forbearance' was used fewer only in expanding series. As a result, the lack of 'the request for forgiveness' in all of the conversations of these three textbooks may be regarded as a problem for the learners trying to improve their speaking skill through these textbooks. According to Cohen and Olshtain's framework (1981), 'the request for forgiveness' is one of the effective strategies in the real-life communication. With regard to what Soozandehfar (2011) states, a good conversation takes all the suitable conditions or the real contexts and roles of participants into account. Therefore, it can be concluded hat one of these strategies in real-life situations deals with those contexts in which the request for forgiveness is used. Tactics for listening series strategies lack of these contexts in their conversation sections. As well as textbooks have been thought also are as the key sources of input for the learners. As a result, there has been a major need for the textbooks to be appropriately designed in order to provide learners adequately with what they need to learn. That is why it is also essential to evaluate the books in terms of their sufficient coverage of the intended materials, so McGrath (2002) states that textbook evaluation is an important criterion for the development and administration of language learning programs.

B.   As it was revealed in the results section, two strategies out of the ten strategies in request framework 'imperative elided', 'query preparatory permission strategies', were absent among in the series. In other words, eight strategies of request framework including, 'Query preparatory ability', 'want statement', 'goal statement', 'hedged per formative', 'imperative full', 'explicit per formative', 'question hint', 'statement hint', were present in the series (table 4.4). In addition, in request speech act was 'question hint', 'goal statement', 'want statement', 'permission question' strategies more dominant but 'explicit per formative' strategy did not exist in two series and 'imperative full', 'statement hint' were used only in basic and developing series. As a result, the lack of 'explicit per formative' in two series of the conversations of these three textbooks may be regarded as a problem for the learners trying to improve their speaking skill through these textbooks. According to Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), 'explicit per formative' is one of the effective strategies in the real-life communication. 'Tactics for listening' series strategies lack of these contexts in their conversation sections. Also, textbook have been thought of as the key sources of input for the learners. As a result, there has been a major need for the textbooks to be appropriately designed in order to provide learners adequately with what they need to learn. That is why it is also essential to evaluate the books in terms of their sufficient coverage of the intended materials, so McGrath (2002) states that textbook evaluation is an important criterion for the development and administration of language learning programs.

4.2 Quantitative discussion

The present study also focused on the frequency and percentage of the major speech act realizations in all conversations of 'tactics for listening' series to ensure the efficiency of different social contexts offered. The data with reference to the available frameworks of native speakers' language use would suggest whether all major pragma-linguistic forms were used.

A.   According to the point discussed in section 4.1.2.1, with regard to the use of all major in apology head acts and supporting acts, one may conclude that different contexts have been used in the series to prac-

tice apology speech act. However, lack of 'a request for forgiveness' strategy may suggest that it be necessary to add situations with socio-pragmatic features of +D, +P and + more severe offense.

B.   According to the point discussed in section 4.1.2.2, with regard to the use of request strategies, one may conclude that different contexts have been used in the series to practice request speech act. However, lack of Imperative elided, query preparatory availability, query preparatory permission strategies may suggest that it be necessary to add situations with +D, +P.

To sum up, the present study aimed at evaluating 'Tactics for listening' series to find out to what extent speech acts applied in the conversations of these text books. The course books evaluated in this study, however, seemed not to provide their learners with all classified strategies of apology, and request.

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GROUNDED THEORY: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT
From 1980s on, there has been a gradual shift towards more subjective, qualitative approaches to research in many parts of the world. Unfortunately, however, it seems that qualitative approaches have not yet found their proper place in some educational systems, such as that of Iran (Akbari, 2005). Different qualitative methods have been proposed to help researchers from different disciplines find solutions to their problems. Grounded Theory (GT) is one of these methods and the ultimate aim in its application in any field of study is to generate a theory which is grounded in the data. Considering the significance of grounded theory methods in contributing to knowledge through generating theories, this overview aims at providing the readers with an overall picture of the method in terms of its history, its basic characteristics and tenets, and the probable problems in its application. The overview, through describing the principles in conducting a grounded theory-based study, can be especially of help to novice EFL researchers who tend to find answers to their questions through conducting a rigorous qualitative method, such as grounded theory.

1. Qualitative and quantitative methodologies

Increase in the number of published qualitative papers in recent decades proves the rigor of qualitative methods in research. Qualitative methodologies "value the individual and celebrate the richness of personal lives" (Akbari, 2005, p.41) and perhaps this has been one of the main reasons for the change of shift towards qualitative methodology in recent decades. Laws and McLeod (2006), drawing on the work of Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, enumerated some paradigms for quantitative and qualitative methodologies. For example, qualitative methodologies made it possible for the researchers to have a "naturalistic" view of human beings in the sense that, unlike quantitative methodologist, they are capable of conducting their research without setting an experiment or manipulating the variables. In addition, in this type of methodology, there is a respect towards the phenomenon under the study because it can be studied "holistically", with regard to a large set of variables and in a context. Furthermore, qualitative methodology gives currency to the individuality of human beings by pursuing individual's perspective (idiographic view) and by trying to study them through appropriate yet vigorous methods (Interpretive view). All of these characteristics, as Laws and McLeod (2006) claimed, make qualitative methodology suitable for investigating the *why* of an issue rather than the *how* of it. In other words, unlike quantitative methods in which there is an attempt to test a hypothesis, the aim of the qualitative methods is to generate the hypothesis (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006).

Qualitative methods can be of different types such as ethnography, case study, phenomenology, and grounded theory (GT) (Ary et al., 2006; Mackey & Gass, 2010). It has been stated that GT methods are "now among the most influential and widely used modes of carrying out qualitative research when generating theory is the researcher's principle aim" (Strauss and Corbin, as cited in Thomas & James, 2006, p. 2).

2. GT definition

In order to define a GT method, first proposing a definition for the term theory seems appropriate.
"A theory might be defined as asset of interrelated constructs and propositions that presents an explanation of phenomena and makes predictions about relationships among variables relevant to the phenomena" (Ary et al., 2006, p. 14). Goulding (1999) mentions Morse's (1994) description of a theory as the following:
A theory provides the best comprehensive, coherent and simplest model for linking diverse and unrelated facts in a useful and pragmatic way. It is a way of revealing the obvious, the implicit, the unrecognized and unknown. Theorizing is the process of constructing alternative explanations until a best fit is obtained that explains the data most simply. This involves asking questions of the data that will create links to established theory. (p.7)

Different researchers have defined GT through emphasizing on different terms. The following can be a synopsis of GT as defined by some of the researchers.

GT is an approach to research which discovers or generate a theory regarding social phenomena. The theory is generated from the data which has been obtained through investigating real-life situations relevant to the research problem. In other words, the, emergent, theory is grounded in the data and thus in the behavior, words and actions of those under the study. Thus contribution of GT to knowledge is not made through the existing theories but through developing a higher understanding of the phenomena under study. This understanding is achieved through a systematic analysis of the data collected from one or more sources or vantage points to help arriving at complete picture of the phenomena under investigation. (Ary et al., 2006; Lingard, Albert, & Levinson, 2008; Goulding, 1999; Gasson, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2010)

3. The origin of GT

GT has its roots in the works of Charles Cooley and George Herbert mead whose concern was "to avoid the polarities of psychologism and sociologism". Psychologism claimed that social behavior is explainable in genetic terms and by neurological processes and socialogism stated that personal behavior is programmed by societal norms. Therefore, symbolism was proposed as the most profound aspect of human behavior in the sense that people are involved in social interaction and every person has his/her meaning of different objects, entities, people. (Goulding, 1999; Goulding, 2005)

With regard to the aforementioned paradigms, it is clear that for the social interaction, as a dynamic and symbolic aspect of human conduct, to be successful, people need to put themselves in the shoes of others. The researchers are no exception. From the symbolic viewpoint, as Goulding (1999) has stated, the investigator tries to understand the concept of reality by entering the world of the interactant and seeing with the interactant's eyes. S/he observes interactions, interprets and describes them, and then develops a theory (p.5). Surely, by doing so, the researcher can explain the whys of phenomena in a systematic way (Lingard et al. 2008, p.3).

Then, Anselm Strauss and Barney Glaser, two American scholars, used these foundations and developed the GT method.

4. The emergence of GT

Barney Glaser (born 1930) took his PhD degree from Columbia University in New York in 1961 at the age of 33. At that time, Strauss got a grant for a four-year study on the experience of dying. He was to conduct an observational field study on the hospital staff's way of dealing with dying patients. Then Strauss and Glaser started working as a team to do the study. In 1967, they first published 'Awareness of dying' and then 'The discovery of grounded theory' as the results of their study (Birks & Mills, 2011; Goulding, 1999; Laws & McLeod, 2006; Wikipedia, 2013). In this way, GT, just timely, emerged when "the academy largely regarded qualitative research as subjective, unsystematic, and above all, unscientific, and as such unworthy of serious recognition" Goulding (1999, p. 6).

Strauss and Glaser claimed that their motivation for publishing 'The discovery of grounded theory' was based on the fact that "in social research generating a theory and verifying it go hand in hand" (Birks & Mills, 2001, p. 2). In the preface of the work, the authors have explained:

Our book is directed toward improving social scientists' capacities for generating theory that will be relevant to their research. Not everyone can be equally skilled at discovering theory, but neither do they need to be a genius to generate useful theory. What is required, we believe, is a different perspective on the canons derived from vigorous quantitative verification on such issues as sampling, frequency distributions, conceptual formulation, construction of hypothesis, and presentation of evidence. We need to develop canons more suited to the discovery of theory. These guides, along with associated rules of procedure, can help release energies for theorizing that are now frozen by the undue emphasis on verification. (Glaser & Strauss, 1967)

Allen (2010) stated that 'The discovery of grounded theory' "has been one of the first books to systematically produce a set of procedures for the generation of theory from qualitative data" (p.1606). Through its three parts (Comparative Analysis, The Flexible Use of Data, and Implications of Grounded Theory) and 11 chapters, the book has aimed at "providing a system for evaluating the work of any theory, presenting a methodological handbook, and mainly, stimulating other theorists to publish their own methods of generating theory" (ibid, p. 1609). However according to Allen (2010), it may not be so much helpful for the novice researcher because although the book is effective in giving theoretical advice, it is insufficient with regard to practical advice.

5. Characteristics of GT

GT can help researchers follow a systematic approach to data collection and analysis in order to identify their problems and solve them. According to Goulding (2005), GT as an effective qualitative methodology can give credit to qualitative approaches to research for gaining valid insights, generating theory, and arriving at effective decisions.

Mills et al. (2006) refer to the applicability of GT in different disciplines and state that "GT has an enormous appeal for a range of disciplines due to its explanatory power. This power illuminates common issues for people in a way that allows them to identify with theory and use it in their own lives" (P. 7).

GT is abstract of time, place and people and it, in developing a theory, benefits from conceptualization as opposed to description which is applied by researchers in other qualitative methods. As the research goes on, GT through conceptualizing summarizes the data so that the generalized, formal, theory can be applied to any relevant time, place or people. However, other qualitative methods are dependent on description of specific people, time and places and result in large complex volumes of going to every where data which is difficult to handle. (Glaser, 2002)

In GT methods, the emphasis is on the theory, Ary et al. (2006), and the generated theory is obtained from inductive analysis of the data. Thus the systematic data is firm and grounded in theory because the preconceived ideas do not have any roles in proving or disproving it (Mills, Bonner, & Francise, 2006).

And finally, in GT methods, the researchers "concern to understand the world of the participant" because "GT is not their voice: It is a generated abstraction from their doings and their meanings that are taken as data for the conceptual generation" (Glaser, 2002, p.5). Furthermore, GT "relates participants' stories to the world in which they live" (Mills et al., 2006, p.4).

6. Principles of GT

Some years after publishing their book, there occurred some disagreement between Strauss and Glaser with regard to the methodology of GT. This led to the emergence of 'traditional Glaserian' and 'evolved Straussian' versions of GT. Glaser had a positivistic position, and subscribed to the discovery of truth emerging from data which are representative of a real reality while Strauss had a relativist position and did not believe in the existence of a pre-existing reality (Birks & Mills, 2001; Mills, et al., 2006). Based on their positions, Glaser "stressed the interpretive, contextual and emergent nature of theory development while on the other hand, Strauss appeared to become somewhat dogmatic regarding highly complex and systematic coding techniques" (Goulding, 1999, p. 7). According to Birks & Mills (2006), from the emergence of GT on, different methodologies of GT, underpinned by various philosophies, have been developed. However, despite the fact that there may exist various GT philosophies and methodologies, 'a set of essential methods' (Birks & Mills, 2006), or as labeled differently by different researchers, a set of 'key features' (Lingard, et al., 2008), 'some general principles' (Gasson, 2003), or 'a set of fundamental nomothetic principles' (Goulding, 1999, p.6) are common among all of them.

In the following section, the main principles of GT have been discussed. These principles have been proposed by different researchers, through different terminologies and labels which, of course, refer to the same concepts. Furthermore, it should be mentioned that there may be some overlaps between these methods or principles.

6.1 Coding

In conducting a study based on GT, like any other approach to research, the researcher must be interested in the area which he intends to explore. According to Goulding (1999), "researchers usually adopt GT when the topic of interest has relatively ignored in the literature, or [when it] has been given only superficial attention" (p.80). After identifying an area of interest, the researcher can begin collecting the relevant data.

The common instruments for data collection in qualitative approaches to research include interview and observation (Gasson, 2003). The relevant data are recorded, transcribed and then coded. "Codes are building blocks of theory" (Goulding, 1999, p.12) and "Coding is a form of shorthand that distills events and meanings without losing their essential properties" (Charmaz, 2002, p. 684). Open coding is the first step in coding of the data.

a)   Open coding

According to Ary et al. (2006), in open coding "the researcher breaks down and categorizes the data into manageable segments" (p.553). The unit of analysis may be "a sentence, a line from a transcript, a speech-interaction, a physical action, a one second sequence in a video, or a combination of all these elements"

(Gasson, 2003, p.82). And to start analyzing, a line-by-line analysis of the transcribed data is done and each identified theme is labeled. (ibid, 2003)

Here, the researchers should differentiate between 'in vivo codes'; the important words or group of words in the transcription which are used as the label and usually are the verbatim of the participants (Holloway, as cited in Birks and Mills, 2006) and 'scientific constructs' "derived from the researcher's scholarly knowledge and understanding of the field being studied" (Gasson, 2003, p.82). This is done to distinguish between the emergent concepts and the imposed ones (ibid, p.82). The second step is axial coding.

b)   Axial coding

According to Ary et al. (2006), after breaking down and categorizing data into manageable segments, "the researcher puts the data back together again and makes connection between and across categories" (p.553). So "axial coding is the search for relationships between coded elements of the data" (Gasson, 2003, p.83). It is stated that this can be established through generation of theoretical memos and concurrent data collection and analysis (Birks & Mills, Gasson, 2003). Birks and Mills (2006) mentioned that coding is divided into three parts: initial coding and analysis, intermediate coding and advanced coding and theoretical integration. They further stated that "axial coding is the most advanced form of intermediate coding and has been a feature of the work of Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin over time (Strauss and Corbin, 1990)" (p.12).

c)   Selective coding

Ary et al. (2006) explained that "sometimes the researcher has a clear and selective focus and is systematically reviewing the data for that specific category" (p.553). Gasson (2003) cited Strauss' and Corbin's (1998) definition of selective coding as "the process of integrating and refining categories" (p. 83). It is when a core category has been formed to which all the other categories are related (Gasson, 2003; Goulding, 1999).

6.2 Writing memos

"Memos are written records of a researcher's thinking during the process of undertaking a GT study. As such, they vary in subject, intensity, coherence, theoretical content and usefulness to the finished product" (Birks and Mills, 2006, p.10). Charmaz (2002) stated that "Memo writing links coding to the writing of the first draft of the analysis; it is the crucial intermediate step that moves the analysis forward" (p.687). She further claimed that Memo writing helps grounded theorists to

stop and think about the data; spark ideas to check out in further interviews; discover gaps in earlier interviews; treat qualitative codes as categories to analyze; clarify categories-define them, state their properties, delineate their conditions, consequences, and connections with other categories; and make explicit comparisons-data with data, category with category, concept with concept. (p. 687)

So it is obvious that a good memo can serve as a source upon which all the chapters of research are built (Gasson, 2003; Charmaz, 2002; Birks & Mills, 2006)

6.3 Concurrent data analysis and collection

According to Lingard et al. (2008), "this phase entails the simultaneous data collection and analysis, where analysis informs the next cycle of data collection" (p. 459).

This principle entails a reciprocal relationship between data collection and data analysis in the sense that as both are done simultaneously, the analysis of the data will lead to adaptation of specific new data which need to be analyzed in turn. In this way, the categories can be refined again and again until a theory will emerge (Lingard et al., 2008). And finally, according to Glaser and Strauss (1967), it is what makes a theory a process rather than a product.

The researcher continues to collect data until theoretical saturation is achieved, i.e. no new information is obtained in the process of seeking data to check a category (Charmaz, 2003). According to Goulding (1999), "theoretical saturation is based on the assumption that a full interrogation of the data has been conducted, and negative cases, where found, have been identified and accounted for" (p.9).

6.4 Theoretical sampling

It is "sampling to develop the researcher's theory, not to represent a population- and it endows studies with analytic power" (Charmaz, 2002, p. 689). Glaser and Strauss (1974) define theoretical sampling in the following way:

It is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyzes the data and decides what data to collect next and where to find it, in order to develop the theory as it emerges. This process of data collection is "controlled" by the emerging theory. (p. 45)

This type of sampling begins as a "commonsense process" (Goulding, 2005, p.296) for data collection and the researcher goes to "the most obvious places and the most likely informants in search of information. However, as concepts are identified and the theory starts to develop, further individuals, situations and places may need to be incorporated in order to strengthen the findings" (Goulding, 1999, p.9).

It is stated that "writing memos is an important technique to use this process" (Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 11) and "builds a pivotal self-correcting step into the analytic process" (Charmaz, 2002, p. 689). It is noteworthy that theoretical sampling continues until saturation is reached (Goulding, 2005) and it relies on comparative methods. (Charmaz, p.689)

6.5 Constant comparative analysis

"Constant comparison lies at the heart of the GT approach and differentiates a rigorous GT analysis from inductive guesswork" (Gasson, 2003, p.84). As Mills et al. (2006) stated the "constant comparison of analysis to the field grounds the researcher's final theorizing in the participant's experiences" (p.3). Here a constant comparison of "incident to incident, incident to codes, codes to codes, codes to categories, and categories to categories" is done (Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 11) so that " consistency can be ensured and negative cases identified" (Goulding, 2005, p. 297) and furthermore, "emerging themes can be sorted on the basis of similarities and differences" (Goulding, 1999, p.18). Finally, as Lingard et al. (2008) mentioned, "constant comparative analysis refines theoretical construction and allows the integration of new and existing data towards a well grounded theory" (pp. 459-460).

7. The formation of GT

And the outcome of applying all the above dynamic principles is "an integrated and comprehensive GT which explains a process or scheme apparent in relation to particular phenomena. It is comprehensive because it includes variation rather than assuming there is a one-size-fits-all answer to a research question" (Birks & Mills, 2011, p.12). The theory "has explanatory power within the specific context of research" (Goulding, 1999, p.17). It can also be "integrated with existing theories to show relevance and new perspective" (ibid, p.9) which can further add more explanatory power to it (Birks & Milks, 2011).

8. One misunderstanding about GT

As one enters the field of research, he enters it with all his previous experiences, knowledge, ideologies, etc. But this seems to be in controversy with one of the tenets of GT that the researcher should analyze the data inductively and that s/he, without being influenced by her/his own preconceptions, should generate new theories and knowledge rather than using the previous ones. This has led to a large criticism towards the originators of GT who have been accused of "preaching the notion of avoidance while entering the field themselves with a life-time of concepts and experiences" (Goulding, 2005, p.296). However, Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained:

As we have frequently remarked researchers often stifle potential insights by virtue of too strict adherence to existing theory. Nevertheless, no sociologist can possibly erase from his mind all the theory he knows before he begins his research. Indeed the trick is to line up what one takes as theoretically possible or probable with what one is finding in the field. Such existing sources of insights are to be cultivated, though not at the expense of insights generated by the qualitative research, which are still closer to the data. A combination of both is definitely desirable. (p. 253)

9. Criticisms against GT

Some researchers have stated that there are some problems with GT. Goulding (2005) made mention of some of these problems. She mentioned that the main problem associated with methodology of GT "stems largely from its misuse and abuse" (p.297) because, as she claimed, there are many researchers who label their works as grounded theory. But a precise evaluation of their works reveals that principles of GT, such as theoretical sampling, inductive coding, and constant comparison have been violated in them and thus they cannot be called a GT method. She further complained that most of GT works produce substantive theories, or as she said, "conclude at the substantive levels" (p.298) which means that the generalized theory is context specific. However, as some of the researchers have mentioned, a good GT work is one which ends in a formal theory, i.e. one that can be used in other context, too (Gasson, 2003, p.84). Finally, theoretical saturation of the data and also interpretation of the data make it difficult for the researcher to anticipate the required time for completing his work. This may be especially problematic when the researcher applies for research grants (Goulding, 2005). As mentioning the other problems with and criticisms against GT is beyond the

space of this overview, the reader is referred to the following works in order to gain a better understanding of all the issue (Goulding, 2005; Gasson, 2003; Thomas & James, 2006).

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THE EFFECT OF WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH PREPOSITIONS

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ABSTRACT
This study examined the effect of three different types of written corrective feedback (coded, uncoded, and metalinguistic feedback) on the acquisition of selected prepositions among elementary Iranian EFL learners. The participants of the study were 90 learners who were selected from 136 elementary learners based on their performance on a KET. Three experimental groups were formed, and there were 30 subjects in each group. Each group received one kind of written corrective feedback on their writing tasks: the coded correction group's errors were corrected based on an abbreviated code system, the uncoded correction group's errors were highlighted in their writing tasks, and the metalinguistic group's correction contained metalinguistic comments that explained the correct form. After ten treatment sessions, the learners were given a posttest. Three weeks after the posttest, they took the delayed posttest. The three groups' performance on the posttest and delayed posttest were compared by one way ANOVA. The results showed that the learners in metalinguistic group outperformed the other groups both on the posttest and the delayed posttest. It was found that written metalinguistic corrective feedback helped learners to improve in accuracy.

KEYWORDS: Coded Corrective Feedback, Uncoded Corrective Feedback, Metalinguistic Feedback, Prepositions, Acquisition of Preposition

1. Introduction
With the emergence of error analysis in the late sixties, the negative attitudes of audiolingual method and contrastive analysis toward errors lost their popularity. According to these methodologies, errors should be prevented, and if learners committed an error, they were not successful language learners. But the new methodology saw errors as signs of learning and the question was how to treat errors. Since then the errors that language learners make when they are learning a second or foreign language became a matter of concern to the teachers and textbook writers alike (Sridhar, 1975, cited in Fisiak, 19850). Murphy (1986) stated that a language learner who makes an error must be in need of correction.

Since the language in use exploits both form and function, correction may be concerned with accuracy or fluency and research of second and foreign language learning classrooms has revealed that teachers are partial and selective in making corrections (Hendrickson, 1978). While some consider correction inappropriate in communication activities (Paine, 1983, cited in Brown, 1987), Murphy (1986) suggested that "correction is necessary in communication activities" (p. 146). Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), see errors as the flawed side of learners' speech or writing and consider errors as those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance.

The types of correction language teachers provide students reflect their view of language and their objectives. According to Chastain (1988), if they view language as a perfectible grammatical system, they focus students' attention on language, and they correct all the errors the students make when they speak it. If they view language as a functional communicative system, they focus the students' attention on meaning, and they respond to the content and comprehensibility of what the students say (p. 283). While Terrell (1985) presents various reasons for not correcting students` errors directly, Newmark and Reibel (1968) contend that language teachers can correct students cognitively if they remember to support them affectively.

2. Corrective Feedback Studies

In 1996, Truscott published his famous article ''The Case Against Grammar Correction In L2 Writing Classes, '' in which he presented his controversial conclusion that written CF is not only ineffective but it is also harmful in improving L2 acquisition. He argued that correction in L2 writing classes should be abandoned for some reasons: a) research evidence shows that grammar correction is ineffective; b) this lack of effectiveness is exactly what should be expected, given the nature of the correction processes and the nature of language learning; c) grammar correction has significant harmful effects; and d) the various arguments offered for continuing it all lack merit (p.328). Since Truscott took a very strong position, some researchers tried to challenge his idea by conducting theoretical and empirical studies to prove the effectiveness of written CF (Chandler, 2004; Ferris, 2004). This challenge has continued up to this time and the researchers are not sure about the efficacy of written CF. This uncertainty lies in the ambiguous results of CF studies which have been carried out so far.

Truscott (1996) reported that none of the CF studies could find any significant differences among the effect of different types of feedback. Guenette (2007) states that one of the reasons for the uncertainty lies in the failure to design CF studies that systematically investigate different types of written CF and control for external variables that are likely to impact on how effective CF is. Sheen (2007) sees the reason for this uncertainty in methodological issues; telling that many written corrective studies did not have a control group that did not receive any feedback and in other studies which had a control group, the differences among the groups after treatments were not statistically significant. She (2007) argues ''the methodological limitations of past studies on CF and inconclusiveness of their findings have resulted in a somewhat confusing picture, leading CF critics to argue against the effectiveness of CF and even to claim that CF can be harmful'' (p. 258).

In an empirical study, Han (2002) focused on tense consistency among adult learners and based on the results, he reported that the group who received recasts was much more successful than the other group who did not receive any feedback. Iwashita (2002) examined the role of task-based conversation in L2 grammatical development by focusing on the short-term effects of both negative feedback and positive evidence on the acquisition of just two Japanese structures. Iwashita concluded that implicit negative feedback had beneficial effects on short-term development of the grammatical structures, and recasts had a larger impact than positive evidence on short-term L2 grammatical development. Fathman and Walley (1990) found that the grammatical errors of the students who received feedback on their errors were fewer. Ashwell (2000) found that the writing of adult learners who were given feedback both in content and grammar of their writing improved in their grammatical accuracy.

Some studies measured the effectiveness of CF itself focusing on the final improvement of learners after receiving feedback. Ferris and Robert (2001) dealt with learners' improvement in accuracy and general quality of writing. They investigated whether university ESL students' writing proficiency improved after receiving feedback or not. They employed two types of feedback and found that those who received feedback significantly outperformed the group who did not receive feedback.

Other studies measured the effectiveness of CF over a long period of time. Chandler (2003) used an experimental and control group to show that learners' correction of grammatical and lexical errors between assignments decreases these kinds of errors in subsequent writing over one semester without reducing fluency or quality. The findings showed that direct correction and simple underlining of errors were significantly superior to describing the type of error for reducing long-term errors.

Although there is not a consensus among scholars about the absolute efficacy of written CF, some researchers have tried to compare the outcomes of different types of written feedback to find out whether some types of CF have more positive effects than others. Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) compared the outcomes of four methods of providing feedback on written error and were concerned with improvement in writing in terms of learners' gains in linguistic accuracy and fluency. They used four types of feedback-- marginal, coded, uncoded and direct correction feedback strategies. They did not find any major differences across the four treatment types. It must be mentioned that their study did not include a control group which received no correction. This makes it difficult to isolate the exact efficacy of the feedback strategies used in this study. However, in studies which had a control groups that did not receive any correction, significant differences had been reported between the groups whose errors had been corrected and those whose errors had not been corrected. Ferris and Roberts (2001) investigated the effects of three different kinds of feedback treatment--coded, uncoded, and no feedback control group on text revisions. They found that both groups who received feedback significantly outperformed no feedback control group. Fazio (2001) examined the differential effects of three types of feedback--corrections, commentaries (content-based feedback), and a combina-

tion of the two-- on the journal writing accuracy of minority- and majority- language students. Majority-language students were native speakers of French, and minority-language students were speakers for whom French was a second language. The journal writing samples were collected from learners over a period of four months in four classrooms where the language of instruction was French. The students were assigned to three feedback groups, and each group received one type of feedback. The results of the study showed no significant difference in accuracy among the groups.

In feedback literature, some scholars have made a distinction between direct and indirect feedback. Hendrickson (1980) define direct feedback as error feedback (e.g., over correction) which is the provision of the correct form or structure for the students' faulty sentences. Indirect strategies refer to situations when the teacher indicates that an error has been made but does not provide a correction, thereby leaving the students to diagnose and correct it (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005).

Although some researchers contend that indirect error correction is more beneficial than direct correction (Ferris, 2004) some other researchers see no advantage for indirect error correction over direct error correction (Robb et al., 1986). It seems that indirect feedback help students to progress in accuracy over time more than direct feedback (Ferris et al., 2001); or at least equally as well (Frantzen, 1995; Robb et al., 1986). Ferris and Roberts (2001) examined the differential effects of two types of feedback, coded and uncoded, both indirect feedback strategies. The two groups who received feedback outperformed the control group, but no major differences were seen between coded and uncoded feedback results. They concluded that explicit or direct feedback helped students to improve in self-editing their texts. Of the studies which have examined the effect of indirect feedback strategies, some have made a distinction between coded and uncoded feedback. Coded feedback is referred to the situation when not only the exact location of the error is mentioned, but also the type of the error is provided to the learner with a code system (for example, PREP means an error has been occurred in the use of prepositions). Uncoded feedback, on the other hand, is referred to the situation when the teacher whether underlines the error or circles the error or places the error in the margin, but it is totally left to the student to find out what the error is and correct it (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005).

Based on Truscott's (1999) statements, as a result of great variations in the results of corrective studies and their designs, no generalization can strongly be made about the effectiveness of grammar correction in L2 writing classes. He believes if any positive results have been reported, it has been reported for the period of treatment; there is not any study which can prove its effectiveness over long periods of time to see if the learners can carry these positive effects over to their future writing tasks. Ferris (2004) says ''we need studies that are comparable in design and that are reported clearly enough to be replicable.'' Specifically what is needed, according to Ferris (2004),are studies that carefully (a) report on learner and contextual characteristics; (b) define operationally which errors are being examined (and what is meant by ''error'' to begin with); (c) provide consistent treatments of feedback schemes; and (d) explain how such errors (and revisions or edits) were counted and analyzed systematically (p. 57). According to Truscott (1996), research evidence from different error correction studies and SLA insights suggest that different linguistic categories and different parts of language should not be considered as if they are equal since every linguistic category represents different pieces of language, so they are learned through different stages and processes differently by different learners. The studies which targeted specific error categories found that there were significantly different rates of student achievement across error types (Sheen, 2007; Ferris et al., 2001).

Ferris (1999) made a distinction between ''treatable'' and ''untreatable'' errors and suggested that the former (e.g. verb tense and form, subject-verb agreement) occur in a rule-governed way, and so learners can be pointed to a grammar book or set of rules to solve the problem, while the latter (e.g. word choice errors) are idiosyncratic and so need learners to use their knowledge of the language to correct the error. In their study, Ferris and Roberts (2001) examined this distinction and reported that learners' errors in the use of verb and noun ending (treatable) reduced in text revisions, and more accurate use of articles were also seen. Ellis (2010) presented a typology of different types of written CF which is available to teachers and researchers. The typology which he proposes includes two sets of options which are related to the strategies used in giving feedback and the students' responses to the feedback.

3. Acquisition of prepositions

Prepositions as part of the English language constitute the structures that learners frequently make errors and constantly experience difficulty in acquiring them. According to Lo, Wang, and Yeh (2004), there are two major problems involved in EFL/ESL preposition learning. The first is the need for tools to present three

dimensional aspects of prepositions, and the second problem is that most English prepositions posses multiple meanings and many prepositions are so complicated that require much memory work from the learner. Jin (1989) stated that incorrect use of prepositions may result in changing the meaning of the sentence or may result in odd English. Lindstromberg (2010) identified two major levels (geometrical and functional) for prepositions according to the meaning they convey. And Keshavarz (1999) divided the errors that learners have in using the prepositions into three main groups a) omission of prepositions, b) redundant use of prepositions, and c) wrong use of prepositions.

According to Kranjec, Cardillo, Schmidt, and Chatterjee (2010), prepositions describe spatial relations flexibly. They can describe both (1) the same spatial relations among different kinds of things and (2) different kinds of spatial relations among the same thing. But when they describe temporal relations, timelines are generally represented as one dimensional and unidirectional. These problems indirectly contribute towards the difficulty of learning the English prepositions. Therefore, learning English prepositions pose a great challenge for learners who learn English as a second or foreign language.

The studies which have examined the learning of prepositions can be divided into two main groups. The first group is the studies which were done among learners who had some sort of mental problems be in first or second language contexts (Kemmerer, 2005), and the second is the studies carried out in foreign language contexts to examine the effect of external factors on learning prepositions (Kranjec et al., 2010; Ngu & Rethinasamy, 2006). These studies demonstrated that different techniques can help EFL learners to overcome their problems in learning prepositions. Ngu and Rethinasamy (2006) studied the effect of using a software on the learning of the English prepositions. They used video pictures to illustrate different prepositions. They aimed to capture the relationship between the events and the time. They also included narrations to explain the meanings of prepositions, light music to highlight the mood of the background, and the sounds caused by the movement of the objects. They did the study with four prepositions of time (on, after, at, and before) and four prepositions of place (in, beside, on, and under). The results showed that the students who received conventional teaching performed better than those who received computerized lessons.

The functions that prepositions fulfill in different contexts appear to bias their learning. To see if spatial prepositions influence the way people think about time, Kranjec et al. (2010) used abstract concept of time as a test case. They designed six stimulus sentences and used ambiguous questions to interrogate the participants' meaningful representations of temporal relations. One hundred and eighty- three native English speakers from the University of Pennsylvania community participated in this study. Kranjec et al. found that the semantic of prescribed prepositions --when paired with abstract concepts such as *at risk* or *in trouble*-- modulate how people think about time and the semantic of particular locative prepositions do constrain how people think about paired temporal concepts. They concluded that (1) spatial and temporal representations are distinct, (2) spatial schemas are not necessary for, but (3) can influence temporal thought.

Lo, Wang, Yeh (2004) designed a study to investigate the effects of confidence scores and remedial instructions on preposition learning in adaptive hypermedia (a kind of web instruction that adapts to individual differences and allow the learner to control the path of her study).They provided their EFL learners with adaptive remedial instructions on the use of prepositions. They reported significant effects of students' confidence scores and the provision of adaptive remedial instruction for English preposition learning in hypermedia-based lessons.

4. Research Question and Hypothesis

Does written corrective feedback have any significant effects on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of selected prepositions?

$H_{(0)}$: Written corrective feedback does not have any significant effects on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of selected prepositions.

5. Methodology
Participants

90 elementary EFL female learners with an age range of 14-18, who were chosen from among 136 students based on their performance on a KET and already had one year language learning experience, were the participants of this study. They were assigned into three experimental groups and each group received one type of written CF on their writing tasks.

Instrumentation

To measure the participants' general language proficiency level and select a homogeneous sample, the KET as a test of general proficiency was administered. It included 56 reading and writing items and 25 listening comprehension items. The allocated time for the test administration was one hour and forty minutes (see Appendix A).

A teacher-made test of prepositions which consisted of 40 sentences with blank spaces was administered after the KET to make sure that learners were homogeneous in terms of their prepositional knowledge prior to the study. The learners were to answer this test in 30 minutes. No negative point was assigned to wrong answers (see Appendix B).

The post-test of the study contained 30 fill-in-the-blanks sentences. This test was administered at the twelfth session of the course. All the items had the same weight, and no negative score was assigned to the wrong answers. The time allocated to this test was twenty minutes (see Appendix D).

In order to measure the long term effects of the treatment process on the learners' acquisition of selected prepositions, a delayed post-test was administered. It involved twenty fill-in-the-blank sentences and the learners had fifteen minutes to answer the questions (see Appendix E).

In each session of the treatment, the learners were to read a mini biography of a famous person. In these biographies, the important accomplishments of these people and the dates they accomplished them were given to the learners (see Appendix C).

In the treatment sessions, the participants of the study were required to use the correct prepositions in their writing tasks to join the dates and sentences together (see Appendix C).

The course book used in this study was "PACESETTER 1" by Derek Strange and Diane Hall. It consisted of 15 units and in each semester, the learners were taught three units of the book.

6. Procedure

The research process began with piloting KET language proficiency test. The KET was administered to 41 learners who had similar characteristics to those of the main participants. The mean and standard deviation of the pilot group were 77.7 and 11.37, respectively. The reliability of the test was (r=0.89). This indicated that the test was reliable enough to be used for the purpose of the study.

The pretest of prepositions was piloted with 30 learners. The reliability of this test was 0.84.

Prior being given to the main subjects, the reading tasks were piloted with the 30 subjects who were used for the piloting the pretest of prepositions. The readability of the texts had already been calculated through Fry's readability formula, and the approximate readability for all of the texts was 7.

In the first session of the course, the KET and the pretest of prepositions were administered to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. Out of 136 female subjects, who enrolled in elementary level at Kish Language Institute and based on the mean (64.91) and standard deviation (11.48) of the students' scores on the KET, 90 students whose scores fell one SD above and below the mean were selected. That is to say, the students who scored between 53.53 (one SD below the mean) and 76.39 (one SD above the mean) were selected as the target participants of the study. Then the teacher made pre-test of prepositions which was comprised of 40 items was administered. The subjects were assigned to three experimental groups and there were 30 subjects in each group.

The above mentioned steps were followed by the main experimental procedure. In the following session, the researcher started the treatment. This treatment continued for ten consecutive sessions. In each session, the learners were given a mini biography of a famous person. They had 10-20 minutes to read the text. To ensure maximum comprehensibility, in case that they did not know the meaning of a word or there was a comprehension problem, the researcher explained the problematic words to the learners to make sure that they understood everything. After the learners finished reading the texts, they were given a chart. In these charts the learners had been given the important dates and complete sentences about the events which had happened in these dates. The learners were asked to rewrite the sentences. To accomplish this task, and to join the sentences and the dates to each other, the learners had to use the correct prepositions. They had 10-15 minutes to complete the given task. These tasks were corrected and given to the learners in the following session.

a. *Error correction in the CCF group*: The errors of the learners in this group were corrected based on an abbreviated code system. The codes were O, I, A, B, and U for *on, in, at, by,* and *until*, respectively. For example if a learner made a mistake using *on* in the sentence ''He was born in September 17, 1906,'' the code used for this sentence was *O* which meant that the correct preposition to be used in the sentence was *on* not *in.* The learn-

ers were required to revise their sentences by using the codes to decipher the researcher's markings on their papers. They did not receive any explicit and direct explanation in their writing.

b. *Error correction in the UCF group*: The prepositional errors of this group were indicated in the text with a yellow highlighting pen. The types of the errors were not specified. The learners were asked to identify the type of errors by themselves and to rewrite the sentences again. They were not given any feedback on the second draft of their writing tasks. This group did not receive any explicit and direct explanations.

c. *Error correction in the MF group*: The locations of the errors were indicated in the text and the feedback of this group involved the correct form and metalinguistic comments that explained the correct form. For example if a learner made a mistake using *on* in the sentence "my mother gave me an expensive watch in my birthday,'' the comment was that since date is specified, *on* should be used not *in*. The metalinguistic comments were based on Lindstromberg's (2010) justifications for functions of prepositions (see chapter 2; pp. 38-39).

In the twelfth session the post-test of the study was administered. The mean score of the three treatment groups were computed to discover the relative short term efficacy of different types of written CF.

Three weeks after the administration of the posttest, the learners were given the delayed posttest. It was held in the twenty-first session, along with the final exam of the language institute. The mean score of the delayed post-test in the three experimental groups were compared together to discover which type of feedback was more effective.

7. Results

Analysis of the collected data was carried out through SPSS version 16.00 for Windows and it is presented in the chronological order below.

Participant selection

The KET was used to make sure that the participants of the study were homogeneous in term of their general language proficiency. The sections below describe the details of these two consecutive processes of piloting and administrating the KET.

At the KET piloting stage, the mean and SD of the test were 77.7 and 11.37, respectively. The reliability of the test was r= 0.89 which was conducted through using Cronbach Alpha. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the KET in the pilot phase.

Table 1- Descriptive Statistics of the KET in the Pilot

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ketpilottest	41	27.00	94.00	77.7073	11.37375
Valid N (listwise)	41				

Table 2 shows the reliability of the test scores gained by the participants in the KET piloting phase. The Cronbach alpha came out to be .895.

Table 2- Reliability of the KET – Pilot Study

N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
81	.895

Based on the mean (64.91) and standard deviation (11.48) of 136 students on the KET, 90 students whose scores fell one SD above and below the mean were selected. That is to say, the students who scored between 53.53 (one SD below the mean) and 76.39 (one SD above the mean) were selected.

Table 3- Mean and Standard Deviation of KET

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
KET	136	64.9118	11.48104

One-way ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the three CF groups (MF, CCF and UCF) on KET in order to investigate their general proficiency knowledge prior to the study. The F-observed value was 1.84 (Table 4). This amount of F-value was lower than critical value of 3.10 at 2 and 84 degrees of freedom. It should be noted that the three groups enjoyed homogenous variances, an assumption that must be met for an appropriate one-way ANOVA design (F = 2.68; P = .073 > .05).

Table 4- One-Way ANOVA KET by Types of Feedback

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	205.356	2	102.678	1.840	.165
Within Groups	4855.767	87	55.813		
Total	5061.122	89			

Based on these results, it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups on the KET and the groups enjoyed the same level of general proficiency knowledge prior to the study. The mean scores of the MF, CCF and UCF on the KET are 67.60, 63.90, and 65.73, respectively (Table 5).

Table 5- Descriptive Statistics of KET homogenization Test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
METALINGUISTIC	30	67.6000	5.32139	.97155	65.6130	69.5870	54.00	75.00
CODED	30	63.9000	8.48670	1.54945	60.7310	67.0690	44.00	80.00
UNCODED	30	65.7333	8.19139	1.49554	62.6746	68.7920	42.00	78.00
Total	90	65.7444	7.54099	.79489	64.1650	67.3239	42.00	80.00

Table 6- Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

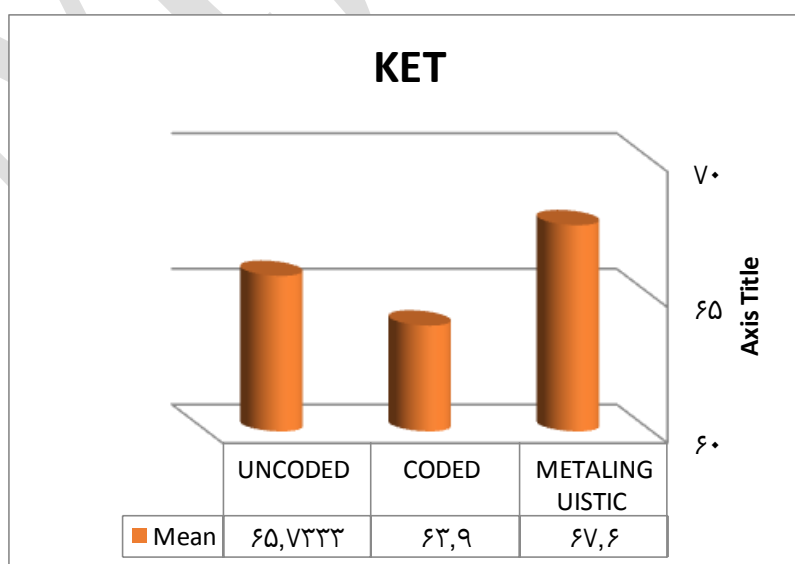|	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
KET	2.689	2	84	.073

Figure 1- KET Mean Scores

The pre-test of the study was administered after the KET. One-way ANOVA was performed to compare the mean scores of the CCF, UCF, and MF groups on pre-test of preposition in order to investigate their ability on this grammatical topic prior to the study (Table 7). The F-observed value came out to be 1.07. This amount of F-value was lower than the critical value of 3.10 at 2 and 84 degrees of freedom.

Table 7- One-Way ANOVA Pretest of Prepositions by Types of Feedback

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.267	2	8.633	1.079	.345
Within Groups	696.333	87	8.004		
Total	713.600	89			

These results showed that there was not any significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups on the pretest of prepositions and the participants were homogeneous in terms of prepositional knowledge prior to the study. The mean scores of the MF, CCF and UCF on the pretest of prepositions were 15.23, 14.80 and 14.16 respectively. Table 8 and graph 2 show the descriptive statistics for the mean scores of the three groups on their pretest of prepositions.

Table 8-Descriptive Statistics of Pretest of Prepositions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
METALINGUISTIC	30	15.2333	2.47307	.45152	14.3099	16.1568	11.00	20.00
CODED	30	14.8000	2.91725	.53261	13.7107	15.8893	7.00	20.00
UNCODED	30	14.1667	3.06350	.55932	13.0227	15.3106	6.00	18.00
Total	90	14.7333	2.83160	.29848	14.1403	15.3264	6.00	20.00

Pretest

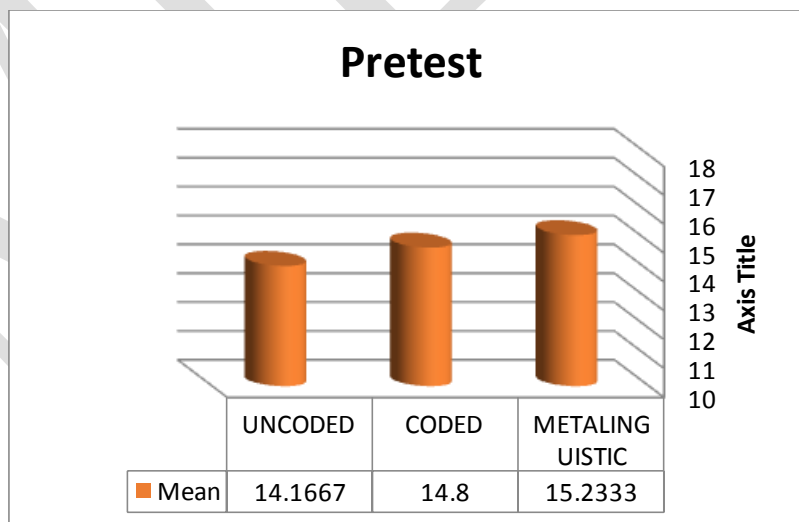|	UNCODED	CODED	METALINGUISTIC
Mean	14.1667	14.8	15.2333

Figure 2- Pretest Mean Scores

As it is presented in Table 9 the three groups had homogenous variances (F = .09; P = .90 > .05).

Table 9- Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.

Pretest	.096	2	87	.908

When the treatment was completed, in the twelfth session of the course, the posttest was administered among the three experimental groups. A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the three CF groups (MF, CCF, and UCF) on posttest of prepositions in order to examine the effect of different types of written CF on the acquisition of selected prepositions. The F-observed value was 36.13 (Table 10) which is higher than critical value of 3.10 at 2 and 84 degrees of freedom.

Table 10- One-Way ANOVA Posttest of Prepositions by Types of Feedback

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	545.089	2	272.544	36.134	.000
Within Groups	656.200	87	7.543		
Total	1201.289	89			

Based on these results, it is clear that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups on the posttest of prepositions after the administration of three different types of written CFs. Table 11 below displays the descriptive statistics for this administration in all groups with the mean scores of the MF, CCF, and UCF on the posttest of prepositions being 18.26, 14.03, and 12.43, respectively.

Table 11- Descriptive Statistics of Posttest of Prepositions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
METALINGUISTIC	30	18.2667	3.18329	.58119	17.0780	19.4553	9.00	25.00
CODED	30	14.0333	2.34128	.42746	13.1591	14.9076	10.00	18.00
UNCODED	30	12.4333	2.64814	.48348	11.4445	13.4222	5.00	17.00
Total	90	14.9111	3.67391	.38726	14.1416	15.6806	5.00	25.00
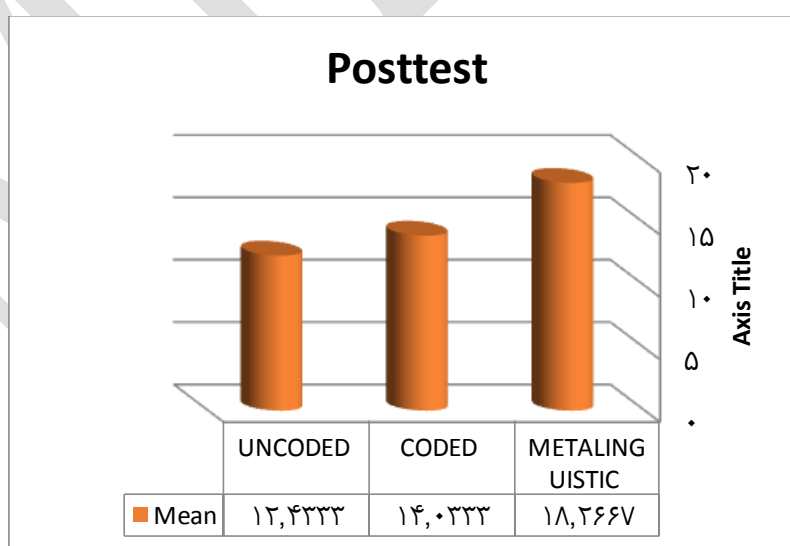
Figure 3- Posttest Mean Scores

The MF had the highest effect on the improvement of the students' knowledge on prepositions. This is followed by CCF, but UCF had the lowest effect. Based on the results, it can be stated that the null-hypothesis as written corrective feedback does not have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of

selected prepositions **is rejected**. The significant F-value of 36.13 indicates significant differences exist among the mean scores of the three groups, the post-hoc Scheffe's tests was run to locate the exact places of differences (Table 12).

Table 12- Post-Hoc Scheffe's Tests Posttest of Prepositions

(I) TYPE	(J) TYPE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
METALINGUISTIC FEEDBACK	CODED FEEDBACK	4.23333*	.70911	.000	2.4673	5.9994
	UNCODED FEEDBACK	5.83333*	.70911	.000	4.0673	7.5994
CODED FEEDBACK	UNCODED FEEDBACK	1.60000	.70911	.084	-.1660	3.3660

There are significant differences among the mean scores of the MF and CCF and UCF. The students performed better on the MF with a mean score of 18.26.There is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the CCF and UCF. The three groups enjoyed homogenous variances (F = .43; P = .65 > .05).

Table 13- Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Posttest	.433	2	87	.650

The study further went on with administering the delayed posttest in the twenty-first session which was administered along with the learners' final exam. That is there was a three week interval between the posttest and delayed posttest of the study. It aimed to examine which type of written CF had the longest effect on the acquisition and long term retention of selected prepositions. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the mean scores of the MF, CCF, and UCF groups on the delayed posttest of preposition to see if there were any significant differences among the mean scores of the three CF groups on the delayed posttest. The F-observed value was 33.54 (Table 14). This amount of F-value is higher than the critical value of 3.10 at 2 and 84 degrees of freedom. Table 14 displays the results of one-way ANOVA for the delayed posttest of prepositions among three written CF groups. There were significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups on the delayed posttest of prepositions.

Table 14- One-Way ANOVA of Delayed Posttest of Prepositions

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	384.067	2	192.033	33.546	.000
Within Groups	498.033	87	5.725		
Total	882.100	89			

As it is displayed in Table 15, the mean scores of the MF, CCF, and UCF on the delayed posttest of prepositions are 14.26, 10.63, and 9.40, respectively.

Table 15- Descriptive Statistics of Delayed Posttest of Prepositions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
METALINGUISTIC	30	14.2667	2.83978	.51847	13.2063	15.3271	7.00	19.00
CODED	30	10.6333	2.22033	.40538	9.8042	11.4624	6.00	15.00

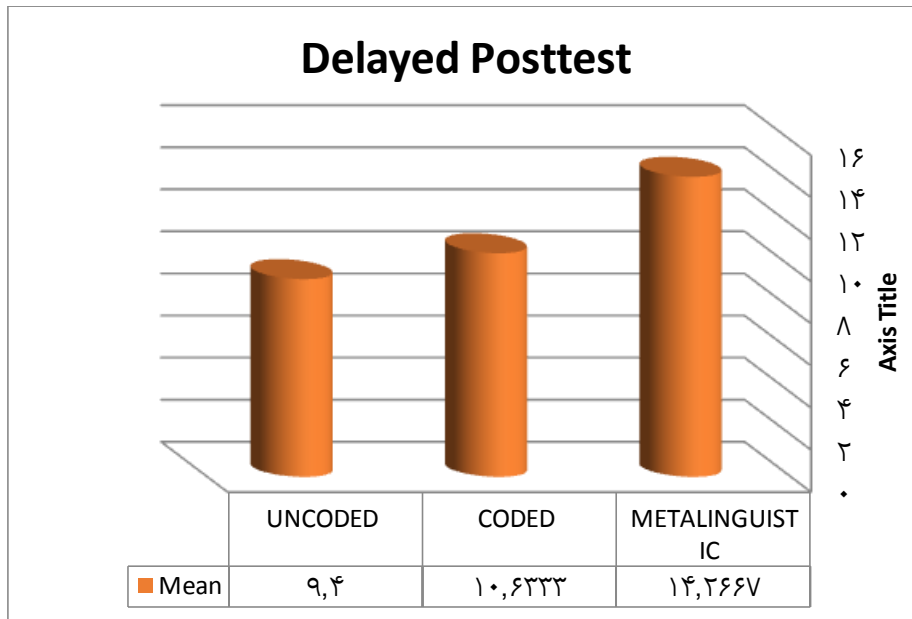| UNCODED	30	9.4000	2.04434	.37324	8.6366	10.1634	6.00	13.00
Total	90	11.4333	3.14821	.33185	10.7740	12.0927	6.00	19.00

Figure 4 Delayed Posttest Mean Scores

According to the results, it can be concluded that the null-hypothesis as written CF does not have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of selected prepositions **is rejected**. The three groups enjoyed homogenous variances (F = 1.49; P = .23 > .05).

Table 16- Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Posttest	1.490	2	87	.231

The F-value of 33.54 indicates there were significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups. The post-hoc Scheffe's tests were run to find the exact places of differences as displayed in Table 17.

Table 17- Post-Hoc Scheffe's Tests Delayed Posttest of Prepositions

(I) TYPE	(J) TYPE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
METALINGUISTIC FEEDBACK	CODED FEEDBACK	3.63333*	.61777	.000	2.0948	5.1719
	UNCODED FEEDBACK	4.86667*	.61777	.000	3.3281	6.4052
CODED FEEDBACK	UNCODED FEEDBACK	1.23333	.61777	.142	-.3052	2.7719

There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the MF and CCFs. The students performed better on the MF with a mean score of 14.26. There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the MF and UCFs. The students performed better on the MF with a mean score of 14.26.There is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the CCF and UCFs.

8. Discussion

Based on the statistical analyses of the present study, enough evidence was observed to reject the null hypothesis. The research question asked whether written CF that focuses on preposition errors provide a significant positive effect on acquisition. The results of the error correction in posttest and delayed posttest in-

dicate that the written CF had a positive effect on the learning of selected English prepositions, and the participants of the study performed well on the posttest and delayed posttest compared to the beginning of the course. It must be mentioned that although the difference between the mean scores of CCF and UCF groups was not statistically significant, the learners in CCF group performed slightly better than the UCF group. In particular, MF feedback proved to be most effective type of feedback in improving learners' linguistic accuracy in the posttest and delayed posttest. That is to say, the type of feedback which is followed by metalinguistic comments which explains and discusses the wrong forms had stronger effect than the types of feedback which did not provide the learners with this kind of explanations.

The current study is different from other written corrective studies in that it targeted just a small number of prepositions and the tests measured learners' linguistic accuracy alone. The researcher did not explicitly teach or correct prepositions outside the treatment and the students in all experimental groups were of the same language proficiency level and received the same type of instruction and reading and writing materials. Thus it is possible to isolate the effect of types of written feedback and conclude that CF alone is responsible for the acquisition and long-term retention of English prepositions. Hence, the findings of this study can be used to provide evidence that written CF, especially with MF comments, has positive effects on improved accuracy. Contrary to Truscott's (1996, 2004) claims that written corrective feedback is ineffective, the present study proved that written CF is effective in helping learners to improve in linguistic accuracy.

Different CF studies have shown that the feedback which targets a single or limited number of features facilitates learning since it makes errors salient. In this regard the findings of this study are in line with Han (2002) and Sheen (2007). Han (2002) found that recasts which targeted only tense consistency among adult learners were more successful in helping learners to improve in this domain. Sheen (2007) reported that the provision of CF which focused on a specific error (article errors) increased the effectiveness of written CF.

The findings of this study is supported by other CF studies (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). Ellis et al. (2006) investigated English regular past tense acquisition among low-intermediate ESL learners. They provided the learners with feedback in response to any utterance that contained an error in the target structure. Statistical comparisons of the learners' performance on the posttest showed a clear advantage for explicit feedback. They found that explicit feedback in the form of MF comments was superior to implicit feedback in the form of recasts and the learners in explicit feedback group performed better than the learners in implicit feedback group.

In another research study, Bithchener et al. (2005) reported that written CF which was followed by conferences that gave the learners MF comments on their errors of two grammatical structures resulted in statistically significant gains in accuracy. They did not report any statistically significant effect for CF without MF comments. Taken the results of these different feedback studies together, it can be concluded that MF feedback seems to be more effective than other types of feedback on learners' grammatical accuracy improvement both in short term and long term retention.

Findings related to the present study may have some implications for the teachers in that incorporating written CF may have positive effects on the acquisition of different grammatical concepts. The results of this research study proved that there is difference in the effect of different kinds of written CF, so it is apparent that teachers should be made aware of these differences and use the most effective type of feedback in their teaching contexts. The results of this study may also be beneficial to SLA researchers and all of those who are somehow involved in language teaching and learning related professions.

The current study was limited in several ways. Regarding the limitations of the study and the importance of some issues discussed fully throughout the study, some gaps and new ideas are found which can give good insights and pave the way for future studies:

Since the study was not carried out in L2 writing classes, examining the effect of written CF in the context of L2 writing classes can shed more light on the actual nature and effectiveness of written CF. The writing tasks of the present study were very short. A more substantial CF treatment may even produce stronger effects. This study examined the effect of written CF on a small number of prepositions, and it is obvious that the results cannot be generalized to the rest of the prepositions and other areas of English grammar. So studies which target other prepositions may be conducted to verify the results of this study. The types of written feedback addressed in the current research were CCF, UCF, and MF. Other studies may utilize other types of feedback to investigate the efficacy of other types of feedback. The impact of written CF on the acquisition of prepositions was conducted among elementary learners in this research study. Other language proficiency levels can be studied as well. The present study was done among female learners. Other studies can be car-

ried out in coeducational or male settings. The present study did not have a control group. Research studies with a control group can help to exactly isolate the effect of written feedback more confidently.

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Appendix B
Pretest of prepositions
Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words.
1- He is working at the TV studio. He is very busy ....the moment.
2- The course ends ....February.
3- She usually goes for a walk in the country ....Saturday.
4- Homer watches a lot of TV ....the afternoon.
5- I usually go back from work .... five o`clock.
6- She will be here at five, ...which time you must not leave the room.
7- She had promised to be back..............five o`clock.
8- I saw her ....Xmas.
9- It happened ....2001.
10- I will stay here ....five o`clock.
11- She often goes out...................night.
12- It rains a lot ....Spring..
13- I will have it ready ....four o`clock at the latest.
14- The car was broken into ....Saturday night.
15- It was popular .... the 20th century.
16- We had better wait ....Tony is here.
17- If they do not arrive ....the next ten minutes, I`m leaving.
18-The temperature is below zero. ....a few hours the ponds should be frozen over.
19- He is working at his homework......................... the moment.
20- The application must be in ....the 1th.
21- The law was changed ....the nineteenth century.
22- Do not move..................... I tell you.
23- I will be here .... a moment.
24- The exam is .... the tenth of December.
25- It must be finished .... Friday afternoon.
26- The film will be ready .... two hours.
27- ....the time I get to Phoenix, she will be getting up.
28- I will see you .... a few weeks.
29- The contract was signed ....1984.
30- She will be staying at the hotel .... Friday.
31- Do you have dream.......... midnight?
32- He was born ....1968.
33- The flower blossoms .... early Spring.
34- I always have dinner with my family...................Christmas Day.
35- - .... the end of the movie I had tears in my eyes.
36-The last time I saw him was......................the spring of 1966.

37-He came to this country ....August 5, 1968.
38-World War Two lasted from 1939 ....1945.
39-we will be ready to leave .... an hour from now.
40-we will finish all the work .... the time you get here.

Appendix C
A Sample Reading and writing task for Three Feedback Groups
Alexander Graham

Alexander Graham Bell was a famous scientist, inventor and engineer. His most famous invention is telephone. He was born on March 3, 1847 in Edinburg, Scotland, UK. His father was a professor. His mother began to lose her hearing when he was 12. He was so concerned with his mother`s deafness that he studied acoustics. Both his mother and his wife were deaf and this influenced him a lot. His first invention was at the age of 12.

At first he received schooling from his father at home. Later he went to high school but he left it at the age of 15 and went to London to live with his grandfather. In 1865 his family moved to London. When his brothers died, the family decided to go to Canada. At that time he was teaching deaf mutes at a school in London. In 1870 at age 23 Bell and his family travelled to Canada. There they bought a big farm. He set up his workshop there and continued to study human voice. In April 1871 he went to Boston to teach deaf mutes. In October 1872 he opened his own school for deaf mutes.

By 1874 his works on harmonic telegraph improved a lot and he developed acoustic telegraph in 1875. On March 10, 1876 he got his telephone to work and he established the Bell Telephone Company in 1877. By 1886 more than 150000 people in the U.S. had telephones. Although the invention of the telephone was a great success but it did not make much money until 1897. On July 11, 1877 a few days after the Bell Telephone Company was established, he married Mabel Hubbard. They lived in Cambridge, Massachusetts until 1880 and then moved to Washington, D.C. They had two sons who died in infancy and two daughters. He also invented metal detector, magnetic field and hydrofoil among many other inventions. He is also connected with the eugenic movement and from 1912 until 1918 he was the chairman of the Eugenic Record Office. He died on August 2, 1922 at age 75 form diabetes.

Rewrite the following sentences using the dates given.

March 3, 1847	Alexander Graham Bell was born in Edinburg, Scotland, UK.
Age of 12	He did his first invention.
April 1871	He went to Boston to teach deaf mutes.
October 1872	He opened his own school for deaf mutes.
1874	His works on harmonic telegraph improved a lot.
March 10, 1876	He got his telephone to work.
1877	He established the Bell Telephone Company.
1886	More than 150000 people in the U.S. had telephones.
1897	The invention of the telephone did not make much money.
July 11, 1877	He married Mabel Hubbard.
1880	They lived in Cambridge, Massachusetts and then moved to Washington, D.C.

1912-1918	He was the chairman of the Eugenic Office.
August 2, 1922	He died when he was 75 years old.

Appendix D
Posttest of prepositions
Fill in the blanks using appropriate prepositions.
1-I will keep phoning you ………………you pay me.
2-Most people in United States do not work ……….. Sundays.
3-We had better hurry. We have to be home ……….5:00.
4-The first man walked on the moon ……….July 21, 1969.
5-We travelled overnight to Paris and arrived …………7:00.
6-Their first child was born …………the spring.
7-He died ……….the age of 14. He died too young.
8-She will be staying at the hotel …………Friday.
9-Once he starts a decorating job, he will not stop ……….it`s finished.
10-I watched a movie ………..Saturday night.
11- It is always colder ………..November than September.
12- He got his PhD …………the age of 24.
13- He was born ……….march 12, 2002.
14- The course begins ……….……..January 7th.
15-should we go now? No, let`s wait ………..it stops raining.
16-where is Sue? She should be here …………now.
17-I have been invited to a wedding………February 14th.
18-Did you see Kate? No, I saw her …………Friday.
19-It is open from 7:00 …………..5pm.
20-I mailed the letter today, so they should receive it …………..Monday.
21-If the sky is clear, you can see the stars ………night.
22-You must see Paris ……… the spring.
23-The lecture finished ……………five thirty.
24-Jazz became popular in the United States ……….……the 1920s.
25- The price of electricity is going up …………October.
26-I will be ready ………… the time you get here.
27-Paul and Julia got married …………..February 1998.
28-I hope to go to Europe ………… the summer.
29-I will have it ready …………..four o`clock at the latest.
30-Her birthday is …………June.

Appendix E
Delayed posttest of prepositions
Fill in the blanks with appropriate prepositions.
1- She left her job……….August.
2- She got pregnant ……….…eighteen.
3- Halloween is …………October 31.
4-The contract is from July …………December.
5-If we leave now, we should arrive ………… lunchtime.
6-Their wedding is …………. the eleventh of July.
7- She always goes on holiday …………. summer.
8- I finished the job ……… three o`clock yesterday afternoon.
9-Microsoft Office Corporation was founded …………..1975.
10- Last night I went to bed ……………11:00.
11- There is a public holiday ……………May the first.

12-She had promised to be here ……….. five o`clock.

13-He came to this country ………August 5, 1968.

14-The play starts ……….half past seven.

15- The results come out ……….…July.

16- I think I wait …………Thursday before making a decision.

17-I could not get up this morning. I stayed in bed……….half past ten.

18- Tell me ……….Friday whether or not you can come to the party.

19- Calvin Coolidge, the 30th President of America, was born……….July4, 1873.

20-More people have heart attacks……….…Monday morning than at any other time.

THE FEATURES OF AN APPROPRIATE TEXTBOOK: AN EVALUATION OF JACK C. RICHARDS' INTRO BOOK

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ABSTRACT
Selecting the right textbook is one of the most important decisions a teacher has to make. The purpose of this article is to evaluate *Intro* book by Jack C. Richards. This book is used in the private sector in Iran. The merits and demerits of the textbook in question are discussed in detail with reference to 15 common features extracted from McDonough and Shaw's (1993) evaluation checklists. Accordingly, this article might provide some feedback for improving the quality of the book in question. The present article is primarily qualitative in nature.

KEYWORDS: Appropriate, Evaluation, Features, Textbook.

1 Introduction
The Role of Textbooks in the EFL/ESL Classroom
Although textbooks are seen as an indispensable tool to many ESL/EFL classrooms and programs, there are different views regarding their roles in language instruction. According to Sheldon (1989, p. 237), textbooks not only "represent the visible heart of any ELT program" but also offer extensive benefits -for both the student and the teacher- when they are being used in the ESL/EFL classroom. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that coursebooks are an unavoidable element of the curriculum because they specify content and define coverage for syllabus items. With a textbook students feel secure and have a sense of progress and achievement. A textbook provides them with the opportunity to go back and revise. They can also use the textbook for self-study and as a reference source. Moreover, it is thought that a coursebook provides teachers with a resource for presentation material, a source of ideas and activities, giving him/her some useful advice on the best techniques for presenting the material. As Crawford (1990, cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 82) views, appropriate textbooks may assist inexperienced teachers to come to terms with content and ways of tackling different learners.

A textbook can be seen as agent for change. This can be achieved if three conditions are met. First, the book should include appropriate learning-how-to-learn suggestions. Second, the textbook must provide support and help with classroom management, thus freeing the teacher to cope with content and procedures. Third, it should provide a clear picture of what change the book offers and how to implement it in the classroom.

Additionally, a textbook can be used as a structuring tool. In other words, textbooks provide negotiations that reduce unpredictability of interaction in language classroom (Richard & Renandya, 2002, p.83).

Ur (1996) lists the several benefits of coursebooks as follows:

1. They provide a clear framework which the teacher and the students know where they are going and what is coming next. 2. Mostly, they serve as a syllabus which includes a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content if it is followed systematically. 3. They provide readymade texts and tasks with possible appropriate level for most of the class, which save time for the teacher. 4. They are the cheapest way of providing learning material for each student. 5. They are convenient packages whose components are bound in order. 6. They are useful guides especially for inexperienced teachers who are occasionally unsure of their language knowledge. 7. They provide autonomy that the students can use them to learn new material, review and monitor progress in order to be less teacher-dependent.

Ur (1996) also mentions some possible disadvantages of textbooks as follow:

1. They fail to present appropriate and realistic language models. 2. They propose subordinate learner roles. 3. They fail to contextualize language activities. 4. They foster inadequate cultural understanding. 5. They fail to address discourse competence. 6. They fail to teach idioms. 7. They have lack of equity in gender representation.

On the other hand, there are researchers who have negative views on textbooks. Allwright (1982), for instance, believes that textbooks are too inflexible and generally reflect the pedagogic, psychological, and linguistic preferences and biases of their authors. Subsequently, the educational methodology that a textbook promotes will influence the classroom setting by indirectly imposing external language objectives and learning constituents on students and forcing potentially incongruent instructional paradigms on the teachers who use them. Therefore, textbooks would determine and control the methods, processes and procedures of language teaching and learning. Cunningsworth (1995) states, "Heavy dependence on coursebooks is far from ideal as it reduces the importance of the individual contributions that good teachers make at all levels in the learning process" (p.10).

Crawford (1990, cited in Richard & Renandya, 2002 p. 88) contends that textbooks should be used as a guide and negotiating point rather than straightjackets. In other words, textbooks should present ideas for task and the presentation of language input without becoming prescriptive and undermining the teacher's and learner's autonomy.

2. Literature Review

There is a vast literature on textbook evaluation. According to Hutchinson (1987) evaluation is a "matter of judging the fitness of something for a particular purpose" (p.41). Coursebook evaluation is an important task for the teachers. It allows teachers and materials developers to understand a book's content and style, as well as its strengths and weaknesses, so that the book can be adapted to suit factors such as course objectives, student needs, and teacher beliefs. Sheldon (1988, cited in Litz, 1997) has suggested several reasons for textbook evaluation. He believes that the selection of an ELT textbook often indicates an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, or even political investment. Hence, a thorough evaluation would enable teachers and instructional managers of a specific institution or organization to select the appropriate textbooks from among all of the available textbooks on the market. Moreover, it would provide a sense of familiarity with a book's content, thus helping educators in recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of textbooks that they are using. Ultimately, this would assist teachers with making optimum use of a book's strong points, and identifying the drawbacks of certain exercises, tasks, and entire texts. Similarly, concerning the importance of coursebook evaluation, Nunan (1991) argues that:

When selecting commercial materials, it is important to match the materials with the goals and objectives of the program, and to ensure that they are consistent with one's beliefs about the nature of language and learning, as well as with one's learners' attitudes, beliefs and preferences (p. 209).

There are a wide range of textbook evaluation checklists proposed by different scholars and researchers in English teaching literature (e.g., Allwright, 1982; Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Cunningsworth, 1995; McDonough & Shaw 1993). Ellis (1997, p. 37) introduces two types of materials evaluation: a *predictive* evaluation and a *retrospective* (reflective) evaluation. A predictive evaluation is designed to make a decision regarding what materials to use, whereas a retrospective evaluation is designed to examine materials that have actually been used. Retrospective evaluation provides teachers with information regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the used syllabus. According to Ellis, it also serves as a means of testing the validity of a predictive evaluation, and may point to ways in which the predictive instruments can be improved for future use.

This particular study can be classified as the retrospective type of evaluation. In other words, this study evaluates the aforementioned book according to an evaluation model proposed by McDonough and

Shaw. McDonough and Shaw's (1993) evaluation model consists of two stages: external evaluation and internal evaluation. External evaluation offers a brief 'overview' of the materials from the outside (cover, introduction, table of contents), internal evaluation involves a closer and more detailed (McDonough and Shaw 1993, p. 66).

3. The Book under Study

This section introduces the textbook that has been chosen for evaluation. The book which serves as the corpus of the present study and is analyzed for the evaluation is *Intro* written by Jack, C. Richards, published by Cambridge University Press (2005). It Includes 16 units, each containing two lessons. The lessons include these activities: snapshot, conversation, pair work, group work, listening exercises, communication tasks, and self-study section. This book is also accompanied by a work book, an audio CD, and a teacher's book. Although the book does not follow a fixed pattern for the presentation of materials in the units, each unit breaks down into different components. In other words, each unit can be organized as follows:

1. A snapshot task that introduces the unit's topic and prepares learners for other tasks by activating their schemata of content, grammar, and vocabulary.

2. Listening to short conversation: Students listen to the conversation and practice the conversation just as it is presented in the text and on the accompanying tape or CD. According to its teacher's book, during the next phase they are gradually expected to present the offered conversation or present a similar conversation by adding their own ideas

3. Following each conversation, grammar focus box introduces the grammar point(s) mentioned in each unit. Then, pronunciation practice, pair work, and group work are presented. Pair tasks are designed to gradually move the learner beyond simple exchanges. After that, the second conversation is presented which is rather followed with the same activities following the first conversation. However, after the first or second conversation, a complete conversation exercise or other writing exorcises are presented. Reading activities are given in the last part of each unit. The aforementioned pattern is rather followed throughout the coursebook.

4. External Evaluation

For the external evaluation of *Intro*, it is recommended to have a look at what the book says about itself. This is done by looking at 'blurb,' or claims made on the cover of the teacher's/student's book or in the introduction and table of contents. Through such investigation, one can justify or disprove author/publisher claims. In other words, by looking at these sections, one can get the general features of the book.

4.1 The Intended Audience

Intro includes 16 units revolving around different topics like communication (introducing oneself, first greeting, impression feeling, and gesture), places, celebration, weekend, food, giving direction, health issues, jobs, and sports. Most of the characters are young adults. It seems that its audience are young adults.

4.2 The Proficiency Level

Intro is the first book of a three level course called the *Interchange Series*. In other words, this book is introductory to three *Interchange* books. Students should pass this book, before proceeding with *Interchange 1*. On the basis of the book's description, it can be concluded that this book has been developed for beginner and pre-intermediate levels. The book claims that it aims at beginners and pre-intermediate learners. This claim seems right because vocabulary knowledge, structures, and retention required for oral production activities varies with students' level. As the units continue, the difficulty of materials increases. The grammar element in the textbook and the skills also become more demanding. A close examination of each unit, for instance, indicates that conversations become more complex as the units progress. Similarly, listening passages become a bit longer and are occasionally spoken quicker. Reading passages also become slightly longer.

4.3 The context in which the materials are to be used

In the area of language learning and teaching, researchers distinguish between teaching English for general purposes and teaching English for specific purposes (ESP). *Intro* has been designed to help students develop oral communicative skills in using English and makes no claim to be focused on specific learners or purposes. This claim seems right, because vocabulary and grammar are not specific to a particular content. In addition, its effectiveness in a general English conversation class has been evident in teaching material, i.e. it has focused on general topics rather on specific ones.

4.4 How the language has been presented and organized into teachable units/lessons

The coursebook contains 16 main units and a self-study section. In addition, after every two units, there is a progress check section. Totally this section includes four units. In these sections, students self-evaluate their progress independently; they judge how much they have learned; identify their weaknesses and strengths. Since the 1980s, with the emergence of new approaches to language teaching such as the communicative approach, there has been greater emphasis on learner autonomy. It was believed that learners should be given opportunities to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses. As Haswell (1993, Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 226) states self-evaluation in particular, helps learners to learn in their own voice. They should take responsibility for their own learning.

Although there is no fixed pattern in presenting units, it can be seen that each of the main units follows a format consisting of the following sections:

Snapshot introduces the theme of the unit mainly through pictures.

Listening conversation presents conversations that develop specific information, gist and inferential listening skills. Moreover, through conversation, grammatical points are presented.

Grammar focus follows each conversation. Here, one can find a box that introduces grammar points. It seems that grammar points are based on the discovery approach. Students should notice the sentences and discover the structural patterns. However, in the teacher's book, the grammar points have been explained, and the teacher is asked to present the grammar points in an explicit manner if they desire to.

Pronunciation practice has behavioristic nature, that is, it is based on *the listen and repeat approach*. Students are asked to listen to the pronunciation section and repeat the items. In some units (i.e., 6, 7) pronunciation practice includes sound segments or individual sounds, however in other units (units 3, 5, 9, 12) super segmental features such as stress and intonation are presented. Generally speaking, pronunciation activities in this book rely on mechanical drilling of decontextualized words and sentences.

Pair work and group work presents vocabulary and discussion practice along with personalization. Usually in these parts, students ask and answer questions about the relevant topic mentioned in each unit.

Communication activity or class activity, in addition to pair work, offers some communicative practice. Sometimes the topic of these activities is presented at the back of the book, or in each unit. Students are asked to talk about them. In other words, these activities provide opinion gap and experience gap activities which allow students to share their own ideas and experiences. In addition, these communicative tasks might motivate students to express their own information freely. Each unit consists of 6 pages. The manual has not specified the amount of time for presenting each unit. Given the large number of subcomponents in each unit, teachers might not be able to focus on all subcomponents. It might be concluded that, not finishing a unit in the allotted time does affect students' interest.

4.5 The authors' views on language and methodology

As stated in its back cover *Intro* is designed to help develop oral communication skills (listening and speaking) in a meaningful context. In other words, it makes students practice information-gathering skills (listening and speaking) in context. This statement is in agreement with the functional view of language, whose characteristics are presented by Richards and Rodgers (2001) below:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning,

2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication,

3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses,

4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural Features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse. (p. 161)

The features of the books mentioned in the blurb explain that the book enjoys a multi-skills syllabus and uses tasked-based activities. This statement is in agreement with tasked-based view of language teaching, whose definition has been explicated by Nunan (2001). According to Nunan (2001), task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attentions focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning. He also makes distinction between authentic and pedagogical task (p. 25). *Intro* contains both types of task. It could also be said that the author adheres to a functional communicative framework. The functional communicative approach involves integration of grammatical and functional features of language (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.155). In other word, this book pays attention to both functional aspects and structural aspects of language. *Intro* repeatedly provides activities for students to interact through activities like pair work and group work in real context. As Richards and Rogers (2001) state these activities encourage

students to use and practice functions and forms (p.171). The book mostly uses structural activities especially in writing activities, and functional communication activities. The book also tends to focus on both accurate and fluent communication, the promotion of integrated language-skills practice, and the inclusion of general topics, pronunciation, grammatical structures as well as lexical development. It seems that particular emphasis is placed on meaningful and authentic communication with the goal of establishing communicative competence in production and comprehension. There are a number of optional activities given, many of which are unsuitable for the large class sizes.

4.6 Is the teacher's book in print and locally available?
As far as we know, this book is available in all language book shops. The teacher' book provides valuable teaching tips. Every chapter contains step-by-step notes on how to use the book in class as well as additional activities, glossaries, answer key. We believe the *Intro* teacher's book can be a useful resource for both inexperienced and experienced teachers. Both beginning and experienced teachers can benefit from the tips provided in the manual. However, using a manual can be considered as a guide, rather than as tool for deskilling teachers. Different teachers get different things from a teacher's manual. New teachers can learn specific teaching strategies from a teacher's book. Experienced teachers can get new or extra techniques or activities from a manual.

4.7 Is a vocabulary list included?
There is a mini glossary at the back of the book. This mini glossary only contains words and expressions without their meaning or definitions. This section has only presented the part of speech for each word cited in the units. But there is no a grammar reference section at the back of the book. The approach taken to vocabulary is not systematic in some units. Word power and expressions are presented in a scattered way. In such units students are required to either use words in sentences or to learn them by their synonyms or definitions. In the back of the book, audio scripts have been presented. As the book contains a glossary section, this would be useful for students, doing individualized, out-of-class work, or for reviewing words as well as preparation for exams.

4.8 What visual material does the book contain and is it there for cosmetic value or is it actually integrated into the text?
Pictures, photographs, drawings, charts and graphs are all attractively prepared and add attractiveness to the activities. In other words, the purpose of using attractive pictures appears to be for the purpose of contextualization of the unit or for the purpose of setting the scene of conversations. The teacher's book suggests in every unit that the teacher "tell students to look at the picture. In other words, pictures are tools to illustrate the meaning of new words. In addition, at the end of each unit (i.e., reading sections and pair work sections) contains a small strip that gives visual life to discourse. Most color photos and illustrations are integrated into the tasks. In some units especially in extra activities at the back of the book, the textbook explicitly asks the students to look at pictures and photos and comment in some way. It seems the main tool to make students talk is talking about pictures. Generally speaking, the use of talking pictures in this book can be considered as one of its merits.

4.9 Is the layout and presentation clear or cluttered?
The layout and design of a textbook refers to its organization and presentation of language items and activities (Litz, 1997). In this book the layout is rather well presented and a little cluttered. In this textbook, the learning objectives are clear and concise and a detailed overview of the topics, functions, structures/grammar, and skills within each unit has been presented in the introductory table of contents in both teacher's book and student's book. The components of each unit are also effectively and clearly organized around topics such as food, sports, jobs, and health problems, etc.
The sequence of activities in each unit is snapshot, conversation listening, pair work, writing exercise, and reading passage. However, there is rather sufficient space to write the responses to activities. Each unit consists of 6 pages, typically consisting of two-stage activities.

4.10 Is the material too culturally biased or specific or does it represent minority groups and/or women in a negative way?
Intro has not been written explicitly for a certain nationality or particular cultural group, since the topics which are presented in each unit are universal in nature. Men and women appear to be represented in a pos-

itive way throughout the book. Both men and women are doing equal jobs. It does not show women in traditional jobs and men in high class jobs. For instance, on page 53 it shows women as pilots, and on pages 100 and 86 presents men as actors and bank managers, respectively. Generally, it depicts equal distribution of jobs among female and male. Job roles are equally distributed. As far as we looked, there are no negative pictures of other nationalities as well. Most of the characters featured in the book are either Americans or Koreans. A few of the people in the illustrations are from other ethnic groups. In general, this book does not provide sufficient cultural information about American culture and other cultures.

5. Internal evaluation
In this section, the internal consistency and organization of the materials is examined, to discover the extent to which external claims made by the author/publisher are in agreement with the internal content.

5.1 The presentation of the skills in the materials
According to White (n.d.) it is a trend to integrate the receptive and productive skills in modern coursebook design. Since according to the communicative approach, language skills are related to each other, none of the components or skills of language operate independently. They all function together to make language operate as a means of communication. One of the characteristics of a good book is that it should teach all skills together. Apparently in *Intro* all skills are emphasized but listening and speaking receive most attention. Little amount of writing and reading skills have been integrated into some activities. Most of the writing exercises are limited to word level or sentence level not paragraph level. We believe more truly communicative activities would enhance integration of skills.

5.2 The Grading and Sequencing of the materials
Apparently, in *Intro*, there are no criteria for sequencing the topics of the 16 units. It is seen that there is little grading in the book and the units could be taught in almost any order with perhaps the exception of unit one which involves saying hello and goodbye to people and friends and seems appropriate at the beginning of the book. It seems that there is not sequencing to expression items and word power section. The first four units have appropriate grading compared to the rest of the units. Apparently, the book lacks continuity in the material presented, in other words, it does not require students to recall linguistic or non-linguistic items from previous units.

5.3 Where reading/ 'discourse' skills are involved, is there much in the way of appropriate text beyond the sentence?
There are close passages which are above one sentence. These passages include incomplete conversation or blank sentences. The purpose of these passages is to help students to both practice structural writing exercise and grammar points in the context. In addition to activities in the student's book, the workbook contains a lot of exercises that include texts beyond sentence level. The amount of reading passage in the book is not equal in all units; for instance, in unit one, two, and three, there is a little amount of reading, however, reading passages are presented in other units in different lengths with different topics. Most readings are short scripted dialogues or magazine scripts which students have to read and complete in the student book. It seems that these scripts are used for practicing both writing and reading. In addition, the purpose of these reading exercises is to provide students with opportunities to develop and practice reading strategies.

5.4 Where listening skills are involved, are recordings 'authentic' or artificial?
The use of 'authentic' language in coursebook activities is a controversial issue. According to Nunan (2001) 'authentic' language are samples of spoken and written language that have not been specifically written for the purpose of teaching language, "which learners will encounter outside the classroom (p. 27). One advantage of authentic materials is that it can bring greater realism and relevance while increasing learner's motivation (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 66). A good book contains those authentic materials not designed for teaching but rather designed to give information. In the present book, listening materials are authentic with natural pause and intonation. In this book some materials are authentic and some are quasi-authentic. Most of the characters are realistic. In other words, this book includes pictures of famous actors and singers whom students might be interested to talk about or to know.

5.5 Do you feel that the material is suitable for different learning styles, and is it sufficiently 'transparent' to motivate both students and teachers alike?

White (n.d.) believes that teachers, course designers, and materials developers must be aware that the input provided by them will possibly be processed by learners in different ways. To put it another way, learners have different learning styles in processing information and internalizing inputs. Therefore, it is essential that materials meet students' needs by allowing for different learning styles. Apparently, in *Intro*, pair work and group activities are popular strategies for practicing speaking, discussion skills, and expressing personal opinions. Almost all components of each unit explicitly require group work of some kind. The fact that each unit entails group participation or work group may not be appealing for students preferring a more teacher-led approach, or individual activities. Hence, such requirement could create discouraging affects, thereby leading to a sort of demotivation among learners in some instances. However, the teachers should explicate to students that the more they engage in oral communication, the more their overall communicative competence will improve. In addition, according to White (n.d.), many students will find group work exhausting because they are used to the answers being given to them. However in this book, there are some tasks like self-study that fit students who like to work alone. This section could contribute to learner autonomy. Any way the advantage of communicative pair work cannot be ignored because as Long (1990, cited in Litz, 1997) states, such activities increase the quantity of students' language use; enhance the quality of the language students use; to provide a less threatening environment and greater motivation for learning. Besides, peer interaction not only allows students to encounter ideas and perceptions that differ form their own but also give them the opportunity to clarify, elaborate, reorganize, and reconceptualize information, express ideas, get feedback, and justify their claims (Litz, 1997).

6. Summary and Conclusion

External evaluation of the book shows that it is potentially suitable as a coursebook. We find the workbook effective especially for homework review. Because it contains different activities that enable students to reinforce what they have learned in an appropriate way. One of the strengths of this book is that it contains a wide variety of useful supplementary materials; for instance, the self-study section with an audio CD would assists students who want at-home listening practice. The book is rather attractive and organized in a clear, logical, and coherent manner. As said earlier, the book's organization reflects the structural-functional syllabus that is designed with the goal of facilitating communicative competence. In other words, it appears that this book follows both the functional view of language use, including categories of function, context and language skill, and a formal linguistic syllabus comprising elements of grammar and vocabulary. About its shortcoming, we can say that speaking and listening skills are covered throughout the book; little attention was given to writing and reading skills. The textbook contains plenty of opportunities for oral communication. Although the tasks provided in the book allow students to express themselves than to be a listener, however, many of the activities are either repetitive or time consuming. Due to time limitation, it is not possible to practice all of them. Speaking practice takes place through the oral presentation and practice of new language items, in pair works, group work, and class activities. Another merit of this book is that it includes interesting and discussion provoking topics. Moreover, vocabulary used in this book is active type which doubles its merits. The coursebook does contain useful vocabulary phrases or chunks which helps students to improve their vocabulary. With respect to the treatment of grammatical structures and functions apparently there is explicit attention to grammar in each unit; it follows a contextualized approach to grammar which is supported in grammar teaching literature. There is no grammar reference in a separate section that allows students to review grammar separately. In our opinion, modifying problematic aspects of the book can improve the quality of book. The student's workbook provides review exercises and a variety of practice exercises that assist with the development of students' proficiency with grammar, reading, writing, vocabulary, and speaking. The teacher's manual provides useful page-by-page instructions, teaching and instructional suggestions, optional tasks and variations, classroom management advice, cultural information, and game ideas, answer keys, transcripts for listening activities, and general language note such as grammar points, pronunciation points. In conclusion, *Intro* can be neither rejected nor recommended for particular teaching and learning situation. Nevertheless, it still can be an effective textbook in the hands of good teachers and instructors.

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COMPENSATION STRATEGIES: A CRITICAL OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT
The ability to communicate efficiently is the most favorable goal of language learning; therefore, in spite of existing barriers and restrictions language learners rely on applying various communication strategies.
Today, theoreticians consider the basic content of the communicative competence from the same perspectives. Theoretical framework on language testing has suggested that constructing studies on compensation strategies would be applicable after studying and clarifying compensation strategies.
Briefly, this paper presents an easily understandable framework to define language learning strategies and several essential modals and definitions of language learning strategies. Resulting from these definitions and models, the motivation and ideas toward the scientific research in the domain of language learning strategies are triggered.

KET TERMS: Communicative Competence, Strategic Competence, Compensation Strategies, Language Learning Strategies

1. Introduction

Due to the increasing needs of English over the last years, people do not only interact with their countrymen, but also with people who come from different countries. Since English is an international language, people must be capable of speaking English in order to communicate meaning and talk to people all over the world. Because of its importance, it is completely logical why, as a foreign language, English should be taught as a prerequisite subject from the basic and elementary levels to the higher and university level.

The primary goal of many second and foreign language learners is to master the speaking skills. Subsequently, students often evaluate their achievement in learning language and the influence of their English course based on the factor that how much they think they have progressed in their proficiency of spoken language. In fact, oral skills have rarely been ignored in ESL\EFL courses. The large number of speaking and conversation course books in the market can highly prove this claim. The ideal ways to approach the teaching of speaking skills has frequently been the focus of debate in methodology and instructors and textbooks make use of various approaches such as direct approaches concentrating on special principles of oral interaction (e.g., questioning strategies, topic management, and turn-taking) and indirect approaches that bring about conditions for oral communication via task work, group work, and other strategies (Richards, 1990).

1.2. The Nature of Speaking

There are various definitions of speaking that have been suggested by some experts in the domain of language learning.

Brown (2001, p. 267) mentions that when someone is able to speak a language it means that he/she can resume a conversation competently. Moreover, he cites that the proof of successful language acquisition is almost always the representation of a skill to complete pragmatic aims through a communicative discourse with speakers of other language.

Richards and Renandya (2002, p.204) claim that influential oral interaction needs the proficiency to use the language properly in social communication that includes both verbal interaction and paralinguistic features of speech such as stress, pitch, and intonation. Additionally, nonlinguistic features such as expressions, body language, and gestures are required in transferring messages directly apart from any accompanying speech. Brown (2007, p.237) mentions that social contact in functions of communicative language is significant and in which what you say does not count but how you say it through gestures, body language, physical distance, eye contact, and other nonverbal messages counts.

Speaking is the ability to manage a speech, illustrating or transferring thoughts via using language. "Speaking is a productive aural/oral skill and it consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning (Nunan ,2003 ,p.48)." Harmer (2001) mentions that, communicatively, speaking covers many various facets consisting of two basic classifications of accuracy which involves the valid use of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation rehearsed through guided and controlled drills and fluency which involves the ability to keep on speaking spontaneously. Bygate (1991, p.3) emphasizes the language knowledge and skill for an efficient interaction. So, two substantial elements of an effective communication are considered to be language knowledge and skill.

Bygate (1987, p.3) believes that in order to obtain an interactive goal via speaking two features are going to be considered, language knowledge and the skill in applying this knowledge. It is not adequate to own a defined amount of knowledge, but a speaker of the language is supposed to be able to use this knowledge in various conditions.

> We do not merely know how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them and adopt to the circumstances. This means making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path. (Bygate 1987, p.3)

The ability to decide what to mention on the spot, presenting it obviously and the flexibility within a conversation as various situations happen is the proficiency to use the knowledge in action which forms the second features of speaking (Bygate 1987, p.4).

Bygate considers the skill as including two elements, production skills and interaction skills. Both of these elements can be influenced by two conditions. Firstly, taking into consideration the fact that a speech happens under the pressure of time, processing conditions. Secondly, reciprocity conditions jointed to a mutual connection between the interlocutors (Bygate 1987, p.7).

Compared to other language skills, foreign language learners have viewed speaking as the most difficult skill to develop and this is based on the fact that it encompasses more than what simply is known as linguistic components. Certainly, despite inevitable function of knowledge of linguistic components, as grammatical structures and vocabulary, it seems to be incomplete.

Accessibility to all prerequisite related knowledge desired to produce the acceptable language in a nearly fluent mode makes the speaking skill distinctly different from other skills in which language learners get enough time to not only satisfy the input with the present knowledge but also to think patiently about the accurate forms of language in a situation when nobody is, even impatiently, waiting for receiving the language they are producing.

Chastain (1988) mentions that mastering the linguistic components of the message does not guarantee speaking a language and improving language skills is a lot broader than vocabulary memorization and grammatical comprehension.

Many people believe that the ability to speak a language means knowing that language and this is why Speaking is considered to be the basic way of interaction.

Lazarton (2001) considers speaking for many learners of a foreign language demanding. Pragmatic and social rules to produce proper structure of language are the factors of high importance and knowing just the language cannot equip the speakers to communicate successfully (Martinez-Flor, Uso-Juan & Alcon-Soler,2006).

So, Based on previously mentioned facts about speaking we realize that the use of compensation strategies in oral communication seems inevitable. Keeping speakers confident and flexible and making their interaction more efficient as the results of compensation strategies, have led the investigators to conduct different studies in this area (Nakatani, 2005 ;Phothongsunan, 2010; Puffer, 2006; and Wannaruk, 2003, to name a few).

1.3. Language Teaching Methodology

In many different ways, methodology in language teaching has been identified. A more or less classical formulation proposes that methodology connects theory to practice. Theory interpretations would contain theories on language definition and the ways in which language is learned or, more specially, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories. These theories are connected to different design principals of language pedagogy. Such design principals might contain stated purposes, types of activities, syllabus specifications, roles of learners, teachers, materials, etc. In turn, design principals are connected to real practices of teaching and learning as observed in the situations where language teaching and learning happen. This whole set of factors clarifies language teaching methodology.

1.4. Schools of Language Teaching Methodology

A distinction is often founded, within methodology, between approaches and methods. In such methodology methods are kept to be fixed systems of teaching with prescribed practices and techniques, whereas approaches show language teaching philosophies which can be elaborated on and used in a wide range of different ways in the classroom. This distinction is possibly most effectively considered as clarifying a continuum of entities in a gamut from extremely prescribed methods to superficially described approaches.

The time span from the 1950s to the 1980s has often been called "The Age of Methods." During this period of time a number of completely detailed prescriptions were suggested for language teaching. Situational language Teaching emerged in the United Kingdom, whereas Audiolingualism, a parallel method, evolved in the United States. In the middle-methods era, different methods were announced as substitutes to the then dominant Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingual methods. These alternatives were developed under the titles of Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and Total Physical Response.

In the 1980s, these methods came to be encompassed by more communicative viewpoints of language teaching one after another, which concertedly became known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Communicative Language Teaching followers confirmed a wide set of features as:

•Students learn a language via applying it to interact.

• Meaningful and authentic interaction should be the purpose of classroom activities.

•Fluency is an outstanding criterion of communication.

•Interaction includes the combination of various language skills.

•Learning is a process of creative construction and includes experiment and error.

CLT advocates, however, refrained to prescribe practices by which these principles could best be recognized. So, they obviously preferred to put CLT on the approach to the method end of the spectrum.

Communicative Language Teaching has triggered many off-shoots through which the same main set of features is shared, but philosophical details or envisions of educational practices are spelled out in somewhat different ways. These spin-off approaches of CLT contain The Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching.

It is not applicable to elaborate on these different methods concisely but fairly and doing so is well beyond the domain of the purpose of the present study. Detail differences and similarities among many various approaches and methods are introduced and accessible in some recent studies (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2000, and Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Perhaps it is probable to get a sense of the variety of method proposals by looking at a brief view of the roles clarified for both teachers and learners within different methods. Such a short (perhaps inadequate) view can be studied in the table below (Table 1) taken from Rodgers (2001).

Table 1. Methods, teacher roles, and learner roles

Methods, teacher roles, and learner roles		
Method	**Teacher Roles**	**Learner Roles**
Situational Language Teaching	Context Setter Error Corrector	Imitator Memorizer
Audiolingualism	Language Modeler Drill Leader	Pattern Practicer Accuracy Enthusiast
Communicative Language Teaching	Needs Analyst Task Designer	Improvisor Negotiator

Total Physical Response	Commander Action Monitor	Order Taker Performer
The Silent Way	Pantomimist Neutral Observer	Inventor Problem Solver
Community Language Learning	Counselor Paraphraser	Collaborator Whole Person
The Natural Approach	Actor Props User	Guesser Immerser
Suggestopedia	Auto-hypnotist Authority Figure	Relaxer True Believer

As shown in the table, some methodological schools consider the teacher as a perfect language model and a classroom activity commander (e.g., Audio-Lingual
Method, Natural Approach, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response), but other methodological schools view the teacher as a background accelerator and a classroom colleague to the learners (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning).

Spokespersons for the different approaches and methods react, in further ways, to other universal issues. For example, should second language learning by adults be modeled on first language learning by children? One class of schools (e.g., Total Physical Response and Natural Approach) considers that the only universally successful model of language learning we have is first language acquisition, and thus that second language education must essentially model itself on first language acquisition. An opposite viewpoint (e.g., Silent Way, Suggestopedia) notes that adults possess various brains, interests, learning environments, and timing constraints than do children, so that adult classes have to be formed in a way completely different from the one in which nature forms how first languages are learned by children.

Another basic contradiction turns on the perception role versus production role in primary phases of language learning. One school of thought suggests that students should start communicating, to use a new language energetically, on first encounter (e.g., Audio-Lingual Method, Silent Way, Community Language Learning), while another school of thought mentions that an early and long period of reception (listening and reading) should come earlier than any attempts at production (e.g.,Natural Approach).

As the incipient medium of interaction, speech is undeniably the center of language use. In language teaching, this centrality is reflected in the broad gamut of approaches which include the active language production. During the decades, and under the effect of various teaching approaches, oral production's role has differed from that of a way to an end. In the following sections, the various viewpoints on oral production are shortly discussed focusing on a critical tension in language teaching between structural and communicative approaches. Within an accurate communicative teaching context, the nature of the learner's experience of oral production in the light of various factors, such as type of interaction and choice of task, will be examined.

1.5. The Structural Practice to Interactive Use

Focus on form, based on the view that language is a system to be mastered, has a long tradition in language teaching. In structural, system-based approaches such as those popular from the mid-point of this century, the content of teaching is seen as a set of structures or patterns, which through repetition and practice are to be internalized by the learner. Building on these basic tenets of language teaching, developments were made in America in the form of Audiolingualism, which flourished under the support of behaviorist theories of language learning (stimulus response reinforcement, conditioned learning, shaping, habit formation). The Audiolingual preoccupation with the drill, while giving primacy to speech, restricted its role to the imitation and repetition of patterns, the controlled practice of correct forms.

With the attack on the principles underlying Audiolingualism from arguments put forward by Chomsky at the end of the 1950s, and the extension of the notion of language competence to embrace appropriate use of language according to context and purpose, following Hymes's definition of communicative competence, language teaching had a strong theoretical basis for a transition towards a meaning-based approach. This signaled an important step towards the development, particularly in Britain and the rest of Europe, of communicative language teaching. Situated against an established background in Britain of interest in the context of language use (Firth, Halliday), and coinciding with attention to meaning through the work in the phi-

losophy and sociology of language by Austin and Searle, the time was right for a shift in pedagogy towards a more functional perspective.

By the 1970s, practical concerns for a language teaching solution to the demands across Europe of foreign language learners wishing to learn useful everyday discourse led to the work of the Council of Europe Modern Languages Project and the development of national/functional syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976). This involved the specification of language as notions and functions (such as agreeing, requesting, persuading, time, etc.) rather than as structures, offering teachers a framework for the design of courses geared to the communicative needs and demands of learners. The impact on teaching materials has been considerable. Since the ۱۹۷۰ s, such (notional/functional) categories of language use have become a common unit of organization in materials (for example, Jones's (1977) Functions of English), and although the structural syllabus has not been abandoned, the concept of function is of great importance in the specification of language content in many mainstream language courses.

Although alternative, stronger interpretations of Communicative Language Teaching have found support through so-called process and product syllabuses. In process and product syllabuses a genuine preoccupation with meaning is fostered through task-driven rather than language-driven activity, what has been described above is a standard (weaker) version of Communicative Language Teaching. Here, the shift to include or substitute function for structure has led to little change in terms of the syllabus type ,which remains product-oriented and synthetic with the linguistic content divided into discrete units and learning involving the accumulation and internalization of these units. What has changed, however, is the scope at the level of methodology for a focus on a wider range of practice activities than the limited controlled practice of the drill. Spoken production within this mainstream communicative approach can therefore be seen as broadening the types of experience for real or simulated communication within the classroom.

2. Communicative Competence

Language scholars of different fields have discussed and defined communicative competence in many various ways. The acceptable language use for interaction presupposes the improvement of communicative competence in language users and the language use is limited by the society's socio-cultural norms where the language is used. For several decades the communicative approach of language teaching has introduced in print in the area of second language acquisition (SLA). In different kinds of language programs, curriculum researchers and language educators have applied syllabuses of communicative-oriented teaching to look for more influential ways for developing learners 'communication skills to replace the traditional, grammar-oriented approach in the past.

Most of the times, language learners confront difficulties in expressing their interactive intentions. This is associated with the gaps in linguistic repertoire of theirs. A student who is capable of anticipating these difficulties may refrain to communicate or try to improve what he or she desires to say. Although the learner is already involved in written or oral communication and these difficulties are experienced, he or she may look forward to an alternative way of conveying the meaning. These ways of dealing with the interaction situation is referred to communication strategy. William (1984)believes that learners use the following communication strategies whenever they are aware of drawbacks due to which their current meaning is not going to be shared.

1. Avoiding Communication

Avoidance of communicative opportunities is supposed to be a way of compensation when students know the weaknesses or gaps in their repertoire. They usually avoid the occasions which will introduce difficulty. If it is an oral situation, students may refute to express their ideas and if it is a writing situation, they may refuse to write on topics for which they think they lack necessary vocabulary.

2. Adjusting the Message

In an occasion where an exchange of meaning is already happening, it may be too late to use avoidance tactics. Consequently, students may decide to change the meaning which they desire to communicate. They may remove some parts of conveying information, make the words simpler, less precise or present slightly different ideas. In a writing situation, students may manage to go off content, writing ideas not related to the given topic.

3. Paraphrasing

As the other way of compensation, students may resort to the use of paraphrase, description or circumlocution in order to mention their intended meaning. For example, a student who is not able to remember the word'kettle' may intend to say 'thing that we boil water in'.

4. Approximating

Where a learner has problem with remembering the correct diction, he or she may use word or words which suggest the meaning as closely as possible to intended meaning. Such substitutions are often less specific than the meaning intended or out rightly inappropriate.

5. Creating New Words

Students sometimes make new words in order to express their intended meaning. The new words may be literal translation from the elements in a native language.

For example, a student may express the expression 'night meal' for the word 'supper' and 'shoe maker' for the word 'cobbler'.

Apart from learners' communication strategies mentioned earlier, learners may employ non-linguistic resources such as imitation, gesture, or mime. They can also seek help from outside, switch to their first language, or waiting for cooperation from the listener either directly or indirectly by means of hesitation.

2.1. Different classifications of language learning strategies

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) learning strategies are "special thoughts or behaviors that individual use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information". Hismangolu (2000) points out learners of language are repeatedly seeking for ways of using strategies to cope with conditions in which they confront new tasks and input presented by their teachers. As one of the critical factor in language learning, language learning strategies have absorbed a growing amount of focus both in the case of their definition (Rubin 1987, Wenden and Rubin 1987, O'Malley and Chamot 1990, Stern 1992, Oxford 1992, Oxford 1993) and in the case of criteria influencing language learning strategies (Oxford 1989, Yang 1999, Rahimi, Riazi, and Seif 2005, Riazi and Khodadadi 2007, Akbari and Hosseini 2008).

So, many researchers have classified language learning strategies (Rubin, 1987; O'malley, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992). These classifications are demonstrated as follows:

2.2. Rubin's (1987) taxonomy of language learning strategies

Rubin (1987) classified LLS into three major classes: learning, communication, and social strategies. A summary of this taxonomy is provided here:

1. Learning Strategies
　1.1. Cognitive learning strategies
　1.2. Metacognitive learning strategies
2. Communication strategies

Rubin (1987) believes that learning strategies cover the strategies indirectly related to learning, cognitive, or the ones which indirectly cover the learning process, metacognitive. He means monitoring, memorizing, practice, and clarification by cognitive and he means self-management, setting goals, and planning by metacognitive, Hismangolu (2000) believes that communication strategies are applied to manage interaction problems and social strategies are applied in situations where people need to put their knowledge into practice.

2.3. O'Malley's (1985) taxonomy of language learning strategies

According to O'Malley (1985) the following classification for language learning strategies can be provided.

1. Metacognitive strategies
2. Cognitive strategies
3. Socio-affective strategies

O'Malley (1985) refers to metacognitive strategies for strategies used to plan for thinking and learning about the process of learning, production of monitoring, and comprehension along with evaluation after completing a task. Cognitive strategies encompass the direct use of techniques of learning, e.g. deduction, translation, repetition, etc. The last kind of strategies covers socio-affective strategies which study the social activities and transaction.

2.4. Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies

Oxford (1990) classified language learning strategies into two major groups, each composed of some sub-categories:

1. Direct strategies:
   1.1. Memory
   1.2. Cognitive
   1.3. Compensation strategies
   1.4. Communication strategies
2. Indirect strategies:
   2.1. Metacognitive strategies
   2.2. Affective strategies
   2.3. Social strategies

Oxford and Crookall (1989) defined direct strategies as:

> Memory strategies are techniques to help learners store new information in
> Memory and retrieve it later. Cognitive strategies involve manipulation or
> transformation of the language in some direct way such as note taking.
> Compensation strategies are behaviors used to compensate for missing
> knowledge. Compensation strategies are used while speaking; however
> communication can occur in other language
> skill areas (p.4040).

They continue and explain indirect strategies as:

> Metacognitive or beyond-the-cognitive strategies are used to provide control over
> the learning process. Affective strategies are techniques to gain better control over
> their emotions. And finally, social strategies are actions involving other people in
> language learning process such as questioning, cooperating with peers (p. 404).

2.5. Stern's (1992) classification of language learning strategies

Stern (1992) presented five basic language learning strategies:

1. Management and planning strategies
2. Cognitive strategies
3. Communicative-Experiential strategies
4. Interpersonal strategies
5. Affective strategies

Management and planning strategies assist students to direct their learning. These strategies are the ones which the individual use to set logical goals, select proper techniques and methods, and assess themselves. As it can be implied, cognitive strategies directly associate with learning and indispensible problem solving and procedures of analysis like memorization, clarification, etc. Communicative-experiential strategies are applied for the purpose of directing the overflow of interaction (Stern, 1992). Interpersonal strategies are used by the learners for the purpose of evaluating their own performance. Eventually, affective strategies are applied by the students to cope with the emotional problems (Stern, 1992).

Though these taxonomies have been proposed by various researchers, most of them, approximately, suggested the same classification. Besides, the taxonomies suggested demonstrate general language learning strategies. No study scrutinized the classification of speaking strategies meticulously.

2.6. The Role of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) believes that through the language learning strategies learners are able to promote competence of communication and teachers are capable of supporting the learners to use more influential learning strategies.

Expressing his viewpoint, Kinoshita (2003) believes that instruction of language learning is an approach of teaching with the goal of increasing learner consciousness of learning strategies which provides learners with self-monitoring of their use of strategy, reinforcement, and practice while dealing with language learning tasks. Additionally, Lessard-Clouston (1997) reported that teaching language learning strategies to students plays a critical role in learning and teaching a language. The emphasis focused on instruction of lan-

guage learning strategies is to the point that the teachers who teach students and instruct them in order to be ideal strategy users are viewed more highly regarded and effective teachers.

As the teachers of language learning strategies, language instructors are supposed to be aware of their crucial role in the process of learning.

Hismangolu (1997) mentions:

> The language teacher aiming at training his students in using language learning
> strategies should learn about the students, their interests, motivations, and learning
> styles. The teachers can learn what language learning strategies students already
> appear to be using observing their behavior in class.

To sum it up, as Haung (2006) mentions, it can be claimed that non-native speakers assume that one of the most important and demanding task in their life is speaking in the language they are learning. Moreover, according to Ferris and Tagg (1996) even students of high proficiency are not pleased with their oral skills and they are looking for the appropriate time to develop their speaking skill. So, due to the reason that few studies have been conducted on oral skills, there is a true need to accomplish studies in this area.

3. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical foundation of compensation strategies can be traced back to 1980s when various classifications of compensation strategies emerged (Faerch and Kasper, 1984; Oxford, 1990, Poulisse, 1987; Tarone, 1997, 1981). However, these strategies were referred to as 'communication strategies' based on the belief that they identified mistakes students made in communication and they were considered as an attempt to solve problems while communication in order to achieve a language goal (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Khanji 1996). Researchers' definition of compensation strategies is not consistent as they have taken different approaches to it. Nevertheless, the proposed classifications reflect, more or less, the similar properties. Tarone (1981) emphasized the communicative social aspects and presented communication strategies as social communication. In classification of Tarone, communication strategies subdivided into three general kinds: (1) L2-based strategies (e.g., approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution), (2) L1-based strategies (e.g., translation, language switch, appeal for assistance, and mimes), and (3) avoidance (e.g., word avoidance and topic avoidance).

In Faerch and Kasper's classification (1984), communication strategies are viewed from psychological problem-solving perspective. They defined compensatory strategies as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (1980, p. 92). Faerch and Kasper divided communication strategies into two wide parts: (1) achievement (including Tarone's L1-based and L2-based strategies), and (2) avoidance (including Tarone's avoidance type of strategies, but under the title of formal and functional avoidance). Largely through the work of Oxford and her colleagues (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1990; Oxford and Ehrman, 1995; Dornyei, 1995; Douglas, 1992), the notion of communication strategies was gradually replaced by terminology of 'compensation strategies', as part of Oxford's Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL). The 'communication strategies' was not considered as an ideal term anymore because "many of the instances of their use in literature could be attributed to insufficient awareness of discourse strategies such as opening and closing topics, language gambits, and the like" (Abdesslem, 1996 cited in Margolis, 2001, p. 165).

According to the Oxford's SILL, language learning strategies fall into six categories which are further grouped as direct and indirect: strategies of memory for staving and remembering information, cognitive strategies for producing and comprehension the language, and strategies of compensation for dealing with restrictions in language learning are grouped as direct strategies whereas, metacognitive strategies for monitoring and planning learning, affective strategies for dealing with motivation, emotions, and social strategies for collaborating with others in learning language are grouped as indirect strategies. Of these strategies, compensation strategy is the focus of the present study. Oxford (1990) divides these strategies into two categories: A) Guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and B) Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. She believes that CSs enable learners to use the language either in reading and listening or speaking and writing despite the gaps in their knowledge. The man CSs used in reading and listening is guessing the meaning from context (either linguistic, non-linguistic or paralinguistic). Speaking and writing, on the other hand, have a wider array of compensation strategies. Some CSs such as mime and gesture are particular to speaking whereas others including synonym or circumlocution are useful for both speaking and writing. This typology is used in the present study to detect the compensation strategies used by the Iranian EFL language learners.

3.1. Empirical Studies on Compensation Strategy Use

There is a large bulk of research investigating language learning strategies, and compensation strategies as a subcategory of it, both in Iran (Abbasian et al., 2010; Rahimi et al., 2008; Salehi & Bagheri, 2011; Tajeddin & Alemi, 2010; Zare, 2010) and the other educational contexts and the majority of them have employed Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Compensation strategies which gave a status in the wider language learning strategies framework are investigated from different viewpoints, mainly, their frequency of use, and their relationship with proficiency level, gender, learners' beliefs and learning style. Some of the main studies on these issues are reviewed in what follows.

Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) perused the use of language learning strategy of 55 ESL learners with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds in an intensive English learning context. Emphasizing that "Proficiency with academic English is a key contributor to students' success in learning in their second language" (p. 399), the authors used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, version 7.0 to examine the relationship between language learning strategy use and second language proficiency, focusing on differences in strategy use across gender and nationality. They observed that there was a curvilinear connection between English proficiency and strategy use showed more use of learning strategies among intermediate learners than beginning and advanced students. Within the proficiency continuum, learners of more strategic language progressed quicker than learners of less strategic language. Statistically, analysis of data demonstrated significant differences for the use of compensation strategies and they were mostly used by the intermediate learners than the advanced ones. The difference between male and female learners' use of compensation strategies was not significant however, males used it more than females did. Moreover, utilization of these strategies had nothing to do with the nationality of the students.

In a more recent study, Fewell (2010) examined use of language learning strategy (LLS) by Japanese college EFL students with different proficiency levels. The results of his study indicated that although the overall average of the SILL scores were approximately even, the learners in the low proficiency group used social and compensational LLS at a higher degree. The author concluded that the selection of LLS is a substantial source of clarifying language learning success or failure. Likewise, Bremner (1999), Oxford and Ehrman (1995), and Park (1997) demonstrated that compensatory strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency.

Tajeddin and Alemi's study (2010), as one the studies specifically focused on compensation strategies, addressed high and low proficient students' preferences for two compensation strategies: compensating and guessing the missing knowledge and the sources of them. So, they administered the TOEFL and a compensation strategy questionnaire to 229 EFL students and observed that high learners drew more frequently on guessing strategies and although they had less preference for these strategies, they used them more efficiently. On the contrary, less proficient learners mostly used L1-based and avoidance strategies to deal with limitations. The authors concluded that "there is progression from L1- and avoidance-based strategies to L2-based and guessing strategies. This arises from proficient learners' movement beyond the threshold level to capitalize on linguistic clues to more guesses and to use general L2-based resources to compensate for deficiency in a particular area" (p. 52).

Some other studies have addressed other variables such as learners' belies, major and gender besides proficiency level. Chang and Shen (2010) investigated the relationship between studens' beliefs and their use of language learning strategies and the effect of learner variables on this relationship. They used the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to study a 250 Taiwanese remote junior high school EFL students' language learning beliefs and their learning strategies. They found that there was a moderate important relation both in overall BALLI and SILL and in each pair of subcategories. Compensation strategies were the most frequently used strategies (M = 3.14) and learner variables effected language learning beliefs and strategies in an uneven way.

Similarly, Zarei and Elekaei (2013) investigated the effect of attitude on the choice of compensation and meta-cognitive strategies of Iranian EFL university students in Qazvin and Takestan Azad Universities. Using a modified version of Oxford's SILL with 15 strategy items (6 compensation strategies and 9 meta-cognitive strategies) on a 5-point Likert scale, and the attitude questionnaire containing 27 items on a 5-point Likert scale, data were collected and analyzed via ANOVA procedures. The results indicated that unlike meta-cognitive strategies, the level of attitude had a statistically significant effect on the choice of students' compensation strategies (F = 19.407). Using Oxford's SILL (199), Ching-Yi et al. (2007) investigated the effect of gender and major on learning strategy use, including compensation strategies, in Taiwan. The findings of their study revealed that compensation strategies were most frequently used. It was also seen that males' use of compensation strategies (2.97) was really higher than female student (0.673). Regarding major, learners

majoring in humanities and social sciences employed more compensation strategies (3.17) than students majoring in business and management and science and engineering, suggesting that the use of compensation strategies vary across gender and major.

Rahimi et al. (2008), studied the use of language learning strategies by 196 post-secondary level Persian EFL learners with low-, mid- and high proficiency while paying particular attention to the variables affecting learners' choice of strategies, and any possible relationship between these variables and learners' patterns of language learning strategy use. Data were collected using Oxfords' SILL (1990), and two questionnaires of motivation and attitude (adapted from Laine, 1988) and learning style (Soloman and Felder, 2001). The outcomes of their investigation showed that level of proficiency and motivation were the major predictors of the use of language learning strategies, gender did not have any effects, and years of language study appeared to negatively predict strategy use. Concerning the relationship between different variables and compensation strategies, the results indicated that the mean was higher in the high proficiency group (3.95) than in the mid- (3.31) and low proficiency groups (3.01). Additionally, students in the high proficiency group were more motivated to use compensation strategies (3.74) than students in the mid- (3.47) and low-proficiency groups (2.96). Both males and females used the same degree of compensation strategies. Likewise, In a causal-comparative study, Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010) aimed at examining the use of language learning strategies by 70 sophomore high school students when speaking in class, and the factors affecting such strategy use. The participants were observed, interviewed and asked to answer a 19-item language learning strategy checklist and were classified using an adaptation of the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. Results of their study demonstrated that compensation strategies were the least used strategies by the learners. Two of these strategies, namely, selecting the topic and switching to the mother tongue were used often with a weighted mean of 3.52, and 3.47, respectively. The rest were used only sometimes. Among these, coining words and circumlocution had the lowest levels of frequency. This is likely to be expected of learners who lack competence in the production of the target language.

Abbasian et al. (2012), studied the differences between 376 male and female students and undergraduate and BA use of language learning strategies according to Oxford's SILL inventory (1990). The findings generally revealed that students mostly use meta-cognitive strategies compared to the other strategies. However, as far as compensation strategies were concerned, it was shown that male students employed more compensation strategies (3.24) than females did (3.00). Also, undergraduate students used more compensation strategies (3.24) than the BA students did (3.00).

It is argued that CSs can be used in any of four basic language skills (Baily, 1996). Moattarian and Tahririan (2013) analyzed 60 Iranian EFL learners' use of CSs in oral and written performances at two proficiency levels. Using Dornyei's (1995) taxonomy of CSs, They analyzed the participants' oral and written performances both quantitatively and qualitatively and concluded that the use of CSs significantly varied by the participants' level of proficiency. Topic avoidance, literal translation, time gaining and approximation were the most highly used CSs used by the students. In general, students used more strategy types in oral performances than in written performances.

Margolis (2001) tried to prepare an empirical foundation of learner strategies to compensate for missing knowledge or deficiencies in listening and speaking ability. To see the compensation strategies Korean learners most utilized, least utilized, and relationships between strategies, age, gender, and test scores a checklist of predicted strategies was prepared according to Oxford's list of CSs and personal experiences of the author's with learners. The participants were 72 1st year Tourism Information Management students in a Seoul area college, in a required English Conversation course. The data were collected during an oral exam interview. These outcomes reveal that learners most often use the strategy of getting help by asking for more information or confirmation compared to the other strategies. The second most utilized strategy was making guesses. A range of other strategies including coining words, synonyms and antonyms, using gestures and mime, etc., were the least observed strategies. A relationship was observed between guessing strategies and female and older learners. Moreover, learners who engaged in reduction strategies such as tuning out and giving-up were most likely to have lower test scores. The author argued that concern about accuracy may be a main reason why Korean student mostly utilize reduction strategies and this suggests that it is important to teach students other alternatives. Medina's (2010) analysis of the compensation strategies was carried out on two groups of intermediate learners of English at the Official School of Languages of Moratalaz (Madrid) to account for the extent to which adult learners used appropriate learning strategies in the four skills when coming across the most frequent communication problems. It was found that adults employed a low propor-

tion of compensation strategies and thus the use of activities which increase risk taking based on spontaneous information.

The review of literature revealed large gaps on compensation strategies utilized by the Iranian EFL learners in four basic language skills which need to be bridged by further studies. First, investigating compensation strategy has been the goal of very few studies. Most of these studies have addressed it as a component of Oxford's SILL. Therefore, almost all these studies have been questionnaire-based. Although such methods of data collection provide quantitative data which are easy to analyze, they are actually self-reports and the reliability of the answers depends on the honesty of the participants. Second, as the main goal of SILL inventory is assessing the overall LLS use of a particular group of FL/ESL students, compensation strategies have not been central to the studies which have used SILL, and only their frequency and relationship with other language learning strategies have been assessed. Above all, despite the belief that CSs are used and can be studied in the four basic language skills, only a few studies have explored compensation strategies used in different language skills. Also, to the best of the author's knowledge, only one study (Tajeddin & Alemi, 2010) has addressed the issue of CSs but this study was limited to identifying learners' preferences of two compensation strategies and their possible sources. Though the findings of their research may be of value, it is only questionnaire-based. It has a holistic view and similar to many other studies tries to merely build a relationship between compensation strategy use and proficiency level of Iranian EFL Learners. Due to these large gaps, it is important for future studies to address these issues in more depth.

4. Conclusion

Research in the domain of language learning strategies studies influential language learning strategies toward preparing the substantial situations not only for the students to learn but also for the instructors to teach them the how's of applying these strategies by perusing acceptable language learners behaviors meticulously (Oxford 1989, O'Malley and Chamot 1990, Wharton 2000, Su 2005).

This article has elaborated on language learning strategies. Learners need to apply these strategies for effective language learning. Introducing these strategies in language classes by instructors would assist students to become better learners. This paper aimed to logically magnify the role and position of compensation strategies in enhancing English learning. Consequently, the better grasp of compensation strategies by English instructors can accelerate language learning and can help learners learn more efficiently and experience learning autonomy. To this end, this paper can also serve as a research reference in the domain of language learning strategies.

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L'UTILISATION DU LOGO DANS L'APPRENTISSAGE DU F.L.E.

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RESUME

Aujourd'hui les didacticiens affirment que les documents authentiques ne sont pas destinés pour la classe ou pour l'étude de la langue. Le rôle interactionnel desdits documents favorise l'apprentissage en transformant l'atmosphère stricte de la classe en un lieu attirant et fécond. Parmi des documents authentiques on peut mentionner la chanson, l'article scientifique, le film, le poème, l'image et le logo.

Mais le logo est un langage qui présente le monde extérieur à l'aide des signes distinctif dont la forme et la couleur ont une importance aussi générale que le référant. Plus important, il est un langage qui mène l'apprenant à apprendre à apprendre. Maîtriser une langue, en s'exprimant oralement ou par écrit, sont autant de connaissances que doit posséder le sujet mais surtout pouvoir s'exprimer dans la communauté et savoir l'utiliser et le ré employer à bon escient. Le logo n'est pas lié à une mode ou à une tendance momentanée. Sa valeur intemporelle réside dans le fait qu'il favorise le développement de la réflexion formelle et la résolution de problème, qu'il encourage les étudiants à explorer, à apprendre à apprendre et à réfléchir.

LES MOTS CLES : Document authentique, logo, apprentissage/enseignement, interaction, culture, image.

1- Introduction

Le nom « Logo » vient du grec « *Logos* » qui signifie « *parole* », « *discours* ». Les premières versions de Logo permettaient essentiellement de manipuler des mots et des phrases, mais on se rendit rapidement compte que la manipulation de symboles ne suscitait pas un grand engouement.

C'est Seymour Papert qui imagina de se servir de ce langage pour tracer des graphiques.

Logo est un langage issu le Lisp. Comme lui, c'est un langage fonctionnel. Comme Lisp, c'est un langage interprété, ce qui permet une utilisation directe sans passer par une phase de compilation.

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Le dessin représentait la première manifestation graphique de l'homme, alors il paraissait logique de considérer les mots comme des images. Aujourd'hui, nous savons que ces deux formes de graphismes sont bien distinctes l'une de l'autre ayant chacune une nature et un mode de fonctionnement différent. De ce fait, les mots ne peuvent plus être assimilés à des images, donc les deux sont complémentaires. Cependant, cette différenciation fondamentale entre ces deux modes de signification peut être à l'origine d'une forme de complémentarité entre ces deux mêmes modes.

Raison pour laquelle nous estimons que l'intégration du logo au plutôt l'image dans les processus d'apprentissage en langue française, pourrait d'avantage motiver les apprenants des niveaux débutant, moyen et avancé. En effet, beaucoup de recherches ont démontré un lien fort et presque affectif, entre l'apprenant en situation d'apprentissage et l'effet positif de l'image.

Selon Papert, Logo présente de nombreux isomorphismes avec les contenus d'apprentissage des programmes d'étude en vigueur dans les écoles. Logo possède, entre autres, un vocabulaire spécialisé, une syntaxe particulière et une structure logique qui se retrouvent dans les programmes scolaires de sciences, de mathématiques, de langues, etc. Il est donc plausible que l'utilisation de Logo puisse favoriser un transfert cognitif dans plusieurs matières scolaires ou encore que les structures logiques de Logo soient suffisamment conformes à celles de la géométrie, de l'algèbre, de la rédaction ou d'autres matières scolaires pour en favori-

ser l'apprentissage chez les élèves qui savent programmer. À ce sujet, Papert (1981) affirme que: La notion de programmation structurée est donc un principe mathématique général, autrement dit une aide à tout apprentissage. Tout en expérimentant la géométrie Tortue, les enfants aiguisent le sens qu'ils ont de leur propre corps et de ses mouvements dans l'espace, en même temps que leur compréhension de la géométrie formelle.

Par une série d'exemples tirés de la géométrie, du développement d'habiletés physiques (l'apprentissage du jonglage) ou de la physique classique, Papert illustre comment l'expérience du «micro-monde Logo» pourrait favoriser le développement de structures logiques, d'habiletés d'analyse, etc.

Papert (Krasnor et Mitterer, 1984) postule que lorsque les élèves apprennent le Logo, ils apprennent bien plus qu'un langage de programmation. L'expérience de Logo est explicitement conçue pour faciliter l'apprentissage de concepts généraux et d'habiletés qui dépassent les exigences de la tâche immédiate. Les habiletés intellectuelles acquises peuvent s'appliquer à d'autres situations. Il s'agit là d'une perspective des plus intéressantes, compte tenu du fait que les concepteurs de programmes scolaires se sont habituellement arrêtés à l'atteinte d'objectifs spécifiques plutôt qu'à l'atteinte d'habiletés plus génériques comme la résolution de problèmes, l'analyse et l'évaluation.

Présentant une perspective plutôt pédagogique de l'informatique, Taurisson(1983) voit s'élaborer une nouvelle approche à l'enseignement et à l'apprentissage, adaptée à l'utilisation de l'ordinateur en tant qu'aide à la création chez les enfants, c'est une approche dont les points saillants sont les suivants:

1.   Apprendre, c'est acquérir des procédures;
2.   Décrire permet l'acquisition de procédures;
3.   Il faut prendre conscience des procédures que l'on possède;
4.   En réorganisant des procédures déjà connues on obtient une nouvelle connaissance;
5.   La méthode «d'essai et d'erreur» ne conduit qu'à des connaissances limitées, à moins qu'il y ait prise de conscience;
6.   L'erreur peut être source d'apprentissage;
7.   La réussite joue un rôle moteur dans l'acquisition de connaissances.

Les créateurs de Logo, Papert et Minski, ont souhaité créer un langage de programmation afin d'utiliser la puissance de l'outil informatique dans les tâches d'enseignement

Le premier système Logo a fonctionné en 1970 au Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), dans le laboratoire d'intelligence artificielle

Le Logo s'adapte à une vaste gamme d'applications qui vont de la recherche sur l'intelligence artificielle à la conception d'applications graphiques et à l'enseignement au niveau préscolaire.

On a même utilisé Logo dans l'enseignement donné aux handicapés mentaux, leur permettant de contrôler cet appareil puissant qu'est l'ordinateur.

La création d'un logo peut être considérée comme une création de design. De nombreux éléments sont à prendre en compte afin de transmettre le message souhaité, tant au niveau des dormes que des couleurs.

Un logo est en général une marque écrite à l'aide d'une fonte de caractère spéciale, et dispose d'une manière particulière, mais lisible. Chaque logo comprend une image plutôt fixe et quelque fois accompagnée d'une phrase (écriture) ou des lettres ou même des mots. Le logo crée un contexte de communication où les élèves vont réutiliser tout ce que le professeur leur a appris ou paravent. Même logo leur fournit des informations (grâce à l'image ou l'écriture qui parfois l'accompagne sur le monde et les invite à réfléchir aux contrastes des cultures en contact et propose des activités proches de la réalité hors de la classe.

Un logo efficace :

•   doit être unique, et pas sujet à confusion avec d'autres logos,

•   il est fonctionnel et peut être utilisé dans différents contexte en conservant son intégrité,

•   il devrait rester efficace reproduit en grand et en petit,

•   il doit fonctionner en couleurs, mais aussi en bichromie (noir et blanc), ton direct ou en trames de demi-teintes,

•   Il devrait être capable de maintenir son intégrité quand il est imprimé sur divers matériaux et objets (or la forme du produit peut déformer le logo),

•   Il représente la marque ou l'entreprise de manière appropriée.

Vivre dans un monde foisonnant d'Images fait que son exploitation en classe, soit de plus en plus importante voire nécessaire. En réalité, les relations entre la pédagogie et l'image sont très vieilles. Dès le début du 17ème siècle, Jean Comenius perçoit déjà l'intérêt de l'image comme moyen d'enseignement : « tout ce qu'on peut faire apprendre ne doit pas seulement être raconté pour que les oreilles le reçoivent, mais aussi dépeint

pour qu'il soit imprimé dans l'imagination par l'intermédiaire des yeux […]. On peut quand on marque d'objets, se servir des images qui les représentent, c'est à dire des modèles ou des dessins fait spécialement pour l'enseignement … ».

Donc c'est un aspect iconique de l'image qui était principalement à l'origine de son usage au sein du champ pédagogique. L'iconicité fonde la puissance et la pertinence didactique de l'image. Cet avantage confère à l'image le pouvoir de représenter et de montrer des objets absents, rares ou difficilement accessibles.

L'image est dotée d'une capacité considérable née de son pouvoir de monstration par rapport au discours ; Elle montre ce que ce dernier ne peut qu'évoque et c'est ainsi qu'elle facilite l'accès à la compréhension.

Les facteurs affectifs jouent un rôle crucial dans l'apprentissage. Ils ne sont pas liés directement au processus d'acquisition, au sens cognitif, mais ils y interviennent. Cette liaison intime de l'affectif et du cognitif n'a pas été ignorée par les pédagogues qui l'on définit comme une source d'intérêt et d'implication baptisée sous le nom de motivation. Celle-ci évoquée depuis quelques années par enseignants, élèves et chercheurs en éducation, et considérée non seulement comme l'une des causes principales de la réussite scolaire mais aussi la pierre angulaire de tout apprentissage réussi. C'est pourquoi, l'enseignant a souvent d'une manière ou d'une autre le souci de motive ses apprenants.

En plus de l'utilisation du logo dans la classe des langues étrangères, le logo se prête à l'approche de nombreuses disciplines comme les mathématiques, la physique, la robotique, le graphisme et le multimédia. La pratique du logo constitue aussi une sensibilisation générique aux différents concepts informatiques qui permettra aux élèves d'êtres des utilisateurs éveilles des outils informatiques d'aujourd'hui et de demain.

Le logo peut également être utilise pour élaborer un récit (oral ou écrit) ou être envisagé en référence à un texte écrit dans le cadre d'une illustration, d'une adaptation.

2- Fonction communicative du logo :

Jakobson a défini un schéma à six pôles permettant d'envisager toute communication :

Schéma de communication de Jakobson :
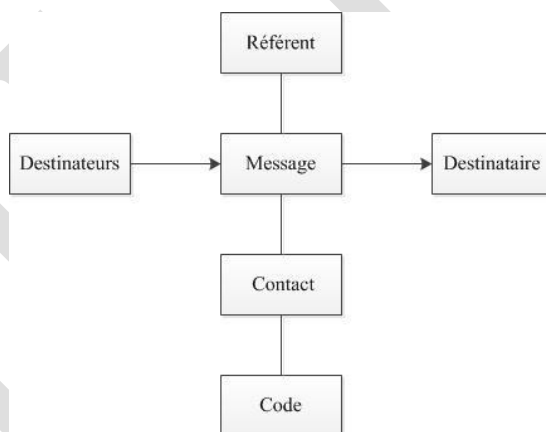
En effet, comme le texte, le logo constitue un message destiné à autrui dont le destinateur est l'artiste qui crée ce produit. Le destinataire est le spectateur envisagé au moment de la création. Le message est délivré lors du contact (visuel) entre le destinateur et le destinataire et associé à un référant (ce sur quoi porte le message). Celui-ci est véhiculé au moyen d'un code commun au destinateur et au destinataire ; nécessaire à la compréhension du message. En plus, l'image permet d'installer et de créer des situations de communication.

3- L'enseignement implicite (incident) :

Ce type d'enseignement signifie l'acquisition en contexte. A ce sujet, T. Dratcheva pense que « lorsque nous lisons pour nous distraire ou dans le but perfectionner, l'attention se focalise sur le contenu du texte et non pas sur ses caractéristiques formelles. Cependant, il se peut qu'après un certain délai, on voie ressurgir dans notre mémoire quelques mots sans que pour autant cette mémorisation ait fait l'objet d'une intention délibérée. Dans ce cas, ces termes ont été appris incidemment ». Autrement dit, dans une situation d'apprentissage implicite, l'apprenant traite de nouvelles informations sans l'intention première de les fixer

dans sa mémoire. Il le fait donc dans des activités qui ne sont pas directement tournées vers l'apprentissage lexical, tel que la lecture, dans l'exemple cité plus haut.

4- L'apprentissage explicite ou intentionnel :

Dans une telle situation d'apprentissage, les activités proposées visent spécifiquement intentionnel, on se réfère à un apprentissage explicative, une activité dirigée à une longue rétention et mémorisation.

Par exemple, dans un contexte d'enseignement du vocabulaire, l'apprenant se verra proposer des exercices clairement axés sur l'acquisition lexicale. L'importance de cet enseignement par rapport à celui dit implicite est affirmée dans le domaine d'apprentissage des langues étrangères. L'apprentissage explicite se révèle donc plus efficace dans le domaine des langues étrangères, car les apprenants en langues étrangères ne peuvent pas lire en quantité comparable à celle en langue maternelle. C'est pourquoi, ils peuvent atteindre ne seuil croissant en connaissance lexicale par l'apprentissage implicite.

S'agissant toujours de l'apprentissage explicite, certains chercheurs pensent que ce type d'apprentissage ne peut assurer qu'un nombre réduit de mots, comme ils ne peuvent interpréter tous les sens d'un mot.

5- le signe linguistique :

Etant donné que Saussure s'est intéressé à l'étude de la langue, la notion de signe prendra avec lui une autre acception, celle du signe linguistique instauré comme unité de langue. Saussure le décrit comme « une entité psychique à deux faces indissociables reliant un concept (son) et une image acoustique (empreinte psychique de ce son) ; sens.

Ces deux faces sont connues sous la forme du rapport :

Sé	Signifié
Sa	Signifiant

Saussure insiste sur la relation arbitraire entre son et sens (sa et sé), c'est-à-dire l'absence du rapport logique ou naturel entre l'idée de sœur et la suite des sons de ce même mot. Plus encore, cette même idée peut être représentée dans des langues diverses par des signifiants différents, par exemple « sœur » (en français), « sister » (en anglais) et خواهر (en persan).

Par opposition au caractère arbitraire du signe linguistique, l'image présente un rapport d'analogie, ce qui fait d'elle une icône, notion sur laquelle nous reviendrons plus tard, au cours de ce même chapitre. Entre tous les signes linguistiques ce qui nous intéresse sont les signes plastiques non spécifiques et spécifiques.

Dans la catégorie des signes plastiques non spécifiques, Martine Joly classe les signes qui non aucune spécificité aux messages visuels. Ce sont principalement :

1. La couleur :

La couleur et la lumière sont peut-être en matière d'image les signes plastiques les plus importants puisque leurs présences, comme leur absence influe considérablement sur le sens comme le dit Fresnault Deruelle, *« perçue optiquement et vécue psychiquement »*

Les jeunes enfants sont facilement stupéfiés par la couleur. Une étude montre que les enfants possèdent une grande sensibilité à la mémoire chromatique, puisque la mémoire répond variablement aux stimuli en fonction du développement du cerveau. De ce fait ils réagissent très vite a tous les objets colores qui se trouvent autour d'eux. Ils ont une vision concrète du monde, ils sont en effet incapables, au départ de comprendre la valeur symbolique d'une couleur ce qu'ils apprécient, c'est de vivre dans un monde coloré. La joie et le plaisir de manipuler les couleurs, de réunir des couleurs très variées sur une feuille. Cette pratique leur procure une satisfaction évidente .Il suffit d'observer un enfant occupé à peindre. Les couleurs constituent essentiellement un moyen d'expression pour traduire les émotions ressenties, elles sont donc indispensables dans les messages visuels.

On distingue :

☐ **Les couleurs chaudes**: Se rapprochent de l'orange elles vont du vert jaune au rouge, elles sont agressives et attirent**.**

☐**Les couleurs froides**: Se rapprochent du bleu, elles vont du vert au violet, elles sont nettes.

☐ **Les couleurs complémentaires**: Attirent l'attention lorsqu'elles sont utilisées conjointement.

☐ **Les couleurs analogues**: Se sont par exemple le bleu et le vert ou l'orange**.**

2. La lumière et l'éclairage :

La lumière et l'éclairage, ont une signification dans l'image, en effet, elles peuvent informer sur le moment et le lieu de la prise de vue (intérieure, extérieure, jour, nuit …etc.)

« Tout une dynamique du regard, qui est mise en place qui subordonne l'interprétation au parcours du trajet lumineux et à l'impression laissée d'abord par la zone la plus éclairée, comme une sorte d'indicateur lecture »

3. Lignes et formes :

Il s'agit des formes que nous percevons sur l'image. Se sont principalement des formes avec leur sens symbolique, leur interprétation est anthropologique et culturelle, donc les lignes et les formes peuvent connoter maintes choses.

Nous pouvons citer à titre d'exemple, la forme verticale qui peut connoter positivement, la fermeté, la virilité, et négativement : la dureté et l'agressivité ; une forme horizontale qui peut signifier le calme et la stabilité ; et la forme ronde qui peut renvoyer à la féminité et la douceur ou, la mollesse et la faiblesse.

6- Les signes plastiques spécifiques :

Martine Joly retient sous la rubrique des signes plastiques spécifiques trois :

1 / Le cadre : c'est lui qui isole et délimite l'image. Le cadre est *: «cette clôture régulière isolant le champ de la représentation de la surface environnante»*

2 / Le cadrage : il correspond *«à ce qu'on appelle en photographie l'échelle des plans»*

3 / L'angle de prise de vue

7- Comment aborder le logo dans un cours de langue?

Au départ, deux bonnes raisons pour développement d'un travail sur le logo en classe : d'une part, l'importance éducative du sujet, de l'autre, le témoignage culturel véhiculé par le logo. Les logos de notre corpus font partie des logos historiques et quotidiens qui mettent l'accent sur des valeurs existentielles et souvent globalisées. Selon nous, ce sont des exemples à la fois intéressants du point de vue culturel et pertinents puisqu'ils présupposent la participation active de l'apprenant dans la production du sens.

Utiliser un logo en classe de français langue étrangère, c'est faire appel à une gamme de compétences cognitives à disposition des apprenants : observer, repérer, reconnaître, associer, classer et formuler des hypothèses, …. Ce document sert donc de support pour analyser, critiquer, juger, rédiger… son utilisation, tout comme autre support, suppose une variation des exercices proposés, afin d'éviter des habitudes routinières chez l'apprenant.

En premier lieu, il s'agit d'identifier et de définir **l'origine** du document. Cela permettra de définir le public et le niveau ou plus exactement les publics et les niveaux. Dans le premier cas, l'origine peut-être une méthode scolaire de mathématiques, sciences, littérature....Le contexte est donc déjà posé, l'adaptation est seulement nécessaire en fonction du niveau des compétences du public. Les objectifs sont également clairement définis dès le départ. Après avoir présenté le document, une description est nécessaire. Elle répond aux trois grandes questions : où, qui, quoi.

Où ? Permet de définir le cadre, le lieu de l'action

Qui ? Présente les acteurs

Quoi ? Aborde le sujet

Une analyse plus détaillée peut ensuite être entreprise. Celle-ci répond aux trois questions posées précédemment, d'autres questions seront ajoutées : *comment ? Pourquoi ? Pour quoi ?* Dans le cas d'un document-logo, les objets, les personnages, la situation spatiale des personnages et/ou des objets, les formes, mais aussi les couleurs sont autant d'éléments à prendre en considération et à analyser.

Après avoir choisi les documents-logos à travailler, il faut se poser d'autres questions : comment les exploiter efficacement ?quelles sont les activités les plus rentables du point de vue de l'apprentissage linguistique et culturel ?

• Travail sur l'image

• Travail sur le texte

• Travail sur l'énonciation

• Travail sur interculturel

• Travail interactif

Le logo est ainsi d'abord source d'activités communicatives, à l'oral comme à l'écrit, et ensuite mine de procédés discursifs à décrypter. Dans ce chapitre nous allons présenter la démarche sur qui nous a permis d'appliquer l'usage des logos en classe de français : dix apprenants de niveau moyen et dix apprenants de niveau supérieur ont participé dans cette activité. On a consacré pour chacun des niveaux cinq heures d'exercices.

8-   Voir:

Une première vision fera ressortir les signifiés du logo. Il est préférable de montrer plusieurs logos pendant un laps de temps assez court pour activer l'imagination de l'apprenant et afin de mettre ensuite l'accent sur la polysémie de l'image. Chaque logo raconte une histoire et une histoire différente pour chaque personne. On pourrait envisager diverses activités : qu'est-ce que ce logo évoque pour vous ? Écrivez trois mots après la première vision d'un logo. Ensuite, en les comparants on pourrait engager une discussion. Il faudra formuler les connotations de façon plus claire en posant la question suivante : que ressentez-vous en regardant chaque logo ? Puis, selon une grille d'analyse, on procédera à la description formelle du logo :

Le cadrage	La taille de l'image
Le cadre	Un logo sans cadre ou plusieurs logos encadrés
L'angle de prise de vue	La plongée, la contre-plongée, etc.
Le choix des personnes	
Des objets	
Du lieu et du temps	
De la lumière	

Parmi les éléments de la composante technique, on peut trouver le cadrage, l'angle de prise de vue, le plan, etc. L'angle de prise de vue peut être une contre-plongée (prise de vue faite de bas en haut), une plongée, ou une face.

La recherche de l'information en analysant le logo est un bon moyen d'amener les apprenants à une production orale. L'une des premières informations communiquées à partir du logo porte sur l'espace, on peut aussi voir apparaître les lieux et les bâtiments historiques et culturels sur un logo. L'enseignant peut ainsi demander le lieu ou l'atmosphère dans lequel le récit du logo se déroule.
• Où se passe l'histoire ?
• Où se trouvent les objets ou les personnages ?
• Dans quel endroit on se trouve?

L'enseignant peut poser aussi des questions sur la couleur ; quelle est la couleur dominante ? (Une couleur froide / une couleur chaude). N'y a-t- il pas des objets qui apparaissent avec une valeur contextuelle, qui sont des témoignages culturels et sociaux avant d'être des signes économiques? N'y a-t-il pas de références culturelles spécifiques, des connotations codifiées, des conventions et des implicites socioculturels ?

Toutes ces questions ainsi qu'une dizaine d'autres peuvent être posées, ce qui va aboutira à des interactions et des échanges de types questions-réponses.

9-   Regarder :

La deuxième vision fera découvrir les constituants iconographiques du logo, selon la grille suivante :

	Couleurs
Les lignes de force	Eclairages
	Formes
	Traits
La typographie et la topologie	Du texte descriptif
	Du texte comprenant le logo et le slogan

10-   Interpréter :

Il s'agit dans cette troisième étape de l'interprétation des constituants visuels pour faire comprendre la mise en scène ou la construction de l'image, à savoir le parcours de l'œil lors de la réception du logo. On peut distinguer quatre constructions qui illustrent la mise en scène d'un logo par rapport à un produit :
• Construction focalisée : les lignes de force convergent vers un point de l'annonce qui fait figure de foyer et devient le lieu du produit à promouvoir : le regard est tiré vers un point stratégique de l'annonce où se trouve le produit.
• Construction axiale : le produit est placé exactement dans l'axe du regard, en général au centre du logo.
• Construction en profondeur : le produit est intégré à une scène dans un décor en perspective et tient au premier plan le devant la scène.
• Construction séquentielle : cette construction fait parcourir le regard pour qu'il chute, en fin de parcours, sur le produit.

Cette phase interprétative est celle qui sera la plus difficile pour l'apprenant car elle demande un effort de conceptualisation particulier. Ils devront aussi se justifier, et on travaille ainsi sur l'argumentation, et la cohérence.

11-   Conclusion

Nous pouvons penser que la didactique du français dans son évolution et face à cette approche par compétences a bénéficié de certains apports :

❖   En confirmant la pertinence de certains choix (l'importance de la situation, la validité d'une évaluation formative, la centration sur l'apprenant qui construit ses apprentissages); cette confirmation est en quelque sorte légitimée par la même pertinence de ces choix dans d'autres disciplines que couvre l'approche par compétences.

❖   En systématisant une démarche perçue souvent de façon intuitive ; celle de l'intégration des apprentissages et des évaluations en concevant des curricula selon cette perspective qui favorise une hiérarchisation des savoirs et une planification des apprentissages dans une logique d'intégration et de finalisation ; la même structure des programmes se retrouvant dans l'ensemble des disciplines, cette harmonisation dans le système éducatif devient un facteur positif pour l'apprenant ; en contribuant à développer des attitudes d'implication forte de l'apprenant et d'une différenciation ciblée des apprentissages.

Utiliser l'image peut s'avérer utile pour contourner certaines difficultés des apprenants .Ainsi, l'expérience que nous avons menée laisse à dire qu'utiliser l'image pourrait faciliter la compréhension des textes. En effet nous voyons à travers ces vidéos que les apprenants semblaient avoir plus de facilités pour décrypter l'image que le texte.

Le comportement des apprenants (Observation, participation, expression, ambiance) a corroboré en partie ces impressions. En effet, les enfants sont enthousiastes, parce que le changement d'outil permet d'introduire de la variété dans les activités. De plus, les images exercent encore un fort attrait sur eux. Toutefois, les illustrations ne sont pas faciles à manipuler. Les apprenants se sont laissé guider par la maîtresse qui leur posait des questions en suivant un ordre précis. Les résultats obtenus en classe, nous font constater une certaine adéquation entre la théorie et la pratique.

Le logo par sa richesse socioculturelle et sémiotique constitue un objet fort pédagogique exploitable en tant que document authentique en classe de langue.
Les logos par leur aspect à la fois visuel et linguistique constituent un rapport privilégié image-texte qui en font un objet de sens contenant des qualités pédagogiques. Cet objet serait destiné à être exploite en classe de langue.
Les logos pourraient donner lieu à un parcours didactique, soumis à une approche interactionnelle réalisable dans des tâches telles que les jeux, les simulations.

En effet, le logo est bien utile pour illustrer un cours; il est motivant pour les apprenants et son usage en français peut s'avérer très efficace si l'enseignant prend pleinement conscience du statut qu'occupe aujourd'hui ce document. Cette importance accordée à ces documents, se justifie non seulement par leur potentiel affectif et séducteur mais aussi parce qu'ils sont des objets d'expression et de communication porteurs d'éléments de significations culturelles.

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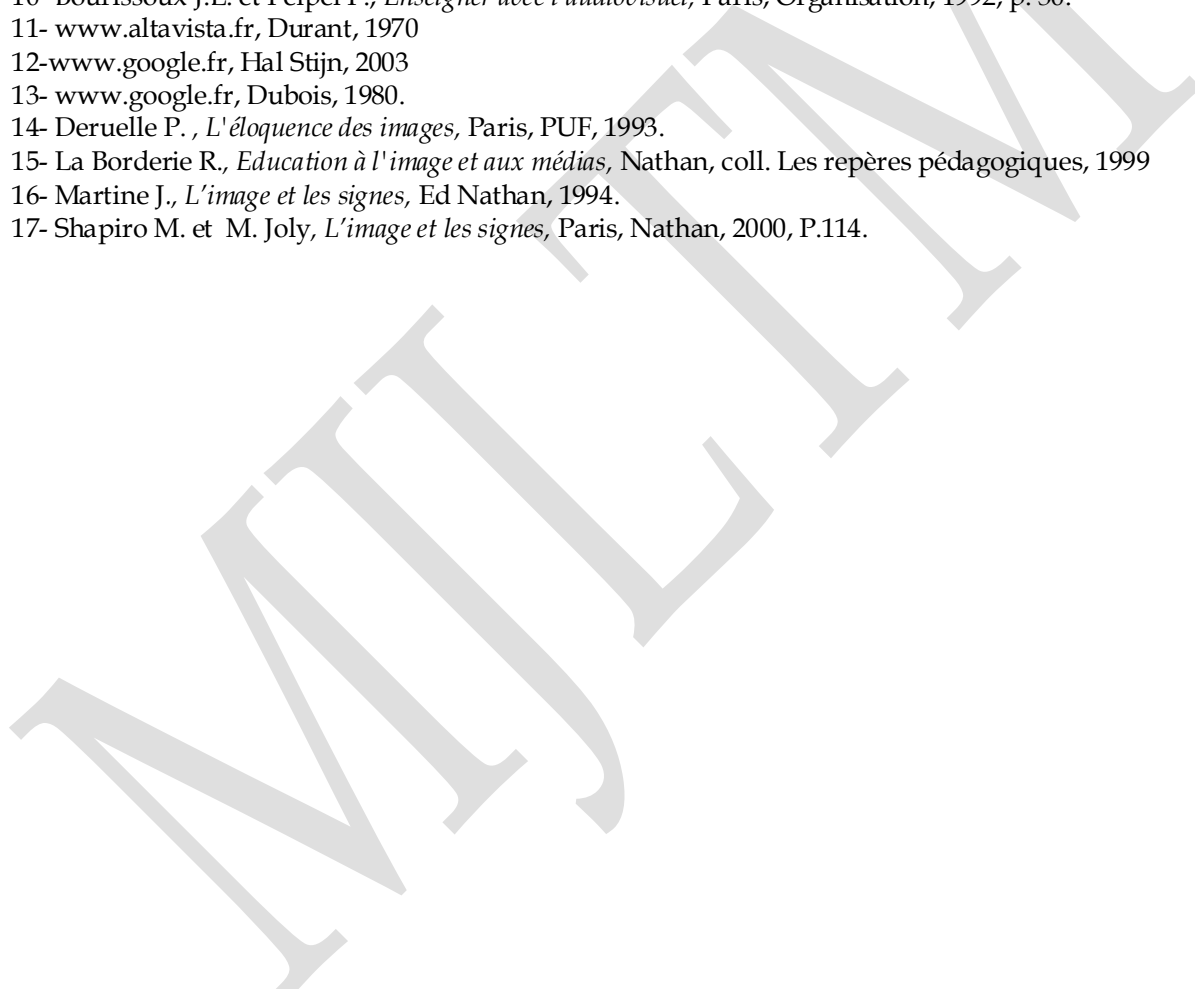
LE ROLE DE L'EMPATHIE ET L'ATTITUDE EMOTIONNELLE ENTRE LES ENSEIGNANTS DU FRANÇAIS ET LES APPRENANTS IRANIENS

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RESUME

Cette étude tente d'étudier et de comprendre le rôle que joue l'empathie en enseignement. L'empathie y est observée en tant que modèle de communication entre l'enseignant et l'élève. De façon générale, l'empathie permet d'assouplir les échanges entre les personnes. Dans un contexte éducatif, la qualité de la communication est associée à un vécu relationnel plus harmonieux et à un meilleur climat de classe, permettant ainsi des apprentissages plus significatifs.

Cette recherche permet d'identifier des stratégies permettant de vivre l'empathie dans un milieu éducatif. Il s'agit d'observer d'abord les élèves par un mouvement de réceptivité et d'ouverture à autrui, de se positionner également en tant qu'apprenant avec eux et de s'abstenir de les juger. Quelques moyens sont également identifiés comme pouvant servir à opérationnaliser ces stratégies. Il s'agit de trois moyens pédagogiques, un plan de cours clair et détaillé, l'utilisation d'un cahier de communication et l'animation de périodes d'échange, de trois techniques de communication verbale, la reformulation, la révélation de soi et d'autrui et la métacommunication de même que de quelques techniques de communication non verbale qui semblent particulièrement empathique au sein d'une pratique d'enseignement. À la fin une enquête est réalisée sur les enseignants iraniens afin de découvrir la présence de l'empathie dans leurs cours.

MOTS-CLES: empathie, enseignement, modèle de communication, stratégie, questionnaire.

Introduction :

Le terme "empathie" a été créé en allemand (Einfühlung, ressenti de l'intérieur) par le philosophe Robert Vischer (1847-1933) pour désigner le mode de relation d'une personne avec une œuvre d'art qui permet d'accéder à son sens. Il a ensuite été repris par Théodore Lipps et Karl Jaspers puis par Sigmund Freud avant de s'imposer plus largement, traduit par empathy en anglais et empathie en français. En psychologie, l'empathie est la capacité de ressentir les émotions, les sentiments, les expériences d'une autre personne ou de se mettre à sa place. Cette attitude nécessite un effort de compréhension intellectuelle d'autrui. Elle exclut cependant toute confusion entre soi et l'autre, tout mouvement affectif personnel ainsi que tout jugement moral. En effet l'empathie n'implique pas de partager les sentiments ou les émotions de l'autre, ni de prendre position par rapport à elle contrairement à la sympathie ou à l'antipathie.

En philosophie, l'empathie désigne l'appréhension immédiate de l'affectivité d'autrui. Donc le concept d'empathie a donc été utilisé dans de multiples domaines et modèles théoriques. En psychologie, l'empathie est généralement vue comme un déterminant de l'altruisme. On retrouve aussi ce concept dans la théorie de l'attribution de Regan et Totten et dans la théorie du jugement et de la compréhension sociale de Krulewitz. L'intérêt que suscite l'étude de l'empathie depuis quelques années souligne son importance dans les interactions humaines. Cependant, la diversité des théories proposées et les différentes définitions recensées en rendent l'étude souvent complexe.

L'empathie est d'abord une affaire de cœur. Elle est généralement définie comme étant la capacité de comprendre une autre personne comme si on était à sa place. Savoir être empathique, c'est en effet être en mesure de se montrer sensible aux autres ; à leur subjectivité, à leur façon de voir et de ressentir les choses en se plaçant de leur propre point de vue, sans interprétation ni analyse de notre part. Elle est donc également une affaire de raison ;

nous avons commencé l'apprentissage du français à l'université, il y 6 ans. Dans notre cours tous les apprenants étaient au début au même niveau, mais au fur et à mesure les apprenants ont pris des positions différentes à l'égard de la langue française; après avoir cherché les racines nous nous sommes rendu compte qu'un des facteurs efficaces étaient l'enseignant. Certains étudiants se passionnaient pour le français par le caractère de leur professeur, sa voix, ses gestes, sa manière de parler cette langue étrangère et etc. mais un autre groupe détestaient le français car ils détestaient leur enseignant! Ainsi, de nombreuses questions affleurent : 1) Comment combler le fossé qui sépare l'enseignant des enseignes? 2) Faut-il combler ce fossé ou maintenir la distance? 3) Comment instaurer un climat dans la classe qui sera favorable a l'apprentissage des élèves? Alors on ne doit pas ignorer le pouvoir des enseignants dans l'apprentissage des élèves.4) A travers leur statut au sein de la classe, la légitimation des informations, la discipline, l'évaluation, l'orientation et la certification académique du Savoir inspirent le pouvoir de l'enseignant. Comment l'enseignant peut mener son pouvoir vers l'attirance des élèves?

L'acte d'enseigner n'est pas seulement une succession de méthodes pédagogiques, mais dépend également de la capacité de l'enseignant à construire une relation de confiance avec ses élèves, en tenant compte de leur univers émotionnel, ainsi que du sien. Mais comment?

Cette approche complexe, souvent intuitive, nécessite de la part de l'enseignant beaucoup de persévérance, mais aussi de subtilité dans sa relation à l'autre (l'élève). Un bon professeur n'est pas seulement un "puits de sciences"; l'écoute, les traits de personnalité, la patience, la communication et etc. sont mis au même rang que la maîtrise didactique. Les compétences relationnelles font donc partie intégrante de notre métier d'enseignant, et par voie de conséquence les relations de confiance, de respect mutuel, de congruence, qui se font jour tout au long de l'année entre le professeur et ses élèves. La clé de voute de toutes ces préoccupations est l'«empathie», l'art de percevoir le sentiment. Étymologiquement parlant, «empathie» signifierait:

«Comprendre l'émotion» ou «comprendre la souffrance». L'empathie et l'attitude émotionnelle est une composante essentielle, fondamentale de la compétence sociale. Elle suppose la capacité de comprendre et d'éprouver les émotions d'une autre personne. L'empathie se définissant comme l'une des voies permettant d'entrer en communication avec l'autre, de partager avec lui son propre vécu tout en entrant en «sympathie» avec le vécu de l'autre. Entre apathie (insensibilité) et sympathie (souffrir avec), l'empathie est la juste distance affective. L'enseignant doit faire preuve d'«empathie» qui « consiste en quelque sorte à se mettre à la place de l'étudiant, a voir les choses avec ses yeux a lui »[1]. Empathie signifie en effet comprendre une ou plusieurs personnes en se mettant à leur place.

Golemen dit: «Le fait de sentir ce que les autres ressentent sans qu'ils en parlent, voilà l'essence de l'empathie»[2]. Elle signifie se montrer sensible aux autres, à leur subjectivité, à leur façon de voir et de ressentir les choses en se plaçant de leur propre point de vue, sans interprétation ni analyse. L'empathie est un espace d'accueil qui dépasse largement le cadre de la communication non-violente. Elle est au cœur de maints processus d'accompagnement thérapeutique; différents mouvements spirituels prônent son utilisation; elle est utilisée dans diverses techniques de communication, et etc. elle est utilisée dans diverses techniques de communication, et etc.

Nous persistons à croire qu'il nous faut connaitre nos élèves, et donc faire preuve d'empathie (l'attitude que nous avons évoquée précédemment), dans un premier temps en tout cas. En réalité, l'enseignant est un être constamment en communication. En effet, qu'il soit en train de transmettre de la matière, d'animer une discussion, d'échanger avec un élève, de répondre à une question, de planifier un cours ou même de corriger des examens, la communication humaine demeure toujours au centre de ses activités cognitives et affectives et, plus particulièrement, l'outil essentiel de sa pratique professionnelle.

Brown souligne: «la communication exige un degré sophistique d'empathie»[3]. Par conséquent, l'enseignant pour pouvoir gérer sa relation avec les élèves a besoin de l'empathie.

« Le rôle de l'Empathie et l'attitude émotionnelle entre l'enseignant et ses élèves », pourquoi nous avons choisi ce titre?

L'attitude Émotionnelle est une méthode» psychothérapeutique mise au point il y a plus de 20 ans par le Docteur Etienne Jalenques[4], médecin psychiatre. C'est une thérapie de groupe qui met beaucoup en avant

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l'expression des peurs, névroses des patients et etc. Ils tentent par les cris, pleurs, répétition de phrase initiées le plus souvent par le thérapeute de découvrir leur mal-être. Vu que les émotions semblent au cœur de l'activité de l'enseignement, dans l'empathie aussi l'expression des émotions est essentielle. Cela permet plus de sincérité et une meilleure compréhension mutuelle. Les outils et les moyens empathiques comme la révélation de soi, la métacommunication, le cahier de communication font partie de l'attitude émotionnelle entre l'enseignant et les élèves.

Lorsque nous nous tournons vers un élève, lorsque nous le regardons vraiment, nous sommes ce quelqu'un qui regarde et qui confirme notre existence. De son côté, l'élève confirme lui aussi notre existence par son regard. Il s'agit ici d'une coprésence qui passe par l'acceptation de l'existence de l'Autre, en son essence, à la fois comme une partie de nous avec qui nous communiquons par l'authenticité et la congruence et à la fois comme une autre personne à part entière. Buber oppose à cette acceptation dialogique fondamentale le repli de l'être qui signifie que l'«on admet l'existence de l'Autre que sous la forme de sa propre expérience, que comme un mode d'existence de son propre Je».[5]

Nous voyons que l'empathie comporte trois phases de développement c'est-à-dire d'abord la contagion émotionnelle, puis la prise de rôle, toutes deux davantage affectives, et finalement la capacité de prise de perspective, menant à l'empathie à la fois affective et cognitive qui passe par une connaissance accrue de la personne elle-même et par le développement d'attitudes centrées sur la personne.

L'empathie se différencie de la contagion émotionnelle dans laquelle une personne éprouve le même état affectif qu'une autre sans conserver la distance entre soi et autrui comme il est observé dans l'empathie. Le fou rire est un exemple de contagion émotionnelle : un sentiment de gaité est ressenti par les deux individus.

Les théories modernes distinguent également l'empathie de la sympathie. Cette dernière consiste aussi à comprendre les affections d'une autre personne mais elle comporte une dimension affective supplémentaire : alors que l'empathie repose sur une capacité de représentation de l'état mental d'autrui indépendamment de tout jugement de valeur, la sympathie est une réponse motivationnelle qui repose sur une proximité affective avec qui en est l'objet et vise donc à améliorer son bien-être.

L'empathie implique donc toujours simultanément union et séparation : le sujet empathique reste toujours conscient que la source de sa sensation lui est externe.

2.1 Enseignement empathique

Selon un rapport annuel du conseil supérieur de l'éducation «L'acte d'enseigner est un acte réflexif comprenant une réflexion à la fois dans et sur l'action d'enseigner»[6]. Cette réflexion dans l'action est définit comme une pratique professionnelle. L'enseignant doit tenir compte de et s'ajuster aux variations et aux exigences de différentes situations d'apprentissage et des cultures variables de différents élèves. Car l'acte d'enseigner est un acte réflexif, il est aussi un acte interactif basé sur la communication entre des personnes.[7]

Dès 1925, Buber s'est penché sur la fonction éducative en termes de relation dialogique Je-Tu. Sans nommer l'empathie comme telle - le mot n'existait pas encore tout à fait à l'époque - il décrit dans «la vie en dialogue» la place primordiale jouée par ce qu'il appelle le phénomène d'enveloppement des élèves par l'éducateur qui correspond tout à fait à la description d'une pédagogie empathique:

«Le dialogique (ou l'empathie) n'est pas un privilège de l'intellectualité, comme la dialectique. Il ne commence pas à l'étage supérieur de l'humanité, il ne commence pas plus haut qu'il ne commence. Là, il n'y a pas de gens doués et de gens peu doués, il n'y a que des gens qui se donnent et des gens qui se retiennent.»[8]

Selon lui, l'éducateur doit en effet recommencer tous les jours à éprouver les actions qu'il exerce sur les élèves de la manière dont eux les éprouvent. Il croit que l'empathie - qu'il nomme enveloppement - peut et doit devenir atmosphère» de la classe.

Rogers met l'accent sur l'importance de l'empathie. Il souligne que la présence de l'empathie chez l'enseignant est en relation directe avec la croissance positive des élèves et, son absence, en relation négative avec la détérioration de la motivation des élèves. Enfin l'empathie est présentée comme un facteur facilitant de la communication: «L'empathie est comme une sorte de lubrifiant qui encourage et facilite la communication».[9]

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[5] *BUBER, M. (1969). Je et Tu. Paris: Aubier-Montaigne. Traduction de I and Thou. (1948) New York: Charles Scribner's Sons*

[6] (in Tremblay, op.cit., p.6)

[7] (Ibid., pp.6-8)

[8] (Buber, 1959, p. 36)

[9] (Egan et Forest, 1987, p.113)

Toutefois, la connaissance de soi, considérée ici comme le véritable premier pas de la connaissance d'autrui, ne suffit pas à maximiser la compréhension empathique chez l'enseignant. Le fait de se connaître doit dépasser le simple exercice intellectuel. Cette connaissance de soi doit devenir réconciliation avec soi et tendre à s'exprimer à travers des attitudes de qualité, bien intégrées dans la personne même de l'enseignant, et qualifiées par Saint-Arnaud[10] de centrées sur la personne (d'après l'expression de Rogers «centrées sur le client») pour mener à l'empathie affective/cognitive.

L'authenticité, la congruence qui découle dans un premier temps de la connaissance de soi, puis l'acceptation ou la considération positive inconditionnelle et le respect sont en effet considérés dans la littérature scientifique comme indispensables[11] à l'empathie.

En fait, la première stratégie empathique que j'utilise en tant qu'enseignante pourrait s'énoncer ainsi: EN TANT QU'ENSEIGNANTE, JE CHOISIS D'ABORD L'AUTRE[12]

En fait, lorsque j'enseigne, je recherche la compréhension avant tout, et ma capacité de réceptivité est davantage active et disponible dans ma façon professionnelle de communiquer que dans ma vie personnelle. Il s'agit alors d'une réceptivité affective, c'est-à-dire la plus possible chaleureuse et dynamique, contenant plus ou moins les dimensions de contagion émotionnelle et de prise de rôle des deux premières étapes de développement humain de l'empathie, et d'une réceptivité également et nécessairement cognitive, déterminée cette fois par la dimension plus réservée de prise de perspective et d'observation qui se base obligatoirement sur un certain détachement émotif face à mes propres affects et, par extension, à ceux des autres. En effet, dans la prise de perspective, le cognitif prend le dessus sur l'affectif et donne à la personne la capacité de discerner son opinion de celle de l'autre, son ressenti d'avec celui de l'autre.

La première disposition empathique que j'éprouve envers mes élèves se passe avant de les connaître. Lorsque je fais ma préparation de cours, je tente de me mettre à la place de mes futurs étudiants qui ne connaissent vraisemblablement pas ou très peu la matière. Je me demande quels sont les aspects les plus intéressants, les exercices d'apprentissage les plus stimulants et les plus aidants pour les élèves, etc. Je me demande dans quel ordre la matière doit être abordée avec logique et cohérence.

Je m'efforce donc de concevoir un plan de cours clair et détaillé, avec des objectifs et des périodes bien définis, selon les besoins que je me représente de mes futurs élèves. Le plan de cours comprend une page complète par période de trois heures sur la partie de la matière que nous allons explorer ensemble.

Chaque page comprend les principaux aspects de la matière au programme du cours en question, théorie et pratique, de même que des indications claires pour le travail personnel des élèves en vue du prochain cours.

Le plan de cours est photocopié et relié sous forme d'un petit cahier d'une vingtaine de pages qui devient comme un cahier d'accompagnement qui guide et supporte les élèves dans leur travail d'apprenant.

Au fur et à mesure que la formation se déroule, il est toutefois important de demeurer réceptif aux demandes d'ajustement formulées verbalement ou non verbalement par les élèves. Certains aspects de la matière peuvent avoir été traités ailleurs et ainsi devenir superflus. Certains besoins particuliers peuvent être exprimés par le groupe. Certains exercices peuvent ne pas vraiment correspondre aux attentes des étudiants. Dans ces cas-là, le fait d'adapter son plan de cours représente une bonne façon de démontrer que ce qui importe, ce sont les personnes en chair, en cœur et en esprit, et non des élèves fantômes. Toutefois, il est important de démontrer une certaine forme de discernement vis-à-vis ces demandes. Quelques expériences en ce sens m'ont permis de réaliser qu'il n'est pas toujours indiqué de transformer un cours pour répondre aux besoins de quelques étudiants.

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[10] SAINT-ARNAUD, Yves.1992, Connaître par l'action. Montréal, Les presses de l'Université de Montréal, Collection INTERVENIR

[11] On peut dire aussi 'concomitants' car en réalité, comme on le verra un peu plus loin dans cette recherche, certaines attitudes comme l'acceptation inconditionnelle et le respect font intrinsèquement parties de l'empathie alors que d'autres comme l'authenticité et la congruence en deviennent le médium essentiel d'expression humaine.

[12] Le fait de choisir de recevoir l'autre afin de mieux le nourrir découle du postulat de l'interdépendance qui fait que les fruits de la réceptivité que j'offre à mes élèves donnent naissance chez eux, par effet de réciprocité, à une réceptivité plus riche et plus profitable à leur croissance et à leur apprentissage. Et, du même coup, j'en suis moi-même nourrie.

Comme on l'a vu plus tôt, le rôle de l'empathie en milieu éducatif vise en quelque sorte à augmenter le niveau et la qualité de réceptivité de l'enseignant qui, par un effet de réciprocité, va augmenter le niveau et la qualité de réceptivité des apprenants. Pour y arriver, j'utilise donc certains outils pédagogiques qui favorisent la réception du plus grand nombre d'informations possible de la part des élèves - perception de leur vécu, de leurs expériences, de leur ressenti, de leurs idées, de leur compréhension, de leur questionnement - me donnant ainsi accès à une grande variété d'indices pouvant me permettre de comprendre l'élève (individu et groupe).En ce sens, j'utilise la communication écrite pour mettre en place un moyen d'échange individualisé avec chaque élève. Il s'agit d'un cahier de communication à l'intérieur duquel l'élève interroge son expérience et ses connaissances à partir d'une série de questions auxquelles il a à répondre sur la matière vue pendant le cours. L'étudiant est libre d'aborder les sujets à sa manière et de donner les exemples qu'il veut.

Il est également libre d'utiliser l'ordinateur et de présenter un cahier formé de feuilles séparées. Il peut aussi écrire à la main dans un cahier qui lui plaît. Plusieurs étudiants adultes ne se servent des questions formulées que pour introduire le récit de leur propre histoire, du vécu de leurs propres expériences d'apprentissage.

Au fond, le but visé est renonciation écrite par l'élève de ses opinions et de ses sentiments face à différents sujets comme le sens de la communication dans sa vie, la connaissance de soi, le processus de perception, l'écoute, l'affirmation de soi, la communication non verbale, sa façon personnelle de vivre un conflit et comment il communique pour le solutionner, comment les attitudes centrées sur la personne contribuent à la réussite de ses communications et le reste.

Ainsi, l'écriture du cahier de communication permet à chaque élève d'établir et de maintenir avec moi une communication individuelle sur l'apprentissage de la matière ou, s'il le désire, sur tout autre aspect de ses expériences ou prises de conscience de sa façon de communiquer. Le cahier n'est pas exactement un journal puisque son écriture est orientée à partir de questions à développement concernant la compréhension de la matière, mais comme les réponses proviennent des expériences, des croyances, des valeurs, des opinions des sentiments et des appréhensions de chaque étudiant, il permet tout de même d'élaborer en quelque sorte un genre de construit personnel de l'expérience communicationnelle sur des thèmes communs.

La lecture des cahiers, qui me sont remis à quelques reprises à chaque session (deux, trois, jusqu'à six fois même selon le nombre d'étudiants), me permet de mieux les connaître, de mieux comprendre les motivations qui soutiennent ou pas leur apprentissage et de donner aux informations reçues des messages feedback constructifs et pédagogiques.

C'est un genre de dialogue écrit qui s'installe donc ainsi entre chaque étudiant et moi. J'utilise en effet le cahier de communication pour leur donner un feedback individualisé sur les différents sujets abordés. Souvent, à travers leurs histoires et les exemples dont ils se servent pour l'illustrer, je peux y découvrir leur(s) force(s) ou leur(s) qualité(s) en action. Il m'est alors facile de leur dévoiler par écrit cette force et cette beauté que je vois en eux.

Je me sers également du cahier de communication pour dévoiler certains liens qu'il m'est possible de faire à partir de leurs réflexions et que je peux lire entre les lignes, ceci dans le but de les aider à augmenter la prise de conscience de certains aspects plus sensibles de leur personnalité ou de mettre l'accent sur certaines incompréhensions de la matière que je peux y déceler.

En un sens, je donne beaucoup, mais je reçois tout autant. En fait, le cahier de communication m'apporte en tant que personne-enseignante des bénéfices qui m'apparaissent parfois inestimables. Autant le cahier m'offre un espace fructueux de rétroactions, autant ce même cahier offre le même espace aux étudiants qui peuvent y communiquer des remarques, des suggestions, des encouragements, des remerciements, voire même des félicitations. Après leur lecture, je me sens toujours nourrie et très souvent confirmée dans ma pratique d'enseignement.

Mais bien des choses se passent en classe en dehors de la parole exprimée. Dans le feu de l'action, l'enseignant perçoit un tas d'autres informations. On dit souvent que les enseignants doivent avoir des yeux tout le tour de la tête. On parle même parfois d'antennes de perception. En réalité, je crois que ce que les enseignants décrivent alors, c'est tout simplement leur capacité de percevoir les choses avec une intuition plus ou moins grande lorsqu'ils se retrouvent en situation pédagogique.

Si l'enseignant bénéfice de son propre vécu d'apprentissage du français, Il aura plus de succès dans sa relation avec ses élèves. Ainsi il se souvient des difficultés et des plaisirs du français qu'il rencontrait. Par conséquent il sera capable de développer ses stratégies et ses attitudes d'après ses expériences personnelles. Les questions 9, 11 et 34 estiment cet art de l'enseignant: «Partagez-vous avec vos élèves le même vécu

d'apprentissage du français?», «Cherchez-vous des similitudes entre votre enfance et vos élèves?», «Racontez-vous le récit de vos propres apprentissages de la langue française pour vos élèves?»

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ENGLISH MULTIPLE-SYLLABLE WORD PRONUNCIATION ACCURACY AMONG IRANIAN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS OF HUMANITY AND NATURAL SCIENCE

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to find out whether there was any difference between the performance of Iranian Senior High School Students of Humanity and Natural Science in terms of English multiple-syllable word pronunciation accuracy. The participants of this study consisted of 30 Senior High School Students selected at Seighaliha High School in Langrud, Iran. Half of these students were studying Natural Science and the other half Humanity. Both groups were provided with a posttest of English multiple-syllable word pronunciation.The obtained data was analyzed via 16th version of the Statistical Package for Social Science(SPSS), using independent sample t-test. The Finding revealed that (a) there was a significant difference between the Natural Science and Humanity Students on their performance on English word pronunciation accuracy, (b) the Natural Science group showed higher ability in the posttest of pronunciation accuracy than Humanity Students.

KEY WORDS: Pronunciation, Pronunciation teaching, Pronunciation intelligibility, Word stress, Text books

Introduction

Pronouncing a language properly is a key aspect when understanding and making ourselves understood. The meaning between the words like effect and affect are easily confused if the pronunciation is not clear.According to Rivers (1981, p.125), we have all had the experience, when listening to foreigners speaking our language, of having great difficulty in understanding what they are trying to say, not because of their lack of knowledge of vocabulary and language structure but because the sounds they produced seemed peculiar and the voice rose and fell unexpected places. Rivers (1981) further states since language is a means of communication, learning words, phrases and grammatical features are not enough, if the learners are not able to produce these in a way which makes their utterances comprehensible to a native speaker of the language. Cohen (1977 cited in Robertson, 2003) argues that teaching of pronunciation goals goes far beyond the teaching of phonemes.

This study is significant in two ways, first in terms of teaching pronunciation and second in terms of learning pronunciation. In terms of teaching pronunciation, pronunciation teaching in Iranian high schools has been neglected like many EFL countries over the world. There are many shortcomings and problems with regard to the aspect of pronunciation training in Iranian High schools. One of these shortcomings can be attributed to the issue of English textbooks in Iranian High schools. The other reason of phonological problems that Iranian EFL students may have in pronunciation may be to the lack of formal instruction. According to Robertson (2003), English teachers must attain a comprehensive awareness of the phonological characteristics of first language and target language of the learners.Hayati (2010) has stated that inadequate knowledge of some teachers of English about Linguistics and Methodology has caused many problems for their students, for instance an English teacher pronounces a word in his/her class, but the year after, the

same student may hear the same word with a completely different pronunciation. Other shortcomings related to the pronunciation training issue in Iranian High Shools can be mentioned as lack of facilities in the school environment such as instructional tapes, video-players, enough computers, DVD players.

This study is also significant in terms of learning pronunciation. In terms of learning pronunciation, learners are different. High school students who studying in two different fields, Humanity and Natural Science, use the same English Textbook and receive the same pronunciation training in Iran. The importance of this research is that, according to a uniform curriculum being provided to all fields, does it really still have the same results on two different groups of High School Students who are studying Natural Science and also those of the Human Science field in terms of pronunciation accuracy.

Centerman & Krausz (2011) have declared that difficulties in pronunciation sounds to be a problem for many teachers of a foreign language. They add that students can have different abilities when entering the L2 classroom that depend on aspects such as language background, exposure to the target language, age and even interest in the language. So, to Centerman & Krausz (2011), this makes it hard for a teacher to know how to approach individual learners in their individual pronunciation development. In line with this trend, Bradley & Bennett (2007, cited in Nikbakht, 2011) believe that there are several linguistic and notably psychological factors that affect a non-native English speaker's pronunciation in ways that are not so true about grammer or vocabulary. According to Celce-Murcia et al (1996, quoted in Nikbakht, 2011), some learners are relatively weak in phonemic coding ability : the capacity to discriminate and code foreign sounds. To Kocic (2010) among individual differences in language learners aptitude sounds to be the most controversial and the most disputed one among linguists.

Carroll and Sapon define aptitude as a complex of "basic abilities that are basic to facilitate foreign language learning" (Dornyei 2005, cited in Kocic, 2010), which includes discriminating sounds and associating them with written symbols and identifying grammatical regularities of a language (Ellis 1985, cited in Kocic). Some authors argue that aptitude is only an 'umbrella-term' for a set of specific cognitive skills and capacities, such as working memory or phonological coding/ decoding, which go beyond the skills usually measured to determine linguistic aptitude (Dornyei, 2005). Kocic believes that aptitude has to do with learners' efficiency and the rate at which they learn a foreign language. Lightbown and Spada (2006, quoted, in Kocic, 2005) define aptitude as a common knowledge that best language learners possess a certain 'knack' for languages which enables them to learn languages more quickly than the others .

Background and Literature Review

Traditional approaches to pronunciation have often focused on **segmental aspects**, mostly because these relate in some way to letters in writing, and are therefore the easiest to notice and work on. More recent approaches to pronunciation, however, have focused on the **suprasegmental aspects** of pronunciation.(Fact Sheet, 2002).According to Castillo (1990, cited in Otlowski, 1998), the role of pronunciation in different schools of language teaching has varied widely from having no role in the grammer translation method to being the primary focus in the audio-lingual method. In this trend Nikbakht (2011) has stated that throughout the decades, the methodologies for teaching pronunciation has changed drastically.

Regarding the points mentioned up to here , changing outlooks on language learning and teaching have influenced a shift from teacher centred to learner centred classroom (Otlowski, 1998). Coincidentally, there has been a shift from specific linguistic competencies to broader communicative competencies as goals for teachers and students (Morley, 1991, cited in Otlowski, 1998). Morley (1991) has argued that the methodologies of teaching must change from emphasizing segmental elements of pronunciation to suprasegmental elements of pronunciation and from linguistic competence to communication competence. According to Morley (1991, cited in Nikbakht, 2011),"intelligible pronunciation" is an essential component of communication competence. Concerning such a move in language instruction and such an overall attitude toward the role and instructional prominence of pronunciation as an influential communicative element, pronunciation teaching appeared to be treated multi-dimensionally (Morley, 1987, cited in Nikbakht, 2011).According to communicative approach, all students can do well in learning the pronunciation of a foreign language, if the teacher and student take part together in the total learning process. The communicative approach to pronunciation training requires teaching methods and objectives that include 'whole-person learner involvement' (Morley, 1991, cited in Otlowski, 1998).Morley (1991, cited in Moore, 2001) suggests if pronunciation class becomes an integral part of oral communication rather than dealing with it only as an isolated pedagogy, students will achieve more desired results.

Many studies have compared English with Persian and derived some of the mismatches between two languages. In one study, Hayati (1997, quoted in Gordani et al, 2012) compared the stress pattern in English with Persian. He found that in Persian, stress occurs finally but in English it falls on the first syllable of compound words. Fotovatnia (2006, cited in Gordani et al, 2012) in another study investigated the process of speech segmentation of native speakers of Persian. She concluded that contrary to the dependence of English speakers on primary stress, persian speakers rely on position. She explained that persian speakers use initial phonemes to break down the speech into meaningful units in EnglishIn another study, Hall (2007, cited in Gordani et al, 2012) explored the extent to which phonological characteristics of persian speakers of English interfere with their intelligibility when they interact with L1 Australian English speakers. The finding demonstrated that the phonemes and consonant clusters which do not exist in Persian sound system and syllable structure caused difficulties for persian speakers of English. It can be inferred that phonological problems that Iranian high school learners have in pronunciation in different fields have not received enough attention in EFL pronunciation research.

The trochaic nature of English stress system (i.e. with primary stress on the first syllableis in contrast with Persian stress system where instead of the first syllable, it is often, the *final* syllable which receives the primary stress. This cross-linguistic difference results in Iranian learners' misplacement of word stress in English words (Yarmohammadi, 2005, cited in Heidari et al, 2012). As a result, Iranian EFL learners quite often mispronounce English words by placing the primary stress on the final syllable.Yarmohammadi (2005, cited in Heidari et al, 2012) has mentioned that such an error cannot be ignored because it may interrupt the process of communication and leads to unintelligibility. Fotovatnia (2006, cited in Gordani et al, 2012) in a research investigated the process of speech segmentation of native speakers of persian. She concluded that contrary to the dependence of English speakers on primary stress, persian speakers rely on position. She explained that Persian speakers use initial phonemes to break down the speech into meaningful units in English. Heidari et al (2012) in another research explored the effect of musically-simulated patterns, as a new teaching technique, on the learning of word stress patterns of English. Result of this study showed that it is essential to teach English stress patterns to Iranian EFL learners as well as other EFL learners whose first language (L1) is basically different from English in terms of word stress patterns.

Research Objectives

Based on the problem stated as well as the literature reviewed in the previous section, this study aims to investigate the extent to which Iranian high school students of Humanity and Natural Science pronounce English multiple-syllable words accurately. In other word, the study focuses on determining which group perform better in regard to vowels, consonants, stress. Identifying the phonological differences that exist between two types of learners, who are studying in two different fields of study in Iranian High schools, will help teachers in diagnosing students'phonological weaknesses, and in planning pronunciation and speaking training in English.

Research Questions

Based on the research objectives listed, the following questions will be explored on:

i.   Is there any difference between the posttest scores of pronunciation accuracy among senior high school students of Humanity and Natural Science?

ii.   Does high school students of Natural science show higher ability in the posttest of pronunciationaccuracy than high school students of Humanity?

Research Hypotheses

H1-   There is no difference between the posttest scores of pronunciation accuracy among senior high school students of Humanity and Natural Science.

H2-   High school students of Natural science show higher ability in the posttest of pronunciation accuracy than

High school students of Humanity.

Methodology

Participants

The subjects of the study were 30 female Senior High School students aged between 14 and 15 selected based on the proficiency test scores among 50 Senior High School students at Seighaliha High School in Langrud, Gilan, Iran. Half of these students were majoring in Humanity and the other half in Natural sci-

ence, who all had English 3as a course in the same year the study was conducted in it.They were all Persian native speakers.

Procedures

Because Iranian Senior High School Students are not acquainted with OPT, they were administered a proficiency test to be in a fairly equal level in the knowledge of English pronunciation.The Proficiency test was judged and approved by two experts. Selected students received scores at least one standard deviation below the mean in the proficiency test.

This study used two groups to compare. Both groups underwent no pretest. They received no treatment in this study. In order to conduct this research, two groups of Iranian Senior High Students, studying in two different fields of study, Humanity and Natural Science, took part in the posttest and their pronunciation accuracy was compared. The posttest contained a list of 20 single words.Inorder to secure content validity of the posttest, selected words for the test were chosen from the students ' current textbook in third grade of High school. The Posttest was approved by three experts in TEFL.In addition three raters coded and analyzed the data. The post-tests' reliability was estimated through inter-rater reliability. In this research, the participants(N=30) were required to read the list of 20 single vocabulary while their voices were recorded. Their recorded pronunciation was transcribed. Then, these transcriptions were analyzed and their pronunciation accuracy was compared. The researcher put 0 for inaccurate and 1 for accurate pronouncing of consonants. The same procedure was done for scoring vowels and placing of stress. Then the mean of three scores was considered as the pronunciation accuracy criterion of the participants.

Data Analysis

The data of current study were analyzed using descriptive as well as inferential analyses. The descriptive analysis of the posttest scores of two groups of the study has been presented in table 1 as follows:

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the posttest of groups.

	CourseType	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pronunciation	Natural Science	15	10.3700	2.40229	.62027
	Humanity	15	7.2033	3.25008	.83917

As table (1) indicates, the mean of the Natural Science is higher than that of the Humanity group. Accordingly,the number of participants in each group was 15 (N=15); in addition, the amount of the standard deviation was lower in the Natural Science group as compared to the Humanity group of the study which indicates that the Natural Science group posttest scores are more homogenous than those of the Humanity group.

Table 2: The result of the independent t-test of the study.

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pronunciation	Equal variances assumed	1.001	.326	3.035	28	.005
	Equal variances not assumed			3.035	25.781	.005

According to table (2), the result of t-test (tobs=3.035, p<.05) yielded significant difference between the Natural Science and the Humanity groups. The obtained t-observed is higher than the critical value of t in the student table with the degree of freedom of 25 (df=25) and the level of significance of .005 (sig.=.005) for the two –tailed (null) hypothesis as to be .05 (tcrit=.05). Such a result (tobs>tcrit) rejects the null hypothesis of the current study.

Discussion

The obtained results from the independent sample t-test which compared the mean scores of two groups revealed that there was a significant difference between the Humanity group and Natural Science group in terms of pronunciation accuracy. Therefore , the null hypothesis was rejected. To address the second re-

search hypothesis, the researcher implemented group statistics to copmpare the means of two groups. As Table (1) indicates, according to the Mean differences obtained from the analysis , Natural Science group(Mean= 10.37) and (the Std .Error Mean .62) performed significantly higher than Humanity group (Mean= 7.20) and (the Std .Error Mean =.83). So, the second hypothesisof the study is supported.

Conclusion

The findings of the study showed that there was a significant difference in the pronunciation accuracy of two groups of students, it was also revealed that the Natural Science Students outperformed the Humanity Students. It can be concluded that the students in different fields have different abilities in terms of pronunciation accuracy in spite of receiving the same English Curriculum. Identifying the phonological differences that exist between two types of learners, who are studying in two different fields of study in Iranian High schools, will help teachers in diagnosing students ' phonological weaknesses, and in planning pronunciation training specific for each group and speaking training in English.

One of the conclusions of this Study is that learners studying in different fields in Iranian High Schools have different pronunciation abilities, that necessarily needs to be taken intoaccount by teachers and English Curriculum designers of Education Ministry. This result is in line with the view of Celce-Murcia et al. (1996) about aptitude. According to Celce-Murcia et al (1996, quoted in Nikbakht, 2011), some learners are relatively weak in phonemic coding ability, so teachers as well as pronunciation curriculum should be sensitive and compatible to such aptitude differences. One of the common arguments against aptitude and the result of this study is that it is less relevantthan other factors, such as motivation, personality or cognitive styles.Another objection is related to the nature of aptitude which isconsidered to be innate, and therefore, 'undemocratic' and 'unfair', because it cannotbe altered in learners.

Two other major criticisms concerning aptitude are related to Krashen's theory and the distinctionbetween language acquisition and language learning.Carroll (1981, cited in Darabad, 2013), declares that the concept of foreign language aptitude does not mean that some people are able to learn foreign languages while the others are not. Caroll (1981) further adds thatconsidering the fact that all individuals might have the ability to achieve success with a foreign language, it is believed that those with lower aptitude might do so with a great difficulty and over a longer period of time.

Darabad (2013) believes to maximize the learning strengths and to minimize the weaknesses, there needs to be more language program to adapt to learners" cognitive abilities for L2 learning. Darabad has added that some learners show higher aptitude in one style of language program than others do. For example, some learners" aptitudes or sets of abilities may be more suited to learning from one focus on form technique than from another. According to Snow (1994, cited in Darabad, 2013), ACH claims that certain sets or combinations of cognitive abilities are involved in learning under one condition of instructional L2 exposure versus another. Not all the learners have equivalent aptitudes to get the advantage of one instructional technique in learning a foreign language. Snow (1994, quoted in Darabad, 2013) believes that practice should take place under those conditions to which individuals" aptitudes are best matched if the effects of practice are to be optimized.The study has pedagogical implications for High School teachers and textbook writers of Education Ministry.

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THE IMPACT OF FREQUENT EXPOSURE TO AUTHENTIC AUDIO VISUAL MATERIAL ON ENHANCEMENT OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
In recent years with the advent of technology in people's life, the use of audio visual material to assist learners in their language learning experience especially EFL learning contexts has been integrated into the curriculum design in many countries. The use of video as an audio-visual aid in foreign language classrooms with the emphasis on communicative language teaching has attracted the attention of language teachers, SLA researchers as well as learners and it is apparent that the use of such useful learning tool can be a great help for language learning. In this study the effect of frequent exposure to audio- visual material on Iranian EFL learner shave been investigated. In order to conduct the study 40 Iranian intermediate students have been selected out of a pool of 200 based on their result in a placement test. The selected participants were randomly assigned into two groups of experimental and control each containing 20 learners. The listening ability of the participants were tested by a pre-test before start of the treatment and no significant difference have been observed. After a period of two month in which the experimental group received treatment of exposure to authentic audio visual material a round of post-test was administrated and the scores obtained from two groups was compared using a t-test. It was observed that the experimental group who have received the treatment achieved significantly better scores. It was concluded that frequent exposure to audio visual material has a positive impact on improvement of learners' listening ability.

KEY WORDS: authentic audio visual material, listening ability, EFL learners

1. Introduction

Although the importance of listening for second or foreign language (L2) acquisition is recognized (Wolvin & Coakley, 1996), both learners and teachers lack a clear understanding of how to develop this skill (Chambers, 1996; Graham, 2006). Listening has also received less research attention than other skills (Vandergrift, 1997). Therefore, the field requires more exploratory studies which might inform principled decisions about pedagogy and research in relation to listening. The present study will be conducted in order to fill this gap and to offer a clearer perspective on listening comprehension ability which differs significantly from those adopted in most previous researches.

Listening plays an important role in communication as it is said that, from the total time spent on communicating, listening takes up 40-50%; speaking, 25-30%; reading, 11-16%; and writing, about 9% (Mendelsohn, 1994). Although the teaching of listening comprehension has long been somewhat neglected and poorly taught aspect of English in many EFL programs (Mendelsohn, 1994, p. 9), listening is now regarded as much more important in both EFL classrooms and SLA research. Listening involves an active process of comprehending and constructing meaning from both verbal and non-verbal messages (Nunan, 1998). Thus, the label of passive skill applied to listening is a misnomer. This misunderstanding may stem from the fact that superficially learners seem to only sit in a language lab quietly, listen to some pre-recorded dialogues, and write

the answers to some questions related to the oral stimulus. It is evident, then, that listening is not as passive as it has been claimed to be as it demands a number of complicated processes on the part of the learners. In normal listening laboratory classes students listen to some educational listening adopted for their level. However, the valuable these material are, there seems to be a gap between what learners listen to in the lab and what they really listen in normal everyday conversation of real life. There should be taken some actions in order to bridge this gap.

The current study has analyzed one possible, feasible way of overcoming listening problem of students. One specific research questions has been addressed in this study:

1.   Does frequent exposure to authentic audio visual material affect Iranian EFL learners listening ability?

2.   Literature Review

When it comes to authentic materials there are different definitions with a slight difference between them. However, there is one common ground in all these definitions which is 'exposure to real language and its use in its own community' (Kilickaya,2004). Goals, objectives, learner needs and interest are 'natural' and 'appropriate' 'quality' factors that are taken into consideration in Rogers (1988) definition when dealing with real life and meaningful communication (p. 467. Jordan (1997, p. 113) highlights that authentic texts are not written for the aim of language teaching. According to Peacock (1997) the definition of authentic materials is the materials which have been designed in order to fulfil social purposes in the language communities. Martinez (2002) suggests that "Authentic would be material designed for native speakers of English used in the classroom in a way similar to the one it was designed for" (p.1). Widdowson (1987) defines that "Authenticity…is a term which creates confusion because of a basic ambiguity" (p.30).

Little *et al.* (1988, as cited in Guariento & Morley, 2001) gives a definition for authentic material as "an authentic text…created to fulfill some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced" (p.347). Bacon & Finnemann (1990) put authentic materials as texts "produced by and for native speakers of the target language" (p.469). According to Schulz (1991), teachers' use of authentic materials in the FL classrooms is highly supported by Krashen's 'affective filter' hypothesis for SLA as well, he further explains that in EFL settings in which authentic material is used affective and attitudinal factors such as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety change learners' receptivity to the target language. Krashen (1987, cited by Larsen-Freeman & Long , 1991) believes that a high affective filter prevents acquisition, whereas a low affective filter promotes it. Regarding this claim, Krashen (1989) identifies materials which tend to lower the affective filter as "comprehensible input on topics of real interest" (p.29), that is, by and large, a hint if not direction, to authentic materials.

moreover, Mishan (2005) believes that the main highly important pedagogical reason for using authentic materials in FL teaching context originates from what is called 'the 3 C's', that is to say, culture, currency, and challenge. He clarifies that: "Culture, in that authentic texts incorporate and represent the culture/s of speakers of the target language; currency, in that authentic texts offer topics and language in current use, as well as those relevant to the learners; challenge, in that authentic texts are intrinsically more challenging yet can be used at all proficiency levels" (p.44).

In recent years there has been a growth in interest on conducting different researches on the role authentic materials in FL teaching context. Researchers and teachers have increasingly acknowledged the need for as well as the usefulness of authentic materials in the field of language teaching. Empirical studies have proved right the positive impact of authentic material taken by learners who have chances to interact with them. Studies, such as Miller (2005) and Thanajaro (2000), revealed that using authentic materials in classes lead to a significant aural language development. Furthermore, Otte (2006 cited in Al-Musallam, 2009) investigated the effect of aural authentic texts on listening comprehension abilities of four adult ESL students at an American university. He claimed that exposure to authentic materials would lead to improvement of students' listening comprehension abilities as well as motivation.

In addition, a research done on intermediate-level students, Herron & Seay (1991) claimed that those students who listened to authentic radio program recording as a substitute for regular classroom activities demonstrated a significantly better listening comprehension ability than those for whom this type of task was not included in the semester's curriculum. Their research also confirmed that, the more exposure to authentic recording the more improve observed in learners' listening-comprehension skill. Doing a comparative study on the impact of authentic versus textbook materials on developing learners' communicative competence, by Gilmore (2007) at a Japanese university. He observed that those learners who received the

authentic input, made statistically significant improvements over those who received textbook input on six out of eight tests designed to measure different types of competence. He further claimed that, "This result was attributed to the fact that the authentic input allowed learners to focus on a wider range of features than is normally possible … and that this noticing had beneficial effects on learners' development of communicative competence" (p.111).

In the same strand of thought, Weyers (1999) examined the impact of exposure to authentic video material on the language acquisition process of Spanish university students. The results retrieved from the study indicated that those learners who were exposed to authentic videos showed a significant improvement in their listening comprehension skills and also some component parts of the communicative competence.

Hadley (2001) concludes that the, "use of real or simulated travel documents, hotel registration forms, biographical data sheets, train and plane schedules, authentic restaurant menus, labels, signs, newspapers, and magazines will acquaint students more directly with real language than will any set of contrived classroom materials used alone" (p.97). Therefore, it seems completely wise to base students' reading practice on a variety of authentic texts as well. Moreover, Morton (1999) suggests that developing strategies in comprehending authentic texts can lead students to improve writing proficiency in the target language. He explicates, "Students … need to learn the register that is appropriate for their own essays. For this, there is no substitute for authentic academic texts …. which can develop students' ability to master basic rhetorical devices" (p. 182). In this regard, Carter and Nunan (2001) also claim that the use of authentic materials leads to learners' awareness raising of both grammatical and lexical and also stylistic features. Furthermore, professionals who favor authentic materials strongly suggest that exposure to authentic materials can be introduced to the learners in the earliest stages of language learning (Bacon, 1989; McNeil, 1994; Miller, 2005), they assert that an early exposure to such material can help learners to develop essential strategies for dealing with more complex tasks in later phases of their language development. Herron & Seay (1991) state that, using authentic materials facilitates language for learners. Authentic materials can also be beneficial from another point of view; empirical studies have shown that less proficient learners can benefit from such materials.

In a study conducted on a group of high school students studying German as a FL, Bernhardt and Berkemeyer (1988) found that all students of all levels have the capacity to use authentic texts. Maxim (2002) concluded, "The students' limited linguistic competence did not short-circuit their ability to read authentic texts in class with the support of their classmates and instructor" (p.29). The findings of the aforementioned studies have indicated that authentic materials can be useful in many different ways. Such materials shows learners how language is used in the real world and indirectly improve their general language proficiency as well as reading and listening comprehension abilities, communicative competence, and lexical and stylistic knowledge. Although, there are arguments claiming that the use of authentic materials at early stages of language learning hinders the language learning process. Nevertheless, using authentic materials in teaching a FL brings with itself more than just linguistic advantages. In this regard, scholars argue for the motivating power of authentic materials (Gilmore, 2007; Sherman, 2003), which obviously, is a crucial factor in successful language learning (Keiko Komiya, 1992; Krashen, 1981; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). As Gilmore (2007) point out, "Claims that authentic materials are a motivating force for learners are widespread through the literature" (p. 106).

McNeil (1994) & Kilickaya (2004) claim that since authentic texts creates in the learners the feeling that they are learning the real language – the language as it is used by communities that speak it their daily life is regarded as one way for enhancing students' motivation for learning. Rivers (1987) claims that learners who work with authentic materials have a practical objective in mind and dynamic interest in the language. Kim (2000) asserts that authentic materials provide a means for learners to deal with certain cultural barriers in language learning. Sherman (2003) states, "One reason why [authentic material] is so important for language learning is that it is a window into culture" (p.12)

Despite these ideas discussed there are some scholars who rarely see any worth for incorporating authentic materials. For instance, Clark (1983), argues that there is no effect learning through media under any conditions; therefore, the question of authentic versus non-authentic has no value to discuss (as cited in Miller, 2005). Kienbaum et al. (1986) also pointed out that there is no significant differences in the language performance of learners using authentic materials compared with those in a more traditional classroom context.

Authentic materials, however, according to Martinez (2002), may be too culturally biased and therefore, difficult to understand outside the language community. Nostrand (1989) argues that "Authentic texts from one culture may give a false impression to a student from another unless they are presented in an authentic con-

text which makes it clear precisely what they exemplify" (p.49). However cultural understanding is an inseparable part of communicative competence.

In conclusion, the idea of authenticity in language teaching has been debated overtly in the past three decades. However, the benefits that authentic materials bring to the FL classroom can be claimed to greatly outweigh the obstacles they may give rise to. In other words it is worth taking the risk. Moreover, a creative task design can help language teachers to overcome such challenges. In Field (1998, as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002) "instead of simplifying the language of the text, simplify the task that is demanded of the student. …With the text above the language level of the class, one demands only shallow comprehension" (p.244). Guariento and Morley (2001) believe that such problems can be solved by designing tasks in which learners are required only to have partial comprehension. In conclusion, it is evident from the abovementioned review that using authentic materials in the language classrooms is worthwhile.

3.   Methodology

3.1 Design

This study follows a quasi experimental design. There are two main variables under investigation. The independent variable of the study is exposure to authentic audio visual material whose effect is investigated on the dependant variable, Listening ability of Iranian EFL learners. In the following, the participants of the study, the materials and the data collection and analysis procedure will be explained.

3.2 Participants

The study was conducted with 40 Iranian students who have enrolled an EFL course in Kish Institute of Science and Technology in Rasht, Iran. In order to make sure of homogeneity, participants were selected out of a pool of 200, based on their result in a PET exam, which is a standard exam of Cambridge University. Having calculated the mean and the SD, participants with the score of 1 SD above and below the mean (1SD $\pm$ mean) have been selected to conduct the study. All participants have already passed 10 courses in the same institute, apart from that, none has any other experience of studying English. After selection of the participants, they were randomly divided in two classes of equal number each class 20 participants.

3.3 Instruments

3.3.1 Proficiency test: in order to make sure of the homogeneity of the participants they were selected based on their results in a PET exam. As PET is a standardized test, standardization process wasn't necessary to be done.

3.3.2 Pre-test: an intermediate level listening test arranged by the researcher and adopted from the books *Tactics for listening*, and *Tune in* by Jack C. Richards have been used. In order to make sure of the validity of the scores obtained from test three professional tests designer checked and gave marks to the test. On the other hand the reliability of the test was estimated 0.78 through Chronbach Alpha coefficient. After finalizing the test, it was used as pre test.

3.3.3 Post-test: in order to make sure of the equivalence of this test with pre test. The pre-test was re- designed so that the level of difficulty was kept equal but the vocabulary items which were used have been changed with other words. Similarly to what have been done in pre-test, for post test as well, three professional tests designers evaluated the post test.

4.   Data Collection Procedure

The participants in both groups were given a listening pre-test and their listening ability was scored in order to make sure that their listening ability at the beginning of the study was at the same level. As this course is a general English course, communicative Language Teaching has been used in both control and experimental groups and all methods were the same. In the control group the learners received a normal routine instruction as they always do, whereas in experimental group in each session for an extra one hour participants watched an American soap opera. A soap opera was selected to conduct the study for many different reasons. The first one was the popularity of this show among participants and their own interest. Another even more important reason was that in soap operas usually the same characters play in many episodes. So, learners had the chance to find connections with the characters and it makes it easier and less stressful for them to watch the material. The final reason to mention here is the researcher belief on using an up to date material so that the content of material wouldn't be old-fashioned and not usable in modern English. In order to make sure of the appropriacy of the material used, three raters rated the movie to confirm that the dia-

logues in the selected soap is of standard English and also the content of the material is culturally appropriate for Iranian adult learners.

In Kish Institute of Science and Technology, in which the study was conducted, Classes are held 3 days a week. The course consists of 20 sessions, and students receive 30 hours of general instruction. In this study, however, Students were asked to watch the already mentioned series for an hour in each session, which was an episode each session. They were told that they were watching this series for pleasure and no task was given to them regarding the material they were watching. The reason for not giving any tasks was the aim of this task which is for participants to have exposure to material not to do comprehension tasks. By the end of the term which as previously mentioned took almost 2 months participants have received 20 hours of treatment, the students' listening comprehension ability were tested again and the results were analyzed for further discussion.

5. Data Analysis

The data gathered from the current study was analyzed via an independent T-test between the scores of Control and experimental Group. As we had two independent groups and the elicited data from them is interval data, and also normally distributed, it seems that all pre-requisites of using a T-test are met. The results are discussed as follow:

6. Results

The summary of descriptive analysis for the data related to the posttest of the experimental and the control group of the study is presented as follow in table 1.

Table. 1 comparison of mean scores of experimental and control groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
score	Control	20	12.6500	1.72520
	Experimental	20	14.8500	1.81442

As table 1 indicates the mean score of experimental group is significantly higher than the mean of control. However, as stated earlier at the beginning of the study the score of listening pre-test of the groups hadn't shown a significant difference. It means both groups had had similar listening comprehension ability at the beginning of the study. So, one can assume that the treatment has been effective. In order to have a better insight and a better understanding of the results of the study the table below is presented in which the t-score is discussed with much more details.

Table 2. The summary of t-test between the posttest scores of experimental and the control group of the study

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
Score — Equal variances assumed	.048	.828	-3.930	38	.000	-2.20000	.55984		-3.33334	-1.06666
Equal variances not assumed			-3.930	37.904	.000	-2.20000	.55984		-3.33343	-1.06657

According to table (2), the result of t-test (t_{obs}= 3.93, p<.05) yielded significant difference between the control and experimental groups. the retrieved sig from the study (0.000) is smaller than the pre-determined value (0.05) so we can infer that the difference between the groups is significant.

7.   Conclusion and pedagogical implication

There are many reasons why teaching of ESL/EFL listening is currently less than optimally effective, and certainly it is wrong to pin the blame on anyone group, whether teachers, listening specialists, or academics. Language Listening is a topic of great theoretical interest and practical relevance which unfortunately hasn't been researched on effectively.

ESL/EFL teachers should focus on the students' needs along with their level of proficiency and also their ability, and then incorporate listening activities into their aural skills. In the current study the results of the independent samples t-test analysis from the posttest administration indicated that the experimental group who received enough amount of exposure to authentic material had a better performance in their listening test than the control group who did not. Thus, the findings suggest that frequent exposure to authentic audio visual material will benefit learners in learning to comprehend English language aural texts more accurately. It can be argued that having English learners exposed to authentic material can significantly affect their listening ability. The result of this study can be implicated in language classes and EFL settings. Teachers can motivate and encourage their learners to watch English programs frequently. English institutes can prepare opportunities for their learners to watch things together in the institute and enjoy the benefits of it as well.

This study shows how exposure to authentic material can improve learners' listening comprehension ability. This study is tended for classroom teachers who are willing to make a change in their classes and help their students improve by use of innovative way, teachers who are not sticking to old methodologies and procedures and are open-minded enough to accept and face changes and those who can bring new version of teaching listening comprehension ability to their classes. They can help their learners to be better listener as well as better speakers. In fact exposure to sufficient amount of authentic material can help learners improve their listening skill.

This study is significant for English learners in language schools, as it can teach them how to be more competent listeners. Learners by watching some movies in their free time even out of the class environment can improve their English without even trying to do so as formal studying. In fact, they just enjoy their free time activity and at the same time learn subconsciously. Clearly one of the most important reasons that learners cannot comprehend listening material is not their lack of knowledge on the content of material but is their weakness in recognizing what they listen to. So, ear training is an important aspect of being a good listener.

There exist a chance for learners to pick up some new vocabulary and expression. In this case they may learn some new items of vocabulary without formal training and apparently their speaking ability and knowledge of vocabulary will improve as well. This could be another good area of research. There is still a great room for further research on this area. Research can be done on other effects frequent exposure to authentic audio visual material has on other aspects of English language such as vocabulary acquisition, pronunciation, speaking ability, etc.

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THE PERCEPTION OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE POLICY IMPLEMENYTATION

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ABSTRACT
Foreign Language Education Policy (FLEP) needs to be appreciated as an element of more extensive educational policies and as found within predominant social macro plans. A conception of policy, with a view of the relevant literature, as well as some theoretical guidelines of appointing and/or evaluating foreign language education policies in the context of social and educational policies were necessary to conduct such a study . Respecting these principal guidelines several national plan-based documents and in some cases non-finalized documents which indicate some characteristics of language education policies of Iran were taken into account to find the guidelines and directions of these plans.
This study sought to investigate Iranian high school teachers in the classroom context and their perceptions of these policies and their effects on students' improvement. One objectives was precisely followed: the main objective of the present study is to evaluate teachers' opinions and point of views towards these principles in the classroom context. To accomplish this goal and in order to find a way to answer the research which aimed to investigate teachers' attitude towards English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization. The data gathered through an attitude questionnaire that consisted of 46 items in thirteen subcategories was applied. Based on Friedman test, the difference between different sub categories of the questionnaire was significant. The results of this test suggested that there were significant differences in the mean ranks of the teachers' attitudes across the categories of the questionnaire.

KEY WORDS: Foreign language policies, teachers' perceptions, educational policies' effect

Introduction
Due in large part to the trends towards economic globalization, English has become the most widely disseminated and ubiquitous international language. As Crystal (2000) states, English has increasingly become the international language for business and commerce, science and technology, the Internet, entertainment and even sports. She estimates that one-quarter of the world's population uses English as a first, second or foreign language. Wang and Cheng (2005) concurred, saying that teachers' failure to implement policy as policymakers hoped may signal their uncertainty about outcomes and their assessment that new practices are not as good as the previous ones. Gross et al. (1971) found that teachers' will to implement the imposed change declined over time because the change was not supported by their education director in ways that impacted them. Through their empirical study on English language instruction in classrooms in China, Japan, Singapore, Switzerland, and USA, Silver and Skuja-Steele (2005) examined how policy and classroom practice interact by comparing classroom practices and teachers' statements of pedagogical rationales with governmental policies. They found that teachers were aware of policy initiatives related to language education. Curriculum policy implementation in any educational jurisdiction involves a variety of stakeholders. Their roles in executing the curriculum policies contribute to the degree which new or revised curricula will be implemented in the local institutions. Researchers have been cognizant that teachers as implementers are

the most important players. Studies have also demonstrated that implementers did not always do as told nor did they always act to maximize policy objectives (Cohen & Ball, 1990; McLaughlin, 1987). Moreover, teachers have often been diagnosed as "resistant to change," or just simply lazy when they ignored or subverted curricular innovations (McLaughlin, 1987; Smit, 2005). Spillane, Reiser, and Reimer (2002) looked at their situation in a different light, explaining that this is because implementers often lack the capacity - the knowledge, skills, personnel, and other resources - necessary to work in ways that are consistent with policy. Spillane et al. warned that even if implementers construct understandings that reflect policymakers' intent, they may not have the necessary skills and resources to do what they understand the policy to be asking of them.

It has been found that teachers were focusing on immediate classroom priorities that influenced daily lessons and put their emphasis on student learning. Furthermore, teachers' willingness to implement language policies was influenced by the social and personal dimensions of classroom teaching and by teachers' goals and beliefs. In the other words, changes were mitigated by the local (contextual) factors. Based on the researches done through classroom observations and follow-up interviews, it has been found that there is a discrepancy between policymakers' intentions and teachers' executions. Teachers failed to implement faithfully what was required from policymakers in the classroom. The implications of the policy implementation point to the importance of understanding why there exists such a discrepancy. The implementation of curriculum policy in any educational system needs the participation of a variety of stakeholders. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) asserted that, the development of the curriculum is ultimately about teacher development, and it is teachers who decide if implementation can be carried out as well as what the policymakers intend. Therefore, Iranian EFL teachers need to take initiative to make their role in issues of language teaching and learning be recognized through various ways for example workshops, conferences, staff meetings, etc. Since most of the Iranian foreign language policies are based on Islamic and Iranian culture and the ministry of education aims to lead students in such a way to learn second language in the first language context, the main objective of the present study is to evaluate teachers' opinions and point of views towards these principles in the classroom context.

I.   Review of related literature

It can't be claimed that there is one single large-scale and full-scale theory for language policy (Cooper, 1989; Kaplan &Baldauf, 1997; Kaplan &Baldauf, 2003; Baldauf, 2005; Ricento, 2006a) and this is supposed as one of the major criticisms of the language policy field. Tollefson discusses that Language policy is a 'complex array of social forces' which creates a major challenge for language policy theory (2002, p. 423) he also continues and criticizes the failure of language policy and to diagnose the complexity of policy and the following failure of language policy dominance to meet its noble objectives. Although an intensive effort has being made lately to accumulate a bulk of corresponding studies in order to pave the way for representing sort of general language policies through the world it seems that we are just at the beginning.(Kaplan et al., 2000) Language policy and planning arose as an extent of educational research during the early 1960s (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1998), the initial focus considered those linguistic disputes which exist in post-colonial, developing countries such as those in sub-Saharan Africa. Some researchers such as Tollefson (1991-1995) and Pennycook (1989) remarked the issue of language discriminations that were apparent in both developed and developing countries, it must be taken into account that language policy asserts the standards of the ruling classes and this issue is in parallel with the "historical-structural approach which has stayed on as a standard method of clarifying the ways through them language policy is developed and how it operates within a society"(Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). Language policies are remarked as manifestations of authoritative cream of the crops who are inspired by the persuasive will powers to proclaim and support their own socio-political and economic advantages. The members of the society who are at the bottom of the power pyramid have to adopt such ideologies, which are supposed to function within all stages of educational centers. Theory has always played an important role in those research of language policy. the most critical theories in this field and also the ways in them they have been leading in different models have been discussed by linguists, they follow the same goal, to clarify the indispensable role of languages as well as language policies in forming various nations and societies as well as cultures around the world. "Linguistic imperialism can be considered as a suitable example of such a model, which makes an effort to justify how the languages of present and past empires, mainly those of the US, England, and France, have been endorsed in former dependencies through a process of economic, political, social, cultural, and educational domination and exploitation, with distressing impressions on indigenous languages." (Phillipson, 1992)

There are some general contexts of social concerns which are needed for foreign language policies to be situated within. These policies also have to be justified with general educational policies. There are several features considered as underlying characteristics which ideally must be taken into account in a national foreign language educational policies. (Kiany, 2011)

2.3.1. FLEP is required to connect the theoretical substances of foreign language education to the requisites of national macro-plans in terms of the general political and social alignments. (Hato, 2005)

2.3.2. FLEP should take into account those cultural values which are vividly reflected in the national macro-level roadmaps. These values are included in the overall educational policies of the country. (Seargeant, 2008)

2.3.3. FLEP is required to comprise all of the national identity principles which are taken into account in national macro-plans as well as in educational policies of each country. The principal concern in this issue is how the FLEP is able to make a balance between these standards and the needs of the so called globalization. (Kirgoz, 2008)

2.3.4. FLEP is required to unambiguously implement and generate decisively outlined status considering language as the main concern the practices of language teaching. These practices need to be based on the vivid and explicit language policy directions that posit foreign language education in a much wider context of first language teaching. (Dixon, 2009; Ricneto, 2006)

2.3.5. Considering the present distinctions between goals and policies FLEP must regard a stable combination of procedures which arrange goals for foreign language teaching programs as well as national curricula. (Butler & Iino, 2005)

2.3.6. FLEP is required to reasonably pave the way for more practical dimensions of national foreign language teaching attempts which mainly include two main types of mechanisms: financial mechanisms needed for the effective design of foreign language educational goals and implementing them as well, and reconsideration of the policies and goals of foreign language education.((Kirkgoz, 2008a; Silver & Skuja-steele, 2005)

These six wide matters of facts demonstrate a theoretically based ultimate consideration of what a set foreign language educational policy is expected to be like. They can be used as the basic fundamentals of arranging FLEP. As Kiani investigated in his study, at junior high schools in Iran, students spend four hours a week studying English and during the three years at high school they have a six unit credit English course. Furthermore, in the fourth year of high school, students are needed to pass a four unit credit English course. As it was suggested by Farhady, Hezaveh and Hedayati (2010) selection of a language to be taught as a foreign language in a country is not made on the basis of pure academic criteria but it essentially depends on the country's national policies which include social, economic, educational and political regards.

In Iran languages such as French, Germany, Italian, Spanish and Russian have been intended to be taught in schools in addition to English. Nevertheless, because of lack of resources, in the most of schools it is English which is being taught as the only foreign language. High school textbooks focus on grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension and the methodology for teaching them is mostly grammar-translation and audio-lingualism. In the fourth-grade English books there seems to be more topics and contents related to science and technology and the teaching of reading skills with a deeper comprehension of passages is intended. Riazi and Mosalanejad(2011) investigated the types of learning objectives in the high school and fourth grade English textbooks using Bloom's taxonomy and found lower-order cognitive skills in all the levels of high school textbooks. They indicated that only in the fourth-grade textbook there are some degrees of higher-order learning goals. According to Jahangard (2007) most of the class time is spent teaching in order to prepare students to pass the tests. Multiple-choice tests, matching or fill-in-the-blank items evaluate students' knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical skills in the textbooks. Except for the fourth-grade tests in which the assessment of the reading skills is taken into account and profounder understanding of texts is encouraged, in the three years of high school reading skills are not properly taught and evaluated and most of the reading comprehension drills and exam items need shallow comprehension of the texts.As a result, as it was argued by Farhady (2010) currently unlike many countries such as Hong Kong, India, Japan and China, Iran has not decided to consider English as a gate opening towards the international world of trade and still continues to maintain conservative outlooks towards it. By now, nearly all the transformations established in FLE indicate the fact that there is an appeal for including English in the educational curriculum; nevertheless, there is also a provocation to neglect the foreign language. Many of the reports in the Iranian policy documents vividly implies that English language education is an essential for the achievement of policies. (Dahmardeh, 1990).

In the 20-year national vision which indicates the overall guidelines for most of the other documents, it is indicated that Iran should enlarge the portion of the country in international knowledge assembly. (2005)

According to the 5th 5-year Development Plan (2010-2015), one of the main concerns in developing the country is attaining the second regional scientific and technological status in the area. In the inclusive science roadmap which was arranged to set national policies for the educational system, the roadmap for the scientific, research and technological achievements of the country has also been defined. Unquestionably, accomplishments of such objectives cannot be made imagined without English as a lingua franca. A subdivision of the national document of education is involved with FLE specifying that foreign languages are influential in interactive and intercultural consultations along with economic achievements which include improvements in tourism, business, technology and political perception.

Consequently , it can be concluded that based on the contents of almost all the national policy authenticates , teaching a foreign language which is mostly English in the educational system of the country seems like to be essential. However, the policies and objectives have not been made precise and detailed in terms of the circumstances in which English is used for applying them. (Kiany, et .all, 2011)

The 20-year National Vision is detailed document including macro strategies which are believed to lead the country through the twenty years of widespread progress towards national goals. Originated by the supreme leader and the expediency council of the Islamic republic of Iran, the document acts as a point of reference for all kinds of official involvements all over the country in all of the issues including education. So regarding the principle parameters relating to education, language education and especially foreign language education is considered to be a sensible initial step before surveying lower ranked policy documents.

Studying the extracts of the 20-year National Vision closely you can catch that there is no document at the macro level which consists of exclusive and specific orientation towards foreign language education neither education generally speaking. Nevertheless, these macro directions demonstrate roadmaps which can be helpful in recognizing the educational contexts and this will definitely have association with foreign language education. (Mirhosseini, 2011)

Research questions

What are the attitudes of teachers toward English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization?

II.   Methodology

A.   Participants:

57 filled questionnaire were received from about 60 distributed questionnaires (both paper and electronic versions). To guarantee the generalizability of the results, the participants were chosen from 2 different regions of Iran: Guilan and Quazvin through purposive sampling.

B.   Instruments:

In order to check the reliability and validity features, the designed questionnaire followed three phases suggested by Devellis (1991):

1.   Generating an item pool
2.   Reviewing the items by experts
3.   Selecting the final items

   Based on the found information in the interviews through content analysis a list of effective items was needed. These items were organized into 13 categories and they were organized in the form of a closed 5-point Likert questionnaire: Strongly agree(5), agree(4), somewhat agree/disagree(3), strongly disagree(1). After going through several modifications, the final version of questionnaire consisted of 46 items with the total reliability of **.735** that is acceptable and higher than the minimum required.

C.   Process

The present study was conducted in several stages. An instrument was needed by the researcher to measure the attitudes of teachers' and their enactment of foreign language policies in their classrooms. The following stages were followed to present a valid and reliable questionnaire:

Stage one: Interviewing teachers in a semi-structured interview protocol
Stage two: Analyzing the acquired data
Stage three: Designing a questionnaire

Stage four: Conducting a pilot testing
Stage five: Formulating and distribution of the final edition of the questionnaire

III.   Results and discussion
The major aim of the study was to explore the best answers to the following research question:
What are the attitudes of teachers toward English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization?
A number of codes were obtained from the transcription of all the 30 interviews. Among them those irrelevant codes to the research purpose were eliminated and the identical or nearly identical ones were grouped under one code. These codes were used to make categories and design the final version of the questionnaire. The questionnaire acted as an instrument to answer the second research question (*What are the attitudes of teachers toward English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization?)*
The results of the distributed questionnaires among 60 teachers revealed the information as they are presented below:

What are the attitudes of teachers toward English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization?
The second research question aimed to investigate teachers' attitude towards English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization. The data gathered through an attitude questionnaire that consisted of 47 items in thirteen subcategories. The data were analyzed in terms of measures of central tendency including mean and standard deviations. The main findings and related interpretations of the results are presented in the following sections.

4.4.1. Descriptive statistics of the questionnaire
The first section of the attitude questionnaire examined the teachers' viewpoint towards Islamic values. Teachers reflected their highest attitude towards item (1) that examined their viewpoints in terms of transferring Islamic values in their classes ($\bar{x}$=3.26). Despite that, the lowest attitude was reported for preferring Islamic sources rather than the authentic ones to teach English in their classes ($\bar{x}$=1.87).
Considering the homogeneity of the responses provided by the teachers, their responses were more homogenous to item (3) that reflected their unified perceptions of using Islamic sources rather than the authentic ones to teach English in their classes (SD=.86). On the other hand, the responses were rather heterogeneous for the second item that examined their perceptions towards finding a link between Islamic values and what they were teaching (SD=1.23)

Islamic Values

Table 1:Teachers' attitude towards Islamic Values

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1. I believe in transferring Islamic values in my classes	**3.2632**	1.14215	57
2. I am all the time trying to find a link between Islamic values and what I am teaching.	2.5965	**1.23722**	57
3. I prefer Islamic sources rather than the authentic ones to teach English in my classes	**1.8772**	.86747	57
4. I let my students participate in enacting Islamic thought in English class	3.1754	.88888	57
Total =	2.7281	.78672	57

Focusing on Particular Skills and Sub Skills
The second section of the attitude questionnaire examined the teachers' viewpoints towards focusing on Particular Skills and Sub Skills. Teachers reflected their highest attitude with respect to item seven suggesting that they sometimes asked their students to speak English in the class ($\bar{x}$=4.10). Even

so, the low mean rank for item five implied that they did not much appreciate just focusing on reading and grammar as they were presented in the textbooks(x̄=3.00).

Concerning the scatterdness of the responses for this section, teachers reported highest variation in their responses to item five (SD=1.37) that also had the lowest mean rank in this category. Still, it was shown that teachers had unified answers towards item eight that had the highest mean rank (SD=.71).

Table 2. Teachers' attitude towards Focusing on Particular Skills and Sub Skills

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
5. I just focus on reading and grammar as they are presented in the text-books	**3.0000**	**1.37581**	57
6. I sometimes play CD in my classes in order to improve my students' listening abilities.	3.7895	1.11382	57
7. I sometimes ask my students to speak English in the class.	**4.2456**	**.71416**	57
8. I sometimes give students writing tasks in order to improve their writing skill.	4.1053	.77192	57
Total =	3.7851	.42897	57

Iranian Culture

The third section of the attitude questionnaire examined the teachers' perspectives towards Iranian Culture. This category had two items that seemed to be relatively of the same significance for the respondents. However, the highest mean rank was revealed for item ten that inspected their reaction with regard to asking their students to stimulate Iranian figures and stereotypes in English learning progress in the class (x̄= 3.29). For all that, the lowest mean rank was displayed for item nine that scrutinized their perspectives towards teaching based on Iranian culture in an Iranian context(x̄= 3.19).

When it comes to the degree of variation among the responses, teachers' responses to item ten (SD=.83) varied more than their responses to item nine (SD=.83).

Table 3. Teachers' attitude towards Iranian Culture

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
9. I teach based on Iranian culture in an Iranian context.	**3.1930**	.83321	57
10. I ask my students to stimulate Iranian figures and stereotypes in English learning progress in the class.	**3.2982**	.92514	57
Total =	3.2456	.73267	57

Using Mother Tongue

The fourth section of the attitude questionnaire dealt with the teachers' viewpoint towards using mother tongue. While just teaching grammar in Persian had the highest mean rank among the items of this category (x̄= 3.12), using mother tongue and encouraging the students to speak in Persian in English class had the lowest mean rank (x̄= 2.17).

Respecting the dissimilarities among the responses, it was noticed that the respondents' answers to item 13 was somehow unified (SD= 1.05) in comparison to other items. Despite that, they reflected different attitudes with respect to item 11 that evaluated their reaction towards just speak Persian in the classroom(SD=1.31).

Table 4.Teachers' attitude towards Using Mother Tongue

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
11. I just speak Persian in the classroom.	2.5439	**1.31026**	57
12. I just teach grammar in Persian.	**3.1228**	1.18126	57

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
13.	I use mother tongue and encourage the students to speak in Persian in English class.	**2.1754**	**1.05429**	57
14.	I just use English for reproducing short conversations in the textbook.	2.5088	1.11999	57
Total =		2.5877	.72962	57

Teacher Guidebooks and Foreign language Policies Circulars

   The fifth segment of the attitude questionnaire inspected the teachers' outlook towards teacher guidebooks and foreign language policies circulars. The responses depicted that taking part in teacher training workshops held by the Educational Organization was of great importance for the respondents (x= 3.75). Nevertheless, they revealed lower appreciation with regard to item 17 that looked at their viewpoint in relation to textbook's guidebooks(x= 2.85).

   The highest degree of disparity (SD=1.28) was observed among the replies provided for item (17). Just the same, there was a consistency among their reaction towards published circulars (SD= 1.05).

Table 5. Teachers' attitude towards Teacher Guidebooks and Foreign language Policies Circulars

Item Statistics

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
15.	We are rarely informed of any guidelines of foreign language teaching.	2.9825	1.15714	57
16.	There are published circulars in order to inform us how to teach and what to teach as well as solve the problems that we sometimes encounter with.	3.1404	**1.05963**	57
17.	There are teacher' guidebooks for each textbook which I find really useful	**2.8596**	**1.28784**	57
18.	I take part in teacher training workshops held by the Educational Organization if there is any.	**3.7544**	1.12251	57
Total =		3.1842	.70636	57

Textbooks

   The sixth component of the attitude questionnaire assessed the teachers' viewpoint towards textbooks. Teachers appreciated textbooks in that they are designed with an appropriate portion of all skills and sub skills. Likewise, they expressed that they had enough time for teaching what they were required to base on textbook curriculum during an academic year. These two items received the same amount of significance from the side of respondents (x= 2.75). Yet, they demonstrated their dissatisfaction of the extent of attention that is paid to the four main skills in high school textbooks.

   On the subject of the uniformity among the responses to the items of this category, the teachers seemed to be more homogenous with respect to item (21)that had also the lowest mean rank (SD= 1.01). Nevertheless, they reflected rather dissimilar perceptions of item (20) that had also the highest mean rank (SD=1.45).

Table 6. Teachers' attitude towards Textbooks

Item Statistics

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
19.	Textbooks are designed with an appropriate portion of all skills and sub skills.	**2.7544**	1.12251	57
20.	I have enough time for teaching what I am required to base on textbook curriculum during an academic year.	**2.7544**	**1.45505**	57
21.	All four main skills have been taken into account with the same value of importance in high school textbooks.	**2.1579**	**1.01400**	57
22.	High school textbooks have been designed in such a way to inspire and motivate students to learn English.	2.3860	1.09796	57
23.	High school textbooks have considered English culture as a main part in the process of teaching English.	2.2105	1.09767	57
Total =		2.4526	.67351	57

Focusing on Particular Skills

The seventh constituent of the attitude questionnaire judged the teachers' positions towards focusing on Particular Skills. This time, the total mean rank for items (24) and (26) were the same ($\bar{x}$= 3.26). These items received the highest value in contrast to other items of this class. Item (24) was related to the fact that teachers had been asked to concentrate on some particular skills teaching English. On the other hand, item (26) was pertained to teachers' realization of the skills of reading and some sub skills like grammar and vocabulary to be among the most important structures of each language. Despite that, the respondents disclosed their disagreement with this issue that their students would not need skills like listening, speaking and writing in the future ($\bar{x}$= 1.77).

As regards the variation among the responses, the increased degree of uniformity was found for item (26). This item examined the teachers' reactions towards the significance of the skills of reading and some sub skills like grammar and vocabulary (SD= .93). In spite of that, they expressed relatively dissimilar viewpoints with respect to item (25) that examined their attitude in relation to the ignorance of some skills in academic curriculum and their necessity (SD=1.20).

Table 7. Teachers' attitude towards focusing on Particular Skills

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
24. We have been asked to concentrate on some particular skills teaching English.	**3.2632**	1.04414	57
25. Some skills are ignored in academic curriculum and personally I think they aren't as necessary as others	2.7018	**1.20956**	57
26. I think that the skills of reading and some sub skills like grammar and vocabulary are the most important structures of each language.	**3.2632**	**.93592**	57
27. Student will not need skills like listening, speaking and writing in the future.	**1.7719**	1.18046	57
Total =	2.7500	.71807	57

Ignoring second language culture

The eighth subcategory of the attitude questionnaire rated the teachers' viewpoint towards ignoring second language culture. The respondents appreciated teaching second language in Persian context via Persian culture and regarded it to be more feasible and convenient ($\bar{x}$= 2.64). In contrast, they disagreed with the notion that teaching second language with authentic materials that convey second language culture makes students forget their original culture and values ($\bar{x}$= 2.00).

With regard to invariability among the responses, the reported responses were more consistent for item(28) that evaluated teachers' perceptions of the role of first language culture in the process of second language teaching (SD=.94). However, they reported dissimilar views towards the feasibility of Teaching second language in Persian context via Persian culture (SD=1.20).

Table 8. Teachers' Attitude towards Ignoring Second Language Culture

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
28. First language culture is capable of transferring what is needed in the process of second language teaching	2.2807	**.94026**	57
29. Teaching second language with authentic materials which convey second language culture makes students forget their original culture and values	**2.0000**	.94491	57
30. Teaching second language in Persian context via Persian culture is more feasible and more convenient	**2.6491**	**1.20255**	57
31. Islamic-Iranian culture and context is already familiar for students and as a result, they will acquire second language more feasibly.	2.5965	1.03267	57
Total =	2.3816	.68645	57

Time, Facilities and Equipment

The ninth constituent of the attitude questionnaire weighed up the teachers' viewpoints towards time facilities and equipment. Teachers appeared to be satisfied with respect to the determined time to teach required lessons in high school curriculum (x= 2.10). Yet, it seemed that they were less satisfied with regard to the provided facilities and materials needed in an English classroom (x= 1.87).

The respondents differed greatly in terms of their responses to item (32) that had the highest mean rank among the items (SD= 1.24). Nevertheless, they have somehow identical perception of provided facilities and materials needed in an English classroom (SD= .84).

Table 9. Teachers' attitude towards Time facilities and equipment

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
32. The considered time to teach required lessons is enough in high school curriculum.	**2.1053**	**1.24906**	57
33. I am provided with the facilities and materials needed in an English classroom.	**1.8772**	**.84664**	57
34. There is a section in our high school that provides students with audio equipment in order to focus on listening skill.	2.0000	1.18019	57
Total =	1.9942	.77278	57

English knowledge background of students

The tenth component of the attitude questionnaire measured the teachers' standpoint towards English knowledge background of students. It was emerged that most of the respondents accepted that students in high schools had a poor Basic English knowledge (x= 3.91). On the contrary, they contradicted with this issue that teaching English in Iranian schools should be started in elementary schools (x= 2.75).

When it comes to the dispersion of the responses, it was found that teachers varied in their reaction towards starting teaching English in Iranian schools in elementary schools (SD= 1.58). However, they revealed more homogenous responses for item (36) confirming the fact that most of them agreed that students in high schools have a poor Basic English knowledge (SD=1.03).

Table 10. Teachers' attitude towards English knowledge background of students

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
35. I think that teaching English in Iranian schools should have started in elementary schools.	**2.7544**	**1.58431**	57
36. Students in high schools have a poor basic English knowledge.	**3.9123**	**1.03993**	57
37. Cognitive issues in teaching English have not been taken into account Foreign Language Educational Policies.	3.3509	1.06051	57
Total =	3.3392	.88077	57

Teachers roles in student's improvement

The eleventh section of the attitude questionnaire rated the teachers' reactions towards their roles in student's improvement. This category had just two items and it was noticed that teachers had higher positive attitude towards item (38) in comparison to item (39). Most of the respondents agreed that teachers have active and essential role regarding students' improvements (x= 3.91). On the contrary, they were less satisfied with foreign language policies in emphasizing teachers' roles in the process of teaching English (x= 3.17).

The respondents less varied in their responses to item (38) in comparison to their responses provided for item (39). The degree of standard deviation for items 38 and 39 were (SD $_{item\ 38}$=.81; SD $_{item39}$=1.11), respectively.

Table 11. Teachers' attitude towards Teachers roles in student's improvement

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
38. Teachers have active and essential role regarding students' improvements	**4.1404**	.81149	57
39. Foreign language policies are designed in such a way to emphasize teachers' roles as the most dominant and significant ones in the process of teaching English.	3.1754	1.11999	57
Total =	3.6579	.66921	57

The role of textbooks in students improvement

The twelfth section of the attitude questionnaire ranked the teachers' viewpoint towards the role of textbooks in students' improvement. It was found that most of the teachers believed that Few students were able to read a simple English text or speak the most basic conversations regarding the current textbooks at the end of the academic year in the second grade of high school (x= 3.92). On the other hand, not many of them agreed that the method, which they used considering the current textbooks in high schools, was a GTM one (x= 3.14).

Concerning the discrepancies among the responses, the responses were more variant for item (42) that showed their different use of methods in high schools (SD= 1.39). Nonetheless, they revealed relatively unified attitude in relation to the students' capability for reading a simple English text or speaking the most basic conversations regarding the current textbooks at the end of the academic year in the second grade of high school (SD= 1.06).

Table12. Teachers' attitude towards the role of textbooks in students' improvement

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
40. The current approach in designing textbooks is a theoretical one, which hardly leads to students' improvement.	3.6316	1.12808	57
41. Text books just cover some particular skills needed by a language learner.	3.7544	1.07372	57
42. The method, which I use considering the current textbooks in high schools, is a GTM one.	**3.1404**	**1.39436**	57
43. Few number of students are able to read a simple English text or speak the most basic conversations regarding the current textbooks at the end of the academic year in the second grade of high school.	**3.9298**	**1.06670**	57
Total =	3.6140	.63399	57

Test centric approach as the most dominant motivation aspect in learning English

The last section of the attitude questionnaire dealt with the teachers' positions towards Test centric approach as most dominant motivation aspect in learning English. Teachers disclosed their highest attitude with respect to item (44) that inspected their perceptions of the students' inclination for learning English as a means of communication (x= 3.50). Despite that, they showed their discontent of Learning English in a parrot fashion in order to pass the tests in comparison to other methods (x= 2.31).

And finally, in terms of the discrepancy among the responses, the highest degree of heterogeneity was reported for item 46 with standard deviation of (SD=1.51) and the lowest dissimilarity was reported for item (44) that rated teachers' evaluation and ranking of the students' tendency to learn English as means of communication(SD=1.08).

Table13. Teachers' attitude towards Test centric approach as the most dominant motivation aspect in learning English

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N

44.	Students are reluctant to learn English as means of communication.	**3.5088**	**1.08764**	57
45.	I use tests as tools to inspire my students to learn English rather than encourage them to learn it as a medium of communication.	3.2982	1.19470	57
46.	Learning English in a parrot fashion in order to pass the tests have better consequences than other methods.	**2.3158**	**1.51372**	57
	Total =	3.0409	.84766	57

The following figure illustrates the comparison among different categories of the questionnaire:
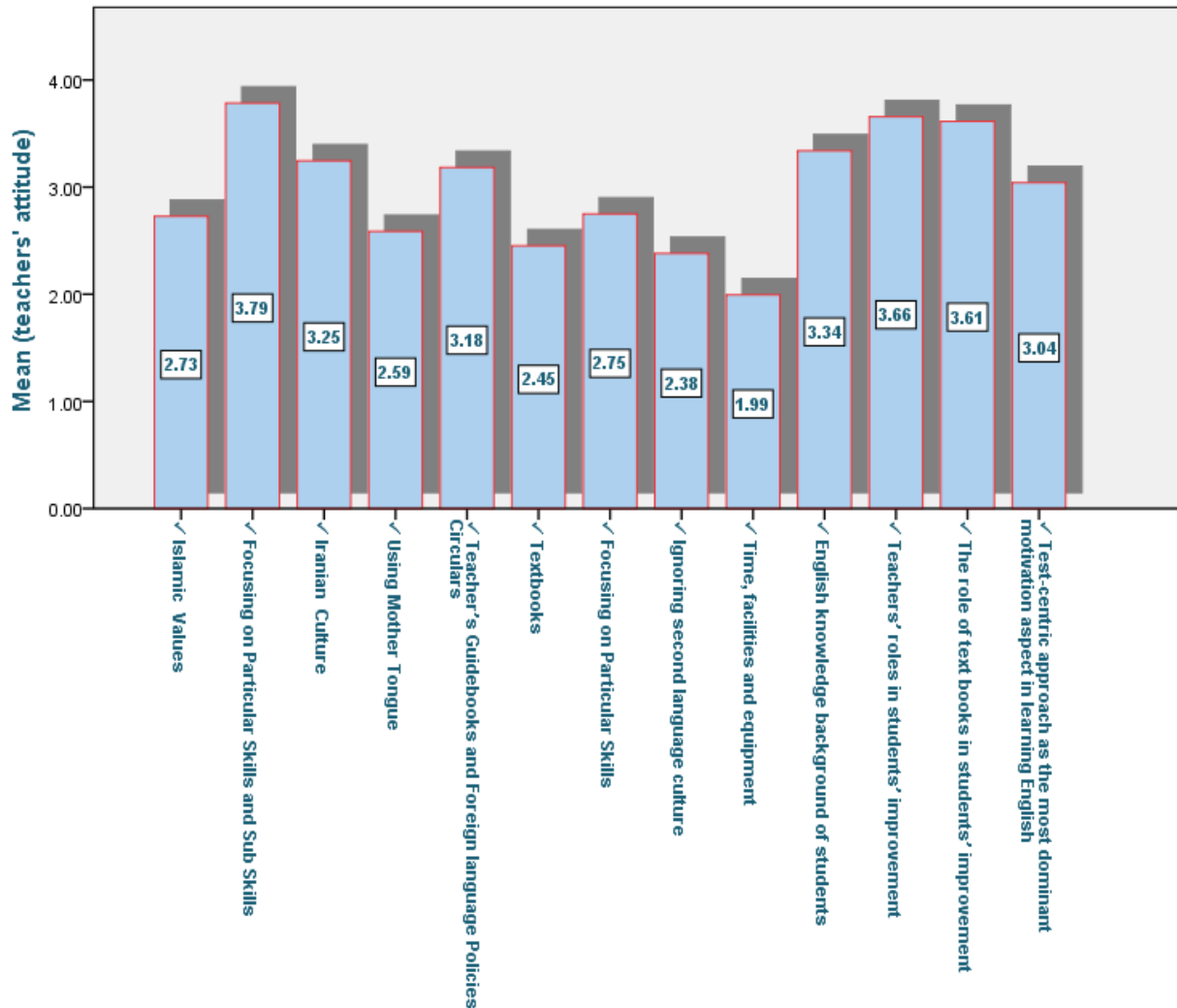

Figure 1 **the comparison among different categories of the questionnaire**

In order to examine if the responses provided for different subcategories of the questionnaire differed significantly or not ,the Friedman Test that is a non-parametric test was run to the data gathered through the questionnaire. The same sample of participants were taken to rate their attitude towards different aspects of foreign language teaching. In fact, it was run to see if the teachers' attitudes significantly differed across the thirteen subcategories of the questionnaire.

Based on Friedman test, the difference between different sub categories of the questionnaire was significant. The results of this test suggested that there were significant differences in the mean ranks of the teachers' attitudes across the categories of the questionnaire. This is indicated by a Sig. level of .000. ($\chi2$ (12, $n = 57$) = 273.137, $p < .005$).

Test Statistics[a]	
N	57
Chi-Square	273.137
df	12
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a. Friedman Test	

The following table presented descriptive statistics for the sample. In general, "*Focusing on Particular Skills and sub Skills*" had the highest mean rank among the categories of the attitude questionnaire ($\bar{x}$= 3.78). Furthermore, the lowest degree of dissimilarity among the responses was found for this item (SD=.42). On the other hand, teachers disclosed their lowest perspectives in relation to "*Time facilities and equipment*" ($\bar{x}$= 1.99). Additionally, the highest degree of variation was observed among the answers for category titled "*English knowledge background of students*" (SD= .88).

Table14. Descriptive Statistics of the Sub Categories of the Questionnaire

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Islamic Values	57	2.7281	.78672	1.00	4.75
Focusing on Particular Skills and sub Skills	57	**3.7851**	**.42897**	3.00	5.00
Iranian Culture	57	3.2456	.73267	1.50	4.50
Using Mother Tongue	57	2.5877	.72962	1.00	3.75
Teacher Guidebooks and Foreign language Policies Circulars	57	3.1842	.70636	1.25	4.25
Textbooks	57	2.4526	.67351	1.00	4.20
Focusing on Particular Skills	57	2.7500	.71807	1.50	4.50
Ignoring second language culture	57	2.3816	.68645	1.25	4.00
Time facilities and equipment	57	**1.9942**	.77278	1.00	3.33
English knowledge background of students	57	3.3392	**.88077**	2.00	5.00
Teachers roles in students' improvement	57	3.6579	.66921	2.00	5.00
The role of textbooks in students improvement	57	3.6140	.63399	2.25	4.75
Test centric approach as the most dominant motivation	57	3.0409	.84766	1.67	5.00

In order to find out teachers' attitudes towards English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization , after the transcription of interviews some codes were obtained. Among them the irrelevant codes were eliminated and the codes which were identical in meaning were combined under one code. As a result, 46 items under 13 categories made the final version of the questionnaire. Through a pilot test the validity of the test was confirmed ,during the process of modification and revision, the researcher's point of views were considered as convening factors as well. As mentioned before the reliability of the final version of the questionnaire was ∝=.**735** .

The second research question aimed to investigate teachers' attitude towards English teaching curriculum offered by educational organization. The data gathered through an attitude questionnaire that consisted of 46 items in thirteen subcategories. The data were analyzed in terms of measures of central tendency including mean and standard deviations.

In order to examine if the responses provided for different subcategories of the questionnaire differed significantly or not ,the Friedman Test that is a non-parametric test was run to the data gathered through the questionnaire. The same sample of participants were taken to rate their attitude towards different aspects of foreign language teaching. In fact, it was run to see if the teachers' attitudes significantly differed across the thirteen subcategories of the questionnaire.

Based on Friedman test, the difference between different sub categories of the questionnaire was significant. The results of this test suggested that there were significant differences in the mean ranks of the teachers' attitudes across the categories of the questionnaire. This is indicated by a Sig. level of .000. ($\chi2$ (12, *n* = 57) = 273.137, *p* < .005).

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PREFERENCES OF EFL TEACHERS AND STUDENTS TOWARDS CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN WRITING

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at investigating eefl teachers and learners preferences in the application of different corrective feedback strategies. Moreover, it examined the potential effects of the application of prefered corrective feedback strategies on the quality if studentswritten output. To this end, 60 joniur students studying english language teaching at a non-governmental institute of higher education took part in this study. Fuerthermore, a total number of efl teachers, male and female, who had taught or were teaching writing courses at different universities in shiraz, were also invited to take part in the study.

The analysis of the data revealed that the correct their errirs when they are writing in english. They showed concern over the accuracy of the sentences they produced in their writing assignments.results also demonstrated that 62.45% of the participants agreed that all errors in writing should be corrected completedly and precisely.fuerthermore, students were of the belief that when their errors are corrected, their writing ability improves drastically. Teachers, too, believed that most of the language laerners are obsessed with producing grammatically correct utterances and have thus tendency to have their errors identified and corrected by their teachers. The present study has some useful implications for classroom instruction. The present study has some useful implications for classroom instruction. Results suggest the effectiveness of error corrections strategies and the improvement they bring about in the learners' writingr. Thus, language teachers need to familiarize themselves with different correction strategies and the best and most effective ways through which they can identify and remove their learners'errors. Such attempts may lead to an enormous improvement in the learners' writing ability. Based on the results of this study, it can be inferred tahat there is a need for integration of principles of providing effective written error correction on teacher education syllabi. Teachers are guided by their beliefs as to what constitutes effective written feedback strategies.

KEYWORDS: error correction, EFL teachers' and students' preferences, error types, writing.

1. Introduction

Learning and teaching process is significantly linked to the way teachers and learners react toward the errors and how they try to correct them. Understanding teachers' and learners' preferences in error correction plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning process. Research on foreign and second language writing has mostly been based on why and how to respond to student writing. Most EFL/ESL writing teachers agree that responding to student writing through teacher corrective feedback is an essential part of any writing course and student writers want teacher feedback on their written errors (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

Ferris, Pezone, Tade and Tinti (1997) regard response to student writing as the teachers' most crucial task and state its role in motivating and encouraging students. It is believed among teachers that if a teacher indicates a written grammatical error on a student's paper and provides the correct form in one or another way, the student will realize the error and will not repeat it in his/her future writings. Thus, the ability of writing accurately will be improved.

Error correction, or feedback, has been used in language teaching/learning for a long time, but its benefits have been questioned by some language teachers. Lately teacher attitudes to feedback seem to experience a revival stage as a useful teaching device in secondary schools (Allah, 2008; Brandt, 2008; Wang, 2008). It is argued in favor of delivering feedback which can help develop writing and speaking skills as well as learn grammar and vocabulary.

There are different reasons that lead the learners to produce errors. Some errors occur because learners are not aware of the rules. In this case, error correction can be effective if the teacher can make the error, its

source and the way of correcting it, clear to the students. Some errors are produced due to temporary over-load on the student's cognitive processes. Error correction in this case may fail to prevent the learners from making future errors because they have not resulted from inadequate knowledge. The overload of the cognitive processes probably indicates that the student needs to have more communication practice than correction.

The bulk of the studies on corrective feedback have focused on the importance of feedback, ways of providing and receiving feedback as well as what the effect of feedback on students' writing (Lee, 2005; Noora, 2006). However, the preferences and attitudes of the learners and the teachers towards error correction is an untouched site in the literature (Katayama, 2007).

Understanding teachers' and learners' preferences in error correction is of crucial importance in the teaching and learning process. Katayama (2007) believes that "differences in learners' learning styles affect the learning environment by either supporting or inhibiting their intentional cognition and active engagement" (p. 157). This stems from the fact that learners are expected to be highly motivated in doing things that they prefer. As such, it is necessary to understand that learners have different preferences i.e. styles in the way they like to be corrected.

The present study aimed at aimed at investigating EFL teachers' and learners' preferences in the application of different corrective feedback strategies. Moreover, it examined the potential effects of the application of preferred corrective feedback strategies on the quality of students' written output.

2. Literature review

Literature reveals myriads of studies carried out on corrective feedback in writing. Erel and Bulut (2007), for example, investigated the possible effects of direct and indirect coded error feedback in a Turkish university context with regard to accuracy in writing. The results of the study revealed that while an overall comparison of the groups for the whole semester did not yield any statistically significant differences, the indirect coded feedback group committed fewer errors than the direct feedback group for the whole semester.

Truscott and Hsu (2008) investigated the effect of corrective feedback on students' revision and learning. The subjects were 47 students from different colleges at a university in Taiwan. Truscott and Hsu (2008) argued that correction did not improve students' writing and the significantly improved writing of experimental group in Narrative 1 revision could not be attributed to correction.

Abedi, Latifi, and Moinzadeh (2010) compared the effect of direct vs. indirect error correction on the improvement of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' writing ability. Results showed that there is a significant difference in the scores obtained from the direct feedback group and indirect feedback group in the post test. That is, using coded feedback was shown to exert a positive effect on the writing ability improvement of the learners compared to direct ones. It was observed that those learners who received indirect feedback on their writing through error detection using codes, showed greater improvement in their writing. In fact, the subjects performed better on writing test through exposure to the coded feedback, and not the direct correction. Erel and Bullut (2007), too, have found out that the indirect coded feedback group made fewer mistakes than the direct feedback group.

Rassaei and Moinzadeh (2012) examines the immediate and delayed effects of three types of corrective feedback, namely recasts, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification requests, on the acquisition of English wh-question forms by Iranian EFL learners. The results of data analysis revealed the effectiveness of metalinguistic feedback and recasts in both immediate and delayed post-tests. In a more recent investigation, Mubarak (2013) addressed the issue of corrective feedback in writing.

Some research deal with learners' and teachers' attitudes and preferences towards corrective feedback. Hamouda (2011), for instance, investigated Saudi EFL students' and teachers' preferences and attitudes towards written error corrections. The study also aims at identifying the difficulties encountered by teachers and students during the feedback process. The questionnaire findings reveal that both teachers and students have positive attitudes towards written error correction. The study also shows that while teachers and students share such common preferences as the importance of error correction and the types of errors, there are considerable discrepancies as to the techniques of error correction.

Chkotua (2012) examined foreign language learners' and teachers' attitudes towards error correction and the time of correction. Amrhein and Nassaji (2012) investigated how ESL students and teachers perceive the usefulness of different types and amounts of written corrective feedback, and also the reasons they have for their preferences. The results of this research found that students thought it most useful for teachers to provide WCF on as many errors as possible. Students disapproved of the options in which the teacher marks

only a few errors, marks only errors that interfere with communication, responds only to content and ideas, or does not repeatedly mark a repeated error.

All in all, one can conclude that research on corrective feedback in L2 writing has attracted the attention of researchers working in the field. However, there seems to be dearth of research in the EFL context in general and Iranian context in particular. As such the present study strives to fill in the gap in the literature by providing insights into EFL teachers' and learners' preferences in the application of different corrective feedback strategies.

Theoretical framework for error correction

In nativist paradigm, the application of corrective feedback has little impact on language learning since it merely affects performance and leaves the underlying competence untouched (Schwartz, 1993; as cited in Kim, 2004). This idea is rooted in the tenets of nativism. That is the formation and restructuring of grammars is attributed to innate human linguistic mechanism (Cook, 1991; Schwartz, 1993; as cited in Kim, 2004). Moreover, Krashen (1982, 1985; as cited in Kim, 2004), a nativist, also repudiates any discernable effects of corrective feedback in SLA. He affirms that any knowledge consciously learned through explicit instruction cannot have a significant impact on L2 acquisition.

Swain's (1985, 1995) Output Hypothesis, shedding light on the significance of output opportunities in L2 development, argues that this can help learners to make and test hypotheses about linguistic correctness and to develop metalinguistic knowledge of how the L2 works (Kowail & Swain, 1994; as cited in Kim, 2004).

Schmidt (1990, 1995, 2001), in his Noticing Hypothesis, opines that "noticing is a prerequisite of learning, continuing that conscious attention must be paid to input in order for L2 learning to proceed" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 342). The proponents of the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001) also ascertain the benefits of corrective feedback regarding the facilitative role it has in drawing learners' attention to form. From this theoretical front, corrective feedback acts as stimulus, triggering learners to identify the gap between their erroneous utterance and the target form. Thus in perceiving different types of feedback and enhancing their benefits for language learners, noticing and awareness is vital.

The updated interaction hypothesis proposed by Long (1996) also lend support to explicit error correction. According to Long (1996), "corrective feedback provides direct and indirect information about the grammaticality of the utterances as well as additional positive evidence which may otherwise be absent in the input" (p. 487). He argues that "negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor" ease the process of language learning since it "connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996, pp. 451-452).

Similarly, the advocates of connectionist model of language learning, differentiating conscious and unconscious learning, underline the role of attention and consciousness in conscious learning and the role of connectionist learning in implicit learning and yield support to explicit error correction (Nick Ellis, 2005; as cited in Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).

Research questions

Based on the objectives of the study, the findings of this research provide answers to the following research questions:

1.   What are EFL teachers' and students' preferences for the utilization of various corrective feedback strategies in writing?

2.   What are the effects of the application of various types of corrective feedback strategies on EFL learners' language writing development?

3. Methodology
Participants

The participants who contributed to this study were both EFL students and teachers. The students who participated in this study were comprised of 60 junior students, majoring in English Language Teaching at a Non-governmental Institute of Higher Education in Shiraz.

The sample who took part in this study was selected among 200 junior students studying at this institute, based on cluster random sampling technique. These students were both males and females, ranging from 21 to 30 years of age. All the students in the sample had passed the entrance exam (exclusively designed, administered and evaluated for language-related majors). This guaranteed the general assumption underlying the study that they were all at almost the same level of language proficiency to start with. They had regis-

tered in the course of Essay Writing, in which they had to extensively produce written language via assigned compositions by their teachers.

The second group of participants were 30 EFL teachers, male and female, who had taught or were teaching writing courses at different universities in Shiraz. The sample was selected based on convenient random sampling technique in which available eligible participants who accept to take part in the investigation are selected.

Instruments

The instrument used to elicit information on students' and teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding error correction was a questionnaire developed by Katayama (1996).

The questionnaire consisted of two main sections, each of which encompassed certain related questions. The first section contained eight demographic questions/statements about the participants of the study. The second section addressed the research question of the study to examine the participants' general views on classroom error correction in writing. This section contained four open-ended questions and 28 items, illustrating certain views that have been controversial among language researchers and scholars. These views included: whether or not learner errors should be corrected; whether or not the teacher should correct all types of errors; whether or not the teacher's restatements of the learners' erroneous productions lead to improvement of their written output; whether or not teachers and students think that learners' written output would be less accurate if the teacher had not corrected them.

The participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with four different statements. Response options were coded on 5-point scales, starting from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The reliability of this questionnaire was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha which indicated Alpha level of 0.873 that shows that the questionnaire is reliable to use for the purpose of this study. Table 1 presents the results of reliability statistics.

Table 1. Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.873	40

4. Results and discussion

This section presents statistical results related to variables in each research question. The results are then interpreted to provide answers to all research questions of this study.

The instrument used to elicit information on students' and teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding error correction was a questionnaire developed by Katayama (1996) which consisted of two main sections.

The first section contained some demographic questions/statements about the participants of the study. The second section addressed the research question of the study to examine the participants' general views on classroom error correction in writing including whether or not learner errors should be corrected; whether or not the teacher should correct all types of errors; whether or not the teacher's restatements of the learners' erroneous productions lead to improvement of their written output; whether or not teachers and students think that learners' written output would be less accurate if the teacher had not corrected them. The participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with four different statements. Response options were coded on 5-point scales, starting from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

The first question category elicited information from the participants to see whether or not they agreed that the teachers should correct the students' writings' errors.

As illustrated in Table 2, 93.34% of the participants stated that they agreed or strongly agreed that teachers should correct the students' errors when they are writing in English. The potential reason that the participants of this study may have had for their tendency toward error correction can be the students' willingness to be accurate users of the English language. It was observed during the semester that when they were involved in writing tasks, they were much concerned about producing accurate sentences or other linguistic forms. This desire on the part of the students for accuracy in their written output encouraged and motivated their positive attitude about error correction in their writing activities. The findings here conform with the results of studies conducted among ESL students by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), Chenoweth, Day, Chun, and

Luppescu (1983) and McCargar (1993) as well as studies conducted among EFL students conducted by Oladejo (1993), Katayama (1996) and Bang (1999).

Referring back to Table 2, it was observed that 62.45% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that all errors in writing should be corrected completely and precisely. The logical interpretation for this standpoint can be the students' preference for accuracy over fluency or at least parallel attention to accuracy and fluency at the same time. This incorporates that these EFL students have awareness toward their learning process and, in contrast to many generally accepted viewpoints, do not sacrifice accuracy for fluency. The data revealed from the teachers also confirmed this interpretation. They admitted that most of the language learners are obsessed with producing grammatically acceptable structures and therefore have an urge to have their errors detected and corrected by their teachers.

The third question category elicited information from the participants to see whether or not they think that the teachers' restatements of the students' erroneous linguistic forms can improve their writing ability. As shown in Table 4.1, 93.63% of the participants reported that they either agreed or strongly agreed that when the teacher corrects the students' errors with restatements, the writing ability improves. The justification for this finding is that when the language learners are stopped by a restatement of their production, the chance for self monitoring escalates. As a result, they will face an opportunity to reformulate or modify an erroneous form during the learning process in their writing. This can help the learners to notice their errors and further, to correct them. This will lead to a general improvement in learners' written output.

The last question category asked whether or not the students' oral output could be less accurate if they were not corrected by the teacher. In this regard, 72.02% of the participants reported that they either agreed or strongly agreed that if the students are not corrected by the teacher, their written output would be less accurate. This finding conform with the idea that error correction in general is an effective mean through which accuracy can be enhanced and written output can be improved. The result confirmed the findings of some previous studies (Chaudron 1986; Courchêne, 1980; Fanselow, 1977; Lucas, 1975; Lyster, 2001; Salica, 1981).

Table 2. The teachers' and students' attitudes and perceptions toward error correction

Items	N	SD+D (%)	NI (%)	A+SA (%)	Mean	Std.
Teachers should correct their students' errors when they are writing in English.	90	3.26	3.02	93.34	5.32	.87
The teacher should correct all errors of writing completely and precisely.	90	13.24	25.86	62.45	3.56	.54
Teachers' restatements of students' erroneous productions lead to improvement of their writings.	90	4.35	2.09	93.63	4.21	.79
Students will be less accurate if teachers do not correct their writing errors.	90	14.18	13.42	72.02	3.87	.58

SD+D= Strongly disagree and Disagree
NI= No idea
A+SA= Agree and Strongly agree

Data Analysis

In data analysis section, descriptive statistics for the participants' responses to the questionnaire questions which dealt with correction of specific error categories were calculated. The means and standard deviations of the students' and teachers' preferences for each error type are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Means of participants' preferences for correction of error types

	Error types	Mean	SD
1	*Sentence Structure*	*4.20*	*0.71*

2	Verb Tenses	4.16	1.05
3	Adverbs	4.12	1.14
4	Punctuation	4.02	1.11
5	Prepositions	3.60	1.05
6	Spelling	3.30	1.28
7	Modal Verbs	3.22	1.12

According to the data presented in Table 3, the highest mean belongs to sentence structure and the lowest to modal verbs (4.20 and 3.22, respectively); the mean for verb tenses (4.20) is almost as high as that of sentence structure. Then, come adverbs, punctuation, prepositions, and spelling respectively. In order to clarify the obtained results, the percentages of the participants' responses on error categories were calculated. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Percentages of participants' preferences for error correction type

	Error type	Negative	Neutral	Positive
1	Sentence Structure	1%	18%	82%
2	Verb Tenses	2%	14%	80%
3	Adverbs	10%	13%	72%
4	Punctuation	13%	15%	68%
5	Prepositions	16%	12%	59%
6	Spelling	27%	22%	44%
7	Modal Verbs	48%	7%	41%

As the results indicate, the majority of the participants considered feedback on errors related to sentence structure and verb tenses quite useful (82% and 80%, respectively), whereas less than half of the participants stated that it is necessary to give/receive feedback on spelling and modal verbs (44% and 41%, respectively).

A likely explanation for the above results might be that sentence structure and verb tenses deal with units which are larger and/or more meaning carrying formal linguistic features than such aspects as spelling and prepositions.

The results are, to some extent, in line with those of Ferris and Roberts (2001) in that their study showed that word choice and sentence structure were the most problematic grammatical elements in writing for L2 learners. The majority of the participants stated that students have a strong preference for comments on sentence structure because it has been emphasized that an essay with appropriate sentence structure is more comprehensible and coherent and looks more sophisticated. In addition, they believed that errors in sentence structure would usually lead to ambiguity and miscomprehension by the reader. As for the correction of spelling and prepositions, most of the participants believed that spelling mistakes do not lead to miscomprehension and do not cause ambiguity.

They had the same idea about correction of errors related to the use of prepositions. With respect to punctuation, however, they had different views; some considered it important and some not so important.

However, it seems that teachers' instructions and the errors they usually correct have a strong impact on the students' opinion about the importance of errors. As Liu and Hansen (2005) argue, there are some factors that affect the students' ideas about what the right feedback is. One of them is the students' educational background. In effect, the teacher's emphasis on certain aspects of writing would affect the students' perception of what is important and what is not. In general, the participants' of this study have positive attitudes and perceptions towards error correction of their writings.

In sum, the results of the study indicate that the students had a strong desire for receiving correction feedback and teachers indicated inclination towards providing correction feedback on errors. The obtained results support the studies that have investigated the EFL/ESL students' attitude to the correction of different errors by their teacher (Radecki & Swales, 1988; Leki, 1991; Satio, 1994; Ferris, 1995; Komura, 1999; Ferris & Robert, 2001; Gram, 2005; Zacharias, 2007).

All the obtained results from data analysis procedures provided answers to the research question of this study. As mentioned in the introduction chapter, this study addressed two main questions based on which two corresponding null hypotheses were formed. The first research question aimed to determine if the EFL teachers' and students' preferences for the utilization of various corrective feedback strategies in writing.

As claimed in the above tables, both teachers and learners indicated specific preferences for the application of various classes of corrective feedback strategies in the learners' writings. Firstly, the data revealed that the participants of this study strongly suggest error correction by the teachers for the students. These reflections that were elicited by a number of close-ended and also open-ended questions, showed that both groups of our participants believed that EFL teachers should correct their students' errors when they are writing in English. Based on the percentage results, a statistically significant proportion of the participants of this study believed in the effectiveness of providing corrective feedback strategies to the learners. The findings confirmed with the results of a study conducted by Ferris and Roberts (2001) which reflected the attitudes and preferences of EFL teachers and learners about the usefulness of applying corrective feedback strategies to the students' writings. In addition, again a considerable percentage of the participants believed that an EFL teacher should correct all errors of writing completely and precisely. This can be interpreted as a confirmation on the participants' perspectives about their attitudes on error correction.

Moreover, the analysis of the data revealed the specific classes of errors toward which both the students and the learners had inclination for correction. As observed in the above tables, the participants of this study chose a variety of structural classes of language to be considered for receiving correction strategies in writing. The data indicated that both EFL teachers and students showed preferences for correcting errors in domains of Sentence Structures, Verb Tenses, Adverbs, Punctuation, Prepositions, Spelling and Modal Verbs respectively. The findings indicate that both teachers and learners of English have a clear understanding of the problematic domains of language writing experience. This can be associated with their experience as language learners which had given them a deep insight on the areas in which they had faced problems. These reflections on the participants' preferences for error correction in writing can be interpreted as their tendency to eliminate the most frequent error types observed in the students' writing. Therefore, they have a good understanding of errors and a deep insight on the fact that certain classes of errors need to be corrected by the EFL teachers. All these findings rejected the first null hypothesis of the study and accept the alternative one.

The second research question of the study aimed at investigating the participants' opinions about the effectiveness of providing corrective feedback strategies on the quality of EFL learners' writings. As inferred from the data, a statistically significant proportion of the participants of the study claimed that EFL teachers' restatements of students' erroneous productions lead to improvement of their writings. As we all know, teachers always have a good recognition of their students' areas of strength and weakness. The data obtained and analyzed for this study revealed a positive attitude of the teachers toward the effect of error correction on the quality of students' writings. This can be interpreted with regard to the experience of language teachers which had observed more proficient writings after they had corrected their students' writings. In addition, language learners themselves also have a good experience in their learning challenge which provided insight on whether or not error correction can make them more proficient writers.

The related discussion here is that when the students' errors are corrected, they no longer remain unnoticed by the learners. When an erroneous form is noticed by a learner, an attempt will be observed to correct the erroneous form and as such, the quality of writing will be improved. In addition to this interpretation, the participants of this study indicated that the EFL students will be less accurate if teachers do not correct their writings' errors. This assertion manifests the outlook that both teachers and students have an urge for accuracy in the students' written output. And the accuracy in writing certainly improves the quality of writing. The obtained results confirmed the previous studies by Radecki & Swales (1988), Leki (1991), and Satio (1994).

Therefore, it can be concluded that the participants of this study indicate positive standpoints that the application of various types of corrective feedback strategies on various error types, can improve the quality of EFL learners' writings. The results rejected the second null hypothesis of the study and accept the alternative one.

5.Conclusions

The conclusions of this research provide answers to the research questions of the study which are presented below.

The first research question of the study sought EFL teachers and students' preferences for using different corrective feedback strategies in writing. Results indicated that both teachers and learners revealed tendency towards the application of various types of corrective feedback strategies in the learners' writings. The participants of the study strongly recommend that error correction be utilized in students' writings. Both stu-

dents and teachers unanimously believed that teachers need to correct students' errors in their writings. Both groups acknowledge the effectiveness of error correction. It was found that teachers need to correct their students' errors completely and precisely. The participants of this study identified a variety of structural classes of language to be considered for receiving correction strategies in writing. Both teachers and students displayed their preferences towards correcting errors in such areas as Sentence Structures, Verb Tenses, Adverbs, Punctuation, Prepositions, Spelling and Modal Verbs.

The second research question of the study aimed at investigating the participants' opinions about the effectiveness of providing corrective feedback strategies on the quality of EFL learners' writings. In other words, this study wanted to elicit both EFL teachers' and learners' attitudes on whether or not providing corrective feedback strategies, in various forms and on various error types, can essentially be effective in developing the learners' writing abilities. Results indicated that to the participants of the study, EFL teachers' correcting students' errors results in an improvement in the students' writings.

Implications of the study

The present study has some useful implications for classroom instruction. Results suggest the effectiveness of error correction strategies and the improvement they bring about in the learners' writing. Language teachers are thus recommended to take this important fact into account and provide their learners with different types of error correction strategies. Language teachers need to familiarize themselves with different correction strategies and the best and most effective ways through which they can identify and remove their learners' errors. Such attempts will lead to an enormous improvement in the learners' writing ability.

Although time consuming, teachers' written feedback appears to be expected and valued by students. This may imply that students rely on the written corrective feedback provided by their teacher, whether explicit or implicit, in order to effectively revise their writing. Thus, it may be argued that teachers should continue to provide written corrective feedback to their students' writing in order to help them improve their writing accuracy, despite the ongoing debate on its effectiveness.

Based on the results of this study, it can be inferred that there is a need for integration of principles of providing effective written error correction on teacher education syllabi. Teachers are guided by their beliefs as to what constitutes effective written feedback strategies. Therefore, teacher training syllabi might be enhanced to incorporate various methods and techniques in providing written error correction more effectively (Corpuz, 2011). The results of this study imply that teachers undergoing training should receive additional instruction focusing on the different ways of providing feedback and employing effective written error correction strategies that address the specific writing weaknesses unique to each individual student. For example, workshops could be conducted so that teachers could discuss the various techniques in providing written error correction. Through workshops, teachers could compare their written error correction methods with that of other teachers in order to discuss possible enhancements to further refine their written error correction strategies. Practice sessions could be conducted in which participating teachers are encouraged to rehearse and refine their own written error correction techniques. Therefore, as Hamouda states (2011), teachers are recommended to incorporate classroom discussions on error correction, feedback, and writing in to help their students understand how feedback is intended to affect their writing and why it is given in a particular way. Further, it is recommended that teachers become aware of their own beliefs about error correction and feedback to students' writing.

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MEDICAL SCIENCE GRADUATES' OPINIONS ABOUT THE ESP MATERIALS USED IN COLLEGE AND THEIR LANGUAGE NEEDS AT WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Although english language is usually used by the graduates of medical sciences at workplace, the courses they take at the university may not be designed to satisfy this need. The present study used the needs analysis (na) framework to investigate the extent to which english is used in the medical careers, and the perception of employees towards their English language preparation during their college studies. For this purpose, a number of university graduates in medical sciences at emam khomeini hospital in abadeh, iran were selected as the participants. A toefl test consisting of 40 items was applied to evaluate their general english knowledge, and an esp test consisting of 36 items was applied for their esp knowledge. Then, a questionnaire of 27 items was applied and sent to 50 college graduated employees. The reliability of the questionnaire was examined through cronbach alpha to ensure the consistency of the questions in assessing the desired variables. The questionnaire data were then analyzed using descriptive statistics. The results showed since english is highly used in employees' careers, they are motivated in improving their english. The results indicated a meaningful positive relationship between toefl and esp scores. English language courses at college were not exactly relevant to the activities performed in the workplace.

KEY WORDS: English for specific purposes (esp), general English (gp), needs analysis (na)

1. Introduction

English has an important role in higher education, and it is the only foreign language which is taught to Iranian students in all fields. There has been a worldwide growth about needs of English for Academics courses (Jordan, 1997). English as the lingua franca of all sciences have come out in non-English speaking countries as English for Specific Purposes (Ghanbari, 2010). English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is defined by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as "an approach to language teaching in which decisions of the content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p.62). ESP is a branch of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction in Iran (Moslemi, Moinzadeh , & Dabaghi, 2011). An important aspect of language instruction in higher educational level is learning English for a specific purpose, with the given aims of getting to know specialized vocabulary, increasing one's knowledge about the subject matter by reading in English, and being able to use the language in the future work or study area by becoming prepared for some common situations such as doing higher level studies, going for an interview or communicating (Varnosfardani, 2009). Many English language courses in academic settings are based on the principle that language should be based on the purpose for which students are required to use the language after their studies. An ESP course for medical students will help them study their subject matter and in their career in

the future. It seems that English plays a main role in medical studies because the students have to read medical textbooks and professional journals which are mostly written in English (Bensoussan, Collado, Viton, & Delarque, 2009).

Despite the importance of ESP courses for students in Iran, especially medical students, there have been very rare studies that specifically examine the English language needs of medical students. English has so far been taught without a systematic survey of the needs of the medical students (Eslami, 2010; Karimkhanlouei, 2012).

Needs analysis in language teaching has an important role in the process of designing any language course, whether it is English for Specific Purposes or a General English course to meet the learning needs of a particular group of learners. It is the first step in course design which provides relevancy for all course design activities and places the learners' purposes in the central position within its framework.

This study aimed at revealing the perceptions of different participants with respect to English language needs for specific purposes among Emam Khomeini hospital employees. To establish the fundamental bases for the development of this study, the paper entails an introduction to the study with a background, research questions, methodology, data analysis, results and conclusion.

2. Background

Recently, there has been a great deal of excitement and activity in the area of second language teaching and learning with the twentieth century manifesting the rise and fall of many approaches to language teaching. In the past, the language learning task involved understanding a large number of rather highly complex grammatical rules. Previously, educational systems were more or less based on Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which lacks the emphasis on the most important part of language learning, i.e., listening skill. This accompanied the development of an ability to translate into and from the foreign language, i.e. English. Later, language learning replaced translation with habit formation when the audio-lingual method came to the fore-front. Unfortunately, it did not live up to expectations, and as a result, gave rise to a lot of misgivings about the 'fashions' of language teaching. Along with a movement away from the audio-lingual method in the 1970s towards a communicative approach in the 1980s, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) also shifted from a focus on teachers to a focus on learners. This era also gave birth to the importance of what we know today as learner strategies.

Following these newly-developed trends, language teaching appeared to need its own independent theories. Consequently, there was an increased interest in the more flexible learning-teaching situations and individual learners. There arose a need to find the means to "develop a taxonomy of language teaching techniques without prejudging the techniques employed for a special goal" so that experience and research could "attempt to establish the advantage of various combinations of techniques for given objectives, types of learners, and in specified learning situations" (Stern, 1984).

Hence, the recent trend in the area of language teaching is the growing interest in communicative rather than linguistic competence, and in communicative performance, leading to a switch from 'content' which normally meant grammar and lexis, to 'objectives' which refer to many variables other than linguistic content. The late necessity of language as a means of occupational, vocational, as well as general educational purposes has brought an increase in attention on syllabus design so as to provide appropriate teaching programs.

As a result, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) phenomenon grew out of the necessity for the expansion of scientific, technical and economic activities in an international scale (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Richards and Rodgers (2001) expressed that developments in educational psychology also contributed to the rise of ESP through emphasizing the central importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning. Consequently, the twentieth century led to a world of international relations in terms of different aspects of communication, sharing information through science and technology, communicating through commercial activities and also travelling in the world for different reasons. Whatever the reason, the basic need came up to be an international language, resulting in the popularity of English language among different languages.

Frequently, the learners with different needs and interests were seen to be affected in terms of their motivation to learn and, therefore, the effectiveness of their learning. Since ESP deals with specific needs of learners and particular disciplines, a needs analysis (NA) at the start of developing any ESP program prevents the study from the subsequent results of needs changes. Researchers, especially in the field of ESP, have proposed different NA taxonomies and different ways of analyzing students' needs. NA is sometimes called 'needs assessment'. In this research, the term "needs analysis" is used in the sense defined by Brown (1995), i.e., "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and

validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of learners within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation" (p.36).

2.1 The Necessity for Needs Analysis

According to Soriano (1995), the commonest reasons for conducting needs assessments are "justification for funding, regulations or laws that mandate needs assessments, resource allocation and decision-making, determining the best use of the limited resources and as part of program evaluations" (p. 15). Meanwhile, in a more practical proposal, Richards (2001) states that need assessment in language teaching can be used for a number of different purposes, for example:

- "To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide or university student;
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students;
- To determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills;
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important;
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do;
- To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing" (p.52).

Moreover, accordingly a needs assessment assures a flexible, responsive curriculum rather than fixed, linear curriculum determined ahead of time by instructors, and it provides information to the instructor and learner about what the learner brings to the course (if done at the beginning), what has been accomplished (if done during the course), and what the learner wants and needs to know next.

٢.٢ ESP and Needs Analysis

The term 'needs analysis' first appeared in India in the 1920s (West, 1994). Many theorists defined needs analysis in various ways and from different point of views. Nunan (1991) mentioned that needs analysis is important to ESP course design. For him needs analysis referred to "a group of procedures for gathering information about learners and communication tasks in syllabus design" (p.75).

Richards (2001) argued that the definition of 'needs' depends on interests and values such as: Teachers, learners, administrators, employees are different. Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) state that needs analysis is the requirement for the collection of data from various sources like the data about the learners, the materials, and so on. The goals of the needs-analysis phase of curriculum design are to determine what a particular group of learners expect from use of English or what their present level of competence is.

In addition, Ellis and Johnson (1994) noted that 'needs analysis' is a method of obtaining a detailed description of a learner's needs or a group of learners' needs. It will take into account the specific purposes for which the learner will use the language, the kind of language to be used, the starting level, and the target level to be achieved. The information could be obtained from a range of different people such as company staff, trainers, and the learners themselves and will have implications for the employed approach in training.

Referring to Hawkey (1979), needs analysis enables the course designer to achieve two things: To produce a detailed profiled of what the learner needs to be able to do in English in the occupation or studies for which he is being trained and to produce a specification of the language skills, functions and forms required to carry out the communication or studies for which he is being trained.

Regarding the issue of needs analysis, the exclusive definition of 'needs' is also concerned by many theorists in various ways. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) pointed out that needs refer to the ability to comprehend and/or produce the linguistic features of the target situation.

According to Widdowson (1981), "needs represent the students' study or job requirement, that is, what they have to be able to do at the end of their language course" (p.9).This is, in fact, a goal-oriented definition of needs.

Robinson (1991) also pointed out that needs entail what the students themselves would like to gain from the language course. This view implies that students may have personal aims in addition or opposition to the requirements of their studies or jobs. Furthermore, needs analysis may be seen as a combination of Target Situation Analysis (TSA), needs analysis with a focus on students' needs at the end of a language course, and Present Situation Analysis (PSA), which seeks to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course, trying to investigate the students' strengths and weaknesses in order to design an English course to suit their levels of ability.

2.3. Empirical Studies on Needs Analysis

Numerous needs assessment studies have been conducted in different parts of the world in order to investigate language learners' specific needs in a variety of contexts. In this section, these studies will be examined in terms of the type of needs that researchers attempted to determine, the data collection techniques and instruments used. The rationale behind discussing need types, data collection techniques and instruments used in these studies is to make comparisons with the current study.

In 1988, the junior officers' perceptions of military cadets' English language needs in Saudi Arabia were assessed by Al-Gorashi (1988). Data were collected from 212 questionnaires distributed to a representative group of officers to investigate the role of the English language in different activities. The results showed that the English language plays an important role depending on the nature of each military branch. Some branches considered certain language skills important and others did not. The overall assessment considered reading and listening as the most important required skills. The results also indicated that the English language preparation that the officers received was poor. The study concluded that the language preparation does not meet the requirements of the officers' jobs.

Edwards (2000) carried out a needs assessment to identify the language needs of the German bankers in order to design an ESP course for the bank personnel. The director of the bank's language department was interviewed and a questionnaire was given to the participants of the course to reveal their institutional and personal objectives. Students' past learning experience could be reflected through the questionnaire as well. Accordingly, the specific writing and specialist vocabulary in banking proved as their specific needs. Therefore, an ESP course was designed and guidelines for teaching method were suggested.

Miykake and Termarco (2005) investigated the needs of undergraduate, postgraduate and professional nurses through questionnaires and interviews based on a needs analysis and discussed the implications for EFL teachers. The focus of the investigation was on the balance between 'Social' and 'Technical' English in terms of syllabus design, classroom activities and professional requirements. An analysis of the results suggested that 'Social' English is more important as it enables nurses to communicate with patients and enriches them as individuals. Also, classroom activities should promote confidence in using social communicative English throughout a course focusing on speaking and listening. The results also suggested that 'Technical' English should be introduced incrementally and is better limited to basic technical vocabulary.

Moslemi, Moinzadeh, and Dabaghi (2011) investigated the foreign language learning needs of 80 MA students majoring in biology, psychology, physical training, accounting and west philosophy at Isfahan university. She hypothesized that the problem of English proficiency of MA students might be deep-rooted in Iran's educational system. Therefore, this study was conducted to investigate the English language learning needs, wants and desires of MA students to help them overcome their problems. The assessment of learners' needs was performed by considering the views of various stakeholders including students, subject-specific instructors as well as English instructors.

Most of the students contended that they needed to develop their skills in English language. They perceived their reading ability as insufficient to meet the challenge of the large amount of reading materials expected of them in their specialized courses. Most of them complained about the methodology of specialized English instructors, and stated that ESP instructors gave them a specialized text in their field of study and wanted them to read and translate the texts, and in case of difficulty, they would correct the mistakes without explaining the reason. They believed that the strategies of translating long complicated sentences were not taught.

Instructors indicated that teaching of the skills such as listening, speaking and writing have been totally neglected in the educational system of Iran emphasizing that learning English calls for experience and cannot be solved just by working on English at MA level. They stated that the main reason of low language proficiency of MA students is not only due to the instruction before graduation. They believed that while reading skill and translation have been always emphasized in the ESP courses during BA period, MA students are still panicked by the large amount of reading materials in their special courses. Subject-specific instructors mentioned that MA students should learn the organization of articles and texts; they should know how to read, summarize, analyze and interpret a piece of research done in their field of study. Subject-specific instructors were dissatisfied with the students' poor writing ability at MA level, confessing that students lack the ability to use linguistic forms and the academic register appropriately. Almost all of the instructors believed that the main reason of low English language proficiency of MA students stems from the poor instruction presented to students during 12 years of study in Iran schools. They all complained about Iran's poor educational system which is not able to train bilingual students.

Ghalandari and Talebinejad (2012) investigated the medical ESP textbooks taught in Shiraz Medical College and based on Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) framework, ESP textbooks of medical students in Shiraz Medical School were evaluated. Finally, the compatibility of the content of these textbooks with the students' needs has been discussed. Considering the result of evaluation on ESP textbooks, it was found that ESP textbooks in medicine are appropriate books for the purpose of medical English for Iranian physicians and compatible to student's needs and achievement.

In another study, Zohrabi (2012) conducted an evaluation of the needs analysis component in an academic setting. As English for General Purposes (EGP) is a compulsory 3-hour-per-week course offered to undergraduate students at the University of Tabriz, Iran, the main goal of this study was to evaluate the EGP course from the point of view of needs analysis (NA). In order to investigate whether the EGP course fulfills students' needs, wants, lacks, and interests, a questionnaire was distributed to 408 EGP students and 12 language instructors and a semi-structured interview was conducted with 36 students and 12 instructors. The results of the study revealed that the EGP course is mostly text-based and reading-oriented which barely prepares students for the multimodalities of modern workplace and various challenges of new literacies in academic contexts. In order to cater for students' needs, the EGP course should focus on all the language skills, develop students' communicative abilities, adopt a discipline-centered approach based on students' field, use communicative textbooks, promote group work and task-based activities, encourage language use and production, and provide teaching aids. This study could be useful for curriculum designers, material writers, practitioners and researchers in the fields of EAP and ESP.

To sum up, the related literature in the field of ESP reveals that systematic needs assessments are necessary in order to examine the skills needed by a group of learners. To do this, the employment of different data collection instruments from different sources is essential. Importantly, the results of such studies can lead to useful decisions regarding the improvement of basic curricular element.

3. Research questions

1) Is there any relationship between medical professionals' present level of language proficiency required at work and ESP materials studied in college?
2) Are the English language courses at college relevant to the activities performed in the workplace?

3.1 Research Hypotheses

Research questions led to the following null hypotheses to be investigated:
H1: The present level of language proficiency required at work matches the ESP materials medical science professionals passed in college.
H02: English language courses at college are not relevant to the activities performed in the workplace.

4. Methodology

4.1 Setting and Participants

The participants of this study were a group of 50 people as the employees who are working at Emam hospital. The researcher assumed that the sample in this study could provide enough information which could later be generalized to all medical professionals. The sample group in this study was 50 Iranian males and females graduated at different universities .They had all passed English for General Purposes (EGP) in both high school and university, and also four ESP credit ESP courses in their respective universities.

The reasons behind the selection of this group of participants was that the employees often used English at work in real situations and knew some English to perform in their routine jobs. Thus, they were aware of their needs for learning English language. As a result, they had ideas of what kind of English in medical field they needed and what kind of English should be taught in order to help them improve their language competence. Therefore, they could provide information about their English needs.

As the goal of this study was to provide empirical data for the present and future English language needs, the population sample were employees who met the following criteria:

- Being university graduated professionals
- Having at least a two-year job experience
- Having passed EGP and ESP courses at collage (Some of them attended an EGP course at private institutes)

90 questionnaires were given to employees who met the above criteria, out of which 50 questionnaires (more than 50%) were answered and returned. The participants were of different groups of medical sciences such as sonography, laboratorial, pharmaceutical and remedy parts.

4.2 Instruments

In this research, different instruments were used to collect the data. First, a TOEFL test consisting of 40 items for finding the participants' general knowledge was used. Second, an ESP test consisting of 36 items was utilized. Third, a questionnaire was given in their mother tongue which consisted of four parts. These instruments were adapted to call both qualitative and quantitative data about the needs of using English in medical centers.

As for the TOEFL test, the average reliability of the total test is .92. The reliability is .90 for the verbal score and .89 for the written score. Therefore, the participants' TOEFL scores accurately reflect their language abilities, and the consistency of scores is very high. The most recent validity studies on the present TOEFL test indicated that the correlation between verbal and written assessment scores with those in a Cambridge TOEFL Test was .61 (a 1.0 indicates perfect accuracy of prediction). This indicates that the test enjoyed a satisfactory level of validity, too.

The content of the ESP test was developed using SAMT publications ESP books for the students of medicine and nursing as the sample. It consisted of 37 items and had 5 parts. The students were required to answer these items in 30 minutes. The content of the test was consulted and the content validity of the test was ensured. After the administration of the test, KR-21 formula was used to estimate the reliability of test scores. It is considered as the most practical and convenient method of estimating test score reliability (Farhady, Jafarpoor, & Birjandi, 1998). Since it turned out to be .65, it was concluded that the test was a reliable one.

The questionnaire used to collect the data in the present study was originally developed in Arabic and English by Alharby (2005). Before he used the questionnaire, he went through the long process of piloting. It was done to ensure the questions were related to the respondents' field of work and their workplace activities. After the completion of the pilot study, all necessary modifications were made in order to meet the requirements. He provided an evaluative chart to present the results of pretesting phase of the questionnaire, and as the result, omissions in the coverage of content were identified. He reported that the questionnaire had an internal consistency of .64. It was, then, translated into Persian by the researcher. The validity of the translated questionnaire was checked through back-translation. Items were based on a Likert-type scale with four choices of "Very good," "Satisfactory", "Poor", and "Very poor" to reveal the participants' judgment of their own English knowledge after graduation. The participants answered the five-page questionnaire within twenty minutes.

In order to verify the accuracy of the participants' answers to the questionnaire, after utilizing the TOEFL and ESP tests and questionnaire, a structured interview was held in about 10 to 15 minutes, and each participant was required to take part in the interview.

4.3 Data Collection Procedures

The data needed to answer the research questions were collected from Emam Hospital employees in July 2013. The researcher asked for the permission to distribute the questionnaire and the tests. The officials asked the researcher to write a letter of request through his respective university, containing the nature and purpose of the study along with a copy of the questionnaire and research proposal. After doing so, the researcher prepared enough copies of the questionnaire and tests for distributing them among the 90 samples of the population.

As most of the participants tended to answer only questions in Persian language, because TOEFL and ESP tests were difficult for them, out of a total of 90 questionnaires and tests distributed, 50 questionnaires and tests came back representing a response rate of approximately 50 percent, which was a relatively good number of responses. The ESP test took 20 minutes, the TOEFL test 60 minutes, and questionnaire 10 minutes to be answered. Due to the lack of time, some of the participants could not answer the test items and questionnaire at the same time at their work place; therefore, the researcher had to set another time to meet them either at the hospital or their private offices and other medical centers to collect the data. This caused the data collection procedures to be too much time-consuming unexpectedly. Even sometimes the researcher had to administer the tests and questionnaire to individual participants separately or a group of three to five professionals at the same time. Yet, in order to ensure the time allocation to the answers, the researcher was present when they were answering the questions and collected the papers after the allowed time.

4.4 Data Analysis Procedures

In this research, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. Both qualitative and quantitative data were obtained through the data collection instruments in this study.

The employed questionnaire was basically designed in a categorical nature in a way that most questions involved two or more choices for the participants to choose from. Besides, Likert scale was also used to assess the participants' ideas in degrees. In most cases, mere percentages could account for the requested results. Therefore, due to the number of questions in the questionnaire, the reliability of the employed overall scale was first examined through CronBach Alpha level to ensure the consistency of the questions in assessing the desired variables. After the approval of this reliability degree, the responses to the questions were analyzed based on the following procedures. Regarding the relationship between the participants' ESP knowledge and general English, a correlational analysis was adapted. Pearson-product correlation was employed to answer the first research question.

Concerning the extent of English usage in the medical professionals' work place and other questions, percentages were used followed by chi-square analyses to investigate the statistical significance of the frequencies and percentages as well. Finally, the participants' answers in the interview were codified, and graphs were used to show the results.

5. Results

The first objective of the present research was to find out the relationship between medical professionals' present level of language proficiency required at work and their ESP knowledge. Correlational analysis was found to be the best technique to find the relationship between medical professionals' present level of language proficiency required at work and ESP materials studied in college. Generally, correlation exists in different degrees ranging from -1 to +1. Zero shows that there is no relationship between factors. Correlation coefficient (r) is a statistic used to show linear relationship between two or even more variables. Table 4.1 below shows Pearson Correlation between the medical professionals' General English and ESP test scores.

Table 5.1. Correlation between the Participants' TOEFL and ESP Scores

		TOEFL	ESP
TOEFL and ESP	Pearson Correlation	1	.846*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	50	50

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

According to Table 5.1, r was .84, that is positive and close to +1,also, p<0.05 so correlation coefficient is significant and a meaningful positive relationship exists between the participants' TOEFL and ESP scores. Thus, the first hypothesis stating that the present level of language proficiency required at work matches the ESP knowledge is retained here. Figure 5.1 also shows the results of the correlational analysis.
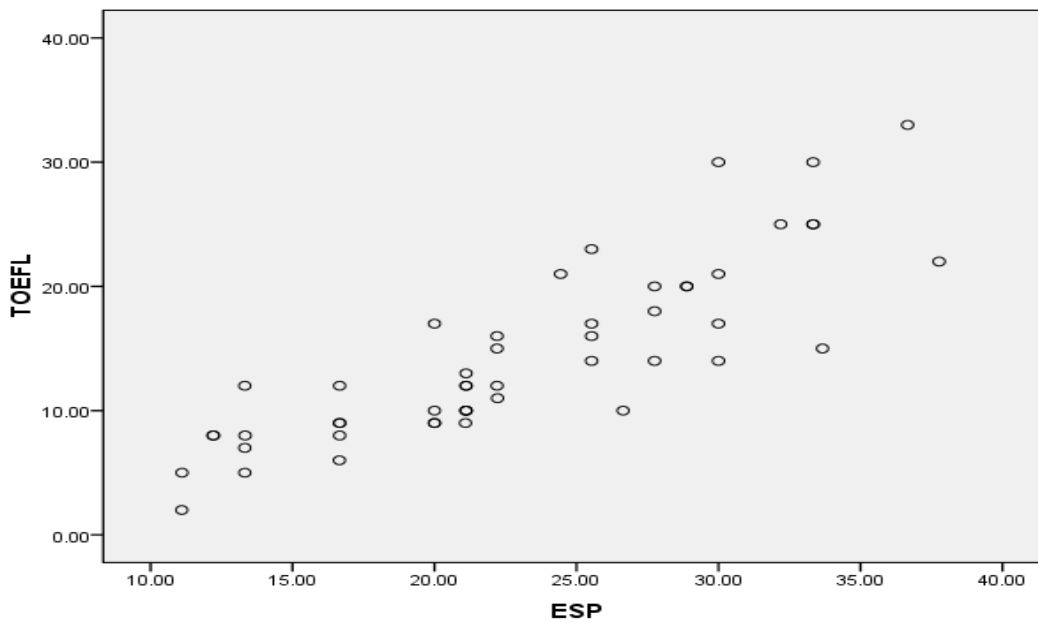
Figure 5.1 *Scattergram to Show the Correlation between the Participants' TOEFL and ESP Scores*

In order to answering the second research question , the respondents were asked how the English language courses that they took in college helped them in different tasks at work place. They were asked to rate five different tasks including speaking, writing, reading, listening, and translation.

Table 5.2. The Respondents' Attitudes toward English Courses and their Present Activities in their Workplace

Skill required	a lot	somewhat	a little	at all	total
Speaking	5	8	15	22	50
	10.0%	16.0%	30.0%	44.0%	100.0%
Writing	5	18	10	17	50
	10.0%	36.0%	20.0%	34.0%	100.0%
Reading	5	10	20	15	50
	10.0%	20.0%	40.0%	30.0%	100.0%
Listening	2	8	25	15	50
	4.0%	16.0%	50.0%	30.0%	100.0%
Translation	5	18	17	10	50
	10.0%	36.0%	34.0%	20.0%	100.0%

Then, the frequencies and percentages were obtained. According to Table 5.2, only 5 respondents (10%) reported that their English courses helped them "a lot" to "speak about medical related topics in English". 8 of them (16%) reported that the English courses helped them "to some extent". 15 respondents (30 %) reported that the English courses helped them "a little" and the rest (44%) reported that the English courses "did not help at all".
Most participants believed that English courses did not help them in their English speaking at workplace at all and few of them believed that English courses helped them in their English speaking at workplace a lot.

For the second task, writing, 5 respondents (10%) reported that the English courses helped them "a lot" to write about medical related topics in English. 18 of them (36%) reported that the courses helped them "to some extent" 10 respondents (20%) reported that the courses helped them "a little", and 17 respondents (34 %) reported that the courses "did not help at all".

Most of the participants believed that the English courses helped them to some extent to write medical related books and articles in English and few of them believed that English courses helped them in their English writing at workplace a lot.

With regard to the third task, reading, 5 respondents (10%) reported that the English courses helped them "a lot" to read medical related books and articles in journals. 10 of them (20%) reported that the courses helped them "to some extent". 20 respondents (40%) reported that the courses helped them "a little", and 15 respondents (30 %) reported that the courses "did not help at all". Figure 4.7 indicates the results.

Most participants believed that the English courses helped them a little to read the medical related books and articles for comprehension in English journals, and few of them believed that English courses helped them in their English reading at workplace a lot.

Regarding the fourth task, listening, only 2 respondents (4%) reported that the English courses helped them "a lot" to understand spoken medical related instructions, lectures, and talk shows. Eight of them (16%) reported that the courses helped them "to some extent". 25 respondents (50%) reported that the courses helped them "a little", and 15 respondents (30 %) reported that the courses "did not help at all". Figure 4.8 indicates the results.

Most of the participants believed that English courses helped them a little to understand oral medical instructions, lectures, talk shows, and interviews, and few of them believed that English courses helped them in their understanding of oral medical instructions, lectures, talk shows, and interviews a lot.

For the translation task, 5 respondents (10%) reported that the English courses helped them "a lot" to translate medical related materials. 18 of them (36%) reported that the courses helped them "to some extent". 17 respondents (34%) reported that the courses helped them "a little" and, 10 respondents (20%) reported that the courses "did not help at all". Figure 4.9 indicates the results.

The most participants believed that the English courses helped them to some extent to translate medical related materials, and not a lot of them believed that English courses helped them in their translating medical related materials a lot.

In the last part, the participants were required to give a general answer to the question whether college materials helped their activities at work place. In their responses to this question, 5 respondents (10%) reported that their college materials help their activities at work place "a lot". 8 respondents (16%) reported that their college materials help their activities at work place to some extent. 25 respondents (50%) reported that their college materials help their activities at work place "a little", and 12 respondents (24%) reported that their college materials "not help at all". So, generally the participants believed that their college materials helped their activities at work place a little. Table 5.3 reveals the results.

Table 5.3. Distribution of Responses on Whether College Materials Helped Their Activities at Work place

	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all	total
Frequency	5	8	25	12	50
Percentage	10.0	16.0	50.0	24.0	100.0

The English language courses that medical professionals took in college helped them differently in five tasks such as speaking, writing, reading, listening, and translation at work place. College materials about Speaking helped them "not at all" at their work place and they learn no task "a lot". Learning other tasks such as writing, reading, listening and translation were at the average level. So, the fourth hypothesis stating English language courses at college are not relevant to the activities performed in the workplace is rejected.

6. Discussion

For finding out the relationship between medical professionals' present level of language proficiency required at work and their ESP knowledge, correlational analysis was found to be the best technique. After the analysis, a meaningful positive relationship was found between the participants' TOEFL and ESP scores.

Regarding the medical college graduates' ideas of their English language preparation to meet their current communication needs, the results of the second research questions will be discussed focusing on following three points:

1.   The respondents' experience with the English language before they began college,
2.   The respondents' experience with the English language during their college studies,
3.   The respondents' experience with the English language after they graduated.

Following the results, most of the respondents felt that their English language proficiency before they began college was average and 50.5% indicated that their English was "satisfactory." Even though respondents of this study were likely among the top of their classes in public education, unfortunately most of them, i.e. 40.0 % felt a "poor" English knowledge level before college, which is due to the satisfactory English education in our high schools.

The second part is concerned with the respondents' perception of their experience with the English language during their college studies. Based on the range of the grand mean of all answers, the majority of the respondents felt that the English courses they took during their college studies were "somewhat" or "a little" helpful. Since these courses are intended specifically for students in medical professions, the results suggest that the English language courses were insufficient to help them conduct their related medical tasks effectively. Likewise, the majority of the respondents felt that the English courses were "a little" or "not at all" relevant to their current medical needs. This finding suggests that the curriculum of English language courses at the college level was not adequately defined in terms of the medical students' future occupational needs. The context of the medical field requires a high level of English communicative skills since these professionals need to deal with different aspects of English.

The final part is concerned with the way the respondents rated their English language level after they graduated from college. The data revealed that 66.0 % of the respondents rated their English knowledge as "satisfactory". However, 30.0 % rated their English knowledge as "poor." Comparing the perception before and after college, it appears that there are two significant improvements in language proficiency; the increase in rating from 50.0% to 66.0 % in the "very good" category, and the decrease in rating from 40.0 % to 30.0% in the "poor" category. Besides, this prior and after college level assessments were significantly different. In other words, the employees believed that their education had positively affected their state of language ability and had led to its improvement. However, considering that they said English is very important in their professional careers, and there are no significant improvements in the other categories, the overall improvements do not measure up to the required high standard in the workplace.

In a similar study in English, fir Science and Technology (EST) area, Schutz and Derwing (1981) conducted a survey of English language needs of educated Taiwanese who worked or studied in the areas of science and technology. More than half of the informants reported that English was useful for their studies and professions.

In a different study on ESP, Al-Makhzoomi and Freihat (2012) investigated the objective needs of 20 ESP Jordanian nursing participants enrolled in Isra University Faculty of Science. They took part in a nursing program during the fall semester in a clinical setting. Instruments consisted of interviews with the nursing members and the observation of participant's performances tests and a 23-item questionnaire together information. The study showed that familiarity with textbooks and relevant studies in the target ESP field itself, i.e., health care communication helps course designers and ESP teachers a lot in selecting appropriate (ESP) materials and methods for their students. It is also helpful to have contacts and multiple experiences in the target setting, i.e., clinics in various health- care settings.

6. Conclusions

Results indicated that the importance of English proficiency in performing different activities at the workplace is entirely proportional to the field of activity in medical centers. This is the reason that a high motivation in attending ESP courses is also felt among the employees. This study suggests curriculum designers of English courses to consider the employees' needs according to the obtained results to better meet the needs of the employees.

Significantly, the analysis of this self-rating questionnaire indicates that employees place the greatest importance on five tasks. The result of this analysis indicates that the materials for medical centers employers' should mainly focus on ESP courses. After analyzing data, some conclusions were obtained. First a meaningful positive relationship exists between the participants' TOEFL and ESP scores. Second , English language courses at college are not exactly relevant to the activities performed in the workplace.

Since the qualification of the employees is very important to medical centers, at the beginning of each year, an ongoing education and retraining courses for the employees is programmed. Besides many different technical programs, English language courses are also regularly being held in which the entire English language needs are not considered. Accordingly, at present, based on a placement test, the education department classifies the employees into different groups, in which the employee's needs that are in close relation to their respective jobs are not considered in advance. The results revealed that employees are not as competent as they ought to be in most of the skills. Even with their previous college courses and the already existing General English language courses, it seems employees' needs are not fulfilled so as to meet their entire needs at work. The main difference between the importance they give in rating themselves is significant in most of the items.

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REVISITING ETHICS IN LANGUAGE TESTING SYSTEM: AN IGNIS FATUUS!

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ABSTARCT
Tests are respected as an ethical enterprise. What makes us in dilemma is that how this ethical issue (i.e., tests) is going to be operationalized so that no unfairness and bias are felt. In fact, striving for fairness, as an aspect of ethics, has become an ignis fatuus! Giving attention to the notion of ethics and fairness which are the postmodern product of edumetrics in language assessment rises from the lack of an operational defini-tion for the available phenomenon. The paper from one side is an attempt to elucidate the operationalization of ethics in testing and from the other side is to warn the threats that address the validity of tests from the unfairness issues.

KEY WORDS: fairness, ethics, bias, power

1.   Introduction
Tests are frequently used as instruments of educational policy, and they can be very powerful (Shohamy, 2001) in transitional moments. Henceforth, no one denies that testing is a political activity, and the political use of test-based assessment is a reason for public accountability (Brindley, 1998). Undoubtedly, in the na-ture of testing, a kind of policy is hidden that in the delivery of tests, its social impact must be reconsidered. It goes without saying that test is a powerful instrument acting as gateways at important times of individu-als' lives. Henceforth, considering tests as gateways involves resolving issues about ethicality. Although the concern for ethicality is not new, lack of humanistic orientation in language testing might have been one source of lack of ethicality.

No one denies the fact that ethics in testing is not an absolute term. Nor would anyone disagree that language testers should assume responsibility toward social and individual aspects of the test takers' lives. What is difficult is how to operationalize ethics in language testing; and how much the extent and limits of ethics should be (Farhady, 1998). Ethical concerns are more or less humanistic than technical. What makes humanism and technicality distinct from each other is the stance of human beings in these two. It is a com-monly held belief that the stance of ethics in language testing must be redefined, but what makes issues in assessment worse is that the concept of ethics in language testing is relative. No one can claim what one as-sesses is absolutely ethical. Along the same line, in a postmodernist world, it is much more difficult to assert that any decision—or measurement—is right or true. The paper is an attempt to revisit the issue of ethics in order to operationalize it.

2.   Literature review
2.1. Ethics as a commitment
Ethics is treated as a commitment to science. As Scriven (1991, cited in Fulcher & Davinson, 2007) goes as far as to claim ethics as "the emperor of the social sciences, imperial because it refers to considera-

tions that supervene above all others, such as obligations to science, prudence, culture and nation" (p. 270). At the heart of an ethical approach to language testing that is designed to achieve fairness is the concept of professionalism as developed by Davies (1997, cited in Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). As Fulcher and Davidson contend in line with professionalism, ethical practice involves listening to and considering seriously contrary views and new evidence. In this regard, progress is achieved if every view is challenged from every angle and every word must be listened. Fulcher and Davidson (2007) also claim that professionalism is in close line with the concept of democratic approach to education held by John Dewey. Within democratic approach, individualism is an individualism of freedom, of responsibility, of initiative, not an individualism of lawlessness. In effect, ethical practice is held if the individual language tester has a responsibility to be the member of the professional community and to the society within which he/she works in, being neither subservient to the community or society nor independent from them.

In line with Messick's (1989) notion of consequential validity, the distribution of justice is an attempt towards the operationalized definition of ethics in language testing. In fact, positive consequence is best achieved through distributive justice (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). Fulcher and Daidson assert that distributive justice deals with the appropriateness of access to the conditions and goods that affect individual well-being, which broadly include psychological, physiological economic and social aspects. Unfortunately, we are faced with multiple sources of potential injustice—injustice of values, of rules or implementation, and of decision.

Investigating the stance of ethics from either modern perspective or postmodern one reveals a shift in paradigm. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) hold, "ethical issues in educational research can often result from thoughtlessness, oversight, or taking matters for granted" (p. 60). Having an assumption that the test makers feel no need to deal with ethical issues is a big source of contention that has become the product of modern era. Through a critical look at the stance of ethics in language testing, Punch (1994) casts doubts on the ethicality of the whole field of language testing by raising consent, deception, privacy, and confidentiality issues. Indeed, the possibility of fulfilling the principles of ethics in the realm of language testing has always been a dilemma in language testing. In this regard, research shows that males generally outperform females on multiple-choice items (Davies et al, 1999). Thus, is it fair to rely solely on multiple-choice items to revisit a female student in the pursuit of occupying a vacancy? Furthermore, concerning the deception issue, Lynch (1996) remarks, "internal to some tests there may be a deception. In the case of the ubiquitous multiple-choice test format, are not distractors (wrong answers) deceptive by definition?" (p. 3).

Seen from this stance, the attempt should be made to protect both test-takers and test-givers from the misuse and abuse of tests. Furthermore, test-givers always have a mask of superiority that dominates the future of a group. As Spolsky (1997) states tests and exams have always been used as instruments of social policy and control, with the gate-keeping function of tests often justifying their existence. This is not really fair that based on a single test, a person's life is destined. Thus, the criteria for assessment should be clear for a test to be considered fair and ethical or even unbiased.

The stance of ethics in language testing can be investigated from both ideological and sociolinguistic perspectives. The concept of ethics is highly affected by the systems which are ideological. One feature of an ideological system is appealing to the silencing of knowledge. The education system, for instance, may be silent regarding issues such as minority cultures, dancing, and music to name a few. Thus, silencing serves as an ideological tool for those who are in power. Henceforth, if the ideology of a system is at risk, there is no doubt that ethics might be marginalized. Henceforth, ethics, which is more or less humanistic rather than technical, is sacrificed at the expense of ideology.

The current interest in ethical issues provides opportunities for many scholars to combine an interest in sociolinguistics with language testing. They, inevitably, need to have a critical look at the impact that tests have on test takers and the societies in which they are used. Having a critical look at the use of tests in the probable future is motivated by the notion of consequential validity attributed to Messick (1989). Between language use and ethics, there is a palpable involvement, and no one, from a post-modernist look, dares to ignore them. However, it is a great pity that many of test-takers still do not understand the positive and negative effects that a test might exert on one's future. It seems to be illogically ethical to assume those who fail a test should be excluded. Accordingly, Edgeworth (1888) says, "there remains an inevitable injustice in excluding those who are just below the boundary line of that class" (p. 626). Therefore, tests givers must take into consideration the probable consequences of tests on micro- and macro-levels of the society. Nevertheless, ideality is far from reality. As Davis (1997) claims, it is not possible for testers to take into account all possible social consequences.

Considering the issue of ethics is always context bound. The problem here is that what seems 'agreeable to reason' (Kant, 1785, cited in Fulcher & Davidson, 2007) differs from culture to culture. Still, the revitalization of ethics entails free and full discussion. This is the same conclusion as that reached by Shohamy (2001, p. 161) where she calls for 'continuous examination' of testing. Silence about testing is the real enemy, not the testing practice itself. Furthermore, taking responsibility is part and parcel of ethical issues in language testing, yet as Farhady (1998) argues in some sociopolitical contexts, a tester is not even allowed to assume responsibility towards the consequences of the decisions made on the test scores. He maintains that the ethical issues in different contexts are interpreted differently. Moreover, the tools used to interpret these ethical issues are different. Thus, reconsidering the stance of ethics in a context sensitive to power sharing involves revitalizing the role of individuals as critical organisms who are constantly challenging and questioning the present status. In a sense, ethical practice involves listening to and considering seriously contrary views and new evidence can certainly be the first steps in operationalizing the notion of ethics. Those who ignore ethics in language testing seem to ignore the fact that ethics is essentially a linguistic construct of the society into which we are born. The significant feature of this type of ethics is that it does not rule, although reasoning has been the basis of such morality. Ethicality is free of sense of power. Imagine you are going to buy a car; you found that the wheels of the car are not in a good condition; thus, the reasons that you provide in order to give up buying that car does not have any sense of ruling. We are free whether to buy or not. And it will be out of morality that the seller brings illogical reasons in order to persuade you to buy it since you may have an uninvited accident.

2.2. Test power

No one denies that tests are and should, by their nature, be powerful (Farhady, 1998). In this regard, Spolsky (1997) asserts that the concept of power has been inherently associated with tests. Elsewhere, Shohamy (2001) puts forth that tests are here to stay. However, this power must and should not be misused. Spolsky (1997) outlines three reasons for a test to powerful: (1) tests produce scores that are possessed by the testers, and documentation of these scores places the individual in an area of surveillance; (2) tests are described by decision makers as useful educational means for the advancement and improvement of education. That is educational authorities exert power over the educational systems to make their intended modifications; and (3) testers assume that test scores are obtained through objective measures and that these scores provide true pieces of information on test takers' ability.

To reduce test power monopolized to a group of test takers, it seems logical to bilateralize it. But is it plausible to imagine that power should be shared between test givers and test takers? In an interview test, for instance, the interviewee should possess the same power as the interviewer. Indeed, power cannot be shared retroactively, but proactively. By proactive sharing of power, we mean the test, for instance, to be constructed by the teacher and students. This is what we refer to as professionalism. The individualists possess a sense of commitment towards the society and the future of the members of society. Henceforth, the individualism referred to is the individualism of tolerance not the individualism of violence. Everybody must be allowed to freely utter his/her opinions regarding the weaknesses and strengths of an item, for instance, in language testing.

In critical pedagogy, people in the political context are political; thus enjoy the share of power regarding the outcomes of tests. However, those who are in power make educational policies, so they can make decisions that might turn the score into a source of fear. In fact, no one seems to dislike this power. The power that may manifest its tremendous effects in some scores that change one's future. Critically, test is a tool to impose this power in order to stimulate the educational system.

2.3. Philosophy behind ethical views in language testing

Generally there are two groups of testers: postmodernists and positivists. Postmodernists believe that real truth does not exist or is not knowable. They disagree with dominant, oppressive cultures and support power being shifted to those who are oppressed. They also have concern about technology and its influence on society and culture. Unfortunately, most language testers are positivists in a sense that they believe what they are seeking in the world is attainable. Tests are good means to discover it. Thus, their approach toward tests seems to be test-for-test. They claim those who do not meet the criterion of a particular test must be excluded, without considering the tremendous effect of the test on a person's future. Implicitly, those who are in power must be included and those who do not have the power must be excluded. But, ideality is far from reality, a tester is always in power, and it is he or she that decides who must stay or be excluded. However, Fulcher (n.d.) argues that it is not the purpose of tests to keep people out of countries, jobs, or education. To what Messick (1989) refers to as consequential basis for test use described as the impact of the (mis)use of the

test that had harmful unintended (e.g., systematic bias) or intended (e.g., discriminating against certain nationalities for immigration purposes) consequences for test takers or society. Henceforth, Messick's framework incorporates ethics into the concept of test validity or, more specifically, construct validity.

As to Fulcher and Davidson (2007), ethics also has a clear role in institutional settings where there is concern to declare and to limit institutional duties and responsibilities and also to innovate new paradigms in language testing. Along the same line, Farhady (1998) holds that the discrepancies between what is taught and what is tested would lead to changes in instruction, in focus on the materials, and eventually in the quality of education. Thus, whether intended or not, tests administered on a national scale bring about certain modifications in the quality and the quantity of education. These changes are desirable if they are in the direction of improvement, though, in some cases, they are not purely educational. From the discrepancy, changes emanate and from the changes a sense of power is achieved either by testers or by the authoritative agencies to frighten the educators in order to stimulate the system.

Ethical concerns encountered in language testing can be a complex phenomenon and can place us in unresolvable moral predicaments. This complexity takes place when the assessors in searching for truth attempt to find a balance between ideality and reality. As Cohen et al. (2000) hold, ethical issues may stem from the kinds of problem investigated by social scientists and the methods they use to obtain valid and reliable data. To better appreciate the philosophical roots of this dilemma, let the present writers briefly elaborate on two schools of philosophy: positivism and anti-positivism. Positivism as a version of empiricism (Richards & Schmidt, 2002) was first coined by the French philosopher, Auguste Comte who believed reality can be observed (Mack, 2010). In other words, Comte's concept of positivism was based on scientific objectivity and observation through the five senses rather than subjective beliefs. In other words, positivism defines knowledge solely on observable facts and does not give any credence to non-observable entities such as feelings and values (Mack, 2010). In fact, as Mack elucidates, "positivism maintains that the scientist is the observer of an objective reality" (p. 2), not the constructor of this reality. What is implied is the fact that the abstract issues, in general, and ethics, in particular, have no place in this trend of philosophy. In fact, to them everything, provided that they are objective and immediately observable can be discovered by setting up experiments in a carefully-controlled conditions. Thus, according to Mack, the purpose of positivist school of thought is "to prove or disprove hypothesis" (p. 2). To end up, positivism is closely tied to quantitative methodologies and experimented method to data collection and analysis. Although positivist school of thought seems to be plausible, it has some pitfalls. The main attack from anti-positivist has been on their mechanistic and reductionist view of nature that excludes ethics and moral responsibility. According to Farhady (1998), within the psychometric perspectives which follow the trends of positivists in philosophy, two major obstacles have persisted. First, an operational definition of the phenomenon to be tested has not been available. This lack is because of multiplicity and abstract nature of the construct. Henceforth, ethics, for instance, is among other constructs which faces the lack of operationalized definition. The second shortcoming is rooted in the problems of measurement field. Furthermore, as Farhady continues, what is lucid is that the tester was granted the power of making decision on the educational, social, occupational issues. And tests have become a powerful weapon at the hands of not only teachers but others. This lack of precision in decision making brings about an appreciable attention toward the implementation of tests under the principle of ethics in language testing (Shohamy, 1997).

Anti-positivism, in contrast, which is naturalistic in nature holds individuals are part of the ongoing action being investigated; and their model of a person is not the plastic version favored by positivist researchers (Cohen, et al., 2000). According to Beck (1979, cited in Andeson & Bennett, 2003), the purpose of social science is to understand social reality as different people see it and to demonstrate how their views shape the action which they take within that reality. Since the social sciences cannot penetrate to what lies behind social reality, they must work directly with man's definitions of reality and with the rules he devises for coping with it (Cohen, et al., 2000).

In this regard, it is worth mentioning that the notion of ethics is context sensitive. As Cohen et al. (2000) declare where research is ethically sensitive, many factors may need to be taken into account and these may vary from situation to situation. Lack of awareness on how a construct is defined and operationalized may lead to some sort of unethicality in language testing. If the test giver is not familiar with the construct that is going to be tested, we might expect that the performance of students for a particular purpose will not be appropriately aimed at. However, as Bachman (1990) argues, "differences in group performance in themselves do not necessarily indicate the presence of bias, since differences may reflect genuine differences between the groups on the ability in question" (p. 271). In the same line, McNamara and Roever (2006) assert

that a biased judgment unduly takes into account factors other than those that should be informing that. They continue bias as construct-irrelevant variance distorts the test results and therefore makes conclusions based on scores less valid.

What is of paramount importance is how the content domain and construct are defined and operationalized (Wagner, 2006). Thus, a test giver should have an attempt to lead the assessment to construct relevant variance. Moreover, the problem of fairness will be dissolved if testers really know what they are going to test and never let the extraneous factors affect their decisions. In fact, an item or a test is regarded biased if test takers of equal ability but from different groups score differently on the item depending on their group membership (Angoff, 1993, cited in McNamara & Roever). McNamara and Roever (2006) put succinctly that bias as a factor makes a unidimentional test multidimensional. In fact, the test measures something in addition to what it is intended to measure and the result is a confound of two measurements.

If the characteristic that influence test performance is part of the construct definition of the ability being assessed, this characteristic in the assessment will lead to construct relevant variance. It is when these differences in performance on the test are associated with characteristics that are *not* inherent in the ability that is being assessed that bias occurs. Wagner (2006) asserts, "bias, viewed as measurement error, introduces construct irrelevant variance" (p. 1). Thus, it must be defined among the duties of test developers to eliminate this construct irrelevant variance by minimizing test bias (Wagner, 2006).

For ethical reasons, it is important to create fair and unbiased tests. No one denies that fairness and bias are validity issues. For a test to be valid, the tester takers' employment background must not be involved, since it becomes a threat to the construct validity of the test. Thus a test that is not valid can never be a fair test. A test taker who has an unfair advantage to be a helicopter pilot would have an unfair advantage on this part of the test, and the test takers would be unfairly disadvantaged (Wagner, 2006). Bias, as a sign of unethical issue, might lead to unfair assessment. Some of the features of the test-taker characteristics of an individual that might lead to biased assessments are cultural background, background knowledge, cognitive characteristics, ethinicity, sex, and age (Bachman, 1990).

Another sign of unfairness threatening the validity of a test is when a test becomes too restrictive, and is not representative of the ability and content domain that test purports to assess (Wagner, 2006). In much the same way, Mesick (1989) considers it as a threat to the construct validity. He uses the term construct underrepresentation. For example, a test developer created a test to measure a flight attendant's ability to use English when facing passengers, it would be unfair to have a test assessing the flight attendant's ability to pilot airplanes.

Lack of fairness in language testing is not a new issue. It exists there. However, eliminating bias from tests in order to assure that a particular group of test-takers is not unfairly disadvantaged (because of their cultural or linguistic background, age, gender, etc.) is a worthwhile goal, but this must be undertaken in a logical and systematic manner (Wagner, 2006).

3. Conclusion

If we consider ethics merely as a matter of social convenience, behavior can be regulated by convention. And convention is culture-bound. That is, it differs from society to society. This is what Fulcher (n.d.) refers to as ethical relativism. Accordingly, morality is essentially considered as a linguistic construct of the society into which we are born. Although reason is the basis of moral philosophy, it does not rule in a postmodern society. In much the same way, ethics in a postmodern world is local, temporary and without a logical base. This ethical concept in the realm of language testing entails language testers' accountability. That is, not only must a language tester let students' voices be heard, but also must make clear the limitations of our tests to everyone involved—not only test takers, but their parents, their teachers, and political decision makers (Newfield, 2002). Ethics involves decisions about whose voices are to be heard, whose needs are to be met; about how a society determines what is best for the largest number when fairness is in conflict (Hamp-Lyons, 1997). As McNamara and Roever (2006) go on to hold, fairness review is a response to social and societal pressures on test makers and serves a parallel function of keeping test content uncontroversial to ensure wide acceptance of scores.

Discussing the issue of ethics involves codifying the ethical behavior published in a code of ethics. In this regard, the codification of acceptable behavior or conduct allows the test givers to scrutinize the issues of ethics and make them operationalized. Codes of ethics as a set of standards can act as scaffold that contributes to the development of professional conduct. Furthermore, these codes are conducive to the development of sound decision makings of one's behavior. As McNamara and Roever (2006) maintain, codes of-

ten serve as a self-policing function that sanctions those members who violate them. By this, the members of a community feel a unilateral promise that follows certain rules and punishes those members who do not. Regarding language testing as a weak profession, what is tangible in the domain of language testing is that there appear to be no serious sanctions against members who violate codes of ethics; the members might exclude him/her, but they may not stop continuing the profession (McNamara & Roever, 2006).

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INVESTIGATING THE SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BE-TWEEN FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING: EXPLORING FACTORS CONCERNING CPH

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ABSTRACT
This article tries to tackle the similarities and differences in the process of first language acquisition (L1) and second language learning (L2) in terms of the influential factors with regard to Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). In order to achieve this aim, five factors such as age, cognitive, affective, linguistic, and social factors are examined.

KEYWORDS: Critical Period Hypothesis, First Language Acquisition, Second Language Learning, Cognitive, Affective, Age, Linguistic, Social

Introduction
This survey tries to review the issues in first language acquisition (L1) and second language learning (L2) and tackles the similarities and differences in the process of learning in terms of the influential factors with regard to Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH).

The Critical Period Hypothesis
Critical period hypothesis, as introduced by Lenneberg (1967), indicates that language acquisition should take place during a critical period ending at about the age puberty. That is refers to a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired. Initially, the notion of a critical period was connected only to first language acquisition. But this model was extended to be employed regarding second language acquisition (SLA). With regard to SLA, the classic argument is that a critical point for SLA occurs around puberty, beyond which people seem to be relatively incapable of acquiring a native like accent of the second language. This has led some to assume, incorrectly, that by the age of 12 or 13 you are "over the hill" when it comes to the possibility of successful second language learning. In order to examine these issues, an examination of cognitive, affective, linguistic, social factors and age concerning both FLA (in this study it is also called children language acquisition/mother tongue) and SLA (in this study it is called adult language learning) are taken into account in this paper.

1-　　Age
The great and noticeable differences between L1 and L2 learning is age. A large part of this train of thought is the idea of a "critical period, or the "time after which successful language learning cannot take place" (Gass & Selinker, 2001). This time is usually aligned with puberty. This change is significant, "because virtually every learner undergoes significant physical, cognitive, and emotional changes during puberty.
Tohidian and Tohidian (2009) found a relationship between age of acquisition and ultimate attainment in at least some aspects of the second language, with age showing it to be the strongest predictor of success. Penfield and Roberts (1959), for example, argued that the optimum period for language acquisition falls within the first ten years of life, when the brain retains its plasticity.
As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) point out, however, the age issue is an important one for theory building in second language acquisition research, for educational policy-making, and for language pedagogy. On

the other hand, the morpheme studies showed that the order of acquisition of a group of English morphemes was the same for children and adults (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen 1974; Fathman, 1975).

The majority of second language learners fail to reach native-speaker levels of ability.

Concerning the hypothesis that those who begin learning a second language in childhood in the long run generally achieve higher levels of proficiency than those who begin in later life, one can say that there is some good supportive evidence and that there is no actual counter evidence (Singleton, 1989, p. 137).

The first one is that adult learners have an initial advantage where rate of learning is concerned, particularly in grammar. They will eventually be overtaken by child learners who receive enough exposure to the L2 (Krashen, Long, & Scarcella, 1979).

The second one is that only child learners are capable of acquiring a native accent in informal learning contexts. Long (1990) puts the critical age at 6 years, but Scovel (1969) argues that there is no evidence to support this and argues for a pre-puberty start. Singleton (1989) points out those children will only acquire a native accent if they receive massive exposure to the second language. However, some children who receive this exposure still do not achieve a native-like accent, possibly because they strive to maintain active use of their first language. Adult learners may be able to acquire a native accent with the assistance of instruction, but further research is needed to substantiate this claim.

Furthermore Children may be more likely to acquire a native grammatical competence. The critical period for grammar may be later than for pronunciation (around 15 years). Some adult learners, however, may succeed in acquiring native levels of grammatical accuracy in speech and writing and even full 'linguistic competence'. Moreover irrespective of whether native-speaker proficiency is achieved, children are more likely to reach higher levels of attainment in both pronunciation and grammar than adults.

The last one is that the process of acquiring a second language grammar is not substantially affected by *age,* but that of acquiring pronunciation may be in that, as according to Brown (1994), the development of the child's speech muscles is a large contributing factor to the attainment of native-like pronunciation. This control over articulatory muscles is at first basic and then develops to handle more complex sounds which may last more than the age of 5 to be completed. Now the point is that due to the muscular plasticity of children they can acquire a better pronunciation of a second language than an adult earner.

2-   Affective Factors

The development of cognition in adult comes along with some affective obstacles on the way of learning a second language. One of them is inhibition. A child is highly egocentric, meaning that his identity is highly flexible and pliable. As he grows up, he becomes more and more aware of himself and develops a more solid self-identity and after the age of puberty he tries to protect this identity (Moinzadeh, Dezhara, & Rezaei, 2012). In case of language, he develops a *language ego* with reference to the language he learns (Brown, 1994). The point here is that learning a new language for an adult means adopting a new ego along with an existing one related to the mother tongue. This feeling of clinging to the first ego causes an inhibition on the way of learning the second language. On the other hand, children are naturally egocentric. While learning their language they are not afraid to make mistakes, and in general, they do not feel abashed when they are corrected. Also, their thoughts usually do not surpass their language ability. Adults, on the other hand, usually suffer form a fairly large amount of language learning anxiety. Adults often feel frustrated or threatened in the struggle of learning a different language (Hadley, 2002). Mistakes are seen more as failures then as opportunities for growth.

Another factor which is also much affected by emotional change is motivation. A child's motivation is simple. In order to communicate and to be a part of family and society the child must master the target language. This motivation is quite substantial, especially when compared to the motivation that adults have, or rather, must find. Adult motivations usually fall into one of two categories: integrative motivation (which encourages a learner to acquire the new language in order to become closer to and/or identify themselves with the speakers of the target language) or instrumental motivation (which encourages a learner to acquire proficiency for such practical purposes as becoming a translator, doing further research, and aiming for promotion in their career) (Hadley, 2002). Either one of these types of motivation must be prevalent for successful acquisition to take place.

Another affective factor causing difficulty for the learners is attitude. Since young children are not yet cognitively developed to raise a solid attitude toward a certain races, cultures, ethnic groups, and languages, the attitude that is established when the child grows up and if it is positive can enhance the process of second language learning and vice versa (Ellis, 1994).

Affective variables can act as a mental block, also termed affective filter, and can prevent comprehensible input to be absorbed. When the learner is unmotivated and lacks confidence, the affective filter goes up. When the learner is not anxious and wants to be a member of the group speaking the target language, the filter goes down. Children are at an advantage when learning a first or second language because their affective filter is low while adults are likely to have a higher affective filter due to events that occurred in adolescence as McLaughlin, (1987) articulated.

3-   Social Factors
The social factor also influences the learning of the second language. For children, the language is mostly acquired in a natural context and the social group in which the child is growing. On the other hand, in cases like the Iranian adult learners the context of learning of L2 differs from that of L1 since English is not spoken as a medium of communication outside the confines of the classrooms and yet it is not taught along with the first language in the formal educational system. These social and educational differences play important roles in the learning process.

4-Linguistic Factors
One of the big differences between L1 in a natural setting and L2 learners in the classroom is the input they receive in terms of both in quality and quantity.

The quantity of exposure to a target language a child gets is immense compared to the amount an adult receives. A child hears the language all day every day, whereas an adult learner may only hear the target language in the classroom which could be as little as three hours a week. A child receives a torrent of L1 on a daily basis in a natural way while an L2 learner's exposure to the language he is learning is much more limited.

The behaviorists believe that there is a one to one relationship between input and output which is learning. To get good results learners need to receive proper feedback which is the input. Krashen (1982) has put forward the Input Hypothesis which reveals the importance he places on input. He argues that the learner needs to receive comprehensible input to acquire language. The input a first language learner receives is simple and comprehensible at the beginning and gets slightly more complicated. Krashen believes that input should be slightly above the level of the language learner (i+1). He argues that the second language learner should be exposed to the target language as much as possible and that the lack of comprehensible input will cause the language learner to be held up in his development (Ellis, 1994).

In child-directed speech, the topic first comes from the child's immediate 'here and now' surroundings (Krashen, 1987, p. 23). "Later on it can include things which the child did" (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 24). These egocentric topics enable the child to associate the language with the specific context at hand. On the other hand, in a language classroom, it is quite difficult for the teacher to always come up with something so interesting or so relevant that every student wants to find out more about it (Macnamara, 1975, p. 88).

Another point with the quality of the input received by the two groups of learners is the topics of the interaction. For a child the topics come from the immediate surrounding environment which could then be further linked to things the child did before. In this way the child can make associations between the input and the context of its use.

5-   Cognitive Factors
The one advantage adults seem to have over children is their cognitive ability. Cognitive variable concern an individual's course of intellectual development, and hold several areas to compare first and second language acquisition. For example, an adult learning a second language could benefit from grammatical explanations and deductive thinking, whereas a child learning a first or second language would not. Unfortunately, this slight advantage in ability does not help adult second language acquisition in general. In fact, this ability almost hinders them in that they analyze too much. Specifically, they cannot leave behind what they know about their first language, which leads to a tendency to overanalyze and to second guess what they are learning.

In conclusion, the child's ability to communicate in the target language far surpasses that of the adult. This is due to so many varying factors (i.e., cognitive, affective, linguistic and social factor) which are involved with regard to CPH when a comparison is made between child first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition.

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THE APPLICATION OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT REGARDING TO THE ACQUISITION OF APOLOGY SPEECH ACT BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
Dynamic Assessment, as a new type of language testing, should be combined with different areas of pragmatics. To investigate the application of DA regarding to the acquisition of apology speech act, 143 intermediate Iranian learners from a language institute in Isfahan, Iran were selected randomly and assigned to two Dynamic Assessment and Traditional Assessment groups based on their scores in Oxford Quick Placement Test. Each group participated in a pretest, a posttest and 6 treatment sessions consisted of 6 Discourse Completion Tests. Both groups received a thirty-minute instruction of apology strategies, according to Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) model, after pretest. During the treatment sessions, DA group received mediation, if they answered incorrectly, based on Lantolf and Pehner's (2011) scale; but the basis for TA was independent performance. Paired sample t-test was used to analyze the data for both groups. The findings of this study showed that DA group outperformed TA in the acquisition of apology speech act. Moreover, the learners in DA group became more independent at the end of the course. This study shed some light to the assessment of pragmatics. The results of this area will hopefully contribute the teachers to provide EFL learners with the most fruitful mediation and might help them to produce and understand the apologies properly in different situations.

KEYWORDS: dynamic assessment, apology speech act, traditional assessment, pragmatics, mediation

1. Introduction
There is a great deal of attention to testing by many scholars and language teachers. Language testing is one of the most important areas which have great implications for language teaching. Haywood (1992) believes that the approaches with more interaction have purposeful efforts to produce change in learners.
Lidz and Elliott (2000) confirm that traditional assessment (TA) is concerned with the extent to which it gives reliable and valid estimates of psychological states and traits. Although TA is a product-oriented approach to assessment, the degree to which it can measure learning potential is questionable. Lidz (1987) defines Dynamic Assessment (DA) as an interaction between examiner or intervener and learner or active participant, which wants to estimate the degree of the learner's modifiability and also the means which induce positive changes in cognitive functioning.
According to Ajideh and Nourdad (2012), the thing which makes the difference in both DA and TA is administration procedure instead of assessment instrument, and it is the reason that every test can be regarded as dynamic or traditional. In other words, what makes a procedure dynamic or traditional is whether or not mediation is provided with the assessment process and also the status of tests determined by goal and the format of subsequent administered tests (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).
Speech acts are one of the attractive areas in sociolinguistics and pragmatics, and apology is one of the most frequent speech acts because we deal with it in our daily routines. It functions to restore and keep harmony between a speaker and a hearer. According to Thijittang (2010), producing the appropriate speech act and perceiving the intended meaning of a sentence by somebody else is very essential.

2. Literature Review
2.1. Studies to Dynamic Assessment

Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study was a pioneering study where a mediator used with three learners who were trying to use of tense, modal verbs, prepositions, and articles in their compositions. The mediator met them in the writing class and made revisions on their previously written work. This revision was done on the basis of a regulatory scale which would change from most implicit to most explicit. As Poehner (2005) notes, although their study was not specifically framed as DA, it is possible to consider it within the framework of DA because the mediator attempted to construct a ZPD with the learners, interacting with them to diagnose areas of difficulty and to help them gain control over the relevant structures. In another study, Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) examined the interaction between adult ESL learners and a non-native tutor. Learners progressed in the ZPD through developmentally sensitive assistance in tutoring sessions. In pair-work, the emergence of a ZPD caused both students to perform at a higher level of competence. In the ZPD, a learner performs above his or her level of individual competence with the assistance of another, development occurs as the learner acts with increasing independence.

Haywood and Lidz (2007) in their review of DA application to educational settings assert that "Campion (1989) have been pioneers in their attempts to assess specific academic domains in the framework of DA" (p. 77). Lantolf and Thorne (2006) believe that the whole body of research in this new side of research includes only few studies that focus on L2 learners. They begin their review with the work of Pena and Gillman (2000) who investigated the children's reasoning through DA.

Ableeva (2010) investigated the effects of DA on improving listening comprehension of students learning French as a foreign language and compared the results to a traditional test of listening comprehension. The results indicated that DA showed the sources of poor performance that were hidden during TAs. The results also showed that, through interactions in the ZPD, DA was able to establish not only the actual level of learners' listening ability but also to diagnose their potential development while at the same time promoting this development.

Naeni and Duvall (2012) used a mixed method to study the improvements in reading comprehension performance of 10 university students by applying the mediation of DA approach to instruction and assessment. The mediation phase of their study included three intervention sessions each on one particular reading comprehension sub-skill among three which were finding the main idea, inference, and finding out the meaning of unknown words. Their findings reveal significant improvement in the reading comprehension performance of the participants after the mediation by applying DA.

2.2. Studies to Apology Speech Act

Holmes (1990) made a description of the strategies used by New Zealand speakers of English by using a corpus of 183 apologies collected by students using the ethnographic method. The conclusion of the study stated that there was equality between the instances where a single strategy was used and the ones that included combinations of strategies. According to him, this is due to the nature of the situations, as in the case of more serious offenses there were several categories in apologies, whereas with lighter ones there were mostly single categories. Also, the findings show that almost all the instances included an explicit.

Eslami Rasekh, Eslami Rasekh and Fatahi (2004) conducted a study to find the effect of explicit meta-pragmatic instruction consisting of teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping, role plays and other pragmatically oriented tasks on advanced EFL learners' speech act comprehension. Apologizing was one of the speech acts selected for the study. The results of the study revealed that the learners' speech act comprehension improved significantly, and that explicit meta-pragmatic instruction may facilitate inter-language pragmatic development.

Kuhi and Jadidi (2012) studied on Iranian EFL learners' understanding and production of their speech acts, which the results showed the most frequently used apology strategy by participants was Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID). This finding is in line with Olshtain and Cohen (1983), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain(1984), and Balci's (2009). Also this study showed that the respondents have preferred to use direct apology and they preferred to use negative politeness strategies. The other finding of this study showed male participants' politeness cognitive knowledge was a little bit better than female participants.

There are a few studies on using DA while acquisition of apology, but one of them is Tajeddin and Tayebipour's (2012) study which used request and apology speech acts in DA and NDA groups which DA groups performed significantly better than NDA groups on the pragmatic posttest. However DA has had the same effects as NDA on EFL learners' acquisition of request and apology because when it comes to their per-

formance on the posttest there is obviously a significant difference between DA and NDA. Also they found out that performance of DA groups and NDA groups from the pretest to posttest to delayed posttest was significantly different. Regarding the above findings, for DA groups' better performance; ZPD-sensitive interactions may have been responsible for DA groups' superiority over NDA groups.

3. Statement of the Problem

The majority of learners learning a second or foreign language do not use speech acts in their productive use of language appropriately. There are a lot of factors in this process, such as; lack of appropriate textbooks or attention to the speech acts and it may be because of the way of assessment that affects learning speech acts appropriately. This research tries to explore the impact of a new way of assessment, dynamic one, on the acquisition of apology speech act. Obviously the results of this study can help language teachers and SLA researchers to find better ways of assessment and improve the appropriate use of speech acts among language learners. To achieve these aims, the following question was raised:

Is there any significant difference between DA and TA groups in terms of the acquisition of apology speech act by Iranian EFL learners?

Based on this research question the following null hypothesis was formulated:

There is no difference between DA and TA groups in terms of the acquisition of apology speech act by Iranian EFL learners.

4. Methodology
4.1. Participants

120 intermediate male and female Iranian EFL learners were chosen from a language institute in Isfahan, Iran. All the participants selected randomly from non-English majors in B.A. whose age varied from 18 to 40.

4.2. Instrumentation

1. In order to measure proficiency level of the learners Oxford Quick Placement Test was used to homogenize the sample. 120 learners out of 143 participants were chosen after OQPT. The researchers ordered them alphabetically and even numbers were classified as DA group and odd numbers were classified as TA group.

2. According to the studies conducted on dynamic assessment and apology speech act illustrated in the literature review, there are significant differences, and even contradictions, from one study to another in using methods. But Discourse Completion Test (DCT), as the second instrument of this study, is a combination of instruments (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993). Variables of this study were providing DA strategies by teachers and using apology strategies by learners. Every DCT consisted of 6 questions for both pre- and posttest, taken from Istifci (2009, appendix A), and also 6 questions for every 6 treatment sessions, taken from Bataineh and Bataineh (2006). Every question described a situation then asked the learner to provide a response according to each situation.

4.3. Procedure

The course was 15 sessions and every session was 90 minutes. OQPT was administered at the first session and 120 learners out of 143 participants were chosen based on their scores in this test, and they were classified into DA (experimental) group and TA (control) group. Pretest was administered at the second session to both groups. After pretest, apology strategies, based on Olshtain and Cohen's (1983, appendix B) model, were taught in thirty minutes to both groups and then the teacher gave some examples from problem solving sections of Step Forward book series. In every 6 treatment sessions, the learners answered 6 questions. Control group received no feedback, but if the learners of DA group answered incorrectly, the teacher would provide them feedback based on Lantolf and Poehner's (2011) scale, which are as follows: 1. Teacher pauses 2. Teacher repeats the whole phrase questioningly 3. Teacher repeats just the error part of the sentence 4. Teacher asks a question, for example: what is wrong with this sentence? 5. Teacher points out the incorrect word 6. Teacher asks either…or… questions 7. Teacher identifies the correct answer and 8. Teacher explains why. As it is clear, the first form is the most implicit while the last one is the most explicit form in providing mediation for DA groups.

Here's a situation and the provided feedback for a learner in DA group:

''You showed up an hour late for a meeting with all your colleagues. What do you do?''

Student: Sorry.

Teacher: Sorry? (the second form of mediation)

Student: I'm sorry.
Teacher: Is there any other way to answer? (the fourth form of mediation)
Student: Excuse me.
Teacher: Good. And isn't it better to give your reason? (the fourth form of mediation)
(The student read the question again.)
Student: Yes. There was a traffic jam.
Student: Excuse me. There was a traffic jam.

4.4. Data Analysis
This study attempts to investigate using DA with regard to the acquisition of apology strategies. The scores of OPT were analyzed by IBM SPSS version 22. The researcher read the written answers of DCT and decided on the type of apology based on a scale adopted from Taguchi (2006) ranging from 0 to 5:
1. 0 shows no performance at all;
2. 1 shows very poor performance (very difficult expressions to understand);
3. 2 shows poor performance (difficult determination of correctness because of the interference from grammatical and sociolinguistic errors);
4. 3 shows fair performance (somewhat correct and appropriate sentences);
5. 4 shows good (mostly correct and appropriate expressions); and
6. 5 shows excellent performance (fully correct and appropriate expressions for the situation).
Descriptive statistics including minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation was calculated to answer the research question. Also for inferential statistics a paired sample t-test was used to compare two groups in their pre- and posttests.

5. Results
5.1. The Results of OQPT
OQPT was administered at the first session of the course and 120 learners were chosen based on their scores in this test. To have a random sample, the participants were ordered alphabetically and each learner had a number. Then even numbers were classified as DA group and odd numbers as TA group. Table 1 shows that the mean score of OPT was 57.24.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of OQPT

	N	Mean	SD
OQPT	120	57.24	21.69

5.2. The Effect of DA on Acquisition of Apology Speech Act
The main goal of this research was to examine the application of the DA in acquisition of apology speech act. In order to assess the internal consistency of the data obtained in pre- and post-test, item score on the DA and TA groups was tested with Cronbach's alpha yielding a reliability score of 0.83 (table 2). Reliability is expressed as a statistical index which its values are ranging from 0 (unreliable) to 1 (highly reliable). It is generally accepted that an internal consistency alpha of .70 is satisfactory, and that an alpha of .80 or higher is desirable.

Table 2. Reliability Statistics in Pre- and Post-Test between DA and NDA groups

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.83	.85	2

In order to make sure that there was no significant difference between DA and TA groups at the beginning of the study, an independent sample t-test was used. Table 3 shows the results of this test.

Table 3. Independent Sample T-Test for Equality of Groups

Technique	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	P
DA	60	58.7	22.57	118	0.8	0.42
TA	60	55.5	21.18			

As presented in table 3, the results of the t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean score of the two groups at the beginning of the study (P>0.05). So DA and TA groups did not differ significantly before the mediation.

In this study, there were 6 questions in DCT for both pretest and posttest which were taken from Istifci (2009). In the area of interlanguage, a significant difference in pretest to posttest scores is interpreted as learning.

The research question was concerned with the difference between DA and TA groups in acquisition of apology speech act, two sub-questions had to be addressed:
1. Sub-question 1: the difference between DA and TA in the pre test
2. Sub question 2: the difference between DA and TA in the post test

To answer the first sub-question, a comparison between DA and TA scores indicates that there was a difference between both groups, but not a significant one in the pretest. As table 4 shows the mean score of DA group is 51.32 (SD=17.45) but the mean score of TA group is 49.26 (SD=17.44).

Table 4 . Descriptive Statistics of Pretests in Both Groups

	Assessment Technique	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	DA	60	23.33	83.33	51.32	17.45
Pretest	TA	60	8.66	78.00	49.26	17.74

Answering the second sub-question needs a look at table 5, which shows the scores of DA and NDA groups in posttest. As it is shown, the DA group significantly outperformed TA group. The mean score of DA group is 67.43, which is higher than its mean score in pretest (52.58). Although the mean score of NDA in posttest was 52.58, it did not greatly change in comparison to its mean score in pretest (49.26).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Posttest in Both Groups

	Assessment Technique	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	DA	60	36.66	93.33	67.43	14.36
Posttest	TA	60	16.66	86.66	52.58	18.32

Table 6 shows a comparison between the groups in their pre- and posttest based on a paired sample t-test. Sig. (2-tailed) is probability (p) value. If this value is less than 0.05, it is possible to conclude that there is a significant difference between the two scores. As table 4.6 shows for DA group, T value is 12.39 and df is 59. The mean difference in the two scores was 16.1 with a 95 percent confidence interval stretching from a lower bound of 13.5 to an upper bound of 18.71.

For TA group, T value is 8.48 and df is 59. The mean difference in the two scores was 3.32 with a 95 percent confidence interval stretching from a lower bound of 2.53 to an upper bound of 4.1.

Table 6. Paired Sample T-Test for Both Groups in Pre- and Post-test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pretest DA – Posttest DA	16.1	10.07	1.3	13.5	18.71	12.39	59	.00
Pair 2	Pretest TA – Posttest TA	3.32	3.03	.39	2.53	4.1	8.48	59	.00

As the analysis of data in pretest and posttest in both DA and TA groups showed, although there was no significant difference between DA and TA groups in the pretest, DA group significantly outperformed TA group in posttest. Therefore, the research hypothesis was rejected because Iranian EFL learners in DA and TA groups were different in terms of acquisition of apology speech act.

6. Discussion

The goal of this research was to explore the application of DA regarding to the acquisition of apology speech act among Iranian EFL learners. Participants of this study were 120 intermediate male and female students of a Language Institute, Isfahan, Iran. Based on their scores on OQPT, they were classified into two DA and TA groups. Both groups participated in pre-test, six treatment sessions, and posttest which all were DCTs. As the result shows the procedure is feasible and effective in obtaining information on students' learning potential. Moreover, students with similar performance levels demonstrate different abilities to use apology strategies. Therefore, it is clear that DA is useful in acquisition of apology speech act respecting different types of feedback ranging from the most explicit to the most implicit one.

This study was designed to find an answer to the research question. It was to see the difference between DA and TA groups in acquisition of apology speech act by Iranian EFL learners. The answer to the research question of the present study was positive as DA group differed significantly from TA group from pretest to posttest. Also, DA had a positive effect on learners in posttest, even for those with lower scores in pretest.

The findings of this study about DA were in line with the results of the previous studies in the literature for example, Poehner (2005), Ableeva (2010), Naeni and Duvall (2012), and Ajideh and Nourdad (2012). But not much study has been found about the application of DA an apology speech act. Tajeddin and Tayebipour (2012) believe that the performance of DA and NDA groups from the pretest to posttest was significantly different. Therefore, this change indicates that DA has an effect on learning.

As it was shown in the literature review, all of the studies confirmed the positive effect of DA in improving learners' performance (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Poehner, 2005; Haywood & Lidz, 2007; Ableeva, 2010). Also in Iranian context the researchers affirmed the improving role of application of DA in their instructions (Ajideh & Nourdad, 2012; Naeni & Duvall, 2012).

7. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the application of DA regarding to Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of apology speech act. The participants' pre- and post-test results proved that when apology strategies are mediated to the participants appropriately, they helped improve the learners' acquisition of apology effectively. The participants were able to take the strategies learned from appropriate mediation a step further and apply them to the posttest. With regard to the DA, the following conclusions were reached:

The analysis of the results highlighted the advantages of application of DA over TA in learners' performance. The first advantage is the development of learners' independent performance and their abilities as a result in mediation which helps them in future. The second advantage is the integration of instruction and assessment which provides opportunities for learners' development not only from past to present, but also into future based on each learner's ZPD. The third advantage is that DA does not focus on temporary effects of learning, but it tries to make permanent changes in the learners which lead into their development.

It was also concluded that DA group brought about stable changes from pretest to posttest because they received feedback ranging from the most explicit to the most implicit. This feedback gave learners an opportunity to have ZPD-sensitive interactions which were resulted in their better performance. However, the changes in TA group were not very significant because they received no feedback. But the main point to keep in mind is that DA is not just imitation, because the feedback in DA not only should be standard and meaningful but also should be at the appropriate level based on learners' ZPDs. Therefore, the goal of DA is that learners learn performance on a task by the help of mediator not to help learners a task.

The findings of this study can have useful implication in all educational contexts including foreign language learning and teaching especially curriculum designers and assessors because the main goal of such studies is to make decisions and to take effective steps for learners' development based on individualized instructional plans.

As a study of some initial and promising attempts, there are still some uncertainties and limitations of it. Every dynamic assessment includes an element of intervention which is added based on the quality of mediation provided by the assessor, so it is closer to instruction rather than examination. The results of the study showed both learning potential of learners and quality of mediation provided during the assessment. One may always suspect that another assessor with a different kind of mediation might reveal different patterns of learning in the same group of students. Thus, a study of reliability of Learning Potential Score (LPS), which is the gain between the pretests and posttests (Kozulin & Garb 2002), would be necessary during assessment sessions conducted by different mediators.

Unfortunately, researchers and practitioners in this field are generally not aware of the large pool of data that is available on the topic. As world populations become more and more diverse, there is a growing need for more targeted research in this area.

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Appendix A. Pretest and Posttest

Read these shorts descriptions of each situation; write the responses in the spaces provided.

1. You made an appointment with your lecturer at his office. But you're 30 minutes late because you'd got a traffic jam. You knock on the door, go in, and say the professor …..

2. You borrowed a Compact Disc from your friend. One day, your friend asked the CD but when you wanted to return it, the CD was lost, you couldn't find it.

3. You visit your friend at his/her house. Accidentally you hit his/her ceramics and break it. What would you say to your friend?

4. At a restaurant, you are carrying your meal to your table. When you are walking between tables, you stumble, and your soup spills over an elderly lady's blouse. That's clearly your fault; how do you apologize to her for the accident?

5. You're at a meeting and you say something that one of the participants interprets as a personal insult to him. He says, 'I feel that your last remark was directed at me and I take offense'. How do you react?

6. Rushing to get to class on time, you round into the elevator, and step on someone's foot that you know as one of the lecturers at the university. What is your reaction?

Appendix B. Apology Strategies

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) provide a classification of apology strategies into five main categories:

1. An expression of an apology. In this principle the speaker uses a number of expressions such as;

a. An expression of regret, e.g. "I'm sorry"
b. An offer of apology, e.g. "I apologize"
c. A request for forgiveness, e.g. "Pardon me", "Excuse me"

2. Acknowledgement of responsibility. It is used when the offender recognizes his/her fault and he/she feels responsible for the offence. The recognition level consists of:

a. Accepting the blame, e.g. "It's my fault"
b. Expressing self-deficiency, e.g. "I was confused", "I didn't see you", "I was thinking"
c. Expressing lack of intention, e.g. "I didn't mean to"
d. Recognizing of deserving apology, e.g. "You are right"

3. An offer to repair. It is something to do with physical injury or other damage resulting from the speaker's infraction, e.g. "I'll buy for the lost book", and "Would you be willing to reschedule the meeting?"

4. An explanation or account of the situation. The offence explains the situation that brings about him/her to do an indirect way of apologizing. For instance, "There was a terrible traffic jam", "The bus was delayed"

5. A promise of forbearance. The offender promise not to do the offense again, e.g. "It won't happen again".

COLLOCATION INSTRUCTION, VOCABULARY LEARNING, AND READING COMPREHENSION AMONG IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL SOPHOMORS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the role of teaching collocations in enhancing foreign language reading proficiency and vocabulary learning. Students of high school level are facing a variety of problems entailing difficulties that make developing reading proficiency a tough task. One major problem is lack of appropriate vocabulary which could be related to Learners' unfamiliarity with collocations. Thus, a major concern in this study was to check if there is a causal relationship between teaching and learning collocations and developing reading comprehension proficiency. To pursue the research objectives, a reading comprehension test along with a vocabulary test was administered to check sample homogeneity regarding vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension ability. Results of the post tests after the treatment was offered supported a strong effect for teaching and learning collocations on reading comprehension and vocabulary expansion. Regarding the findings and in light of enhancing EFL reading comprehension development, a teaching approach to reading comprehension with an emphasis on developing collocational competence is suggested.

KEYWORDS: Collocations, reading comprehension, vocabulary

1. Introduction

Collocations have been defined in various ways following different viewpoints of the concept. However, the most commonly accepted definition centers on the tendency of one word to co-occur with one or more words within some semantic domain (Hsu, 2007; Nesselhauf, 2003). For example, catch a cold and severe cold are two commonly used word combination that qualify as collocations. The verb catch and the adjective severe recurrently co-occur with the noun cold. Many scholars have maintained that collocational knowledge is an important factor that leads to the differences between native speakers and foreign language learners (Aston, 1995; Fillmore, 1979). The strongest position held so far is that competence in collocations is an indispensable component in the process of second/foreign language acquisition (Lewis, 1997, 2000; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Richards & Rogers, 2000; Nation, 1990, 2001).

Lexical approaches in language teaching point out a centrality for the lexicon to language structure, foreign language learning, and in particular to multiword lexical units or "chunks" that are learned and used as single items. Linguistic theory has even recognized a more central role for vocabulary in linguistics. Formal transformational/generative linguistics, which previously took syntax as the primary focus, now gives more attention to the lexicon and how the lexicon is formatted, and organized. Chomsky, the father of contemporary studies in syntax, has recently adopted a primary role for lexicon in language learning processes.

While searching for effective ways to improve learner's reading comprehension proficiency, many scholars have proposed that a good control of collocations can help foreign language learners to comprehend passages more easily (Brown, 1994, Ellis & Schmidth, 1997). Therefore, collocational knowledge can be a key element in improving the learners' reading comprehension abilities .Furthermore, collocational competence is often recognized as an important component of vocabulary acquisition (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Lew-

is 1993, 2000), which might contribute to a better understanding of specific difficulties encountered by learners of different mother tongues. Research into collocational competence is conducted in two directions. Some researchers are concerned with direct tests of collocations. The other research direction focus on the investigating of data extracted from corpora of authentic learner language.

The role of lexical units has been emphasized in both first and second language acquisition research. These studies have focused on collocations as lexical items and multiple word units. Researchers have directed people's attention to EFL vocabulary acquisition and began to emphasize the instruction of vocabulary in classroom practices (Chanell, 1981; McCarthy, 1984; Nation, 1990; Nattinger, 1980). Among them, perhaps the most important one, Lewis (1993), suggested an innovative teaching method, the Lexical Approach, and brought the field to systematically examine the nature of lexis in second language acquisition. He highly argued that "language consist of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalized grammar" (Lewis, 1993, p. vi). In Lewis' view, learning collocations, the key component of grammaticalised lexis, is equal to language learning.

Due to academic requirements, reading comprehension has been recently given as very crucial role in Iranian high school English curriculum design. However, high school students seem to have lots of difficulties in reading comprehension as indicated in their test scores. Even students with good ideas often lose marks because they don't know the most important collocations that are central to reading comprehension. On the other hand, the researchers' teaching experiences show that students are not even familiar with different collocational patterns in English (Carrell & Grabe, 2002; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Ediger, 2001).

Consequently, it is advised to teach students of foreign languages the right associations of words to raise their proficiency in English generally and in reading specifically. As it is claimed by Lewis Michael (2000), collocations should be taught because they build the central part of vocabulary. It is believed that language acquisition takes place when the learner is able to analyze the language into lexical 'chunks'. In other words, learning English collocations would make the students' choice in multiple-choice items be the best. Collocations give learners the most natural way to say something: *smoking is strictly forbidden* is more natural than *smoking is strongly forbidden.* So, collocations are prefabricated chunks that are already saved in the learners' memory. It is these chunks which are retrieved by the language learners when they try to comprehend the passages. In this respect, vocabulary learning is a central point in language acquisition while grammar is considered as a secondary factor that aims at organizing chunks of vocabulary. This is because grammar is not sufficient, it is always instructed but students make grammatical errors even in collocating words.

Eventually, collocations need to be taught so that the learners would be aware of them because they would help learners not only to understand lexis but also to comprehend passages more effectively when they read them. Teaching collocations would provide the learner with a helpful device in answering multiple-choice items. It can facilitate the task of answering such items by making it easier and more comprehensible.

In receptive skills, the purpose of vocabulary learning is mostly reading or listening comprehension. Therefore, the major purpose of this study is to investigate the role of collocation instruction on reading comprehension. This study also examines the role of teaching collocation on vocabulary learning.

2. Significance and Objective of the Study

Although knowledge of collocation has been found to have a salient role in learning a second/foreign language as elaborated in the literature review section, it was found that no study has ever been conducted on the effect of teaching collocations on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in Iranian high school settings. As it was elaborated in the literature section, studies focusing the effect of collocation instruction on reading and vocabulary have been generally limited to university contexts. From a methodological perspective, high school classroom instructors seem to be enthusiastic to know how to implement the teaching of collocations in an efficient way and to what extent collocation knowledge relates to language proficiency in general and reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in particular. Thus, the current study is an attempt to address these needs as a very small part of an overall movement towards enhancing the quality of English study in public education.

3. Research Questions

Even though EFL students in academic settings may also have problems in associating words, students of high school level struggle more with learning vocabularies based on their test scores. This may be due to their ignorance of collocations and the interference of their mother tongue. Examining the students' vocabulary and reading comprehension assignments, one can quickly notice the "mis-collocations" that are wide-

spread. This reflects their lack of proficiency in the target language. Thus the research questions are as follows:

1. Is there any causal relationship between collocation instruction and L2 reading comprehension among Iranian high school sophomores?
2. Is there any causal relationship between collocation teaching and vocabulary learning among Iranian high school sophomores?

4. Review of Literature

The review of the related history has mostly examined the possible connection between knowledge of collocation and English proficiency. One of the early publications belongs to R. Aprijask and E. Pareigyte (1982) who investigated frequent lexical errors of Lithuanian learners of English. The analysis of collocations was seen as a first step in the description of collocational competence of Lithunian learners of English and was limited to a certain sort of collocations. Firstly , it focused on *verb + noun (object)* collocations which have the highest frequency in the English language , i.e. HAVE , DO , MAKE , TAKE and GIVE .Secondly, the analysis was concerned with the lexical use of the verbs when they combine with direct objects and build phrases whose meaning largely depend on the meaning of the noun. The study showed that many lexical errors could be traced in the L1 language.

One of the largest research projects in this area, representing different mother tongue backgrounds, was initiated by S. Granger (2001). Collocations, in particular, were analyzed by Altenberg and Granger (2001) who detected collocations with the delexical MAKE produced by French learners. Their study indicated that errors of collocations can often be attributed to the influence of the mother tongue.

Al-Zahrani (1998) studied the knowledge of English lexical collocations among four academic levels of Saudi EFL university students and the relationship between the participants' collocational knowledge and their general language proficiency. In his study, the collocational knowledge of 81 Saudi male university English majors was assessed by a cloze test consist of 50 "verb + noun" lexical collocations. Furthermore, the participants' general English proficiency was measured by a writing test and a paper-and-pencil TOEFL test. Al-Zahrani realized that there was a significant difference in his subjects' knowledge of lexical collocations among the different academic years. The knowledge of lexical collocations increased with the subjects' academic years. Besides, he reported that there was a causal correlation between the subjects' knowledge of collocations and their overall language proficiency.

Lin (2002) in a two-week course introduced 8 collocation activities (such as brainstorming for collocates of a word, highlighting verb-noun collocations, and matching game) to her 89 senior high school students to examine the effects of collocation instruction on Taiwanese EFL learners' vocabulary development. Lin reported that the learners were found to have improved in both their receptive and productive competence after receiving the systematic instruction on collocations.

In contrast with Lin (2002), Tseng (2002) explored the effects of direct collocation instruction on both vocabulary improvement and writing performance. In a 12 week period, Tseng instructed ninety-four senior high school students in two groups, the experimental group (receiving collocation instruction) and the control group (no collocation instruction). She benefited some of the Liu's (2000) activities on collocation, including introduction of collocations, collocations without L1 equivalents, and added two more teaching activities in her study, i.e., using collocation dictionaries and identifying collocations in the textbook. All the subjects in both groups accomplished three kinds of tasks: (1) a questionnaire, (2) a pre- and post-instruction fill-in-the-blank collocation test, and (3) a pre- and post-instruction composition. Although the participants did not show obvious improvement in their performance on the composition after receiving the collocation instruction, Tseng reported that the collocation instruction somewhat improved the subjects' vocabulary development. Her finding was somehow different from Lin's (2002) study in which Lin reported her students' progress in "collocation competences" (p. 85).

Lien (2003) investigated the effects of collocation instruction especially on reading comprehension. A total of 85 Taiwanese university students, at three academic levels, participated in her study. In the pre-experimental stage, each student took one fill-in-the-blank collocation test and a reading comprehension pre-test. The collocation test and reading comprehension pre-test were administered in order to explore the relationship between knowledge of collocations and reading comprehension in the experimental stage, all subjects at the three academic levels received three types of instruction. The subjects then took a reading comprehension post-test. In this stage, a questionnaire was administered to collect the subjects' attitudes. The major findings of the study comprised: 1. Collocational knowledge was associated with reading comprehension; 2. The sub-

jects performed better after receiving collocation instruction compared with the other typed of instruction ; and 3. The subjects also reported positive attitude toward the direct teaching of collocations

Koosha and Jafarpour (2006) showed the difficulties language learners face while learning English collocations. The study found the following results. First, learners' performance on grammatical collocation was exhibited to be positively related to their level of proficiency. Second, the analysis of the errors of collocations showed that a great number of collocational errors can be traced to L1 influence.

5. Methodology

5.1. Population and Sample of the Experiment

The sample population, as mentioned above, consisted of two groups of second year male students at a high school in Eghlid, Farse province. One group was randomly considered as the experimental group and the other one as the control group. They represented the whole population of second year students with 35 students in each group.

5.2. Instruments

A reading comprehension test which consisted of 5 reading passages was administered for both pre- and post-testing. Each passage on the test had 8 multiple-choice items. A vocabulary test which consisted of 40 items and a collocation exercise composed of 20 questions were also administered along with the reading comprehension test in both occasions.

5.3. Data Collection Procedures

The treatment for the experimental group was that of explicit collocation teaching. Before the beginning of the treatment, the collocation test was administered. This assessment was implemented to detect students' weaknesses in different collocation patterns and to exert instructional programs on the students' weaknesses. Then the learners were given some information about collocations, their importance and the way they are going to learn them. Therefore, the learners were aware of teaching and learning collocations. Finally, while learners' attention was drawn to collocations, the instruction began via variety of techniques and exercises such as highlighting the most common collocations within texts. The whole treatment period took 8 weeks. The effect of teaching collocation on reading achievement and vocabulary learning would be checked based on learners' scores on the reading comprehension and vocabulary tests.

5.4. Data Analysis

Two matched t-tests would give an image of improvement and progress in reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. In addition, an independent t-test would be the means by which the two groups' performance in reading comprehension and vocabulary learning would be compared.

6. Results and Discussion

At first the reliabilities of the tests used in the study are reported. The Kudar-Richardson method (KR-21) of estimating reliabilities was used and the reliability of the tests was .82.

6.1. The First Question

The first question aimed at investigating the relation between learning collocations and reading comprehension proficiency. This was done by comparing the results of the pre and post-test of the experimental group and the results of the control group.

Before subjecting the data to pared samples test to establish matching and randomization group, an independent sample t-test was employed to see whether two groups differ from each other. The t-test revealed a non-significant value (P<.876), confirming the matching of groups in the pre-test situation.

First the results of the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental group are indicated in the following table by conducting the paired samples test as follows:

Table 1: results of the reading comprehension pre and post tests of the experimental group

	Paired Differences						
			95% Confidence Interval				Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair1	-2.54286	2.23400	-3.31026	-1.7754	-6.734	34	.000

According to the table above, there is a significant difference within the two tests, the set significance value (p<.05) is greater than the calculated significance (p<.000).Therefore, the main hypothesis of the study was retained. Consequently, there is a causal relationship between collocations learning and reading comprehension proficiency.

The results of the pre-test and post-test of the control group are also indicated in the following table.

Table2: results of the reading comprehension pre and post tests of the control group

	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 2	.42857	2.83918	.47991	-.54672	1.40386	.893	34	.378

From the table above, it is remarked that there is no significant difference between the two tests. It shows that no change has occurred within control group scores, and the students' problem regarding reading comprehension still exists.

To make sure of the correctness of the study hypothesis, the post-test scores of the experimental group compared with that of the control group in the following table by conducting an independent samples t-test.

Table3: results of the reading comprehension post tests of experimental and control group

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.000	.998	5.141	68	.000	2.9142	1.7831	4.0454
Equal variances not assumed			5.141	67.84	.000	2.9142	1.7831	4.0454

The results of the table above indicate that there is a significant between the pre- tests of the two groups. Therefore, the main hypothesis of the study, which claimed there is a correlation between learning collocations and reading comprehension, was retained once more.

6.2. The Second Question

The second question investigated the relationship between collocation teaching and vocabulary learning. To detect this question the results of the vocabulary pre and post-tests of the experimental group were compared with those of the control group.

First the results of the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental group are indicated in the following table by conducting paired samples test as follows:

Table 4: results of the vocabulary pre and post- tests of the experimental group

	Paired Differences						
	Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	-2.72857	.77973	-2.99642	-2.4607	-20.70	34	.000

As indicated in table 4, there is a significant difference between the two tests. Therefore, the second hypothesis is retained at both levels of significance. In other words, the treatment had a large effect on the experimental group. Consequently, there is a causal relationship between the two variables: collocations instructing and general vocabulary learning.

The results of the pre-test and post-test of the control group are also indicated in the following table as follows:

Table 5: results of the vocabulary pre and post tests of the control group

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 2	.10000	1.78144	.3011	-.5119	.71195	.332	34	.742

From the table above it is remarked that the scores result were not good and there was no significant difference between the two tests. The calculated significance is .742 which is very large. It shows that collocation treatment could effect if there was any, as it was so for experimental group. Finally, a strong correlation exists between mis-collocations and vocabulary learning according to the statistics above.

To compare the results of the experimental post-test with the post-test of the control group an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results are indicated in the following table.

Table 6: results of the vocabulary post tests of experimental and control group

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
						Mean Difference	95%	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig		lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.011	.916	5.966	67	.000	3.39412	2.2586	4.5296
Equal variances not assumed			5.961	66.4	.000	3.39412	2.2573	4.5308

The results of the two post-tests indicate that the set level of significant (p<0.05) is greater than the significant value given by the computer.

In short, although the scores of students' reading comprehension and vocabulary examinations were not all good, all the students in the experimental group took better scores in their examinations which were the aim behind teaching collocations. On the contrary, in the control group the student's comprehension of both reading and vocabulary was too limited; therefore, their scores were lower than that of the experimental group. Consequently, teaching collocations influenced students' reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. The results indicate that there is a relationship between students' reading proficiency and collocations. As indicated statistically, a strong correlation exists between the two mentioned variables.

Statistical differences were clear indicators of the changes that occurred within the reading and vocabulary learning of the experimental group after teaching collocations. Although the results of the pre-test showed a limited knowledge of vocabulary as well as a low proficiency in reading in both groups, the post-test's findings denoted the existence of a causal relationship between collocations' learning and reading proficiency.

The evidence is that teaching collocations to the students through the experiment has enhanced their collocational competence, limited their mis-collocations and increased their awareness of joining words together in a consecutive systematic process.

Concllosion

Statistical analysis indicated that a significant positive correlation exists between learning collocations and reading proficiency. Students did not right proficiently because they had not been taught collocations. According to their claim, they did not even know that there is a dictionary of collocations. Thus, it was realized that a great problem concerning which word goes with which exists. The research hypotheses were confirmed by the post-test. Students' examinations were examined and scored carefully so that each student in both groups got three scores: the first one was related to collocations whereas the second and the third to vocabulary and reading proficiency respectively. By counting the correlations of the mentioned variables it was proved that teaching collocations made a difference within the experimental group. Students found the right collocations in their examinations because they became aware of the fact that learning collocations could improve their reading and vocabulary learning and make them more natural. Therefore, it is advocated that collocations should be included in the reading syllabus so that collocational competence could be developed in order to increase students' communicative competence. Eventually, reading proficiency as well as vocabulary learning would be enhanced.

The findings of the present study can have implications not only for teachers and learners, but also for syllabus designers. Explicit instruction of collocations has to be involved in English teaching curricula where the focus is on raising learners' awareness of word combinations. In addition, the use of collocations dictionaries must be emphasized. Also, high school students need to be guided by teachers who encourage learning of collocations in reading. Moreover, vocabulary would be better required if it is taught as a separate modules, not through other modules because this is not sufficient. The study proof is that although vocabulary is taught through other modules like oral expression and literature or civilization, the majority of students do not know collocations. The study, however, is limited by syllabus content and time constraints. Reforms concerning the teaching of reading comprehension which takes collocations into account have to be enhanced by much more generalized studies.

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THE IMPACT OF TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH THEIR STORIES ON MOTIVATION, ATTITUDES OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Among the variety of commonly used vocabulary reinforcing techniques, making students aware of etymological accounts of words is a relatively under-researched area in the literature. The present study aimed at exploring the effect of teaching vocabulary through related stories of 40 new target words on the students' motivation for and attitudes toward learning English.The participants (n=50) were members of two elementary intact high school classes assigned to experimental and control groups through a quasi-experimental design. Both groups were presented and practiced with the target words, but the participants in the experimental group were presented with the stories behind the words. The results of the posttest Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) , demonstrated the mnemonic efficacy of the word story presentation. The article comes to an end by offering a justification of the linkage between the obtained results and the existing psycholinguistic theories.

KEYWORDS: *vocabularies ,word stories, motivation, attitude.*

Introduction

Learning vocabulary has always been a major concern for language learners, and it is considered by many to be one of the two main components of language teaching. Without some knowledge of vocabulary, neither language production nor language comprehension would be possible (Nation, 2008).Studies have shown that reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledgeare strongly correlated,and researchers have found that word knowledge in primary school can predict how well students will be able to comprehend texts they read in high school. Limited vocabularies prevent students from comprehending a text. Thus the growth of vocabulary knowledge is one of the essential pre-requisites for language acquisition and this growth of vocabulary knowledge can only be possible when teachers employ effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies.

Motivation and attitudes of the learners toward learning English are important factors in language learning. Many researches show that Iranian high school students do not perform well in English classrooms at least partly because they lack the appropriate motivation that could help them develop useful movements and in turn it can lead them to success in English language learning.The homogeneous monolingual society of Iran is not a favorable environment for learning English. In Iranian context, where English-language education is crucially important and is facing an urgent need for reform, considering the attitudes and motivation of the learners is essential .Motivating EFL students to develop in the target language is quite complex. In many cases, these students face difficulties in learning English and are often demotivated to learn. Dörnyei(1998) assures us that motivation is prior to other variables in learning a foreign language, claiming that motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 … all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent. He declares that without sufficient motivation, even

individuals with most remarkable ability cannot accomplish long-term goals. Language attitude is also an important concept that plays a key role in language learning and teaching. A successful learner is the one who possesses positive attitudes towards the target language.

In majority of high schools and universities in Iran, English is taught to non-English major students in the form of general English which is not necessarily related to the learners' majors. They endure English classes only to accumulate enough credits to graduate. There are high rates of failure and students are largely un-motivated to learn English and often have negative attitudes towards learning English. Then it can be said that engagement with the vocabulary stories may increase their motivations and develop positive attitudes toward ESL. But when reviewing papers about motivation, attitudes and vocabulary, it is found that these fields are relatively well developed and Vocabulary learning has been studied and investigated in many studies, but there was no work covering the students' motivation and attitude when they are taught vocabulary through their stories (as a branch of etymology)and it is seldom touched. This study is quite innovative as it seeks high school students' views on motivation and attitudes after teaching vocabulary through their stories and origins, a topic that is not rigorously studied in Iranian contexts.

Literature Review
Vocabulary Learning
People need to have lexical repertoire to understand written texts, articles, magazines, and so on. They also need to have adequate words to handling written messages; listening texts, and conversations. Vocabulary learning has an extremely important role in English language learning (Chen & Chun, 2008; Shoebottom,2007). This is because the more words that students know, the more they are able to understand what they hear and read, hence the better they are able to say what they want when speaking or writing (Shoebottom, 2007). Problems might occur if one does not know the right word to decode his/ her message. The statement also entails that one could not read or listen without the knowledge of vocabulary (Herbertson, 2010).Thus it can be undoubtedly identified that when L2 language learners who need to master a target language, there is inevitably a great amount of vocabulary or lexical items to be encountered and learned.

Motivation
Motivation is the most used concept for explaining the failure or success of a learner. The studies of SLA all reveal the fact that motivation is one of the main factors which affects success of the language learner. Lifrieri (2005) points out that when asked about the factors which influence individual levels of success in any activity – such as language learning –, most people would certainly mention motivation among them. Brown (2000) maintains that it is easy in second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation. With similar views, Gardner (2006) states that students with higher levels of motivation will do better than students with lower levels. He explains more that "if one is motivated, he/she has reasons (motives) for engaging in the relevant activities, expends effort, persists in the activities, attends to the tasks, shows desire to achieve the goal, enjoys the activities, etc" (p. 243). Dornyei (1998) posits that motivation is a key to learning. It is an inner source, desire, emotion, reason, need, impulse or purpose that moves a person to a particular action. Cook (1996) found that the usual meaning of motivation for the teacher is probably the interest that something generates in the students and it relates to the attitudes of children towards the target language, as these are rooted in their minds and their background.
Then the importance of motivation in enhancing second/foreign language learning is undeniable.

Attitudes
Attitudes play important role in FLL. Foreign language researchers have dedicated a considerable amount of time and energy to the exploration of learner attitudes .The general congruency among research-ers' findings rests on the idea that positive attitudes increase learners' interest in the study of foreign lan-guage. Oxford (1990) maintains that learners' attitudes, positive or negative, impact their choice of language learning strategies, the specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques a learner uses to improve her compre-hension, internalization and use of her L2. ─Negative attitudes and beliefs often cause poor strategy use or lack of orchestration of strategies, Oxford says, causing learners to experience feelings of disappointment or failure as language learners and further attempt to disengage from the second language learning process. Karahan (2007, p.84) states that "positive language attitudes let learner have positive orientation towards learning English". Accordingly, attitudes may play a very crucial role in language learning as they would

appear to influence students' success or failure in their learning. In educational psychology, attitudes are considered strongly determinative of academic achievement. For example, Klausmeier asserts that "attitudes influence how well students learn and how they behave" (1985,p. 375) and he clarifies the point with an example – high school students with positive attitudes toward mathematics take optional courses in mathematics, whereas those with negative attitudes take only the required courses.

Vocabulary Stories

One of the most fascinating aspects of words is that all have a past. As we know there are many words that have a story behind and it has been shown that dealing with the stories grow positive attitudes and increase learner motivation in the study of a foreign language. Yet, few researchers have investigated the effects on learner attitudes and motivation in the implementing this model in vocabulary instruction. This field of study is a subdivision of etymology.Etymology can be defined as the systematic study of the birth, historical perspective, and time to time changes in the forms and implications of words (Ross, 1962). The study of the etymology of the English language words is an interesting and useful area. Moreover, it helps the students develop the interest about the etymology of English words. This may assist the ESL teachers to provide the guidelines in the classroom effectively. Knowing about the origin of the English words is a valuable asset for L2 learners; it could benefit L2 instruction too.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions generated to guide and achieve the objectives have been designed as follow:
Q1.Does teaching vocabulary through related stories have any impact on the attitudes and motivation of the Iranian high school students?
Q2. What are the students attitude toward the technique of telling word stories in the classroom?

Based on the research questions, the following hypothesis was proposed to predict the results:

H_01: Teaching vocabulary through their stories doesn't have any impact on the high school student's motivation and attitudes toward learning English as a foreign language.

Methodology

As the grouping of the participants was based on intact classes, the schematic design of the present study was a quasi-experimental one. After administering the pretest and excluding some of the students from both classes as outliers, the participants of the first class assigned to the experimental group(N=25) and the participants of the other classroom assigned to the control one (N=25). The participants were 50 male students in the third grade high school between the age range of 16-18 studying in the first semester of the school year(2013).They were native Persian speakers from the same English backgrounds since they had the same teachers, textbooks , and almost similar educational settings. They had English once a week for 90 minutes during three years in high school and none of them had any exposure to English outside the high school classroom.

Modified Persian version of Gardner's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (1985)containing 64 items was administered at the beginning and at the end of the treatment as a pretest and posttest to measure and compare the experimental and control group motivation and attitude towards learning English. To ascertain the validity of the questionnaire, it was translated into Persian by the researcher and then was proof-read by two Persian language lecturers in order to make sure the items retained their meaning and avoid possible ambiguity in understanding. The reliability of the test was calculated through Cronbach Alpha formula (r=0.72).

Persian semi-structured interview form was given to the participants after the administration of the posttests to achieve the student's opinion about this new strategy of vocabulary learning.

Procedure

1.Treatment procedure: The stories behind the selected words were taught for the experimental group by the researcher but for the control group the target words were taught by the researcher only through the conventional vocabulary teaching.
2.Scoring procedure: In scoring process of the AMBT questionnaire for strongly disagree 1 point, moderately disagree 2 points, slightly disagree 3 points, slightly agree 4 points, moderately agree 5 points, and strong-

ly agree 6 points. Some items that had negative content, their scores were calculated reversely (6 points for strongly disagree …1 points for strongly agree). Scores ranges between 64 to 384.

A quantitative study was held to gather data from the subjects. Scores from the pretest and posttest on attitude and motivation questionnaire 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). And also to get the students' opinion about the new method of teaching vocabulary, a Persian semi-structured interview was given to them.

Results

After ensuring no difference between the groups in terms of motivation and attitude on the pretest, the students were given the same test on the post tests.

Regarding the data gathered on the motivation and attitude questionnaire, as table 1 shows, the meaningful level of significance obtained from data analysis which equals 0.000 and comparing that with alpha level which is 0.05, we can be 95 percent certain that there is a significant difference between the effect of teaching vocabulary stories and conventional teaching on motivation and attitudes of the participants so that the experimental group performed better and their scores in the posttest stage were much higher than those of the control group. So the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Table 1. Independent Sample T-test of AMTB posttest

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Ctrl	25	225.04	33.13	-8.53	48	.000
Exp	25	301.72	30.36			

Discussion and conclusion

The obtained results clearly indicated the considerable effect of presenting the stories behind words on motivation and attitudes of the learners. It seems that the participants in the treatment group(experimental)took advantages of some etymological accounts of words(their stories behind). Furthermore, the results of the present study seem to be satisfactorily consistent with Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis states that a student learns best when s/he is not enduring a lot of stress(Krashen,1997,cited in Pinsonneault ,2008).According to Pinsonneault the authentic materials promote reduction of stress through using materials that motivate and excite the students. He notes that while learning, instead of becoming afraid and stressed ,the students become happy and animated.

This study introduces a rather new vocabulary teaching technique, which has been shown here to be considerably effective in enhancing students' retention of words and their meanings. Furthermore learning the stories behind words provide a fresh environment in the classroom which leads to more effective learning and also through this strategy the students can learn more about other cultures. Searching for new and interesting forms of the materials, in the field of vocabulary teaching is highly essential in any curriculum developing program. English language teachers and textbook developers must identify these gaps and try to fill them by producing new and interesting materials. With utilizing these types of programs authorities can enhance teaching and learning English in our educational system.The limitations in conducting this study were of three types: firstly,the study conducted with only 50 students and was based on a small number of selected target words , more items and a large population would make it more practical to generalize the results. Secondly, the participants of the study were male and junior high school, conducting the study with females and seniors may lead to different results. Thirdly, not all words have interesting stories behind, then this technique cannot be generalized to the other words.

Replications of the current study with more participants, vocabulary items, and class sessions are also suggested. Using female and other level of proficiency for treatment would probably increase the internal validity, allowing researchers to make stronger claims regarding their findings. Future studies may also probe into the nature of word etymologies by, for example, adding a second treatment group to check the efficacy of words with less elaborative etymologies against words judged to have more elaborative etymolo-

gies. Another investigation can involve longer time format or examine other aspects of language like grammatical structures to asses their impacts on the motivation and attitudes of the students.

Vocabulary knowledge has an important role in almost all areas of language learning. Without understanding the text vocabulary, text comprehension is impossible either in one's native language or in a foreign language. One aspect of vocabulary learning is etymology learning which can be taught through word histories. Previous research on vocabulary has proved learners' inadequate knowledge of this area(word histories). The present study tried to investigate the development of the learners' motivation and attitudes toward learning English through stories and origins behind words.The results of the data analysis rejected the hypothesis of the study. It was found that learning vocabulary through their stories led to increase motivation and attitudes of the learners as manifested by the taken tests .In summary, the results revealed that learning vocabulary stories and origins are necessary for English language learners. Therefore, L2 curriculum designers and teachers should pay more attention to this aspect of the vocabulary.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study reports the relationship between language learning and ambiguity tolerance of EFL learners. 58 female EFL learners from beginner and intermediate to advanced groups in an institute were chosen. Students' ambiguity tolerance level was surveyed and analyzed using the "Tolerance for Scale Questionnaire". The result of correlation analysis showed that there is a positive relationship between EFL learning and ambiguity tolerance. Furthermore, some pedagogical implications for both learners and instructors are proposed.

KEY WORDS: language learning, EFL learners, Ambiguity tolerance.

1. INTRODUCTION
   Language learning is a subject of having capability to deal with unfamiliar and even vague characteristics of a new language a person who have such ability to adapt and tolerate can become successful learner. Furnham (1994) described tolerance of ambiguity as the way an individual (or group) considers and deals with information about ambiguous situations when they face a range of unknown, complex or uncertain cues. Ambiguity tolerance is a variable which is often thought as a one-dimensional scale: "the person with low tolerance of ambiguity may experience stress, reacts prematurely and refuses ambiguous situation. At the other degree of the scale; however, a person with high tolerance of ambiguity deals ambiguous situations/stimuli as desirable, challenging and interesting".

2. Review of Literature
2.1 Ambiguity Tolerance/Intolerance
   According to Chappelle and Roberts (1986) ambiguity tolerance is "a person's ability to function rationally and calmly in a situation in which interpretation of all stimuli is not clear" (p.30). Feelings such as anxiety and uncertainty can be born better by tolerant people. In a sensible way, they will be able to recognize and understand ambiguous situations more sufficiently without rejecting or misrepresenting parts of its intricacy. Tolerant people are likely to expand more adaptive and better synchronized behavior. They can endure the uneasiness of the ambiguous condition long enough as to adjust and create a more suitable and adaptable response to it. It was assumed that in new complex situations tolerant individuals should act well.
Ehrman (1993) expressed another viewpoint on tolerance of ambiguity. She has distributed a tolerance of ambiguity construct into three separate parts:
The first part named intake. The second part named tolerance of ambiguity proper and the third part called accommodation.
At the first level, the learner brings new information into his or her mind. In the second level, is described as tolerance of ambiguity proper it is assumed that intake has happened and at this phase the person has to deal with discrepancy elements, incomplete data or an incomplete system. In the accommodation, which is

the third level, distinguishing of the new information are made, in order to change the latter and create new cognitive schemata that did not exist before, priorities are set and finally combination of new information with existing structures occurs.

2.2 Ambiguity Tolerance (AT) and Language Learning Studies

Ambiguity in language learning can cause nervousness (Ehrman, 1999), which may generate "a degree of apprehension and frustration which may be deleterious to progress" (White, 1999, p.451). Ehrman (1996) asserts that 'effective language learning is very much a process of reinterpreting one's view of reality using alternative perspectives' (p. 177).

Ely (1989) mentioned that in language learning ambiguity is appeared as uncertainty. He clarified this concept in this way that language learning is 'fraught with uncertainty' and examples that causes uncertainty in fact are those learners who seldom know the precise meaning of a new lexical item or feel that they have entirely comprehended the chronological reference of a grammatical tense or have pronounce a sound with total accuracy.

Liu (2006) conducted the study on the level of AT among 115 freshmen in Shandong University of Technology who were just finishing their first year in college. The findings, using SLATS, showed that learners could not bear the ambiguities produced by their defeat to state adequately their ideas in writing and speaking. Khajeh (2002) worked on the relationship between AT and language proficiency, and language learning strategies. She said that a positive correlation existed between ambiguity tolerance and both proficiency level and frequency of strategy use. She conducted the study on 120.

Research Question and Hypothesis

1) Is there any relationship between language learning and ambiguity tolerance of Iranian EFL learners?
Based on the above research question, there is a null hypothesis:
There is no relationship between language learning and ambiguity tolerance.

3. METHODOLOGY

57 female Iranian EFL students in Iran National Institute in Kermanshah between the ages of 19 to 21 with the same age, sex and language knowledge were selected by the researchers as the participants of this study. Choosing students was based on hierarchy of institute. They were two groups, 30 participants in beginner level and 27 participants in intermediate to advanced level.

Participant's academic fields were different, and also a randomization has been done to select the participant for beginner and intermediate to advanced groups.

According to Table 1 the advanced group's ambiguity tolerance (m =60.93) was lower than that of the beginner group (m = 71.11). As it has been mentioned the higher the score(s), the more intolerant of ambiguity one would be scored. Therefore, there is a difference between ambiguity tolerance of beginner and advanced learners.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of EFL learners and their Ambiguity Tolerance

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
(B)AMT	30	71.11	10.64
(A)AMT	27	60.93	9.29

To answer the third research question, the ambiguity tolerance questionnaire was administered then Point – biserial correlation coefficient was used to analyze the data. Table 1.2 shows the correlation coefficient between EFL learning and ambiguity tolerance of learners.

Table 2. Correlation coefficient between EFL learners and Ambiguity Tolerance

	AMT (A)	AMT (B)
(B) AMT Pearson Correlations	1	.583**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N	57	57

(A)SR Pearson Correlations	.583**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
N	57	57

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation analysis showed that there is a positive correlation between the two variables, r = .583, sig. (2 tailed) = 0.01, in a way that learning English as a foreign language is associated with higher levels of ambiguity tolerance learning. Hence, hypothesis is rejected and there is a positive relationship between EFL learning and ambiguity tolerance of learners.
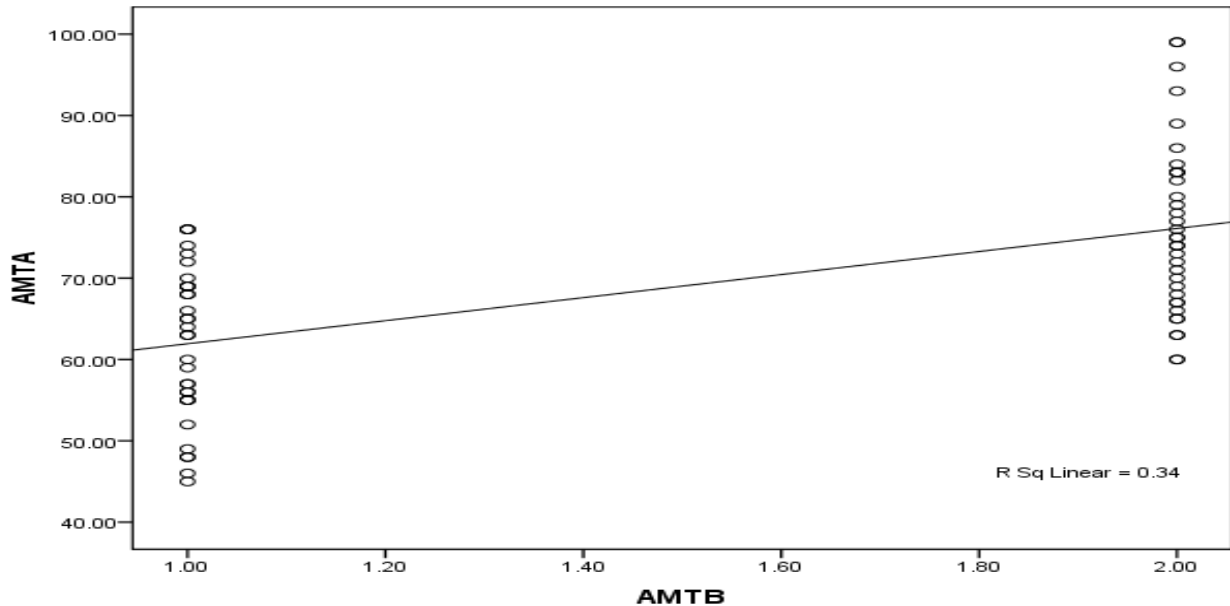

Figure 1 **Ambiguity Tolerance of Advanced and Beginner Learners**

As can be seen in Figure 1, there appears to be a positive linear correlation between the two variables in a way that language learning is associated with higher levels of ambiguity tolerance. The results in Tables 1.2, r= .65, n= 57, sig (2-tailed) =0.01 CT, 4.4 r = .794, sig (2-tailed) = 0.01 SR and 4.6 r = .583, sig (2-tailed) = 0.01 AMT confirm that there is positive relationship between EFL learning and critical thinking, self-regulation and ambiguity tolerance.

4. Discussion and conclusion

A main contribution of the present study was to investigate whether or not there is an association between language learning and ambiguity tolerance of EFL learners.

As Naimain, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco (1978) said that the ambiguity tolerance was one of the only two major factors in predicting the achievement of their high schools learners of French in Toronto. Chappelle and Roberts (1986) also evaluated tolerance of ambiguity in learners of English as a second language in Illinois. They achieved those learners with high tolerance for ambiguities were somewhat more successful in certain language tasks.

According to the results of the present study, it appears that role of language learning and also generalizes to EFL contexts and among EFL learners. That is, the more EFL learners learn, the more some of their individual characteristics improve.

Successful outcomes of the present study related to language learning and individual characteristics will be a step in the new direction of language teaching and learning and also cognitive development. Educational design should create learning environments that help improving ambiguity tolerance of learners, and teachers should be careful about teaching learners at different levels of language learning relating to their individual characteristic.

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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.

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

1. Introduction
Reading is of utmost necessity for learning because it is the basis for all knowledge. Foreign language learning which entails both knowledge accumulation and skill development is an endeavor that supports this necessity quite clearly. Learning to read in a foreign language is a difficult task and the most important and critical skills for second language (L2) students to achieve academic success. In other word, it is a kind of interaction between the reader and the text which implies a degree of knowledge of the world, topics and target language.

Readers often encounter problems in reading a text and understanding the intended meaning. In fact, there are many factors that affect efficacy in the reading of a text in a second language of which one of the most important ones is lack of using appropriate reading strategies (Hsu, 2006). In general, research on language learning strategies started in the 1970s. However, empirical investigations on reading strategies use and its relationship to successful and unsuccessful second language readers have been carried out more recently (Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Rokhsari, 2012). Research studies in second language contexts have demonstrated that strategy use is different in more and less proficient readers. That is, more proficient readers use different types of strategies in different ways. From another point of view, it is found that using reading strategies facilitates reading comprehension and helps learners become more proficient and autonomous readers (Booth & Swartz, 2004).

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

1. What types of reading strategies are used by Iranian EMP students?
2. Is there any 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?
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.

2. Literature Review

Reading is one of the fundamental skills for academic successes. Reading aids learners to learn, acquire knowledge and experience world. It is the skill of coordinating and constructing meaning through complex processes encompassing language, word reading, word knowledge and fluency (Park, 2005; May, 2010; Vaca, 2002).When reading a text, learners utilize a vast of skills and processes to decode authors' intention. Comprehension has been built upon interactive processes which are overshadowed by a variety of cognitive models. In what follows, theoretical models of reading, reading strategy and reading strategy instruction will be illustrated in details.

Literature has reported a plethora of studies on reading strategies and reading strategy instruction which highlights the helpfulness of reading strategy and the part they play in enhancing reading comprehension; dearth of knowledge about strategies always cause learners not comprehend texts and be poor categorization Scheme for Instructional readers (Geladari, Griva & Mastrothanasis, 2010; Baire, 2005; Ozek & Civelek, 2006; Sporer, Brunstein & Kieschke, 2009; Cogmen & Saracaloglu, 2009).

In one study, Geladari, Griva and Mastrothanasis (2010) explored the reading strategies used by immigrant children. The sample consisted of 32 Albanian and Romanian speaking children who attend the fifth and sixth primary school grades. Think-aloud protocols and retrospective interviews were applied to collect data. The analysis of findings indicated that higher competent bilingual learners use more top-down and more complex reading strategies in contrast to less proficient learners revealing dependence on bottom-up decoding strategies and limited awareness of the reading process. According to the researchers, "the successful readers showed greater strategic knowledge, since they were more flexible in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and employed a wider range of more 'elaborated' strategies ... On the contrary, the less successful readers read slowly and showed more limited lower-level processes and strategies" (p. 3768).

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

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

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

1.   Instruction in the use of multiple comprehension strategies has a positive impact on student achievement in grades 4 – 8.

2.   The expected impact of strategy instruction depends on how the intervention is implemented and how it is studied.

3.   Reciprocal Teaching has a positive impact on reading comprehension.

4.   Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies, Think-aloud instruction, Transactional Strategies Instruction, and Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction are other type of effective strategies.

5.   Both struggling and non-struggling readers benefited from MCSI, with some evidence that below average readers benefited more on non-standardized measures than average or above average readers.

6.   No strong systematic relationships were detected between instructional duration and effectiveness of treatment.

7.   Interventions provided by teachers appear to be equally effective as those provided by researchers. Computerized instruction also appeared to be as effective as researcher or teacher delivered instruction.

8.   There was no evidence that MCSI was more effective when provided during reading classes than in content area classes.

9.   The addition of student practice (without the teacher) is associated with positive gains in reading comprehension on both standardized and non-standardized measures but not for strategy knowledge and use.

10.   There was no evidence that MCSI was more effective when provided in small groups versus whole classes.

11.   There was no evidence that increased emphasis on self-regulated comprehension resulted in increased treatment effectiveness.

12.   Some specific strategies were identified that appear to have a positive effect on comprehension. These include analysis/reflection, graphic organizers, and previewing (Davis, 2010, pp. 194-195)

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

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

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

1. Pull-out intervention did not offer a statistically significant advantage over the typical classroom setting when attempting to remediate reading comprehension;

2. Participants in the MSI group demonstrated significant improvement on measures of decoding;

3. Although statistical testing did not reveal significant results, effect sizes were large for: participants in the MSI group on measures of fluency; participants in the FSI group on measures of fluency and the Oral Reading Quotient; participants in the control group on measures of decoding, comprehension, fluency, and the Oral Reading Quotient; and

4. Decoding accounted for a statistically significant 15.4% of the unique variance in post-test comprehension scores, but differences in grouping contributed a negligible amount (Yee, 2010, pp. iv-v).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

intervention group augmented their strategic competence and comprehension performance with regard to controls. Nevertheless, no effect was found on reading motivation.

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

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

In context of Iran, Jafari and 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 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 which highlights the necessity of knowledge and capability in reading. Accordingly, teaching reading strategies significantly may help ESP/EMP learners in their academic performances. In this regard, the present study aimed at exploring the practical effect of strategy intervention on EMP learners' reading proficiency.

3. Methodology
3.1. Participants

This study was carried out at Jahrom University of Medical Sciences in Iran. A total of 45 students (males and females ranging in age from 18 to 27) including 21 studying nursing and 24 studying in lab sciences in the first and second year of their medical studies took part in this study. All of the participants had experienced formal instruction in English for a period of 7 years during their public education.

Based on the syllabus followed in medical schools, nursing students are required to pass 8 credits in general English and 2 in ESP courses while lab sciences students are required to pass 4 credits in general English and 2 in ESP. At the time of data collection, the participants were enrolled in a general English course with four hours of instruction per week focused on reading comprehension through different topics in the field of medical sciences.

3.2. Instruments
3.2.1. Reading Strategy 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 similar students. The rounded reliability index for the test was .80.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

With regard to reading strategy instruction, the targeted reading strategies introduced by Oxford (1990), and O'Malley & Chamot (1990) were determined. They included the following 12 strategies: Identifying the purpose in reading, Prediction, Skimming for main ideas, Scanning, Using semantic mapping or clustering, Guessing the meaning of new words when you are not certain, Vocabulary Analysis, Capitalizing on discourse markers to process relationships, Inferring, Self-monitoring, Generating Questions and Summarizing. Reading strategy instruction was conducted by two instructors and lasted for seven weeks.

In the second place, concerning the university schedule and impracticality of random selection of students, two classes of nursing and lab sciences with 45 students in the second semester were taken as intact groups to participate in the study by receiving the instruction. The treatment lasted for 7 weeks. During the experiment, 3-5 students from both classes were absent due to personal reasons and did not show up to take part in all sessions. Thus, students who did not complete both the pre-test and post-test were not included in the data analysis and the analysis was reported based on 40 students' performance on the tests.

Prior to the initiation of the study, with the cooperation of the head of the department and students' instructors, the reading-strategy instruction program was introduced to the students in an informal meeting. The participants were provided with the necessary information about what they were required to follow in the study. Before the instruction started and during two successive sessions, the reading strategy survey and the reading comprehension pre-test were administered to the participants. First, the participants were provided with a brief definition of reading strategies and were asked to indicate what type of reading strategies they would commonly use while reading in English. Thirty minutes was allocated to data collection with the survey. Next, the participants took the TOEFL test, which was intended to classify students into two proficiency levels in reading comprehension. They had forty five minutes to take the test. To probe the differences between learners' level of proficiency and their pre-test reading comprehension performances, the results of pre- test were analyzed.

As for the treatment, the researcher worked with the instructors on a range of appropriate reading strategies to be targeted for instruction. To check for the implementation of the instruction, the researcher observed 4 random class sessions (240 minutes). The instruction was conducted in students' L1. In each session, the instructors would teach the application 1 or 2 reading strategies depending on the complexity of the task. They would explain about the strategy and how to use it before, while and after working with reading passages. Then, they would choose a passage from the text book for the practice of applying the strategy under focus. Moreover, during the process of teaching, they would try to familiarize the students with the structure of different texts and different types of reading comprehension questions and the required reading strategies to handle the reading practice. Due to the fact that participants didn't receive such an instruction on a regular basis outside the treatment, the possibility of history effect was out of question.

At the end of treatment, the same reading comprehension test that was used for pre-testing was administrated to the groups to compare gain scores and accordingly check for any possible differential effects of reading strategy instruction on reading comprehension test performance of groups at different reading proficiency levels. Once again and after 2 weeks, the test was administered as a delay test to monitor reading ability achievement over time.

3.4. Data Analysis

To explore the research questions, Percentages and frequency counts were used to give a description of the results from the survey regarding the type reading strategies used by learners at different levels of reading proficiency. As for handling the inferentially statistical analysis of the results, Chi-square tests were run to

compare the frequency of strategy types indicated by the participants in the two groups. Independent samples t-tests were utilized to monitor differences between the two groups' performance on the post and delay tests in the course of tracing the effect of reading strategy instruction on the groups' achievements through the treatment. Such a statistical technique had also been used to check for the heterogeneity of the proficiency groups at the outset of the treatment. To check for improvement in reading comprehension under the effect of reading strategy instruction through the treatment as well as over time, paired samples t-tests were employed. In other words, in each proficiency group, performance on the pre-test was compared with that of the post-test which was also compared with that of the delay-test in turn.

4. Results
Q1: 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?
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.

Table 2.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 groups' mean 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.

Table 4.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

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%).

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).

Table 8.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		

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
	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
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 Meant	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, 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.

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 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. Ac-

cording 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).

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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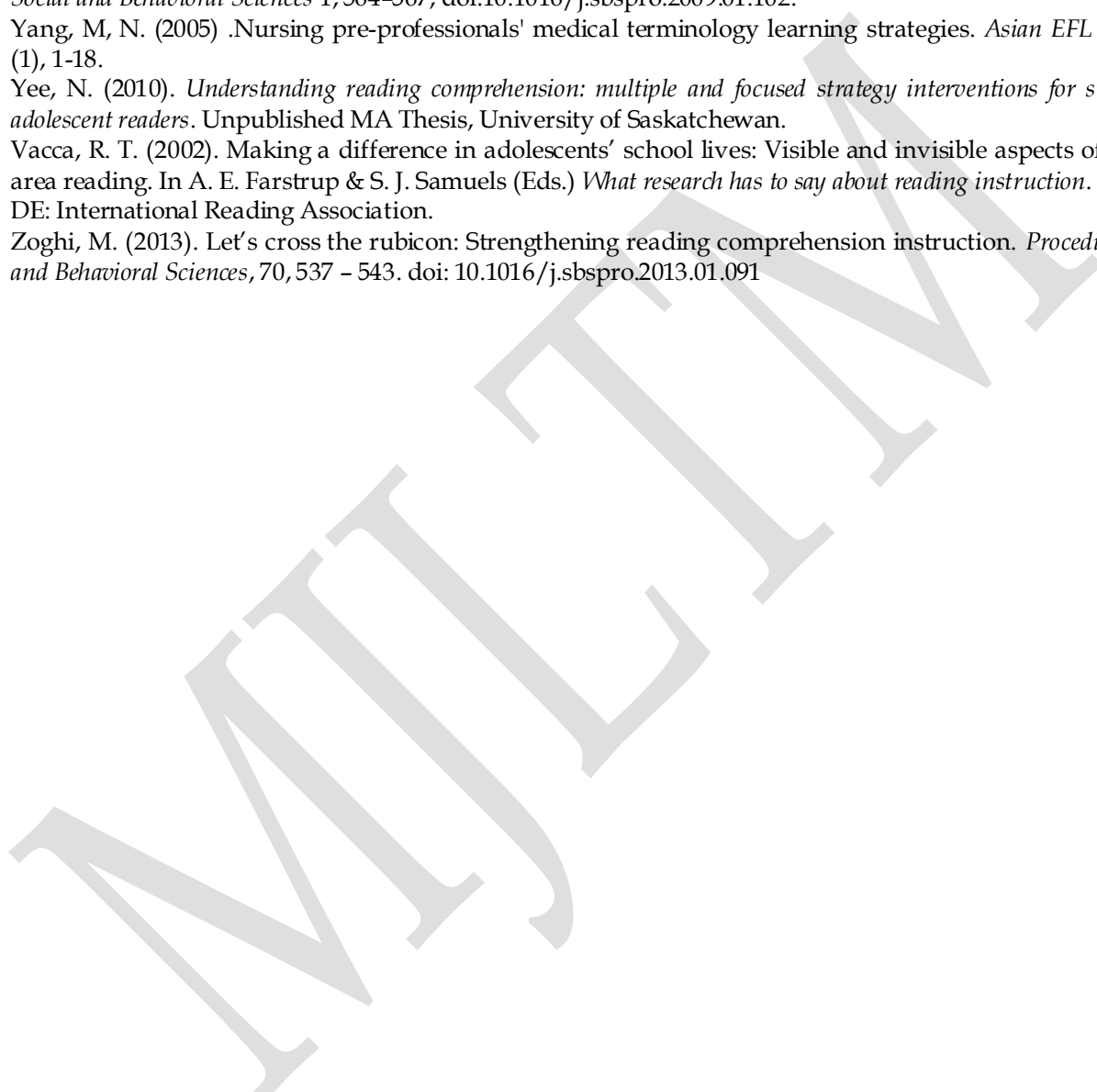
ON THE CORRELATION AMONG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, SELF ESTEEM, AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY

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ABSTRACT

Cognition and affection are indeed interrelated according to the research in language learning and other cognitive skills. This study aimed at investigating any probable correlation among Iranian EFL learners' self-esteem, their Emotional intelligence and foreign language classroom anxiety. To do so, 200 male and female Iranian language learners from Islamic Azad university of Miyaneh, Iran were administered three questionnaires Emotional Intelligence (EI) questionnaire, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Having run three correlations analysis, the results revealed that there was a negatively significant correlation between participants' foreign language classroom anxiety and their self-esteem .Regarding the correlation between emotional intelligence and self-esteem, we found a significantly positive correlation. The results also indicate that emotional intelligence correlates with foreign language classroom anxiety, but the degree of correlation is moderate .Research in this area may contribute effectively on providing better teaching and learning environment and conditions to overcome learners' psychological and affective barriers in EFL situation.

KEY TERMS: Emotional Intelligence, self-esteem, foreign language anxiety, EFL

1. Introduction

Language acquisition/ learning is one of the most impressive and fascinating aspects of human development. Many researchers in EFL setting believe that learners in EFL classrooms have certain characteristics that will lead to more or less successful language learning. All normal children, given a normal upbringing, are successful in acquiring their first language. But as for foreign language, their success varies greatly. So there must be such characteristics that make this great difference. Personality characteristics are among the factors which are generally considered to be pertinent to language learning (Miller, 1991; Barrick & Mount, 1993; Erdheim, Wang & Zickar, 2006). Personality characteristics within a person can help in some way to the success of language learning. Self-esteem is one of the important facets. Self-esteem is probably the most important aspect of any human behavior. Malinowski (1923) stated that all human beings have a need for phatic communion – which is related to finding acceptance in expressing that self in relation to other valuable people.

It is a fact that self-concept is a multidimensional concept, and it may have an important implication for foreign language learner researchers. Merce (2011) holds that it is possible that learner's self-concept in one language is not necessarily indicative of his/her self-concept in another language. Therefore, in order to focus on these possibly distinct self-concepts, research into the construct has to be language specific (Merce, 2011).As an important affective factors, self-esteem certainly has an impact on success or failure in the learning process. Some important aspects of foreign language learning are certainly related to the issue of EFL learners' sense of himself or herself. Learners' motivations and achievement, and the balance between the two factors have to be mentioned in this context. James (1890) defined self-esteem as a ratio of achievement

measured against aspirations within areas of particular importance. Research has shown that a student who feels good about himself or herself is more likely to succeed. Holly (1987) compiled a summary of many studies and pointed out that most indicated that self-esteem is the result rather than the cause of academic achievement. In addition, Covington, M. (1989) from the University of California carried out an extensive review of the research on the relationship between self-esteem and achievement, concluding that "self-esteem can be modified through direct instruction and that such instruction can lead to achievement gains". As Brown (1994) says, good teachers succeed "because they give optimal attention to linguistic goals and to the personhood of their students." Although some studies have examined the role of motivation and some personality factors of the EFL learners, there is still a lack of research on foreign language situation in which anxiety of college language learners in Iranian EFL context, their self-esteem and emotional intelligence were studied simultaneously. The primary purpose of the present study is, therefore, to investigate the correlation among emotional intelligence, self-esteem and foreign language classroom anxiety among Iranian EFL college students.

2. Review of Literature
2.1. Emotional Intelligence

One factor which is considered an important one and even the most important factor is EFL learners' intelligence. According to Bar-On (2004), emotional intelligence can be defined as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in the coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p.111). Bar-On (1988) was the first researcher who coined the term emotional quotient (EQ) as a counterpart to Intelligence Quotient (IQ), that is, to cognitive ability. According to Bar-On (2004) emotional intelligence and skills develop and increase over time, change throughout life, are process-oriented, and can be improved through training. Study of EI in the educational setting is relatively new and, as such, there have been few studies which have focused on the overall effects of EI on foreign or second language learning. These studies have been restricted to certain dimensions as management, anxiety, strategy use, or motivation only. In English as a foreign or second language context, there have been some studies which examined the relationship between EQ and second language success (e.g., Chao, 2003; Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Nelson & Low, 1999). For instance, Aghasafari (2006) found a positive relationship between overall EQ and language learning strategies. Furthermore, Riemer (2003) argues that EQ skills may help to the learning potential of foreign language acquisition, especially since it relates to accepting the legitimacy of other cultures as being equally valid. In a second/foreign language (SL/FL) context, Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) examined the relationship between EQ and second language success among 528 university students in Tehran, Iran. In addition, using Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) and a revised version of the Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Aghasafari (2006) in a correlational design investigated the relationship between EQ and second language learning strategies among 100 sophomore participants at Islamic Azad University in Iran. The results indicated that there was a positive relationship between overall EQ and language learning strategies.

In Iranian EFL context, there have been some studies on Emotional intelligence and linguistic intelligence; for example, Rouhani (2008) provided empirical evidence for the relation between verbal intelligence and self-regulatory competence, and Esfandiari and Ekradi (2014) have investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' emotional intelligence and their performance on cloze test. In another study, Pishghadam (2009) has predicted second language learning success from EFL learners' emotional intelligence variables. However, there has still been scarcity of empirical research that investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, foreign language learners' affective factors and foreign language classroom anxiety.

This reason encourages the researchers to conduct the present study to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learner's emotional intelligence, self-esteem and their foreign language classroom anxiety.

2.2. Self Esteem and Language Learning

One of the factors generally considered to be relevant to language learning is personality characteristics. Self-esteem is one of the important facets. Coopersmith (1967: 4-5), defined self-esteem as:

"…a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in attitudes that the individual holds towards himself, …and indicates the extent to which the individual believes in himself to be capable, significant and worthy".

Research has shown that a student who feels good about himself is more likely to succeed. In a study performed in Iranian context, the role of self-esteem has been investigated by Zarei, Eghbal et al. (2012). They determined the effect of instruction in cognitive and metacognitive strategies on learners' educational self-esteem and academic performance. In another study by Kalanzadeh, G.A et.al (2013) the influence of self-esteem on speaking skill was investigated. They concluded that there is a statistically significant correlation between the EFL learners' self –esteem and their verbal performance.

The role of self-esteem in other language skills has been investigated in Iranian context. Self-esteem has been regarded a crucial factor even in in writing. Fahim and Khojaste Rad (2012) attempted to understand the relationship between EFL learners' self-esteem and their paragraph writing. They found that if learners feel secure in a class, they will be more encouraged to participate in writing activities. For the role of self-esteem in listening performance, there were some other studies. As an example, Hayati (2008) showed that the students' listening comprehension was significantly affected by their self-esteem; that is, self-esteem as an important psychological factor had a positive significant relationship with students' English language listening comprehension. Therefore, considering the above mentioned studies, the role of learners' self-esteem is of paramount importance.

2.3. Foreign language Classroom Anxiety and language learning

MacIntyre defined foreign language anxiety as "worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (1999, p.27). Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) and Horwitz (2010) identified three types of foreign language anxiety including fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension, and test anxiety. They also developed a 33-item questionnaire, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure language anxiety. Following this, many studies have been conducted on language anxiety. Although few studies have shown a positive relationship between language anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Liu, 2006; Oxford, 1999), most of them have shown that language anxiety is negatively related to language achievement (e.g., MacIntyre, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement, 1997). In other words, the more proficiency learners gain in the EFL, the less anxiety they experience in learning it.

Tseing (2012) has provided some factors causing anxiety in foreign language classroom in Asian context. These factors include: self-perceptions, social environment and limited exposure to the target language, cultural differences, social status and self-identity, gender, strict and formal classroom environment, fear of making mistakes and apprehension about others' evaluation. In another study, Melouah (2013) has investigated foreign language classroom anxiety among Algerian students, and she has listed some factors contributing to foreign language classroom in EFL setting. She states that foreign language classroom anxiety mostly stems from fear of interaction and communication, error correction, language competence and proficiency, lack of self-confidence and low self-esteem.

In a study in Iranian context, Mahmoodzadeh (2012) has investigated the effect of gender on foreign language classroom anxiety, and he has concluded "mixed-gender classrooms can be considered as an anxiety-provoking teaching context in Iran because the presence of the opposite gender in EFL classrooms was found to cause statistically significant amount of language anxiety among Iranian EFL learners". He has hold that in mixed gender classes the role of the teacher in reducing anxiety is very important.

In another study in Iranian context, Atef-Vahid and Fard Kashani (2011) have investigated the effect of anxiety on Iranian high school students' English language achievement. The results of their study show that English learning anxiety has a significant negative correlation with the achievement of the foreign language students.

Foreign language anxiety is common among foreign language learners (Young, 1991) and it is seen as one of the great obstacles of EFL learning and achievement. Therefore, lower achievement with higher anxiety is attributed to negative effects of anxiety on language learning (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999,).

There have been some other studies on the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and other language areas. Mohammadi et.al (2013) have investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and language learning strategies among Iranian university students. The results of their study have revealed that language learning strategies correlate meaningfully and significantly with foreign language classroom anxiety. In order to reduce second language anxiety, there is a need to identify factors that lead to this anxiety. Young (1991) reviewed the literature and summarized six possible sources of second language anxiety: (1) personal and interpersonal issues, (2) instructor-learner interactions, (3) classroom procedures, (4) language testing, (5) teachers' beliefs about language learning, and (6) learner beliefs about lan-

guage learning. This paper is going to investigate whether there is a relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-esteem and foreign language classroom anxiety, and between emotional intelligence and foreign language classroom anxiety.

2.4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

More specifically, the present study focused on the following research questions:

1) Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety and their self-esteem?

2) Is there any relationship between the Iranian EFL learner's Emotional Intelligence and their self-esteem?

3) Is there any relationship between the Iranian EFL learners' Emotional Intelligence and foreign language classroom anxiety experience?

Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between Iranian EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety and their self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between Iranian EFL learner's Emotional Intelligence and their self-esteem.

Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between the Iranian EFL learners' Emotional Intelligence and foreign language classroom anxiety experience.

3. Methodology

Formal instruction of EFL in Iranian educational system starts from the first year of junior high school. Jahangard (2007) states that dominant method of EFL teaching in Iran is Audiolingualism and Grammar Translation Method in which the emphasis is on learning new lists of vocabulary, explicit teaching of grammar, and reading and translating the texts followed by doing some drills and exercises. The design of this research was non-experimental and in correlation type. Considering the nature of hypothesis and aims of this study, it was of correlation type since it dealt with the relations among the variables, and the researcher could not manipulate or alter the given variables and the level of these relations would be evaluated according to their effects and results.

3.1. Participants

The participants were chosen from Miyaneh Islamic Azad University, Iran. They were 200 university students (110 females and 90 males) studying different fields of studies. Their ages varied from 19 to 34 years old (M = 23.21, SD = 2.61); 13 learners did not specify their age. They were senior college students who were studying English as a general course at Islamic Azad universities of Miyaneh, Iran.

3.2. Instruments
3.2.1. Emotional Intelligence (EI) Questionnaire

One instrument employed in this study was, the 'Bar-On EI questionnaire, also called as the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-I). Designed by Bar-On in 1980, the Bar-On EI test is a self-report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior that provides an estimate of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). It includes 133 items in the form of short sentences which measure five broad areas of skills and 15 factorial components (already explained in Bar-On's Model). The questionnaire employs a five-point response scale with a format ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Each item has the value of five ranging to one. In the present study, to avoid cross-cultural differences and probable misunderstanding regarding the content of the questionnaire, the translated Persian version of this questionnaire was employed. This resulted in an adapted final form which was reduced into 90 items .The Cronbach's Alpha reliability index was reported as 0.80 (Samouei, 2002). In another study, Dehshiri (2003) reported that the Persian version has generally acceptable construct validity, internal consistency and test-retest reliability. As he states, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was found to be 0.76, and the results of the factor analysis provided convincing support for the inventory hypothesized structure.

3.2.2. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

The Persian version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) was employed in this research. This questionnaire was carefully translated into Persian to reduce the ambiguity that may be caused by learners' lack of English proficiency. It is the most well-known scale used for measuring anxiety and stress in foreign language classrooms. Two expert in translation studies checked the translated version to ensure its validity .Participants answered 33 items presented on a Likert-type scale hav-

ing five points .The alpha reliability coefficient reported for the English FLCAS is .93.The respondents to this scale were asked to rate each of the FLCAS statements using a five-point Likert-scale interval ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. This scale measures an individual's level of anxiety by coming up with an anxiety score by adding up the ratings on the 33 items.

3.2.3. Self-Esteem

To measure self-esteem, the Persian version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)(Tevakkoli, 1995) was utilized .Items of the RSES were answered on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree).This scale is widely used for measuring Global Self-esteem (GSE) and consists of 10 items. Although there are different types of self-esteem such as global, specific, task, academic, etc., this scale measures global and general self-esteem trait which is the focus of this study. To put it in other words, the items of this scale are not concerned with particular characteristics (Rosenberg, Schooler, & Schoenbach, 1989).A number of studies have been carried out to investigate the validity and reliability of the RSES. Positive relationship was found between scores on the RSES and scores on some other scales including the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (Demo, 1985 as cited in Tahriri, 2003). For the purpose of determining the reliability of this scale, Cronbach's alpha was used, and the whole data were subjected to alpha reliability analysis. The RSES achieved an alpha coefficient of .72. This suggests that the items of the RSES are internally consistent based on the data set. Tevakkoli (1995) also has examined the interval reliabilities and validity of Persian version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES).

3.3. Data collection

Data was obtained by three questionnaires: the Persian version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) (Tevakkoli, 1995).Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLACS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and Emotional intelligence (EI) questionnaire by Bar-On (1980).The instruments were administered and the participants were asked to choose the case among Likert- scale items that were true for them. The time for answering the questionnaires were 33, 45, and 10 minutes for foreign language anxiety, emotional intelligence and self-esteem scales, respectively, and all the three questionnaire were applied in one session.

3.4. Statistical analysis

Correlation analysis using SPSS statistical software (version17) was conducted to test the correlation between emotional intelligence, foreign language classroom anxiety and self-esteem.

4. Results

As can be understood from Table 4.2, the total Foreign language classroom anxiety scores has had a significantly negative correlation (r= -0.636, p≤.01) with EFL learners' Self-Esteem scores. We may conclude that the learners with lower foreign language anxiety have probably been more self-esteemed, and participants with higher foreign language classroom anxiety are likely less self-esteemed. Thus, the first hypothesis stating that there was no significant correlation between foreign language classroom anxiety and self-esteem was rejected.

The results of the Pearson correlational analysis indicated that EFL learners' emotional intelligence positively correlated with their self-esteem (p<0.01). We can see that the learners with lower self-esteem have probably been less emotionally intelligent, and participants with higher self-esteem are likely more emotionally intelligent. Thus, the second hypothesis which states that no significant correlational relationships exist between participants' emotional intelligence and their self-esteem score was also rejected.

Finally, the results of the correlational analysis revealed that EFL learners' emotional intelligence capacity negatively correlated with foreign language classroom anxiety (p≤0.01).   As the table has presented there is a significant relationship between FLCAS and EQ (r = -.300, p<.01).All subscales of EQ also correlate negatively with FLCAS: Intrapersonal Skills (r = -.325, p<.01), Interpersonal Skills (r = -.245, p<.05), Adaptability Scales (r = -.299, p<.01), Stress Management (r = -.385, p<.01), and General Mood (r = -.360, p<.01).

We can observe that the learners with lower emotional intelligence have probably been more anxious in foreign language classrooms, and participants with higher emotional intelligence are likely less anxious in EFL classes. Thus, the third hypothesis which states that no significant correlational relationships exist between participants' emotional intelligence and their foreign language classroom anxiety score was also rejected.

5. Discussions and Conclusions

This study was performed to seek three objectives: (i) To determine whether a correlation exists between Iranian EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety and their self-esteem; (ii) to detect any relationship between the Iranian EFL learner's emotional intelligence and their self-esteem, iii) to investigate any relationship between the Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence and foreign language classroom anxiety experience. With respect to the first objective, in this sample of college students, the correlation between participants' foreign language classroom anxiety and their self-esteem was negatively significant; the more learners are self-esteemed, the less they are anxious in EFL situation. The second objective on the relationship of dependency between the emotional intelligence and self-esteem we found a significantly positive correlation. This result is in line with that of Pishgadam (2009) who has found a positive and predictable relationship between self-esteem and emotional intelligence. Regarding the third objective, the results indicate that emotional intelligence negatively correlates with foreign language classroom anxiety. It was shown that EI correlated significantly with Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. The correlation between these two variable was negative, i.e. the higher the Emotional Intelligence of language learners, the lower the level of anxiety learners will experience in EFL classes. Therefore, the third hypothesis stating that "There is not a significant correlation between foreign language anxiety and emotional intelligence among Iranian EFL learners" is rejected. Furthermore, all subscales of emotional intelligence also correlated negatively with FLCAS. It can be claimed that learners having a higher degree of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood can decrease their language anxiety. Learners who have the ability to cope with and adapt to personal and interpersonal change as well as change in their immediate environment, the ability to put up with and manage stressful situations and conditions, the ability to define problems and generate effective solutions, and the ability to motivate themselves and improve their optimism are less anxious in EFL classes. These findings supported the studies of Marquez and et al. (2006) demonstrated that a person's emotional life has an effect on academic achievements, Bar-On (2006) hypothesized that those individuals with higher EI are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures or Pishghadam (2009), in which he found that emotional intelligence was correlated with success in second language learning and also it is in line with finding of Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) that stated that there was a relationship between EQ/ IQ and verbal intelligences which in turn could account for academic achievement. Among these subscales, Intrapersonal skills showed the highest correlation in the present research. To put it in other way, the ability to find out the psychological mechanisms and sociological dynamics that determine the emotions can reduce the anxiety experienced by EFL learners. When learners are aware of their emotions, and understand their weaknesses and strengths can express their feelings and emotions and reduce their anxiety. In addition, they can better understand the reasons behind their feelings when face with an anxious situation.

On the basis of the analysis we arrived at the following tentative conclusions:

✓ The more learners are self-esteemed, the less they are anxious in EFL situation

✓ The more EFL learners are self-esteemed, the more they are emotionally intelligent in language learning

✓ The less they are emotionally intelligent, the more they are anxious in foreign language classroom

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Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics for Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mean		94.5600
Median		93.0000
Std. Deviation		16.83271
Variance		283.340
Minimum		64.00
Maximum		134.00

Table 4.2. The Relationship between English Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and EFL Learners' Self Esteem

		FLCAS	Self-Esteem
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	1	-.636
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	200	200
Self esteem	Pearson Correlation	-.636	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	200	200

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.3.Descriptive Statistics for Self-Esteem

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mean		87.5600
Std. Deviation		3.89530
Variance		15.173
Minimum		25.00
Maximum		44.00

4.4. The Relationship between Learners' Emotional Intelligence and Their Self Esteem Score

		EI	Self-esteem
EI	Pearson Correlation	1	.620**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.007
	N	200	200
Self-esteem	Pearson Correlation	.620**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	
	N	200	200

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.5. Descriptive Statistics for EI

N	Valid	200
	Missing	0
Mean		2.7200
Median		2.0000
Std. Deviation		.66118
Minimum		41.00
Maximum		67.00

Table 4.6. The Relationship between Learners' Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) and their EI Score

	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Adaptability	Stress Management	General Mood	EQ
FCLA	-0.395	-0.245	-0.299	-0.385	-0.360	-0.300
	0.000	0.29	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000