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A note from editor-in-chief

In the Name of God

The foremost value of any academic attempt lies in its potential to be published to benefit a wide circle of avid readers and researchers. We have the honor to take a step along this pathway and open up a gate for publishing credible academic work in applied linguistics.

With the best intentions in mind, the second issue of Tarbiat Modares student-run Journal in Applied Linguistics is now released. This journal has selected and presented high-quality articles written and submitted by talented university students of Iran. The ambition persists to have a focus on quality as well as on endorsement of interest in research itself.

First of all, we feel wholeheartedly indebted to the merciful God, who set the stage for this academic performance. Secondly, we would like to express our gratitude to the supportive advisory board of the journal, particularly Dr. Kiany and Dr. Ghafar Samar, who motivated us all along this way and their affectionate care which continues to be with us. Furthermore, we need to thank the editorial board who played a key role in enhancing the quality of articles for publication.

Finally, it needs to be reminded that there would be no such academic journal without the enthusiastic reception of the readers and researchers, the esteemed professors, university students and EFL teachers in general. Our hope is to enhance the quality of the present journal as we move along and do our best to keep up with applied linguists' academic expectations.



A study of EFL learners' goal orientation, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy across gender and educational level

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Abstract

This study aimed at exploring the relationship between EFL learners' goal orientation, metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, and gender. Also, the role of EFL learners' educational level in each of these variables was investigated. To this end, in this study 'Achievement Goal Orientation Inventory', 'Metacognitive Awareness Inventory', and 'Language Learners' Self-Efficacy Survey' were administered to one hundred fifteen EFL male and female MA and BA students from three universities of Mashhad. Independent samples t-tests were run to investigate the role of gender and educational level in the level of EFL learners' goal orientation, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy. The results of t-test demonstrated that there are no significant differences between gender and goal-orientations, gender and metacognitive awareness and any of its subscales. It was also found that there is a negative impact of gender on self-efficacy but this difference is not significant. In addition, no significant differences between educational level and goal-orientations as well as between educational level and metacognitive awareness were obtained. Finally, the results showed that there is a positive significant impact of educational level on self-efficacy.

Key Words: EFL learners, Goal orientation, Metacognitive awareness, Self-efficacy, SEM.

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Introduction

In teacher-centered educational system, the responsibility of learning relies on the teachers; therefore, the learning outcome might not be satisfactory. But when there is a shift from teacher-centered to student-centered education, the students themselves are liable for their learning. So, they should be aware of their learning. According to Gassner (2009), awareness and understanding of the process of learning and strategies help individuals to take control of their learning and play a critical role in academic context.

In the current study, three learner-related constructs— goal orientation, metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy— are studied. These variables were selected because each of these constructs have significant role in successful learning and in student's achievement (Bandura, 1997; Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986; Harackiewicz, Barron, & Elliot, 1998; Schraw, 1994). In particular, the role of gender and educational level in each of these variables has been investigated in this study. Goal orientation is the first variable in this study.

Goal orientation is one of the concepts that has emerged in educational psychology over the last few decades and also is one of the most important constructs regarding learning in any educational setting. According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002), although different types of goal theories have been identified for achievement behavior, the main construct which is of great importance is goal orientation theory. Goal orientation is a tendency toward developing or displaying ability in achievement situations (VandeWalle, 1997).

Bandura (1995) explains self-efficacy as beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations» (p. 2). One's sense of self-efficacy can play a major role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2005). Bandura (1982) argued that those students with a higher degree of self-efficacy tend to exert more effort, persevere in difficult situations, choose a course of activities more attentively, and retain more realistic and flexible attributions. While students with low self-efficacy display less persistence and effort expenditure avoid uncertain and challenging tasks, lack intentionality, and possess attributions that are nonrealistic and maladaptive.

Metacognition refers to learners' automatic awareness of their own knowledge and their ability to understand, control, and manipulate their own cognitive processes (Meichenbaum, 1985) and it is "the ability to reflect upon, understand and control one's learning" (Schraw & Dennison, 1994, p.460). Metacognition refers to higher order thinking which involves active control over the cognitive processes engaged in learning. It includes knowing when and where to use particular strategies for learning and problem solving (Metcalfe & Shimamura, 1994) as well as how and why to use specific strategies. Activities such as planning how to approach a given learning task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward the completion of a task are metacognitive in nature. Flavell (1979) argued individuals high in metacognitive awareness are skilled at monitoring their progress towards goals, identifying their strengths and weaknesses, and adjusting their learning strategies accordingly to achieve favorable outcomes.



Review of related literature

Research on goal-orientation

The goal orientation concept originated from the domain of education psychology to understand the achievement motivation patterns among students (Payne et al, 2007). As described by Dowson and McInerney (2001), and based on achievement goal theory, goals are defined as “cognitive representations of the different purposes students may adopt for their learning in achievement situations” (p. 35). There are three general perspectives on goals in achievement contexts, each reflecting a somewhat different level of analysis of the goal construct. Motivation involves cognitive comparison processes and these processes are produced based on the goals students set for their learning (Bandura, 1993). Past research has shown that performance orientation should be divided into two separate distinctions: performance-approach and performance-avoidance (Anderman & Young, 1994). Now most research on achievement goal orientation has addressed three types of goals (trichotomous framework): mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals. Performance-approach is the same as the performance orientation described earlier. Mastery goals focus on the development of competence and task mastery (Ames & Archer, 1988; Was, 2006). Students who adopt mastery goals in certain achievement contexts believe that competence develops over time through practice and effort. They choose tasks that maximize opportunities for learning, invest considerable effort in tasks, use learning strategies that promote comprehension of course material, evaluate their own performance in terms of the progress they make, persist in the face of failure, view errors as a normal and useful part of the learning process, and subsequently use their errors to help improve performance (Elliot, 1999).

Performance-approach goal is the second type of goals, which focuses on the demonstration of competence relative to others. Students, who adopt performance-approach goals for learning believe that competence is a stable characteristic (Dweck, 1986; Was, 2006), tend to view learning as a way to demonstrate their abilities. They focus their attention on normatively defined success and they usually derive their self-worth from perceptions of their abilities to perform. They choose tasks that maximize opportunities for demonstrating competence and avoid tasks that might make them look incompetent, invest the minimal effort needed to succeed, evaluate their own performance in terms of how they compare to others, view errors as a sign of failure and incompetence, give up easily when they fail and avoid tasks that have previously led to failure (Elliot, 1999; Nicholls, 1984; Somuncuoglu & Yildirim, 1999). Individuals who possess a performance-avoidance goal orientation avoid tasks at which they think they may fail and they focus on effort minimization to protect self-worth. So essentially, they avoid failure.

Work-avoidance is another goal that has been addressed in literature where failure is avoided without hard work and achievement is viewed as completing the task with as little effort as possible (Brophy, 2005). Unlike mastery- and performance-oriented goals, which represent different forms of approach motivation, the work-avoidant goal is characterized by a form of avoidance motivation. Students who adopt this goal orientation seek to get work done with a minimum amount of effort. Such an orientation represents a way of expressing students' negative attitudes toward school work, avoiding failure, or coping with the constraints and demands of the learning situation (Meece, Blumenfeld, & Hoyle, 1988).

Research on self-efficacy beliefs

Self-efficacy belief is an important aspect of human motivation and behavior and influences the actions that can affect one's life. Bandura (1995) contended that it «refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations» (p. 2). More simply, self-efficacy is what an individual believes he or she can accomplish using his or her skills under certain circumstances (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). According to Bandura's theory, people with high self-efficacy—that is, those who believe they can perform well—are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. The basic idea behind the self-efficacy theory is that performance and motivation are in part determined by how effective people believe they can be (Bandura, 1982; as cited in Redmond, 2010). In educational contexts, studies have demonstrated the relationship between students' self-efficacy beliefs for academic tasks and objectives and their academic performance (e.g. Schunk 1991; Pajares & Schunk 2001). Pajares' (1992) argument was that self-efficacious learners work harder, persist longer, persevere in the face of difficulties, are more optimistic, have lower anxiety and achieve more. Bandura (1982) argued that those students with a higher degree of self-efficacy tend to exert more effort, persevere in difficult situations, choose a course of activities more attentively, and retain more realistic and flexible attributions. While students with low self-efficacy display less persistence and effort expenditure avoid uncertain and challenging tasks, lack intentionality, and possess attributions that are non realistic and maladaptive.

Research on metacognitive awareness

Flavell (1987) first coined this term and defined it as 'cognition about cognition' or 'thinking about thinking'. Metacognition was originally referred to as the knowledge about and regulation of one's cognitive activities in learning processes (Flavell, 1979; Brown, 1978). Metacognition refers to higher order thinking which involves active control over the cognitive processes engaged in learning. It includes knowing when and where to use particular strategies for learning and problem solving (Metcalfe & Shimamura, 1994) as well as how and why to use specific strategies. Activities such as planning how to approach a given learning task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward the completion of a task are metacognitive in nature. Metacognition is the ability to use prior knowledge to plan a strategy for approaching a learning task, take necessary steps to problem solve, reflect on and evaluate results, and modify one's approach as needed. Metacognition enables us to be successful learners, and has been associated with intelligence (e.g., Borkowski, Carr, & Pressley, 1987; Sternberg, 1984, 1986a, 1986b). Because metacognition plays a critical role in successful learning, it is important to study metacognitive activity and development to determine how students can be taught to better apply their cognitive resources through metacognitive control. Metacognition is comprised of two major components: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation (Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Knowledge of cognition measures an awareness of one's strengths weaknesses, knowledge about strategies and why and when to use those strategies. Regulation of cognition measures knowledge about planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating strategy use. Flavell (1979) further divides metacognitive knowledge into three categories:

- Person knowledge which general knowledge about how human beings learn and process



information, as well as individual knowledge of one's own learning processes.

- Task knowledge which is knowledge about the nature of the task as well as the type of processing demands that it will place upon the individual.
- Strategic knowledge which is one's own capability for using strategies to learn information. Knowledge about strategy variables include knowledge about both cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as well as conditional knowledge about when and where it is appropriate to use such strategies. Young children are not particularly good at this; it is not until upper elementary where students start to develop the understanding of strategies that will be effective.

Schraw (1994) proposed three types of knowledge of cognition that facilitate the reflective phrase of metacognition:

1. Declarative Knowledge: refers to the knowledge about self and about strategies
2. Procedural Knowledge: refers to procedural knowledge, the knowledge about how to use strategies
3. Conditional knowledge: refers to conditional knowledge i.e., the knowledge of when and why to use strategies.

The most common distinction in metacognition separates metacognitive knowledge from skills. The former refers to a person's declarative knowledge about the interactions between person, task, and strategy characteristics (Flavell, 1979), whilst the latter refers to a person's procedural knowledge for regulating one's problem solving and learning activities (Brown & DeLoache, 1978; Veenman, 2005).

Regulation of cognition includes three skills that regulate and facilitate the control aspect of learning (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). These skills are planning, monitoring and evaluation (Schraw, 1988). Planning refers to the appropriate selection of strategies and the correct allocation of resources that affect task performance (Schraw & Gregory, 1998; Jacobs & Paris, 1987). Monitoring is consideration of learning, task performance and the use of strategy while engaging in an activity. Evaluation is the assessment of learning outcomes and strategies to examine whether the goals have been achieved i.e., the evaluation of achievement (Schraw, 1998).

Purpose of the study

The main objectives of this study are twofold: the first one is to investigate the effect of educational level on goal orientation, metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy, and the second one is to examine if achievement goals that students adopt, their metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy are dependent on their gender.

To this end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal orientation and gender?
2. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy and gender?
3. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' metacognitive awareness and gender?

4. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal orientation and educational level?
5. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy and educational level?
6. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' metacognitive awareness and educational level?

Methodology

Participants

One hundred fifteen junior BA and MA Iranian TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) university students from Mashhad took part in this study. The participants consisted of 83 women (72.17%) and 32 men (27.82%). The sample is heterogeneous regarding factors like age and gender and the students were selected from universities in Mashhad, Iran according to convenience sampling.

Instrumentation

Metacognitive Awareness Inventory

The metacognitive awareness inventory used in this study was adapted from Schraw and Dennison (1994). They designed an inventory in order to measure metacognitive awareness. Their study was one of the few studies used in measuring metacognitive awareness (Cohen, 2012). The metacognitive awareness inventory includes 52 statements investigating two categories of metacognition; knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition with their subcomponents. Items are mixed and not divided into these categories (Schraw, 1998). All items are true or false. The inventory showed a satisfactory reliability coefficient of 0.88. Numbers of statements dealing with each category were shown in Table 1.

Operational definitions of component categories of this inventory are presented below:

Knowledge of Cognition

1. Declarative knowledge: knowledge about one's skills, intellectual resources, and abilities as a learner.
2. Procedural knowledge: knowledge about how to implement learning procedures (e.g., strategies).
3. Conditional knowledge: knowledge about when and why to use learning procedures.

Regulation of Cognition

1. Planning: planning, goal setting, and allocating resources prior to learning.
2. Information management: skills and strategy sequences used on-line to process information more efficiently (e.g., organizing, elaborating, summarizing, selective focusing).
3. Monitoring: assessment of one's learning or strategy use.
4. Debugging: strategies used to correct comprehension and performance errors.
5. Evaluation: analysis of performance and strategy effectiveness after a learning episode.



(Schraw& Dennison, 1994, p. 474)

Through the process of inventory development, three experiments were carried out in order to investigate these three hypotheses; first whether current conceptualizations of metacognition appear to be valid, second issues was the statistical relationship between knowledge and regulation of cognition and the last one addressed the convergent validity of the instrument by comparing the relationship between knowledge and regulation of cognition (Schraw& Dennison, 1994, p. 461).

Table 1 The Comprising Factors of Metacognitive Awareness Inventory

Factors	Statements in the Inventory	Number of Items
Declarative Knowledge	5, 10, 12, 17, 17, 20, 32, and 46	8
Procedural Knowledge	3, 14, 27, and 33	4
Conditional Knowledge	15, 18, 26, 29, and 35	5
Planning	4, 6, 8, 22, 23, 42, and 45	7
Information Management Strategies	9, 13, 30, 31, 37, 39, 41, 43, 47, and 48	10
Monitoring	1, 2, 11, 21, 28, 34, and 49	7
Debugging Strategies	25, 40, 44, 51, and 52	5
Evaluation	7, 19, 24, 36, 38, and 50	6

Achievement Goal Orientation Inventory

Students' goal orientation was measured by the translated version of Achievement Goal Orientation Inventory designed by Midgley et al. (1998). The inventory comprises three subscales, 6 items for each goal orientation and a total of 18 items, and it allows responses ranging from 1 (not at all true of me) to 7 (very true of me). It represents three possible goal orientations as follows:

Table 2 Subscales of the AGOI along with the Corresponding Descriptions

Subscale	Definition	Alpha	Items
Mastery-approach	Attaining task-based or intrapersonal competence	.85	1-6
Performance-approach	Attaining normative competence	.89	7-12
Performance-avoidance	Avoiding normative incompetence	.74	13-18

The Persian version of the scale– translated and validated by Rezaee and Kareshki (2012)– demonstrated acceptable reliability indices (.81, .89, .83, respectively). The results of confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the validity of the translated version (GFI= .92, AGFI= .88, RMSEA=.07).

Learners' Self- Efficacy Survey

To assess the EFL learners' level of self-efficacy, "Learners' Self- Efficacy Survey" was employed. This questionnaire was designed and standardized by Gahungu (2009). As Gahungu stated the questionnaire operationalizes the self-efficacy construct via scores obtained on 40 items ranging from never to always. To estimate the reliability of the "Self-Efficacy Survey", the Kurder-Richardson

21 reliability was computed and the result was .97.

Results

Table 3 presents descriptive statistics of EFL learners' goal-orientation, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics of Goal-orientation, Metacognitive Awareness, and Self-efficacy

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mastery	7.00	42.00	32.9391	6.86114
Performance	15.00	42.00	34.3652	5.90321
Avoidance	10.00	42.00	31.2783	7.01446
Metacognitive	12.00	52.00	40.0261	8.01256
Efficacy	40.00	160.00	1.0979E2	26.24396
Valid N (listwise)	115			

To examine whether there is any significant difference between males and females regarding their goal-orientation, independent samples t-test was run. As Table 4 presents, there were no significant differences between gender and goal-orientations as follows: mastery ($t=-1.728$, $p>0.05$), performance ($t=1.548$, $p>0.05$), and avoidance ($t=.386$, $p>0.05$). This can be figured out by examining the magnitude of t which should be higher than that of critical t , and the amount of p -value which should be lower than 0.05.

Table 4 The Results of Independent T-Test for Determining the Role of Gender in Goal-orientation

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference
Mastery	-1.728	113	.087	-2.42276	1.40227
Performance	1.548	113	.124	1.87214	1.20957
Avoidance	.386	113	.700	.56024	1.54146

Independent samples t-tests were run to investigate the role of gender in the level of EFL learners' self-efficacy. As indicated in Table 5, there is a negative impact of gender on self-efficacy but this difference is not significant. In other words, male and female EFL learners do not differ in their level of self-efficacy ($t= -1.219$, $p> 0.05$).

Table 5 The Results of Independent T-Test for Determining the Role of Gender in Self-efficacy

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference
Self-efficacy	-1.219	113	.225	-6.58241	5.39870

To examine whether there is any significant difference between males and females regarding their metacognitive awareness, independent samples t-test was run. As Table 6 presents, there is no significant impact of gender on metacognitive awareness and any of its subscales. as follows:



metacognitive awareness ($t = .253, p > 0.05$), declarative ($t = -.246, p > 0.05$), procedural ($t = -.328, p > 0.05$), conditional ($t = .339, p > 0.05$), planning ($t = -.210, p > 0.05$), IMS ($t = .194, p > 0.05$), monitoring ($t = .299, p > 0.05$), debugging ($t = .212, p > 0.05$), evaluation ($t = 1.286, p > 0.05$).

Table 6 The Results of Independent T-Test for Determining the Role of Gender in Metacognitive Awareness and its Components

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
Metacognitive awareness		.253	113	.801	.41907	1.65862
Declarative	-.246	113	.806	-.08463	.34387	
Procedural	-.328	113	.743	-.07243	.22054	
Conditional	.339	113	.736	.07797	.23031	
Planning	-.210	113	.834	-.07058	.33635	
IMS	.194	113	.846	.07132	.36671	
Monitoring	.299	113	.766	.08795	.29446	
Dedugging	.212	113	.833	.04841	.22853	
Evaluation	1.286	113	.201	.36105	.28075	

To examine whether there is any significant difference between BA and MA students regarding their goal-orientation, independent samples t-test was run. As Table 7 presents, there were no significant differences between educational level and goal-orientations as follows: mastery ($t = 0.549, p > 0.05$), performance ($t = 1.587, p > 0.05$), and avoidance ($t = -.300, p > 0.05$). This can be figured out by examining the magnitude of t which should be higher than that of critical t , and the amount of p -value which should be lower than 0.05.

Table 7 The Results of Independent T-Test for Determining the Role of Educational Level in Goal-orientation

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	
Std. error difference					
Mastery	0.549	113	.584	0.75868	1.32461
Performance	1.587	113	.115	1.79739	1.13022
Avoidance	-.300	113	.765	-.40730	1.35732

Independent samples t-tests were run to investigate the role of educational level in EFL learners' self-efficacy. As indicated in Table 8, there is a positive significant impact of educational level on self-efficacy. In other words, MA students were shown to have higher levels of self-efficacy in comparison with their BA counterparts ($t = 3.471, p > 0.05$).

Table 8 The Results of Independent T-Test for Determining the Role of Educational level in Self-efficacy

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	
Std. error difference					
Self-efficacy	3.471	113	.002	15.47839	4.85971

To examine whether there is any significant difference between BA and MA regarding their metacognitive awareness, independent samples t-test was run. As Table 9 presents, there is no

significant impact of educational level on metacognitive awareness and any of its subscales as follows: metacognitive awareness ($t=3.297, p>0.05$), declarative ($t=.391, p>0.05$), procedural ($t=-.359, p>0.05$), planning ($t=.582, p>0.05$), IMS ($t=.417, p>0.05$), monitoring ($t=.413, p>0.05$), debugging ($t=.718, p>0.05$), evaluation ($t=.254, p>0.05$). But there is a positive significant impact of educational level on conditional ($t=.2.060, p>0.05$).

Table 9 The Results of Independent T-Test for Determining the Role of Educational level in Metacognitive Awareness and its Components

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Metacognitive awareness	3.297	113	.460	1.14696	1.54732
Declarative	.391	113	.697	.12565	.32135
Procedural	-.359	113	.720	-.07397	.20616
Conditional	.2.060	113	.042	.43572	.21146
Planning	.582	113	.562	.18282	.31404
IMS	.417	113	.562	.18282	.31404
Monitoring	.413	113	.678	.14276	.34263
Dedugging	.718	113	.474	.15310	.21321
Evaluation	.254	113	.800	.6718	.26431

Discussion

The present research sought to probe the role of gender and educational level in EFL learners' goal-orientation, self-efficacy, and metacognitive awareness. As the results showed, there were no significant differences between gender and goal orientations. Male and female EFL students did not differ in their level of goal orientation. This finding is in accordance with Rashidi and Javanmardi's (2012) study. They reported that there were no significant differences between Iranian EFL males and female learners in all types of achievement goal orientations. That is, the achievement goal orientations were not dependent on gender. Also, the results of the present study can be supported by other researchers indicating that there were not any significant differences across groups regarding the adaptation of only some special types of goals among the four types of goals that students adopt. For example, Mclnerney and Marsh (2001) and Kwok-wai et al. (2002) reported no significant differences across gender groups regarding their mastery goals. Furthermore, Meece and Holt (1993) as well as Niemivirta (1996) identified no difference concerning performance goal orientation between males and females. In addition, in a study done by Pajares and Valiante (2001), no significant differences were found between males and females regarding performance avoidance goals. However, some studies indicated that there was a relationship between gender and the type of achievement goal orientations in different settings and conditions. For instance, the results of a study done by Kenney-Benson and his colleagues (2006) showed that boys and girl's approaches differed towards their academic tasks and that might be related to the type of goal orientations that they adopt. Girls were more concerned with learning goals than boys. Whereas, boys were more intended to adopt performance goal and to be viewed as smart to others. Meece and Holt (1993), Pajares and Valiante (2001), Hinkely et al. (2001), Barder et al. (2006) and Meece et al. (2006b) came to the same conclusion that females were found to be more interested in adopting mastery goals more than males.

As indicated by the results of the present study, there was a negative impact of gender on



self-efficacy but this difference was not significant. In other words, male and female EFL learners do not differ in their level of self-efficacy. Consistent with theoretical and empirical research by Tschannen-moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002), Pajares (2002c), and Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011), the present study demonstrated that gender is not significantly related to self-efficacy. In other words, females and males do not differ greatly in their L2 learning efficacy. This finding is not unexpected considering the fact that self-efficacy is under the influence of a wide array of factors such as prior successful performance, vicarious experience and social persuasion, all of which seem to be irrelevant to gender differences especially at higher-education level and within university contexts (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2011).

Research findings indicated that there is no significant impact of gender on metacognitive awareness and any of its subscales. A research by Rahman, et al. (2010) supported the findings of the present study indicating that there was no significant difference between metacognition of male and female science students. This finding can be explained in the light of the context of the present study, i.e., universities. It is undisputable that university students are in dire need to regulate their cognitive activities in learning processes and execute higher order thinking skills involving active control over the cognitive processes engaged in learning. To do so, they need to know when and where to use particular strategies for learning and problem solving as well as how and why to use specific strategies. In other words, achievement in university education is highly dependent on planning how to approach a given learning task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward the completion of a task. All of these facets are metacognitive in nature and are the building blocks of metacognitive awareness which are prerequisites of effective learning irrespective of gender differences.

Results also indicated that there was no significant difference between educational level and goal-orientations. To the best of the present researchers' knowledge, the role of educational level differences in EFL learners' goal orientation in general education as well as in language education in the context of Iran seems rather unexplored. The findings of the present research were unexpected and surprising as it showed that educational level (MA or BA) has no significant impact on goal orientation. Because as the educational level increases, students select their intended goal by their own choices and it seems that they may adopt mastery goal since their goal is learning. Nevertheless, the results of this study showed that M.A students like B.A students adopted performance goal more frequently than mastery goal; hence, grades and competition seem important for them.

According to the data analysis, a positive significant impact of educational level on self-efficacy was detected. In other words, MA students were shown to have higher levels of self-efficacy in comparison with their BA counterparts. Perceived academic self-efficacy is defined as personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated types of educational performances (Bandura, 1977; Schunk 1989). Pajares (2002a) stated that self-efficacy affects the choices one makes, one's persistence toward the goal, and the effort one invests into the task. The findings of the present research are in consistence with the findings of Hosseini Fatemi and Vahidnia (2014). MAs' stronger self-efficacy resulted in considering themselves more competent about their capabilities and being sure about undertaking the challenging goal as compared to the BA's (Hosseini Fatemi, & Vahidnia, 2014).

Based on the results of t-test, no significant impact of educational level on metacognitive awareness and its seven subscales was obtained, except for conditional knowledge. Schraw (1994) defined conditional knowledge as the knowledge of when and why to use strategies. It shows that as students go to higher educational levels, their knowledge of when and how to use strategies improves.

The above findings have some implications for EFL teachers and students. Teachers are recommended to lead students to adopt mastery goal that results in successful learning not only for obtaining score in a specific course of study but also for raising their confidence and their metacognitive abilities. Also, the research findings showed that educational level has impact on conditional knowledge. When students have intended goals they decide to increase their educational level, so their knowledge of when and why to use strategies in order to be successful learners increase. Teachers and educators should encourage students to be aware of strategies and select appropriate strategies. The results revealed the impact of educational level on self-efficacy. It can be concluded that as students go to higher educational level, their belief in their abilities to effectively perform a task increase and they consider themselves more competent about their capabilities than their counterparts with lower education.

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Interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the discussion section of Iranian TEFL learners' MA theses

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Abstract

Interpersonal metadiscourse refers to aspects of a text which reflect the author's position towards the content in the text and the reader. Discussion section in MA theses has more challenging nature and determining role in motivating the study and in persuading its readers. The present study examines a corpus of twenty discussion sections of TEFL MA theses, ten written by male students and ten written by female students. The purpose of this study was two-fold: a) To find what type of metadiscourse markers are mostly used in the discussion section of Iranian TEFL students' MA theses, and b) To see whether or not male and female MA students are different in terms of the use of metadiscourse markers. To do this, the following metadiscourse sub-types were adapted from Hyland's (2005) interpersonal metadiscourse model: transitions, frame markers, evidential, code glosses (interactive) and boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, hedges, engagement markers (interactional). A frequency counter was done to determine the number of times a metadiscourse marker was used in the 'discussion' section of MA theses. After the detailed analysis of the metadiscourse types in question, Mann-Whitney U tests were carried out to clarify the probable differences between male and female MA students' use of metadiscourse. The analysis revealed that the two groups were almost similar in their use of sub-types of metadiscourse. Yet, a few sub-categories were used differently by the writers of theses. In addition, interactive metadiscourse factors (those resources which help to guide the reader through the text) were used significantly more than interactional metadiscourse factors (those resources involving the reader in the argument) by both groups. The findings may promise some implications for second language writing course. It may help to decide what kind of metadiscourse markers should be taught in composition course for non-native speakers of English and how to teach these markers effectively.

Key words: Rhetoric, Metadiscourse, Interpersonal model of metadiscourse markers, Interactive metadiscourse, Interactional metadiscourse, MA TEFL theses

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Introduction

Since 1980, different definitions of metadiscourse have been proposed by researchers (e.g. Crismore, 1989; Hyland, 1998, 2005; Mauranen, 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985). Williams (1981, pp. 211-212) defines metadiscourse as "whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed. It is regarded as a key element of persuasive writing (Fuertes-Olivera et al., 2001). Fairclough (1992) defines metadiscourse as a kind of 'manifest intertextuality' where the writers interact with his own text.

Metadiscourse marker is self-reflective linguistic expressions referring to the text, to the writer, and/or to the readers. In academic context, writing reveals the ways writers project themselves into their discourse to show their commitments and attitudes on the metadiscourse level, nothing is added to the context but helping the readers to understand the writer's message (Hyland, 2004). It is the interpersonal resources for organizing a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the readers (Hyland, 2000). Studies have suggested the importance of metadiscourse as an essential element of persuasive and argumentative discourse (e.g. Crismore & Farnsworth, 1990; Hyland, 1998a).

Over the last decades academic writing has gradually lost its traditional tag as an objective, faceless and impersonal form of discourse and come to be seen as a persuasive endeavor involving interaction between writers and the readers (Hyland, 2005). So, nowadays a particular focus has been made on the interactive and rhetorical character of academic writing and how these characters function interpersonally.

Academic writers especially MA thesis writers need to negotiate social relations with readers. Convincing an academic audience of the reliability of university students' arguments means making linguistic choice which that audience will conventionally recognize as persuasive. The means of "doing persuasion" differs in MA TEFL genres. The ability of MA students to control the level of personality in the discussion section of their theses is one feature of their successful writing.

This study has used Hyland's (2005) model. This model of analysis of metadiscourse accentuates convention and conformity of use. It is comprehensive and largely convincing, and the categories are well grounded theoretically and workable. Therefore, the present research has adopted the same model in analyzing metadiscourse markers in the 'discussion' section of Iranian MA theses.

Review of the related literature

Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse is a relatively new concept in discourse analysis and has become a favorite topic in recent years. Metadiscourse includes the notion that writing and speaking are more than just the communication of ideas and presentation of ideational meaning (Amiryousefi & Eslami Rasekh, 2010). As Hyland (2005) mentioned: «metadiscourse stresses that as we speak or write we negotiate with others, making decisions about the kind of effects we are having on our listeners or readers» (p.3). Therefore, metadiscourse markers are essential elements of the text. Metadiscourse is an important characteristic of communication, because, in order to be able to write or speak



effectively, we need to make a judgment about how readers or listeners understand the text and their likely responses to it.

Metadiscourse is used greatly in the present realm of discourse analysis. Metadiscourse as a rather new approach helps the writers or speakers to have interaction with the receivers of their texts. According to Hyland (2005) and Dafouz-Milne (2008), it is a concept based on a view of writing or speaking as a social engagement. According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse shows how the writers project themselves in their discourses and demonstrate their attitudes about the content and the audience.

As Hyland (2005, p.3) points out «Metadiscourse embodies the idea that communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating». It is, as VandeKopple (1985) states, «discourse about discourse» and refers to the author's or speaker's linguistic demonstration or indication in his text to interact with his receivers. For some scholars, such as VandeKopple (1985) and Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen, (1993), different levels of meaning including propositional and metadiscourse can be found in a text.

The origin of metadiscourse

As claimed by Hyland (2005), the term metadiscourse was coined by Zellig Harris in 1959 to represent a writer's or speaker's attempt to guide a receiver's perception of a text. The concept was later developed by Willims (1981), VandeKopple (1985), Crismore (1989) and lately by Hyland (during the past fifteen years or so) and some other scholars. Originally, the idea was developed through a distinction between transactional and interactional functions of communication made by linguists like Jacobson (1960). Furthermore, Malinowski's (1923) «expressive meaning» and Goffman's (1974) work on «frames» could be taken as pacesetters to linguistic conception of metadiscourse. Also, more tangibly, Schiffrin's (1980) notion of meta-talk moved forward the realization of the notion of metadiscourse. Still more tangibly, Halliday's (1978) tripartite functions of language contributed considerably to the development of the concept.

Metadiscourse definitions

Metadiscourse has been defined by various scholars and researchers. Semioticians would define metadiscourse as a sign, as something that stands for an object, and they believe that when metadiscourse is generalized, it involves not only linguistic signs but also gestures, dress, food, painting, and diagrams (Crismore, 1989).

The metadiscourse or metatext in modern applied linguistics is a part of spoken or written discourse – «the linguistic material in text that does not add anything to the propositional content but that is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret, and evaluate the information given.» (Crismore, et al., 1993, p.41).

Mauranen (1993) considering metadiscourse as a part of academic rhetoric, precisely declared that a rhetoric feature of academic discourse and the degree to which it is used, «indicates the writer of the text and his willingness to explicitly guide the reader's interpretation of the text» (p. 37).

In order to classify the linguistic units, many metadiscourse studies (see Crismore et al., 1993; Dafouz, 2003; Hyland, 1998a,b; Vandekopple, 1985, among others) have utilized the Hallidayan distinction between textual and interpersonal functions of language. Textual metadiscourse, sometimes referred to as metatext (Mauranen, 1993), is utilized to organize the text and direct the reader through the text. In fact, it performs Halliday's textual function. On the other hand, developing the relationship between the reader and the writer is the aim of interpersonal metadiscourse. The interpersonal function of language is fulfilled when, along with the first and second person pronouns, interpersonal metadiscourse markers are added to texts. Interpersonal metadiscourse is an important rhetorical strategy; according to Vandekopple (1985), many discourses have at least two levels. At one level, the writer presents information about the subject of the text. Propositional content is given at this level. At the level of metadiscourse, the second level, the writer does not add propositional material. Instead, he helps the receivers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate and react to such materials. Metadiscourse, therefore, is discourse about discourse or communication about communication.

Hyland (1999) emphasizes the non-propositionality of metadiscourse and states:

One important means by which texts depict the characteristics of an underlying community is through the writer's use of metadiscourse. All academic disciplines have conventions of rhetorical personality which influence the way writers intrude into their texts to organize their arguments and represent themselves, their readers, their attitudes. This is largely accomplished through non propositional material or metadiscourse (p. 5).

All in all, previous research (e.g. Crismore et al., 1993) has shown that writers of different language backgrounds are different in their use of metadiscourse. Moreover, the quality and quantity of this feature demonstrate differences in various genres (Abdi, 2002). Therefore, the investigation of both aspects of metadiscourse can be useful in revealing the norms of different cultures and genres.

Metadiscourse taxonomies and continuums

In the metadiscourse literature, a number of taxonomies can be seen (Adel, 2006; Crismore, 1989; Hyland, 2005; Vandekopple, 1985, 2002). Metadiscourse elements can be classified according to their meanings, forms and functions. Using Halliday's (1973) macro-functions of language, Vandekopple (1985) has given a mainly functional classification.

The first model was introduced by Vandekopple (1985). There were two main categories of metadiscourse in this model, namely textual and interpersonal. Textual metadiscourse consisted of four strategies: text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers and narrators. The interpersonal metadiscourse included three strategies, namely validity markers, attitude markers and commentaries. Vandekopple's model was specifically important in that it was the first systematic attempt to introduce a taxonomy that was used in lots of practical studies, motivated further closer analyses, and gave rise to new classifications.

The revised model was introduced by Crismore et al. (1993). Keeping Vandekopple's two major categories of textual and interpersonal, they collapsed, separated and reorganized the subcategories. In an attempt to separate organizational and evaluative functions, they further divided



the textual metadiscourse into two subcategories of textual and interpretive markers. Moreover, validity markers, under different name -Certainty markers- were moved from textual category to interpersonal category.

A more recent model introduced by Adel (2006) indicated a different theoretical view. It was different in that she separated evaluation from metadiscourse and questions non-propositionality as the criterion for metadiscourse. The model proposed by Hyland and Tse (2004) assumes the two main categories of interactive and interactional for metadiscourse following the distinction made by Thompson and Thetela (1995) to acknowledge the organizational and evaluative features of interaction.

As it can be seen in the table below, the interactive part includes the strategies of transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses and the interactional part consists of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers strategies. The model is based upon several earlier models.

Table 1- A model of metadiscourse in academic text by Hyland &Tse, 2004, p. 169; Hyland, 2005, p. 49

Category	Function	Example
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	in addition; but; thus; and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above; see figure; in section 2
Evidentials	refer to information from other texts	according to X; Z states
Code glosses	elaborate propositional meaning	Namely; e.g.; such as; in other words
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	withhold commitment and open dialogue	might; perhaps; possible; about
Boosters	emphasize certainty and close dialogue	in fact; definitely; it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writers' attitude to proposition	unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly
Self mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	explicitly build relationship with reader	consider; note; you can see that

Metadiscourse in writing

Metadiscourse features and their roles in writing have not been paid enough attention to until recently. Teaching writing was accomplished by either copying sample works from experts or by focusing on elements and grammatical points (Amiryousefi & EslamiRasekh, 2010). These methods continue in teaching writing today. Having explicit knowledge of grammar and application of rules as well as providing the ideas within the expectations and understandings of the relevant readers through the appropriate use of metadiscourse are of paramount importance in writing (Hyland, 2005). According to Crismore (1983), we use metadiscourse when we concern ourselves with readers and when we think about the way they understand our ideas. It is, in fact, the language which we use when speaking about our own thinking and writing as we think and write.

According to many academic scholars, metadiscourse markers are unfortunately not explicitly taught (Jalilifar, 2011). As a result, students often have considerable problems and troubles with creating and describing an image for their readers and interacting properly with them. For

example, the inadequate and excessive use of boosters (like no doubt, easily see, will see) and engagement markers (like we, you) can change a formal academic writing into an informal and direct argument.

Metadiscourse in Master's theses

At the advanced levels of academic writing, metadiscourse has a significant role because it illuminates how the writer tries to «present and negotiate propositional information in ways that are meaningful and appropriate to a particular disciplinary community» (Hyland, 2004, p. 136).

In recent years, some of the scholars have focused on both PhD and Master's theses. The knowledge of metadiscourse is essential for graduate and postgraduate students. Swales (1990) also suggests that «the key differentiating aspect of dissertation writing is a much greater use of metadiscourse[emphasis original]» (p. 188). With regard to the importance of PhD and Master's theses/dissertations Hyland (2004) states: «the dissertation is a high stake genre at the summit of a student's academic accomplishment. It is perhaps the most significant piece of writing that any student will ever do, a formidable task of intimidating length and exacting expectations which represents what is potentially achievable by individuals writing in a language that is not their own» (p. 134). Therefore, the PhD and Master's dissertations are considered to be very important for the advanced university students.

Despite the great importance of metadiscourse in dissertations, few researchers have explored Master's theses in search of metadiscourse markers. One such research is done by Marandi (2003). In her study, she presented a new metadiscourse typology which is a revised version of Crismore et al. (1993) classification. In her study, she compared the use of metadiscourse markers across three groups and also two chapters of master's theses, i.e. introduction and discussion. She found that different groups (native Persian speakers, non-native English speakers, and native English speakers) use metadiscourse markers differently in their theses. In addition, her results showed that metadiscourse markers as a whole were used differently across chapters (Marandi, 2003).

In 2004, Hyland examined doctoral and master's theses written by Hong Kong students. He intended to shed light on both the genre and the ways L2 writers negotiate its interpersonal demands. In his study, Hyland (2004) used a corpus of 240 dissertations by L2 postgraduate together with interviews with the students themselves. The results of his study indicated «the importance of metadiscourse to students writing in this genre...» (Hyland, 2004, p. 140).

Burneikait in a series of studies (2008, 2009a, 2009b) described patterns of different metadiscourse markers in the linguistics' M.A. thesis genre. In her 2008 study she compared metadiscourse strategies in English texts by L1 and L2 writers as well as considering the role of institutional practices and individual writer style in the way writers manage their discourse.. The aims of her study are manifold: 1) to develop a methodological framework for analyzing metadiscourse in the master's thesis genre; 2) to describe patterns of metadiscourse in the M.A. thesis genre in the discipline of Linguistics; 3) to compare the use of metadiscourse in native and non-native/interlanguage English M.A. thesis from British and Lithuanian universities. Burneikait found the following pattern of distribution extensive use of text-organizing markers; limited use of participant-orient-



ed markers; and sparse use of evaluative markers.

In a very recent study, Akbas (2012) investigated metadiscourse in the abstract section of master's theses across three groups: native speakers of Turkish, native speakers of English, and Turkish speakers of English in social sciences. Akbas (2012) tried to find out how the writers of these theses use metadiscourse markers and «whether student writers from a shared cultural background (Turkish) tend to use similar rhetorical features to those of their mother tongue or harmonize themselves with the language (English) in which they are writing» (p. 12). The results of Akbas's study revealed a significant difference between the three groups of theses with regard to the number of occurrences of interactional metadiscourse markers in those theses. But in case of interactive markers the difference was not significant.

Research Questions

The present study more specifically seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What types of interpersonal metadiscourse markers are used in the discussion section of Iranian TEFL students' MA theses?
2. Are there any differences between male and female authors in terms of the use of interpersonal metadiscourse markers?

Methodology

Materials

For the purposes of the study, 20 MA TEFL theses written by 10 male and 10 female student writers were selected.

Procedures

The study employed quantitative approach, frequency counts of a corpus of 20 MA theses by TEFL students. 10 theses were written by male students and 10 ones written by female students. The selection of theses was made quietly randomly. Because this study was based on Hyland(2005) metadiscourse markers different categories and sub-categories of metadiscourse that were listed at the end of Hyland's(2005) book was counted in discussion section of both 10 male theses and 10 female theses. This stage concerned the frequency and the types of metadiscourse markers use, the manual count as opposed to the machine-supported strategies was used to have a record of the number of times a specific marker has been used. For analyzing what have been obtained, the frequency numbers put into SPSS software.

The analysis of the selected discussion parts of MA TEFL theses was closely based on Hyland's (2005) Interpersonal Model of metadiscourse. After identifying and categorizing the metadiscourse markers, a quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of the types of interpersonal metadiscourse and also to find the differences of using such markers among male and female students.. Finally, the statistical analysis involved the use of non-parametrical means (Mann-Whitney U test) since the items in the sample theses were not normally distributed. In fact, the Mann-Whitney test was employed to see whether the differences between the two sets of data with regard to the occurrences of metadiscourse markers were significant or not. Since the

sample did not have exactly the same length, the raw figures were standardized to a common basis (markers per 1000 words) in order to compare the frequency of occurrence. The 1000-word approach is the usual method employed by many researchers (see Hyland, 1998, 1999; Faghih & Rahimpour, 2009).

Results

This research was done with a focus on the investigation of the kinds and distribution of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in discussion sections of MA TEFL theses. It is also aimed to investigate whether there is any statistically significant difference in the use of metadiscourse in the discussion sections of male and female MA students.

Linguistic descriptive accounts of metadiscourse markers use

With regard to the first question, tables 2, 3 and 4 are presented here. The tables closely show that the number of times MA students had used metadiscourse in discussion parts of their theses.

Table 2- The frequency of male students' use of metadiscourse in discussion sections

Interactive metadiscourse	TOTAL										
Code Gloss	0	7	3	3	4	7	4	1	5	0	34
Evidential	3	3	8	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	18
Frame markers	11	27	89	30	3	4	14	2	9	13	202
Transition markers	91	119	165	146	24	21	51	24	72	75	788
Total	105	156	265	181	31	32	69	29	86	88	1042
Interactional metadiscourse	TOTAL										
Attitude markers	7	3	6	9	1	1	5	0	1	19	52
Boosters	26	11	23	16	6	3	14	7	13	19	138
Self mention	0	16	4	0	5	0	0	0	2	0	27
Engagement markers	17	10	42	45	13	5	10	11	20	23	196
Hedges	19	21	13	30	11	10	23	8	10	19	164
Total	69	61	88	100	36	19	52	26	46	80	577
Interactional metadiscourse	Total=1619										

Table 3- The frequency of female students' use of metadiscourse in discussion sections

Interactive metadiscourse	TOTAL										
Code Gloss	4	3	33	4	4	4	6	2	28	3	91
Evidential	0	1	6	1	5	5	1	2	3	0	24
Frame markers	2	8	40	8	2	3	8	12	95	21	199
Transition markers	46	80	67	8	34	1	56	39	58	50	439
Total	52	92	146	21	45	13	71	55	184	74	753
Interactional metadiscourse	TOTAL										
Attitude markers	1	7	10	5	0	0	5	10	0	1	39
Boosters	8	15	19	18	14	17	17	10	4	13	135
Self-mention	3	0	3	0	1	1	0	5	1	0	14
Engagement markers	6	23	55	26	10	16	26	13	21	32	228
Hedges	8	19	39	11	0	0	15	11	7	15	125
Total	26	64	126	60	25	34	58	49	33	61	541
Interactional metadiscourse	Total=1294										



Table 4- MA students' use of metadiscourse

Interactive metadiscours	Frequency	Percentage
Code glosses	125	4.29
Evidential	42	1.44
Frame marker	401	13.76
Transition markers	1227	42.12
Total	1795	61.62
Interactional metadiscourse		
Attitude markers	90	3.08
Boosters	273	9.37
Self-mention	41	1.4
Engagement markers	424	14.55
Hedges	289	9.92
Total	1118	38.37

As the tables above show, all MA students in this corpus used metadiscourse markers in their discussion sections of their theses; And this reveals the essential role of these important elements in the construction of persuasion in the genre of MA theses.

Interactive metadiscourse is used more than the interactional one in the corpus, that shows that the interactive resources are invaluable tools for MA thesis writers. In addition, MA students use mostly transitions followed by engagement markers and frame markers.

With regard to question two, the following three tables are presented below.

Table 5- MA male students' use of metadiscourse

Interactive metadiscourse	Frequency	Percentage
Code glosses	34	2.1
Evidential	18	1.11
Frame marker	202	12.47
Transition markers	788	48.67
Total	1042	64.36
Interactional metadiscourse		
Attitude markers	52	3.21
Boosters	138	8.52
Self-mention	27	1.66
Engagement markers	196	12.10
Hedges	164	10.12
Total	577	35.63
1042 + 577 = 1619		100

Table 6- MA female students' use of metadiscourse

Interactive metadiscourse	Frequency	Percentage
Code glosses	91	7.03
Evidential	24	1.58



Frame marker	199	15.37
Transition markers	439	33.92
Total	753	58.19
Interactional metadiscourse		
Attitude markers	39	2.93
Boosters	135	10.43
Self-mention	14	1.08
Engagement markers	228	17.61
Hedges	125	9.65
Total	541	41.80
	753 + 541 = 1294	100

As the table shows, for male writers, transitions (48.6%) were the most frequent devices overall followed by frame markers (12.4%) and then engagement markers (12.1%). Also, self-mention and evidential were the least frequent resources.

For female writers, transitions (33.9) were the most frequent devices overall followed by engagement markers (17.6%) and frame markers (15.3%). Like male students, self-mention and evidential were the least frequent ones respectively (See table 6).

Table 7- Frequency for each sub category of metadiscourse marker

	Male	Female
Interactive metadiscourse		
Code glosses	34	91
Evidential	18	24
Frame marker	202	199
Transition markers	788	439
Total	1042	753
Interactional metadiscourse		
Attitude markers	52	39
Boosters	138	135
Self-mention	27	14
Engagement markers	196	228
Hedges	164	125
Total	577	541
	Total=1619	Total=1294

As table 7 shows, in the corpus of this study male MA students use more metadiscourse markers than female MA students. In order to compare the type and amount of metadiscourse employed by male and female MA students in discussion section of their theses, Mann-Whitney tests were run.

Do males and females MA students differ in terms of their use of metadiscourse markers in their discussion section of theses?

The categorical variable with two groups = (sex)

The continuous variable = (Total frequencies of metadiscourse)



Table 8- Descriptive statistics

	TOTAL
Mann-Whitney U	42.000
Wilcoxon W	97.000
Z	-.605
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.545
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.579(a)

a. Not corrected for ties.
b. Grouping Variable: SEX

The main values that should be considered in the output are the Z value and the significance level (Asymp.sig(2-tailed)). The Z value is $-.60$ with a significant level of $p = 0.57$. The probability value (p) is not less or equal to 0.05 , so the result is not significant. There is no statistically significant difference in the use of metadiscourse between male and female MA students.

Do males and females MA students differ in terms of their use of interactive devices in their discussion section of the theses?

The categorical variable with two groups = (sex)

The continuous variable = (Total frequencies of interactive devices)

Table 9- Descriptive statistics

	INACTIV
Mann-Whitney U	38.000
Wilcoxon W	93.000
Z	-.907
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.364
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.393(a)

a. Not corrected for ties.
b. Grouping Variable: SEX

As you can see in the table, Z value is $-.9$ with the significant level of $P = 0.36$. Because P is not less than or equal to 0.05 , therefore the result is not significant. It means there is no statistically significant difference in the use of interactive devices between males and females MA students.

Do males and females MA students differ in terms of their use of interactional devices in

their discussion section of the theses?

The categorical variable with two groups = (sex)

The continuous variable = (Total frequencies of interactional devices)

Table 10- Descriptive statistics

	INACTIV
Mann-Whitney U	38.000
Wilcoxon W	93.000
Z	-.907
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.364
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.393(a)

a Not corrected for ties.

b Grouping Variable: SEX

As the table above shows the Z value is -0.53 with the significant level of $P = 0.59$. Because P is not less than or equal to 0.05 , so the result is not significant. It means there is no statistically difference in the use of interactional devices between males and females MA students.

Through the analysis of the obtained data, it was found that all MA TEFL students use Meta-discourse markers in the discussion sections of their theses, but there is no statistically difference in the use of metadiscourse between male and female students.

Discussion

Mastery of situationally appropriate rhetorical conventions of applied linguistics enables the MA students to address his/her audience with skill and show an interpersonal competence which influence the effectiveness of the argument. The presence of the interpersonal metadiscourse in the selected theses supported Dafouz's (2008) idea concerning the essential role of this important device in the construction of persuasion in the academic genre.

Marandi (2002) who investigated the use of metadiscourse in the introduction and discussion section of thirty master's theses written after 1990 by Persian-speaking and English-speaking graduate students, found that textual metadiscourse subtypes were used significantly more in introductions but that interpersonal metadiscourse subtypes were used more in the discussion sections.

The presence of interpersonal metadiscourse in the selected texts supported Hyland's (2004) ideas concerning the essential role of this important element in the construction of persuasion in the academic genre.

The analysis of the data revealed that transitions occupied a high position in both sets of



data. This is also in line with Hyland's findings that transitions, principally conjunctions, are central to academic writing as they represent writer's attempt to ensure readers are able to correctly recover their intentions. Transitions tended to be more carefully and extensively marked in the soft fields, perhaps the need to rely on the careful crafting of a persuasive discourse and reflecting the more discursive nature of these disciplines (Hyland, 2004) like applied linguistics.

On one hand, Metadiscourse is concerned with interpersonal, not experiential relations, as it is theses which reveal the ways writers seek to support their theses and relate their texts to their readers. On other hand, academic genres aim to persuade through argument, it uses in its own way. According to Hyland (2004), citation is central to the social context of persuasion in academic writing because it helps provide justification for arguments and demonstrates the novelty of the writer's position. It also displays university knowledge of the field's literature. In writing thesis, the author cited other's work as background information. Hyland's study in comparison of doctoral students writing and master students, was shown MA students were less concerned about establishing their academic credentials and also in this study all the students use less amount of evidential. Le (2004) found that the main function of evidential in academic texts is to enable writers to show how their own work relates to earlier work in the field. But as the result of this study indicates both male and female MA students used less amount of evidential (males = 1.1% & females = 1.8%) in the discussion sections of their theses.

Self-mention plays an important role in mediating the relationship between the expectations of the readers and the author's arguments and the decision to adopt an impersonal rhetorical style. Representing oneself explicitly can influence the impression writers make on their readers. Self-mentions in MA TEFL theses were used to construct the text and shows decisions. Academic knowledge like MA theses is presented as relatively impersonal, despite its crucial reliance on the audience's participation in its construction. It assumed that is why self-mentions accounted for 1.4% of all metadiscourse in the present study.

The presence of hedges in discussion section of the theses was in line with the findings of many studies (Abdi, 2002; Dafouz, 2003, 2008; Hyland, 1999) in which it was shown that hedges hold an important position among different interpersonal metadiscourse categories. Although in general, hedges have shown to be an essential element of different genre such as research article (Hyland, 1998, 1999), advertisements (Fuertes Olivera et al., 2001) and newspaper opinion articles (Dafouz, 2003, 2008) and editorials (Abdollahzadeh, 2007), and also hedging can be considered as an important characteristic of professional writing, the result of the present study revealed MA TEFL students use less amount of hedges (9.9%) in comparison with other metadiscourse (transitions, engagement markers, frame markers). It is probably because hedges imply that a statement is based on the writer's interpretation rather than certain knowledge (Hyland, 2005, 68) and the ability to hedge effectively and successfully is rather difficult skill, especially for EFL students, and needs to be considered seriously by both teachers and students (Noorian & Biria, 2010).

Based on some research, males employ more emphatic markers than females and show more confident writing styles (Francis, Robson & Read, 2001; Tse & Hyland, 2008). In this study, the amount of using boosters in both sets of data is approximately the same and the differences of use is not so remarkable. Hyland's (2004) research on doctoral students and MA students showed that the Master's students use slightly more interactional metadiscourse than doctoral authors. The

result of this study revealed MA students use more interactive (61.6 %) than interactional (38.3 %).

As a result, the main finding of this study demonstrated the presence of metadiscourse markers in the discussion sections of MA TEFL theses as essential elements. Male and females are not so different in terms of using metadiscourse markers. But both groups used more interactive resources than interactional. It is because in this academic genre, interactive dimension concerns the writer's awareness of a participating audience and the ways they seek to accommodate their probable knowledge and processing abilities on their work. In writing theses, the students do not conduct interaction by readers through direct intruding and commenting on their message.

Conclusion

Interactive and interactional metadiscourse analysis of the corpus of the present study indicated that MA thesis writers of two groups (males and females) used various subtype of metadiscourse. The findings demonstrate the universal nature of metadiscourse use. Interactive metadiscourse devices were used more than interactional ones in the discussion sections of the MA theses, and transitions were the most frequent devices, followed by engagement markers and frame markers for all MA students in the corpus. Male students slightly employed more metadiscourse markers. All the students in the two groups use less self-mention and the evidentials. Generally speaking, males used interactive devices more than females but the use of interactional devices between two groups was not so remarkable.

Metadiscourse markers are important because they have essential roles in mediating the relationship between what the writer intends to argue and his discourse community. The result of the present study emphasizes on increasing the TEFL students' awareness of the way good writers organize their writings. Metadiscourse is a valuable device that provides rhetorical effects in the text. Metadiscourse analysis is a useful means for the teachers to help TEFL students control their writing practices for effective writing in such an important academic genre.

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Reading comprehension ability of advanced EFL learners based on their personality traits, summarization strategy, and cooperative learning: a prediction

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Abstract

In the last few years teachers' knowledge towards the importance of knowing more about learners' differences, characteristics, personality types, and psychological effects has been increased. One of the personality type that has attracted the most attention in L2 research is extraversion/introversion. Reading has been the skill most emphasized in traditional FL teaching, and even today it is the mainstay of EFL instruction in many countries. Improving reading achievement for all students is one of the major goals of learning an additional language. Reading assumes having effective strategies which help reading comprehension. The present study investigated the impact of summarization and cooperative learning strategies on reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL introverted and extraverted learners. In order to carry on the study, 120 homogeneous male and female introverted and extraverted participants at advanced level of language proficiency were randomly assigned into control and experimental groups. While experimental groups learned and practiced summarization and cooperative learning strategies, the control groups practiced reading texts in the traditional way. The results of the comparison between the means of the two groups in the posttest through t-test proved that summarization strategy was more effective on improvement of reading comprehension of learners, and totally introverted learners were better readers than extraverted ones.

Key Words: reading comprehension, summarization, cooperative learning, introversion, extraversion, strategy

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Introduction

Reading has been the skill most emphasized in traditional English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and even today is the mainstay of EFL instruction in many countries. Faced with globalization and international completion, schools and universities should promote students' English ability which affects the future studies and career development of students. The English reading ability is the most important component of English performance, particularly in an academic setting (Huckin, Haynes & Coady, 1993). Reading is an interactive process where low-level reading processes (such as graphic recognition) and high-level reading processes (such as semantic interpretation) contribute to each other (Perfetti & Roth, 1981; Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, West & Freeman, 1981) and interact with knowledge of the world (Kleiman, 1982). Moreover, reading is interactive when reader's previous knowledge and experience interact with writer's ideas presented on the page (Carpenter & Just, 1986; Frederiksen, 1981; Perfetti & Roth, 1981; Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, 1980). There have been different objectives among EFL learners towards reading comprehension. One of the major objectives of reading comprehension is upgrading students' ability to simultaneously read the words and comprehend what they mean. Reading a text means both reading and understanding it (Ur, 1996). In this sense reading does not mean translating written symbols into corresponding sounds. Barnett maintains that reading is seen "as communication, as a mental process, as the readers' active participation in the creation of meaning, as a manipulation of strategies, as a receptive rather than passive skill" (2007, p. 71).

All those who are involved in the field of language teaching, whether they are working on reading or any other skills, have one purpose in mind and that is to ease the process of teaching for themselves and learning for learners. Therefore, teachers' knowledge in the last few years towards the importance of knowing more about learners' differences, characteristics, personality types, and psychological effects has been increased. Learner factors namely age, aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality, cognitive styles, and preferred learning strategies must be taken into consideration in any comprehensive theory at L2 acquisition (Hadley, 2003). Language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how well our students learn a second or foreign language. Learning styles are the general approaches- for example global or analytical, auditory or visual- that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. The personality type that has attracted the most attention in L2 research is extroversion/introversion (Dornyei, 2005). This attention is of course partially – if not mainly – due to the impact clinical psychology has borne on school psychology in modern times thus emphasizing the individual personality dimensions of learners (Na, Lin-Yao, & Ji-Wei, 2008) in the continuous endeavor to keep all learners satisfied (Senel, 2006).

Sharp (2003) draws the line between extroversion and introversion by saying that extroverts mostly gather their data out of experience, whereas introverts engender their perspectives from inner, personal factors. That is why introverts endeavor to replace noisy crowds with quiet environments (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2007). The majority of studies on the personality research in EFL have looked at the relationship between the introversion-extraversion dimension of personality and different linguistic variables. Extraversion and introversion are used to gauge two styles. Of course, everyone is extraverted or introverted in some degree, but not in the same degree. Extravert characters tend to be gregarious, while the introverted tend to be private. Extraverts are sociable, like



parties, have many friends and need excitement in everything they do; they are sensation-seekers and are lively and active. Extraverts are easily distracted from studying, partly as a result of their gregariousness and partly because of their weak ability to concentrate for long periods (Zafar & Meenakshi, 2012). It is not clear, however, whether extroversion or introversion “helps or hinders the process of second language acquisition” (Brown, 2000, p. 155). As Dornyei (2005) puts it, “Both extroversion and introversion may have positive features, depending on the particular task in question” (p. 27). He points out that, “Extroverts are found to be more fluent in both L1 and L2 and particularly in formal situations or in environments characterized by interpersonal stress” (p. 26) and continues that introverts, however, are more interested in activities such as reading, writing, and drawing than activities which require them to act in an outgoing way.

Despite the existence of different personality variables affecting L2 reading, one cannot ignore the role of strategies in learning a new skill. Reading instruction can take many forms and can use numerous methods, but one thing is necessary for students to move from learning to decode the words on the page to becoming secure readers for a life time. Interest in the characteristics of good learners led researchers to identify learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 3). Learners are different because of their internal differences and the role played by the external factors. Among these differences are the strategies used by learners (Griffiths & Parr, 2001, p. 249). Although many studies have focused on reading comprehension strategies and revealed how significant these strategies are in developing reading comprehension; it seems that in Iran's EFL context this issue has not received enough attention. A few studies have been conducted concentrating on the importance of language learning strategies among EFL language learners (Zara, 2011; Zara, 2010; Rahimi, Riazi, & Saif, 2008), but the significance of reading strategies and the purpose of reading has not been the issue. Therefore, this study concentrated on two strategies namely, summarization and cooperative learning.

As far the relationship between summarization and comprehension is concerned, summarization cultivates active reading and minimize passive reading, which influences comprehension (Rinehart, Stahl & Erickson, 1986). Active readers are involved in processing and manipulating information, using their schema or mental semantic network to organize incoming information, retrieve stored information and focus attention on key concepts (Pearson & Fielding, 1991). Summarization is considered as an activity that allows orderly memory searchers from a mental semantic network, help readers impose a structure of organization on what appears to be disassociated facts and help them retrieve information from their mental network (Wittrock & Alesandrini, 1990). Dole, Duffy, Roehler, and Pearson (1991) describe summarization as follow:

Often confused with determining importance, summarization is a broader, more synthetic activity for which determining importance is a necessary but not sufficient, condition. The ability to summarize information requires readers to sift through large units of text, differentiate important from unimportant ideas, and then synthesize those ideas and create a new coherent text that students for, by substantive criteria, the original. This sounds difficult, and the research demonstrates that, in fact, it is (p. 244).

Another learning strategy that considered in this study was cooperative learning strategy. Cooperative learning is one of the most remarkable and fertile areas of research, theory, and practice in education. In the past three decades, cooperative learning has become a widely used



instructional procedure across different grade levels and subject areas (Tsai, 2005; Tseng, 2004). Learning EFL reading requires more cooperative and interaction. Therefore, to traditional reading instruction, cooperative learning is a promising alternative, which emphasizes interaction and communication and promote the socio-linguistic competence of students (Bolukbas, Keskin & Polat, 2011; Gomleksiz, 2007; Ning, 2011; Tsai, 2004). Most studies on the effectiveness of cooperative learning have consistently indicated that this methodology promotes higher achievement, more positive interpersonal relationships, and higher self steam than do competitive or individualistic efforts (Gomleksiz, 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

According to afore-mentioned points the following research questions were formulated:

- 1) Which strategy is more effective in improving Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension? Cooperative learning or Summarization?
- 2) Who performs better in English reading comprehension? Extraverted or Introverted learners?

Review of related literature

Reading Comprehension

In second or foreign language teaching situation, reading receives a special focus. There are a number of reasons for this. First, many foreign language students often have reading as one of their most important goals. They want to be able to read for information and pleasure, for their career, and for study purposes. In fact in most EFL situations, the ability to read is all that students ever want to acquire. Second, written texts serve various pedagogical purposes. Extensive exposure to linguistically comprehensible written texts can enhance the process of language acquisition. Third, it also gives students time to be familiar with new points of discussion, to encourage speaking and to work on other skills such as vocabulary, grammar, idioms (Richard & Renandya, 2002).

Reading comprehension refers to the processes in which the reader forms meaning from the symbols presented on the page. After establishing the word, its phonological features, and its grammatical relevance to the other words in the larger structure (a phrase, a sentence, etc.) readers start to grasp the meaning of the sentences. This link is to construct the whole meaning and to get the intended message (Kintsch, 2005). The nature of reading comprehension and its structure can be captured in three points. The first is that reading comprehension consists of micro skills, which are separate and do not relate to each other. Within the second, reading micro skills are interrelated and complement each other. Finally, reading comprehension is also seen as one unit skill rather than a composite of smaller ones (Chapman, 1973, 1974). Factors that affect reading comprehension were examined by many studies in the first decades of the 20th century. While some of these factors are linguistic ones such as vocabulary, grammar, and meaning, others are psychological factors such as intelligence, recalling ability, reading speed, the relationship between memory and meaning of the written items, and reasoning.

Reading strategies

When students are involved in a learning task, they have several resources which they use in



different ways to finish or solve the task, so this can be termed process of learning strategy (Williams & Burden, 1997). Oxford (1990, p. 8) defines learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. During reading, the cognitive effort is expressed through strategies, which are “procedural, purposeful, effortful, willful, essential and facilitative in nature” (Alexander & Jetton, 2000). The reader must purposefully or intentionally or willfully invoke strategies and does so to regulate and enhance learning and comprehension (Alexander & Jetton, 2000). A number of studies have been conducted to explore the difference between male and female language learners in terms of language learning strategy use (Zara, 2010; Rahimi, Riazi & saif, 2008; Green & Oxford, 1995; Hashim & Sahil, 1994). The findings of some of these studies have mostly shown that females used significantly more language learning strategies compared to males. A study was conducted (Green & Oxford, 1995) to explore language learning strategies among 374 ESL students from different levels in Puerto Rico. The results demonstrated that females used more strategies and employed them more frequently than males in all categories except the categories of cognitive and compensation strategies.

Summarization strategy

Summary writing exemplifies a mixture of reading and writing. Writing a summary of a text can help learners connect gist of ideas, process thoughts, rephrasing and restricting them in their own words (Perin, 2002). Graham and Hebert (2010) investigated the reciprocal relationship between writing and reading to see whether writing activities have an impact on reading activities. They concluded that having students write about what they have read simply will improve their reading abilities. Students who are trained in summary writing know how to paraphrase ideas in their own words instead of simply copying them. Research shows summarization instruction had significant effects on students’ performance in standardized tests of reading comprehension (Baumann, 1984; Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Taylor & Beach, 1984). Cordero-Ponce (2000) in his study randomly selected 64 intermediate college level learners of French as a foreign language. The participants were divided into control and experimental groups. The results revealed that summarization training was effective for L2 readers. Marzano (2011) states, “Although the process of comprehension is complex, at its core, comprehension is based on summarizing-restating content in a succinct manner that highlights the most crucial information” (p.83). Summarizing not only helps students comprehend what they read, but also allows teachers to determine whether students understand what they are reading. If a student can successfully summarize, then he can comprehend what he is reading.

Cooperative learning strategy

Cooperative learning exists when students work together to accomplish shared learning goals (Johnson et al., 2000). A cooperative classroom, Johnson and Johnson (2008, p. 26) state, should not be teacher-centered and “Ideally, teachers are trained to take their existing lessons and restructure them to be cooperative as cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning”.

Accordingly, (Deutsch et al., 2006) name the essential elements in cooperative learning as:

positive interdependence, individual accountability and personal responsibility, promotive interaction, appropriate use of social skills, and group processing. The students' success depends on the achievement of all group members and the social problems involved in the process of learning are tackled (Johnson et al., 2000). In addition, Norman (2005, p. 3) writes that, "Cooperative learning is important for creating inclusive classroom environments that meet the needs of all students because it takes the heterogeneity into account, encouraging peer support and connection". Using cooperative learning with college students enhances their learning motivation, knowledge retention, and understanding (Law, 2011; Liao, 2009; Suh, 2009).

Personality traits

One of the most significant characteristics of human beings is that each individual is a sui generis amalgam of feelings, mentality, concepts, aims and reactions. This list can be extended to hundreds of terms if coverage of all the complexities of personality is needed. These combinations create the individuality that every individual enjoys (Wright et al., 1970). Differences among individuals create reasons for negotiations, arguments, and discussions and lead to the development of humanity as a whole. Knowledge of the backgrounds lying behind these differences enhances the flexibility and understanding of the different individuals (Skehan, 1989). It is assumed that having more awareness of theories of individual differences and an ability to incorporate them in the teaching process should enable teachers to help their learners enjoy their listening and get more out of it. Moreover, learners should be aware of themselves, their personalities and listening styles in order to approach the listening process in a constructive way (Shackleton & Fletcher, 1984). Individual learner differences are the variables that characterize learners and give each one his/her individual uniqueness. The goal of investigating individual differences is to explore the diversity of intellect, forms of cognitive processes, and different mental functions (Skehan, 1989). Example categories used by various researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1994; Skehan, 1989; Eysenck, 1999) for investigating these differences are personality, learning styles, motivation, intelligence, autonomy, learning strategies, gender, age, language aptitude, anxiety, affective states, and need for power. Aimed at exploring personality factors in EFL/SLA, the researchers found that most of the literature focuses on two dimensions of personality, closely related to the learning process; and these are extroversion and introversion.

Extroversion vs. introversion

Extroversion and introversion are two dominant variables in effective domain. In Stern's (1991) views, "introversion refers to tendency to withdraw from social interactions" while extroverted persons are found of involving in social communication and environment. It is generally assumed that extroversion accelerates language learning and introversion hampers learning. However, it is not so, they both may contribute to different aspects of language learning differently. According to Eysenck's theory, which has been confirmed by a number of experimental findings (Heyde, 1991), introverts are characterized by a higher level of intrinsic activation or arousal in the brain cortex. As any individual operates ideally with a moderate level of cortical arousal, the more extroverted will be inclined to look for external stimulation to reach an optimal level, whereas the more introverted people would rather try to avoid strong stimuli in order not to raise their acti-



vation level too much. This means that typical introverts are highly sensitive, reacting strongly to relatively mild stimulation, whereas typical extroverts are excitement-seekers, with a much higher endurance for loud noise, strong light, and other forms of external stress. Extroverts and introverts also seem to have different reminiscence capabilities (Eysenck, 1999). Reminiscence is due to consolidation of the memory trace. This consolidation, which is a direct function of cortical arousal, has been proven to be stronger in the introverts, at least in the long run (after more than 30 minutes). Extroverts, on the other hand, tend to show better memory and greater reminiscence 'in the short run' (Eysenck, 1985).

Most people believe that an extrovert is a person who is friendly and outgoing. While that may be true, that is not the true meaning of extroversion. Basically, an extrovert is a person who is energized by being around other people. This is the opposite of an introvert who is energized by being alone. Extroverts tend to 'fade' when alone and can easily become bored without other people around. When given the chance, an extrovert will talk with someone else rather than sit alone and think. In fact, extroverts tend to think as they speak, unlike introverts who are far more likely to think before they speak. Extroverts often think better when they are talking. Concepts just don't seem real to them unless they can talk about them; reflecting on them isn't enough. Their ability to make small talk makes them appear to be more socially more adept than introverts, although introverts may have little difficulty talking to people they don't know if they can talk about concepts or issues (Ely, 1983).

Methodology

This study deals with two strategies for learning, namely summarization and cooperative learning strategy, in regards with their effect on reading comprehension of introvert and extrovert Iranian EFL male and female learners. To conduct the research, a questionnaire of 57 questions called Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) was given to all participants. The study employed a 2*2*2*2 factorial pre-test, post-test control group design. This design consisted of three instructional groups (summarization group, cooperative group, and traditional classroom teaching group) gender (male and female) ability (high) and repeated testing (pre-test and post-test). The main independent variables were exposure to cooperative learning strategy, summarization strategy, gender, and ability while the dependent variables were reading comprehension ability and personality (introversion/extraversion).

In order to clarify how the researcher found the answers to the research questions of this study, all that was conducted throughout the process with detailed information on participants, instrumentation, treatment, are discussed in this part.

Participants

To fulfill the objectives of this study, 120 male and female advanced EFL learners with the age range of 18-24 studying in Mohajer, Kalam, Bayan, Oli, Nikan, and Fatima institutes participated in this study. The participants were selected through a proficiency test, QPT (Quick Placement Test) from 190 learners in the same language institutes. Therefore, the number of selected participants for the sake of the study was 120 students containing 60 males and 60 females. Then they



underwent EPI, and 30 introverts and 30 extraverts were chosen for each group of learners.

Instrumentation

To accomplish the objectives of this study, the researcher used the following instruments:

The Background Questionnaire

In order to elicit information about participants, a background questionnaire was developed by the investigator. It was given to the participants before they begin completing the tests. The questionnaire was on their age, term of study, gender, and name of their institute.

Eysenck Personality Inventory

EPI is a self-report personality inventory based on Eysenck's (1947-1952) factor analysis of personality which assumes three basic factors (the two most important being extroversion/introversion and neuroticism). The original version of this test contains 57 yes/no questions based on which the degree of extroversion and introversion becomes clarified. In this study the Farsi translation of EPI test which contained 57 yes/no questions was administered. The English version of it was translated to Farsi by a professional translator and compared to Farsi translation of EPI which was already translated and published. The translated version of EPI has been proved to be highly reliable at 0.76 level of significance.

Quick Placement Test (QPT)

In order to make sure of the homogeneity of the groups in terms of English Language Knowledge, a quick placement test (QPT), version2, was used after being piloted on a similar group of 16 students. It consisted of two parts with 60 questions totally. The tests comprised of multiple-choice format containing structure, cloze tests, and vocabulary. The time allotted was 60 minutes. In order to make sure of the reliability, the Kr-21 formula was run which turned out to be 0.76 and seemed the test was quite suitable for the purpose of this study.

Reading Comprehension Test

The test of reading comprehension in English was composed of three passages followed by multiple choice format. The three passages and their following 30 questions were derived from 8th grade reading comprehension success written by Elizabeth Chelsa (2001). To ensure that this test is an appropriate one in terms of text difficulty level, it was piloted in a group of 16 students. There were some reasons for selecting these texts such as:

First, they were written for general readers because of having a general content, which were of interest to the students. Second, they had fairly simple linguistic and rhetorical structure. Finally, the background knowledge had no special role in understanding these passages. Moreover, the texts' content was new and challenging.

The nature of the items in terms of recognizing main ideas, vocabulary knowledge, and inferring was the same for all passages. The time allowed was 60 minutes as determined at the pilot-



ing stage. Going through Kr-21, at the piloting stage, it was indicated that reading comprehension test was reliable enough (0.82) for the respective goal in the present study. The content and face validity were considered for both the placement test and the test of reading in English in the piloting stage for the purpose of having a valid test, so the test of reading turned out to be suitable for the present study. The test of reading was administered as pre and post-test.

Procedures

The general objective of the study was to refine and expand students' awareness of two reading strategies namely, summarization and cooperative learning in order to understand which one is more effective to the L2 readings of introverted and extraverted male and female learners. In order to achieve this goal, first the proficiency levels of 190 subjects containing 102 females and 88 males were determined according to Quick Placement English Test, version 2. Then EPI conducted among 190 participants dividing them into 43 introverted and 59 extraverted female learners and 35 introverted and 53 extraverted males. In order to have equal number of participants in each group, the researcher randomly selected 30 of extraverts and 30 of introverts to be in each group of males and females and excluded the rest. The identified subjects were randomly put into one control and two experimental groups for both male and female learners.

After the determining the groups of introverted and extraverted learners the participants were divided into six subgroups of 20 with a combination of approximately equal introverted and extraverted learners (three groups for males and three groups for females). Then the test of reading comprehension was administered as the pre-test among all participants. The test contained three passages with 30 items. The time allocated for answering to the questions was 60 minutes (20 minutes for each text). After administering the pre-test and gathering the data, the treatment phase started. The subjects in the experimental groups were informed of the usefulness of strategies instruction and the fact that they must learn how to learn. So as the respective goal of this study first the investigator attempted to define the concept of summarization strategy in theory and practice within a few days interval for two experimental groups (males and females). The treatment conducted step by step and lasted about five, two hours sessions to finish. In the second experimental groups the cooperative learning strategy conducted in a four-step cycle as follow:

Teach: which was the presentation of materials, usually in a lecture-discussion format.

Team study: that group members worked cooperatively with teacher provided worksheet and answer sheets, Test: it was done by a quiz, and Recognizing the domain of problems. Both groups had the same learning materials, schedule, tests, and instructor; the sole difference was the instructional method which two groups received summarization strategy and the other two, cooperative learning strategy. While the first experimental groups were administered with summarizing techniques and the second groups with cooperative learning, the controlled groups were treated traditional teaching. After the treatment was over, both experimental and control groups were given the reading test as the post-test. Scores on reading comprehension of introverted and extraverted learners were separately connected and after analyzing the answer sheets and questionnaires, the researcher dropped those participants who provided incomplete data.

Data analysis

To verify all two hypotheses of the study together, a t-test was required since there was a dual learning strategies (summarization and cooperative learning strategies) and also a dual style of personality (extraverts and introverts) as independent variables, involved with one dependent variable (reading comprehension), and gender (male and female) and level of proficiency (advanced level) as controlled variables.

Results and Discussion

The statistical procedure of the study was based on a t-test procedure which was run to compare the interaction of two modalities of the independent variable and the two moderator variables on the dependent variable of this study. Here are the descriptive statistics of 120 participants in the six groups prior to the study:

Table 1- Results of the homogeneity test

N	NO.OF ITEMS	MEAN	RANGE	VARIANCE	SD	R
120	60	51.26	6	4.22	2.06	.791

Table 2- Results of the reading test

N	NO.OF ITEMS	MEAN	RANGE	VARIANCE	SD	R
120	30	16.95	6	2.19	1.48	.866

Following the above selection, the 120 students were randomly assigned into four experimental and two control groups, including 20 students in each of the groups. Having finalized the participants' selection process, the teacher began treatments in each group except control groups which received their traditional treatment.

Below are the descriptive statistics of reading test between two groups in the pretest and posttest:

Table 3- Descriptive statistics of two groups in pre and post test

TEST	N	MEAN	T	DF	SIG. (2-TAILED)	STD. ERROR MEAN	
CONTROL GROUP	Pre-test	40	16.97	1.66	78	.101	.23
	Post-test	40	17.52				.34
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	Pre-test	80	16.93	20.38	158	.000	.16
	Post-test	80	24.68				.34

As table 3 indicates, there is no significant difference between mean score of control groups in pre-test and post-test ($\text{sig} = .1 > .05$), but the mean score of learners in experimental groups differ significantly in pre-test and post-test ($\text{sig} = .00 < .05$). The overall conclusion was that there was a significant difference between the impact of two learning strategies (summarization and cooper-



ative learning strategies) on reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners participated in this study which indicates the treatment was beneficial to the learners in all.

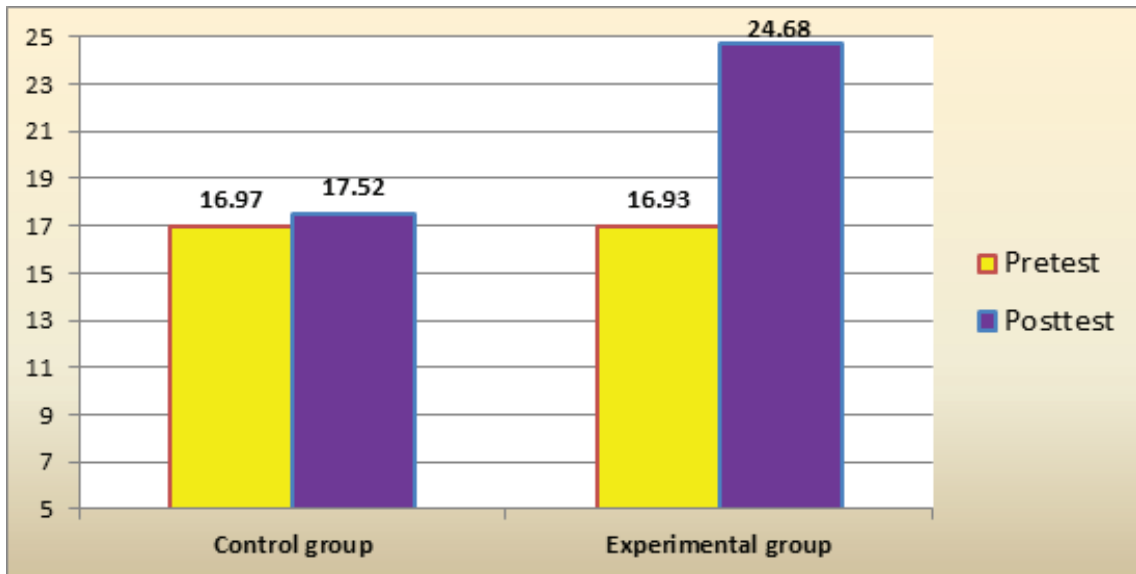


Figure 1- The mean difference of control and experimental groups in pretest and posttest

But a more detailed comparison was needed to see if there was any significant difference between the reading scores of learners in summarization and cooperative learning strategies in all. So a t-test was run to calculate the descriptive statistics for these groups on the posttest:

Table 4 displays the results for the two experimental groups underwent summarization and cooperative learning strategies.

Table 4- Descriptive statistics for mean scores in summarization and cooperative learning strategies

	N	MEAN	STD. ERROR MEAN	T	DF	SIG. (2-TAILED)
COOPERATIVE LEARNING	40	23.97	.42	2.12	78	.036
SUMMARIZATION	40	25.40				

Table 4 shows that the mean score of summarization group was higher than that of the cooperative learning (25.40 compared to 23.97). Also (sig= .036 <.05) indicates that the difference is significant between two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between Iranian EFL learners concerning summarization and cooperative learning strategies is rejected, with the conclusion that learners in summarization group performed significantly better than those in cooperative learning group.

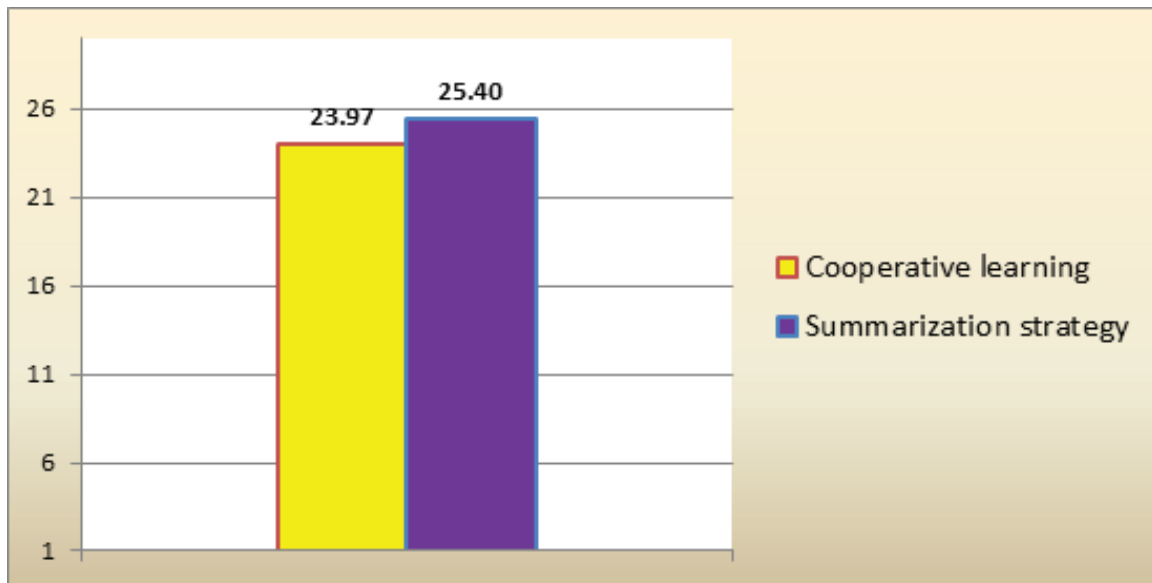


Figure 2- The mean difference of learners in summarization and cooperative learning

Table 5 displays the results for reading comprehension ability of the two extraverted and introverted groups underwent summarization and cooperative learning strategies totally.

Table 5- Descriptive statistics for extraverted and introverted learners' reading comprehension ability.

	MEAN	STD. ERROR MEAN	T	DF	SIG. (2-TAILED)
INTROVERTED LEARNERS	40	25.42 .51	2.20	78	.030
EXTRAVERTED LEARNERS	5				

Table 5 shows that the mean score of introverted learners was higher than that of the extraverted learners (25.42 compared to 23.95). Also (sig= .03 <.05) indicates that the difference is significant between two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between Iranian EFL extraverted and introverted learners concerning summarization and cooperative learning strategies is rejected, with the conclusion that introverted learners performed significantly better than extraverted ones. So we can come to this conclusion that introverted learners are better readers than extraverted ones.

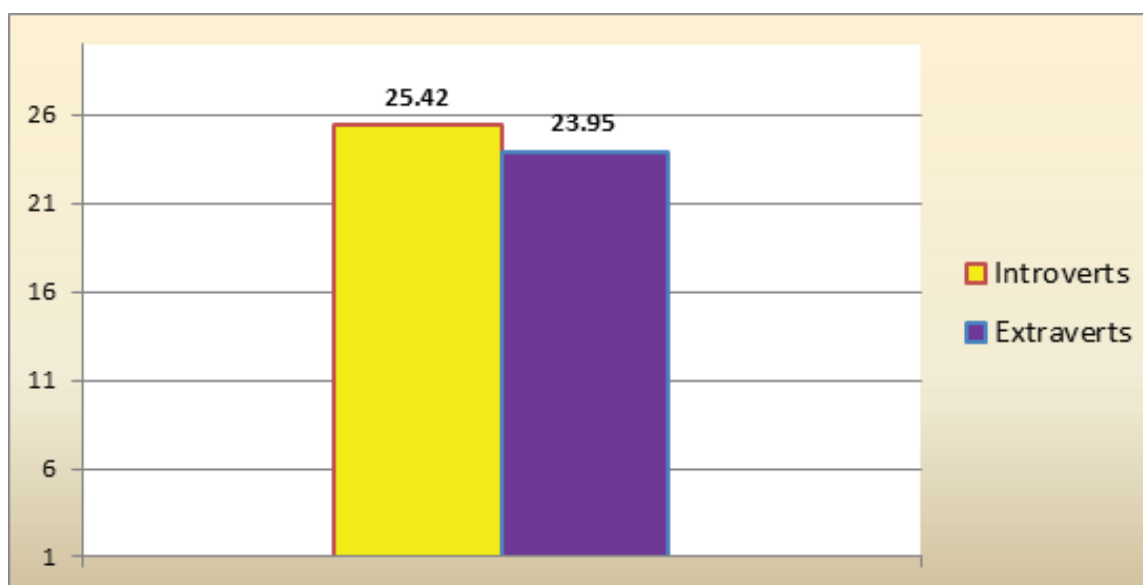


Figure 3- The mean difference of introverted and extraverted learners on reading comprehension

Conclusion

There were somewhat mixed results in this study. While many studies generally portray the higher effectiveness of cooperative learning (Duetsch et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2000; Marashi & Baygzadeh, 2010; Norman, 2005), this study did not prove categorically that cooperative learning is more advantageous. The views of experimental group students expressed in the cooperative learning survey indicated that in cooperative reading class, besides listening to the teacher lectures, they had more opportunities to actively learn by previewing the text, interacting with other group members, and helping each other during group discussion. Group discussions facilitate students' reading comprehension by fostering a supportive learning atmosphere, which provides more opportunities for explanation, logical inference, and debates to elaborate student understanding of reading materials, and make ideas concrete (Liao & Oescher, 2009). However according to the findings of this study the students in cooperative learning performed better than the students in control group, but those students underwent summarization strategy treatment performed significantly better than those in cooperative setting (with mean scores of 25.40 and 23.97 respectively). So Results of this investigation support the use of the instructional program for teaching summarization skills, supposed to be the key components of reading comprehension. First, the results of reading comprehension test revealed that the students learned to follow the steps of the summarization process to identify topics, main ideas, details, and to write summaries. The students performance on the posttest showed significant results for using this strategy. Many researchers (Winograd & Bridge, 1986) have claimed that summarization instruction improves comprehension of text because it may force students to pay more attention to the text while making a summary. The studies carried out earlier had mostly tried to show the effect of these strategies on the overall achievement of learners and they did not pay much attention to learners personality type. As for the second hypothesis the researcher was interested to know if

introverts and extravert learners were different with regard to their performance on reading comprehension. It was shown that the introverts in this study enjoyed being in both groups, and with the mean score of (25.42) perform fairly better as compared with extravert learners with the mean score of (23.95). One of the justifications that we can come up with might be that introverts have been known as studious and hard-working students compared to more extroverted and outgoing ones. It gives the impression that they are more attentive and conscientious in certain receptive tasks like reading. Therefore, this attentive personality type may contribute to their performance on the types of tasks which need concentration.

Entwistle and Wilson (1977) claim that introverts will achieve more because they have better long-term memory than extroverts. Besides, they take learning a language in a more serious way and spend more time on reading and writing due to their personality trait. The extraverts are not able to concentrate for a long time and are too sociable to learn with the same attention (Eysenck, 1957). Therefore it can be concluded that using strategies for teaching reading comprehension to introvert students is a useful approach but it does not mean that using these strategies for instructing reading comprehension to extraverts is not useful. Thus, it is felt that this study has made some important contributions towards a better understanding of the extraversion-introversion personality variable and its relationship to some learning outcomes (i.e., performance on reading).

Limitations of the study

1. This study pioneered to investigate two groups of personality type, therefore the collection of 120 students with fifty percent equalization was so difficult.
2. Since the selection of subjects was according to their level of language proficiency, choosing students with the same range of ages was difficult. So, the researcher had to put away those students who were between 15-17 years old.
3. Since there were a few numbers of advanced learners in institutes, the researcher had to choose six institutes. Therefore making a harmony between the six institutes and their advanced students to come in separate days except their class time was so difficult.
4. The subjects participating in this study were selected from advanced learners, from six institutes in Tehran. Therefore, the findings are limited to them and might not be generalized to other levels.

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Speech acts in action: the case of two popular textbooks, Interchange and Top Notch series

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Abstract

The present study essays to investigate and compare the frequency of occurrences and proportions of speech acts of complaints, compliments, and requests in the four volumes of Interchange Series (4th edition) by Jack C. Richards (2013), published by Cambridge University Press (CUP) and Top Notch Series by John Soars and Allen Ascher (2012), published by Longman. In doing so, the complaint model by Olshtain & Weinback (1987), compliment model by Wolfson and Manes (1981), and request model by Trosborg (1995) were applied to extract these speech acts and the result depicted that both series were rich in presenting these types of speech acts; however, concerning their applicability, there were one or two dominant responses. Afterwards, a Chi-square analysis demonstrated that there was a significant difference in the proportion of complaint, compliments and requests strategies throughout the eight books. On the whole, the series provided learners with adequate amount of complaints, and compliments and requests, but with low variations in strategy types. In pertinent to the findings, it seems mandatory to incorporate more authentic and helpful instruction of speech acts parallel to the course books to improve the learners performance in real life communications and encounters.

Key Words: Chi-Square, Speech act complaint, Speech act of compliment, Speech act of request

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Introduction

While ESL textbook quality has boosted significantly in recent years, selecting an appropriate text has been a challenge for most teachers and practitioners in EFL/ESL realm (Wen et al., 2011). Since teacher and learner are one of the three fundamental facets of any educational context, textbooks have always been regarded as a crucial basis underlying teachers' decision making on what to teach and how to teach, and for learners' general achievement. Thus, opting appropriate textbooks has preoccupied teachers' minds for a long time. As Nunan (1988) claims, «the most fundamental components within the curriculum are materials and course books which simply ease tensions in learning process. At their best, they play the role of providing concrete models for desirable classroom practice acting as curriculum models. Moreover, they fulfill a teacher development role» (p. 98).

The importance of the role of textbooks is clear and definite in teaching and learning process from the teachers' and students' perspectives. All educational materials and especially textbooks should meet certain standards and criteria. Materials should raise the learners' interest and attention in order to have an effect on their learning English language as a foreign language (Tomlinson, 2001). Tomlinson also states that the students can learn more if the materials and textbooks they use include lots of white space and different activities in them. He believes that the confidence of learners can be developed through these activities by engaging them in using the targeted language.

Having observed this vast variety of textbooks being taught across English Institutes in Iran, the researchers in the current study deemed it unfeasible to go about a fully comprehensive evaluation of all available textbooks taught for different levels of proficiency at disparate institutes across the country. Accordingly, only two complete series, i.e., Interchange (2013, 4th ed.) and Top Notch Series (2012, 2nd ed.) are chosen for evaluation, owing to their popularity and high teachability between teachers and students. As Palmer (1992) states, «if we take care of the elementary stages, the advanced stages will take care of themselves» (p.13).

The focus of this study is to analyze and evaluate the frequency of speech acts of complaints, compliments, and requests in Interchange Series by Jack C. Richards (2013, 4th ed.) and Top Notch Series by John Soars Allen Ascher (2012, 2nd ed.) which are relatively new versions of second and third ones. Ergo, the following four research questions are raised in this study:

1. Do complaint strategies investigated in Interchange and Top Notch Series differ in terms of their frequencies?
2. Do compliment strategies investigated in Interchange and Top Notch Series differ in terms of their frequencies?
3. Do request strategies investigated in Interchange and Top Notch Series differ in terms of their frequencies?
4. Is there any statistically significant difference in complaint, compliment, and request speech acts proportion investigated in this study?



Review of Literature

The Role of Textbook in EFL/ESL Classroom

A textbook book is referred to as a published work, especially designed to help language learners to improve their linguistic and communicative abilities. (Sheldon, 1987). In addition to being a learning instrument, they are used as supporting teaching instruments (Ur, 1996). The students' books usually accompanies other materials such as workbook package and audio program (Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2008). They are designed to give cohesion to the language teaching and learning process by providing direction, support and specific language-based activities aimed at offering classroom practice for students (Mares, 2003) and foster effective and quick learning of the language (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Richards (2001) states that without textbooks a program may have no impact, therefore, they provide structure and a syllabus. Besides, textbook application in a program can guarantee that students in different classes will receive a similar content and therefore, can be evaluated in the same way. In other words, textbooks provide the standards in instruction. Moreover, they include a variety of learning resources such as workbooks, CDs and cassettes, and videos which makes the learning environment interesting and enjoyable for the learners.

Some proponents of authentic classroom language models have argued that the problems with many textbooks are not necessarily the fact that they are culturally or socially biased, but that they are actually too contrived and artificial in their presentation of the target language. They argue that it is crucial to introduce learners to the fundamental characteristics of authentic real-life examples of both spoken and written discourse. They have demonstrated that many scripted textbook language models and dialogues are unnatural and inappropriate for communicative or cooperative language teaching because they do not adequately prepare students for the different types of pronunciation (Brazil et al., 1980; Levis, 1999 cited in Litz, 2005), language structures, grammar, idioms, vocabulary, conversational rules, routines and strategies that they will have to use in the real-world (Cathcart, 1989; 1991; Yule et al., 1992, cited in Litz, 2005).

Previous research on textbook evaluation

Since obvious differences exist between L2 learner's first language (L1) and their target language (TL), research on intercultural communication has shown that performing speech acts in a second language (L2) can be a challenge for many L2 learners (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Boxer and Pickering (1995) pointed out those learners' difficulties in L2 pragmatics is not tolerated by native speakers (NS) as much as grammatical errors and are often considered as a sign of rudeness. These findings point out pragmatic competence importance and the need for pragmatics in the L2 classrooms (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005).

In a survey over the two ELT textbooks usefulness entitled opportunities and New English File, Kayapinar (2009) drew on the 134 teachers' views concerning the aforesaid textbooks. The final analysis of the gained results revealed the instructors' discontent with these two course books mainly in terms of their lack of adequacy for meeting the learners' needs and interests.

In a post-use textbook evaluation with local teachers within the Hong Kong ELT context by



Raseks et al. (2010) on the four ELT textbooks namely Top Notch, Interchange, Headway, and On your mark at the elementary level of proficiency, they resorted to internal and external evaluation criteria. To keep with the findings of this study, several pros and cons were reported for each of the four series. Yet, the privileges ascribed to Top Notch outweighed those reported for the other three textbooks.

Tok (2010) evaluated another ELT textbook, known as Spot On which is utilized in primary public schools in Turkey. To conduct the research, initially, he chose 46 English teachers randomly, and then he distributed a five-point Likert Scale questionnaire among them. The practicality of the aforementioned textbook was judged in terms of a number of salient features, such as its tasks and activities, design and layout, language type, content and subject. Based on the obtained results, this course book was not sufficient enough in addressing the learners' real needs.

Soozandehfar and Sahragard (2011) analyzed Top Notch Fundamental dialogues pragmatically. The results showed that the conversations in these newly-published series were not pragmatically functional.

Koosha and Dastjerdi (2012) investigated the application of request speech acts in Interchange Series (Books I, II, and III) which were widely used in Iranian English Language Institutes. The results of this study indicated that the series ignored the materials necessary for meaningful and face saving communication.

In an attempt to scrutinize the pragmatic and communicative adequacy of New Interchange series in the Iranian ELT context, Soleimani and Dabbaghi (2012) administered a discourse completion test to 50 upper intermediate Iranian learners who had completed their studies with these books. Indeed, what these researchers strived to find was gauging the effect of these books on the learners' skills in coping with different interactive needs in varied real-life contexts. In line with the gained results, they held that the books had been practical in providing the learners with ample pragmatic input, and had prepared them well for dealing with diverse interactive needs in the society.

Methodology

Materials

The materials used in this study were Interchange Series (4th Ed.) by Jack C. Richards published by Cambridge University Press (CUP) and Top Notch Series (2nd Ed.) by John Soars and Allen Acsher published by Longman in which all conversation and reading sections in all four levels of Elementary (E), Pre-intermediate (PI), Intermediate (IN) and Upper- Intermediate (UI) were analyzed. These series are being taught widely in many Iranian English Language Institutes. Similarly, the researchers in this study had full mastery over these series.

Instrumentations

In this study, the instrumentations were categorized into three sets. The first set was complaint strategies presented by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987):

1. Below the level of reproach
2. Expression of annoyance or disapproval



3. Accusation and warning
4. Requests for repair
5. Justification
6. Criticism

The second set was compliment structures presented by Wolfson and Manes (1980):

1. NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ.
2. PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP.
3. I intensifier like/love NP.
4. You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP.
5. You V. NP. (really) ADV.
6. You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP.
7. What (a) ADJ. NP!
8. ADJ. NP!
9. Isn't NP. ADJ!

And the third set was request strategies by Trosborg (1995):

1. Direct
 - 1.1 Obligation
 - 1.2 Performatives
 - 1.3 Imperatives
2. Conventionally indirect (hearer based)
 - 2.1 Ability
 - 2.2 Willingness
 - 2.3 Permission
 - 2.4 Suggestory formulae
3. Conventionally indirect (speaker-based)
 - 3.1 Wishes:
 - 3.2 Desires/needs
4. Indirect
 - 4.1 Hints

These three models were used in analyzing the structures of complaints, compliments, and requests which were found in the books in order to determine the most frequent one(s).

Data collection procedures

In the present study, a mixed-method approach was applied so as to achieve the purpose of investigation. The researchers gleaned the whole data from the books directly. For the quantitative part, the frequencies and also percentages of complaints, compliments, and requests to their total number were calculated in the conversation and reading passages of all the eight books. In addition, a Chi-square test was conducted in order to find whether or not there was any significant difference in the proportion of the speech acts. For the qualitative part, on the other hand, the results were compared with the set of complaint strategies presented by Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), the set of compliment structures presented by Wolfson and Manes (1981), and sets of request strategies by Trosborg (1995). The quality of the books was evaluated and analyzed considering the afore-mentioned speech acts coverage in terms of frequency occurrences and strategy types.

Results

The present study investigated the pragmatic aspect of the speech acts of complaints, compliments, and request. With regards to complaints, the results of frequencies and percentages of each structure are presented in the following tables.

Table 1- Comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {Intro}	Book Title (Top Notch) {Fundamental A & B}
Expression of annoyance or disapproval	14	3
Request for repair	0	0
Criticism	1	5
Explicit complaint	0	1
Accusation & warning	0	0
Below the level of reproach	0	0
Others	3	1

As can be seen from Table 1, totally, eighteen complaint strategies are used in Interchange Intro while this included virtually above half (10) in Top Notch Fundamental. Apparently, Expression of annoyance or disapproval strategy is the dominant one in Interchange Intro, whereas Criticism response is the major one in Top Notch Fundamental. Concerning the rest of the structures, it should be mentioned that Request for repair, Accusation and warning, and Below the level of reproach are of zero frequency in both series-having occurred never in sum. Yet, Explicit complaint is ignored in Interchange Intro only. Some common examples of complaints used in these series are categorized in Table 2.

Table 2- Examples of complaint strategies Interchange and Top Notch Series

Strategies	Interchange Series	Top Notch Series
(1). Expression of annoyance or disapproval	it's a disaster	too bad I wasn't there
(2). Request for repair
(3). Criticism	my girlfriend cant bake a cake	even b The weather was so busy. It rained and was so cold
(4). Explicit complaint	I am too busy
(5). Accusation & warning
(6). Below the level of reproach
(7). Others	Oh, no. It's snowing and it's really cold	I wish I could draw

Table 3. Comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {1}	Book Title (Top Notch) {1 A & B}
Expression of annoyance or disapproval	8	5
Request for repair	0	0
Criticism	2	0
Explicit complaint	8	0
Accusation & warning	0	4
Below the level of reproach	0	0
Others	1	0



With regard to Table 3, it should be mentioned that the whole strategies applied in Interchange 1 are nineteen structures. However, this number reduces sharply to nine in Top Notch 1. Among these, responses as Expression of annoyance/disapproval and Explicit complaint are the most frequently used ones in Interchange 1 equally. Yet, Expression of annoyance/disapproval is the one distributed frequently along Top Notch 1 with a slight variation than that of Accusation and warning response. On the whole, Interchange 1 has given more importance to the instruction of complaint strategies in comparison to Top Notch 1, because in Interchange 1 Request for repair, Accusation and warning, and below the level of reproach structures are completely ignored, whereas in Top Notch 1 five strategies are of zero occurrences. Moreover, it is clear that Interchange 1 takes the face-threatening aspect of complaint strategy into consideration since it applies strategies of Criticism and Explicit complaint more substantially than Top Notch 1.

Table 4- Comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {2}	Book Title (Top Notch) {2 A & B}
Expression of annoyance or disapproval	8	8
Request for repair	9	0
Criticism	11	8
Explicit complaint	3	2
Accusation & warning	2	4
Below the level of reproach	0	0
Others	7	1

As it is illustrated in Table 4, in sum, forty strategies are distributed in Interchange 2, but this number is slightly above half in Top Notch 2 (23). Both series are exactly even in the usage of the structure of annoyance/disapproval, whereas Request for repair, Criticism, and Others responses occur virtually significantly in Interchange 2 than that of Top Notch 2. With regard to Accusation and warning, it is worth mentioning that it is of greater value in Top Notch 2 since it is used twice as many as Interchange 2.

Table 5- Comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {3}	Book Title (Top Notch) {3 A & B}
Expression of annoyance or disapproval	20	4
Request for repair	2	2
Criticism	22	13
Explicit complaint	10	6
Accusation & warning	7	10
Below the level of reproach	3	0
Others	3	5

It is obvious from Table 5 as the series level increases, the frequency of strategies increases too. Here, the most occurring structure is Criticism in both series. Then Expression of annoyance/



disapproval in Interchange 3 and Accusation and warning in Top Notch 3 play salient roles pertinent to expressing complaints. In addition, Expression of annoyance/disapproval is more dominant in Interchange 3 than Top Notch 3. The less occurring structures are Request for repair, Below the level of reproach, and Others. Nevertheless, Request for repair happens evenly and equally in both series while Below the level of reproach is more prominent in Interchange 3, but Others was more touchable in Top Notch 3.

Table 6- Comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {Intro	Book Title (Top Notch) {Fundamental A & B}
NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ	12	9
PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP	1	9
I intensifier like/love NP	0	3
You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	0	0
You V. NP. (really) ADV	0	0
You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	0	3
What (a) ADJ. NP!	0	0
ADJ. NP!	3	1
Isn't NP. ADJ!	0	0
Others	0	3

In terms of the second type of strategy in this investigation, that is, compliment, Table 5 represents that these structures are highly important in the series, especially in Top Notch Fundamental. To put it differently, the four strategies of You. V. (a) (really). Adj. NP., You. V. NP. (really). Adv., What. (a). Adj. NP!., and Isn't NP. Adj! are of zero frequency in both books. In respect to the rest of the responses at this level, NP. looks/is (intensifier). Adj. and Adj. NP! are used substantially in Interchange Intro than Top Notch Fundamental. However, clearly, Pro. Is. (intensifier). (a) Adj. NP. applies in Top Notch Fundamental increasingly in comparison to Interchange Intro. On the other hand, I. Intensifier. Like/Love. NP. and You. Have. (a) (really) Adj. NP. and Others responses are utilized equally in both series. Some of the compliment structures in both series are shown in Table 7.

Table 7- Examples of compliment strategies in Interchange and Top Notch Series

Strategies	Interchange Series	Top Notch Series
(1). NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ	It sounds like fun	This is gigantic
(2). PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ. NP	She is a wonderful actress	It is a real page-turner
(3). I intensifier like/love NP	I like your shirt	We love our house
(4). You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	Heroes drive around in flashy cars	I had a really hard time
(5). You V. NP. (really) ADV	People have always done creative things with trash
(6). You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	Have a great Holiday
(7). What (a) ADJ. NP!	What an interesting family	What incredible bread!
(8). ADJ. NP!	Nice car, Jason	Good luck
(9). Isn't NP. ADJ!
(10). Others	You can sing really well.	What a coincidence!



Table 8- Comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {1}	Book Title (Top Notch) {1 A & B}
NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ	17	17
PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP	10	2
I intensifier like/love NP	2	2
You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	0	1
You V. NP. (really) ADV	0	0
You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	6	0
What (a) ADJ. NP!	1	1
ADJ. NP!	1	2
Isn't NP. ADJ!	0	0
Others	4	6

The data in Table 6 suggest that in three cases the strategies are equally distributed in the series, particularly NP. looks/is (intensifier) (a) Adj. which is applied continuously. Nevertheless, the books are devoid of You. V. NP. (really) Adv., and Isn't NP. Adj!.. Likewise, Pro. is (intensifier) (a) Adj. NP responses are utilized considerably in Interchange 1. Another frequently seen strategy in Interchange 1 is You have (a) (really) Adj. NP. By contrast, the structure of Adj. NP! is used more narrowly in Top Notch 1 than that of Interchange 1. Moreover, Others spreads out rather substantially throughout Top Notch 1.

Table 9- Comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {2}	Book Title (Top Notch) {2 A & B}
NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ	14	9
PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP	3	2
I intensifier like/love NP	4	0
You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	0	0
You V. NP. (really) ADV	0	0
You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	0	0
What (a) ADJ. NP!	7	0
ADJ. NP!	0	2
Isn't NP. ADJ!	15	0
Others	0	25

According to Table 7, Interchange 2 enjoys forty three compliment strategies, but thirty eight strategies are found in Top Notch 2. Apparently, Interchange 2 has the most frequency of this sort of speech act. Similarly, both series are equal in the number of zero strategies. Concerning the strategies of NP. looks/is (intensifier) Adj., Pro. is (intensifier). (a). Adj., I. (Intensifier). Like/love NP, What. (a)/(an). Adj. NP!., Interchange 2 witnesses a considerable trend in the use of such responses as the level of the book fluctuates. On the contrary, Top Notch 2 takes the precedence of Adj. NP!., especially with regard to Others.

Table 10- Comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {3}	Book Title (Top Notch) {3 A & B}
NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ	7	8
PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP	7	10
I intensifier like/love NP	2	0
You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	4	0
You V. NP. (really) ADV	0	5
You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP.	2	1
What (a) ADJ. NP!	0	1
ADJ. NP!	1	2
Isn't NP. ADJ!	0	0
Others	7	16

Based on the data analysis in Table 8, the distribution of strategies in both series is not proportionally equal save for Isn't NP. Adj.! which is of zero frequency in both. In addition, in contrast to Table 7, Table 8 provides an increased frequency of making use of compliment speech act since the proficiency level of the books increase. Obviously, there are three high frequency responses in Interchange 3 NP. Looks/is (intensifier) Adj., Pro. is (intensifier) (a) Adj. NP, and Others, whereas there is just one highly-frequent structure in Top Notch 3 which is Others. In respect to the remaining speech acts, more weight is on I. intensifier like/love NP. You. V. (a) (really) Adj. NP., You have (a) (really) Adj. NP.

Table 11- Comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {Intro}	Book Title (Top Notch) {Fundamental A & B}
Direct Obligation	0	0
Performatives	0	0
Imperatives	1	3
Conventionally indirect ability	4	2
Willingness	0	1
Permission	1	0
Suggestory formulae	0	2
Conventionally indirect Wishes	0	1
Desires/needs	0	0
Indirect Hints	0	0
Others	2	0

As can be seen from Table 9, the total number of request speech acts in Top Notch Fundamental is quite higher than Interchange Intro. The application of such responses at this level directs attention to a highly frequent speech act, that is, Conventionally indirect (ability) in Interchange Intro and Imperatives in Top Notch Fundamental. There are four strategies with zero occurrences as Direct obligation, Performatives, Desire/needs, and Indirect hints. At this level, Top Notch Fundamental includes strategies with higher repetition in comparison to Interchange In-



tro since Imperatives, Willingness, Suggestory formulae, and Conventionally indirect are virtually more frequent. Below there are Examples of request strategies identified in Interchange and Top Notch Series.

Table 12- Examples of request strategies identified in Interchange and Top Notch Series

Strategies	Interchange Series	Top Notch Series
Direct Obligation
Performatives	I will ask her to meet us for coffee	I'd like you to meet Kate
Imperatives	Turn down the T.V, please	Please tell her Tim called
Conventionally indirect (ability)	Can I see your notes from class today?	Could you drop the car off?
Willingness	What would you like to know?	Would you like to join me?
Permission	I've sent my resume to lots of local companies	Do you mind if I call you Kazuko?
Suggestory formulae	I'd like you to meet . . .	What about watching Sergio Mendes
Conventionally indirect (wishes)	I'd prefer someone I have something in common with	I'd like coffee
Desires/needs	I need a job I can do	I need some cultural advice
Indirect hints	I've sent my resume to lots of local companies	This tooth is killing me

Others The school board directed Ms. Pellton to change the school policy I'm going to meet rental car in Dubai

Table 13- Comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4 th ed.) {Interchange 1}	Book Title (Top Notch) {1 A & B}
Direct Obligation	0	0
Performatives	0	0
Imperatives	2	9
Conventionally indirect ability	1	1
Willingness	2	3
Permission	5	1
Suggestory formulae	0	1
Conventionally indirect Wishes	0	0
Desires/needs	1	2
Indirect Hints	1	0
Others	0	1

From the data in Table 10 we can interpreted that Top Notch 1 has given a considerable importance to the instruction of request speech acts because it takes them into consideration increasingly in comparison to Interchange 1 at this level. Clearly, the series at this stage have five zero strategies. Similarly, they are even in using Ability in expressing request structures. As for responses of Imperatives, Willingness, Suggestory formulae, and Desires/needs, Top Notch 1 enjoys superiority over Interchange 1 among which Imperatives is the most outstanding strategy. Moreover, the two speech acts of Permission and Indirect hints are less applied in Top Notch 1 than that of Interchange 1.

Table 14- Comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange 2 Top Notch 2 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4th ed.) {Interchange 2}	Book Title (Top Notch) {2 A & B}
Direct Obligation	0	0
Performatives	0	0
Imperatives	3	2
Conventionally indirect ability	5	4
Willingness	4	2
Permission	0	0
Suggestory formulae	1	0
Conventionally indirect Wishes	0	2
Desires/needs	2	3
Indirect Hints	1	3
Others	0	0

Table 11 is quite revealing in several ways. First, unlike the other tables, the number of applied structures in both series is equal. However, they are dissimilar in terms of frequencies utilized in the series. In other words, for instance, the strategies of Direct obligation, Performatives, Permission, and Others have a frequency of zero throughout both books. As to unequal responses, Interchange 2 is increasingly dominant over Top Notch 2. Broadly speaking, Imperatives, Ability, Willingness, and Suggestory formulae responses have increasing frequencies in Interchange 2 in comparison with Top Notch 2, respectively. With regard to strategies with higher frequencies in Top Notch 2, they include Wishes, Desires/needs, and Indirect hints.

Table 15- Comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B)

Strategies	Book Title (Interchange 4th ed.) {Interchange 3}	Book Title (Top Notch) {3 A & B}
Direct Obligation	0	0
Performatives	1	0
Imperatives	1	0
Conventionally indirect ability	0	2
Willingness	2	2
Permission	0	0
Suggestory formulae	0	0
Conventionally indirect Wishes	1	0
Desires/needs	1	5
Indirect Hints	3	5
Others	3	4

As Table 12 depicts, at upper intermediate level, speech acts magnitude center on Top Notch 3 with a significant gap among responses. Both series have equal frequency occurrences among Direct obligation, Willingness, Permission, and Suggestory formulae. Yet, the series differ quite considerably with respect to Ability, Desires/needs, Indirect hints, and Others which have higher frequency, in particular with Desires/needs and Indirect hints in Top Notch 3. On the other hand,



Interchange 3 enjoys an increasing frequency in regard to Performatives, Imperatives, and Wishes than Top Notch 3.

Discussion

As it was mentioned in methodology section, this study made a pragmatic contrastive analysis among the speech acts of complaint, compliment, and request, respectively. From the above-mentioned analysis it was inferred that both series covered a large variety of speech act structures, especially as the level of the books increased. However, on the whole, it was proved that Interchange Series were substantially dominant over Top Notch Series regarding the application of such responses. Totally, the number of these speech acts in Interchange Series included 322, but it was 286 strategies in Top Notch Series.

The first research question posed by the study was whether or not complaint strategies identified in Interchange and Top Notch Series differed in terms of their frequencies in Interchange and Top Notch Series. To answer this question, the data analysis depicted that there was a significant difference in the frequency of complaint strategies in the two series since Interchange Series included 140 structures while this number was 85 in Top Notch Series (See Tables 1, 3, 4, & 5). This reveals that Interchange Series provide learners with abundant opportunities for daily interaction. In addition, there was a rather remarkable degree of face threatening nature of complaints in the series, especially Interchange Series which was often expressed in the form of anger, displeasure and dissatisfaction. Therefore, there exists an adequacy for meeting the learners' needs and interests with regard to complaints and intend to prepare learners for more communicative authentic opportunities achieving the pragmatic and communicative competence that one needs to act efficiently in English and beyond that and provid learners with ample pragmatic input. Thus, these findings enjoy an intimate compatibility with surveys held with Soliemani and Dabbagh (2012) on the pragmatic and communicative adequacy of New Interchange Series in the Iranian ELT context.

The second question addressed by the study was «Do compliment strategies identified in Interchange and Top Notch Series differ in terms of their frequencies?» To answer this question, the analysis of these strategies revealed that there was a rather substantial distinction between the two series (140 responses in Top Notch Series and 130 in Interchange Series). (See Tables 6, 8, 9, & 10). This is an indication of the fact that Top Notch Series are better suited for teaching such structures because they are pragmatically and communicatively more appropriate and richer than that of Interchange Series. In addition, it is claimed that with respect to compliment responses Interchange Series suffered from a rather insufficiency of L2 pragmatics which can be due to the fact that many textbooks either did not present or they presented the speech acts unrealistically. Thereby, there is a correlation between the results of this study and Bardovi-Harlig (1996).

Yet, another question addressed by the present study was whether request strategies identified in the Interchange and Top Notch Series differed in terms of their frequencies. It should be mentioned that concerning these acts in the series, the books faced major shortcomings to provide students with sufficient and rich structures due to relatively low frequencies in the series (See Tables 11, 13, 14, & 15). Obviously, the conversations and reading passages in these series, in particular, Top Notch Series were not pragmatically efficacious and functional. The results of the

study indicated that the series failed to include materials which are needed for meaningful and face saving communication when resort to different kinds of requests was required. This study produced results which corroborate the upshots gained by study of Soozandehfar and Sahragard (2011) and Koosha and Dastjerdi (2012) who evaluated the conversation sections of Top Notch Fundamental textbooks pragmatically concerning speech acts and New Interchange Series I, II, and III in terms of request structures.

The last question addressed by the study was whether there was any statistically significant difference in the proportion of the three speech acts identified in this study. To answer this question, the data were analyzed by means of a Pearson Chi-square (which is the nonparametric analysis) so as to explore whether or not there was any meaningful difference between the proportions of the three sorts of speech acts in the series. In terms of the proportion of complaint speech acts, Chi-square analysis indicated that the speech act of complaint was not evenly and equally distributed in these series, except for Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3. Regarding compliment strategy proportion, the speech act of compliment was not proportionally shared out in Intro, Top Notch Fundamental, Interchange 2, and Top Notch 2, whereas this claim could not be made for the other two levels. As it is evident from Chi-square results concerning the proportion of request structures, the analysis showed rather odd results, because, proportionally, this speech act was distributed evenly in all series. Thus, it can be concluded that such results proves the claim made by Tavakoli (1995). These analyses are shown in the tables below.

As the Pearson Chi-square analysis in Table 16 depicts, since the probability value of .01 is significant at the level .05, it can be claimed that the frequency occurrences of complaint strategies distribute evenly and normally in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B).

Table 16- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.343 ^a	3	.016
Likelihood Ratio	10.749	3	.013
Linear-by-Linear Association	.881	1	.348
N of Valid Cases	28		

Regarding the Pearson Chi-Square results in Table 17, it is clear that since the significance level of .008 is less than the alpha level of .05, this is an indication of the considerable difference among complaint structures being used in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B).



Table 17- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.893 ^a	4	.008
Likelihood Ratio	17.841	4	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.000	1	.987
N of Valid Cases	28		

As can be seen from Table 18, a significant difference was reported among complaint responses in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B) since the significant level of .05 is equal to the probability value of .05. This reveals that complaint strategies were not well-distributed throughout the series.

Table 18- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.058 ^a	5	.050
Likelihood Ratio	14.251	5	.014
Linear-by-Linear Association	.449	1	.503
N of Valid Cases	63		

In contrast to the three previous tables, It is noticeable in Table 19 that complaint strategies are not significantly different at the level of .05 in terms of their proportion which means Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B) follow an equal pattern in presenting such strategies (p-value: .063 >.05).

Table 19- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of complaint strategies used in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.959 ^a	6	.063
Likelihood Ratio	13.304	6	.038
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.979	1	.014
N of Valid Cases	107		

With regard to Table 20, after checking with the Pearson Chi-Square in cross tabulation table, since the p-value of .01 is less than the actual alpha level of .05, this difference indicates that there is a major difference between the proportion of compliment structures in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B).

Table 20- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.645 ^a	5	.012
Likelihood Ratio	18.000	5	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	.987	1	.320
N of Valid Cases	44		

According to Table 21, the results of the Pearson Chi-Square reveals that because the value of .10 is greater than the probability value of .05, it can be concluded that there is not any significant difference pertinent to compliment strategies throughout Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B).

Table 21- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange 1 Top Notch 1 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.907 ^a	7	.104
Likelihood Ratio	14.875	7	.038
Linear-by-Linear Association	.267	1	.605
N of Valid Cases	72		

Based on the Pearson Chi-Square statistical analysis in Table 22, because the significance level of .000 is less than the actual alpha level of .05, this means that there is a considerable difference between the compliment responses available in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B).

Table 22- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	54.185 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	74.462	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.998	1	.008
N of Valid Cases	81		



As it is axiomatic from the Pearson Chi-Square data in Table 23, compliment strategies are not significantly different at the level of .05 in terms of their proportion since the value of .60 is greater than p-value of .05.

Table 23- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of compliment strategies used in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.943 ^a	8	.060
Likelihood Ratio	19.204	8	.014
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.793	1	.181
N of Valid Cases	73		

The results obtained from the analysis of the Pearson Chi-Square in Table 24 present that request strategies are not significant at the level of .05 in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B) for the value of .19 is greater than the significance level of .05.

Table 24- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange Intro and Top Notch Fundamental (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.638 ^a	6	.195
Likelihood Ratio	11.371	6	.078
Linear-by-Linear Association	.600	1	.439
N of Valid Cases	17		

According to Table 25, the Pearson Chi-Square analysis illustrates that there is no meaningful distinction among the proportion of request responses in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B), because the probability value of .19 is greater than the actual level of .05.

Table 25- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange 1 and Top Notch 1 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.848 ^a	7	.197
Likelihood Ratio	11.221	7	.129
Linear-by-Linear Association	.948	1	.330
N of Valid Cases	30		

Statistical analysis of the Pearson Chi-Square in Table 26 reveals that since the value of .52 is higher than the p-value of .05, there is not a considerable positive correlation among request strategies throughout Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B).

Table 26- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange 2 and Top Notch 2 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.178 ^a	6	.521
Likelihood Ratio	6.399	6	.380
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.087	1	.149
N of Valid Cases	32		

From the data obtained in Table 27, the results concerning the Pearson Chi-Square report that the value of .38 is not meaningful at the $p=.05$. Thereby, request responses are equally distributed in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B).

Table 27- Crosstabs for comparing frequency of request strategies used in Interchange 3 and Top Notch 3 (A & B)

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.406 ^a	7	.388
Likelihood Ratio	9.283	7	.233
Linear-by-Linear Association	.602	1	.438
N of Valid Cases	30		

Conclusion and practical implications

As it was mentioned earlier, this study essayed to compare and contrast the occurrences of complaint, compliment, and request speech acts in the two internationally-recognized English Series of Interchange and Top Notch. Generally, the books prove to demonstrate structures of complaints and compliments adequately in terms of frequencies except for requests since these series are pragmatically and functionally rich in these speech acts. However, concerning strategy types for each speech act, the focus is mainly on one or two particular structures, while totally ignoring others or paying less attention to them. In other words, some complaint strategies are dominant such as Expression of annoyance/disapproval and Criticism, NP. (Is/looks) (really) ADJ. in compliments, and Ability and Permission among request responses. Ergo, the answer to the first three research questions is a big YES. As the second stage, the study deals with investigating the proportions of the three types of speech acts and whether or not there is a statistically significant difference between their proportions through all the eight levels of the series.



The implications of this study are for the institutions and material developers, and EFL/ESL teachers in order to better consider textbooks from the pragmatics side and gather best options for their purposes or provide any more supplementary sources to empower the pragmatic dimension. The explicit teaching of language functions and speech acts can be a solution for teachers to the pitfalls of textbooks in this area. Likewise, this study contributes useful implications for the authors of these series to assess them with careful scrutiny in terms of complaints, compliments, and request responses in order to gain a more cohesive and comprehensive framework in this regard, and supply their addressees with adequate and appropriate materials they need to learn and apply in real life in order to make successful communication.

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Textbook evaluation: A case study of Prospect 1 based on an evaluative checklist

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Abstract

This is a material evaluation study performed in Mashhad. This study has evaluated Prospect 1, the newly published book by the Ministry of Education of Iran in 2013. This research is mainly a qualitative study. 40 teachers who have taught Prospect 1 for about a year evaluated the book based on the checklist developed by Ghorbani (2011). The researcher also interviewed seven of the teachers. All of the teachers claimed that Prospect 1 is much better than the old high school books. Furthermore, they mentioned some disadvantages; grammar and writing are not taken into consideration, no pronunciation practice is involved, English is supplied through Persian culture to name mostly mentioned ones. Prospect 1 is very simple and boring to students who have studied English beforehand. The researcher hopes that the needs and recommendations reflected in this study would pave the way for other researches. Besides, the findings could be helpful for textbook developers as well as teachers.

Key Words: Textbook, evaluation, checklist

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Introduction

Based on the three concentric circles of Asian Englishes (Kachru, 1998, p. 94, cited in Baker, 2003), Iran is embedded in the expanding circle in which English language is primarily considered as a foreign language. Since English is a foreign language in Iran, there is little English speaking outside of the classroom or in media. Learning English occurs only in language classrooms, whether schools or private English institutes. Textbook is the main tool to provide English language learning in Iranian classrooms. Textbooks also help students to learn English outside of classrooms (Rivers, 1981). In previous years, the English books taught at Iranian schools followed the old method of teaching English, Grammar Translation Method (GTM). Textbooks had been evaluated based on grammar, communicative tasks and activities, the correction of errors and the role of the teacher and the learners, and it had been revealed that the focus of the school books were on grammar and reading (Razmjoo, 2007). The newest book designed for school students studying at the seventh grade is Prospect 1, published in 2013, by the Ministry of Education of Iran. The book follows Communicative Language Teaching method (CLT). Material evaluation would signify how effectively the newly published book can meet the needs of the users of the textbook. According to Tomlinson, 'material evaluation involves making judgments about the effect of materials on the people using them' (2003, p. 15). He states that the evaluation must be based on certain principle, and these principles should be made before the evaluation is performed in order to gain greater validity and reliability (Tomlinson, 2003)

Review of Literature

'Course books are prepackaged, published books used by the students and teachers as the primary basis for a language course' (Nunan, 2003, p. 226). Hutchinson and Torres (1994) claim that textbook is a global device to teach ELT. Sheldon (1988) regards textbook as 'the visible heart of any ELT program' (p. 237). The techniques that teachers do in the classroom need materials for support and enhancement (Brown, 2001). According to Brown 'the most obvious and most common form of material support for language instruction comes through textbooks' (2001, p.136). Selection of a textbook makes 'professional, financial and political investment' (Sheldon, 1988, p. 237). In accordance with choosing a book, teachers are of two kinds; some look for the best sellers, and others search for books which have not been taught in other places (Yaghoubi Nezhad, Atarodi & Khalili, 2013). However, the great number of teachers should follow an obliged syllabus and chosen materials (MC Carthy & Carter, 1994). Selection or development of a book, apart from financial issues, has a long- lasting effect on English language learners' future (Cunningsworth, 1995).

On the one hand there are some scholars who are in favor of using a textbook. 'Framework, syllabus, ready- made texts and tasks, economy, convenience, guidance and autonomy' (Ur, 1996, p. 184) are what could be stated as the advantages of using a textbook. On the other hand some are against the use of the books. 'Inadequacy, irrelevance, lack of interest, limitations, homogeneity, and over- easiness' are the points mentioned against using a textbook (Ur, 1996, p. 185).

Gower, Philips and Walters (1995) state that the success of a course book as a tool is mainly dependent upon how teachers use it. Ansary and Babaii also put it this way, 'However perfect a textbook is, it is just a simple tool in the hands of teachers. We should not, therefore, expect to



work miracles with it. What is more important than a textbook is what we, as teachers, can do with it' (2002, concluding remarks section). Every educational system has got positive and negative points of its own, instead of expecting revolutions, a teacher can do some bottom-up change, and foster innovation in her/ his own context (Ghapanchi & Sabouri, 2013). Books should guide, and not dictate (Cunningsworth, 1995). If a teacher is not conscious enough, and becomes a slave to the book, (s) he will become a puppet (Hossinni, 1997). Teachers should learn to benefit from textbooks, and not get controlled by them (Nunan, 2003).

Tomlinson believes that materials could be the name of anything that eases language learning and teaching (in Carter & Nunan, 2001). According to Tomlinson (2003) material evaluation measures how valuable the materials are. Cunningsworth (1995) declares the importance of material evaluation as choosing or developing a textbook requires a vast sum of money and more importantly it will affect the future of many English language learners.

Wang (1999) believes that evaluations are mostly based on checklists or scoring systems that are believed to reduce subjectivity and gravitates to objectivity. Mukundan (2004) states that checklist is the only way to do the evaluation of a book, and also suggests that checklist can be supported by other instruments. Celce- Murcia declares that providing a reasonable and inclusive checklist is very challenging since there is a need of different checklists for different classes in different settings (2001, 3rd ed.).

Previous researches would pave the way for a new researcher in a way that how to perform material evaluation. However, as Prospect 1 is a new book published in 2013, it is hard to find researches concerned with its evaluation. There is a hope that the present research will provide useful information and suggestions for the EFL teaching context in Iran.

Methodology

This research is a material evaluation study using a qualitative approach. The means of the answers to the checklist criteria are also represented through bar charts.

Participants

The participants include 40 (19 female and 21 male) teachers who have taught Prospect 1 for about a year (six months to be exact). The teachers of this study aged 30 to 60. They have got 5 to 40 years of experience. Almost all of them were educated in English language teaching, and only one of them has studied a totally unrelated major. Seven (5 female and 2 male) out of the 40 teachers participated in the interview regarding the evaluation of Prospect 1. The first lesson of Prospect 1 as a sample is provided for interested readers in appendix section (see appendix 2).

Instruments

The researcher has examined some valid checklists, and among them has chosen Ghorbani's checklist (2011) including 50 questions under seven main categories. He has developed this checklist three years earlier to evaluate the old books taught at Iranian high schools. Ghorbani (2011) has utilized several checklists in addition to some criteria of his own to design a localized checklist suitable for the Iranian school books.

The reasons for choosing this checklist for the present research are stated in the following lines. The checklist is localized as mentioned before and the items are designed especially for Iranian school books. This material evaluation tool is comprehensive, and as it was discussed above Ghorbani (2011) has utilized some worldwide significant checklists in order to develop this checklist; most of the criteria are identical and they are general criteria. Another important matter is that although the checklist is localized, it involves general criteria, and at the same time it meets the requirements of an economic checklist. The criteria of Ghorbani's checklist (2011) are provided in the appendix section (see appendix 1).

Another instrument utilized for the present study is an open- ended interview. Dörnyei (2007,p. 136) describes an open- ended interview as 'although there is a set of pre- prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open- ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner'.

Procedure

The researcher distributed the mentioned checklist among the teachers of various areas of Mashhad such as Ahmad Abad, Sattary, Ghasem Abad, Kolahduz, Sanabad and etc. First the researcher telephoned the schools and talked to the principals to know when the seventh grade school teachers attend at school, and when they are free to answer to the checklist questions. The researcher assured the teachers that they would stay anonymous. Among the 45 teachers, four of them did not return the checklist at all, and one of them returned it unanswered. The teachers who filled the checklist in the presence of the researcher did it usually around a quarter. The collection of the checklists took about two months. The checklists were distributed in March and April, 2014. That was the time when more than half of the school year had passed and teachers knew about the book, and how well it had performed since then. The interview also occurred at the same time to seven volunteer teachers who had a greater amount of free time to describe Prospect 1 in a more detailed manner. The interviews took 10 to 30 minutes each. Concerning the time, some teachers just discussed advantages and disadvantages of Prospect 1 very quickly, while other teachers in addition to merits and demerits answered some questions regarding culture, background knowledge and etc. The teachers performed the evaluation based on almost a year that the newly published book was distributed all through the Iranian schools. However, as the teachers and the students were still dealing with Prospect 1 during the research study, the researcher conducted a whilst- use evaluation concerning Prospect 1.

Results

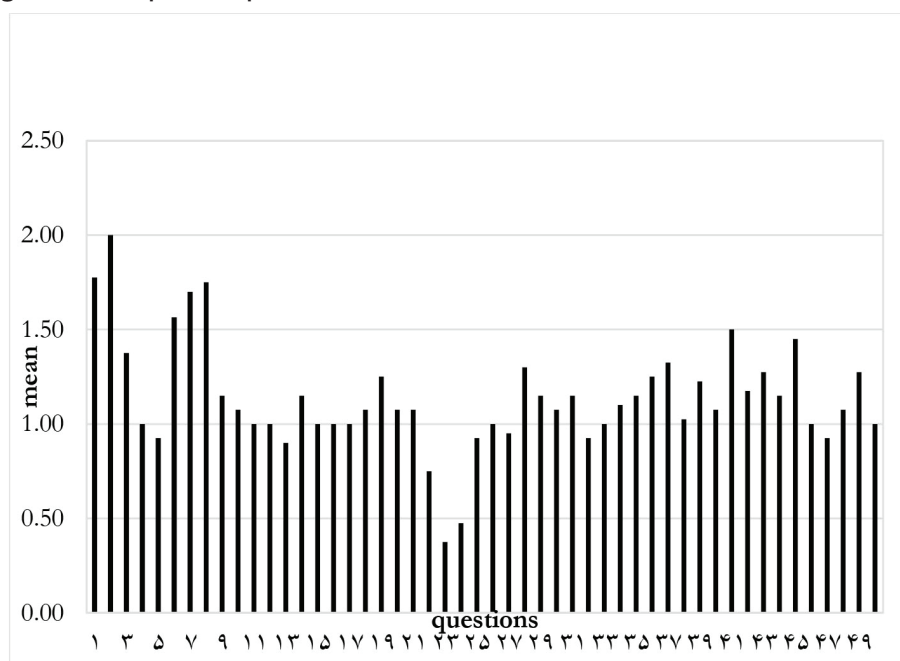
Results of the Textbook Evaluation Checklist

Considering the answers to the checklist questions, different teachers have different ideas. Their answers are presented in a qualitative manner. Regarding practical considerations which is suitable to almost all the participants, all the teachers agree that the price of Prospect 1 is reasonable; the book is locally available in most cases; physical appearance, the appropriateness of the



mixture of texts and graphics and the layout are average; effective use of the heading is chiefly good; a large number of teachers believe the book is locally appropriate, and the size, weight and title are suitable. The second category evaluates skills. More than half of the teachers (between 20 and 25 among 40) are satisfied with how the textbook has dealt with the four skills. Ten teachers are unsatisfied with the integration of skills which is the highest number of discontentment in this section. Concerning the third main category, most of the teachers believe that the activities and exercises of the book promote learners' language development. Most of the elements of this part of evaluation checklist are satisfactory to many of the teachers. However, stress, intonation and grammar are scored 0 by more than half of the teachers, and none of the participants have scored it 2. Prospect 1 lacks pronunciation and grammar practice. Pedagogical analysis is the next section that regarding the first question, whether the book is methodologically in line with current worldwide theories and practices of language learning, the three values resemble. The same is true about the match between the book and the syllabus alongside the time allowance; various answers to this question are logical because the mentioned variables differ from one school to another. On the whole, this section could be rated as average. The appropriateness of the book in accordance with the objectives, being up to date, level of students and etc. is chiefly satisfactory. The highest score indicates that more than half of the teachers believe the material is relevant to real life which is in line with one of the main goals of CLT method. Supplementary materials build the sixth main category involving teacher's book, work book and CD. Regarding the teacher's book, most of the teachers have scored 1 and 2, while a few of them consider it poor. The same results are revealed about the workbook section. In accordance with the CD, most of the teachers are satisfied with the quality. General impression as the last main category is average to most of the teachers, and they have scored it 1 generally. As we have reviewed the evaluation of Prospect 1 via the checklist, the teachers predominantly scored the book as satisfactory.

Figure 1- Graphic Representation of the Means of the Checklist Questions

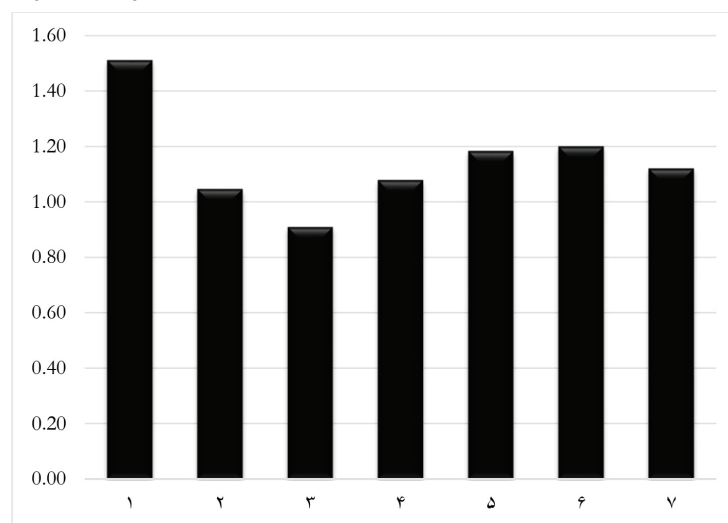


This bar chart depicts how teachers have evaluated each single question of the material evaluation checklist. The scoring system includes 2 for good, 1 for satisfactory and 0 for poor.

Table 1- Means of the Seven Main Categories

Categories	Means
1	1.51
2	1.05
3	0.91
4	1.08
5	1.18
6	1.20
7	1.12

Figure 2- Graphic Representation of the Means of the Seven Main Categories



The preceding bar chart demonstrates an overall description of how teachers have evaluated Prospect 1 on the basis of the checklist's seven main categories. As the graph represents, the mean of the first category, 'practical considerations', is close to two. Thus it is the most suitable part to the teachers. On the other hand, the mean of the third main category, 'exercises and activities', is below one. So the book regarding this category has got the least satisfaction among the teachers. The second section of the checklist that evaluates skills comes after section three concerning dissatisfaction. The mean of the second main category is above one, though. 'Appropriacy' and 'supplementary materials' are approximately a tie, and satisfactory to the teachers. On the whole, because the mean of almost all the categories are above one, we can conclude that the new book is satisfactory to most of the teachers.

The Evaluation of Prospect 1 Based on Interviews

As stated before, seven teachers out of 40 participated in the interview. Some of these teachers have taught English to students who did not receive any English language knowledge previously whereas other teachers have experienced teaching Prospect 1 to those students who had



studied English in primary school or private English institutes. They expressed positive and negative points about prospect 1. Generally the teachers believe that the new book is much better than the old book that just focused on reading and grammar. One of the main advantages of Prospect 1 is that it follows Communicative Language Teaching method; the method which aims to enable students to establish effective communication as mentioned by Tomlinson (2005). Almost all the teachers argue that learning a language cannot be apart from learning its culture. Larsen-Freeman (2000) also states this regarding CLT; some aspects of culture are especially significant in order to communicate. However, the book only represents Iranian culture as well as pictures. It has also been mentioned by one of the teachers that first students are going to be introduced to English as a foreign language through their own culture, and then in other English for School books the new culture would also be introduced. Based on this claim, the final judgment will be delayed until the pack of the English for School is complete. Picture is another concern of the teachers who believe it descends motivation. Based on the principles of CLT method that Larsen-Freeman (2000) explains, it involves all the four skills. However, the teachers claim that writing skill and the integration of the four skills are not taken into consideration in Prospect 1. Besides, although function is emphasized over form, form is as well taken into consideration (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The teachers mention that grammar, pronunciation and its components, stress and intonation, have no place in the book. Fluency and accuracy activities are both involved in CLT method (Larsen-Freeman 2000). As the teachers declare, there are, nevertheless, no activities concentrating on these subjects, while students are supposed to become accustomed with authentic communication. Since the book is written for the students who are exposed to English language learning for the first time, and they have very little chance to use the language outside of the classroom, two hours a week seems rather short to teachers. Even though, some of the teachers who have taught at private schools do not complain about the time, because according to them the schools furnish the English language classes with more time. The teachers chiefly claim that in order to make the best use of the book, it is better to start teaching it in the primary school not high school. On the basis of the background knowledge, the book does not answer students' needs and teachers' expectations. In such situations Prospect 1 would become less satisfactory.

It could be concluded from the interviews that the role of the teacher plays an important part to teach English to students both with and without background knowledge; the book needs some adaptations to reach the CLT goals though.

On the whole by considering the results, the new book published by the Ministry of Education of Iran shows levels of improvement in comparison to the old school books. The teachers claimed the same issue, alongside some disadvantages mentioned above.

Conclusion

Whether Prospect 1 answer teachers' expectations and their students' needs, based on the research study, the answer depends on the background knowledge. If the students' mind is a blank sheet with no English knowledge, and Prospect 1 is truly their first experience of English language learning, the book, not completely of course, answers the needs and expectations. But if the students have English background knowledge, the needs and expectations differ. In accordance with that, the book becomes so simple and at times boring for the class.



The main strong points of Prospect 1 to the teachers, who participated in an interview, were the CLT method and paying attention to all the four skills. The weaknesses of the book to them were not taking the culture into consideration, no grammar and no pronunciation practice, time limitation, no interesting and motivating pictures and Farsi pronunciation to name the greatly mentioned ones.

In order to improve teaching English as a foreign language in Iran, some teachers provided suggestions. Some believe that native book works better. Others on the other hand are satisfied with Prospect 1. Nevertheless, the weaknesses which have just been mentioned (e.g. culture, grammar, pronunciation, and etc.) are asked to be taken into consideration. Generally the teachers blame that two hours a week is not enough to achieve a good result. Another noteworthy matter is that the teachers believe students should start learning English as a foreign language from primary school.

The present study tries to describe the book through the teacher's evaluation. Prospect 1 is the first published book from a pack called English for Schools that consists of six books. Although it is hard to judge a series based on just one book, the outcomes of the present study could be useful in order to reflect the needs and expectations of the students and the teachers. The results which have been achieved through both the evaluation process and the interviews could supply the textbook writers and publishers with some adaptations to be taken into consideration to broaden this enhancement and provide the most perfect materials for the rest of the series.

Definitely this evaluation study needs to be replicated in order to define the book on the basis of the long term goals and more importantly long term memory. Because Tomlinson (2003) believes that the post- use evaluation, which provides us with the mentioned results, is the most comprehensive kind of evaluation that could be performed. Since the book is newly published (in 2013), such an evaluation could not be achieved, thus another evaluation of Prospect 1 was substituted. Whilst- use as well as post- use evaluations are necessary regarding the other new books from English for School series. When the pack is complete and all the books are utilized, the results concerning how much Prospect books answer the needs, and how much they prepare students for future, will be of great importance.

In addition, another significant factor is that the present research study is only based on what teachers think about the book, and how they view Prospect 1. So there is a need for a research that students' ideas could also be taken into consideration to express their views toward the book. Such results could be compared with teacher's ideas or complete the findings.



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Appendix 1- Material Evaluation Checklist

This part represents the textbook evaluation checklist that Ghorbani (2011, pp. 517- 518) has developed.

Criteria for EFL textbook evaluation

Merit Score

A. Practical Considerations

1. Is it available locally?
2. Is it cost- effective?
3. Is the physical appearance interesting and attractive?
4. Is there an appropriate mix of graphics and text?
5. Is the layout clear and well- organized?
6. Are the headings effectively used?
7. Is it appropriate for local situation?
8. Does it have an appropriate size, weight and title?

B. Skills

9. Are the skills presented in the textbook appropriate to the course?
10. Does the textbook provide learners with adequate guidance as they are acquiring these skills?
11. Do the skills that are presented in the textbook include a wide range of cognitive skills that will be challenging to learners?
12. Is the balance between listening, speaking, reading and writing skills development in the book appropriate to the particular learners and learning situation?
13. Is the skills integration given sufficient attention?
14. Is the development of discourse and fluency skills given sufficient attention?

C. Exercises and Activities

15. Do the exercises and activities in the textbook promote learners' language development?
16. Is there a balance controlled and free exercises?
17. Do the exercises and activities reinforce what students have already learned and represent a progression from simple to more complex?
18. Are the exercises and activities varied in format so that they will continually motivate and challenge learners?
19. Are there activities for communicative interaction and the development of communicative strategies?
20. Are new structures presented systematically and in a meaningful context?
21. Is the meaning of new vocabulary presented in context?
22. Is there sufficient work on recognition and production of individual sounds for pronunciation practice?
23. Is there sufficient work on recognition and production of stress patterns and intonation?
24. Is there a summary of new and reviewed grammar?
25. In general are the activities in the book neither too difficult nor too easy for the learners?

D. Pedagogic Analysis

26. Is the book methodologically in line with current worldwide theories and practices of language learning?
27. Does the book contain adequate formal learner achievement tests?
28. Is the book enabling learners to use English outside the classroom situation?
29. Is the book sufficiently challenging to learners?
30. Are there mechanisms for giving regular feedback to learners?
31. Are new items reviewed and recycled throughout the book?
32. Does the book match the syllabus of the school to a sufficient extent?
Is the time allowance indicated appropriate?

E. Appropriacy

33. Are the materials, instructions, language focus and activities in general appropriate for the learners?
34. Will the textbook meet the long and short term goals specific to the learners?



35. Does the material match learner objectives?
 36. Does the material facilitate interactive learning?
 37. Is the material socio-culturally appropriate?
 38. Is the material up-to-date?
 39. Are vocabulary and comprehensible input levels well-graded?
 40. Is the material age-appropriate?
 41. Is the material relevant to real life?
- F. Supplementary Materials
42. Is a teacher's book available and does it give useful and complete guidance, along with alternative activities?
 43. Is a workbook available and does it contain appropriate supplementary activities?
 44. Are audio-visual aids accompanied? And are they of good quality?
- G. General Impression
45. Does it have clear objectives & instructions?
 46. Does it include reasonable balance & range in skills and activities?
 47. Does it motivate learners by pleasurable activities or arouse learner interest?
 48. Does it provide a variety of Communicative activities? Does it promote the use of information/opinion gap?
 49. Is the cultural tone of the book overall appropriate for use in the setting?
 50. Does the book encourage learners to assume responsibility for their own learning?



Appendix 2- The First Lesson of Prospect 1:

Lesson 1
My Name

Lesson 1

My Name

Conversation



Listen to the English teacher greeting his students in class.



Teacher: Hi, class

Students: Hello, Teacher.

Teacher: Thank you, sit down, please. I'm your English teacher.

My name is Ahmad Karimi.

Now, you tell me your names.

What's your name?

Student 1: My name is Ali Mohammadi.

Teacher: How are you, Ali?

Student 1: Fine, thank you.

Teacher: And what's your name?

Student 2: My name is

6

six



Practice 1 ⇨ Greeting

Listen to the examples. Then ask and answer with a classmate/your teacher.

<p>Hi, Ali. Hello, Maryam.</p>	<p>Hi, Reza. Hello, Kimia.</p>
<p>How are you? How are you today?</p>	<p>Fine, thanks / thank you. Great, thanks.</p>
<p>Good morning. Good afternoon. Good morning.</p>	<p>Good morning, Mrs. Azari. Good afternoon, Miss Moniri. Good morning, Mr. Ahmadi.</p>



Practice 2 ⇨ Introducing Yourself

Listen to the examples. Then ask and answer with a classmate.

<p>What's your name?</p>	<p>My name's Ali. I'm Ali.</p>
<p>What's your first name? What's your last name?</p>	<p>My first name is Mina. My last name is Karimi.</p>



Lesson 1
My Name

Sounds and Letters



Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff Gg Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq Rr Ss Tt Uu Vv Ww Xx Yy Zz

Listen to the teacher greeting her students in class.

Teacher: Hi, class! I am Moradi, your English teacher.

Class: Hello, Mrs. Moradi.

Teacher: Now you say your names one by one. You, please.
What's your name?

Kimia: I'm Kimia Komijani.

Teacher: Excuse me. How do you spell your last name?

Kimia: Komijani, K-o-m-i-j-a-n-i.

Teacher: Thank you, Kimia. Now, you please say your name.

Student: My name is.....

Can you spell your name?



Talk to your teacher
How do you spell?



8

eight



Listening and Reading



Listen to the conversations and check (✓) the correct items.

Conversation	First Name	Last Name
1	Mina <input type="checkbox"/> Azar <input type="checkbox"/> Kimia <input type="checkbox"/>	Momeni <input type="checkbox"/> Ahmadi <input type="checkbox"/> Kabiri <input type="checkbox"/>
2	Ali <input type="checkbox"/> Kamran <input type="checkbox"/> Mahdi <input type="checkbox"/>	Mardani <input type="checkbox"/> Azari <input type="checkbox"/> Karimi <input type="checkbox"/>

Speaking and Writing



Group Work

Talk to three classmates, and fill out the table below.

Your classmates	1	2	3
First name			
Last name			

Your Conversation

Pair Work

Do the conversation.

Student A: Hi, how are you?

Student B:

Student A: My name is
What's your name?

Student B:





A Comparative analysis of two ESP research papers: a schema-based approach

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Abstract

This paper examines two research papers selected on the basis that they belong to the same genre, i.e. English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Drawing on the underlying principles of genre we assumed that since these papers belong to the same genre they share similar patterns in terms of their constitutive schemata. By means of Schema theory, offered by Khodadady (2008), we assigned the schemata to three domains of semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic. Comparing the two papers with regard to their schema types and tokens, we came to the conclusion that the semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata constituting these papers significantly differ from each other. Moreover, each domain within one paper is statistically different from its counterpart in the other paper. Bearing in mind the fact that statistics cannot reveal the hidden intentions behind a text, we went through the schemata and analyzed each schema with regard to its context of occurrence. Identifying the whole common schemata we looked for the figurative and collocational expressions representative of the genre, however, the results showed that there are few if any kinds of fixed phraseology, metaphorical, idiomatic and collocational frameworks which assert the existence of ESP genre.

Keywords: Schema Theory; Semantic Schemata; Syntactic Schemata; Parasyntactic Schemata; ESP; Genre Analysis; Microstructure; Macrostructure

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Introduction

Since many years ago there has been a growing interest in the concept of genre analysis within academic and professional fields. Several studies have been conducted to scrutinize the characteristics of different genres from various perspectives, however, due to the expanse of the scope and the dynamic nature of language there are plenty of claims and counterclaims. In order to shed light on these issues, we first go through the literature which is shaped by a multiplicity of arguments and then set forth a number of studies whose points of concern are to be discussed later on in this paper.

As expected, to a broad concept such as genre several definitions can be assigned; however, they are mostly expressive of the same idea. Swales (1990) who has contributed enormously to developing genre theory in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Flowerdew, 2005), describes genre as a series of "structured communicative events engaged in by specific discourse communities whose members share broad communicative purposes" (cited in Cheng, 2006, p. 77). In Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998) terms genres are not simply features of texts, but are mediating frameworks between texts, authors and interpreters and constrain the possible ways in which a text is interpreted. Cheng (2006) considering the definitions offered by a number of prominent scholars (Bahktin, 1986; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Bhatia, 1993; Halliday, 1994; Miller, 1984; Swales, 1990, 2004) stated that "As both a cognitive and a cultural concept, genre is often defined as the abstract, goal-oriented, staged, and socially recognized ways of using language delimited by communicative purposes, performed social (inter)actions within rhetorical contexts, and formal properties (structure, style, and content)" (p. 77). Henry and Roseberry (1997) also define genre in a similar vein, assuming that it is the task of recognizing the moves and steps (the strategies employed to present a move (Bhatia, 1993)) of a genre and the suitable move order and their linguistic realization.

Research articles are considered as one of the most significant and most frequently used means of submitting scientific findings (Jackson, Meyer & Parkinson, 2006), it is claimed that they belong to a genre which essentially owns academic features such as textual organization and linguistic choices (Lim, 2006). As a result, there have been ample attempts to identify the existing regularities within them.

To this end, two approaches called macro-structural and micro-structural have been established. Macro-structural approach is a type of analysis which goes beyond lexico-grammatical and sentence level (Flowerdew, 2005) and examines the "common cognitive pattern" which is regarded as a rhetorical feature implicit in a genre (Magnet & Carnet, 2006, p. 179). Swales (1990) proposed that research articles can be analyzed by being divided into four subdivisions, that is, Introduction, Methodology, Result, and Discussion (IMRD); each is further categorized into moves, and finally assigned to steps (Ruiying & Allison, 2004). As Soler (2007) claims the rhetorical functions which are specific to different sections predetermine particular linguistic features that would appear there. Ruiying and Allison (2003) believe that the isolation of these sections (IMRD) from one another is due to the fact although they sometimes overlap each other, each of them pursues a distinctive "communicative purpose". Ruiying and Allison (2004) also suggest that in order to analyze a text macro-structurally we can take into account the audience, intentions of the writer, conventions of disciplines and sections' headings. However, one problem we might encounter regarding the



sections' headings is that the rhetorical functions of the sections are not always explicit in their headings. Crossley (2007) argues that in order to analyze a genre, the moves and structures that are specific to a given text should be identified, so that we can discover the genre's "move order, move construction, and linguistic features".

Although macro-structural framework has proved useful in identifying genres there has been some controversy over how much they can be relied on. Samraj (2002) managed to cast doubt on the applicability of this categorization as fixed and obligatory. She analyzed the Introductions of research articles belonging to two related fields, hypothesizing that they would follow the same pattern regarding the moves and steps. However, what she finally came to was diversity. As Ozturk (2007) has noted, some other studies have been conducted that verify variability across sections other than introductions, such as abstracts (Hyland, 2000; Samraj, 2005). His study corroborated the intradisciplinary variation in "structural organization". He proved that even among research article introductions in subdisciplines of a specific field, in this case applied linguistics, there are variations. He also added that examining the papers in a single journal confirms the fact that structural organization of research articles are not prescribed by the journal editors since there is a wide range of variability among them.

There are three contemporary approaches to genre analysis: ESP genre analyses, New Rhetoric studies, and Australian approach (Ruiying & Allison, 2004). It has been argued that in order for the ESP genre studies to be comprehensive, they should be accompanied by the New Rhetoric approach because while the former emphasizes the formal structure and linguistic knowledge of a text, the latter stresses the socio-cultural context and claims that it plays an important role in helping realize a genre's features (Bazerman 1988, cited in Flowerdew, 2005). This is the point where corpus-based studies face criticism since they analyze lexico-grammatical patterns regardless of their context of occurrence. Swales (2002a) has stated that corpus-based analysis is a sort of bottom-up approach which is in conflict with the assumptions that underlie genre analysis- a macro-structural top-down approach (cited in Flowerdew, 2005, p. 324). However, it is believed that these two approaches must also benefit from one another. In other words, "corpus-based analysis must go beyond simple counts of linguistic features. That is, it is essential to include qualitative, functional interpretation of quantitative patterns," (Biber, Conrad, & Repper, 1998, p.5, cited in Upton & Conner, 2001).

There have been some trends towards identifying the pedagogical applications of these studies. Although many are in favor of teaching genres explicitly, there are some arguments over the feasibility of this tradition. Dovey's (2006) study is against teaching genres explicitly and limiting learners by "stable and routinized" competencies since we live in an era of change and evolution and learners instead need to "learn how to learn" and gain the ability to transfer what they have learned to the context of use. Corroborating her argument, Mavor and Trayner (2001) with reference to swales (1990) state that since "genres are evolving and formulated by both their "communicative purpose" and the "rationale" of the discourse community", the related conventions shouldn't be prescribed and regarded as fixed formulas and we should take into account the dynamic nature of language and communication.

Freedman (1994) believes that this practice is not helpful and it is even to some extent detrimental to learners' progress (cited in Cheng, 2006). Cheng (2006) also confirms this claim by going

through the studies that have focused on “ESP genre-based literacy instruction” and mentioned that the deficiencies identified by them are:

“Learners inadequate improvement in move accuracy (Henry & Roseberry, 1998); learners limited attention to unpacking many of the concepts or vocabulary items in genre exemplars (Hyon, 2002); learners persistent problems with organization, headings, quotations, and plagiarism as well as their failure to follow the basic conventions and macrostructures of the genre exemplars they studied (Mustafa, 1995); learners overgeneralization and misapplication of prototypical genre qualities (Hyon, 2001); teachers concerns with potential prescriptiveness and the possible disempowering effects of genre teaching (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998); and the need for cultural adaptability in ESP genre-based material development (Yakhontova, 2001). (p. 79)”

Although a great bulk of genre studies have been devoted to macro-structural analysis, we managed to find a number addressing micro-structure of texts. Flowerdew and Wan (2006) for instance conducted a micro-analysis of tax computation letters from an accounting firm, examining the politeness strategies employed in them. They concluded that though tax accountants had an understanding of the structure of this type of letters they didn't pay particular attention to the lexico-grammatical patterns of them. Although these people had never been taught the peculiarities of the genre, the fact that positive politeness strategies were barely used by them signifies that this is the context which determines the requirements of effective communication rather than their explicit teaching.

Another micro-structural study was conducted by Hyland (2001) in a corpus of 240 research articles from eight disciplines to identify how self-mention is used. It is assumed that in different discourse communities different conventions are expected. Self-mention is a factor whose application should be done more cautiously since, on the one hand, authors should use personal pronouns to express their contribution to the field, on the other hand, they should be humble towards the members of their discourse community. He divided these eight disciplines into soft (humanities and social sciences) and hard (engineering and sciences) groups. The results showed that in soft disciplines there was greater use of first person pronouns, i.e. 69% of all instances of self-mention belonged to soft sciences. It is noteworthy that while I and we comprised 70% of all pronouns, $\frac{3}{4}$ of them occurred in soft disciplines. Self-citation as a form of self-mention was separately examined. It was concluded that in hard disciplines this feature was more significant, almost double soft sciences, i.e. 11% were devoted to hard fields and just 5% to the soft fields.

Ferguson (2001) brought the significance of if-conditionals under attention in a corpus of medical texts comprised of three genres: Medical journal articles, Journal editorials, Doctor-patient consultations. He found 177 cases of if-conditionals in a total of 100,000 words, and concluded that they differed across genres in terms of “formal, semantic and, pragmatic aspects”. For example, in the spoken genre (Doctor-patient consultations) they indicated politeness while in the research articles they stated “operational definitions”.

The advocates of genre analysis assume that there are certain metaphors, idioms and fixed phrases which are common to a given genre such as ESP. They have focused on the importance of fixed phraseology such as metaphors, idioms and collocations in reading and understanding



of specialized texts or, in general, in communication. Marco (2000) claims that there is a close relationship between phraseology and genre; that is, depending on the rhetorical aims of each genre, we can find a set of fixed phraseology. Gledhill (2000) states that identifying these fixed expressions is just possible through careful corpus analysis which leads to the recognition of high frequency items that are of idiosyncratic syntax; this idiosyncrasy is due to their common rhetorical aim.

Gledhill (2000) and Marco (2000) believe that each genre has its own linguistic conventions which, upon recognition, greatly facilitate communication. According to Marco (2000) these conventions are the realizations of the rhetorical aims of the genre. Obviously, awareness of the collocational frameworks is advantageous to both the readers and the writers. Gledhill (2000) refers to Myers (1991) and Hoey (1991) who have noted that "lexical choice in particular constrains the textual choices that the writer may make in later discourse and that the reader uses collocation in order to skim and scan across the text and to interpret new co-occurrences."

To confirm the significance of specific figurative expressions in different genres there are some statements about the advantages of bringing the ways these expressions are conceptualized in specialized texts to the conscious level of learners' minds. Hyland (2000) considers it essential for learners to become aware of the "symbolic resources" frequent in a particular discipline in order to relate purposes to text features, in a routine way (Pecorari, 2006). «Metaphoric awareness», in Boer's (2000) terms, is making students aware of the origin, literal sense or «source domain» of figurative expressions. He claims that diverse figurative expressions encountered in economic discourse can be attributed to "a single source domain". For example, regarding economics genre, he states «Describing socio-economic processes in terms of machines and mechanisms, for example, may leave the impression that these are under control and fully predictable, unlike human behavior.» In this instance, machines and mechanisms are regarded as a metaphoric theme which is realized in the form of words and phrases that are used to describe machines; as an example we can mention «the monetary lever has rusted».

As Charteris-black (2000) has noted, there are some basic assumptions that underlie metaphoric expressions; authors depending on their desired effect choose that set of expressions which convey their message best. When learners are familiarized with these assumptions they can realize the author's point of view and his conception of reality, which in Boer's (2000) terms leads to a better comprehension of the text. Charteris-Black and Ennis who (2001) discussed the importance of learners' metaphoric awareness, stated that the metaphors used in L2 may differ significantly from those used in L1 either in surface structure or the concepts which underlie them. This fact is regarded as one of the main reasons of L2 writers' non-native like discourse.

To have a more in-depth understanding of the nature of these studies we mention some instances to elaborate on the procedures employed in them and the results they achieved. Gledhill (2000) examined the introductions of 150 cancer research articles in terms of their phraseology. By means of WordSmith program the first ten high frequency words were identified (been, has, have, is, such, can, it, we, of, to) which comprised 10.7% of the whole introductions. Finally he expressed that the collocations involving these words despite being idiosyncratic reveal the prevalent discourse strategies and can be helpful to the members of this community.

Another study conducted by Marco (2000) is an analysis of three frame works of the...of,



a...of, be...to with regard to the most frequent lexical items that fill them. The token of these frameworks were 9900, 729, and 780, respectively; that is, 11409 instances of occurrence in a total of 298,457 words. He identified the top twenty collocates for each framework such as aim in the aim of and also calculated the proportion of occurrence of each word as a filler, ranging from 8 to 100%. He came to the conclusion that these frameworks enclose just a particular set of words, determined by the medical genre conventions.

Charteris-Black (2000) in an attempt to prove the significance of metaphoric awareness in learners' success compares the frequency of words in two different corpora in the field of economics since he believes this field involves a great number of metaphors. These samples consisted of 9.7 and 5 million words. Considering the conceptual background of each metaphor, they were categorized as follow: economy as organic; economic organizations as people; and market as inanimate. Then the animate and inanimate verbs following the words economy and market were tabulated. Finally the instances of trader types as animal types were enlisted. In each table the total number of occurrences and the frequency of each metaphor per million were stated and compared in the two samples. However, withstanding the fact that the average number of occurrence of each metaphor is in most cases from 0 to 20 per million the question that comes to mind is that are the frequencies of these metaphors really indicative of their significance in facilitating reading comprehension?

Khodadady (2008) stated that macro-structural approach has not been able to contribute much to identifying the real nature of the texts due to the undeniable role of different sorts of schemata found in texts and their juxtaposition which determine the kind of discourse and rhetorical structure they convey.

To partially handle some of the shortcomings observed in the above-mentioned approaches to text analysis, Khodadady (2008) has proposed a sort of micro-structural analysis derived from schema theory which includes analyzing every single schema of a text with regard to its specific position in the sentence. A classification offered by Khodadady (2009) requires assigning every schema to one of the categories (called schema domain) presented in table 1 and subsequently to one of their subcategories (called genus). It should be mentioned that each genus is further divided into several subcategories called species.

Table 1- Schema categories and subcategories

Categories	Subcategories				
Semantic	Adjectives	Adverbs	Nouns	Verbs	
Syntactic	Auxiliaries	Conjunctions	Determiners	Prepositions	Pronouns
Parasyntactic	Abbreviations Symbols	Interjections Para-adverbs	Names	Numerals	Particles



A leading study conducted by Khodadady (2008) was an analysis of 22 authentic and unmodified magazine and newspaper articles, all sharing a common political issue, through schema theory. Khodadady (2008) hypothesized that semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata differ from each other not only in type ($\chi^2=8371.993$, $df=2$, $p<.0001$) but also in their subcategorizations ($\chi^2=5866.867$, $df=12$, $p<.0001$), and some evidence were found which confirmed the psychological reality of this categorizations of schema theory.

In the present study it was assumed that since the papers written by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) belong to the same genre, the single and phrasal schemata constituting the metaphors, idioms and fixed phrases used in the two papers must not differ from each other significantly. This assumption is tested by formulating the three hypotheses below:

1. The semantic schemata employed by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) are not statistically different.
2. The syntactic schemata employed by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) are not statistically different.
3. The parasyntactic schemata employed by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) are not statistically different.

However, since statistics deals with numbers alone and do not reveal anything about the domain, genus, species and type of schemata, in a later stage we go through schema types in order to highlight the similarities or differences in the papers analyzed.

Methodology

Materials

In pursuit of a prior study focusing on a meta-analysis of all ESP papers published in 2000 and 2001, it was decided to randomly choose two articles published in each year, in order to have a more comprehensive sample. The factors which were taken into account while choosing the articles were their length (number of pages) and number of tables, because it was the schemata that were going to be analyzed. After examining these factors the following papers were chosen: A narrow-angled corpus analysis of moves and strategies of the genre: 'Letter of Application' by Alex Henry and Robert L. Roseberry (2001), and Metaphor and vocabulary teaching in ESP economics by Jonathan Charteris-Black (2000), each containing 5 tables, and 5953 and 6187 schemata, respectively.

Procedures

The first step was to break down the two ESP articles into their constitutive schemata, that is, the words constituting them according to their position. So what is observed as schemata is not the result of the texts' word by word breakdown, since according to Khodadady (2009) all phrasal verbs, collocations, slangs or any other clusters of words with highly dependent meanings e.g., state-owned, for example, day-to-day, in order to, ... must be regarded as single schemata. The second step was to scrutinize the text carefully in order to determine the position of every single schema regarding the existing context. This task required assigning every schema to three inter-

related categories called schema domains, genera and species.



Figure 1- Schema theory categories

Schema domains, as shown in table one, are the three main categories which embrace all schemata in three ways, namely, semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic. Each of these categories is divided into some subcategories named genera. For example semantic domain includes nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The genera are further classified into more minute subcategories called species. For instance there are four kinds of verbs: simple, phrasal, complex and derivational. However, our task was to start with identifying the species, next the genera and finally the schema domain. Then we came to calculating the frequency of every schema type. This way the data was compressed and easier to analyze. As the last step the SPSS software, version 16.0, was utilized to analyze the data statistically.

Results and discussion

Table 2 presents the Chi-square tests conducted on the two papers with regard to their domain types. As can be seen the semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata employed by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) significantly differ from each other.

Table 2- Chi-square test of domain types

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.418a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	16.375	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.893	1	.003
N of Valid Cases	3011		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 152.52.

Table 3 presents the Chi-square tests of domain tokens in the papers under discussion. As it is well understood, the two papers differ from each other significantly in terms of the number of semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schema tokens.

Considering the result of Chi-square tests conducted on the two articles, we come to the conclusion that the semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata employed by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) are statistically different. This fact is against the assumption that, since the two articles belong to the same genre, the single and phrasal schemata constituting the metaphors, idioms and fixed phrases must not differ from each other notably.



Table 3- Chi-square tests of domain tokens

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.698a	2	.005
Likelihood Ratio	10.698	2	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.324	1	.004
N of Valid Cases	12138		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 790.46.

However, since statistics are so restricted in showing the role of the texts' constitutive schema types in determining the content of the papers and the topics which are discussed in them, we discuss the types and tokens of the schemata under analysis and then contrast the schema types employed by the two authors.

In order to have a top down approach to our analysis of Henry and Roseberry(2001) and Charteris-Black(2000) , figure 2 gives an image of the number of domain types used in the two articles. As can be seen, in both papers variety in semantic schemata is much higher than syntactic and parasyntactic schemata. And also the number of parasyntactic schemata exceeds syntactic schemata.

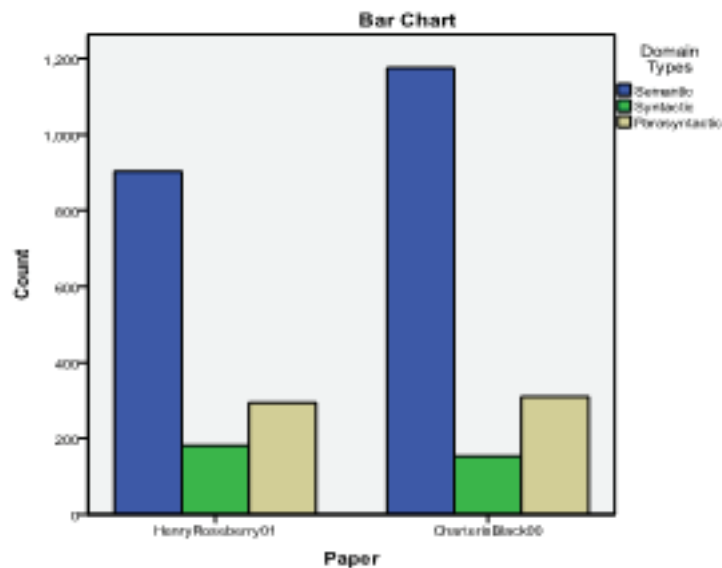


Figure 2- Domain types

In pursuit of one of the major aims of this study which is comparing the two research articles in terms of the types of schemata used and their token (frequency) within each domain, table 2 presents the comparison among the types of schemata used in both papers in three main domains, i.e., semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic. As can be seen, semantic domain is significantly larger than the other two, but the interesting point is that parasyntactic schemata are more wide-ranging than syntactic schemata. This fact can be attributed to the large number of tables in these articles which contain different numbers.

Table 2- Types of semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata in Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Domain	Henry and Roseberry		Charteris-Black	
	Type	Type%	Type	Type%
Semantic	903	65.5	1175	71.7
Syntactic	181	13.1	153	9.3
Parasyntactic	294	21.3	310	18.9
Total	1378	100	1638	100

However, as shown in table 3, while semantic schemata take the top position in terms of their frequency, syntactic schemata come next and precede parasyntactic ones. The difference in the position of syntactic and parasyntactic schemata with regard to their types and tokens is due to the fact that according to Yule (1985) the former belong to the closed class of words which are few in type but high in frequency, while the latter because of containing numerals, which belong to the open class of words, are large in number but low in frequency.

Table 3- Tokens of semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata in Henry- Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Domain	Henry and Roseberry		Charteris-Black	
	Token	Token%	Token	Token%
Semantic	2820	47.4	3037	49.2
Syntactic	2280	38.3	2387	38.5
Parasyntactic	850	14.2	762	12.3
Total	5952	100	6186	100

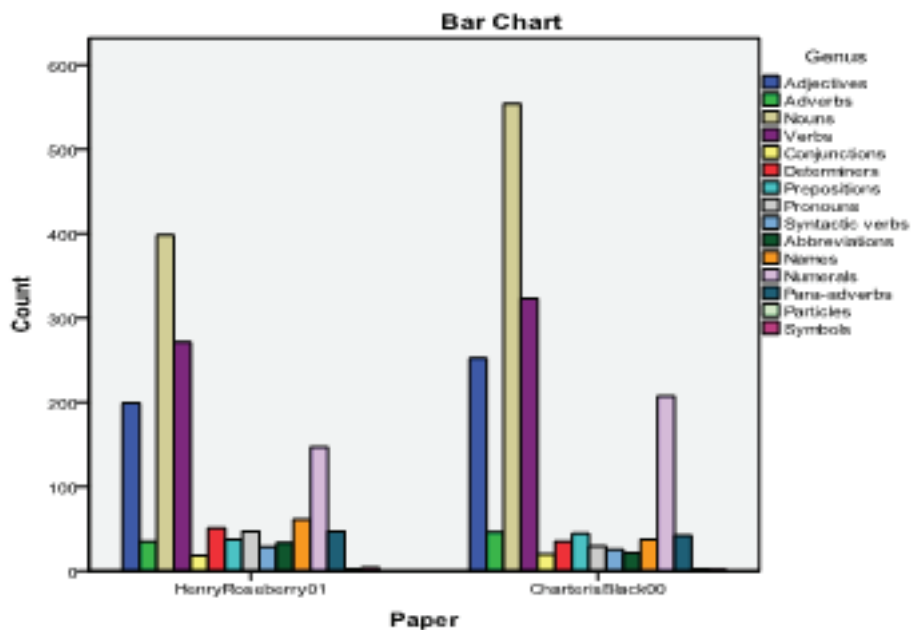


Figure 3- Genus types



Figure 3 depicts the number of different genera types used in each paper. In both papers nouns are regarded as the largest group regarding both types and tokens. As shown in table 4, the nouns used by Charteris-Black (2000) are more various in types than those used by Henry and Roseberry (2001). Verbs, adjectives and adverbs used in both papers are interestingly similar in terms of their types and tokens; that is, both writers have used similar number of verbs, adjectives and adverbs. The overall difference observable in the proportion of semantic schemata between the two articles goes to the larger number of nouns used by Charteris-Black (2000).

Table 4- Type and token of genera within semantic domain in Henry and Roseberry's (2001) and Charteris-Black's (2000) articles

	Semantic Henry and Roseberry					Charteris-Black						
	Type	Type%	Total	Token	Token%	Total	Type	Type%	Total	Token	Token%	Total
Nouns	398	28.9		1638	27.5		554	33.8		1746	28.3	
Verbs	271	19.7		628	10.6		323	19.7		676	10.9	
Adjectives	199	14.4		496	8.3		252	15.4		539	8.7	
Adverbs	35	2.5	65.5	58	1	47.4	46	2.8	71.7	76	1.2	49.2

As opposed to semantic category, in syntactic domain we cannot observe so similar proportions among the genera between the two papers. While Henry and Roseberry (2001) have employed determiners more than other genera existing in this category, Charteris-Black (2000) has made use of prepositions the most, and determiners to a lesser extent. Generally, as mentioned before, due to the special characteristics of syntactic category we observe few types of syntactic schemata which are repeated frequently leading to few number of types and large number of tokens.

Table 5- Type and token of genera within syntactic domain in Henry and Roseberry's (2001) and Charteris-Black's (2000) articles

Syntactic	Henry and Roseberry						Charteris-Black						
	Type	Type%	Total	Token	Token%	Total	Type	Type%	Total	Token	Token%	Total	
Determiners	51	3.7	815	13.7	35	2.1	770	12.4					
Prepositions	37	2.7	768	12.9	44	2.7	867	14					
Pronouns		47	3.4		253	4.2		29	1.8		291	4.7	
Conjunctions	18	1.3		284	4.8		20	1.2		303	4.9		
Syntactic verbs		28	2	13.1	162	2.7	38.3	25	1.5	9.3	156	2.5	38.5

In table 6 what attracts the attention is the high number of numerals employed in both articles which are proportionately similar. While in Henry- Roseberry's (2001) article names follow numerals, in the other one para-adverbs take this position, though, they are less frequent than those used by Henry and Roseberry (2001). In both papers we see few types and tokens of symbols and particles.

In order to have a more comprehensive analysis, there are some data which show the style of authors in utilizing different types of schemata. After considering the species existing within each genus the most highly used species were chosen to be discussed and compared with each other within and between the two papers. Simple and derivational adjectives were the two most highly

utilized species among adjectives. While in the paper by Henry and Roseberry (2001) simple adjectives are observed more than derivational ones, in Charteris-Black's (2000) paper it is vice versa. Out of the 10 species found within the noun genus three were more recognizably employed. In contrast to the adjectives, that were used differently in terms of their order of frequency between the two papers, these three species were used in the same order by both authors, i.e., the most frequent genus is simple nouns then we see derivational and finally gerund nouns.

Table 6- Type and token of genera within parasynthetic domain in Henry and Roseberry's (2001) and Charteris-Black's (2000) articles

Parasyntactic	Henry and Roseberry						Charteris-Black					
	Type	Type%	Total	Token	Token%	Total	Type	Type%	Total	Token	Token%	Total
Names	61	4.4	21.3	114	1.9	14.2	37	2.2	18.9	59	1	12.3
Numerals	147	10.7		354	5.9		207	12.6		418	6.7	
Para-adverbs	47	3.4		174	2.9		42	2.6		127	2	
Abbreviation	33	2.4		92	1.5		21	1.3		66	1.1	
Particles	2	0.1		98	1.6		2	0.1		91	1.5	
Symbols	4	0.3		18	0.3		1	0.1		1	0.01	

Considering 5 species of verbs, the only type which was significantly used, was the simple one. To have a more microscopic view, within simple verb species, most verbs are in their base forms. After a fairly high interval, we see two other frequent types which are slightly different from one another, namely, past participle and third person. Regarding adverbs which are of four types, in both papers only one type, i.e., derivational ones, are notably employed.

Table 7- Token of the most frequently used semantic species used by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Genera	Adjectives	Nouns	Verbs (simple)			Adverbs				
			Simple	Derivational	Gerund	Derivational	Simple	3rd person PP	Base	Derivational
H&R	Token	77	65	67	86	204	36	60	101	28
	Token%	5.6	4.7	4.9	6.2	14.8	2.6	4.4	7.3	2
CH-B	Token	82	97	69	123	300	59	65	115	38
	Token%	5	5.9	4.2	7.5	18.3	3.6	4	7	2.3

As shown in table 8, in syntactic domain, considering conjunctions, it is well understood that the only notably used form by both authors is the simple one while the other type i.e., phrasal is not worth considering. Comparing the two papers, determiners which are of 7 types aren't used as proportionately as other species. While numeral determiners are the most considerably used form by Henry and Roseberry (2001), Charteris-Black (2000) has made great use of qualifying determiners; however, numeral determiners are not the second highly used kind of determiners.



Table 8- Token of the most frequently used syntactic species used by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Species	conjunctions		determiners		prepositions		Pronouns	Syntactic verbs	
	Simple	Numeral	Quatifying	Simple	Phrasal	Unspecified	Subject	Present auxiliaries	
H&R	Token	15	17	10	18	11	16	8	7
	Token%	1.1	1.2	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.2	0.6	0.5
CH-B	Token	14	4	14	21	11	4	6	8
	Token%	0.9	0.2	0.9	1.3	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5

There are 4 types of prepositions among which only simple and phrasal ones are seen palpably. The two articles include almost exactly the same number and order of these forms; that is, simple prepositions stand first and phrasal ones second. 2 out of 9 pronouns were seen more frequently in comparison to the other seven types. Among these Henry and Roseberry (2001) have made use of unspecified pronouns the most, even four times those employed by Charteris-Black (2000). Subject pronouns were the next frequent type observed in both papers, with almost the same frequency. Generally, Syntactic verbs i.e., auxiliaries and modals have limited use in these papers, but among the 9 types found just present auxiliaries are worth to be mentioned. Again both authors have employed this specific form the most.

Within parasyntactic domain there are 26 species. Although this domain contains a large number of species, many of them are so rarely used that we had better not to discuss them. However, as can be seen in table 9, three species are discussed here. Henry and Roseberry (2001) have made use of abbreviations more than twice Charteris-Black (2000). This is also true about the use of names, more specifically single names, by the same authors, that is, while Henry and Roseberry (2001) have employed single names more than Charteris-Black (2000), they have used other types of names to a limited extent. One of the species which has made parasyntactic category noticeably large is numerals. Out of the four types two are notably put to use. Charteris-Black (2000) has utilized a larger number of digital numerals in comparison to Henry and Roseberry (2001) while they have both used years to a much lesser extent.

Table 9- Token of the most frequently used parasyntactic species used by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Abbreviations		Names		Numerals	
		Single	Digital	Year	
H-R	Token	29	41	118	19
	Token%	2.1	3	8.6	1.4
CH-B	Token	13	26	182	22
	Token%	0.8	1.6	11.1	1.3

As shown in table 10, Henry and Roseberry (2001) in comparison to Charteris-Black (2000) have used comparative adjectives to a lesser extent. Excluding the common adjectives, it is seen that while the former has exclusively made use of one, the latter has utilized 8 other forms. It can be concluded that the former have a more comparative view.

Table 11 is a representation of agentive adjectives used in the two papers. It seems that Char-

teris-Black (2000) has made use of agentive adjectives three times Henry and Roseberry (2001). However, scrutinizing the article, it is well understood that 5 out of 9 agentive adjectives that Charteris-Black (2000) has used, that is, ailing, alarming, bleeding, increasing don't have anything to do with the author's style and choice of words but are merely some examples from the topic under his discussion. That is, while Charteris-Black (2000) has discussed genre of economics, he has pointed out many examples to confirm his claim regarding the characteristics of that genre. As a result we can see a large number of agentive adjectives used in the examples.

e.g., "This liquidity the government hopes will keep ailing industrial companies afloat (13/9/97)."

Table 10- Types of Comparative adjectives used by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Semantic Schema Genus	Henry and Roseberry	Charteris-Black	Common
Comparative adjectives	Wider	Better, Earlier	Closer
	1	Further, Greater Higher, Lower Longer, Worse 8	Larger, More 3

Table 11- Common types of Agentive adjectives used by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Semantic Schema Genus	Henry and Roseberry	Charteris-Black	Common
Agentive adjectives	Corresponding Remaining Striking 3	Ailing, Alarming, Bleeding, Increasing, Leading, Living, Organising, Surprising, Underlying 9	Existing Interesting 2

Table 10 and 11 are representations of just two species, i.e., comparative adjectives and agentive adjectives. However, table 12 shows the whole semantic schemata constituting the two articles with the common schemata in a separate column. As can be seen, in contrast to the claims of advocates of genre analysis regarding the existence of a large number of commonalities in a given genre, out of a total of 2070 semantic schemata used in both papers, 570 common schemata were found, that is, 72.5% of the schemata were different in type and just 27.5% were common.

Table 12- Commonality in semantic schemata

Semantic Schemata	Whole	Different	Common
Ch-B	1171	886	285
H&R	899	614	285
Total	2070	1500	570
Total%	100	72.5	27.5



However, as shown in table 13, the syntactic schemata employed by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) are common to a large extent. Out of a total of 334 syntactic schemata just 122 ones were different and 212 were common. That is to say, 63.5% were common, while just 36.5% were different.

Considering parasyntactic schemata, it was decided to exclude numerals, since commonality in numerals don't prove anything about the genre characteristics. It is just the species existing within this genus that helps us compare the style of the articles. Excluding numerals which are of great variety, there are still a large percentage of different schemata. Namely, 75.2% of them are different and just 24.8% are similar.

As shown in table 15, there are three species within numerals genus. It is clear that there is not a proportionate similarity in the authors' use of these species.

Table13- Commonality in syntactic schemata

Syntactic Schemata	Whole	Different	Common
Ch-B	153	47	106
H&R	181	75	106
Total	334	122	212
Total%	100	36.5	63.5

Table14- Commonality in parasyntactic schemata

Parasyntactic (-Numerals) Schemata	Whole	Different	Common
Ch-B	103	72	31
H&R	147	116	31
Total	250	188	62
Total%	100	75.2	24.8

Table 15- Numerals used by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000)

Numerals Species	Henry and Roseberry	Charteris-Black
Alphabetic	10	3
Digital	118	182
Year	10	21

Taking into account Marco's (2000) study which is an analysis of three frame works of the... of, a...of, be...to with regard to the most frequent lexical items that fill them, we assumed that since these papers belong to the same genre, ESP, they should be similar in terms of the number of these frameworks and also their fillers. Considering both the abstracts and introductions of these papers we noticed that the two sections in the paper by Henry and Roseberry (2001) which consisted of 1325 schemata included 12 cases of a...of, 33 the...of, and 8 be...to while the other

paper comprised of 569 schemata and included 2, 19, and 2 cases, respectively. It is noteworthy that commonality in terms of fillers was barely observed (table 16). The result shows that merely belonging to the same genre doesn't guarantee the use of similar frameworks and fillers.

Table 16- a...of, the...of, be...to frameworks in the two papers

Henry and Roseberry (2001)	Charteris-Black (2000)	common
<i>a...of</i>		
a corpus of, a knowledge of, a letter of (2), a move of, a series of (2), a study of, a variety of (2), An analysis of, an era of	an understanding of a corpus of	a corpus of
12	2	1
<i>the...of</i>		
the 'general English' of, the actions of, The aim of (5), the corpus of, the features of, the implications of, the language of, the Letter of (3), the level of (2), the move of (2), the moves and strategies of (3), the order of, the parts of (2), the publication of, The purpose of, the purpose of (2), The results of, the structure of (2), the Wordsmith suite of, the writer of, the writing of	the Bank of (2), the basis of, the choice of, the content domains of, the control of, the development of, the framework of, the general magazine section of (2), the implications of (2), the metalanguage of, The part of, the selection and teaching of, the teaching of, the understanding of, the use of, the ways of	the implications of, the part of
33	19	2
<i>be...to</i>		
are able to, be helpful to be thought of (2), is similar to is thought of (2), is useful to	be introduced to Is able to	
8	2	0



Regarding the macro-structure of the two papers, distinct section headings are observed. Henry and Roseberry's (2001) paper is comprised of the following sections:

1. Abstract
2. Introduction
3. The study: Aims, Method, Results, Analysis of moves and strategies, Most frequent words, Linguistic features of promotion strategy
4. Conclusion
5. Acknowledgements

Charteris-Black's (2000) paper, however, shows another organization:

1. Abstract
2. Introduction
3. Background
4. Metaphor and conceptual growth
5. Metaphor and economics
6. Method and results
7. Conclusion
8. Acknowledgements

This distinction in terms of the organizational structure of two papers published in the same journal confirms Ozturk's (2007) finding regarding the fact that journals do not prescribe and force writers to follow the same pattern.

Considering Hyland's (2001) study we compared the cases of self-citation between the two papers. While in Henry and Roseberry's (2001) paper there are 8 cases of self-citation out of a total of 50 instances of referencing within the paper, in Charteris-Black's (2000) there is none. That is, in the former self-citation constitutes 16% of the references while in the latter 0%. Although according to Hyland's category these two papers belong to soft fields they don't follow the same pattern regarding self-citation.

Charteris-Black and Ennis (2001) and a number of other ESP practitioners (Marco, 2000, Gledhill, 2000, Hyland, (2000), Boer, (2000), etc.) whose studies were briefly discussed earlier in this paper, deem that there are some sets of metaphors, idioms, collocations, and fixed phrases which characterize the linguistic conventions of any particular genre. Bearing this claim in mind, we identified all common schemata between the two papers under the study to see to what extent these figurative expressions and collocations are observable. As can be seen in (...) the greatest degree of commonality is detected among the syntactic schemata. This finding can be attributed to the fact that since syntactic schemata (e.g. conjunctions, pronouns...) belong to the closed class of words they are limited in type but high in frequency (Yule, 1985). Within semantic domain the order of common schemata among the four subcategories is:

Nouns > Adjectives > Verbs > Adverbs

In order to find out whether the common schemata in these subcategories are representative of any peculiarity of ESP genre, we pinpointed the species within each genus that maintains the highest number of schemata; for example, simple and derivational nouns from Nouns genus



or simple and derivational adjectives from Adjectives genus. Inspecting the semantic load of each common schema we barely found any instances where the schema could be regarded as figurative (e.g., common adjectival nouns: Acknowledgement, collocations, comparison, Conclusion, Definition, Description, Development, Difference, Discussion, Evidence, Expectation, Expression, Frequency, Growth, Identification, Implication, Importance, Introduction, Learner, Occurrence, Organization, Position, Publication, Speaker, Student, Teacher).

Regarding the verbs, in both papers simple verbs were used more significantly than other forms and they were mostly in base and past participle forms.

Conclusion

The present study was a challenge to the prevalent claim about the existence of a great number of features which represent specific genres. Analyzing the papers by Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Charteris-Black (2000) we came to the conclusion that although these texts belong to the same genre- ESP- the type and token of their schemata are statistically different. Furthermore, studying the common schemata identified, assuming that there must be some common figurative expressions representative of ESP genre, we barely found any. bringing the aforementioned claim under question, we managed to prove that although there may be some specific metaphors, phrases and fixed phraseology within each field, these items are so limited in use that they don't in fact help us either in teaching or testing the relevant fields. What is suggested in this paper is to examine the semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata and focus learners' attention on the one which is used most frequently in order to help them cope with the task of reading English texts. It was also revealed that statistical reports cannot be relied on entirely, since they are just numbers and are not capable of disclosing the content of the texts, and the purpose of the author from employing specific schemata. This fact can be regarded as a challenge to corpus-based studies which just deal with a large corpus regardless of the context.

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