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Dr. Paul Robertson

Dr. Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh



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Foreword

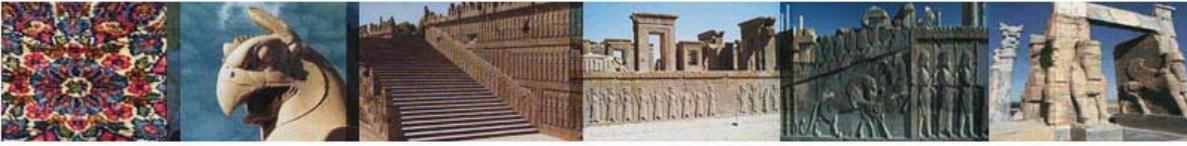
Welcome to volume nine and the special sixth edition of 2013. The Iranian EFL Journal is very happy to be with its readers for one more year and we wish our readers a very happy 2014. The journal has had strong growth over the last few years with a monthly readership now exceeding 2500 readers. Statistically, readers of our journal are coming from almost eighty countries. For a journal examining the topics of EFL/ESL, Literature and Translation studies, the growth and readership has been pleasing. The bi-monthly Iranian EFL Journal has attracted many readers not only from the Middle East but also from different parts of the world and in this way; the number of our reviewers has also increased. We have increased the number of our reviewers and now, more than ninety five reviewers are cooperating with the journal and evaluate the articles. In this special edition of 2013, we have presented thirty five articles, discussing different issues of EFL/ESL, literature and translation studies. In the first article, [Mohammad Alipour](#), [Alireza Jalilifar](#) and [Maryam Zarea](#) present an article entitled, a corpus study of lexical bundles across different disciplines. In the second article of the issue, [Kourosh Hemmati](#), [Mohammad Ali Falahati](#) and [Hassan Shahabi](#), have studied a comparative study of traditional translation teaching method and a method based on translation-oriented text analysis in an Iranian context. In the third article of the issue, [Mozhgan Nili](#) presents an article entitled, a qualitative study on the language students' beliefs in error correction. In the next article, the role of task-based lexical noticing training in Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary retention is presented by [Moussa Ahmadian](#) and [Valiollah Yousefi](#). In the fifth article of the issue, [Mohammad Rasoul Homayoun](#) presents the impact of visual aids on listening comprehension tests of intermediate EFL learners. The next article which is a study of the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their reading comprehension is done by [Hassan Emroozi Bajgiran](#). In the seventh article of the issue, [Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh](#), [Seyyed Ayatollah Razmjoo](#) and [Fatemeh Javanmardi](#) have presented developing a writing strategy model for Iranian context. In the eighth article of the issue the relationship between risk-taking and vocabulary learning strategy use of Iranian EFL learners is done by [Parviz Maftoon](#) and [Neda Afroukhteh](#). In the next article, experiencing flow and its relation to test format and reading strategy is studied by [Elaheh Iranrad](#) and [Behzad Ghonsooly](#). In the tenth article of the issue, [Bijan Bateni](#), [Heideh Komeili Doost](#) and [Kazem Youssefi](#) have studied translation and gender: the study of Persian literary translation texts of fe/male translators under the influence of feminist movements during 1980-2010.



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In the eleventh article the relationship between creativity and Iranian EFL learners' narrative writing performance is studied by [Shabnam Amini Naghadeh](#). In the twelfth article of the issue, towards pragmatic instruction of apology in Iranian context is presented by [Farahman Farrokhi](#) and [Soheil Atashian](#). In the next article, [Mehri Izadi](#) and [Farrokhlagha Heidari](#), have presented learners' critical thinking ability and learning style preferences: differences in the use of listening strategies. In the fourteenth article of the issue, a comparative analysis of the translation of stereotyped allusions in English subtitles of "A Separation" is studied by [Mohammad Sadegh Kenevisi](#), [Ebrahim Davoudi Sharifabad](#) and [Seyed Alireza Shirinzadeh Bojnourdi](#). In the fifteenth article of the issue, [Ali Reza Jalilifar](#), [Saeed Khazaie](#) and [Bamshad Hekmatshoar Tabari](#) present an investigation into the complication or duplication role of image in Persian children's story. In the next article, corpora and language teaching: implications for language teachers and learners is studied by [Shiela Kheirzadeh](#), [Mahmood Saadatnia](#). In the seventeenth article of the issue, [Fatemeh Khoshroo](#) and [Amir Mahdavi-Zafarghandi](#) have presented incentives for academic plagiarism in Iranian EFL masters students' perspective. The next article which is about the interference of ones' native language with the foreign language speaking skills or the interference of another previously learned foreign language? is presented by [Pegah Merrikhi](#). In the next article of the issue [Behzad Moradi](#) has presented an article entitled Kurdish EFL learners' consonantal mispronunciations: a probe into students' perceptions. In the twentieth article of the issue, pronunciation through the eyes of some traditional, innovative and modern approaches to English language teaching: from the twentieth century to the twenty-first is presented by [Rozana Shamsabadi](#), [Saeed Ketabi](#) and [Azizollah Dabbaghi](#). In the next article, English teachers' attitudes towards lesson planning is done by [Masoomeh Taghipour](#). In the next article of the issue [Amir Hamid Forough Ameri](#) has studied English for specific purposes (ESP) from the perspective of Iranian ESP students. In the twenty third article of the issue, the effect of journal keeping on the accuracy and fluency of EFL trainee teachers' academic writings is presented by [Nader Assadi Aidinlou](#) and [Fereshteh Asadzadian](#). In the next article, [Mohammad Aliakbari](#) and [Abdonour Bazayr](#) have presented an article entitled on the impact of 'station teaching' on EFL learners' general language proficiency.

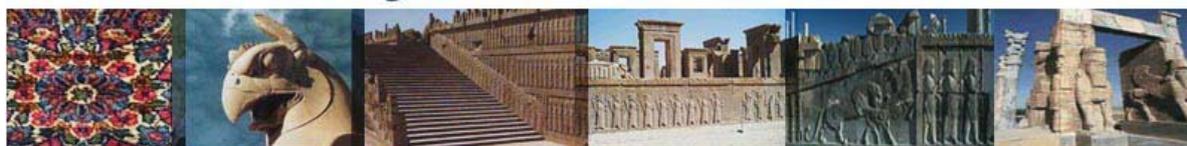
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We hope you enjoy this edition and look forward to your readership.



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Title

A Corpus Study of Lexical Bundles across Different Disciplines

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Biodata

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Abstract

‘Lexical bundles’ as a category of word combinations are words which follow each other more frequently than expected by chance. This corpus-based study attempted to compare the structures and functions of three- and four-word lexical bundles in research articles of three disciplines: physics, computer engineering,

and applied linguistic. Toward this end, three corpora of research articles were collected, each including approximately one million words. All the analyses were conducted through the Wordsmith Tools (Scott, 2010), Hyland's (2008a) taxonomy of most frequent academic lexical bundles, Biber et al.'s (1999) structural classification of lexical bundles in academic writing, and Biber et al. (2004) and Biber's (2006) functional classification of lexical bundles in academic writing. Results showed that there were significant differences between both the structures and functions of the lexical bundles employed across these disciplines. It was also revealed that lexical bundles are realized differently across different disciplines and that researchers resort to different norms to appropriately communicate with members of their own communities. Findings can be used to improve writings in different disciplines and create more cohesive and coherent texts.

Keywords: Corpus; Discipline; Lexical Bundles; Structure; Function

1. Introduction

Recently, there has been a wide interest in the study of formulaic patterns in general and specific groups of word combinations in particular. This interest dates back to more than five decades ago (Cortes, 2002). The importance of addressing groups of word combination can no longer be overlooked. Cortes (2004) believes that the initial studies of word combinations were done more from a rather impressionistic, intuitive, and less quantitative evidence-based perspective. She states that, it has been since the 1970s that quantitative and usually corpus-based studies of different word combinations have gained popularity (p. 398). Formulaicity is an umbrella term covering a wide variety of word strings which are stored and retrieved as whole chunks rather than being subject to productive and analytical processing. More specifically, they define a formulaic expression as a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which is prefabricated, that is, stored and retrieved as a whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by language grammar (Wray & Perkins, 2000).

Lexical bundles, as a particular and relatively recent category of word combinations with a possibly formulaic status, were first defined by Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999). They defined lexical bundles as "recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity, and regardless of their structural status" (p. 990). Scott (1996) refers to these

word combinations as "clusters". Essentially, these are words which follow each other more frequently than expected by chance, helping to shape text meanings and contributing to our sense of distinctiveness in a register.

Different disciplines are varied in many ways. As Hyland (2009) states, disciplines are different in terms of hedges, reporting verbs, self-mentions, directives, and lexical bundles (p. 11). He believes that lexical bundles are a key way of shaping text meanings and contributing to our sense of distinctiveness and naturalness in a register. Therefore, collocations, like *as a result of* and *it should be noted that*, help us to identify a text as belonging to an academic register, while *in pursuance of* and *in accordance with* reveal that it belongs to a legal text. There are, however, some interesting disciplinary differences. For example, it is found that the electrical engineering texts contained the greatest range of high frequency bundles and also the highest proportion of words in 4-word bundles. Biology, on the other hand, had the smallest range of bundles, and the lowest proportion of texts comprised of words in bundles. Hence, the electrical engineering texts were most dependent on prefabricated bundles and used many sequences not found in the other disciplines, perhaps because of the fact that technical communication is relatively abstract and graphical (Hyland, 2008a).

In some different disciplines and registers, lexical bundles have been classified structurally (Biber, 2006; Biber et al, 1999; Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2004) as well as functionally (Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al, 2004; Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2003; Cortes, 2001; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). The functional contribution of the lexical bundles to the coherence and organization of different texts, either spoken or written (Biber et al, 2004; Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b), has made these bundles a topic of high interest especially in recent corpus-based studies. There have been a number of studies that have developed functional classifications of these word combinations (e.g. Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al, 2004; Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2003; Cortes, 2001, 2002, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). Such studies have shown that these word clusters can serve such a wide range of discursive functions as organization of discourse, expression of stance, and reference to textual or external entities.

Since 1999, a number of corpus-based and comparative studies have explored possible differences and similarities in the use of bundles between different disciplinary fields (soft as well as hard) registers (spoken and written) genres (mostly those of academy like theses, dissertations, and research articles) and different degrees of writing expertise (e.g., undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate). Among studies focusing on disciplinary variations in the use of word clusters, Hyland (2008a) compared the forms, structures and functions of 4-

word bundles in a 3.5 million word corpus of research articles, doctoral dissertations and master's theses in four disciplines. It was revealed that writers in different fields use different resources to develop their ideas and affect their readers.

In another study for investigating lexical bundles Strunkyte and Jurkunaite (2008), compared two broad disciplinary domains, humanities and natural sciences in terms of the frequency and distribution of different structural and functional types. The results of this study indicated that lexical bundles in the research articles in humanities occurred more frequently. As structural analysis showed, the language of the research articles in humanities revealed more variety than the language of research articles in natural sciences. In terms of functional analysis, the findings revealed that the language of research articles in natural sciences were more precise in text structuring than the articles in humanities.

Cortes (2008) analyzed the use of lexical bundles in two corpora of academic history writing. One corpus consisted of history articles written in English and published in American journals, and the other consisted of history articles written in Spanish from Argentinian publications. The analyses showed that the bundles identified in each language had many features in common. While one group of bundles could be regarded as the result of direct translation, a second group of bundles showed structural characteristics that are closely related to bundles frequently found in academic writing in both languages (phrasal bundles). Finally, a functional classification showed that some bundles from both languages shared functions connected with academic prose, as well as to the topics discussed in the publications from which the texts had been collected.

Although considerable research has been carried out into lexical bundles in various discourses, rather little attention has been paid to investigating the structural and functional differences of lexical bundles across different disciplines at the same time. Most of the studies have analyzed one group of lexical bundles (e.g., three, four, or five-word) in a single or different disciplines, genres, and registers. However, there seems to be a dearth of studies on analyzing these groups across different disciplines. Therefore, the idea to investigate the disciplinary variation of lexical bundles both structurally and functionally becomes the impetus for this study. The current study, thus, aims to conduct a cross-disciplinary analysis of three- and four-word lexical bundles to find out the differences which exist in research articles of three disciplines, namely, computer engineering, physics, and applied linguistics. In order to conduct a comprehensive analysis of lexical bundles, this study attempts to explore the following research questions:

Q1. Do lexical bundles identified in research articles of different disciplines differ structurally?

Q2. Do lexical bundles identified in RAs of different disciplines differ functionally?

2. Methodology

2.1. Corpora

This study relied on three English corpora of physics, computer engineering, and applied linguistics, each including approximately one million words. These corpora were compiled by gathering articles published internationally from 2005 to 2012 in prestigious journals of each discipline. The rationale for using these corpora was to cover three different fields in this study. Therefore, we chose a corpus in hard sciences, namely, physics, another one in applied sciences, i.e. computer engineering, and one in humanities, which was applied linguistics. In addition, it seems that this number of words was manageable to handle and was large enough to allow reliable generalizations.

The computer engineering corpus was collected from four different journals in computer science. Concerning the physics corpus, as one discipline of hard sciences, articles were selected from four different journals as well. For the applied linguistics corpus, the articles were selected from four journals. It is worth mentioning that the decision about the choice of the journals was mostly based on the experts' opinion and practical access to electronic files of the articles and journals.

2.2. Software

The instrument employed in this study was the fifth version of the WordSmith Tools software developed by Scott (2010). For the purpose of the present study, this computer program was used to determine the frequencies of 3-word and 4-word lexical bundles across the three corpora, as well as the size of each corpus.

2.3. Lexical Bundles Taxonomies

Two taxonomies were employed in this study, expounded on below. In the first part, the structural taxonomy is described, and in the next part, the functional one is elaborated on. The rationale for using these frameworks is that they are the most comprehensive taxonomies which have been employed in a number of studies.

2.3.1. The Structural Taxonomy of Lexical Bundles

In studies on lexical bundles, structure refers to the particular syntactic or grammatical configuration, which a lexical bundle assumes or within which it is embedded. For example,

a lexical bundle like *the number of* is considered to be as a bundle that can incorporate a noun-phrase with *of*-fragment (Rafiee, Tavakoli & Amirian, 2011). Biber et al. (1999) have proposed a taxonomy by regarding the structural characteristics of lexical bundles found in their study of bundles in university registers. According to this taxonomy, lexical bundles are divided into 8 major structural categories which can be seen in the table below.

Table 1 Structural classification of lexical bundles in academic writing (Biber et al., 1999, pp. 997–1025)

Examples Structure	Examples
Noun phrase + of	the end of the, the nature of the, the beginning of the, a large number of
Other noun phrases	the fact that the, one of the most, the extent to which
Prepositional phrase + of	at the end of, as a result of, on the basis of, in the context of
Other prepositional phrases	on the other hand, at the same time, in the present study, with respect to the
Passive + prep phrase	is shown in figure, is based on the, is defined as the fragment
Anticipatory it + verb/adj	it is important to, it is possible that, it was found that, it should be noted
Be + noun/adjectival phrase	is the same as, is a matter of, is due to the
Others	as shown in figure, should be noted that

We used this taxonomy to compare the structural occurrences of the lexical bundles across the corpora in the current study. Toward this end, we determined the structures of all the lexical bundles as the first step, and then counted the occurrences of each structure in each discipline.

2.3.2. The Functional Taxonomy of Lexical Bundles

Another taxonomy for comparing the lexical bundles was a functional classification developed by Biber et al. (2004), and Biber (2006). Biber’s taxonomy emerged from a corpus of spoken and written registers. This classification, therefore, collects bundles into the three broad foci of research, text and participants, and introduces sub-categories which specifically reflect the concerns of research writing. The following table illustrates them.

Table 2 Functional classification of lexical bundles in academic writing (Biber et al., 2004, & Biber, 2006).

Major functions	Sub-categories	Examples
<i>Research-oriented</i> help	-location indicating	at the beginning of, at the same

writers to structure their activities and experiences of the real world, and include:	time and place -procedure -quantification -description -topic related to the field of research	time, in the present study the use of, the role of, the purpose of the, the operation of the the magnitude of the, a wide range of, one of the most the structure of the, the size of the, the surface of the in the Hong Kong, the currency board system
<i>Text-oriented</i> concerned with the organization of the text and its meaning as a message or argument, and include:	-transition signals establishing additive or contrastive links between elements -resultative signals mark inferential or causative relations between elements -structuring signals text-reflexive markers which organize stretches of discourse or direct reader elsewhere in text -framing signals situate arguments by specifying limiting conditions	on the other hand, in addition to the, in contrast to the as a result of, it was found that, these results suggest that in the present study, in the next section, as shown figure In the case of, with respect to the, in the presence of, with the exception of
<i>Participant-oriented</i> these are focused on the writer or reader of the text, and include:	-stance features convey the writer's attitude and evaluations -engagement features address readers directly	Are likely to be, may be due to, it is possible that it should be noted that, as can be seen

This taxonomy was applied to compare the lexical bundles functionally across the corpora in this study; consequently, we determined the functions of all the lexical bundles as the first step, and then counted the occurrences of each function in each discipline.

2.4. Procedure

First, we used Hyland's (2008) taxonomy of the most frequent academic 3-word, 4-word, and 5-word bundles to find out their frequencies in our corpora. These lexical bundles and their frequencies are shown in the below table. All of the 3- and 4-word lexical bundles were considered in this study to be compared in terms of their structures and functions. However, the 5-word lexical bundles were excluded from the analysis because their frequencies were very low, so much so that they could not yield reliable comparisons.

Table 3 Most frequent 3-, 4-, and 5-word bundles in academic corpus (Hyland, 2008a)

3-word	Freq.	4-word	Freq.	5-word	Freq.
in order to	1629	on the other hand	726	on the other hand the	153
in terms of	1203	at the same time	337	at the end of the	138
one of the	1092	in the case of	334	it should be noted that	109
the use of	1081	the end of the	258	it can be seen that	102
as well as	1044	as well as the	253	due to the fact that	99
the number of	992	at the end of	252	at the beginning of the	98
due to the	886	in terms of the	251	may be due to the	64
on the other	810	on the basis of	247	it was found that the	57
based on the	801	in the present study	225	to the fact that the	52
the other hand	730	is one of the	209	there are a number of	51
in this study	712	in the form of	191	in the case of the	50
a number of	690	the nature of the	191	as a result of the	48
the fact that	630	the results of the	189	at the same time the	41
most of the	605	the fact that the	177	is one of the most	37
there is a	575	as a result of	175	it is possible that the	36
according to the	562	in relation to the	163	one of the most important	36
the present study	549	at the beginning of	158	play an important role in	36
part of the	514	with respect to the	156	can be seen as a	35
the end of	501	the other hand the	154	the results of this study	35
the relationship between	487	the relationship between the	52	from the point of view	34
in the following	478	in the context of	150	the point of view of	34
the role of	478	can be used to	148	it can be observed that	33
some of the	474	to the fact that	143	this may be due to	32
as a result	472	as shown in figure	136	an important role in the	31
it can be	468	it was found that	133	in the form of a	31

Next, Biber, et al.'s (1999) structural taxonomy was used to scrutinize the structures of the lexical bundles in these corpora. In this stage, these structures of were determined and their frequencies were compared. For example, in terms of 'noun- phrase structure', we compared the frequency of this structure across the three corpora to find out which on used it more frequently. All the structures were investigated following this procedure. As the last step, the same measures were taken to tease out the functional similarities or differences of the bundles among the disciplines by means of Biber et al. (2004) and Biber's (2006) functional classification.

3. Results

3.1. Results of the Structural Analysis

In this section the frequencies and percentages of the structures of all the bundles in the corpora are presented and compared through Chi-square. It is worth mentioning that, in all the comparisons, the probability (α) level was set at 0.05.

Table 4 The structures of the lexical bundles

Structures	Computer Engineering	Physics	AL	Total	Sig.
noun phrase+ of	850 (24.9%)	1819 (11.9%)	1105 (18.0%)	3774 18.25% (18.25%)	
other noun phrases	1537 (21.0%)	1212 (16.6%)	1511 (24.7%)	4260 (20.60%)	
prepositional phrases +of	1363 (18.7%)	938 (12.8%)	1171 (19.1%)	3472 (16.79%)	
other prepositional phrase	1796 (24.6%)	1547 (21.2%)	1354 (22.1%)	4697 (22.72%)	
passive +prep phrase fragment	93 (1.3%)	98 (1.3%)	23 (0.4%)	214 (1.03%)	
anticipatory it+ verb/adj	317 (4.3%)	196 (2.7%)	96 (1.6%)	609 (2.94%)	.001
be+noun/adjectival phrase	56 (0.8%)	144 (2.0%)	85 (1.4%)	285 (1.37%)	
Others	1280 (17.5%)	1353 (18.5%)	783 (12.8%)	3416 (16.52%)	
Total	7307(100.0)	7291(100.0)	6072(100.0)	20670(100.0)	

As demonstrated in Table 4, *other prepositional phrase* was the most common and frequent structure across the three disciplines. This structure comprised more than one-fifth of all of the structures occurrences (22.72%). *other noun phrase* was the next structure which was employed most frequently in the disciplines, with 20.60% of the occurrences. Conversely, *passive formats with prepositional fragment* accounted for the lowest percentage (1.03%). In this sense, *be plus noun/adjectival phrase* was also rare in the three disciplines.

Accordingly, a closer look at each discipline separately reveals that *noun phrase plus of-fragment* was more frequently used in computer engineering, 24.9%. In other words, computer engineering authors tend to use this structure in their papers more than the other structures. Moreover, *other prepositional phrases* was the next frequent category which was utilized more in this discipline. In contrast, *passive formats with prepositional fragment* contained the lowest percentage of the occurrences in this discipline, 1.3%; *be plus noun/adjectival phrase* was applied with the lowest percentage, 2.6%. Concerning the physics discipline, results revealed that *other prepositional phrases* was employed more frequently than the other structural categories (24.6%). The second place belonged to *other noun phrases*. In terms of the least frequent bundles, we can say that *be plus noun/adjectival phrase* was the rarest structure in this discipline (0.8%) and *passive formats with prepositional fragment* was the next structure which was applied less than the other structures. In case of AL, *other noun phrases* had a higher frequency than the other structures, with 24.7% of the occurrences and the next place belonged to *other prepositional phrases*, 22.1%. Additionally, as it was concluded previously about the other disciplines, *passive formats with prepositional fragment* and *be plus noun/adjectival phrase* were the least frequent structures in this discipline too. To put it differently, we can say that authors tend to utilize these structures in their writings less frequently.

Considering disciplinary variations, it should be noted that there were differences in the frequencies of each structure between the disciplines as well. For instance, *noun phrase with of-fragment* had the biggest number of occurrences in computer engineering (24.9%) than the two other disciplines. Another considerable difference is related to *prepositional phrase with of-fragment* which occurred less in computer engineering (16.6%). Another structure which showed substantial differences between the disciplines was the low number of *prepositional phrase with of-fragment* in computer engineering, 12.8%, in comparison with AL and physics, with 18.7% and 19.1% of the occurrences respectively. It is important to note that these disciplinary discrepancies were statistically significant as shown by Chi-square. The results indicated that the significance value of Chi-square between the disciplines was 0.001

which is smaller than 0.05. In other words, each discipline resorts to more or less different structures of lexical bundles.

3.2. Results of the Functional Analysis

Regarding the functions of the lexical bundles, the frequencies and percentages of all the bundles across the three corpora are presented and compared through Chi-square in the following table. It should be noted that, in all the comparisons, the probability (α) level was set at 0.05.

Table 5 The functions of the lexical bundles

Major Functions	Sub-categories	Computer Engineering	Physics	AL	Total	Sig.
<i>Research-oriented</i>	-location indicating time and place	218(2.9)	757(9.6)	960(15.0)	1935(17.31)	
	-procedure	458(6.1)	388(4.9)	863(13.7)	1709(15.2)	
	-quantification	2240(29.9)	1217(15.4)	1207(18.8)	4664(41.72)	
	-description	1226(16.3)	684(8.7)	581(9.1)	2491(22.28)	
	-topic related to the field of research	458(6.1)	455(5.8)	373(5.8)	1286 (11.5)	
	Total	4142(61.3)	3051(44.4)	3984(62.2)	1177(100.0)	0.001

<i>Text-oriented</i>	-transition signals	382(5.1)	339(4.2)	257(4.0)	978 (12.56)	
	-resultative signals	254(3.4)	686(8.7)	261(4.1)	1174(15.04)	
	-structuring signals	171(2.3)	548(6.9)	281(4.4)	1000(12.84)	
	-framing signals	1562(20.8)	2021(25.4)	1023(16.2)	4606(59.16)	
	Total	2369(31.6)	3594(45.2)	1822(28.5)	7785(100.0)	
<i>Participant-oriented</i>	-stance features	380(5.1)	559(7.3)	405(6.3)	1344(69.31)	
	-engagement features	152(2.0)	247(3.1)	196(2.5)	595 (30.74)	
	Total	532(7.1)	806(10.4)	601(8.8)	1939(100.0)	
Total	7501(100.0)	7891(100.0)	6410(100.0)	20901(100.0)		

Regarding the most and the least used functions, as you can see in tale 5, results showed that in the *research-oriented* category, *quantification function* was generally used more frequently and *topic-related sub-category* was the least frequent function. As far as the *text-oriented* category is concerned, the *framing* function was utilized considerably more than the other functions, including more than half of the overall functions (59.16). On the other hand, the *transition* function was applied less than the other ones. In the third category, *participant oriented*, *stance features* function made up the biggest number of occurrences, comprising more than half of the overall functions in the *participant-oriented* category. Conversely, *engagement feature* occurred less in this category.

Another interesting point to note here is that *research-oriented* bundles represent around one half of all the bundles and those serving *textual* functions included more than one-third of all the bundles used by research article writers. Finally, *participant-oriented* bundles, which were employed much less than the other two major categories, covered the smallest number of bundles in the three corpora.

The analyses revealed that the *quantification* function was utilized more than the other functions in the computer engineering discipline (29.9%). Moreover, *framing signal* was the next most frequent function, which comprised approximately a fifth of the instances. On the other hand, *engagement feature* accounted for the lowest number of functions in this discipline. Concerning the physics discipline, the authors tended to use *framing signals* (25.4%) more, whereas *structuring signals* (2.3%) were employed by far less than the other ones. Another notable fact is that the *quantification function* had the biggest number of occurrences in AL, while the *engagement* feature comprised the lowest number.

In a similar way, results illustrate that there were substantial differences between the disciplines using each function as well. In other words, there were disciplinary variations in terms of the occurrences of functions as well. As an instance, there was a remarkable difference between the three disciplines in the use of the *location* function; it was used considerably more by AL authors (15.0%) compared to the two other disciplines. In addition, the *procedure* function was employed more frequently in this discipline. Another remarkable difference refers to the *quantification* function which was utilized to a great extent more in computer engineering discipline than the other ones. Similarly, computer engineering authors were more likely to employ the *description* function in their papers. As shown in table 5, another drastic difference was observed in the frequent occurrence of *structuring signals* in the physics corpus in comparison with AL and computer engineering corpora. This holds true about *framing signals* too. To put it simply, this function was most likely to occur in the

physics discipline (25.4%) and less in AL (16.2%). Results of this section highlight the fact that the significance value was 0.001 which is less than 0.05, indicating that the difference between the three disciplines was statistically meaningful. Therefore, we can say that there were significant differences among the three disciplines in the use of different functions of the bundles.

4. Discussion

In answering the first question, concerning the structural differences of lexical bundles across the different disciplines, it should be mentioned that the three disciplines were different in using certain structures of lexical bundles, and there were significant differences in the structures of lexical bundles used through the three disciplines. These differences can be caused by some factors. As Hyland (2008a) believes, different disciplines show distinct behaviors in developing texts and employing textual elements because of their distinct nature. The differences thereof may be related to the distinct nature of different disciplines. Due to these distinctive natures, structures were used with different frequencies in the three disciplines. It means that the authors in different disciplines rely on different conventions to handle lexical bundles. However, the differences between computer engineering and physics were trivial although computer engineering made a slightly greater use of the structures altogether. Again, this is possibly because of their nature which can result in their reliance on using different structures.

Furthermore, as can be seen in table 4, authors in computer engineering made a greater use of bundles beginning with a *noun phrase with of-fragment* (e.g. *the number of, the use of*). This structure covers a range of meanings in academic discourse, particularly widely used to identify quantity, place or size (e.g. *the temperature of the, the base of the*), to mark existence (e.g. *a wide range of, the presence of the*), or highlight qualities (e.g. *the nature of the, a function of the*) (Hyland, 2008a). This fact supports Halliday's (1989) claim that one of the most prominent features of scientific discourse is the occurrence of nominalizations. This suggests that the language of the research articles in computer engineering contains more nominalizations than the language of the other disciplines. Thus, it can be concluded that the distinct nature of computer engineering makes the authors utilize noun phrases more than the other structures. Some examples of *noun-phrase with of-fragment* in the computer engineering discipline are given below:

*The leader election solution was first thought of at **the end of the seventies**, it was started by the ring and complete networks.*

*It shows **the results of the proposed system** which results in saving energy and extending the life time of the nodes.*

Regarding the physics discipline, *propositional phrases with of- fragment* (e.g. *in terms of, in the case of*) included the majority of lexical bundles used in this discipline, typically indicating logical relations between propositional elements. As stated by Hyland (2008), prepositional phrases are principally used for making abstract or logical connections between propositions. They are also useful for expressing such concepts as methods, processes, measurements, place, extremity and orientation (p. 10). This means that physics texts tend to use more bundles of this type to make logical connections between the propositions compared to the other disciplines. This might be also related to the distinctive nature of this discipline which is more abstract than the other disciplines. Thus, this intangible nature of physics can result in a higher percentage of *propositional phrases*. The followings are some of these bundles in the physics corpus:

*First is that the initial condition for the relevant Liouville equation may be obtained **in terms of the phenomenological model** describing kinetic competition.*

*Magnetic field-induced convection affects this process. **In the case of anodic zinc dissolution**, the magnetic field necessary to quench the oscillation is high (2 T) compared to the present result (0.47 T).*

Other noun phrases (e.g. *the fact that the, the present study*) were used more in applied linguistics texts. As it was mentioned about computer engineering and its high frequency of *noun phrases with of-fragment*, in AL *other noun phrases* occurred more than the other structures. Therefore, it can be said that since the language of this discipline is replete with nominalizations, this leads the authors to use *noun phrases* more than the other structures in this discipline. It should be mentioned that as Hyland (2008) believes, the language of the research articles in natural sciences contains more nominalizations than the language of humanities and this was shown to be true in the current study too. Some of these *noun phrases* are exemplified here:

*Accordingly, **the present study** had two aims, namely (1) to provide further in sight into the relationship of university-level learners' L2 proficiency and their L2 metalinguistic knowledge.*

*I now return to **the fact that** the EAP textbooks are making pronouncements on student writing, whereas my corpus data are taken from expert writing.*

On the other hand, in the case of the rest of the structures, *passive structures with prepositional fragments* (e.g. *is shown in figure*) was employed significantly more in computer engineering than the other disciplines. This structure typically marks a locative or logical relation. Generally, writers here either seek to guide readers through the text or to identify the basis for an assertion in an argument. These highlight the research or text feature being discussed and can indicate the personal role of the scientist in the interpretation of data to suggest that the results would be the same whoever conducted the research (Hyland, 2008). Therefore, it can be said that computer engineering authors employed this structure of lexical bundles to lead the readers towards the results, maximizing the reliability of the study. It is worth mentioning that there were no statistically significant frequency differences between the three corpora and all of the corpora revealed a low frequency in using this structure. Some examples are given for the computer engineering texts below:

*Canny operator is the result of solving an optimization problem with constraints. The criteria are sensibility, localization and local unicity. The method **can be seen** as a smoothing filtering performed with a linear combination of exponential functions.*

*Even though the presence of virtual sub carriers **can be seen** as the transmission of known (null) symbols, there is a basic practical difference as the transmission of null symbols does not imply any waste of power.*

Regarding *anticipatory it with verb/adjective* (e.g. *it is possible, it was found that*), interestingly, physics writers also tended to employ more examples of this type of structure, which is another means of veiling authorial interpretations (Hyland, 2008). He believes that these bundles introduce extraposed structures and function to foreground the writer's evaluation without explicitly identifying its source. This structure is used to communicate the writer's appraisal of probability and possibility. When it is followed by a verb predicate, especially a passive construction, it aims to express the writer's opinion. Therefore, we can say that physics authors do not tend to discuss subjects from their own point of view. Instead, they are more likely to focus on the results without clarifying the source. That can be why they employed this structure to discuss the subjects without certainty, appreciating those bundles which reveal probability. Some bundles of this kind are exemplified below:

From spectral simulation of the complexes at spin equilibrium, it was found that the radical unit is slightly shifted from the porphyrin unit in comparison with complex 1.

It can be suggested that the teachers' consideration of their students' confidence and the flow of the lessons have a substantial degree of influence on their beliefs about error correction.

Another structure in this taxonomy was *be with noun/adjectival phrase* which was used more in the computer engineering discipline in comparison with the two other disciplines. This kind of structure serves to connect elements causatively and comparatively and to indicate authorial evaluations (Hyland, 2008a). Thus, it can be concluded that computer engineering texts tend to be more causative and comparative in nature so much so that this structure was used to indicate the relation of the elements. In addition, the authors may try to direct the readers' attention to the evaluations of themselves, by using this structure. Here, we have an example:

Proposed technique uses e-books in portable document format because it is one of the favorite's formats of information exchange on internet.

As it was discussed, there were differences between the disciplines in terms of using the structures of lexical bundles. Wells (1992) states that each subject discipline constitutes a way of making sense of human experience that has evolved over generations and each is dependent on its own particular practices: its instrumental procedures, its criteria for judging relevance and validity, and its conventions of acceptable forms of argument. In a word, each has developed its own modes of discourse (p. 290). Therefore, to work in a discipline, writers need to be able to know the structures used more in each discipline to establish themselves as members of that community. This statement can be considered as the rationale behind the distinctive ways by which different disciplines employ different structures to develop their own modes of discourse. That might be why texts in the three disciplines in this study resorted to different ways of arguing the subjects through different structures.

Moreover, both Sinclair (1991) and Hoey (1991) point out that because we all have different textual experiences, we all have a different mental concordance to draw on so that particular patterns are cumulatively loaded with the contexts we participate in. Hence, just as individual lexical items occur and behave in different ways across disciplines (Hyland & Tse, 2007), we need to be cautious about an appropriate disciplinary-sensitive repertoire of bundles. With regard to this fact, we can conclude that authors in different disciplines have different textual experiences of the communities they participate in. Thus, since their

repertoire of bundles is different, they rely on different structures to develop their ideas. It means that the authors in each discipline work in different contexts with different ways of discussing ideas. In addition, it can be suggested that each discipline necessities some kinds of bundles more than the others to argue the subjects, based on their nature. In a word, it may be a reason why different disciplines rely to a greater extent on certain structures than the others.

With regard to the functional distribution of lexical bundles across the disciplines, it was found that there were significant differences between them in using different functions. In other words, the most and the least frequent functions were different across the disciplines. Additionally, the frequency of each function varied among the disciplines. In this respect, the differences between the disciplines were significantly noteworthy. As it was mentioned in the previous sections, functions are employed differently due to the distinct nature of each discipline. To put it differently, authors of different disciplines should follow certain conventions in expressing their ideas and this leads them to handle functions based on the nature of the disciplines in which they are writing. Furthermore, lexical bundles are divided into three major functional categories and some sub-categories. For the comparison across the three disciplines in general, the most frequently used category was *research-oriented bundles*. These are clusters that focus more on the external relations in the world describing especially in the case of academic texts time and place relations, size and magnitude, the study itself and research procedures. The second place belongs to the *text-oriented bundles*, which as Biber, et al. (2004) and Biber (2006) state, function as a more discursive function of marking the relationship between prior and coming discourse, lending support to Hyland's position (2008a, 2008b) that lexical bundles in research articles serve a textual function to a large extent as well. *Participant-oriented bundles* were placed in the third position. They are used to express different stance meanings and encode engagement features (Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 2004).

Considering the distribution of lexical bundles across functional categories in each discipline, it was found that the *research-oriented category* was used more in the computer engineering discipline. This category helps writers to structure their activities and experiences of the real world (Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 2004). Therefore, this finding reveals that computer engineering authors rely more on this function to organize their activities. Too, research-oriented bundles which are more widely used in the computer engineering discipline than the others show that this discipline is dominated more by the results obtained through the research. This finding also supports Hyland's work (2008a) which claimed that this

category was utilized more in the electrical engineering to impart a greater real world, laboratory-focused sense to writing.

Many of these bundles contributed to the description of research objects or contexts, specifying aspects of models, equipment, materials or aspects of the research environment (Hyland, 2008a). He believes that the significantly greater use of *research-oriented bundles* also expresses something of a scientific ideology which emphasizes the empirical over the interpretive, minimizing the presence of researchers and contributing to the strong claims of the sciences. Thus, it can be concluded that computer engineering articles' greater use of this category is because of its empirical nature which leads the authors to focus on the ways and methods through which the research is conducted. Some examples of this function are provided below:

*For these reasons, the role of qualitative research in the development of the MPA model is not limited to an explorative study **at the beginning of** model-building, but will remain important as the model is applied to various innovations.*
(location)

***The use of** receiver coil array ('phasedarray') permits one to provide a large region of sensitivity, similar to that obtained with volume coils, and a high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), usually similar to surface coils.*(procedure)

*Due to **a number of** factors, the obtained fingerprints may not have well defined ridge/valley structures and might contain a lot of disturbance in the image.*
(quantification)

Highlighting research rather than its presentation places greater burden on research practices and the methods, procedures and equipment used, and this allows scientists to emphasize demonstrable generalizations rather than interpreting individuals (Hyland, 2008a). In the same line, the greater use of the *research-oriented category* in computer engineering might suggest the fact that emphasis on the ways in which the research was conducted plays an important role in conveying the experimental basis of research, and that the focus is on the procedures carried out during the research rather than the researcher itself.

Among the sub-categories of *research-oriented bundles*, including time and location, procedure, quantification, description, and topic related, the *quantification* one is the most frequent function in all the disciplines. This means that writers in these disciplines have a similar tendency to use this kind of bundles to express their ideas. Below are some examples in which quantification function was used in each discipline:

Computer engineering: *Due to a **number of** factors, the obtained fingerprints may not have well defined ridge/valley structures and might contain a lot of disturbance in the image.*

Physics: *Enzymatic activity **is one of the** essential parameters used to confirm the effective and fruitful immobilization of the enzyme onto the oparticles.*

AL: *Oral fluency, interpreted here as an automatic procedural skill on the part of the speaker (Schmidt 1992) and a perceptual phenomenon in the listener has been investigated from **a number of** perspectives.*

In contrast, the physics corpus was dominated by *text-oriented bundles*. These bundles are concerned with the organization of the text and its meaning as a message or argument. They also establish the relationships between the proceeding and the following discourse (Biber & Barberi, 2007). Regarding the results of this study, it can be said that physics authors have a stronger inclination to employ this category to connect the arguments in a way that leads the readers toward understanding the message. Below some examples of this kind in the physics discipline are given:

*To determine T2, we used a two-pulse sequence: p/2 pulse-s-p pulse-s-(echo). **On the other hand**, to determine T1, we used a three-pulse sequence (i.e., the inversion recovery method); p pulse-T-p/2 pulse-s-p pulse-s-(echo).(transition)*

*Variation of the dihedral angle h (Scheme 1) in excited aromatic ketones changes the contribution of spin-orbit interaction, and **as a result** changes ZFS parameters due to the mixing of n-p* and p-p* states. (resultative)*

*This transition could not be observed **in the present study** due to inadequacy of the range of the spectrophotometer. (structuring)*

***In the case of** singlet electron transfer, the small value of the coupling b compared to the Zeeman energy x_0 means that the T0 level has some singlet character, while the T? and T-sublevels do not mix significantly with the singlet state.(framing)*

According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), to be aware of the *text-oriented bundles* means to know the organizational structure of the text and to comprehend it. The fact that text organizing bundles are more numerous in the articles in physics may point to a greater need for the precision of text structuring in this discipline. Similarly, the results revealed that the biggest number of bundles in AL belonged to the textual *functions*. As stated by Hyland (2004), *text-oriented bundles* reflect the more discursive and evaluative patterns of argument in the soft-knowledge fields, where persuasion is more explicitly interpretative and less empiricist, producing discourses which often recast knowledge as sympathetic understanding,

promoting tolerance in readers through an ethical rather than cognitive progression. The presentation of research is therefore altogether more discursively elaborate, and text-oriented bundles are heavily used to provide familiar and shorthand ways of engaging with a literature, providing warrants, connecting ideas, directing readers around the text, and specifying limitations.

Due to the fact that AL is more interpretive than empirical, it can be concluded that AL is in correspondence with Hyland's (2004) claim that *textual functions* are used more in the disciplines that are more discursive than experimental. It suggests that AL's greater use of *textual functions* than other categories might be because of its interpretive and discursive nature. Below are some examples in which *textual functions* are used in AL:

*A puzzle emerges when we look at studies of actual language use and creativity. On the one hand, it has been noted that repetition in discourse may be the norm rather than the exception; and **on the other**, it has been observed that far from being the exceptional case, creativity in language is extremely common.*
(transition)

*When the results obtained from first-year and fourth-year learners, **it was found that** the language test and the metalanguage test scores were correlated strongly in the case of the fourth-year learners.* (resultative)

*These function to either expand the original, by explanation or implication, or to reduce it by paraphrase or specification, **as shown in Figure 1.*** (structuring)

*Ana's patterns of use and development were discussed in relation to H2. H4 and its subhypotheses were partially supported. **With respect to the** dependency pattern, subject RCs were Ana's first and most common type of RC (64 per cent).*
(framing)

In terms of the disciplinary differences in the distribution of *text-oriented bundles*, the computer engineering discipline made a greater use of transition signals. This kind of bundles establishes additive or contrastive links between elements (Hyland, 2008a). By means of these bundles, computer engineering authors try to connect their ideas to complete or reject one element and create connections between the elements to shift to a complementary or contrastive point. Below are some examples which reject or complement one element by means of transition signals in the computer engineering texts:

*In order to open and operate on it the person must have Microsoft PowerPoint installed on his personal computer on any other device. **On the other hand** if the*

same presentation is created using Google Docs then it can be opened and edited anywhere provided that there is internet connection and a web browser available.

*On the one hand, search engine technology has evolved significantly in recent years and has become one of the most effective and widely used tools to access information in electronic networks. **On the other**, it is clear that search engines provide different kinds of results.*

On the other hand, *resultative signals (as a result of, it was found that)* were used more in the physics discipline. Hyland (2008a) believes that these signals mark inferential or causative relations between elements. Therefore, these bundles aim to introduce writer's interpretations and understandings of research processes and outcomes. This is a key function in the rhetorical presentation of research as these bundles signal the main conclusions to be drawn from the study and highlight the inferences the writer wants readers to draw from the discussion. In the same line, it can be concluded that the physics authors try to attract the attention of their readers toward the results of the study through these signals in order to make connections between the elements in the study. In addition, employing these signals can help the authors to make the results drawn out by the writer more clearly to the readers. Some examples of this kind of bundles are applied below:

*The polarization arises during the radical lifetime **as a result of** differences in the magnetic interactions (Zeeman and/or hyperfine) and the exchange interaction between radicals.*

*The splittings of the ¹³³Cs resonance lines were measured in the temperature range of 180–400 K, and **it was found that** the distances between the satellite lines slowly decrease with increasing temperature.*

Regarding applied linguistics, findings revealed that the *framing signals function* is utilized more to frame arguments by highlighting connections, specifying cases and pointing to limitations (Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 2004). These bundles are used to focus readers on a particular instance or to specify the conditions, under which a statement can be accepted, try to elaborate, and compare and emphasize aspects of an argument (Hyland, 2008a). Accordingly, it can be said that the AL authors employ these signals to organize the arguments of their study using those bundles which can help them to direct readers to a specific point. For this purpose they may use these signals to limit the scope of the arguments. The examples of this signal in AL are given below:

*The first we called a contextual perspective which described integration **in terms of the** relationship between grammar work and the text or task it was related to.*

There might be variation in how learners utilize the time with respect to the nature of the task.

*Overall, the results clearly suggest that learners' ability autonomously to notice sound patterns such as alliteration cannot be taken for granted, even **in the case of** learners likely to be above average in their aptitude for language learning.*

The third functional category of lexical bundles dealt with in this study is *participant-oriented bundles* which provide a structure for interpreting a following proposition (Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 2004). This category, which is used more by authors in physics, convey two main kinds of meaning: *stance* and *engagement*. These sub-categories refer to writer and reader-focused features of the discourse respectively, representing key aspects of interaction in texts (Hyland, 2005). While *stance* concerns the ways writers explicitly intrude into the discourse to convey epistemic and affective judgments, evaluations and degrees of commitment to what they say, *engagement* refers to the ways writers intervene to actively address readers as participants in the unfolding discourse.

It was shown in the results section that physics authors employ this category more to shape effective reader-writer interaction. In other words, this category was employed more frequently by the physics authors to organize a framework for interpreting the proposition. *Stance* and *engagement* features were also used more in the physics discipline. Here, writers have to establish their claims through more explicit evaluation and engagement: personal credibility, and explicitly getting behind arguments (Hyland, 2005). In addition, the most frequent sub-function in each discipline was the *stance features*. By means of this feature, the writer may intend to impose his judgments and evaluations in a clear manner. Some instances of this feature in the physics corpus are exemplified below:

*Using a powder sample of NaNO₂, the functional form of the echo train when the dipolar coupling is not refocused, is clearly different than the decay for an on-resonance sequence, and **can be used to** characterize the dipolar coupling.*

*Even though alkali and alkaline earth metal ions exhibit a considerably smaller effect, **it can be** equally important due to their high abundance in natural fluids and biological samples.*

5. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore and compare the structures, and functions of 3- and 4-word lexical bundles between three different disciplines to find out if there were any

significant differences. The results of the study indicated that there were disciplinary variations in the use of lexical bundles. In other words, different disciplines differ in terms of their structures, and functions. Another conclusion is that the three disciplines employed structures of lexical bundles differently and computer engineering made up the highest percentage of the structures. Furthermore, there were disciplinary variations in terms of using each structure. By this, we refer to the fact that writers in different disciplines draw on different resources to develop their arguments, establish their credibility and persuade their readers. Last but not least, the results demonstrated the functional differences between the three disciplines. In this regard, different disciplines applied functions in different ways. Additionally, each discipline tended to use some functions more than the others. It can be said that authors of different disciplines have different textual experiences and this causes them to employ the functions differently.

This study has answered some important questions about the similarities and differences in frequencies of lexical bundles in the different disciplines. Results of the study have implications for writers of different disciplines to be aware of different conventions governing each particular discipline. Bundles occur and behave in dissimilar ways in different disciplinary environments and it is important that English for Academic Purpose course designers recognize this, with the most appropriate starting point for instruction being the student's specific target context. The findings of this research also contribute to the improvement of the ability to understand the language of different disciplines.

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Appendix

Computer Engineering Journals:

- International Journal of Computer Theory and Engineering,
- Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication
- Journal of Theoretical Educational Science,
- Journal of Global Research in Computer Science

Physics Journals:

- Hyperfine Interact
- Applied Magnetic Resonance
- Acoustical Physics
- Physics of Atomic Nucle

Applied Linguistics Journals:

- Applied Linguistics
- ELT Journal
- Journal of Semantics
- TESOL Quarterly

Title

A Comparative Study of Traditional Translation Teaching Method and a Method Based on Translation-Oriented Text Analysis in an Iranian Context

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Abstract

The present study was aimed to determine the influence of a course in translation-oriented text analysis on some Iranian students. To conduct the study, 30 male and female undergraduates who had the course "Principles and Methods of Translating" as their first specialized course in translation participated in the study during the second semester of the academic year 1390 – 91. They belonged to two Iranian universities and were divided into the experimental and control groups. During the semester, the experimental group learned how to analyze a text based on the model proposed by Nord (1991). The researcher also taught the members of this group how to justify their translation decisions based on the information derived from their analysis. However, the control group did not receive such systematic treatment. These participants were provided with some fragmentary

hints derived from the researcher's experience rather than a systematic analysis of the text to justify translation decisions, i.e. the traditional method of translation teaching which is widely used at universities. Since the researcher did not have the authority to assign participants to classes at his will, the design of the study was a quasi-experimental one. Both groups sat for a pretest and a post-test, and three translators evaluated their translations. The data of the study were analyzed by the SPSS software. In regard to the first, third, and fourth research questions the two teaching methods had similar positive effects on the participants of the two groups but concerning the participant's performance in regard with the second research question the translation-oriented text analysis had positive effects on the participants. The effects of the traditional method were not statistically considerable.

Keywords: Traditional method of teaching translation, Translation-oriented text analysis, Communicative translational competence, Skopos

1. Introduction

The fact is that the translation teaching and learning have traditionally relied on the old methods of language teaching and learning and is still dominant in most colleges or universities specifically in Iranian context. In the translation teaching, teachers are still accustomed to looking for the grammar mistakes in translation exercises, on the other hand, the students think of translation as replacement of linguistic features. In this regard because of the incompatibility of SL and TL structures the big part of the message and information which should be easily received by the target language readers is usually lost. Since students are offered such training in translation, which involves developing purely linguistic translation skills, they often face severe difficulties upon their translations.

The traditional translation teaching mainly emphasizes the bottom-up order i.e. the word meaning or semantic meaning, which is not completely right in context because such a strategy may not clearly realize the real purpose of the original author, and it is also difficult for target readers to obtain the same effect as source text readers get from the original text. On the other hand, while focusing on the word and sentence meaning, the aim of practicing translation is to improve students' language competence, which is far from the nature of translation teaching. The traditional translation teaching is usually teacher-centered. It harms students' participation in decision-making and creativity. Finally It does not deal with culture, pragmatics and to some extent with register.

Carrove (1999) has argued: "Students are generally limited to the school-translation approach and when they are given a text to translate, they just try to find the closest linguistic equivalent in the target language without being aware of the extra-linguistic limitations surrounding the text" (p. 18).

In fact, a good translation is not simply concerned with transferring linguistic features or even the propositional content of the source language text alone, but also considering its other cultural and pragmatic features. Blatant disregard for these features produce an inaccurate or weak and wired translation and obvious problems in the target text. Carrove (1999) continued saying that translation difficulties are not just limited to linguistic problems but rather they also consist of extra-linguistic factors such as knowledge of the source and target cultures, the stylistic, functional and pragmatic qualities required of the target text i.e. Skopos translation. So, it can be stated that the main problem translation students are often confronting is the lack of accurate understanding of source texts which involves linguistic, pragmatic, register and cultural elements.

Nord (1991) has introduced a translation-oriented text analysis based on the Skopos theory. It stresses the interacting aspects of translation. According to this theory, translation is viewed not as a process of transcoding, but as a specific form of human action. It means that translating like any other human action, has a purpose. For example, the translation of a particular text for children differs significantly from the version intended for adults because these two groups of readers have different expectations. So the translator should present two different translations of the same text. In other words, a good translator should find a way in which the desired meaning can be expressed successfully even if the TL form is different from that of the SL. Munday (2008) took it as an important advantage of the Skopos theory through which a translator is allowed to render the same text in different ways according to the purpose of the target text.

2. Text Analysis and Translator Training

Munday (2008) claimed that in the 1990 discourse analysis came to prominence in translation studies. According to House (1981) the aim of text analysis is to state the equivalence between source text and translation text with a view to evaluating functional correspondence. Many scholars paid more attention to the text analysis in translation. For example, the analysis is the first phase in the method of translation suggested by Nida (1964, as cited in House, 2009, p. 18). Newmark (1988) has suggested close reading of a text in order to determine its intention. For him the intention of the text and that of the author are co-existence. On the other hand, the translator's purpose as producer of the target text may be at

variance with the author's as producer of the source text. Newmark (1988, p. 17) has stated text analysis therefore is an integral part of the translation, "... an appropriate training for translator..." Similarly, Kussmaul (1995, p. 6) asserted "...unsuccessful translation processes could, in fact, have been avoided if the translators have been aware and made use of the method of text analysis and translation criticism while translating." Kussmaul went on to say that we can prescribe a course in the text analysis in order to improve students' understanding of the source text and help them with their decisions when translating the text. Focus on the text analysis in the context of university training, Schaffner (2002, p. 6) believed, may be pedagogically useful. She has pointed out "Students often (want to) start translating immediately, without a more conscious about the text and their task ."

Razmjou (2001) in her research concludes that translator training program at Iranian universities needs some fundamental courses such as 'text analysis', 'pragmatics' and 'communicative functions of language'. In a similar fashion, Yarmohammadi (1993) in his Persian article claims that by teaching modern linguistics in the form of discourse analysis we can deal with the problems and shortcomings of the pedagogy of translation.

Some theorists like Nord (1991) based their approach on a textual analysis. They emphasized the necessity of taking into account culture-specific textual conventions. Nord (2001) has paid more attention to the features of the ST and has claimed that the source text provides the offer of information that forms the starting point for the offer of information formulated in the TT. She went on to say that through comparison between the ST and TT, the translator can identify and isolate those ST elements which have to be preserved or adapted in TT so as to meet the requirements of the translation purpose. In a word, analysis of the ST guides the whole translation process.

3. Nord's Methods of Translation

Nord (1991/2001) proposed two types of translation methods: instrumental and documentary translations as two general strategies that can be adopted by translators.

Nord (2001) asserted the documentary translation aims at "producing in the target language a kind of document of certain aspects of a communicative interaction via the ST under source-culture conditions" (p. 47). In this kind of translation the content of cultural-specific terms in ST often remains in the TT in the sense that there is not any attempt to make adjustments in the light of target context and culture. Therefore, it shows that the translation

is really a translation, i.e. a text that does not belong to the target culture. The result of a documentary translation is that "the main function of the text is meta-textual" (p. 47).

Nord also believed the instrumental Translation aims at "producing in the target language an instrument for a new communicative interaction between the source-culture sender and target-culture readers" (p. 47). In fact, it presents the translation to the recipient as a true original. The translation respects all the standards of the target language and culture and contains no foreign elements. The result of an instrumental translation is that the text may achieve or not achieve the same range of function as an original text does.

3.1 Skopos and Translation Commission (Brief)

Nord (2001) placed great importance on the translation brief as an important aspect of functionalism. Her statement "Translating without clear instructions is like swimming without water" (p. 78). A client needs a text for a particular purpose and calls upon the translator for a translation, thus acting as the initiator of the translation process. In practice, the clients often do not realize that the translator needs as much information as possible and it is then the translator's task to speak to the clients to get more information. Nord (2001) has listed five points which should, ideally, be contained in the brief, if not explicitly then implicitly: the intended text function or functions, the TT-receiver or receivers, the time and place of text reception, the medium through which the text will be transmitted, the motive or reason for producing or receiving the text.

3.2 Model of Translation –Oriented Text Analysis

Nord in her book *Text Analysis in Translation* (1991, pp. 35-140) has put her model of translation-oriented text analysis at the center of training translators. She has divided her process model into four main steps. The first step for the translator is to analyze and interpret the translation brief and by doing so, establish translation skopos. The second step is the ST analysis which is subdivided into two parts: an analysis of extra-textual factors to determine the level of compatibility between the ST and the requirements of the brief, and an analysis of intra-textual factors, which pays more detailed attention to the ST-elements that are of importance to TT-production according to the skopos. At the third step of the model, the translator is now able to adapt relevant ST elements to the translation skopos. The translator has to decide which TL elements, from a potentially large group of elements, are suitable for the skopos. The fourth, and final step, is the actual production of the TT.

4. Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to explore the effect of teaching text analysis on BA translation students. In this context, it tries to check if the two teaching methods – the text analysis method and the traditional one – have significantly different impacts on developing students' communicative translational competence. In other words, it aims to clarify which method can help students to produce fluent and comprehensible target texts based on the translation brief.

5. Research Questions

This study tries to answer the following research questions on the basis of the brief:

1. How precisely do the experimental and control groups manage to understand and convey the source text elements?
2. To what extent do the experimental and control groups manage to produce target texts close to the textual, linguistic and cultural norms of the target community?
3. How well do the experimental and control groups render the terminology?
4. How well do the experimental and control groups deal with the functional and textual aspects of the texts?

6. Method

6.1 Research Design

Since the participants of the present study enrolled in classes - groups - based on their personal preference, the number, gender and age of the participants were out of the control of the researcher so a quasi-experimental study was designed for the methodological framework of this research to reach the goal of the study. Therefore, we cannot safely generalize the findings to all contexts. Further complementary studies are necessary to verify the findings.

6.2 Participants

The participants of the present study were two classes composed of thirty two Iranian undergraduates majoring in English Translator Training. They had the course "Principles and Methods of Translating" as their first specialized course in translation during the second semester of the academic year 1390-1391. None of them had any prior experience in translating and belonged to both male and female gender groups ranging in age from 24 to 30. Indeed, the participants were two already existing intact groups which are named experimental and control groups in this study. The number of the participants in the experimental group was fifteen (3 males and 12 females). The control group was composed

of seventeen participants (3 males and 14 females). To make the number of participants in the two groups equal and more suitable for comparative ends, at the end of the semester two participants were randomly excluded from the control group.

6.3 Treatment

The treatment was teaching Nord's model of text analysis as explained previously. During the semester the participants learned how to analyse a text based on the model and were assigned to analyse and translate a text per week. The researcher also taught them how to justify their translation decisions based on the information derived from their analyses as well the translation brief. The assignments were explained and discussed in class every following session. As for the control group, no systematic approach was used. They were taught translation based on the traditional method of teaching translation dominant at Iranian universities. These participants were provided with some fragmentary hints derived from the researcher's experience rather than a systematic analysis of the text to justify translation decisions. In this class two books (sa'edi, 2011 and Rashidi, 2011) were taught to students.

Since the course was a two-credit one, the number of classes per week and the duration of each class, were identical for the two groups during the semester. The training lasted for twelve weeks. The instructor as well as the texts that were to be translated as assignments were also identical.

6.4 Data Collection & Analysis

The data of the present study were derived from a pre-test and a post-test. The two groups sat for a pre-test at the first session. It was identical for both groups, and was composed of an English passage. Finally, at the end of the semester, they sat for a post-test. The participants were required to provide annotations for their translation decisions at the two stages of pre-test and post-test. Both tests needed some specific skills including translation of proper names, cultural and pragmatics considerations, register, etc. The participants could use bilingual as well as monolingual dictionaries.

Students' translations in the two stages of pre-test and post-test were assessed based on the grading criteria presented by Colina (2003). The grading criteria were composed of four parts and carried 100 points. The translations in the two stages were assessed by three translators. The researcher provided the raters with a copy of grading criteria, and had a meeting with them concerning the proper grading procedure.

The data of the study were analyzed by the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software. More specifically, Inter-rater reliability among raters on the pre-test and

post-test, t-test and variance degrees in the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups were calculated from different aspects.

7. Data Analysis and Results

A t-test was used to compare the mean scores of both groups in the pre-test. Table 1 reveals that the mean score of the control group in the pre-test is 27.5 while the mean score of the experimental group is 23.1. It shows that the difference between the two groups - classes - was considerable. In other words, the performance of the control group was better than that of the experimental group. But, the variance degree in the control group is 14.16 and much larger than that of the experimental group which is 10.2. It means that some students in the control group are good and some are poor while students in the experimental group are more homogeneous.

Table (1) T-test and Variance Degrees of the Pre-test Scores of the Two Groups

Group	N	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	Df	T	T-test Sig
Control	15	27.5	14.16	3.8	28	3.5	0.002
Experimental	15	23.1	10.2	3.2			

7.1 Performance of the Two Groups concerning the Research Questions

The pre- and post-tests were scored based on the grading scale presented by Colina (2003) which is very close to the research questions of the study. Indeed, the four research questions of the study are based on the categories of the grading scale. This section tries to answer the research questions on the basis of the brief:

a. Comparing the two groups concerning the first research question: As table 2 and figure 1 show, the performance of the two groups is approximately the same. The average score of the control group is 19.67 and that of the experimental group is 18.83, but the difference is not statistically considerable. Since the t-value is 0.645 and there is a significance level of 0.526 that is more than 0.05. The result of the t-test indicates that the difference between the average scores of the two groups was not meaningful. Therefore it can be stated that in regard to the first research question the two teaching methods had similar positive effects on the participants of the two groups.

b. Comparing the two groups concerning the second research question: As shown in table 2 and figure 1, the participants of the experimental group performed better than the control

group. The average score of the control group is 8.33 and that of the experimental group is 13.67. The difference is statistically considerable. Since the t-value is -2.22 and there is a significance level of 0.036 that is less than 0.05, the result of the t-test indicates that the difference between the average scores of the two groups is meaningful. Therefore, it can be stated that the translation-oriented text analysis method affected the participants' ability concerning the second research question while the traditional method did not.

c. Comparing the two groups concerning the third research question: As shown in table 2 and figure 1, the performance of the two groups is approximately the same. The average score of the control group is 4 and that of the experimental group is 4.4. The difference is not statistically considerable. Since the t-value is -0.822 and there is a significance level of 0.421 that is more than 0.05, the result of the t-test indicates that the difference between the average scores of the two groups is not meaningful. Therefore it can be stated that in regard to the third research question the two teaching methods had similar positive effects on the participants of the two groups.

d. Comparing the two groups concerning the fourth research question: As shown in table 2 and figure 1, the participants of the experimental group performed slightly better than the control group. The average score of the experimental group is 12.98 and that of the control group is 11.98, but the difference is not statistically considerable. Since the t-value is -0.808 and there is a significance level of 0.426 that is more than 0.05, the result of the t-test indicates that the difference between the average scores of the two groups is not meaningful. Therefore it can be stated that in regard to the fourth research question the two teaching methods had similar positive effects on the participants of the two groups.

Table (2) Performance of the Two Groups concerning Four Research Questions

Item	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	T	T-test Sig
First Research Question	Experimental	15	18.83	5	28	0.645	0.524
	Control	15	19.67	2.4			
Second Research Question	Experimental	15	13.67	7.9	28	-2.22	0.036
	Control	15	8.33	4.9			
Third Research Question	Experimental	15	4.4	3.1	28	-0.822	0.421
	Control	15	4	3.6			

Fourth Research Question	Experimental	15	12.98	3.1	28	-0.808	0.426
	Control	15	11.98	3.6			

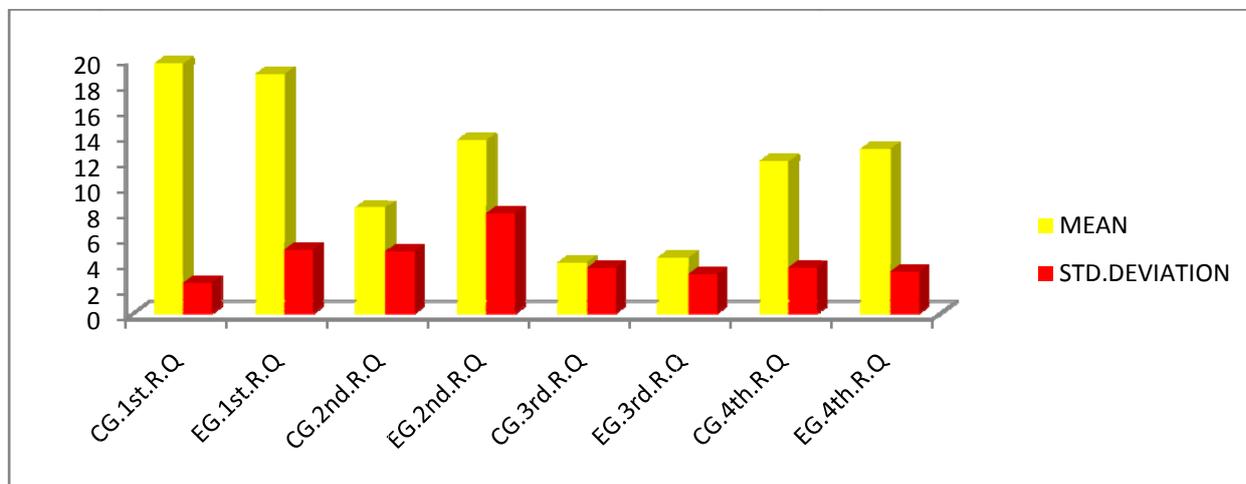


Figure (1) Performance of the Two Groups concerning Four Research Questions

8. A Brief Discussion on the Textual, Linguistic, and Cultural Features of the Post-test

The post-test is composed of four short texts. As for the first text, the participants were asked to translate it as if it would be read as part of the political news by the Islamic republic of Iran Broadcasting (IRIB). The first text contains three main cultural features as follows:

The first feature of the test: the first feature is the phrase *Israeli government*. Israel is usually called 'Israeli regime', 'Zionist regime', 'the regime occupying Jerusalem' and so on in Iran. So we can argue that on the basis of the brief, the literal translation of the above phrase is not acceptable. The possible justification is the fact that Iran does not consider that government a legitimate regime.

The second feature of the test: the second feature of the test concerns the phrase '*Iran nuclear crisis*'. The possible justification for the translation of this expression is related to the fact that this expression is not normally used by IRIB. Iranians expect to hear 'Iran nuclear program' or 'Iran nuclear issue' rather than 'Iran nuclear crisis'. So it can be claimed that the word for word translation of the above phrase is not acceptable.

The third feature of the test: the third feature is the phrase '*Arab Gulf cooperation council*'. Certainly, the phrase 'Arab Gulf' is never used instead of the established name 'Persian Gulf' in Iran. Again, the word for word translation of the above phrase is completely unacceptable and must be translated as '*Persian Gulf cooperation council*' for IRIB.

The fourth feature of the test: The fourth feature of the post-test is embedded in the second text which is a business letter. The translation brief entailed an instrumental translation, i.e. the participants were expected to make adjustments in its heading – the address and the date – , salutation, closing, etc.

The fifth feature of the test: The third text is an accounting text. The researcher translated it into Persian in the form of a cloze test and the participants were needed to fill in the blanks to provide an instrumental translation. This type of translation entailed them to replace the non-metric measurements of the text with their equivalents in the metric system.

The sixth feature of the test: In the final text, the author has explained the meaning of B.C. in parentheses for source text readers. Since the Persian equivalent of B.C is (قبل از میلاد), translating the explanation is totally superfluous and absurd for Persian readers.

9. Conclusion

The major findings of the study can be summarized as follow:

Concerning the final mark (the mean score of each participant in the post-test), the experimental group achieved better scores in the post-test but the difference between the average scores of the two groups in regard to the first, third, and fourth research questions was not statistically so great and meaningful. However, the difference between the performance of the two groups concerning the second research question was statistically meaningful. It was clarified that the translation-oriented text analysis had positive effects on the participants' ability to produce target texts close to the textual, linguistic and cultural norms of the target community, meanwhile, the effects of the traditional method were not statistically considerable.

It is hoped that this study will contribute to the current research agenda in the field of translation pedagogy. Though some positive findings were identified in this study about the effects of translation-oriented text analysis, more research is recommended to further investigate this area.

First, in the present study sampling procedure and number of participants were out of the control of the researcher, so the results could not be generalized to other contexts. Further studies with bigger number of participants and random sampling are needed to generate more evidence on the effects of text analysis on students.

Second, this study lasted for a short period of time - only one semester; however, further supplementary studies are recommended to determine the effects of teaching text analysis on participants over a longer period of time - two or three semesters, for instance.

Third, participants of the present study were only sophomores; therefore, the results might not be applicable to students at different proficiency levels. It would be worthwhile to examine the effects of translation-oriented text analysis on students' performance at different educational levels.

Fourth, this study was conducted only on translating. It might be useful to examine the effects of text analysis on the performance of students in interpreting as well.

Finally, in this study we used Nord's model of text analysis, researchers are recommended to use other models and compare their results with those of this study to develop more valuable findings for the pedagogy of translation.

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چاپ اول. انتشارات نوید.

Appendix (post-test)

A. Translation Brief: Translate the following text as if it would be read as part of the political news by the Islamic republic of Iran Broadcasting (IRIB).

The Israeli government prime minister, Mr Benyamin Netenyaho, is now in Washington for five days of talks with the American government about Iran nuclear crisis. In a news conference, he said the world community must take the danger of nuclear Iran serious. He also made a call for Arab countries which are members of Gulf Cooperation Council to join the world community in sanction against Iran.

B. Translation Brief: Translate the following text for a businessman in Iran. Provide an instrumental translation.

P.O. Box 43654,

London, England.

September 14th, 2011

Sales Manager,

General Electric Company,

57 Azadi Ave.,

Tehran, Iran.

Dear Sir,

Thank you for sending the invoice No. 60136.

I would like to inform you that the price of item No. 21, size A is different from that of the initial price list you sent us a month ago. I should be thankful if you would kindly take steps to solve the problem.

Thank you very much in advance.

Yours faithfully,

John H. Peters

C. Translation Brief: Translate the following text as part of a textbook for Iranian students of accounting.

The stable-dollar Assumption¹

The stable-dollar assumption¹ means money is used as the basic measuring unit for financial reporting, the dollar², or any other monetary unit, is a measure of value- that is, it indicates the relative price (or value) of different goods and services. When accountants add or subtract dollar³, values

originated in different years, they imply that dollar⁴ is a stable unit of measure, just as the gallon, the acre, and the mile⁵ are stable unites of measure. Unfortunately, the dollar⁶ is not a stable measure of value.

.....¹
.....⁽¹⁾ می گوید که پول واحداصلی در گزارشگری مالی است،⁽²⁾ یا دیگر واحدهای پولی معیارسنجش ارزش هستند، یعنی با استفاده از آنها می توان قیمت (ارزش) نسبی کالاها وخدمات مختلف را تعیین کرد. وقتی که حسابداران ارزش⁽³⁾ مربوط به سالهای مختلف را جمع یا تفریق می نمایند، این بدان معناست که⁽⁴⁾ معیارسنجش ثابتی است درست مثل⁽⁵⁾ که واحدهای سنجش ثابتی هستند. اما متاسفانه علی رغم آنچه که گفته شد⁽⁶⁾ معیارسنجش ثابتی نیست.

D. Translation Brief: Translate the following text as part of a textbook for Iranian school children.

The Olympic Games began in Olympia, in Greece in 776 B.C (B.C means before the birth of Christ). They took place from time to time until A.D 393. Then, they stopped. At first, they lasted only one day and there was only one race. Later, there were more races and other contests and the games lasted several days. People all over Greece took part.

Title

A Qualitative Study on the Language Students' Beliefs in Error Correction

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Abstract

For many years, researchers and scholars have been trying to provide models and theories which can examine and predict language learners' beliefs towards error corrections. In this research study, 35 male and female sophomores participated. They were at different levels of language proficiency and with different background. The data collection for the present study was a process of eliciting from the participants their beliefs about error correction through a questionnaire and interviews. The paper in attempt to see whether students' beliefs are related to error correction held that participants of the present study wanted to be constantly corrected by their teachers mostly when their sentence or utterance is done. This study further showed that the participants also prefer to be treated for those errors that inhibit communication through repetition.

Keywords: Beliefs, Error, Feedback correction. Identity

1. Introduction

The teachers' understanding of learners' beliefs about language learning will undeniably help teachers to adopt a more reflective approach to their students' learning. Quite on the same par, Wenden (1999) suggests that students should be encouraged to acquire new concepts about language learning and to use their new ideas to seek insights into how they learn and possible reasons for unsuccessful learning outcomes. The difficulty is that language teachers have not, as yet, devoted much attention to studying the efficacy of different ways of reconstructing beliefs.

Language learning and teaching has been one of the most popular areas which are concerned with students' belief system. The study examines students' beliefs in deciding whether it is a determining factor in their preferences for error correction and compares the differences between them, suggesting more effective ways of treating students' spoken errors in EFL settings. There is no doubt that learners' beliefs about methods of error correction will have an inevitable effect on their learning. However, it is worth mentioning that the role beliefs play may not be as immediately obvious as that of learning strategies or motivation (White, 2008). Along the same line, Rubin (1978, cited in White, 2008, p. 121) asserts that beliefs are important because learners hold their beliefs to be true and these beliefs then guide how they interpret their experiences and how they behave (White, 2008). In this study, the following research question will be addressed: Are there any differences between students' perceptions of effective error correction practices, specifically regarding the provision of error correction, the appropriate time of correction, the types of errors that need to be corrected, and the choice of correction providers?

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1 Learners' Beliefs System

There is a lot of confusion regarding both the labels and definitions used to describe learners' beliefs. Part of the difficulty in defining learners' beliefs centers on determining if, and how, they differ from knowledge. Calderhead (1996) makes these two concepts distinct by stating that whereas beliefs generally refer to suppositions, commitments, and ideologies, knowledge refers to factual propositions and understandings; so after gaining knowledge about a proposition, we are still free to accept whether the proposition is true or false. In the same line, Nespor (1987) argues that beliefs differ from knowledge in that belief systems, unlike knowledge systems, do not require group consensus, so they are quite idiosyncratic. In other words, two teachers who know the same things about computer, for instance, might believe different things about its use. Furthermore, as to Pajares (1992), beliefs are "far from influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behavior" (p. 311). In this regard, Mansour (2009) goes on to hold, "people act upon what they believe" (p. 31). In sum, beliefs of teachers influence their perceptions, which in turn affect their behaviors in the classroom (Pajares, 1992).

Learner's beliefs system as a learner variable was pioneered by Horwitz (1987). There is no commonsensical understanding of what beliefs are. As Williams and Burden (1997) conclude, "beliefs are notoriously difficult to define and evaluate, but there do appear to be a number of helpful statements that we can make about them. They tend to be culturally bound, to be formed early in life and to be resistant to change" (p. 56). Although some researchers consider beliefs as synonymous with meta-cognitive knowledge, McKelvey (2003) argued that beliefs are idiosyncratic, subjective, and value related. However, Meta-cognitive knowledge as Pintrich (2002) states refers to knowledge about cognition in general, as well as awareness of and knowledge about one's own cognition. Along the same line, Kalaja (1995) observes, beliefs have been seen mainly as "cognitive entities to be found inside the minds of language learners" (p. 192). However, as White (2008), believes "are now seen as socially constructed in specific social, cultural educational and political contexts" (p. 124). Research shows clearly the effect of beliefs on the actions the learners are prepared to take and the way their experiences are interpreted within a learning environment. This implies the dynamic nature of learners' beliefs. Accordingly, White, on elaborating the stance of good language learners, claims good language learners are those learners who succeed in adapting their expectations and beliefs to the opportunities available to them, and forging a match between those opportunities and their own needs, preferences, and abilities.

2.2 Approaches to Beliefs System

To investigate learners' beliefs in SLA, there are several approaches. To Kalaja (1995), human beliefs can be investigated through two approaches: the mainstream approach and the discursive approach. In the former, the focus is on describing beliefs as cognitive entities in learners' mind. The mainstream approach describes beliefs as stable, testable, and fallible. The discursive approach, in contrast, takes into account the function of beliefs and investigates them in verbal and written performances. The discursive beliefs hold beliefs as socially constructed and variable from one person to another as well as from a context to another.

According to Barcelos (2006), learners' beliefs can be investigated through the normative, the meta-cognitive and the contextual approach. To Barcelos, the normative approach views beliefs as preconceived ideas or opinions. The meta-cognitive approach, on the other side, equates beliefs with meta-cognitive knowledge which means the knowledge the learners have about learning (Wenden, 1998, as cited in Oksanen, 2005, p. 10). Wenden further defines meta-cognitive knowledge as relatively stable acquired information about our

own learning. As she claims such knowledge can change over time and can be acquired either consciously or unconsciously.

The contextual approach, as Oksanen (2005) traces, can come under the umbrella of three approaches: Bakhtian approach, Vygotskian approach, and Deweyan approach. An essential term derived from Bakhtian is the notion of ‘voice’. The term encompasses what the learner says is not only language but reflects his or her beliefs and weltanschauung. Another notion which is derived from Bakhtin (1981) is the function of dialogic speech and writing in constructing experience. What is implicit in Bakhtin’s approach is that beliefs are subjective experiences and are dynamic (Oksanen, 2005). Since we acquire language as part of our knowledge through discourse, our knowledge means partly repeating words and thought formulated by others. Thus, beliefs reflect personal views.

Vygotsky (1981) was interested in self-regulation. Self-regulation means the learners’ planning, monitoring, and evaluating his or her own learning. Much of Vygotsky’s study could be linked to the study of meta-cognition. The Vygotskian perspective defines beliefs as something that is constructed in interaction but, at the same time, is individual and mental. In fact, they are constructed through such mediated action as speech.

Dewey (1933) describes beliefs as paradoxical in nature since believing often means not knowing for sure, but, at the same time, one is confident to act upon his or her beliefs. On the other hand, beliefs are something we accept as truth now, but which may be questioned later. What Barcelos (2006) adopts from Dewey’s (1933) approach is that beliefs are connected to identity. Barcelos explains that when we learn, we construct our identities and, at the same time, our beliefs. Furthermore, our identity is influenced by different groups we belong to, such as men and women or groups that come with, for instance, our occupation, socioeconomic levels, or marital status.

2.3 How Beliefs are Formed

Beliefs are created through a process of enculturation and social construction (Pajares, 1992); they can be formed by chance, an intense experience, or a succession of events. No one denies ones’ early experiences influence his/her later experiences, either in a contradictory form or in a complementary form. In this regard, a more important issue that should be considered about the process of construction is the factors that influence the teachers’ attitudes and stance in the approaches towards error correction. Studies have proposed different factors affecting learner’s beliefs system including personal experiences and social experiences. According to Ertmer (2004), if beliefs are formed through personal experience, then changes in beliefs might be facilitated through experience.

2.4 Error Correction

In general, errors have been viewed as language learners' speech that deviates from the model they are trying to master (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Burt (1978) classifies errors into two categories of global errors and local errors. Global errors refer to errors that significantly hinder communication and "those that affect overall sentence organization, such as wrong word order, missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors" (p. 56). On the other hand, "local errors affect single elements in a sentence but do not usually hinder communication significantly such as errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, and auxiliaries" (p. 57). Whether errors should be corrected or what types of errors should be corrected has always been among the source of contention. Along the same vein, Burt (1978) argues that high-frequency errors should be the first errors teacher should correct.

Corrective feedback (hereafter CF), as to Chaudron (1977), denotes "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement of the learner's utterance" (p. 31). More comprehensively, Lightbown and Spada (1999) define CF feedback as "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p. 171). There are some facilitative roles for CF as a means of pushing learners in their output rather than providing them with correct input for interlanguage improvement. Schmidt (1995) also, in his noticing hypothesis, declares that error correction plays the role of mediator for learners to pay attention to target language forms. In this regard, Golshan and Ramachandra, (2012) propose some guidelines about CF based on CF research findings. They go on to hold that if CF were done more explicitly, it would be more beneficial. Henceforth, to merit from the efficiency of CF, teachers are suggested not to force students to self-correct, although the more intensive CF is, the more effects it would have. Park (2010) also declares that CF might be either explicit or implicit. Accordingly, Park suggests teachers can provide CF either without interrupting the flow of conversation (implicit feedback) or overtly with an emphasis on the ill-formed utterance (explicit feedback).

However, six types of CF are listed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) that teachers use in response to learner errors: (1) *Explicit correction* that refers to the explicit provision of the correct form; (2) *Recasts* that involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error; (3) *Repetitions* that indicate to students either that their utterance has not been understood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way, and that a repetition or a reformulation is required; (4) *Metalinguistic feedback* that contains comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form; (5) *Elicitation* that refers to a

technique that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. Teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to “fill in the blank”; and (6) *Clarification requests* that refer to the teacher’s repetition, in isolation, of the student’s erroneous utterance.

2.5 Teacher’s Preference for Error Correction

Teacher’s preference for error correction is under the influence of their learning experience, their training courses, and their teaching experience. In a research done by Vaezi, Zand-Vakili and Fard Kashani (2011), frequency distribution of the various feedback types used by Iranian teachers and patterns of error treatment were investigated. The results of the study show that the first and second most frequent feedback types were recast and explicit correction, respectively. Also, elicitation was the most frequent feedback type among negotiation of form feedback ones. Kern (1995) and Shulz (1996 cited in Vaezi et al , 2011) compared students’ and teachers’ belief about error correction, and, based on their results, their belief systems did not match.

2.6 Learners’ Preference for Error Correction

Knowing learners’ beliefs about language learning in order to foster more effective learning strategies in their students is a felt need (Horwitz, 1988). Inappropriate oral performance error correction techniques, such as over-correction or poor correction can demotivate learners.

Fukuda (2004, cited in Russell, 2009) mentions the disparity in teachers’ and students’ belief systems about error correction. As he stated, students behave that only the serious errors should be treated in a selective and explicit manner by their teachers and more time allocation to each error, as well as more strategies and resources, ought to be implemented in correcting oral errors.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 35 male and female sophomores. They were at different levels of language proficiency and with different background.

3.2 Instrumentation

For this study, the researchers distributed a questionnaire (Appendix I) with 22 items, adopted from Fukuda (2004), to students in order to investigate their beliefs for error correction. *Beliefs of the necessity of error correction* and *frequency of error correction*,

preferences for timing of error correction, types of errors that needed to be corrected, types of CF, and delivering agents of error correction were examined through this questionnaire. The students were also interviewed based on the questions adapted from the questionnaire (Appendix II).

3.3 Procedure

The 35 students were asked to choose their beliefs in a Likert scale questionnaire which rate each item on a 5-point scale, from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” “Strongly agree” was worth 5 points, and “strongly disagree” was worth 1 point. The items were divided into six categories: necessity of error correction, frequency of error correction, timing of error correction, types of errors, methods of CF, and delivering agents of CF. The six categories marked by the participants were tallied. The following results are obtained from SPSS 16 database.

4. Data Analysis

4.1 Results

In this study, statistical analysis revealed that 88% of the students with the mean of 4.3 and SD of 0.9 *strongly agree* and *agree* with the necessity of receiving error correction in their classes.

Table 1. Necessity of error correction

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
Disagree	1	2.9	2.9	5.7
Neutral	2	5.7	5.7	11.4
Agree	11	31.4	31.4	42.9
strongly agree	20	57.1	57.1	100.0
Total	35	100.0	100.0	

Regarding the frequency of being corrected which is the second item, 60% of the students want consistent treatment. Questions 3 to 6 are related to the appropriate time to correct students’ spoken errors. Their answers to the appropriate time of correction are depicted in this table in an ascending order.

Table 2. Timing of error correction

	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
At the end of class	35	2.3429	1.28207	.638	.398
As soon as errors are made	35	2.7143	1.22646	.383	.398
After the activities	35	3.0857	1.37993	-.020	.398
After finish speaking	35	4.0000	1.21268	-1.154	.398
Valid N (listwise)	35				

As it is obvious in the table 3, most students with the mean of 4 prefer to be corrected after finishing their speaking and giving hints at the end of the class is the least favorite one. And table three suggests students' belief about different types of errors.

Table 3. Types of errors that need to be treated

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Less serious errors	35	3.5714	.81478	.275	.398
Infrequent spoken errors	35	3.6857	.86675	.104	.398
Frequent spoken errors	35	4.4857	.85307	-1.762	.398
Individual errors	35	4.6000	.60391	-1.258	.398
Serious spoken errors	35	4.6571	.59125	-1.564	.398
Valid N (listwise)	35				

The students want their serious spoken and individual errors to be corrected almost always in comparison to other types of errors which are not taken so much serious by learners. However, the variability was not so high and this means that most of them agree upon this choice and circled around the left extreme of the questions continuum.

In table 4 different types of error correction that students considered as beneficial are listed in descending order. In their ideas, repetition and elicitation are regarded as the most useful CF. However, recast and explicit feedback do not have popularity among Iranian EFL learners.

Table 4. Different types of error correction

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Repetition	35	4.0286	.78537	-.438	.398
Elicitation	35	3.9714	1.01419	-1.555	.398
Repetition	35	3.7714	1.08697	-1.118	.398
Metalinguistic feedback	35	3.7429	1.06668	-.683	.398
Implicit feedback	35	3.7143	1.04520	-.692	.398
Explicit feedback	35	3.6000	1.03469	-.453	.398
Recast	35	3.5429	1.03875	-.288	.398
No feedback	35	2.2286	1.26225	.937	.398
Valid N (listwise)	35				

Regarding who should correct students' errors, table 5 shows that 74% of students prefer the teacher to correct their errors.

Table 5. Delivering agents of error correction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	25.7	25.7	25.7
	strongly agree	26	74.3	74.3	100.0
Total		35	100.0	100.0	

Statistics

		it20	it21	it22
N	Valid	35	35	35
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		2.3429	4.7429	3.8286

Std. Deviation	1.02736	.44344	1.01419
Skewness	.278	-1.162	-.713
Std. Error of Skewness	.398	.398	.398

As the interview results indicate, in most cases, many of the accounts from the participants seem to generally corroborate the findings offered by the questionnaire. In answer to the question about *the necessity of error correction*, one of the students asserts that the correction made by the teacher makes no difference for him; however, error correction is helpful for others to know that such utterances are not grammatical. Also, regarding *the time of giving feedback*, all students except one was in accord with the results of questionnaire. She wanted to be corrected as soon as the error occurred in her speaking. *Regarding the type of error* that should be corrected, there was a consensus among students. Students believed serious spoken errors have to be corrected. Moreover, students had the same answers in their oral interview about *the kind of error correction* as well as *the agent of giving feedback*. The students prefer repetition and don't like to be corrected by recast and because the person they confide in most is their teacher especially at higher proficiency levels, they want him or her to correct their errors.

In addition to these questions, some other questions about learners' feeling and consequences of error correction in their life were asked to see whether they have the same belief as most teachers expected or not. In response to considering students' feeling while correcting their errors, most of the students believed that taking their feelings into consideration, especially the shy ones, could affect the result of error correction which is facilitating and improving learning. As shy and introvert students are very sensitive to teachers' reaction to their errors and how the teachers correct them, the students prefer not to be laughed by their teacher. Some students had the experience of being corrected in these ways which was debilitating and quit learning English for some times which is the negative consequence of error correction.

Apart from the negative consequence of feedback mentioned above which was the function of teachers' tone and gesture as some stated if the teacher humiliate learners while correcting it is harmful and learners think they are teased rather than corrected, all believed that it has positive consequences and results in better learning and understanding of their English if appropriate techniques are employed and learners' feelings are taken into account.

5. Conclusion

The attitudes towards error correction seem to widely vary from context to context. As mentioned above beliefs are socially constructed in specific social, cultural, educational, and political contexts and they affect the actions the learners are prepared to take and the way their experiences are interpreted within a learning environment. It is to say that the teachers' understanding of learners' beliefs about language learning will undeniably help them to adopt a more reflective approach to their learning.

Participants of this study wanted to be constantly corrected by their teachers mostly when their sentence or speaking is done. Correction of the serious errors that inhibit communication through repetition and elicitation at the next stage are their preference. We can conclude that teachers except their teaching methods, tasks and contexts should bear learners' preferences regarding different factors in their mind since mismatch between them can result in unfortunate consequences.

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Appendix I

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of students about error correction. You could feel uncomfortable with some of the questions, but you may skip any question you prefer not to answer. There are no benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Please circle the information that applied to you. Make sure to mark only one.

- 1. I want to receive feedback (e.g., provide a hint for me to self-correct, tell me that I made an error, or correct my error), when I made mistakes.**

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

- 2. How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?**

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
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- ✘ **When do you want your spoken errors to be treated?**

- 3. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my conversation.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

- 4. After I finish speaking.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

- 5. After the activities.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

- 6. At the end of class.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

※ How often do you want each of the following types of errors to receive corrective feedback?

7. Serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
------------------	------------------	--------------------	-----------------------	---------------

8. Less serious spoken errors that do not affect a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
------------------	------------------	--------------------	-----------------------	---------------

9. Frequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
------------------	------------------	--------------------	-----------------------	---------------

10. Infrequent spoken errors

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
--------	---------	-----------	--------------	-------

11. My individual errors (i.e., errors that other students may not make.)

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
------------------	------------------	--------------------	-----------------------	---------------

※ How would you rate each type of spoken error correction below?

<p>Teacher: Where did you go yesterday? Student: I <u>go</u> to the park.</p>
--

12. Could you say that again?

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

13. I go? (Repetition: The teacher highlights the student's grammatical error by using intonation.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

14. I went there yesterday, too. (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

15. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

16. Yesterday, I..... (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

17. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

18. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

19. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
----------------	-----------	---------	-------------	------------------

✘ **The following person should treat students' errors.**

20. Classmates

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

21. Teachers

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	---------	----------	-------------------

22. Myself

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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Appendix II

Please answer the following questions.

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2. When should learners' errors be corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should errors be corrected?
5. Who should do the correcting?
6. Is there any relationship between error correction and the method based on which learners are taught?
7. Are learners' feelings considered when their errors are corrected?
8. Does the age factor matter in error correction?
9. Does the sex factor matter in error correction?
10. What consequences does error correction have after learners' errors are corrected?

Title

The Role of Task-based Lexical Noticing Training in Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Retention

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the effect of task-based lexical noticing training on EFL learners' vocabulary retention. Sixty homogeneous Persian EFL learners studying at Arak University, Iran, participated in the study. They were divided into two experimental and control groups. The control group was taught traditionally, whereas the experimental group received treatments based on the task-based approach in terms of verbal interaction. The subjects' homogeneity was measured through the Michigan Test of Language Proficiency (1997). The treatments for each group consisted of tests of vocabulary of reading passages endowed with 10 highlighted words; then the performances of the groups were compared. The results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in vocabulary retention. The findings also indicated the fruitfulness of using noticing techniques as tasks in involving the students in interactional learning and learning of the new highlighted vocabulary. Possible implications of the findings for L2 teaching, particularly teaching L2 vocabulary, will be discussed.

Keywords: Task-based learning/teaching, Noticing, Vocabulary learning, Vocabulary retention.

1. Introduction

The significance of the role of noticing in second language (L2) development has been the focus of much debate in the field of cognitive psychology (Radwan, 2005). Unlike the Behavioural psychologists who focused on stimulus-response relations and ignored the mental aspects of language, and the Nativists who focused on innateness of language rules, cognitive psychologists give full consideration to the role of mind and cognition in language development. Ever-increasing needs to communicate and the failure of the traditional approach in putting the students' acquired knowledge into use in real life situations culminated in the establishment of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach in which the major trend was towards communication and then led to some other approaches such as Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT). The development of task, therefore, as a newly presented cornerstone in language classrooms is rooted in changes of the Audiolingual method and its decline in the 1960s, and also in the emphasis put on meaningful communication.

The effect of noticing on learning was seemingly first proposed by Schmidt and Frota in 1986. Smith believes that noticing as a conscious process on language input and as a focal awareness in language development is significant, and if a part of language is noticed then it becomes *intake* (1990). In the same line, Prabhu (1990) believes that if the students' minds are focused on the task rather than the language item, they may learn more effectively. Cross (2002) puts forward that noticing has a mediating role between language input and memory system. Although the importance of noticing to find some more evidence for the claims has been emphasized, no finding has been reported so far.

In spite of the developments in vocabulary teaching and learning in Iran in traditional approaches, stressing on the teacher, less research has been reported to exploit task-based techniques, stressing on learners, in teaching in favor of conscious process of learning. Therefore, the present study attempts to investigate the role of task-based lexical noticing training in retention of vocabulary items in EFL learner's long-term memory.

2. The Background

2.1. Noticing and language learning

Schmidt (1990) considers 'noticing' as a cognitive and conscious process, which is a prerequisite for learning to take place. He (1990, 1993a,b, 1994a,b, 1995) also proposes that noticing is necessary and can provide sufficient conditions for the conversion of *input* to *intake* which becomes available for further mental processing before being incorporated into the learner's developing system.

In language learning, based on Schmidt's *noticing hypothesis* (1995, p. 20) "what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning". He also states that *attention* "is necessary in order to understand virtually every aspect of second language learning" (2001, p. 1) In other words, "SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in the target language input" (ibid, p. 1). Batstone (1994) also refers to the importance of noticing as "the gateway to subsequent learning" (p. 100), and Lynch (2001) believes that noticing is an important component of successful language learning. Stating the gateway function of *noticing* in language processing for converting *input* into *intake* (Sharwood-Smith, 1981, 1993; Rutherford, 1987; Gass, 1988; McLaughlin, 1987; Ellis, 1994, 1997; Lewis, 1993; Cross, 2002; Skehan, 1998), Cross (2002: 3-4) concludes that there are some factors to draw the learners' attention to certain features in input as follows: (I) Explicit instruction, (II) Task Demands, (III) Frequency, and (IV) Perceptual Salience. According to Schmidt (1990- 1995), the growing interest in the role of attention has led to a proliferation of constructs such as *focusing on form* (Long, 1988, 1991), *consciousness raising* (Sharwood Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1987), *input enhancement* (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993), *processing instruction* (Cadierno, 1995; VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993), and *uptake* (Slimani, 1992).

2.2. Task-based language learning

The old French word "tasque" changed into English "task" basically meaning as a duty, a tax, or a piece of work imposed as duty (Oxford et al., 2004: 6). Task is so important in language teaching and language learning that it is one of the major concerns of SLA studies (Long, 1985; Richards et al., 1985; Crookes, 1986; Skehan, 1996; Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989, Breen, 1989; 2001; Lee, 2000; Bygate, et al., 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Tasks are central to learning activities. "It is based on the belief that students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than the language they are using" (Prabhu, 1990), that is, the learner's major concern is to accomplish the task rather than the language items to be learned. So, the language items are implicitly learned. "..... task-based learning (TBL) involves the specification not of sequence of language items, but of a sequence of communicative tasks to be carried out in target language" (Willis and Willis, 2001). Moreover, in a real communicative situation, "[A] task requires the subjects to

function primarily as ‘language users’ in the sense that they must employ the same kind of communicative processes as those involved in real-world activities” (Ellis, 2003a, P:3).

Nunan (2001) has distinguished the *real-world tasks*, which are designed for communicative acts outside the classroom and *pedagogical tasks*, including *rehearsal tasks and activation tasks*, which are designed to elicit communicative language use inside the classroom; *enabling skills, language exercise, and communicative activity*.

Pica et al. (1993), referring to the interaction hypothesis, proposed the psycholinguistic classification of tasks among them *interactant relationship* (one-way or two-way) or “information gap” (Long’s term, 1980) is focused on. Pica et al. (1993) assert that in their recent finding of a two-way exchange of information, the negotiation of meaning as a “process by which two or more interlocutors identify and then attempt to resolve a communication breakdown” (Ellis, 2003b) is more likely to occur.

In their study, Oxford et al. (2004) discussed *verbal interaction* task as a *communicative activity* which is implemented as (1) sharing personal experiences (Oxford, 1990; Willis, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996), (2) question and answer (Nunan, 1989; Richards and Rodgers, 2001), (3) practice with communication/conversation strategies (Nunan, 1989; Oxford, 1990; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Cohen, 1998). Oxford (2006) also reviewed task-based language teaching and learning as a concise guideline to draw teachers’/learners’ attention to the significance of task-based language teaching (TBLT).

According to Leaver and Willis (2004, P:2) ‘ task-based language teaching helps language learners make real effort to communicate as best as they can in the foreign language they are learning’. TBLT can be organized and implemented in terms of pre-task, while task, and post task (Willis, 1996a; Ellis, 2003b). The implemented task in the current study is verbal interaction.

2.2.1. Verbal Interaction

The “interaction hypothesis” first was suggested by Long (1980). “Interactional theories view language learning as an outcome of participating in discourse, in particular face to face interaction” (Ellis, 2003b: 78). Interaction can contribute to language learning. To confirm this concept, Pica (1994) suggests that (1) negotiating meaning helps the learner to obtain comprehensible input, (2) when the learner receives feedback, acquisition is facilitated, and (3) when the learner is pushed to reformulate his own utterances, acquisition is promoted. Among various types of interactions, “verbal interaction” has got the intermediate role in “socio-cultural theory” (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1987; Leontiev, 1981; and Wertsch, 1985), for interaction occurs in the real world of the society. The other significant influence of verbal

interaction is to share information. Sharing personal experiences (Oxford, 1990; Willis, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996), or shared information task (Newton and Kennedy, 1996), has got greater use than split information task.

Verbal interaction can be monologic or dialogic, the latter is seen as central one (Ellis, 2003b). In this respect, Anton (1999) states that dialogic interaction enables the teacher to create a context in which novices can participate actively in their own learning in which the teacher can fine-tune the support that the novices are given. Ellis (2003b) emphasizes that in dialogic discourse the learner is better equipped to identify what he can and what he cannot do without assistance. Artigal (1992) goes further to suggest that the “language learning device” exists in the interaction. He also asserts that learning occurs *in* rather than *as a result* of interaction. So, in Artigal’s study verbal interaction is employed by which the learners can exchange their information and it will provide them with some opportunities (1) to use new language structures and items through collaboration with others; (2) to subsequently engage in more independent use of the structure they internalize in relatively undemanding tasks; and (3) finally, to use the structures in cognitively more complex tasks (Ellis, 2003b: 178).

2.3. Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

There is now a general agreement among vocabulary specialists that lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence (Coady and Huckin, 1997). Decarrico (2001) (see also Celce-Murcia., 2001) posits that although this view was challenged in late 1970s and early 1980s (Judd, 1986; Meara, 1984; Laufer, 1986), in 1988, Carter and McCarthy advocated it. There are different approaches of vocabulary teaching such as explicit versus implicit and incidental versus intentional (Laufer and Hill, 2001; Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001) proposed from late 1970s to early 1990s. The present study endowed with explicit teaching of the highlighted vocabularies in context.

Regarding the mediating role of noticing between the language input and the memory system (Ellis, 1994) and its function as a prerequisite condition for learning (Schmidt, 1990), noticing might not be necessary and sufficient for learning, since Richards et al. (1992) claim that the main factors affecting retention in language teaching are both the quality of language teaching and the learners’ interest. In other words, in a teaching classroom, the teacher should employ an efficient and practical method by which not only to make the learners interested in the language items, but to get them involved in different communicative context in order for the learners to be able to retrieve the stored information from both *episodic* and *conceptual* phases of long-term memory (LTM).

Generally speaking, since highlighting vocabulary in EFL syllabi is not the only efficient factor to be absorbed in LTM per se, and the EFL learners are not repeatedly exposed to the target language outside classrooms, there should be some practical techniques to collaboratively contribute the learner to retain the language items for longer subsequent uses. Therefore, according to Richards et al (1992), besides the learners' interest, the quality of language teaching and learners' noticing are the necessities which should be interchangeably present in learning processes. It can be said that most of the studies on vocabulary learning have focused on explicit instruction and few of them have touched upon the highlighted words to be learned via noticing tasks. The purpose of this study is thus to investigate the role of *verbal interaction* task on highlighted vocabularies to determine whether task application in *pre*, *while*, and *post* stages may foster the learners' noticing mechanism for further learning. In so doing, the current study tries to answer the following question.

Q- Does task-based lexical noticing training have any impact on EFL students' vocabulary retention?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Among 78 pre-intermediate Persian EFL learners, 60 male collage students enrolled in Bisetoon Language Institute and Pooya English Institute in Arak, Iran, were selected. In order to ensure the homogeneity of both groups, the Michigan test of language proficiency (1997) was administered at the outset. Based on their scores on the Michigan test of language proficiency, 60 students were selected and then randomly assigned to two groups of 30, namely the experimental and control groups. Their age ranged between 14 and 16.

3.2. Instrumentation

The instruments used in the present study included the original and modified passages, and post-tests. Two versions of a passage, the original and the modified, selected from intermediate New Headway (Liz and John Soars, 1996, p. 121) were used. Each version contains about 350 words, ten of which were realized higher than the learners' proficiency level were chosen from each text and were highlighted to be used as tasks of elicitation for the purpose of the study. In order to protect the validity of the study and control the possible effects of the pretest, the treatment sessions were administered after four week intervals. The two versions of the same passage were used to avoid the influence of the text construction on subjects' learning. According to Fog's index (cited in Farhadi et al, 1995) the readability of

the original passage with ten highlighted words was **10.26** and for the modified passage it was **10.85**. So, referring to their readability, they were very close to each other.

3.3. Procedure

The ten highlighted words in each version of the passage were the focus of treatment. As mentioned above, multiple choice and True-False were used for the post-test. The highlighted words were *Posthumous, eventful, trial, convince, indebted to, accustomed to, faintly, bless, appearance, faltered, presentiment, and contradict*. The experimental group was divided into pair groups to have peer work; the *Verbal interaction* task was also administered for the experimental group to share their knowledge as required:

- (1) To make ten new short sentences embracing the new words just learned;
- (2) To repeat the newly made sentences to their partners;
- (3) To use newly made words through collaboration with others in another group to add more usage of the new words to their own;
- (4) To discuss communicatively the newly made sentences in larger groups; and finally,
- (5) To use the vocabularies in cognitively more complex tasks such as role play in front of the class.

The control group, receiving no task, was taught in a traditional way to read the passages and to answer the following questions. The experimental group was instructed through a task-based noticing procedure such as *pre/ while/ post* techniques in terms of *verbal interaction*. The treatments were done in four sessions in which each session was administered with a ten day interval. After the first session, in each next treatment, first the previous treatment was post-tested. To determine the mean score of the experimental and the control group, the two groups were compared with the mean scores in each session using SPSS (13).

3.4. The Design

The design of the present study endowed with quasi-experimental project based on what Hatch and Lazaraton (1991, pp. 95-98) considered as quasi-experimental study. So the present study used (Quasi- Experimental: Pre-test Post-test Control Group Design). The experimental group, therefore, received special treatments in terms of verbal interaction task and the control group was traditionally taught without any specific tasks. The treatments were repeated to make sure that the application of the new words in the posttests were not happened accidentally, that is, to assure that the scores were taken normally.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics on Pre-test Scores

The subjects' scores were computed using SPSS (13) and through T-tests to see whether the Null hypothesis (H0) is confirmed or rejected. Based on the *N par Tests*, the mean score of the experimental group and for the control group was **28.90** and **29.27**, respectively. In order to compare the mean scores of the groups *one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test* was used to see whether test distribution is normal or not. Since the measured significances of the experimental and the control groups were **0.578** and **0.333**, respectively (shown in table 1), and these scores are higher than the assumed level of significance, i.e., **0.05**, so, it shows that test distribution is normal; then the Independent Sample T-test was employed to compare the mean scores.

Table 1: One sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showing the test distribution is normal

			GROUP1	GROUP2
N			30	30
Normal Parameters	a,b	Mean	28.90	29.27
		Std. Deviation	4.428	3.877
Most Extreme Differences		Absolute	.142	.173
		Positive	.084	.158
		Negative	-.142	-.173
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z			.780	.945
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)			.578	.333

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Based on *Levene's Test for Equality of Variances*, since the significance level i.e., (**0.241**) is higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.05**), it is concluded that the variances of the mean scores of the subjects in both groups are equal. So, as shown in Table 2, the measured **T- value** with a degree of freedom of **58** is **-.341** and the measured significance is **0.734** and is higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.05**); therefore, test distribution is normal.

Table 2: t- value, Independent Sample Test showing the equality of means of groups

	Levene's Test for equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
GRADI	1.403	.241	-.341	58	.734	-.37	1.075	-2.518	1.784
Equal variance assumed									
Equal variance not assumed			-.341	57.003	.734	-.37	1.075	-2.518	1.785

4.2. Scores on the Post-tests

Because the ultimate goal of this study was to assess the role of task-based teaching of highlighted (noticed) vocabulary in their retention, much more care had to be taken to induce as much true findings as possible. Therefore, the two posttests were repeated and their findings were compared to diminish the test-effect on the learners' performance. According to the nature of the study, the T-test was calculated in order to compare the mean scores of both groups. To compare the subjects' performance on the first posttests, again, T-test was used to test the hypothesis

Based on Table 3, the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group are **4.43** and **6.80**, respectively. The standard deviations of the experimental and control groups are **1.495** and **1.073**, respectively.

Table 3: Descriptive data taken from students' performance on the 1st post-test

Group Statistics				
GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXAM1 Control	30	4.43	1.073	.196
Exprimental	30	6.80	1.495	.273

Based on Table 4, the measured **t- value** with a degree of freedom of **58** is **-7.046** which is higher than assumed level of significance (**0.001**), and the measured significance is zero (sig. **0.000**) which is lower than assumed level of significance (**0.05**). Showing the effect of the implementation of the treatment on the experimental group's mean scores, the Null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4: t- value, comparison of mean scores of control and experimental groups on the 1st post-test

Independent Samples Test									
	Levene's Test for quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
EXAM1 Equal varianc assumed	1.075	.304	-7.046	58	.000	-2.37	.336	-3.039	-1.694
Equal varianc not assumed			-7.046	52.606	.000	-2.37	.336	-3.041	-1.693

t=-7.046; n=30; df= 58; p<0.001.

Considering the required descriptive statistics of both groups on their second posttests (which stands for the modified version of the passage), the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group are **3.53** and **6.67** with SD of **1.19** and **1.9**, respectively (Table 5).

Table 5, Descriptive data taken from students' performance on the 2nd post-test

Group Statistics				
GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXAM2 Control	30	3.53	1.196	.218
Exprimental	30	6.67	1.900	.347

Based on Table 6, the measured variance significance is **0.026** which is higher than the assumed significance i.e., **0.05** meaning that the variances of two samples (groups) are equal. As shown in Table 6, since the measured significance is zero (**0.000**) and the measured **t-value** with a degree of freedom of **58** is **-7.645** higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.001**), therefore, this disconfirms the Null hypothesis too.

Table 6, t- value: comparison of mean scores of the control and experimental groups on 2nd post-test

Independent Samples Test									
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
EXAM2	5.229	.026	-7.645	58	.000	-3.13	.410	-3.954	-2.313
Equal variance assumed									
Equal variance not assumed			-7.645	48.861	.000	-3.13	.410	-3.957	-2.310

$$t = -7.645; n = 30; df = 58; p < 0.001$$

The tabulation of the statistical information in Table 7 illustrates the measurement of T-value on the third posttests. The statistics including the mean scores and standard deviations of the subjects' performance on the third posttests were required to calculate the T-value illustrated in Table 7 as follows: the control group's mean score is **4.33**, experimental group's mean score is **8.20**, and their standard deviations are **1.398** and **1.349**, respectively.

Table 7: Descriptive data taken from students' performance on their post-test

Group Statistics				
GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
REP_EXA1 Control	30	4.33	1.398	.255
Exprimental	30	8.20	1.349	.246

Based on Table 8, the T-value, the measured variance significance is **0.879** and this score is higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.05**), then we can find no significant difference between the variances of both groups; they are homogeneous. Considering the Table, since the measured significance is zero (**0.000**) and the measured **t- value** with a degree of freedom of **58** is **-10.901** and higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.001**), then it can be concluded that the mean scores of the two groups are strongly different and this difference is very significant.

Table 8, t- value: comparison of mean scores of the control and experimental groups on 3rd post-test

Independent Samples Test									
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
REP_EX Equal variance assumed	.023	.879	-10.901	58	.000	-3.87	.355	-4.577	-3.157
Equal variance not assumed			-10.901	57.928	.000	-3.87	.355	-4.577	-3.157

$t = -10.901$; $n = 30$; $df = 58$; $p < 0.001$

The same measurement was applied to compare the scores of both groups on the fourth posttest. Based on the descriptive information required for subjects' performance on the fourth posttest (Table 9), the mean score of the control group and the experimental group are **5.13** and **7.67**, respectively. The standard deviations of both groups calculated by T-test are **1.525** and **1.516**, respectively.

Table 9: Descriptive data taken from students' performance on the 4th post-test

Group Statistics					
GROUP		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
REP_EXA2	Control	30	5.13	1.525	.278
	Experimental	30	7.67	1.516	.277

According to Table 10 (below), the assumed equal variances are taken from the first row in column *Levene's Test for Equality of Variances*. Since here the measured variance significance is **0.235** and this is higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.05**), then it can be concluded that the variances of the mean scores of the subjects in both groups are equal. Based on this equality in the variances, the measured significance is zero (**0.000**) and the measured **t- value** with a degree of freedom of **58** is **-6.452**, and it is higher than the assumed level of significance (**0.001**), then it can be claimed that the mean scores of the two

groups are strongly different. In other words, the Null hypothesis of this study is rejected at the level significance of **0.001**.

Table 10 t- value: comparison of mean scores of the control and experimental groups on 4th post-test

Independent Samples Test									
	Levene's Test for quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
REP_EX/ Equal varianc assumed	1.442	.235	-6.452	58	.000	-2.53	.393	-3.319	-1.747
Equal varianc not assumed			-6.452	57.998	.000	-2.53	.393	-3.319	-1.747

t= -6.452; n = 30; df = 58; p < 0.001

5. Discussion

The findings of the present study strongly and significantly confirm the effectiveness of the task-based language teaching. As shown in Tables 4, 6, 8, and 10, the mean scores of the experimental group in retention to vocabularies are significantly higher than the control group's mean scores ($p < 0.001$). This is quite in line with Doughty (1991), Jourdenais et al. (1995) and Robinson (1997a) who showed that instruction whether implicit or explicit works better than no exposure or instruction in improving subjects' L2 development.

As seen, employing the treatments to the experimental group has been strongly effective, since the results discussed before have confirmed the superiority of the application of task-based language teaching over traditional teaching. Willis and Willis (2001), state that '...where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome, language in a communicative task is seen as bringing about an outcome through the exchange of meanings' (p. 173). The results of this study are also in line with Robinson's (1997b) finding in which he found that subjects receiving explicit treatment were superior to subjects in both the implicit and incidental conditions. Alanen (1995) also showed that visual input enhancement did not have any effects on subjects' performance. So, the highlighted vocabulary that was identical for both groups of the subjects corresponds to Alanen's findings. According to Ellis's (2003b, p:16) definition of task as 'a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome', the learners are required to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular

forms. The results are also in line with Prabhu's (1990) assertion that in task-based learning, students may learn more effectively when their minds are focused on the task, rather than the language they use. Leow (1997) asserts that input enhancement needs for textual manipulation to be effective. In the current study, therefore, in order to manipulate the passages as the learning input, the new vocabularies were highlighted in both versions of the passages to make them more effective. But the results revealed that the highlighted words are effective enough when they are continuously focused on via pre, while, and post tasks. The facilitating function of teachers in learning is strengthened when the results of this study confirms Radwan's (2005) findings which showed the superiority of provision of explicit explanations to any form of implicit language learning.

Consequently, the statistical findings of this study indicated a great amount of difference between the performances of subjects of the experimental and control groups. This significant difference confidently supports the superiority of implementing task-based language teaching over the traditional method of reading comprehension. Teachers, curriculum designers, and authorities are also recommended to employ task-based language teaching techniques in teaching and learning situations. Moreover, in such an instructional environment, the learners' autonomy for generating and communicating the new sentences increases and it is effective and crucial for their language learning.

6. Conclusions and Implications

The findings of this study revealed the superiority of the experimental group over the control group; that is, the effect of noticing on vocabulary learning was confirmed. In other words, teaching highlighted words through task-based language teaching is more effective than the traditional approach, since "the noticeability of target features in the input is not *automatic*" (Schmidt, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Hulstijn and de Graaff, 1994). Being more involved in learning, the experimental learners performed the tasks better than the control group. As it might seem to some teachers, it is difficult to better engage the learners in learning. The more they are involved in language tasks, the better they can learn them. In other words, if they are not involved in learning tasks continuously and autonomously, their attention, comprehension, and totally learning may lead to disruption. The present study, therefore, contributed to fill this gap that there are some process-based techniques to communicatively facilitate the learners' noticing mechanism in pre-intermediate level of EFL learners. Yet, neither in pre-intermediate nor other levels, it does not provide us with a comprehensive discussion of the

vocabulary learning in real world condition. The findings of this study may provide EFL teachers with using some noticing techniques in terms of some tasks to much more involve the learners in vocabulary learning. Furthermore, in order to draw the learners' attention to language items, syllabus designers and text-book writers are recommended to employ some noticing techniques such as glossing the main words in the margin, making bold, italicized, pair work, role play, etc. in their course syllabi and teaching materials. The findings of the present study also confirmed that though the new words may be highlighted in the text books, they would not be merely eye-catching enough to absorb the learners' attention, i.e., the highlighted forms of the vocabulary need to be sufficiently elaborated on through some required tasks to attentively involve the learners' attention in better storage of the information. However, some more studies of this kind are needed to help teachers and syllabus designer to design appropriate syllabi based on learners' need and interest to more facilitate their learning process.

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Title

The Impact of Visual Aids on Listening Comprehension Tests of Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract

The present study examines the impact of visual aids in the form of videos and still pictures on learners' performances in listening comprehension tests. In fact this study aims to prove if video and picture mediated audios are more powerful than audio-only materials in helping learners get better scores from listening comprehension tests. Participants of the study are 60 male students. For the purpose of this study, an internet based listening test consisting of six passages is used. The results show that participants' test scores on picture-mediated listening passages are higher than their scores on both video-mediated listening passages and audio-only listening passages. The findings of this study help language teachers to be aware of debilitating effects of videos in listening comprehension programs and it can also be helpful for test designers in designing proper listening comprehension tests.

Keywords: Listening comprehension, Visual aids, Audio materials, Video-mediated

1. Introduction

Listening comprehension process is described from an information processing perspective as "an active process in which listeners select and interpret information(visual, non-visual, pictorial) that comes from auditory and visual clues in order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express" (Thompson & Rubin, 1995, p. 331). According to Chastain (1988), one cannot speak a language unless one can understand it. Therefore,

establishing realistic goals of listening comprehension for classroom language students seem to be of crucial importance and it has become a basic field of investigation since 1950s in the works of the fathers of listening such as Brown, Nichols, and Weaver (Feyten, 1991, p. 173). Because of the so-called linguists' works, there have been different theories focusing on LC stating that language can be acquired in an authentic context through listening. To apply these theories to EFL classrooms where we teach English as a foreign language we need authentic language tasks. These tasks include both audio-visual and audio-only formats, which can empower students' listening ability through different cognitive strategies that students employ.

During the past years, some studies have been conducted to examine the role of visuals in both comprehending and testing spoken form of the second and foreign languages but the results of these studies were inconclusive. While a number of studies proved that visuals facilitate learners' performance on L2 listening comprehension and listening tests (see Ginther, 2002), a number of other studies proved no facilitative effect of visuals on testing learners' listening comprehension (Coniam, 2001; Gruba, 1993; & Ockey, 2007). Video and picture are the only two visual formats that are studied in this research and their effects (facilitating or debilitating) on listening comprehension tests are examined.

2. Review of the Related Literature

During the last years, a large amount of research on the use of visuals in listening comprehension has been done, but the results of these studies are often inconclusive. Although some studies suggest that, the use of visuals is beneficial in listening programs; other studies proved that visuals have little, if any effect on the comprehension of the spoken language (Lynch, 1998). A number of studies on the use of visuals in listening comprehension programs involved French second language learners (Baltova, 1994; Chung, 1994; Jones, 2002, 2003; Secules, et al., 1992). Some of them proved that videos could facilitate comprehension of the spoken language (Baltova, 1994; Chung, 1994; Secules, et al., 1992) and "generated positive attitudes and confidence in understanding even in the case of poor communication" (Baltova, 1994, p. 520). They also proved that the use of pictures helps to the development of listening comprehension (Baltova, 1994; Chung, 1994), but Chung's 1994 study showed that the use of multiple pictures debilitates listening comprehension.

Beside these, multimedia learning and teaching has been the subject of some research studies on S/F listening comprehension (Brett, 1997; Jones, 2002, 2003). Brett's 1997 study

suggested that computer-based multimedia environment facilitated listening comprehension. The focus of Jones's 2002 study was Mayer's 1997 generative theory of multimedia learning. This study investigated the effect of visual and verbal annotations on listening comprehension of French second language learners.

In this study, the students with access to both visual and verbal annotations performed better on understanding the passage and learning the vocabulary than the students with no annotations available (Jones, 2002). Jones (2003), also interviewed test takers and the results of the interviews corroborated the results of her 2002 study. Interviews provided "qualitative evidence for a generative theory of multimedia learning that suggests that the availability and the choice of visual and verbal annotations in listening comprehension activities enhances students' abilities to comprehend the material presented and to acquire vocabulary" (Jones, 2002, 2003, p. 41).

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Participants of this study were 60 male students, studying English in one of the ILI branches in Shiraz. After the researcher selected the intermediate classes, he spoke about the purpose of the study in these classes and gave the students who volunteered to participate in the research consent forms to read and sign. To make the design stronger and to consider the homogeneity of the participants of this study the researcher used the original version of ECPE Michigan Test. Through the formal testing the researcher made sure that the participants were really at the same language proficiency level.

3.2. Instrumentation

To check the impact of visuals on the listening comprehension of the participants of this study the researcher used an internet-based listening test, designed by Ruslan S. Suvorov (2008), and his assistances at Iowa State University with his permission. This test consisted of six passages and each passage included five multiple-choice questions. These questions were of different types and included: true-false, exception, inference, details and questions about the purpose of the speaker or speakers.

Internal consistency reliability (KR-20) of the listening test was 70 and the difficulty level of all six passages was similar as determined by experts who checked the reliability and validity of the listening test. Ruslan S. Suvorov asked several professors in the department of English at Iowa state university to check the reliability, validity and appropriateness of the

listening test for the proficiency level of the test takers. The texts written for this listening test covered general topics that did not require prior specialized knowledge on the part of the participants. Four out of six passages used visuals: two of the listening passages, each with a single photograph, to check the impact of still pictures on the comprehension of the spoken language of the participants, and two passages with videos to check the impact of the recorded films on the listening comprehension according to the purpose of the study.

Additionally for the lecture, a photograph of a lecturer was used and for the dialogue, a photograph of two speakers was used. On the other hand, one of the videos included a lecturer reading a lecture and the other video included two speakers talking in a hall. So with regard to the classification of visuals proposed by Bejar, et al., (2001) and Ginther (2002), only context visuals were used in this study. The last two passages were audio-only formats to let the researcher compare and contrast the scores of the participants of this section with their scores of the visual sections.

As it was a computer-based listening test, the researcher decided not to use a pencil and paper method to collect the information. Coniam (2001), believes that looking down and up from question form to screen may distract test takers. Therefore, listening passages were followed by multiple-choice questions and the participants answered the questions on the computer screen. They had 12 seconds to answer each question. Since existing studies of visuals in listening tests included short dialogues or lectures (e.g. Coniam, 2002; Ginther, 2002; Ockey, 2007; & Wagner, 2007) each listening passage of the Suvorov's study consisted of a short dialogue or a lecture. One of the following two text types was used: a dialogue between two college students or a professor and a college student (D), or a short lecture given by a university professor (L).

3.3. Procedure

After the participants of the study were selected by achieving the accepted score in the listening proficiency test, the researchers planned and met them in one of the ILI halls for the first time. It was the first formal time that the researcher met the participants. They asked their questions and the researcher answered them patiently and made all aspects of the research clear to them. Then the researcher gathered the forms and divided the participants to 5 groups of 12 to participate in the listening test since the institute laboratory included only 12 computers. The researcher asked three of the groups to attend the test in the morning and the other two groups to attend the test in the afternoon and planned the time of the arrival of each group to attend the test at the right time. The day of the exam was previously planned with the educational manager of the institute.

The expected morning the researcher met the participants in the institute for the test. The first group of the participants entered the computer laboratory with the researcher and a staff who was responsible to take care of the computers. The staff explained the way to use the computers to the participants and cautioned them about the misuses. The researcher gave the directions for the last time and asked the participants not to forget the importance of the outcomes of the test for the last time. When the computers were ready and the right windows were opened on each computer screen with the help of the laboratory staff, the researcher asked the participants to put on the headphones and to start the test. The researcher also asked the laboratory staff to stay at the end of the laboratory not to distract test takers' attention. The overall test length was 44 minutes but adding the necessary time for getting ready, the test took near an hour. This process was repeated two other times in the morning and two other times in the afternoon. Participants had to answer five multiple-choice questions after each dialogue and monologue.

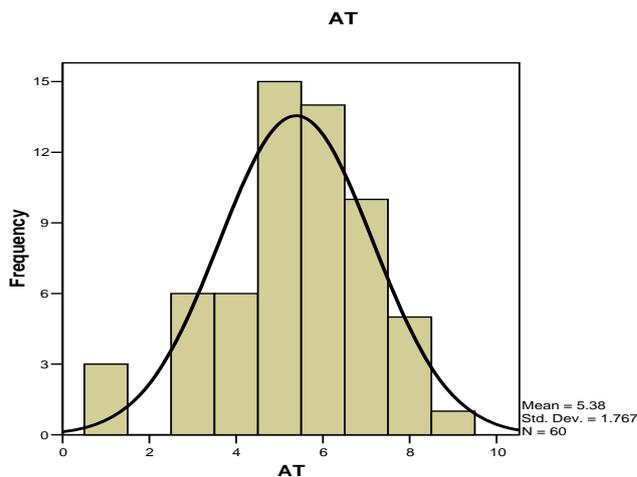
After the test was administered, quantitative data were collected based on the participants' answers to the questions. Through the analysis of the outcomes, the researcher was able to answer the research question. The researcher wanted to examine if there was any difference between the use of visuals and audio-only-format materials in L2 listening comprehension. After the researcher gathered the required data with regard to the fact that in this study each participant was tested using all three formats of stimuli (audio, video, and picture-mediated) the researcher had to use a *one factor within subjects analysis* or a *one factor analysis with repeated measures*. Therefore, to analyze the relationship between variables a statistical process called *General Linear Model (GLM)* was used.

4. Results and Discussions

The research question investigated the difference between three types of input to reveal their effects on listening comprehension tests based on participants' scores. The following histograms show the frequency in each type of the input separately to let us get a better impression of the participant's scores. The following chart shows the frequency of the participant's scores of the audio-only format (dialogue and lecture) totally (Figure, 1).

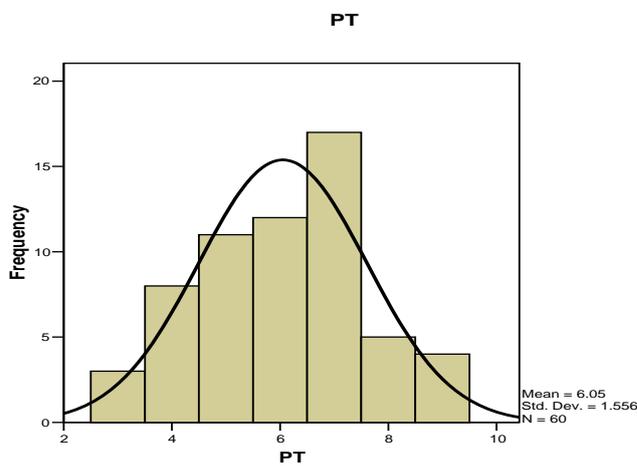
Figure 1

The frequency of the scores of the audio-only format



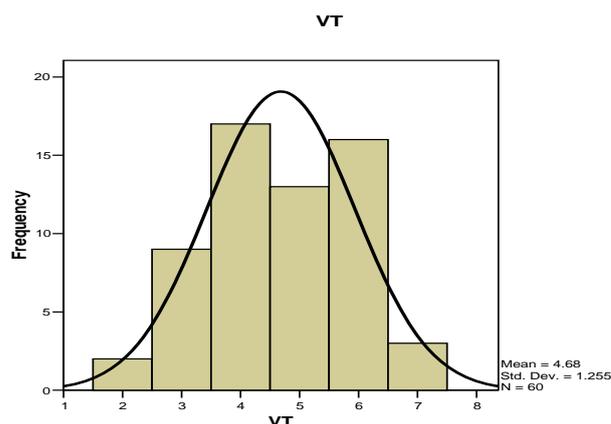
Since the listening test of this study included six passages, each version of the input (audio, video, and picture-mediated) consisted of a dialogue and a lecture itself. Therefore, to investigate the effect of each version the scores of the dialogue and lecture in that version were counted totally. Each listening passage (dialogue or lecture) was followed by five multiple-choice questions. Thus participant's scores in each version totally range from 1 to 10. The second chart shows the frequency of the participant's scores of the picture-mediated format (Figure, 2).

Figure 2 *The frequency of the scores of the picture-mediated format*



This histogram chart shows the frequency of the participant's scores of the video-mediated format (Figure, 3).

Figure 3 *The frequency of the scores of the video-mediated format*



Through looking at the histograms, we see the differences between participant's scores in each type and the frequency of the scores are clear. Descriptive statistics make the differences clear to us. The following table provides descriptive statistics for each type of input separately for all 60 participants (Table, 1).

Table 1 Mean scores for each type of the input

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AT	5.38	1.767	60
PT	6.05	1.556	60
VT	4.68	1.255	60

Based on the table 4.1 picture-mediated listening passages have the highest mean (Mean. P = 6.05). The mean for audio-only listening passages is lower than the mean for picture-mediated listening passages (Mean. A = 5.38), and the mean for video-mediated listening passages is the lowest one (Mean. V = 4.68). With regard to the fact that in this study each participant was tested using all three formats of stimuli (audio, video, and picture-mediated) the researcher had to use a one factor within subjects analysis or a one factor analysis with repeated measures. Therefore, to analyze the relationship between variables a statistical process called *General Linear Model (GLM)* was used. To do this statistical process it is necessary first to fix the union amounts of different variable's levels within one case. This prerequisite is known as the *Homogeneity of Covariance* or *Sphericity* (Table, 2). The *Homogeneity of Covariance* is tested by *Mauchly Sphericity test*.

Table 2 The homogeneity of covariance

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	Df	Sig.	Epsilon ^a		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower bound
	.904	5.834	2	.054	.913	.940	.500

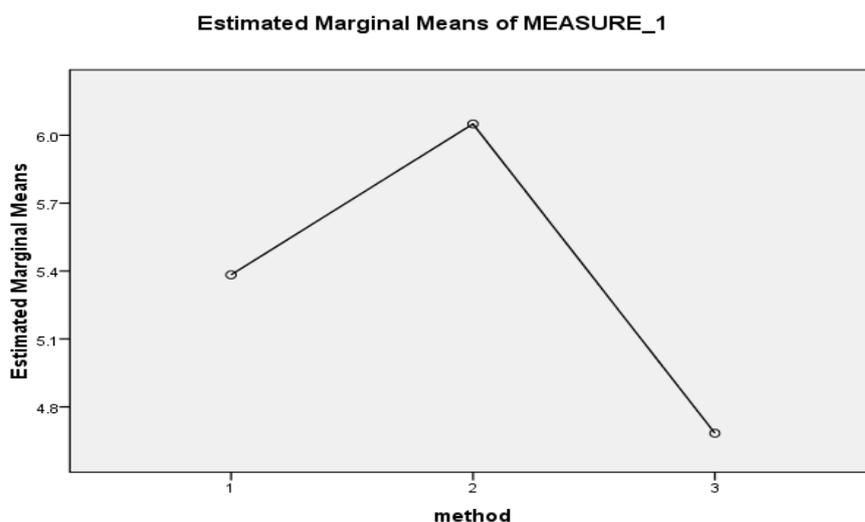
Thus, with regard to the significant level (.054) we claim that this is a meaningful analysis because P-Value = .054 and its amount is lower than 0.05. It is also possible to use the *Greenhouse-Geisser Test*, which is a more exact testing method (Table, 3).

Table 3 *Test of Within Subjects Effects*

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Method					
Greenhouse-Geisser	56.044	1.825	30.704	12.402	.000

Therefore, based on the results of the data analysis the answer to the research question is: *yes* and we claim that there is a difference between audio-only, video, and picture-mediated formats in a F/S language listening comprehension test in terms of their effectiveness. The data analysis suggested that a single picture-mediated format is the best format to use in a listening comprehension testing and training program. The results of the data analysis also revealed that audio-only format works better than video version. Although the Mean difference between picture-mediated and audio format is great but this difference is not as great as the difference between audio and video. Thus, with regard to this significant difference, we can claim that visuals affect listening comprehension; a still picture facilitates listening comprehension while video somehow debilitates it (Figure, 4).

Figure 4 *Estimated marginal means of Measure 1*



5. Conclusions

This study examined the impact of multimedia tools in the form of videos and pictures on the learners' performances in L2 listening comprehension. For this purpose, the researcher used a computer-based listening test developed by Suvorov (2008), consisting of six passages with the overall duration of 44 minutes. Each passage was followed by five multiple-choice questions that participants answered online.

The researcher decided to show if participants' scores on videos and pictures differed from their scores on audio formats. However, at the end of the study and after analyzing the data, the researcher found that participants' scores on the multimedia tools differed from their scores on the audio-format material. He found that in contrast to audio-only material, picture-mediated material facilitates listening comprehension while video-mediated material debilitates it.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

This study investigated the impact of visuals in the form of video and still pictures on listening comprehension tests. These pedagogical implications can be drawn from the results of this study:

Visual aids affect S/F language learners' listening test scores but this impact depends on the types of the visuals. As compared to a listening test with audio-only format, the use of an audio format mediated with a single picture in a listening comprehension test makes a significant difference in participants' scores and is more facilitative. However, the results of this study showed that the use of a video-mediated format does not facilitate learners' performance on the listening test as compared to an audio-only format and a picture-mediated

format. Therefore, listening comprehension test designers must be aware of the possible debilitating effect of video-mediated formats while designing second language listening comprehension tests.

On the other hand, it was an internet-based listening comprehension test, and computers assisted the researcher greatly to perform the test appropriately, so there was no need for pencil and paper, because participants answered the questions by clicking on the items and this prevented them from being distracted. Therefore, it is apparent that computer-based tests are superior to pencil and paper tests while testing listening comprehension because learners do not have to look at papers to answer the test items after they watch the videos.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

The results of this study and consequently the implications drawn from these results allow for some further researches in this field. These are some ideas that can be helpful for those who intend to do research in the same area:

First, visuals used in this study were *context visuals* that provided information about the scene of the verbal interaction but a comparative study can be done to find out the impact of the *content visuals* on listening comprehension tests.

Second, in picture-mediated section of this study, audio records were only mediated with a single picture thus a same study can be conducted with a series of related pictures mediating audio records in picture-mediated section.

Third, some other researches can be done considering individual differences such as, learners' different learning styles, learners' intelligences, and learners' proficiency levels.

Forth, because only multiple-choice questions were used in this study, another research can be done in the same area using other types of questions such as open-ended questions or questions requiring short answers at the end of the listening passages. This future research will tell us if the use of visuals depends on the types of test items.

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Title

The Relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Goal-oriented and Self-Regulated Learning and Their Reading Comprehension

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Biodata

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Abstract

Self-regulated and goal-oriented learning is a significant issue in language teaching and language learning. The aim of this study is to scrutinize the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their reading comprehension. Participants were 80 students enrolled in English Translation Major at Islamic Azad University, Quchan branch. Participants completed Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire, Achievement Goal Questionnaire and took a reading comprehension test. They completed these questionnaires at two sessions. The results of the study showed that there was a positive relationship between goal-oriented learning and reading comprehension, and also there was a positive relationship between self-regulated and reading comprehension of language learners.

Keywords: Self-regulated, Goal-oriented learning, Reading comprehension, EFL learners

1. Introduction

Learning English as the international language in many societies is common in today's world. Since in developmental countries (e.g. Iran) the meeting of needs requires developmental technologies and economics, education and high education are becoming the core of these developments of the society. Therefore, student's success is the core of

education especially high education (university). Moreover, Because of the growing significance of learning English as a foreign language in all countries all over the world, the number of students interested in learning and using it is increasing. In this regard, Iran is not exception and the number of students interested in learning and using English is rising day by day.

As stated by Vermetten, Lodewijks and Vermunt (2001), "understanding individual differences in learning is a significant subject in language teaching and language learning. Although quantities of valuable theories which define and clarify these differences are accessible, they seem to be separated through numerous areas of study". They added that "the incorporation of different theoretical models could offer new visions and a deeper understanding of individual learning differences"(p.149).

In various studies, motivational concepts like self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993), self-esteem (Rubio, 2007) or features of learning style (Coutinho & Neuman, 2008) have been mentioned. However, relatively, little of these studies have concentrated on the crucial role of goal-orientation and self-regulation in learning. Self-education has been considered in several years as a technique to encourage individuals to develop educated on their own, essentially by undertaking personal programs of reading (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994).

Goal orientation and self-regulation are considered a lot in recent decades among language learners and their relationships to learners' achievement. From a general point of view, self-regulated and goal-oriented learning have a main influence on learners' academic achievement.

Therefore, according to achievement goal research, students influence their own learning by adopting achievement goals that optimize self-regulatory processes (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994). Now, a vast body of information is available about the processes that self-regulated learners use to acquire new knowledge and skills and about the environments in which self-regulated learning can be most successfully acquired (Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). To become self-regulated learners, students should learn to regulate the use of information-processing modes, the learning process, and the self (Boekaerts, 1999). Based on Zimmerman (2002), self-regulated learners are "proactive in their efforts to learn because they are aware of their strengths and limitations and because they are guided by personally set goals and task-related strategies" (p.66).

One of the most important goals of education is to help students acquire self-regulation skills; not only to improve learning during school years, but also to prepare learners to increase their knowledge after compulsory schooling has been completed. In this regard, self-

regulated strategies are personal methods to acquire knowledge and skills (Nota, Soresi, & Zimmerman, 2004).

This study is worthy to be carried out because little search has been done before in Iran to investigate self-regulated learning and goal-orientation in foreign language learning. The investigation of achievement goal-orientation and self-regulation in Iran would be efficient to respond the question that why some students in a classroom with the same instruction make more progress than others.

Self-regulated learning and goal-oriented learning have become important issues in educational psychology because of their influence on learners' achievement. Lemose (1999) believes that self-regulation involves the individual's capacity to organize behavior according to one's purposes (goals). It also involves the self-management of the various regulatory processes, triggered and connected by goal settings (p.471). According to this study, learners illustrate different levels of engagement and involvement in their learning activities because of their different purposes and goals which lead them to act differently.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the involvement of these psychological concepts in the process of language learning: firstly, the relationship between learners' goal oriented learning and their reading achievement, and secondly, the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-regulated learning and their reading achievement. Reading is introduced as a valuable source of language input, especially for students in learning contexts in which native speakers of English are not available to provide language input.

In this study, the following research questions were stated:

Q1. Is there any significant relationship between goal-oriented learning and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners?

Q2. Is there any significant relationship between self-regulated learning and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners?

Based on these research questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

Ho1. There is no relationship between self-regulated learning and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

Ho2. There is no relationship between goal-oriented learning and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

In recent years, researchers have increasingly considered the teaching of reading as one of language skills and have tried to understand the processes involved in the reading of written texts. "Without doubt, in any academic or higher learning context, reading is perceived as the most prominent academic skill for university students" (Noor, 2006,

p.66).According to reading experts, reading is not actually a skill but a process composed of many different skills. It is explained as "the ability of an individual to recognize a visual form, associate the form with a sound and / or meaning he has learned in the past, and on the basis of past experience, understand and interpret its meaning" (Kennedy,1974, p.3). It can be concluded from the above definition that reading is not a passive activity. In other words, the reader must make an active role to obtain the available information. Goodman (1967) describes reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing game" which requires ability in choosing the fewest, most productive cues needed to generate guesses which are right the first time. As mentioned in Carrell and Eisterhold (1983, p. 554), Goodman views this act of the construction of meaning as being "an ongoing, cyclical, process of sampling from the input text, predicting, testing and confirming or revising those predictions, and sampling further".

Hasbun (2006) explained the importance of learners' reading comprehension and contented some of the problems that learners encounter when reading. She stated that the absence of linguistic and background knowledge of readers can influence readers' comprehension while reading and cause some problems for them. She emphasized the importance of reading as the important source of rich input for learners and suggested that progression in reading can lead learners to feel independent.

Widdowson (1979) has argued reading as "the process of combining textual information with the information a reader brings to a text". In this view the reading process is not simply a matter of extracting information from the text. Rather, it is viewed as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text. Similarly, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) mention that our understanding of reading is best considered as "the interaction that occurs between the reader and the text, an interpretive process". The interactive view of the reading process can help present a more comprehensive definition of reading.

Mehrpour, Sadighi and Bagheri (2012) had conducted a longitudinal study and examine the potential of implementing Reading Strategy Instruction in raising learner readers' awareness of reading strategies, extending the range of strategies they employed and enhancing their reading comprehension ability. They concluded that while strategy training appeared to raise students' awareness of reading strategies and could encourage strategy use by some students, some strategies were found to be more difficult to be attained. Moreover, the reading strategy instruction was not able to improve the students' reading performance significantly based on the results of a reading comprehension test given to the participants at the end of the program.

Jahangard, Moinzadeh and Karimi (2011) accomplished a study to scrutinize the effect of grammar and vocabulary pre-teaching, as two types of pre-reading activities, on the Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension from a schema-theoretic perspective. The conclusion of this study revealed that grammar and vocabulary pre-teaching had no significant influence on the improvement of reading comprehension. Rather, vocabulary pre-teaching had a relatively facilitative effect on reading comprehension whereas the effect of grammar pre-teaching was seemingly debilitating.

1.1 Self-regulated Learning

The concept of self-regulated learning through which students regulate their own learning and motivation to learn has obtained a great deal of interest among academic researchers. Self-regulated learning emphasizes autonomy and control by the individuals who are responsible for monitoring, directing, and regulating their actions toward achievement of goals, acquisition, expanding expertise, and self-improvement (Paris & Paris, 2001).

Cleary and Zimmerman (2004) believed that self-regulation is a complex, multifaceted process that integrates key motivational variables and self-processes. Also they stated that self-regulation involves learners who proactively direct their behavior or strategies to achieve self-set goals (p.538).

Zimmerman (1989) contented that self-regulated learners are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process. From a social cognitive view, Zimmerman (1990) explained this matter and added that metacognitively, self-regulated learners set goals, plan effective strategies, control their performance, and evaluate their outcomes. Motivationally, they evaluate their learning outcomes, evaluate the extent of their satisfaction with their efforts, and make judgments about their capability. Behaviorally, self-regulated learners decide on their learning environment, seek help from peers, parents, and their teachers to provide required information for them.

Based on self-regulated learning theories, the responsibility of learning and the development of effective learning strategies are placed on the students. Thus, self-regulated learning is an active mechanism through which learners set goals for their learning and try to monitor, control and regulate their cognition, motivation, and behavior guided by their goals (Wolters, Pintrich & Karabenick, 2003).

Students are generally expected to engage in more *independent* learning and must be able to manage different assignments from multiple teachers (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). In order to meet these expectations, students need "to have a repertoire of study and self-

regulation strategies that they can access and utilize" (p.537).

In all definitions, students are assumed to be aware of the potential usefulness of self-regulation processes to enhance their academic achievement (Zimmerman & Schunk, 1989). A great deal of research supports the importance of self-regulated learning that makes students independent of their teachers in increasing their knowledge and promote the transfer of knowledge and skills by their goals. For example, Pintrich and De Groot (1990) reported that students who implemented higher self-regulatory strategies performed better in classroom setting than students who tended not to use these strategies. Moreover, Hammann (2005) showed that students who use self-regulated strategies enjoy writing more than students who do not.

One major goal in educational psychology is that students become more self-regulated in their learning process and learn the effective instructional strategies for integrating learning strategy instruction into their teaching. In this regard, students need to personalize knowledge of self-regulatory learning and become aware of their current level of functioning by comparing relevant attitudes and strategies of self-regulated learners with their own beliefs and strategies (Du Bois & Staley, 1997).

Learners experience the effects of self-regulated learning strategies by engaging in guided practice. Du Boise and Staley (1997) provided two reasons for the importance of such experiences. Firstly, becoming a self-regulated learner needs more than acquiring a set of strategies; rather, it requires learners to change their beliefs about the nature of learning. Secondly, by practicing self-regulated strategies, learners experience the effectiveness of the strategies and contrast these strategies with their current learning activities. Metacognitively, Self-regulated learners analyze the demands of tasks in relation to their academic strengths and strategies and search their repertoire of effective learning and problem solving strategies that will promote their learning processes and products (Perry & Vandekamp, 2000). As cited in Zimmerman (1989), Thoresen and Mahoney (1974) proposed three general classes of strategies for increasing the regulatory influence of person processes: strategies designed to control behavior, the environment, or covert processes. Behavioral self-regulation is depicted in triadic terms in Figure 1.1.

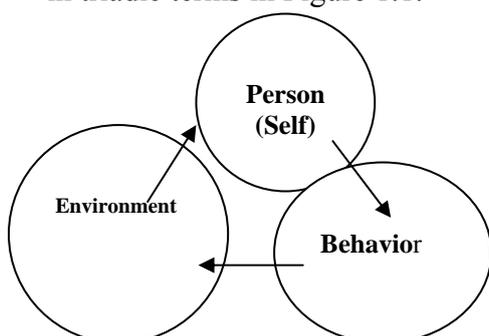


Figure 1.1. A triadic analysis of self-regulated functioning.

1.2 Zimmerman's Model of Self-regulation

Motivation defined as a student's desire to be engaged and commit effort to completing a task has a crucial role in learning that students may regulate (Wolters, 1998). In order to understand the structure of self-regulation process and its relation to motivational beliefs, Zimmerman (2002) developed a cyclical model of self-regulation based on social-cognitive theory and stated that "self-regulation is not a mental ability or an academic performance skill: rather it is the self directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills" (p.66).

Zimmerman (2002) stated that "Learning is viewed as an activity that students do for themselves as an activity that students do for themselves in a proactive way rather than as a covert event that happens to them in reaction to teaching." He added that "these learners monitor their behavior in terms of their goals and self-reflect on their increasing effectiveness. This enhances their self-satisfaction and motivation to continue to improve their methods of learning "(p. 66). In this model, self-regulated learners regulate their academic behaviors and beliefs in three cyclical phases: The forethought phase, the performance phase, and the self-reflection phase. The forethought phase refers to processes and beliefs that precede any efforts to learn. The performance phase refers to processes occurring during behavioral implementation, and self-reflection refers to the processes occurring after learning or performance (Zimmerman, 2002).

The forethought phase is defined as the starting stage for learning. This phase includes the beliefs, attitudes, and processes that students possess before being engaged in learning process and fall into two major classes: task-analysis and self-motivation. Task-analysis includes goal setting and strategic planning in which learners set specific goals for themselves and select or create a strategy to optimize one's performance during learning process, respectively. Also, self-motivation includes self-efficacy, outcome expectations, intrinsic interest, and learning goal orientation (Zimmerman, 2002).

The forethought phase influence learners' ability to engage in the performance control phase. Performance phase include self-control and self-observation. Self-control refers to the development of specific methods or strategies selected during the forethought phase (Zimmerman, 2002).

This phase guides the learning or performance of learners and includes sub processes such as self-instruction, imagery, attention focusing, or task strategies. It is believed that the second phase is crucial in learning process because the students gather information that will

be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the learning strategies and to improve learning process (Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004). Self-observation refers to self-recording personal functioning or self-experimentation to find out the cause of these functioning.

The final phase of the cyclical loop involves reflecting on the self to evaluate performance and to make judgments about future learning processes. Self-reflection phase includes two classes of self-judgment and self-reaction. Self-judgment consists of self-evaluation and causal attribution. In self-evaluation stage, one makes judgment about the effectiveness of his or her performance by comparing one's behavior with behavior and performance of others.

Moreover, Self-reaction includes levels of learner's satisfaction with the ultimate process and adaptive or defensive reaction. Learners with defensive reaction try to withdraw or avoid opportunities to learn and perform, and learners with adaptive reactions try to make adjustment in order to increase the effectiveness of one's method of learning (Zimmerman, 2002). The processes in each phase are depicted in Figure 1.2.

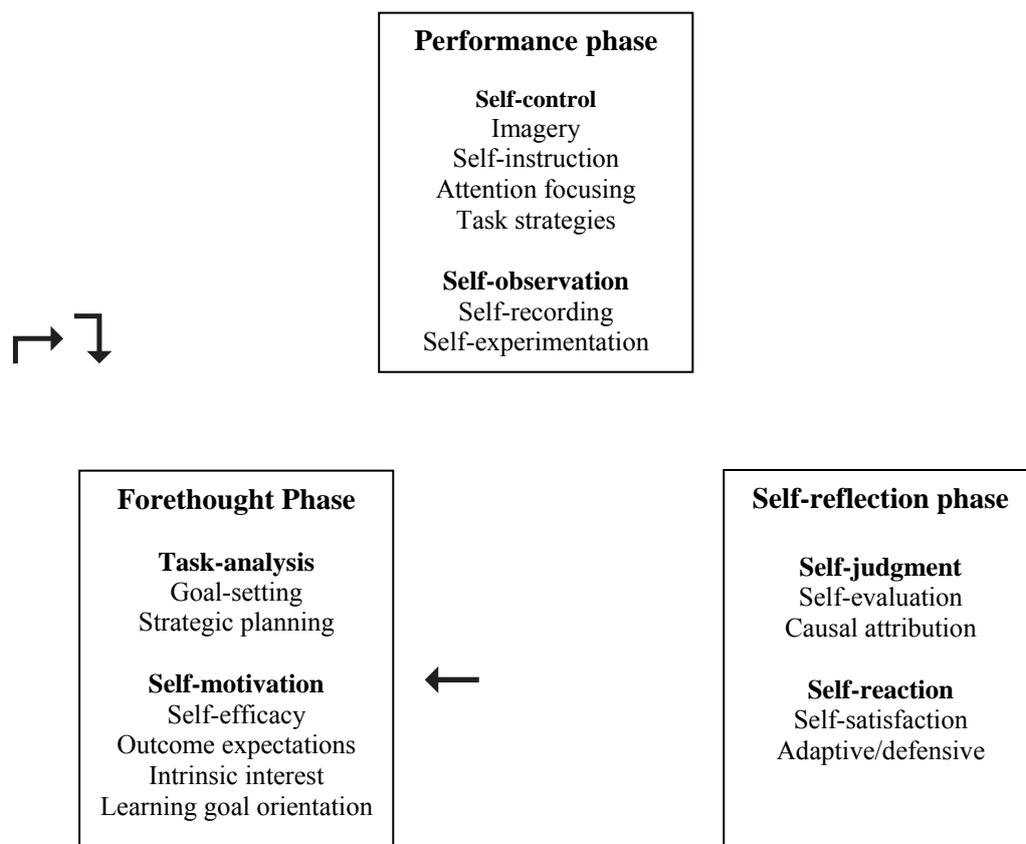


Figure 1.2. Phases and Sub processes of Self-regulation

As is clear from the figure, there is an interrelationship among three phases. Zimmerman and Schunk (1989) suggested that, based on self-regulated learning theories, students can:

- a) Personally improve their ability to learn through selective use of metacognitive and motivational strategies.
- b) Proactively select, structure, and also create effective learning environments to be educated on their own.
- c) Play an important role in choosing the form and amount of instruction needed for them.

1.3 Boekaerts's Model of Self-regulation

Boekaerts (1999) referred to self-regulated learning not as an event, rather, as a series of reciprocally related cognitive and affective processes that operate together on different components of the information processing system. She believes that the students' ability to select, combine, and coordinate cognitive strategies in an effective way is clearly key issue in self-regulated learning. Also, the ability to regulate one's learning is viewed by educational psychologists and policy makers alike as the key to successful learning in school and beyond. According to Boekaerts (1999), "Self-regulation means being able to develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes which can be transferred from one learning context to another and from learning situations in which this information has been acquired to a leisure and work context" (p.446).

2. Review of literature

Zarei and Hatami (2012) conducted a research on 250 university students majoring in different branches of English field. They investigated the relationship between self-regulated learning components and L2 vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. They came to the result that there is no significant relationship between self-regulated components and vocabulary knowledge, but the relationships between the same components and reading comprehension knowledge of Iranian EFL learners were mixed.

Dignath, Buettner and Langfeldt (2008) conducted a meta-analysis on self-regulation training programs among young children. Based on Boekaerts' models of self-regulated learning, which consider motivational, as well as cognitive, and metacognitive aspects, the effects of self-regulated learning on academic achievement, on cognitive and metacognitive strategy application, as well as on motivation were analyzed. The results indicated that self-regulated learning training programs is effective, even at primary school level. Regarding factors that may concern the content of the treatment, the impact of the theoretical

background that underlies the intervention was tested, as well as the type of cognitive, metacognitive, or motivational strategy instructed. They concluded that self-regulated learning training programs had a positive effect on learning outcomes, strategy use, and motivation, even for primary school children.

According to Ghanizaedh and Mirzaee (2012) who have performed a research to examine the interface of Iranian EFL learners' self-regulation, critical thinking ability and their language achievement, there is a high correlation among the components of self-regulation, self-monitoring and self-efficacy. Moreover, they found that these components can be act as positive predictors of critical thinking. Furthermore, they came to the result that EFL learners' self-regulation can predict about 53% of their language achievement while their critical thinking ability tends to predict about 28% of achievement.

Radosevich, Vaidyanathan, Yeo, and Radosevich (2004) examined the relationship between goal orientation and self-regulatory processes in an achievement context. The result of their studies suggested that learning goal orientation was positively related to how much resources participants allocated to their goals and the degree to which they engaged in cognitive self-regulation. They also found that performance-avoid goal orientation was negatively related to cognitive self-regulation.

Rashidi and Javanmardi (2012) have conducted a study on 182 B.A. students to scrutinize the relationship between Iranian EFL students' achievement goal orientations and their gender. The result expressed that there is not significant differences across gender groups. It means that the goal orientations which are held by the students (male and female) are not depending on their gender.

Recent research conducted by Monshitousi and Boori (2011) explored the role of EFL teachers self-regulation in effective teaching. For this investigation 76 EFL teachers were participated. They discovered that there is a significance interface between EFL teachers' self-regulation and their teaching effectiveness. Their data analyses revealed the existence of high correlation among the components of self-regulation, intrinsic interest, mastery goal orientation and emotional control.

Every day as students enter a class and decide to enroll in a particular class, ask each other the following questions: How much will we learn from this class? What did previous students do in this course? What are they supposed to do in this class? These questions show that the type of goals students are pursuing in an academic setting can affect the way they approach or perform their coursework (Harachiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto& Elliot, 1997). From a goal theory perspective, the goals individuals are pursuing create the framework

within which they interpret and experience achievement settings (Dweck and Leggett, 1988). Over the recent decades, a majority of the researches have concentrated on achievement goal theory (Ghavam, Rastegar, & Razmi, 2011; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Ames & Archer, 1988; Ames, 1992; Harachiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto & Elliot, 1997; Elliot & Church, 1997; Jagacinski & Strickland, 2000; Covington, 2000; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Pintrich, Conley & Kempler, 2003; Durik & Harackiewicz, 2003). "Research on achievement goal theory is currently one of the most active areas of research on student motivation in academic settings" (Pintrich, Conley & Kempler, 2003, p.319).

Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) offered a trichotomous achievement goal framework "composed of a mastery goal and two performance goals, one directed toward the demonstration of competence and the other aimed at avoiding the demonstration of competence" (p.462). In this model, these goals are referred to as mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals, in which the performance goals were separated to performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals, but mastery goal remained the same.

Elliot (1999) stated that "a full 2×2 crossing of the performance-mastery and approach avoidance distinctions seems necessary to account for the broad spectrum of competence-based strivings" (p.181). Thus, a further revision of the mastery-performance dichotomy was presented and the trichotomous framework was extended. The 2×2 achievement goal framework has been proposed in recent years, but a number of studies have been conducted to support the validity and utility of this framework (Wang, Biddle & Elliot, 2007; Agbuga, 2009).

This model of achievement goal is the theoretical framework for the present study. The most recent model of goal orientation is a 2×2 achievement goal framework proposing four goal orientations. As previously stated, mastery goal orientations are divided into a mastery-approach goal orientation and a mastery-avoidance goal orientation. Performance goal orientations are also separated into a performance-approach and performance-avoidance goal orientations (Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

The distinction between approach and avoidance motivation is central and fundamental to the study of affect, cognition, and motivation and this distinction can be used as a conceptual lens through which to view the structure of personality (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Over the past decade, researchers accumulated many empirical data in support of incorporating the approach-avoidance distinction into models of achievement goals. They suggested that mastery goals may be separated into approach and avoidance orientation as

well as performance goals (Wang, Biddle & Elliot, 2007). In this regard, mastery-avoidance goals are the most recent addition to the achievement goal models and are the least researched of the four goals (Elliot & Murayana, 2008).

Combination of approach mastery-performance and approach-avoidance distinction leads to four achievement goals that students pursue in their academic environments: mastery-approach goals (focused on intrapersonal competence), mastery-avoidance goals (intrapersonal incompetence), performance-approach goals (focused on normative competence), and performance-avoidance goals (normative incompetence) (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

Dickauser, Buch and Dickauer (2010) examined the potential of the trichotomous model of achievement goals to predict achievement after failure. The results strongly supported the ability of the trichotomous goal model to predict achievement after failure. Achievement after failure in the learning goals condition did not differ from the performance approach goals condition. Also, the performance-approach goals and the learning goals (mastery goals) conditions both led to fewer negative self-regulated thoughts than the performance-avoidance goals condition. Moreover, self-perceived effort expenditure in the task after failure did not differ between the three achievement goals condition. Performance-avoidance goals are reported to be associated with lower achievement compared to performance-approach and learning goals (mastery goals).

Kitsanta, Steen, and Huie (2009) conducted a study to investigate the role of self-regulated strategies and goal-orientation in predicting achievement of learners. The findings in this study indicated that self-regulation and goal-orientation are positively related to students' achievement. Moreover, mastery goal orientations reported to be more adaptive patterns of learning than performance goal orientations did. They came to this conclusion that when teachers focus on improvement, effort, and learning, students' focus on mastery oriented goals. On the other hand, when teachers focus on grades, ability differences, and outperforming others, students focus on performance oriented goals. Also, mastery goal orientation did not predict students' achievement, but prior achievement along with self-regulation predicted students' achievement more than goal orientation.

3.Participants

The participants of this study were 80 university students of Islamic Azad University, Quchan Branch. All participants were BA students majoring in English Translation. Participants

included 30 females and 50 males with a mean age of 21 years for the sample.

4. Instrumentation

In order to measure the participants' achievement goal orientation, the researcher used "Goal Orientation Scale" developed by Elliot and McGregor (2001). The English version of this questionnaire consisted of 12 items, each 3 items measuring a different goal orientation: namely, mastery-approach, performance-approach, mastery-avoidance, and performance-avoidance. The reliability coefficient for the questionnaires estimated through using Cronbach alpha was proven to be 0.72 which is appropriate for the actual study. Also, the researcher used "Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire" developed by O'Neil and Herl (1998) to determine the extent to which the participants of this study engaged in the process of self-regulated learning. The English version of this questionnaire had 32 items and each 8 items measured four constructs: Planning, Self-checking, Effort, and Self-efficacy. The reliability coefficient for the questionnaires estimated through using Cronbach alpha was proven to be 0.81 which is appropriate for this study.

Participants responded on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and the items were averaged to form the mastery-approach, performance-approach, mastery-avoidance, and performance-avoidance indexes as well as self-regulation. Finally, in order to measure the participants' reading comprehension, the researcher used a reading comprehension test which consisted of 30 items including 4 passages. The reliability for the reading comprehension test estimated through KR-21 method was 0.88 which was shown to be quite acceptable for this study.

The two questionnaires along with two passages of the reading comprehension test were administered to the students in the first session. Then, the other two passages of reading comprehension were administered in the second session due to practicality factors.

The design of this study was a correlational design because there was no treatment and the researcher sought to look at things as they were. The predictor variables of the study were goal-oriented learning and self-regulated learning. The participants' reading comprehension was the only criterion variable of this study. The researcher tried to find the relationship between students' self-regulated and goal-oriented learning as two types of achievement learning and their reading comprehension.

5.Procedure

The following procedures of this study were conducted as follow. After getting the consent of professors of 4 English courses, the process of collecting data is begun. The researcher explained the entire project and time frame for data collection to the professors, and asked for their permission in class to administer the reading comprehension test including 4 passages and two questionnaires on self-regulated and goal-oriented-learning during two sessions.

Participants responded on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and the items were averaged to form the mastery-approach, performance-approach, mastery-avoidance, and performance-avoidance goals as well as self-regulation. The allocated time for the two questionnaires on self-regulated and goal-oriented-learning and two passages of reading comprehension in the first session was 50 minutes. And the second session to administer two other passages lasted 35 minutes.

The participants were assured that their personal identity would not be revealed and that their participation (or not) would not affect their class grades.

6.Data Analysis

Different statistical analyses including both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to find the answers for the research questions of this study. Descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, and frequency count and histogram were used for general distribution of the variables across the sample. Also, inferential statistics including Pearson Correlation was used to test the null hypotheses of the study.

7. Results

In this study, the following results regarding the relationships between goal-oriented learning and reading achievement of the students as well as the relationship between self-regulated learning and students' achievement in reading were revealed.

- There is significantly a positive relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal-oriented learning and their reading comprehension. The correlation coefficient was found to be 0.32. This means that the first null hypothesis of this study is rejected.

- There is statistically a significant and positive relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-regulated learning and their reading achievement. . The correlation coefficient was found to be 0.47. Therefore, the second null hypothesis of this study is rejected.

According to the results and research questions, students who are concerned with their own progress are more successful in their reading comprehension. Moreover, students who have

the characteristics of self-regulated learners do better than those language learners who clearly lack this feature.

Since students have different characteristics and individual differences in language learning, teachers should provide appropriate environment in their classrooms and lead to increase their students' self-regulated and goal-oriented strategies. Therefore, students' learning and language achievement will be promoted. According to these two factors, self-regulation and goal-orientation, students' role not only deemphasized in their learning, but also their roles is becoming more highlighted, since they should try to know themselves well and familiar with their learning characteristics and be very active in their own learning.

8. Suggestions for Further Research

- 1) In this study, the relationship between goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and students' reading comprehension was examined. Further research can be done to investigate the relationship between these two independent variables and other language skills (writing, listening, and speaking).
- 2) This study can be repeated with a larger sample size in order to assess fully the relationship between goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and students' reading comprehension.
- 3) Further studies are suggested to be carried out to examine the effects of self-regulated and goal-oriented learning on students' academic achievement, cognitive processing, and motivation in academic contexts.

9. Discussion

According to Nota, Soresi and Zimmerman (2004), students who are self-regulated in their academic learning are more effective learners in the way that they passed more examinations at university are more determined to further their education. The results of this study are in line with their study which sees the self-regulation positively related to students' achievement.

The results of this study are in accordance to Dehghans' (2007) study. He discovered that language learners who use self-regulated strategies are more successful at language proficiency compared to those who lack these characteristics. He, also, reported that those language learners who are goal-oriented are more successful at language proficiency as well. Roebken (2007) in his study found that goal-oriented learners with both mastery and

performance goals reported to have more satisfaction with their academic experience and showed higher academic achievement.

According to Eilama and Aharon (2003), high achieving students exhibited more self-regulation strategies than average achieving students. The finding of his study is in line with the present study which shows that self-regulation is positively related to student's achievement.

Although some studies are in line with the results of this study, a study is not in accordance to the findings of this study. According to Mohebbi, Beykmohammadi and Farasani (2011), who conducted a study on 48 undergraduate students, found that there was no significant relationship between goal-oriented learning and writing performance and also there was no significant relationship between self-regulated learning in general and writing performance.

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Title

Developing a Writing Strategy Model for Iranian Context

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Abstract

Due to the importance of writing in the learning process and based on the needs analysis, in this study the researchers have decided to develop a writing strategy model for the Iranian context. Accordingly, the researchers benefited from both qualitative and quantitative modes of inquiry. So, ten students from Iranian language institutes, five BA students and five MA ones from Shiraz University were selected based on their knowledge of English to be representative of the accessible population. They were interviewed and their ideas about the special strategies they used to improve their writing were transcribed and codified. The researchers also made use of a questionnaire extracted from the transcribed and codified data of the interview. After submitting the questionnaires to the students,

the gathered data were sent to SPSS and the results were analyzed and interpreted both qualitatively in the form of extracting a model and quantitatively through descriptive and inferential statistics.

Keywords: Writing, Strategy, Developing a model, Learning process, Iranian context

1. Introduction

Writing is one of the important skills that can contribute to the learning process because almost a trace of writing can be seen in each course. Although it exists in almost every course and believed to be a very complex process that most of the students and teachers consider it to be time consuming and difficult to cope with, it has a lot of advantages that most of the students and teachers are also not aware of them. Besides its difficulties, we can see good production of successful writers. In fact, these writers make use of their mental abilities in the process of writing which are called effective writing strategies. Indeed, these writers follow special strategies but they themselves are not aware of them because when we ask them they can not mention them. Kirmizi (2009) defines writing as follows:

Writing is the written expression of emotion, thoughts, desires, and schemes, which requires skills rather than knowledge. However, skillful writing is a multidimensional process, and requires a desire for writing. On the other hand, it is a process which demands hard work, intensive reading, making inferences from materials read and along practice (p.230).

According to Johns (1993) one of the most important aspects of English for academic purposes (EAP) writing class is the improvement of learning transfers (James, 2009). To meet high standards of writing, many contemporary trends highlight the significance of education for English language learners (Panofsky et al., 2005, p.1).

A lot of research has been done on different aspects of writing strategies by different researchers. Each of them has suggested various strategies from different perspectives and the relationship which exists between the writers and the strategies used or developed by them or between skilled and unskilled, experienced and inexperienced, and male and female writers in the process of writing and revising. These studies show that writing is not an easy job but at the same time it can be considered as an easy project if the writer be motivated enough to follow all the related and effective strategies in the writing process. But a very important question arises here that which one of these strategies is more useful in our own context that is Iranian context. In fact, none of the researchers exactly mentioned a straightforward

strategy so that we as the second language learners become motivated enough to follow them in our own process of writing in order to develop it. So, the researchers saw a gap here and considered it as a research gap and what the researchers are going to do is to bridge this gap by doing this research.

1.1.Statement of the problem

Although many studies have been done about writing as a whole and writing strategies as particular, few have dealt with suggesting beneficial strategies in order to help learners develop their writing skills. So, the problem which poses here is that as it was mentioned in the introduction, there are not any straightforward strategies that Iranian students could follow in their own process of writing. Therefore, a research should be done in the Iranian context to find out the types of strategies that Iranian students use in their writing process. In this way, these strategies can be suggested to other learners of English in order to develop their writing.

2. Literature review

Literature reveals various studies that have investigated different strategies that help learners to improve their writing. In fact, different researchers looked at writing strategies from different perspectives. Some of them considered writing strategies from practical point of view that is using technology in writing and others investigated current writing strategies from pedagogical point of view.

2.1. Using technologies in writing

Sorapure (2010, p.59) argues that the field of information visualization-or infovis- which is open to different people, especially to novice ones is the direct result of the improvement of free, online, and interactive visualization tools. In fact, writing teachers think that this development provides students with an opportunity to increase their critical thinking and writing ability. Writing teachers can make use of different types of infovis activities such as personal and social infovis in the process of their writing task. A personal infovis assignment is the reflective and autobiographical writing task. Whereas, in a social one learners need to analyze and visualize data related to social and global issue. Also, highlighted is the visualization of texts and analysis. As a result, students can discover both written texts and their own identities in new ways and from different perspectives.

Jenkins (2008, cited in Kell, 2009) defines fan fiction as: "Original stories and novels which are set in the fictional universe of favorite television series, films, comics, games, or

other media properties.” By teaching fan fiction, teachers have three goals in their mind. First, using supportive dialog, strong vocabulary, and a cohesive story line, students are supposed to write creatively. Second, they should evaluate their peers' writing in terms of style and voice. Finally, they are supposed to give constructive feedback to their peers and back up their comments with evidence from the writing (Kell, 2009, p.34).

Video games elicit pleasure and desire inherent to the reading and writing process (Alberti, 2008, p.258). As a subculture, art form, and discursive environment, they are part of a large reexamination of literacy practices that characterizes the move to digital discursive environments in general. The case of video games not only helps restore the understanding of writing as a visual form of communication, but also challenges the apparent static quality of the printed text. Making the writing classroom into an arena of play, i.e. moving from the metaphor of the fixed-text, hard-copy paper to the virtual metaphors of digital writing, can allow a focus on the motivation for writing. Unlike books or films in which individuals play a more passive role, video games provide a role-playing process and make them actively engaged in the outcome of their actions (Chaplin, 2007, cited in Alberti, 2008, p. 259).

An online computer game paves the way for a milieu where students can produce texts that not only require active involvement but exhibit a direct effect on the game space community. Colby and Colby (2008, p.300) state “for a writing class, the work/play distinction often relegates games to an object of analysis in which students critique the games but have little invested in the game play itself.” They believe that game theory (e.g. emergent gaming which intertwines word and play) and games (helping learners apply, synthesize, think critically, and learn through embodied simulation) inform writing pedagogy. Using computers and supplemental technologies, the space and time of the writing classroom can be extended (Pennell, 2007, p.76).

What distinguishes the recent practices from the past is acquiring textured and visual literacy. For instance, facility with word processing provides the possibility to use different formats (e.g. boldfacing, italicizing, underlining, and using bullets) (Yancey, 2004, p.39). He goes on to say "helping writers develop fluency and competence in a variety of technologies is a key part of teaching writing in this century” (p.39). He also emphasizes raising students' comfort with new writing technologies, a process called envisionment. It refers to the ability to use a given technology for a purpose other than its intended purpose (e.g. using games to teach writing). In recent years new technologies have made writing more desirable and highlighted, to name a few e-mail, list servers, creative software packages, weblogs,

hypertexts, electronic portfolio (Yancey, 2004, p.39), word processing, computer network, and virtual classrooms (Carter and Nunan, 2001, p.32).

2.2. Some current strategies in teaching writing

After doing a research, Haven (2010, p.39) came to the conclusion that by listening to stories, students would be able to understand completely the systematic organization of the stories. In this way, they could be able to write better. Therefore, their writing ability will be increased in comparison to those who did not listen to stories at all. In fact, studies done in different schools on the storytelling programs proved that storytelling developed students' comprehension and writing skills at the same time. By listening to stories, students were able to focus on the structure of stories and improve their comprehension and writing abilities. According to the studies done, if school librarians provide the students with enough information so that they can master the elements of story structure, then students will be able to improve their reading comprehension and their writing skill.

Issac (2009) wonders whether literature has any place in teaching writing and developing learners' abilities in writing. He quoted of Mark Richardson and Peter Elbow, who believe in the superior quality of literature and literary language. Richardson (2004) considers literature as "that richest and most intellectually challenging of human arts". Therefore, the writer believes that according to this statement, there is a link between general education writing instruction and literary study. Elbow's studies also related to "how" we can teach students to learn from literature. Isaacs himself believes that by attending to the writing courses about literature, students will gain enough opportunities to experience intensive and well-supported writing. He called these courses "first-year writing courses" or "freshman composition". The teachers who teach these courses should not also have enough ability in teaching writing, but also have enough background knowledge about literature and literary studies. Finally, researches on students of different universities show that there is a close connection between students' writing skills and their abilities to interpret literary texts.

A good writer is primarily a good reader. However, reading strategies students use for reading comprehension are different from the reading strategies they use for reading-writing task. According to Plakans (2009, p.252), reading-writing strategies are of two types: mining reading and writerly reading. The former, an analogy for reading-writing, is the process of reading for the purpose of calling information from a text for a specific goal. The latter, on the other hand, is for the purpose of improving one's writing by examples, such as looking at word use or considering argument structure. The process of reading comprehension and applying reading strategies to composition can have influence on the person's way of writing.

A successful reader, according to Kirmizi (2009) is the one who uses different strategies such as relating the text to his or her own experience, summarizing, making conclusions, asking relevant questions and so forth.

Using picture books, teachers may help students improve writing skill and critical thinking (Heitman, 2005, p.36). Teachers can expect their students to write the story, on the basis of the pictures, in their own words and by themselves, using self-regulated strategies, as the main character changing the story based on their own traits.

Another strategy in writing pedagogy is paraphrasing which is an important skill students require to learn for academic writing. If students are taught how to paraphrase, they will not any longer copy from source texts (plagiarism) (Keck, 2006, p.261). He speaks of four types of paraphrasing, namely near copy (used more by second language writers), minimal revision, moderate revision, and substantial revision (the last two used more by first language writers). So, it is clear that paraphrasing is a main strategy used by both L1 and L2 writers for summary writing.

There are also other ways that can motivate students to develop their writing abilities. One of them is by providing feedback. Accordingly, Zacharis (2007) quoted of Coffin et al. (2003, p.102) that “The provision of feedback on students' writing is a central pedagogic practice.” It is believed that feedback that can be considered as both positive and negative has the most powerful influences on students' learning processes (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). “Feedback practices and their impact on L2 writing development have long been an area of interest and controversy in the L2 writing literature” (Seror, 2009). Feedback can lead to learning about writing. It provides opportunities for students to pay attention to the interaction between form and function at the same time. Feedback is of different types. One of them which is considered as an important factor in the writing development is peer feedback. Trautmann (2009) spoke of the benefits of peer review. He believed that peer review causes students to think critically, questioning their own and each other's assumptions and interpretation and improving their writing. Storch (2005, p.153) in a study found that writing in pair group resulted in shorter but better texts in terms of task fulfillment, grammatical accuracy, and complexity. Therefore, assistance in stretching the novice writers beyond their current level towards their potential level of development, a process called scaffolding, affords students the opportunity to pool ideas in collaboration and provide each other with feedback. However, one of the shortcomings of peer reviews, according to Storch (2005, p.154) is that the product of writing is highly noticed at the expense of the process of writing. Shi and Guardado (2007) argue that with the development of technology, students

can make use of electronic feedback (e-feedback) from their peers in order to improve their writing.

Other researchers have various attitudes toward writing and issues related to the writing strategies that cannot be classified under a specific title. These are as following: Victori (1999) talked about how having metacognitive knowledge or the beliefs about writing can have influences on the L2 writing. The studies show that there is a close relationship between the metacognitive knowledge of the writer and the strategies they employed. Graham, Harris, and Mason (2005) studied the effects of self-regulated strategy on improving the students' writing. Glaser and Brunstein (2007) continued an empirical study which was done by Graham and Harris (2003) to show how strategy instruction and self-regulation procedures could develop learners' writing skills. In their study they made use of a statistical analysis by comparing two groups of students and came to the conclusion that those who received strategy instruction wrote better than those who received no instruction. Lane et al. (2006) were among other researchers who used self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) model in teaching writing strategies. Santangelo et al. (2008) also talked about the use of self-regulated strategy to help students develop their writing. Following an instructional package can help the learners to increase their writing fluency (De La Paz, 2005). Fidalgo et al. (2008) conducted a statistical study on the effects of strategy instruction on the development of students' writing. They reported better results for those who received strategy instruction for planning and revising than those who received no instruction. There is a close relationship between the writers' mental representation of the intended audience and the strategies used by them (Wong, 2005). Marleen et al. (2007) concluded that the more students are provided with planning and revising strategies, the better they can manage their writing task.

2.3.Objectives and Research Question of the Study

Using grounded theory, in this study the researchers try to develop a writing strategy model for the Iranian context. Simultaneously, by statistical analysis they want to know whether gender and age will affect the results of the study or not. In line with the objectives of the study, the research questions are as follows:

1. What strategies do foreign language learners use in order to develop their L2 writing?
2. Does the students' age have any influences on their writing process?
3. Is there any difference between males and females in using the strategies?

2.4. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is to make it clear that although teachers are the key factors in the writing process and they are considered as facilitators who provide students with

appropriate instructions, knowledge and strategies related to writing so that they can develop their writing in a right way, it is worth mentioning the fact that getting enough knowledge and instruction is not that much sufficient. Other factors are also important in the writing process e.g. a good writer must know who the intended audience is and also know what the purpose of his or her writing is. At the same time he or she should follow good strategies to develop his or her writing. Therefore, the results and findings of the study will provide students with some useful strategies so that they can make use of them to develop their writing and become successful writers.

3. Method

This part of the paper deals with how the study was done. In this study the researcher will make use of both qualitative and quantitative research at the same time. This part includes the following sections: participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis

3.1. Participants

The participants in this study were divided into two groups. One group was interviewed and another one was given the questionnaire to fill. The first group was twenty students including both males and females. Using a purposive sampling, ten students who were studying IELTS at Bayan institute in Shiraz and at the same time five M.A students and five B.A ones from Shiraz University were selected based on their knowledge of English to be representative of the accessible population. According to Ary et al. (2006, p. 174) “in purposive sampling, sample elements judged to be typical, or representative, are chosen from the population”. Then, the selected students were interviewed about the strategies they used in their writing process and their ideas about the special strategies they used to improve their writing were written. Then, the researchers developed a questionnaire a administered among the second group of participants who were forty students at B.A and M.A levels.

3.2. Instrument

The instruments used in this study were interview and questionnaire. The researchers made use of interview as the primary method of data collection in the grounded theory (Ary et al., 2006) and also she made use of questionnaire as a more uniform and standard way of gathering data (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). (See Appendix)

3.3. Data collection

The researchers went to the Bayan Institute in order to interview some students who were studying IELTS there. They interviewed ten of them and their views were written. At the

same time, the researchers interviewed five M.A. and five B.A. students from Shiraz University. They prepared a questionnaire based on the answers that students provided. The reason that the researchers interviewed only twenty students was that they had to stop interviewing after the twentieth participant because they came to the conclusion that all the participants were answering the same. So, to avoid repetition researchers decided to stop interviewing and start the next step that was data analysis. Finally, they distributed the questionnaires among the BA and MA holders at Shiraz language center. Forty of the students answered them and the researchers submitted the data obtained to SPSS in order to analyze the data.

3.4. Data analysis

To do data analysis, the researchers first transcribed the participants' interview. Then, they codified the transcribed data and put them in the category called general questions. After that, the researchers worked on the categories obtained and prepared a questionnaire accordingly. After submitting the questionnaires to the students, the gathered data were sent to SPSS and the results were analyzed and interpreted both qualitatively in the form of extracting a model and quantitatively through descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.4.1. Securing reliability and validity

According to Ary *et al.* (2006, p. 504), one of the standards of rigor for research in a qualitative study is dependability or trustworthiness which is labeled as reliability in a quantitative study. As they stated dependability is "the extent to which variation can be traced or explained." In order to establish and enhance dependability, the best criterion used in this study was the one suggested by Ary *et al.* (2006); that is, "documentation". The strategy used for this criterion was "Audit trail". "It documents how the study was conducted, including what was done, when, and why" (Ary *et al.*, 2006, p. 509). In audit trail or documentation everything is documented clearly for further reference. In order to enhance credibility as another standard of rigor in a qualitative study which is called internal validity in a quantitative study, in this study the researchers made use of a strategy called methods of triangulation. That is they benefited from two methods of data collection such as interview and questionnaire.

4. Results and Discussion

The results of data analysis are presented and clarified in this part of the paper into two sections in relation to the research questions as follows:

A. Qualitative findings: results of the interview

B. Quantitative findings: results obtained from administering the questionnaires

A. Qualitative findings: Results of the interview:

After the researchers transcribed the participants' interview, they codified the transcribed data and put them in the category called 'general questions'. After that, the researchers worked on the categories obtained and developed them in the form of a questionnaire.

Different points were repeatedly stated by the participants about the strategies they used in order to develop their writing skill. One of the participants stated that:

"I read a lot e.g. I read different books, magazines, articles,...so that I can make use of the same style of writing and choice of words from different sources. At the same time I memorize useful vocabularies and expressions and write a lot."

Other repeatedly mentioned strategies were:

"I attend to the writing classes such as TOEFL class and follow the rules of writing by reading the strategies in different books like TOEFL book."

"I try to send my text messages (sms), e-mails, letters, etc. in English to my friends and colleagues and write my daily affairs in English in my diary."

"I always check the dictionary a lot so that my writing sounds like a native writer and I try to insert native-like structures in my writing too."

"When I increase my general information, I can write better."

"I usually take notes while I listen to a lecture and write a summary of whatever I listen and read."

"I get benefits from writing practices related to my homework assignment."

Some of the participants specially M.A. ones answered the question based on their knowledge they had studied in their writing courses. For example, one of them stated that:

"I always follow this process: planning, drafting, and revising. For example, I prepare an outline before starting to write, analyze the basis and elements of the text, use prefabricated patterns and paraphrasing, make a logical connection between the writing and the reader, and use introduction, body, and conclusion pattern to organize my writing."

Therefore, the answer to the first question of "what strategies do foreign language learners use in order to develop their L2 writing?" is not as clear as what one assumes. There is not one way and method because writing depends on the roles and objectives of writing and what features of writing process L2 learners emphasize. So, there are as many answers as there are different learners and different styles. That is why the researchers in this study could

not extract a precise model by analyzing the data so that this model can be suggested for the Iranian context.

Moreover, the results of gathered data obtained from the interview were codified and classified into four categories as pre-writing, drafting (free-writing), throughout the writing process, and post-writing which can be proposed as the model used by Iranian learners to develop their writing Strategies (Table 1).

Table 1. Model Extracted from the Interview Results

	Categories	Participants' answers
Writing strategies	pre-writing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Read a lot (e.g., books, magazines, article, etc.) 2. Memorize useful vocabularies and expressions 3. Increase my general information 4. Prepare an outline before starting to write 5. planning
	drafting (free-writing)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Write a lot (free writing) 2. Make a logical connection between the writing and the reader 3. drafting
	Throughout the writing process	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Check the dictionary a lot so that my writing sounds like a native writer 2. Use prefabricated patterns and paraphrasing 3. Use the same style of writing and choice of words from different sources 4. Get benefits from writing practices related to my homework assignment 5. Insert native-like structures
	post-writing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Analyze the basis and elements of the text 2. revising 3. Use introduction, body, and conclusion pattern to organize my writing

B. Quantitative findings: results obtained from administering the questionnaires

After submitting the gathered data to SPSS, the results were interpreted as following:

Based on the results obtained from the table of Independent-sample T-test, the significant value obtained was 0.017. Therefore, as table 2 shows, the researchers concluded

that there was a significant difference between the two groups; that is, males and females are different in using pre-writing strategies to develop their writing skills ($t=-2.487$ $p<0.05$).

Table 2. Independent-sample T-test for Pre-Strategy Use

Pre- Writing Strategy	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-2.487	.017

According to the results obtained from the table of Independent-sample T-test, the significant value obtained was 0.056. Therefore, as table 4.3 shows, the researchers concluded that there was a difference between the two groups; that is, males and females differ in using drafting or free-writing strategies to develop their writing skills ($t=-1.966$ $p<0.05$) but the difference was not that much big because here, the effect size obtained (0.09) was greater than 0.06; so, the researchers concluded that we are concerned with a moderate effect in this sample.

Table 3. Independent-sample T-test for draft-strategy Use

Drafting Strategy	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-1.966	0.056

In the case of gender differences in the throughout writing process, the significant value obtained was 0.200. Therefore, as table 4 shows, the researchers concluded that there was not a significant difference between the two groups; that is, males and females are different in using these strategies to develop their writing skills ($t=-1.304$ $p>0.05$). This conclusion is also true in the case of gender differences in using post-writing strategies for which the significant value obtained was 0.344 ($t=-0.958$ $p>0.05$). Table 5 shows the results.

Table 4. Independent-sample T-test

Throughout- Writing Strategy	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-1.304	0.200

Table 5. Independent-sample T-test

Post-Writing Strategy	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-0.958	0.344

Moreover, based on the results obtained from the table of Independent-sample T-test regarding gender differences general strategy use, the significant value obtained was 0.055.

Therefore, as table 6 shows, the researcher concluded that there was also a difference between the two groups; that is, males and females differ in using these strategies to develop their writing skills ($t=-1.966$ $p<0.05$) but the difference was not that much big because here, the effect size obtained (0.09) was moderate, too.

Table 6. Independent-sample T-test

General Strategy Use	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-1.966	0.055

Regarding what the tables reported and what the results showed, the answer to the question of “Is there any difference between males and females in using the strategies?” is not clear. Because the researcher obtained contradictory results as the number of the participants of females (N=35) were larger than males (N= 6).

In order to answer the second question to see whether age has any influence on developing writing or not, the researchers made use of correlational analysis. Based on the results obtained from the table of Pearson correlation between age and pre-writing, drafting, throughout-writing, post-writing and overall use of strategies, the significant values obtained respectively were: 0.830, 0.893, 0.593, 0.902, and 0.344. Therefore, the researchers concluded that there is a significant relationship between age and the different phases of writing.

Table 7. Pearson correlation for the Various Strategy Use and Age

Age	Pre-Writing	Drafting	Throughout-Writing	Post-Writing	Overall Strategy Use
Pearson Correlation	-.034	-.022	.086	.020	.021
Sig. (2-tailed)	.830	.893	.593	.902	0.344

5. Conclusion

Writing is a complex skill whose development and progress demand more than accuracy in grammar and word choice (Gabrielatos, 2002, p.11). In these studies several strategies are suggested by different researchers. It can be inferred that there is a relationship between the writers and the strategies used or developed by them. Based on the studies done, there is a difference between skilled and unskilled, experienced and inexperienced, and male and female writers in the process of writing and revising. Considering these studies, we can conclude that a good writer should have enough familiarity with the strategies and different

factors which are considered as important ones in a writing task. In this way, the writer is able to make a distinction between them while writing and revising. Considering all the factors affecting writing strategies and the problems existing in the writing process, we can come to the conclusion that teachers are the key factors in the process of writing. In fact, they are considered as facilitators who provide students with appropriate instructions, knowledge and strategies related to writing so that they can become skillful writers. Finally, it is worth mentioning the fact that having enough knowledge is not sufficient. A good writer must know who the intended audience is and also know what the purpose of his or her writing is. This shows that writing is not an easy job but at the same time it can be considered as an easy project if the writer be motivated enough to follow all the related and effective strategies in the writing process.

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Appendix

Writing Strategies Questionnaire

Proficiency level:	Intermediate	Advanced
Gender:	Male	Female
Age:		

A. When pre-writing, I:	Always	Usually	Never
1. Do brain-storming (thinking)			
2. Use different pre-writing techniques			
3. Consider the purpose of the task			
4. Consider the audience for the task			
5. Consider possible formats appropriate to the purpose and audience			
B. When drafting (free-writing), I:	Always	Usually	Never
6. Produce a first, rough draft			
7. Produce subsequent drafts			
8. Confirm format appropriate to purpose and audience			
9. Consult my peers and teacher			
10. Match the word choices to the intended level of formality			
11. Revise the draft for content and clarity of meaning			
12. Revise the draft for accuracy			
13. Edit the draft individually			
14. Edit the draft collaboratively (peer-reviewing)			
C. Throughout the writing process, I:	Always	Usually	Never
15. Reflect upon the written piece and revise			

accordingly			
16.Consult my peers and teacher			
17.Consult appropriate reference resources as needed			
18.Monitor continuous progress			
19.Focus on the language itself			
20.Focus on communication aspect(function)			
21.Focus on both form and function			
D. When post-writing, I:	Always	Usually	Never
22.Prepare a final, polished draft			
23.Review and revise my writing			
24.Ask for peer and teacher feedback			
25.Pay attention to meaning and grammar			
26.Pay attention to cohesion and coherence			
27.Consider punctuation, spelling, capitalization, and paragraph indentation			