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About the Journal

1. The major goal of the present journal (Journal of Applications of Language Studies) is to publish original research articles reporting studies which try to help solve language problems such as language teaching, translation, teacher and translator training, materials development, dictionary development, etc referring to all fields and subfields related to the study of language (applied linguistics, translation, linguistics, etc). The articles submitted to the journal must be written only in English and follow the guidelines.
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7. Line spacing: 12pt excluding abstract, body of tables/figures
8. Referencing style: Authors must follow the exact style of the APA in their in-text citations and referencing list (references).

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English and Persian Advertisements: An Intersemiotic Analysis

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Abstract

The translation of advertisements is not like any kind of translation which is done across languages; rather it is done in the mind automatically, to convey meaning that advertisers want to be extracted; therefore, it is usual for companies and businesses to select special elements. Illustrations can provide audiences with a sense of personal identity and an awareness of cultural heritage. The present study aims to investigate pictures accompanying advertisements as an intersemiotic translation. This study takes pieces of advertising texts as well as the pictures accompanying them to show the translational relationships. Then, the study attempts to reveal the importance of pictures and the role they may play in conveying meaning. Within the first step, advertising texts containing both linguistic and visual elements were collected. Then they were studied based on the interrelationship between texts and images; an attempt was made to identify different ways in which illustrations are employed by text producers to translate linguistic elements. The corpus included the advertising texts which are collected from a wide variety of sources including internet, shops and newspapers. When all samples were studied and strategies were identified, the number and percentage of each strategy was counted and the results were presented in tables. The data analysis revealed that illustrations play an important role in translating the textual elements.

Keywords

Advertisements, Illustrations, Intersemiotic translation.

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Introduction

The translation of advertisements (visual elements included) is not like any kind of translation which is done cross languages; rather it is done in the mind itself automatically to convey the meaning the advertiser wants it to be extracted. This will help us to magnify the importance of choices when inserting pictures which can face certain challenges. It is usual for companies and businesses to select special visual elements, however; if handled unskillfully the resulting picture can have an undesirable meaning.

In 21st century and with the increasingly large use of mass media – including TV and internet – we are under the influence of advertisements on a daily basis. The daily choices we made, from food products to home appliances, are influences by the advertisements we see around us, since every day, people are exposed to a large number of advertisements, whether they like them or not. And with such international economic situation, a study of translation features as well as translation strategies of the advertisement and visual elements is of high significance in order to reproduce the desired effect. The strategy is not to actually translate a text into another, it is rather to insert a desired picture to help people get the whole picture in seconds by only having a glimpse at the advertisement.

Living in today's modern world and with the growth of mass media and internet in particular, we are in what is now generally known as the global village. Therefore the need for translation as a kind of international communication between cultures and languages to promote them and also to share experience, or exchange knowledge, ideas, as well as products, becomes a necessity. To have an effect on people, advertisements and their translation strategies are very important since many businesses need them to promote their sales. Krista (2004) examines the effects of a good brochure. She states that "a good sales brochure does more than explain and inform. It also persuades. It translates your facts and features into customer benefits". An advertisement can be as small as a brochure or as big as a billboard or broadcasted on the television. (Abu Shehab, 2011, p.10).

The study identifies and categorizes the way visual elements translate the linguistic elements. Sometimes these linguistic elements are only intended to be grasped by putting a picture instead.

Statement of the Problem

Adverting texts enjoy a special structure which is usually complex. The structure makes use of special visual techniques to create certain desired effects. The role of advertising in increasing sales and promoting economies cannot be ignored. The significant function of advertising along with the huge increase in the amount of translations has the issue into something of international importance. Visual elements constitute the most important part of an advertisement, since they are complementary to the linguistic elements.

It has also been a common assumption that, because illustrations are often derived from the text, they are a secondary or inferior art (Behrendt, 1997, p. 24). A study of the changes in the visual elements by translators in handling English-Persian advertisement translation may be instructive. The study, also, can include a discussion of the changes.

The assumption is that appropriate illustrations can improve the overall development of the advertisement by stimulating the audiences' imagination. Through illustrations, it is possible to transmit to the audience very clearly certain events. In this regard, the present study aims to examine a number of advertisement translation strategies accompanied with visual elements.

Research Questions

1. How do visual elements (as intersemiotic translation) complement linguistic elements regarding advertisements?
2. What are different ways in which pictures translate verbal texts?
3. What are the probable factors influencing the selection of certain pictures for advertisements?

Significance of the Study

The significance of the present research lies in the fact that it scrutinizes the usually invisible role of pictures in advertising texts. It

also probes different ways in which pictures translate verbal texts. In addition, the probable factors in selecting certain pictures are investigated.

This study works as a descriptive and is analytic at the same time which attempts to describe the genre of advertisements from an intersemiotic approach. The importance of the present study lies in the following points. The visual elements are important in transmitting messages concerning products, services or ideas to the target audience. This study explores the changes of visual elements (pictures, photos, etc.) in English- Persian advertisements and the reasons behind that. This attempt is conveyed by many samples of both Persian and English advertisements gathered from brochures, billboards or websites.

Purpose of the Study

Illustrations can give the audience a sense of personal identity and an awareness of their cultural heritage. The present research aims at looking at pictures accompanying advertising texts as an intersemiotic translation. The study takes pieces of advertising texts as well as the pictures beside them to show the translational relationship between them. Then, the study attempt to reveal the importance of pictures, and the role(s) they may play in conveying meanings.

The theoretical framework of this study is based on what was defined as Intersemiotic translation by Roman Jakobson (1971, p. 261) as ‘transmutation of signs’ — ‘an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign systems’.

Different studies have addressed the issue of translation equivalence. These include the comparison of source texts and target texts. The present study, however, takes a broader sense of the term text to include pictorial texts as well.

Review of Literature

Overview of Semiotic Studies

Cintas (2009) has declared how semioticians comprehend culture for the most part as the path in which we credit intending to the

encompassing scene. Appreciation of the world – and, subsequently, our perception of a word, a text, etc. relies on upon one's social load. He has proceeded with that implications don't pre-exist on the planet; people make them as indicated by codes and traditions which are culture-particular. He has said Saussure (1971) begetting the expression "semiology" to portray another train that would research 'the life of signs at the heart of social life'. Additionally, Semiotics has recommended that we live in a universe of signs and that we understand our existence with the support of these signs and the codes in which they are sorted out. He has kept up that motions, the words and even the items on the planet are signs, which have a concurred meaning and are joint as indicated by the principles and traditions. Through these mutual traditions called "codes" by semioticians like Saussure – one can comprehend the encompassing scene. Things being what they are, signs can be translated in a wide range of courses by various people. (Cintas, 2009, p. 71)

While trying to present a model of translation in light of signs, Kozin (2008), researched the conceivable outcomes of conjecturing translation in view of semiotic phenomenology. He inspected two translation speculations, one by the etymologist Jakobson and the other by the rationalist Derrida. Jakobson found the feeling of translation in governing the substitution. This lead took into account dismantling and reassembly of significance in any language by having the sign move starting with one subject-relative context then onto the next. This model included two ideas: ampleness and proportionality. Thusly, Derrida guaranteed that by engrossing both shafts of the sign structure (the signifier and the signified), signification liberates itself from the subject–object relationship and conditions the rise of sense.

From this exchange, Kozin extricated another model of translation. In light of the trans-semiotic phenomenology of Gilles Deleuze, this model approves that translation can be comprehended as both a rising territoriality and a protest in flight. He expected that predicated on redundancy, it is constantly associated with a few semiotic administrations, when it translates them, it makes particular occasions which rise to the top of language as an aftereffect of multiplying. The

even minded impacts of translation as associate semiotic phenomenology to translation considers, empowering particular investigations in view of this technique. (Kozin, 2008)

Johansen and Larsen (2004), with a specific end goal to present Semiotics, have cited Pirece's perspectives. As indicated by the American semiotician Charles Sanders Peirce, a sign is 'something by knowing which we know something more'. We learn something more by understanding a sign, since it remains for something else. They have additionally indicated antiquated Scholastics who characterized a sign as aliquid detail master aliquo (something remains for something else); and this delegate work seems, by all accounts, to be the main element all signs have in like manner. The writers of the book have understood that signs permit us to deduce something that is not evident, in light of the suspicion exhibited by the sign. The capacity to utilize a sign so as to surmise and shape theories about something else, is the second characteristic of the sign.

They have proceeded with that signs are marvels that speak to other wonders. Anything can work as a sign, for signs don't have foreordained, prototypical properties. The properties of a sign are characterized as far as their connection to what is spoken to.

So they inferred that one experiences marvels that is thought to be signs, notwithstanding when not able to decide their delegate work. Talking about the plenitude of signs' heap of importance, they have exemplified Voltaire's Zadig where the sign speaks to (i.e. remains for or alludes to) a question, occasion, activity, rehashed prepare, situation, a passionate circumstance, et cetera. At last, they have exhibited a phrasing in view of that of Pierce's for the sorts of sign: (1) The sign in the restricted sense, likewise alluded to as the representamen, i.e. that which speaks to something else; (2) the question, i.e. that which the sign stands for, that which is spoken to buy it; lastly (3) the (conceivable or potential) which means the sign considers, which may emerge as its translation into another sign (Johansen & Larsen, 2005, p. 24).

With putting more accentuate on the signs, Basnette (2005) agreed that the initial move towards an examination of the procedures of

translation is to acknowledge that while translation has an underlying foundations of linguistic action, it has a place with semiotics, which is the science that studies sign frameworks or structures, sign procedures and sign capacities She additionally focused on an idea that translation includes the exchange of "signifying" contained in one arrangement of language signs into another arrangement of language signs through skilled utilization of the lexicon and punctuation (Hawkes, 2003).

Stecconi kept up that semiotics investigations of translation began with Jacobson's (1959), positively the absolute most cited passage in Translation Studies writing. In spite of the fact that the Russian etymologist most likely misconstrued Peirce.He styled him "the most profound inquirer into the embodiment of signs" (Jakobson, 1959, p. 233). In his vivifying book, 'Semiotics for Beginners', Chandler (2002), understood that we appear to jump at the chance to make implications: 'most importantly, we are without a doubt Homo significance - meaning-makers.' (Chandler, 2002, p. 19) He kept up one make implications through his/her creation and understanding of 'signs': 'Undoubtedly, as per Peirce, "we think just in signs" (Peirce, 1931, p. 58). Signs appear as words, pictures, sounds, scents, flavors, acts or protests, yet such things are characteristically insignificant and just can be considered as signs when a significance is allowed to them: "Nothing is a sign unless it is deciphered as a sign proclaims Peirce".

Chandler proceeded with that anything can be a sign the length of it seems to be "signifying" something - alluding to or remaining for an option that is other than itself. This for the most part happens unknowingly by relating something to known frameworks of traditions. It is this important utilization of signs which is at the heart of the worries of semiotics. These days, while the essential "Saussurean" model is embraced in a way that it is a more materialistic model than that of Saussure himself. The signifier is translated as the material (or physical) type of the sign - it is something which can be seen, listened, touched, noticed or tasted.

Chandler indicated the way that Saussure was concentrating on the semantic sign, (for example, a word) and "he "phonocentrically" advantaged the talked word, alluding particularly to the picture

acoustique ('sound-picture' or 'sound example'), considering composing to be a different, auxiliary, subordinate yet practically identical sign framework" (Chandler, 2002: 19).

Examining profoundly inside the idea, Eco (1983) indicated the interrelations of semiotics inside a text as:

> Numerous texts have without a doubt numerous conceivable faculties, however it is still conceivable to choose which one must be chosen in the event that one methodologies the text in the light of a given point, and it is conceivable to recount certain texts what number of variations they show (p. 7).

This clearly concerns the very theme of this study, considering the variation to be a pictorial illustration.

Moreover, Eco trusted that 'the errand and the way of a general semiotics are distinctive.' keeping in mind the end goal to plot a venture for a general semiotics, it is not adequate to affirm, as Saussure did, that language is a framework practically identical to composing, typical ceremonies, hard of hearing quiet letters in order, military signals, etc. To consider such a science, one must state in which sense these diverse frameworks are commonly practically identical: on the off chance that they are all frameworks in a similar feeling of the word framework; if, by result, the shared examination of these frameworks can uncover basic methodical laws ready to clarify, from a brought together perspective, their method for working (Eco, 1983, p. 7).

An Introduction to Intersemiotic Translation

Poyatos Model

Poyatos (2008) has taken a gander at a text as a progression of mixed sensations or nonverbal parts which a peruser, or commonly a translator, experiences. A peruser or translator experiences textual portrayals of components, whether live or lifeless, that trigger an arrangement of meanings and sensations in the peruser. Furthermore, this reality infers that “there occur cognizant or oblivious sign trades between the characters and those elements" (Poyatos, 2008, p. 61). There are additionally tangible investigations which are shimmered by

those components' sign cooperations. Poyatos demanded that these components are urgent to the translators with regards to the attempt of bringing out a similar picture of source language users in the psyches of the target language users. "That is the reason the best sorts of illustrations are pertinent as visual aids."

These Elements can put the translation at a hazard if dismissed. For the picture delivered with the interconnections of these components can bring out a modified and rather unclear picture, somewhat or completely not quite the same as that of the source creator. Poyatos (2008) perspective over each of these components is completely virtuoso. All around, he has kept up that a translator is to transmit these components, or as he has called them, "Sensible Signs", loyally; for they have been experienced in the source text, and must be experienced in the target text either. These components are "Sound, Movement, Chemical Signs, Temperature, Kinesthesia, Consistency, Light, Implicit Textual Evocations, Omniscient Comments, and Illustrations". Among these components, those which are firmly identified with translation and are traceable in short stories are amplified in this study. Thusly, as per the story, Sound, Movement, Kinesthesia and Light are concentrated on. The base of this determination are straightforward entry and assessment of these components in both perusing a short story and breaking down its translation forms as referred to in technique; and the perceivability and striking quality of these components for the translators. The component of Chemical Signs was not found in the chose corpus, so was chosen to be overlooked. The components Implicit Textual Evocations and Omniscient Comments are more substantial all through books; for a short story is excessively undersized, making it impossible to grasp writers' vivifying remarks. Consistency and Illustration are nearer to the domains of Play understanding, for they incline generally upon the peepers' wholesome perspective of a consolidated landscape in movement or help viewers comprehend one through expansion of noticeable associations, which may not be devoured inside many short stories.

Additionally, it must be noticed that the picked components are

managed, with a similar approach Poyatos has utilized (in the same place) to break down his representations, relating every one of the faculties and the components to different supporting encounters that a TR may have when managing the text.

Methodology

Framework

The interaction between visual elements and text is vital to every picture in a book. In recent years, the distribution of e-books is growing quickly. The digital picture book is a new area. Its modes - words and illustrations, are similar to the linguistic texts. Does the digital world with visual elements need a new set of investigations? Does it make a different reading experience? Is it a new mode of communicating, or is it just an instrumental, functional and technical change? These questions are asked when approaching the kind of communication which takes place between words and pictures.

In this section, the model based on which the study is conducted, namely inter-semiotic translation will be introduced. “Inter-semiotic translation, or transmutation, is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems” (Jakobson, 1966, p. 233). Jakobson defines this category as a transfer from the verbal to the non-verbal, or vice versa. Therefore the present study is based on the classification of different types of translation by Jacobson, with a focus on intersemiotic translation.

Corpus

The corpus of the present study includes the advertising texts and pictures. The texts and pictures were collected from a wide variety of sources including internet, shops and the newspapers. The texts were matched with their translations, so both the original advertising texts along with translations constitute the corpus of the study. The juxtaposition includes both the linguistic as well as visual elements. In order to have more reliable data and results, the texts were collected from a wide range of fields including health products, cars, home appliances etc.

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The Impact of Teaching Critical Thinking on the Reading and Writing Abilities of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract

Recent research suggests that critical thinking is not typically an intrinsic part of instruction at any level. Students come without any training in it, while faculties tend to take it for granted as an automatic by-product of their teaching. Yet without critical thinking systematically designed into instruction, learning is transitory and superficial. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the impacts of teaching critical thinking skills on the development of the reading and writing abilities of Iranian EFL learners, in line with other studies confirming the positive relationship between critical thinking and language skills. The treatment consisted of 18 instructional sessions of 20 minutes on critical thinking. The participants of the study were 50 male and female students with pre-advanced proficiency level. The students in the experimental group were taught critical thinking skills beside other materials while the students in the control group did not have critical thinking instruction. The data were analyzed using several independent t-tests which were administered across pre-test and post-test scores. The results indicated that critical thinking led to students' significant improvement in reading and writing abilities in the experimental group. The results have implications for teachers, institutes and material designers.

Keywords

Critical thinking, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Problem-solving tasks, Reading ability, Writing ability.

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To eliminate this issue, the present study aims at investigating the effects of teaching these skills in a language classroom. In order to reach this target, in this study students of the control group received training on critical thinking for 18 sessions and their performance in reading and writing skills were compared to the students of control group that did not benefit any instruction in this regard.

Literature Review

Freely and Steinberg (2000) highlight the important role of debates, group discussions, and individual problem solving activities to enhance critical thinking in the students. They argue that debates improve critical thinking if the ideal opportunity is provided by the instructor for students. As far as it is a process of asking and answering questions and finding information to arrive at a reasoned judgment on a proposition, students have got the chance of coming against a theory. In that case, they not only increase their knowledge but also try to win a decision. Consequently, they greatly use their ability of critical thinking.

> By setting group discussions, students are made to come up with a single decision through a collaborative activity analyzing others' beliefs, using the same standards and values of the members of the group, and taking the responsibility of supporting the group. (Freely & Steinberg, 2000, p.9)

Setting some sort of activities upon which individual decisions are made can promote critical thinking skills in students. It would be a kind of individual decision making while all the dimensions of a problem are controlled by the person without any further support. In this way, the person reflects on his own opinion, monitors himself, and makes the final decision on his own (Fahim & Saeepour, 2011).

Some instructors might think that critical thinking cannot be taught through lecturing. Critical thinking is an active process whose skills are analysis, synthesis, reflection, and many other factors that must be thought through practice. Thus, lecturing is considered as a passive activity when students just listen to the lectures passively. However, it is possible to make lectures active tasks by stopping students while

giving lectures and asking them some thoughtful questions about the materials which have been just presented. Courses held in laboratories are considered to be beneficial since students have the opportunity to practice their critical thinking. Because they are learning scientific method in which discovery learning is emphasized, critical thinking leads to discovery learning with relevant information and perceived inferences.

Writing activities are the best way to teach critical thinking. Writing is an activity which forces students to organize their thoughts, think deeply about their topic and present their conclusions in a persuasive manner. Goatly (2000) and Gorjian, Pazhakh & Parang (2012) state that one reason that we might expect writing to improve critical thinking is through some sort of writing such as persuasive or argumentative writing which would be difficult for the students . Some of the strategies for teaching critical thinking are: CAT (Classroom Assessment Techniques), Cooperative Learning Strategies, Case Study /Discussion Method, Using Questions (Reciprocal Peer Questioning, Reader's Questions), Conference Style Learning, Use Writing Assignments, Dialogues (Written dialogues, Spontaneous Group Dialogue) and Ambiguity, Allegretti (1995), Bernstein (1985) and Mills (1995).

Reading and Writing Abilities

Reading and writing are linked skills and therefore there are common elements in the reading and writing processes. Writers develop ideas for a text, while readers predict what a text is about. Readers search for information on a page of text using their familiarity of words, syntax, and semantics to understand the text, while writers use that same knowledge to produce meaningful text. Writers use similar information about language and language processes as readers do. Since the writing a writer produces becomes reading, the two acts come together. Readers and writers both reread the text to confirm that they are right or to self correct. In writing, this is part of the revision and editing processes and in reading this is part of problem solving and monitoring. “In reading we turn print into language and the

language into print to confirm. In writing, we turn language into print then print into language to confirm" (Mooney, 2003). The processes are complementary.

In addition to the processes of reading and writing, there are features of text that are important to comprehending during reading that can be developed through both reading and writing. An understanding of various genres and how text structures develop as the writer tries them out in his/her writing. Also, the cohesive ties that are present in texts as an aid to understanding must be put into texts. The reciprocity of recognizing those ties as a reader and producing them as a writer help the development of children's literacy.

Along with the interaction between reading and writing in composition and text, there are also features of print that can be reinforced through both reading and writing. Clay (1998) states that "the interactive liaison between composing and constructing a written message and reading it back provides opportunities for noticing some of the ways in which language works, while forming letters calls attention to perceptual forms and critical features" (p. 132). The early understandings that children need to learn as part of becoming literate are needed in both reading and writing. Learning that spoken words can be presented in print and that text is related to speech is an important early concept that can be developed both in reading and in writing. Going back to the days of the language experience approach, there has been an emphasis on the value of learning to write while learning to read (Stauffer, 1970). The directional principles of the English language can be taught in both reading and writing. Where do we start on the page as a reader and as a writer? Any of the conventions of print, such as punctuation and its meaning, use of capital letters, the application of letter/sound knowledge, and visual spelling knowledge all can be learned and practiced both through reading and writing.

Writing slows down thought processes and allows for categorizing and structuring thoughts. Developing a text requires linkages to background knowledge and the organization of thoughts and experiences in a way that cannot be done through talking about a text

or reading it. Asking children to respond to reading through writing also develops the ability to more thoughtfully synthesize text through the slowed down process of writing.

There are comprehension strategies that can be developed through writing. Writers need to think about their overarching idea or theme and what important details to include. Readers need to determine main idea and theme and identify important details as they read (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997). When teaching the craft of writing, primary teachers often focus on descriptive language. Teaching children to write, using description, ties directly to their ability to develop mental images, and a comprehension strategy (Zimmerman & Hutchins, 2003).

Looking at the five elements of early reading instruction (NRP, 2001) and instructional contexts in writing, we can see a close connection between what children learn as readers and what children learn as writers. Clay (1998) states: Writing allows a slow analysis of detail in print; both reading and writing draw on the same sources of knowledge about letters, sounds, chunks, words, syntax (or grammar and sentence construction), the rules of discourse, and narrative structures and genre differences; "dipping into a large pool of both reading and writing may help those with limited knowledge of the language, and may have cognitive advantages". (p. 139)

There are connections between learning to read and write that can be useful to beginning readers (Langer & Flihan, 2000; Teale & Yokota, 2000). These connections help children link written language processes which make learning to both read and write more successful. What is being advocated is not using writing in service of learning to read, but not neglecting writing in the push for improving reading. Learning to write has importance in its own, but the two processes of both reading and writing can better be developed together.

As mentioned earlier, writing activities are the best way to teach critical thinking; thus writing and consequently reading ability are expected to improve after teaching critical thinking skills. Many

scholars have investigated the impact of teaching critical thinking skills to language learners on their improvement in reading and wiring skills. Assadi, Davatgar and Jafari (2013) designed a study to find out the effect of critical thinking on enhancing writing among Iranian EFL learners. The participants wrote a pretest writing, then the experimental group received treatment about successful critical thinking strategies based on Bloom's taxonomy of thinking skills. After the administration of posttest of writing, the results revealed that critical thinking instruction had a significant effect on writing performance of the participants.

Soleimani & Ghavami (2014) investigated the effects of critical thinking on writing skill of the learners of teaching language as a foreign language, TEFL, students in Tehran Payame Noor University, Iran. Participants of the study were pretested before the treatment and received a posttest after that in the form of two writings. A 4-point Likert scale questionnaire was also given to the subjects before and after the treatment and all the procedure of the study was done via the Internet. The results of the research revealed that enhancing critical thinking skills had a statistically significant impact on TEFL subjects' writings. Alkoudari, 2015 explored the effect of integrating critical thinking on learners' performance in writing. The results of this mix-method design study also confirmed that integrating critical thinking in teaching the writing skills would enhance students' writing performance and creativity.

Fahim & Saeepour (2011) investigated the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on reading comprehension ability, as well as the effect of applying debate on critical thinking of EFL learners. For this purpose, a reading comprehension and a critical thinking appraisal pretest were administered to the two groups. The experimental group received 8 sessions of treatment using debate as a classroom activity. To compare the two groups they were given the same tests as a posttest. The analysis of collected data showed significant difference between the two groups on reading comprehension test, but the difference on critical thinking test was non-significant. However, the

results indicate that teaching critical thinking skills in EFL context can improve language learning.

Alizamani et al. (2013) investigated the effects of teaching critical thinking strategies on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. First, pre-tests of reading comprehension were administered to experimental and control groups to assess their knowledge of reading comprehension before the treatment. The experimental group was then exposed to teaching critical thinking strategies training. Finally, post-tests of reading comprehension were administered to students of both groups at the end of the treatment to assess possible difference of performance of experimental and control groups. Statistical analysis of the results provided evidence in support of the positive effect of critical thinking knowledge on reading comprehension ability.

In line with the studies confirming the positive relationship between critical thinking ability and language proficiency, the present study intended to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on reading and writing ability of the Iranian language learners.

Statement of the problem

Critical thinking has gained widespread popularity in various disciplines nowadays. Educators have realized the importance of nurturing students who are critical thinkers and have a critical eye to look at the world surrounding them. Critical thinking skills figure prominently among the goals for education, whether one asks developers of curricula, educational researchers, parents, or employers. Although lots of studies have been conducted in various fields to examine the significance of critical thinking and the methods of teaching it, much is not known about the relationship between critical thinking and language learning. In other words, our knowledge about the effects of explicit instruction of critical thinking skills on language learning ability is far from perfect. To shed more light on this issue, the researcher embarked on the task of investigating the impacts of teaching critical thinking skills on reading and writing abilities of language learners. The following questions are investigated in the present study: 1. Does teaching critical thinking skills have any

significant effect on the development of reading ability of Iranian EFL learners? 2. Does teaching critical thinking skills have any significant effect on the development of writing ability of Iranian EFL learners?

Method

Participants

The participants of the present study were 50 pre advanced English learners studying at Simin language institute, Tehran, Iran. They had already passed 15 courses in English and were at pre advanced level of English proficiency. They were attending a class in which all reading, writing, listening and speaking skills were taught based on New Interchange book (4 last units of Interchange 3, 4th edition). There were both male and female learners in class. The learners were between 15 and 24 years of age. The participants were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups, each group consisting of 25 people. There was almost the same number of male and female learners in each group.

Instruments

The 2006 version of paper-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was administered to the control and experimental groups at the beginning of the study in order to make sure they were homogeneous in terms of their language ability. The reading and writing sections of the TOEFL were used to assess learner's reading and writing abilities at the beginning of the study. After the treatment, the 2007 version of TOEFL was administered to the control and the experimental groups in order to see if critical thinking had a significant effect on promoting learners' reading and writing skills in the experimental group. The reading section of the pretest and posttest was composed of 40 multiple choice questions that was scored by the researcher. The writing section required the students to write a 150-250 word essay in 30 minutes about the given topic. In order to increase the reliability, the writings were scored by the researcher and another qualified teacher based on the TOEFL test scoring criteria. In the cases that the raters gave different scores to the same writing, the

mean of the 2 scores was considered as the writing score of the participant.

Procedures

Fifty language learners taking term 16 (4 last units of Interchange 3) at Simin Language Institute were selected and randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups. In order to ensure that learners were homogenous in terms of their linguistic ability which was supposed to be pre-advanced, a paper-based TOEFL test was administered to learners at the beginning of the semester. The course consisted of 18 sessions, each lasting one and a half hours. The researcher taught both the experimental and the control groups. In both classes, similar units and skills were taught. The teacher played the role of instructor and observer while students went through activities. The students were required to do the homework that contained all 4 language skills of each session. Everything was the same for the control and experimental group except for the treatment. In the experimental class, in addition to going through the lessons and activities in Interchange book, the teacher devoted 20 minutes for teaching critical thinking techniques during the class time. In the very first session, the teacher explicitly explained what critical thinking is and how significant it is to have a critical mind in modern life. Then, during the following sessions the teacher taught critical thinking techniques for about 20 minutes and gave them time to practice them. These skills included involving learners in problem solving activities, raising questions, teaching logical reasoning, evaluating others' arguments, etc. that could be found in detail below:

- **CAT (Classroom Assessment Techniques)**: Angelo (1995) stresses the use of ongoing classroom assessment as a way to monitor and facilitate students' critical thinking. An example of a CAT is to ask students to write a "Minute Paper" responding to questions such as "What was the most important thing you learned in today's class? What question related to this session remains uppermost in your mind?" The teacher selects some of the papers and prepares responses for the next class meeting.

- **Cooperative Learning Strategies:** Cooper (1995) argues that putting students in group learning situations is the best way to foster critical thinking. "In properly structured cooperative learning environments, students perform more of the active, critical thinking with continuous support and feedback from other students and the teacher" (p. 8).
- **Case Study /Discussion Method:** McDade (1995) describes this method as the teacher presenting a case (or story) to the class without a conclusion. Using prepared questions, the teacher then leads students through a discussion, allowing students to construct a conclusion for the case.
- **Using Questions:** King (1995) identifies ways of using questions in the classroom:
  - ✓ *Reciprocal Peer Questioning:* Following lecture, the teacher displays a list of question stems (such as, "What are the strengths and weaknesses of...). Students must write questions about the lecture material. In small groups, the students ask each other the questions. Then, the whole class discusses some of the questions from each small group.
  - ✓ *Reader's Questions:* Require students to write questions on assigned reading and turn them in at the beginning of class. Selecting a few of the questions as the impetus for class discussion is the next step.
- **Conference Style Learning:** The teacher does not "teach" the class in the sense of lecturing. The teacher is a facilitator of a conference. Students must thoroughly read all required material before class. Assigned readings should be in the zone of proximal development. That is, readings should have the quality to be understood by students, and challenging. Students should ask each other questions and discuss them. The teacher does not remain passive, but rather, helps "direct and mold discussions by posing strategic questions and helping students build on each others' ideas" (Underwood & Wald, 1995, p. 18).
- **Use Writing Assignments:** Wade sees the use of writing as fundamental to developing critical thinking skills. "With written

assignments, an instructor can encourage the development of dialectic reasoning by requiring students to argue both [or more] sides of an issue" (p. 24).

- **Dialogues:** Robertson and Rane-Szostak (1996) identify two methods of stimulating useful discussions in the classroom:
  - ✓ *Written dialogues:* Give students written dialogues to analyze. In small groups, students must identify the different viewpoints of each participant in the dialogue. They must look for biases, presence or exclusion of important evidence, alternative interpretations, misstatement of facts, and errors in reasoning. Each group must decide which view is the most reasonable. After coming to a conclusion, each group acts out the dialogue and explains the analysis of it.
  - ✓ *Spontaneous Group Dialogue:* One group of students is assigned roles to play in a discussion (such as leader, information giver, opinion seeker, and disagreer). Four observer groups are formed with the functions of determining what roles are being played by whom, identifying biases and errors in thinking, evaluating reasoning skills, and examining ethical implications of the content.
- **Ambiguity:** Strohm & Baukus advocate producing much ambiguity in the classroom. Don't give students clear cut material. Give them conflicting information that to think their way through.

Based on the above-mentioned techniques, in order to raise the students' critical thinking ability in the experimental group, the teacher asked the students to write a paragraph about what they found interesting or the questions that remained unanswered as homework at the end of each session. The paragraphs were discussed at the beginning of the following session as warm up. Most class activities were done in pairs or groups to provide more discussion and interaction opportunities for the students.

None of the reading comprehension texts that were presented at the

end of each unit was taught by the teacher. Instead, 3 or 4 students were assigned to teach each text to the whole class as a conference. The other students were supposed to take notes while listening to the lectures, discuss what they understood and the vague parts in groups and then ask their questions from the lecturers.

During the treatment period, the students were given two topics as writing assignment to discuss pros and cons of "plastic surgery operations" and "abortion". They were then asked to read the writing of one of their peers and evaluate its reasoning skill. They were also given two written dialogues and asked to discuss the viewpoints of the characters and their reasoning ability in pairs. The teacher finally asked the pairs to share their answers with the whole class and analyzed the dialogue critically.

Design

The design of the present study was a quasi-experimental design in which there were participants who were randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups. Due to logistic constraints, it was not feasible for the researcher to randomly select the participants of the study. Therefore, the researcher used subjects of convenience and random assignment of the participants to the control and experimental design was done.

Data Analysis and Results

After administering the TOEFL test at the outset, in order to make sure that the control and experimental groups had almost the same level in our specific areas of interest (reading and writing) at the beginning of the study, two independent *t*-tests were carried out; the first one was carried out between the experimental and control groups in reading pre-test. The results presented in table 1 indicate that the means of both groups in reading were very close and there was no significant difference in the results. Thus, we could conclude that the experimental group with the mean of 14.40 and the control group with the mean of 14.56 were equivalent in terms of reading level at the beginning of the study.

Table 1. Independent t-test of differences across two groups for reading pre-test scores

Groups	*n*	*M*	*S*	*df*	*t*	*Sig.*
G1	25	14.56	2.02	48	.24	.81
G2	25	14.40	2.61			

p <.05, G1= Control group, G2= Experimental group

The second independent *t*-test was between the experimental and control group in writing pre-test. The results presented in table 2 indicate that the means of both groups in writing, 14.64 for the experimental group and 14.16 for the control group, were very close and there was no significant difference in the results. Thus, the researcher concluded that there were equal groups in writing level at the beginning of the study.

Table 2. Independent t-test of differences across two groups for writing pre-test scores

Groups	*n*	*M*	*S*	*df*	*t*	*Sig.*
G1	25	14.16	2.07	48	- .77	.44
G2	25	14.64	2.28			

p <.05

Having gone through the experimentation phase, an independent sample t-test was employed to compare the mean scores of the control and experimental groups on final reading and writing tests. Alpha level at .05 (P=.05) was set. As the mean score of the experimental group was statistically larger than the mean score of the control group, the researcher could conclude that critical thinking instruction had a significant effect on the reading and writing abilities of the learners since everything was the same for both groups except the treatment.

The first research question of this study was 1. Does teaching critical thinking skills have any significant effect on the development of reading ability of Iranian EFL learners? It includes two variables: (1) critical thinking (the independent variable), and achievement in reading (the dependent variable). Pair wise comparison between the mean scores of the experimental and control group in reading scores, that were 18.04 and 14.86 respectively, indicates a statistically significant effect for critical thinking on students' achievement in reading; thus the first null hypothesis is rejected. This means that when students were given the opportunity to have critical thinking in

their schedules, they displayed statistically higher achievement in reading than when solely exposed to teacher as the only tutor in the classroom. The results are presented in table 3 below.

Table 3. Independent t-test of differences across two groups for reading post-test scores

Groups	*n*	*M*	*S*	*df*	*t*	*Sig.*
G1	25	14.86	1.83	48	-5.80	.00
G2	25	18.04	2.15			

$p < .05$

The second research question of the study was 2. Does teaching critical thinking skills have any significant effect on the development of writing ability of Iranian EFL learners? It includes two variables: (1) critical thinking (the independent variable), and (2) achievement in writing (the dependent variable). Pair wise comparison between the mean score of the experimental group, 17.56, and the control group, 15.20, in writing scores indicates a statistically significant effect for critical thinking on students' achievement in writing. Here, the second null hypothesis is also rejected and it can be said that critical thinking in this study did enhance achievement in writing. The results could be observed in table 4.

Table 4. Independent t-test of differences across two groups for writing post-test scores

Groups	*n*	*M*	*S*	*df*	*t*	*Sig.*
G1	25	15.20	2.08	48	-4.23	.00
G2	25	17.56	1.85			

$p < .05$

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine whether critical thinking has a meaningful effect on reading on writing skills of the Iranian EFL learners. As illustrated in the previous section, the results of this study confirmed the significant contributions of teaching critical thinking skills in EFL classroom on students' performance in reading and writing. The results of the study are in line with findings reported by other Iranian researchers of critical thinking (Assadi, 2013) who demonstrated that critical thinking had significant effects on the

writings of the group of language learners who received proper treatments. The study conducted by Fahim and Saeepour (2011) also confirmed the improvement of language learners in reading skill after receiving 8 sessions of treatment in critical thinking using debate.

Applying critical thinking in educational environment has become an important topic, and is receiving a great amount of attention in different disciplines. Some claim that thinking and reasoning skills can be taught as if they are generalizable and transferrable skills (Davidson & Hawkins, 1998), while others believe that critical thinking is not an autonomous, cognitive skill that can be learned out of context; domain knowledge and domain practice are essential for critical thinking practice both inside and outside the classroom (Atkinson & Pennycook, 1999).

With regard to the findings of the previous studies and the results of the current research, it could be realized that critical thinking has a statistically significant effect on many aspects of human life and skills including reading and writing abilities.

Pedagogical implications

Considering the pivotal contributions of including critical thinking principles in educational programs, the results of the present study has pedagogical implications for syllabus and material designers, teachers, students and test developers. The syllabus and material designers are suggested to include critical thinking instruction in text books and teacher training courses. Students require materials that invoke their critical thinking and teachers should be trained to change their attitudes toward students and themselves (Kabilan, 2000). Teachers are recommended to include critical thinking techniques such as dialogues, writing assignments, cooperative learning strategies, conferences, etc. in every session to improve communicative competence and intellectual abilities of the students (Cole, 2008). They are also suggested to have the role of a patient facilitator, guiding students to be critical thinkers.

Test developers are also addressed in this study. As the aim of testing is to evaluate the curriculum and the development of the

learners, this study suggests the test developers to design tests in a way that affects the teaching quality and improves the students' critical thinking ability. It is, therefore, evident how evoking critical thinking ability of the learners could facilitate their learning in all disciplines. However, further studies are required to provide empirical evidence for this claim.

Suggestions for further research

The present study investigated the efficacy of critical thinking in the development of reading and writing skills of Iranian pre-advanced learners. The researchers are, therefore, suggested to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on the improvement of other language skills and sub-skills such as listening, speaking, vocabulary and grammar. The participants of the present study were pre-advanced adults. Thus, future studies could be conducted to examine the efficacy of critical thinking on basic proficiency level language learners and kids. The design of this study and most other studies that have been conducted so far have been experimental. Qualitative and long-term studies might reveal different results.

This study investigated the impact of critical thinking on language learners in the language institute. Further studies can be held in other settings such as universities, schools, kindergartens, etc. It is also suggested that other researchers investigate which teaching strategies and assessments are best adapted to critical thinking to help the material and test developers.

Conclusion

Beyer (1995) believes that the teaching of critical thinking is very important. He argues that to live successfully in a democracy, people must be able to think critically in order to make sound decisions about personal and civic affairs. If students learn to think critically, then they can use good thinking as the guide by which they live their lives.

Accordingly, the results of the present study, in line with similar findings in previous studies by Alizamani et al. (2013) and Mehdipour

& Yaghoubi (2015), proves the significant role of critical thinking in improving learners' reading and writing skills, are applicable for a number of groups. Alizamani et al. (2013) investigated the effects of teaching critical thinking strategies on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. The results of the study showed that critical thinking knowledge helped students in a better understanding of English language texts. Mehdipour and Yaghoubi (2015) investigated the impact of teaching critical thinking tasks among EFL learners. The results showed that teaching critical thinking tasks can make a valuable contribution to learners to become competent writers with regard to coherency. The teachers of English as a foreign language can realize that teaching critical thinking skills is a worthwhile activity. As the findings of the study prove that promoting critical thinking in learners is possible and beneficiary, teachers can use these techniques to boost students' learning. Students can also benefit from the findings of this study since becoming critical thinker is the goal of many disciplines including language learning, Hatcher, 2013. Stakeholders and material developers may also come to the conclusion that new policies should be chosen and new materials should be prepared to incorporate techniques that are necessary to foster language learners' thinking abilities.

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Appendices

Text 1- Written dialogue

Extracted from "A raisin in the Sun by Lorraine Hansberry"

Mama: Oh - So now it's life. Money is life. Once upon a time freedom used to be life - now it's money. I guess the world really do change.

Walter: No - it was always money, Mama. We just didn't know about it.

Mama: No . . . something has changed. You something new, boy. In my time we was worried about not being lynched. You ain't satisfied or proud of nothing we done. I mean that you had a home; that we kept you out of trouble till you was grown; that you don't have to ride to work on the back of nobody's streetcar. You my children - but how different we done become.

1. What is the difference between the viewpoints of the two characters about money?
2. How strongly can mama convince her son in this dialogue?
3. What might be the following reply of Walter?

Text 2- Written dialogue

Extracted from A soldier's home, Earnest Hemingway

Mom: God has some work for everyone to do. There can't be no idle hands in His Kingdom.

Krebs: I'm not in His Kingdom.

Mom: We are all of us in His Kingdom. I've worried about you so much. I know the temptations you must have been exposed to. I know how weak men are. I know what your own dear grandfather, my own father, told us about the Civil War and I have prayed for you. I pray for you all day long.

1. Explain the conflicting viewpoints of Krebs and his mom.
2. What type of characteristic each of them have?
3. What is Krebs probably thinking and feeling?

Reading Pretest

Questions 1-14 are based on the following passage.

Extinction of the Dinosaurs

Paleozoic Era	334 to 248 million years ago
Mesozoic Era	245 to 65 million years ago
-Early Mesozoic Era-Triassic Period -Mid Mesozoic Era-Jurassic Period -Late Mesozoic Era-Cretaceous Period	
Cenozoic Era	65 million years ago to the present

1. Paleontologists have argued for a long time that the demise of the dinosaurs was caused by climatic alterations associated with slow changes in the positions of continents and seas resulting from plate tectonics. Off and on throughout the Cretaceous (the last period of the Mesozoic era, during which dinosaurs flourished), large shallow seas covered extensive areas of the continents. Data from diverse sources, including geochemical evidence preserved in seafloor sediments, indicate that the Late Cretaceous climate was milder than today's. The days were not too hot, nor the nights too cold. The summers were not too warm, nor the winters too frigid. The shallow seas on the continents probably buffered the temperature of the nearby air, keeping it relatively constant.
2. At the end of the Cretaceous, the geological record shows that these seaways retreated from the continents back into the major ocean basins. No one knows why. Over a period of about 100,000 years, while the seas pulled back, climates around the world became dramatically more extreme: warmer days, cooler nights; hotter summers, colder winters. Perhaps dinosaurs could not tolerate these extreme temperature changes and became extinct.
3. If true, though, why did cold-blooded animals such as snakes, lizards, turtles, and crocodiles survive the freezing winters and torrid summers? These animals are at the mercy of the climate to maintain a livable body temperature. It's hard to understand why they would not be affected, whereas dinosaurs were left too crippled to cope, especially if, as some scientists believe, dinosaurs were warm-blooded. Critics also point out that the shallow seaways had retreated from and advanced on the continents numerous times during the Mesozoic, so why did the dinosaurs survive the climatic changes associated with the earlier fluctuations but not with this one? Although initially appealing, the hypothesis of a simple climatic change related to sea levels is insufficient to explain all the data.
4. Dissatisfaction with conventional explanations for dinosaur extinctions led to a surprising observation that, in turn, has suggested a new hypothesis. Many plants and animals disappear abruptly from the fossil record as one moves from layers of rock documenting the end of the Cretaceous up into rocks representing the beginning of the Cenozoic (the era after the Mesozoic). Between the last layer of Cretaceous rock and the first layer of Cenozoic rock, there is often a thin layer of clay. Scientists felt that they could get an idea of how long the extinctions took by determining how long it took to deposit this one centimeter of clay and they thought they could determine the time it took to deposit the clay by determining the amount of the element iridium (Ir) it contained.
5. Ir has not been common at Earth's surface since the very beginning of the planet's history. Because it usually exists in a metallic state, it was preferentially incorporated in Earth's core as the planet cooled and

consolidated. Ir is found in high concentrations in some meteorites, in which the solar system's original chemical composition is preserved. Even today, microscopic meteorites continually bombard Earth, falling on both land and sea. By measuring how many of these meteorites fall to Earth over a given period of time, scientists can estimate how long it might have taken to deposit the observed amount of Ir in the boundary clay. These calculations suggest that a period of about one million years would have been required. However, other reliable evidence suggests that the deposition of the boundary clay could not have taken one million years. So the unusually high concentration of Ir seems to require a special explanation.

6. In view of these facts, scientists hypothesized that a single large asteroid, about 10 to 15 kilometers across, collided with Earth, and the resulting fallout created the boundary clay. Their calculations show that the impact kicked up a dust cloud that cut off sunlight for several months, inhibiting photosynthesis in plants; decreased surface temperatures on continents to below freezing; caused extreme episodes of acid rain; and significantly raised long-term global temperatures through the greenhouse effect. This disruption of food chain and climate would have eradicated the dinosaurs and other organisms in less than fifty years.

1. According to paragraph 1, which of the following is true of the Late Cretaceous climate?

   a. Summers were very warm and winters were very cold.
   b. Shallow seas on the continents caused frequent temperature changes.
   c. The climate was very similar to today's climate.
   d. The climate did not change dramatically from season to season.

2. Which of the following reasons is suggested in paragraph 2 for the extinction of the dinosaurs?

   a. Changes in the lengths of the days and nights during the Late Cretaceous period
   b. Droughts caused by the movement of seaways back into the oceans
   c. The change from mild to severe climates during the Late Cretaceous period
   d. An extreme decrease in the average yearly temperature over 10,000 years

3. Why does the author mention the survival of "snakes, lizards, turtles, and crocodiles" in paragraph 3?

   a. To argue that dinosaurs may have become extinct because they were not cold-blooded animals
   b. To question the adequacy of the hypothesis that climatic change related to sea levels caused the extinction of the dinosaurs
   c. To present examples of animals that could maintain a livable body temperature more easily than dinosaurs

d. To support a hypothesis that these animals were not as sensitive to climate changes in the Cretaceous period as they are today

4. The word "cope" in paragraph 3 is closest in meaning to

a. adapt
b. move
c. continue
d. compete

5. According to paragraph 3, which of the following is true of changes in climate before the Cretaceous period and the effect of these changes on dinosaurs?

a. Climate changes associated with the movement of seaways before the Cretaceous period did not cause dinosaurs to become extinct.
b. Changes in climate before the Cretaceous period caused severe fluctuations in sea level, resulting in the extinction of the dinosaurs.
c. Frequent changes in climate before the Cretaceous period made dinosaurs better able to maintain a livable body temperature.
d. Before the Cretaceous period there were few changes in climate, and dinosaurs flourished.

6. The word "fluctuations" in paragraph 3 is closest in meaning to

a. extremes
b. retreats
c. periods
d. variations

7. Which of the sentences below best expresses the essential information in the highlighted sentence in paragraph 4? Incorrect choices change the meaning in important ways or leave out essential information.

a. The fossil record suggests that there was an abrupt extinction of many plants and animals at the end of the Mesozoic era.
b. Few fossils of the Mesozoic era have survived in the rocks that mark the end of the Cretaceous.
c. Fossils from the Cretaceous period of the Mesozoic up to the beginning of the Cenozoic era have been removed from the layers of rock that surrounded them.
d. Plants and animals from the Mesozoic era were unable to survive in the Cenozoic era.

8. In paragraph 4, all the following questions are answered EXCEPT:

a. Why is there a layer of clay between the rocks of the Cretaceous and Cenozoic?
b. Why were scientists interested in determining how long it took to deposit the layer of clay at the end of the Cretaceous?
c. What was the effect of the surprising observation scientists made?

d. Why did scientists want more information about the dinosaur extinctions at the end of the Cretaceous?

9. The word "bombard" in paragraph 5 is closest in meaning to

a. approach
b. strike
c. pass
d. circle

10. Paragraph 5 implies that a special explanation of the Ir in the boundary clay is needed because

a. the Ir in microscopic meteorites reaching Earth during the Cretaceous period would have been incorporated into Earth's core
b. the Ir in the boundary clay was deposited much more than a million years ago
c. the concentration of Ir in the boundary clay is higher than in microscopic meteorites
d. the amount of Ir in the boundary clay is too great to have come from microscopic meteorites during the time the boundary clay was deposited

11. The word "disruption" in paragraph 6 is closest in meaning to

a. exhaustion
b. disturbance
c. modification
d. disappearance

12. Paragraph 6 mentions all of the following effects of the hypothesized asteroid collision EXCEPT:

a. a large dust cloud that blocked sunlight
b. an immediate drop in the surface temperatures of the continents
c. an extreme decrease in rainfall on the continents
d. a long-term increase in global temperatures

13. Directions: Look at the part of the passage displayed below with the letters A, B, C and D. Where would the following sentence best fit?

Consequently, the idea that the Ir in the boundary clay came from microscopic meteorites cannot be accepted.

Ir has not been common at Earth's surface since the very beginning of the planet's history. Because it usually exists in a metallic state, it was preferentially incorporated in Earth's core as the planet cooled and consolidated. Ir is found in high concentrations in some meteorites, in which the solar system's original chemical composition is preserved. Even today, microscopic meteorites continually bombard Earth, falling on both land and sea. By measuring how many of these meteorites fall to Earth over a given period of time, scientists can estimate how long it might have taken to deposit the observed amount of Ir in the boundary clay. A. These calculations suggest that a period of about one million

years would have been required. B. However, other reliable evidence suggests that the deposition of the boundary clay could not have taken one million years. C. So the unusually high concentration of Ir seems to require a special explanation. D.

14. Directions: An introductory sentence for a brief summary of the passage is provided below. Complete the summary by selecting the 3 answer choices that express the most important ideas in the passage. Some sentences do not belong in the summary because they express ideas that are not presented in the passage or are minor ideas in the passage.

    This question is worth 2 points.
    Choose 3 answers.
    Introductory sentence: For a long time, scientists have argued that the extinction of the dinosaurs was related to climate change.
    Answer Choices:

    a. Extreme changes in daily and seasonal climates preceded the retreat of the seas back into the major ocean basins.
    b. A simple climate change does not explain some important data related to the extinction of the dinosaurs at the end of the Cretaceous.
    c. The retreat of the seaways at the end of the Cretaceous has not been fully explained.
    d. The abruptness of extinctions at the end of the Cretaceous and the high concentration of Ir found in clay deposited at that time have fueled the development of a new hypothesis.
    e. Some scientists hypothesize that the extinction of the dinosaurs resulted from the effects of an asteroid collision with Earth.
    f. Boundary clay layers like the one between the Mesozoic and Cenozoic are used by scientists to determine the rate at which an extinct species declined.

    Questions 15-28 are based on the following passage.

    Running Water on Mars?

    1. Photographic evidence suggests that liquid water once existed in great quantity on the surface of Mars. Two types of flow features are seen: runoff channels and outflow channels. Runoff channels are found in the southern highlands. These flow features are extensive systems-sometimes hundreds of kilometers in total length- of interconnecting, twisting channels that seem to merge into larger, wider channels. They bear a strong resemblance to river systems on Earth, and geologists think that they are dried-up beds of long-gone rivers that once carried rainfall on Mars from the mountains down into the valleys. Runoff channels on Mars speak of a time 4 billion years ago (the age of the Martian highlands), when the atmosphere was thicker, the surface warmer, and liquid water widespread.

    2. Outflow channels are probably relics of catastrophic flooding on Mars long ago. They appear only in equatorial regions and generally do not form extensive interconnected networks. Instead, they are probably the paths taken

by huge volumes of water draining from the southern highlands into the northern plains. The onrushing water arising from these flash floods likely also formed the odd teardrop-shaped "islands" (resembling the miniature versions seen in the wet sand of our beaches at low tide) that have been found on the plains close to the ends of the outflow channels. Judging from the width and depth of the channels, the flow rates must have been truly enormous-perhaps as much as a hundred times greater than the 105 tons per second carried by the great Amazon River. Flooding shaped the outflow channels approximately 3 billion years ago, about the same time as the northern volcanic plains formed.

3. Some scientists speculate that Mars may have enjoyed an extended early period during which rivers, lakes, and perhaps even oceans adorned its surface. A 2003 Mars Global Surveyor image shows what mission specialists think may be a delta-a fan-shaped network of channels and sediments where a river once flowed into a larger body of water, in this case a lake filling a crater in the southern highlands. Other researchers go even further, suggesting that the data provide evidence for large open expanses of water on the early Martian surface. A computer-generated view of the Martian north polar region shows the extent of what may have been an ancient ocean covering much of the northern lowlands. The Hellas Basin, which measures some 3,000 kilometers across and has a floor that lies nearly 9 kilometers below the basin's rim, is another candidate for an ancient Martian sea.

4. These ideas remain controversial. Proponents point to features such as the terraced "beaches" shown in one image, which could conceivably have been left behind as a lake or ocean evaporated and the shoreline receded. But detractors maintain that the terraces could also have been created by geological activity, perhaps related to the geologic forces that depressed the Northern Hemisphere far below the level of the south, in which case they have nothing whatever to do with Martian water. Furthermore, Mars Global Surveyor data released in 2003 seem to indicate that the Martian surface contains too few carbonate rock layers—layers containing compounds of carbon and oxygen—that should have been formed in abundance in an ancient ocean. Their absence supports the picture of a cold, dry Mars that never experienced the extended mild period required to form lakes and oceans. However, more recent data imply that at least some parts of the planet did in fact experience long periods in the past during which liquid water existed on the surface.

5. Aside from some small-scale gullies (channels) found since 2000, which are inconclusive, astronomers have no direct evidence for liquid water anywhere on the surface of Mars today, and the amount of water vapor in the Martian atmosphere is tiny. Yet even setting aside the unproven hints of ancient oceans, the extent of the outflow channels suggests that a huge total volume of water existed on Mars in the past. Where did all the water go? The answer may be that virtually all the water on Mars is now locked in the permafrost layer under the surface, with more contained in the planet's polar caps.

For each question, choose 1 answer unless there are special directions.

15. The word "merge" in paragraph 1 is closest in meaning to

    A. expand
    B. separate
    C. straighten out
    D. combine

16. What does the discussion in paragraph 1 of runoff channels in the southern highlands suggest about Mars?

    A. The atmosphere of Mars was once thinner than it is today.
    B. Large amounts of rain once fell on parts of Mars.
    C. The river systems of Mars were once more extensive than Earth's.
    D. The rivers of Mars began to dry up about 4 billion years ago.

17. The word "relics" in paragraph 2 is closest in meaning to

    A. remains
    B. sites
    C. requirements
    D. sources

18. The word "miniature" in paragraph 2 is closest in meaning to

    A. temporary
    B. small
    C. multiple
    D. familiar

19. In paragraph 2, why does the author include the information that 105 tons of water flow through the Amazon River per second?

    A. To emphasize the great size of the volume of water that seems to have flowed through Mars' outflow channels
    B. To indicate data used by scientists to estimate how long ago Mars' outflow channels were formed
    C. To argue that flash floods on Mars may have been powerful enough to cause tear-shaped "islands" to form
    D. To argue that the force of flood waters on Mars was powerful enough to shape the northern volcanic plains

20. According to paragraph 2, all of the following are true of the outflow channels on Mars EXCEPT:

    A. They formed at around the same time that volcanic activity was occurring on the northern plains.
    B. They are found only on certain parts of the Martian surface.
    C. They sometimes empty onto what appear to have once been the wet sands of tidal beaches.

D. They are thought to have carried water northward from the equatorial regions.

21. All of the following questions about geological features on Mars are answered in paragraph 3 EXCEPT:

A. What are some regions of Mars that may have once been covered with an ocean?
B. Where do mission scientists believe that the river forming the delta emptied?
C. Approximately how many craters on Mars do mission scientists believe may once have been lakes filled with water?
D. During what period of Mars' history do some scientists think it may have had large bodies of water?

22. According to paragraph 3, images of Mars' surface have been interpreted as support for the idea that

A. the polar regions of Mars were once more extensive than they are now
B. a large part of the northern lowlands may once have been under water
C. deltas were once a common feature of the Martian landscape
D. the shape of the Hellas Basin has changed considerably over time

23. What can be inferred from paragraph 3 about liquid water on Mars?

A. If ancient oceans ever existed on Mars' surface, it is likely that the water in them has evaporated by now.
B. If there is any liquid water at all on Mars' surface today, its quantity is much smaller than the amount that likely existed there in the past.
C. Small-scale gullies on Mars provide convincing evidence that liquid water existed on Mars in the recent past.
D. The small amount of water vapor in the Martian atmosphere suggests that there has never been liquid water on Mars.

24. Which of the sentences below best expresses the essential information in the highlighted sentence in paragraph 4? Incorrect choices change the meaning in important ways or leave out essential information.

A. But detractors argue that geological activity may be responsible for the water associated with the terraces.
B. But detractors argue that the terraces may have been formed by geological activity rather than by the presence of water.
C. But detractors argue that the terraces may be related to geological forces in the Northern Hemisphere of Mars, rather than to Martian water in the south.
D. But detractors argue that geological forces depressed the Northern Hemisphere so far below the level of the south that the terraces could not have been formed by water.

25. According to paragraph 4, what do the 2003 Global Surveyor data suggest about Mars?

A. Ancient oceans on Mars contained only small amounts of carbon.

B. The climate of Mars may not have been suitable for the formation of large bodies of water.

C. Liquid water may have existed on some parts of Mars' surface for long periods of time.

D. The ancient oceans that formed on Mars dried up during periods of cold, dry weather.

26. The word "hints" in paragraph 5 is closest in meaning to

A. clues
B. features
C. arguments
D. effects

27. Directions: Look at the part of the passage displayed below with the letters A, B, C and D. Where would the following sentence best fit?

These landscape features differ from runoff channels in a number of ways.

Outflow channels are probably relics of catastrophic flooding on Mars long ago. A. They appear only in equatorial regions and generally do not form extensive interconnected networks. B. Instead, they are probably the paths taken by huge volumes of water draining from the southern highlands into the northern plains. C. The onrushing water arising from these flash floods likely also formed the odd teardrop-shaped "islands" (resembling the miniature versions seen in the wet sand of our beaches at low tide) that have been found on the plains close to the ends of the outflow channels. D. Judging from the width and depth of the channels, the flow rates must have been truly enormous—perhaps as much as a hundred times greater than the 105 tons per second carried by the great Amazon River. Flooding shaped the outflow channels approximately 3 billion years ago, about the same time as the northern volcanic plains formed.

28. Directions: An introductory sentence for a brief summary of the passage is provided below. Complete the summary by selecting the 3 answer choices that express the most important ideas in the passage. Some sentences do not belong in the summary because they express ideas that are not presented in the passage or are minor ideas in the passage.

This question is worth 2 points.
Choose 3 answers.
Introductory sentence: There is much debate concerning whether Mars once had water.
Answer Choices:

A. Various types of images have been used to demonstrate that most of the Martian surface contains evidence of flowing water.

B. The runoff and outflow channels of Mars apparently carried a higher volume of water and formed more extensive networks than do Earth's river systems.

C. Mars' runoff and outflow channels are large-scale, distinctive features that suggest that large quantities of liquid water once flowed on Mars.
D. Although some researchers claim that Mars may once have had oceans, others dispute this, pointing to an absence of evidence or offering alternative interpretations of evidence.
E. While numerous gullies have been discovered on Mars since 2000, many astronomers dismiss them as evidence that Mars once had liquid water.
F. There is very little evidence of liquid water on Mars today, and it is assumed that all the water that once existed on the planet is frozen beneath its surface.

Questions 29-40 are based on the following passage.

The Rise of Teotihuacán

1. The city of Teotihuacán, which lay about 50 kilometers northeast of modern-day Mexico City, began its growth by 200-100 B.C. At its height, between about A.D. 150 and 700, it probably had a population of more than 125,000 people and covered at least 20 square kilometers. It had over 2,000 apartment complexes, a great market, a large number of industrial workshops, an administrative center, a number of massive religious edifices, and a regular grid pattern of streets and buildings. Clearly, much planning and central control were involved in the expansion and ordering of this great metropolis. Moreover, the city had economic and perhaps religious contacts with most parts of Mesoamerica (modern Central America and Mexico).

2. How did this tremendous development take place, and why did it happen in the Teotihuacán Valley? Among the main factors are Teotihuacán's geographic location on a natural trade route to the south and east of the Valley of Mexico, the obsidian type of volcanic glasslike rock used for manufacturing tools and ceremonial objects resources in the Teotihuacán Valley itself, and the valley's potential for extensive irrigation. The exact role of other factors is much more difficult to pinpoint-for instance, Teotihuacán's religious significance as a shrine, the historical situation in and around the Valley of Mexico toward the end of the first millennium B.C., the ingenuity and foresightedness of Teotihuacán's elite, and, finally, the impact of natural disasters, such as the volcanic eruptions of the late first millennium B.C.

3. This last factor is at least circumstantially implicated in Teotihuacán's rise. Prior to 200 B.C., a number of relatively small centers coexisted in and near the Valley of Mexico. Around this time, the largest of these centers, Cuicuilco, was seriously affected by a volcanic eruption, with much of its agricultural land covered by lava. With Cuicuilco eliminated as a potential rival, any one of a number of relatively modest towns might have emerged as a leading economic and political power in Central Mexico. The archaeological evidence clearly indicates, though, that Teotihuacán was the center that did arise as the predominant force in the area by the first century A.D.

4. It seems likely that Teotihuacán's natural resources - along with the city elite's ability to recognize their potential-gave the city a competitive edge over its neighbors. The valley, like many other places in Mexican and Guatemalan highlands, was rich in obsidian. The hard volcanic stone was a resource that had been in great demand for many years, at least since the rise of the Olmecs (a people who flourished between 1200 and 400 B.C.), and it apparently had a secure market. Moreover, recent research on obsidian tools found at Olmec sites has shown that some of the obsidian obtained by the Olmecs originated near Teotihuacán. Teotihuacán obsidian must have been recognized as a valuable commodity for many centuries before the great city arose.
5. Long-distance trade in obsidian probably gave the elite residents of Teotihuacán access to a wide variety of exotic goods, as well as a relatively prosperous life. Such success may have attracted immigrants to Teotihuacán. In addition, Teotihuacán's elite may have consciously attempted to attract new inhabitants. It is also probable that as early as 200 B.C. Teotihuacán may have achieved some religious significance and its shrine (or shrines) may have served as an additional population magnet. Finally, the growing population was probably fed by increasing the number and size of irrigated fields.
6. The picture of Teotihuacán that emerges is a classic picture of positive feedback among obsidian mining and working, trade, population growth, irrigation, and religious tourism. The thriving obsidian operation, for example, would necessitate more miners, additional manufacturers of obsidian tools, and additional traders to carry the goods to new markets. All this led to increased wealth, which in turn would attract more immigrants to Teotihuacán. The growing power of the elite, who controlled the economy, would give them the means to physically coerce people to move to Teotihuacán and serve as additions to the labor force. More irrigation works would have to be built to feed the growing population, and this resulted in more power and wealth for the elite.

For each question, choose 1 answer unless there are special directions.

29. The word "massive" in paragraph 1 is closest in meaning to

    A. ancient
    B. carefully planned
    C. very large
    D. carefully protected

30. In paragraph 1, each of the following is mentioned as a feature of the city of Teotihuacán between A.D. 150 and 700 EXCEPT:

    A. regularly arranged streets
    B. several administrative centers spread across the city
    C. many manufacturing workshops
    D. apartment complexes

31. The word "pinpoint" in paragraph 2 is closest in meaning to

A. identify precisely
B. make an argument for
C. describe
D. understand

32. The word "ingenuity" in paragraph 2 is closest in meaning to

A. ambition
B. sincerity
C. faith
D. cleverness

33. Which of the following is NOT mentioned in paragraph 2 as a main factor in the development of Teotihuacán?

A. The presence of obsidian in the Teotihuacán Valley
B. The potential for extensive irrigation of Teotihuacán Valley lands
C. A long period of volcanic inactivity in the Teotihuacán Valley
D. Teotihuacán's location on a natural trade route

34. Which of the following can be inferred from paragraphs 2 and 3 about the volcanic eruptions of the late first millennium B.C.?

A. They were more frequent than historians once thought.
B. They may have done more damage to Teotihuacán than to neighboring centers.
C. They may have played a major role in the rise of Teotihuacán.
D. They increased the need for extensive irrigation in the Teotihuacán Valley.

35. What can be inferred from paragraph 3 about Cuicuilco prior to 200 B.C.?

A. It was a fairly small city until that date.
B. It was located outside the Valley of Mexico.
C. It emerged rapidly as an economical and political center.
D. Its economy relied heavily on agriculture.

36. The word "predominant" in paragraph 3 is closest in meaning to

A. most aggressive
B. most productive
C. principal
D. earliest

37. According to paragraph 4, which of the following allowed Teotihuacán to have "a competitive edge over its neighbors"?

A. A well-exploited and readily available commodity
B. The presence of a highly stable elite class
C. Knowledge derived directly from the Olmecs about the art of toolmaking

D. Scarce natural resources in nearby areas such as those located in what are now the Guatemalan and Mexican highlands

38. According to paragraph 4, what has recent research on obsidian tools found at Olmec sites shown?

A. Obsidian's value was understood only when Teotihuacán became an important city.
B. The residents of Teotihuacán were sophisticated toolmakers.
C. The residents of Teotihuacán traded obsidian with the Olmecs as early as 400 B.C.
D. Some of the obsidian used by the Olmecs came from the area around Teotihuacán.

39. Select the TWO answer choices that are mentioned in paragraph 5 as being features of Teotihuacán that may have attracted immigrants to the city.

A. The prosperity of the elite
B. Plenty of available housing
C. Opportunities for well-paid agricultural employment
D. The presence of one or more religious shrines

40. In paragraph 6, the author discusses "The thriving obsidian operation" in order to

A. explain why manufacturing was the main industry of Teotihuacán
B. give an example of an industry that took very little time to develop in Teotihuacán
C. illustrate how several factors influenced each other to make Teotihuacán a powerful and wealthy city
D. explain how a successful industry can be a source of wealth and a source of conflict at the same time

Reading Posttest

Questions 1-9 are based on the following passage.

In 1972, a century after the first national park in the United States was established at Yellowstone, legislation was passed to create the National Marine Sanctuaries Program. The intent of this legislation was to provide protection to selected coastal habitats similar to that existing for land areas designated as national parks. The designation of an area 5) a marine sanctuary indicates that it is a protected area, just as a national park is. People are permitted to visit and observe there, but living organisms and their environments may not be harmed or removed.

The National Marine Sanctuaries Program is administered by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, a branch of the United States Department of Commerce. 10) Initially, 70 sites were proposed as candidates for sanctuary status. Two and a half decades later, only fifteen sanctuaries had been designated, with half of these established after 1978. They range in size from the very small (less than I square kilometer) Fagatele Bay National Marine Sanctuary in American

Samoa to the Monterey Bay National Marine Sanctuary in California, extending over 15,744 square kilometers.

15) The National Marine Sanctuaries Program is a crucial part of new management practices in which whole communities of species, and not just individual species, are offered some degree of protection from habitat degradation and overexploitation. Only in this way can a reasonable degree of marine species diversity be maintained in a setting that also maintains the natural interrelationships that exist among these species. 20) Several other types of marine protected areas exist in the United States and other countries. The National Estuarine Research Reserve System, managed by the United States government, includes 23 designated and protected estuaries. Outside the United States, marine protected-area programs exist as marine parks, reserves, and preserves. Over 100 designated areas exist around the periphery of the Carbbean Sea. Others range 25) from the well-known Australian Great Barrer Reef Marine Park to lesser-known parks in countries such as Thailand and Indonesia, where tourism is placing growing pressures on fragile coral reef systems. As state, national, and international agencies come to recognize the importance of conserving marine biodiversity, marine projected areas. Whether as sanctuaries, parks, or estuarine reserves, will play an increasingly important role in preserving that diversity.

1. What does the passage mainly discuss?
   A. Differences among marine parks, sanctuaries, and reserves
   B. Various marine conservation programs
   C. International agreements on coastal protection
   D. Similarities between land and sea protected environments

2. The word “intent” in line 3 is closest in meaning to

   A. repetition
   B. approval
   C. goal
   D. revision

3. The word “administered” in line 8 is closest in meaning to

   A. managed
   B. recognized
   C. opposed
   D. justified

4. The word “these’” in line 11 refers to

   A. sites
   B. candidates
   C. decades
   D. sanctuaries

5. The passage mentions the Monterey Bay National Marine Sanctuary (lines 13-14) as an example of a sanctuary that

A. is not well know
B. covers a large area
C. is smaller than the Fagatele Bay National Marine Sanctuary
D. was not originally proposed for sanctuary status

6. According to the passage, when was the National Marine Sanctuaries Program established?

A. Before 1972
B. After 1987
C. One hundred years before national parks were established
D. One hundred years after Yellowstone National Park was established

7. According to the passage, all of the following are achievements of the National Marine Sanctuaries Program EXCEPT

A. the discovery of several new marine organisms
B. the preservation of connections between individual marine species
C. the protection of coastal habitats
D. the establishment of areas where the publiccan observe marine life

8. The word "periphery" in line 24 is closest inmeaning to

A. depth
B. landmass
C. warm habitat
D. outer edge

9. The passage mentions which of the following as a threat to marine areas outside the United States?

A. Limitations in financial support
B. The use of marine species as food
C. Variability of the climate
D. Increases in tourism

Questions 10-17 are based on the following passage.

From their inception, most rural neighborhoods in colonial North America included at least one carpenter, joiner, sawyer, and cooper in woodworking; a weaver and a tailor for clothing production; a tanner, currier, and cordwainer (shoemaker) for fabricating leather objects; and a blacksmith for metalwork, Where stone was the local building material, a 5) mason was sure to appear on the list of people who paid taxes. With only an apprentice as an assistant, the rural artisan provided the neighborhood with common goods from furniture to shoes to farm equipment in exchange for cash or for "goods in kind" from the customer's field, pasture, or dairy. Sometimes artisans transformed material provided by the customer wove cloth of yam spun at the farm from the wool of the family sheep; made chairs or tables 10) from wood cut in the customer's own woodlot; produced shoes or leather breeches from cow, deer, or sheepskin tanned on the farm.

Like their farming neighbors, rural artisans were part of an economy seen, by one historian, as "an orchestra conducted by nature." Some tasks could not be done in the winter, other had to be put off during harvest time, and still others waited on raw materials that were 15) only produced seasonally. As the days grew shorter, shop hours kept pace, since few artisans could afford enough artificial light to continue work when the Sun went down. To the best of their ability, colonial artisans tried to keep their shops as efficient as possible and to regularize their schedules and methods of production for the best return on their investment in time, tools, and materials, While it is pleasant to imagine a woodworker, for example, 20) carefully matching lumber, joining a chest together without resort to nails or glue, and applying all thought and energy to carving beautiful designs on the finished piece, the time required was not justified unless the customer was willing to pay extra for the quality-and few in rural areas were, Artisans, therefore, often found it necessary to employ as many shortcuts and economics as possible while still producing satisfactory products.

10. What aspect of rural colonial North America does the passage mainly discuss?

A. Farming practices
B. The work of artisans
C. The character of rural neighborhoods
D. Types of furniture that were popular

11. The word "inception" in line 1 is closest in meaning to

A. investigation
b. location
c. beginning
d. records

12. The word "fabricating" in line 3 is closest in meaning to

A. constructing
b. altering
c. selecting
d. demonstrating

13. It can be inferred from the passage that the use of artificial light in colonial times was

A. especially helpful to woodworkers
b. popular in rural areas
c. continuous in winter
d. expensive

14. Why did colonial artisans want to "regularize their schedules their schedules" (line 18)?

A. To enable them to produce high quality products
B. To enable them to duplicate an item many times

C. To impress their customers
D. To keep expenses low

15. The phrase "resort to" in line 20 is closest in meaning to

A. protecting with
b. moving toward
c. manufacturing
d. using

16. The word "few" in lines 23 refers to

A. woodworkers
B. finished pieces
C. customers
D. chests

17. It can inferred that the artisans referred to in the passage usually produced products that were

A. simple
B. delicate
C. beautifully decorated
D. exceptionally long-lasting

Questions 18-28 are based on the following passage.

Cities develop as a result of functions that they can perform. Some functions result directly from the ingenuity of the citizenry, but most functions result from the needs of the local area and of the surrounding hinterland (the region that supplies goods to the city and to which the city furnishes services and other goods). Geographers often make 5) a distinction between the situation and the site of a city. Situation refers to the general position in relation to the surrounding region, whereas site involves physical characteristics of the specific location. Situation is normally much more important to the continuing prosperity of a city. If a city is well situated in regard to its hinterland, its development is much more likely to continue. Chicago, for example, possesses an almost 10) unparalleled situation: it is located at the southern end of a huge lake that forces east-west transportation lines to be compressed into its vicinity, and at a meeting of significant land and water transport routes. It also overlooks what is one of the world's finest large farming regions. These factors ensured that Chicago would become a great city regardless of the disadvantageous characteristics of the available site, such as being prone to flooding 15) during thunderstorm activity.

Similarly, it can be argued that much of New York City's importance stems from its early and continuing advantage of situation. Philadephia and Boston both originated at about the same time as New York and shared New York's location at the western end of one of the world's most important oceanic trade routes, but only New York possesses an 20) easy-access functional connection (the Hudson-Mohawk lowland) to the vast Midwestern hinterland. This account does not alone explain

New York's primacy, but it does include several important factors. Among the many aspects of situation that help to explain why some cities grow and others do not, original location on a navigable waterway seems particularly applicable. Of course, such characteristic as slope, drainage, power 25) resources, river crossings, coastal shapes, and other physical characteristics help to determine city location, but such factors are normally more significant in early stages of city development than later.

18. What does the passage mainly discuss?

A. The development of trade routes through United States cities
B. Contrasts in settlement patterns in United States
C. Historical differences among three large United States cities
D. The importance of geographical situation in the growth of United States cities

19. The word "ingenuity" in line 2. is closest in meaning to

A. wealth
b. resourcefulness
c. traditions
d. organization

20. The passage suggests that a geographer would consider a city's soil type part of its

A. hinterland
b. situation
c. site
d. function

21. According to the passage, a city's situation is more important than its site in regard to the city's.

A. long-term growth and prosperity
b. ability to protect its citizenry
c. possession of favorable weather conditions
d. need to import food supplies

22. The author mentions each of the following as an advantage of Chicago's location EXCEPT its.

A. hinterland
b. nearness to a large lake
c. position in regard to transport routes
d. flat terrain

23. The word "characteristics" in line 14 is closest in meaning to

A. choices
b. attitudes
c. qualities
d. inhabitants

24. The primary purpose of paragraph 1 is to
    A. summarize past research and introduce a new study
    B. describe a historical period
    C. emphasize the advantages of one theory over another
    D. define a term and illustrate it with an example

25. According to the passage, Philadelphia and Boston are similar to New York City in

    A. size of population
    B. age
    C. site
    D. availability of rail transportation

26. The word "functional" in line 20 is closest in meaning to

    A. alternate
    B. unknown
    C. original
    D. usable

27. The word "it" in line 21 refers to
    A. account
    B. primacy
    C. connection
    D. hinterland

28. The word "significant" in line 26 is closest in meaning to
    A. threatening
    B. meaningful
    C. obvious
    D. available

Questions 29-40 are based on the following passage.

The largest of the giant gas planets, Jupiter, with a volume 1,300 times greater than Earth's, contains more than twice the mass of all the other planets combined. It is thought to be a gaseous and fluid planet without solid surfaces, Had it been somewhat more massive, Jupiter might have attained internal temperatures as high as the ignition point for nuclear 5) reactions, and it would have flamed as a star in its own right. Jupiter and the other giant planets are of a low-density type quite distinct from the terrestrial planets: they are composed predominantly of such substances as hydrogen, helium, ammonia, and methane, unlike terrestrial planets. Much of Jupiter's interior might be in the form of liquid, metallic hydrogen. Normally, hydrogen is a gas, but under pressures of millions of kilograms per 10) square centimeter, which exist in the deep interior of Jupiter, the hydrogen atoms might lock together to form a liquid with the properties of metal. Some scientists believe that the innermost core of Jupiter might be rocky, or metallic like the core of Earth.

Jupiter rotates very fast, once every 9.8 hours. As a result, its clouds, which are composed largely of frozen and liquid ammonia, have been whipped into alternating dark and bright 15) bands that circle the planet at different speeds in different

latitudes. Jupiter's puzzling Great Red Spot changes size as it hovers in the Southern Hemisphere. Scientists speculate it might be a gigantic hurricane, which because of its large size (the Earth could easily fit inside it), lasts for hundreds of years.

Jupiter gives off twice as much heat as it receives from the Sun. Perhaps this is primeval 20) heat or beat generated by the continued gravitational contraction of the planet. Another starlike characteristic of Jupiter is its sixteen natural satellites, which, like a miniature model of the Solar System, decrease in density with distance-from rocky moons close to Jupiter to icy moons farther away. If Jupiter were about 70 times more massive, it would have become a star, Jupiter is the best-preserved sample of the early solar nebula, and with its satellites, might contain the most important clues about the origin of the Solar System.

29. The word "attained" in line 4 is closest in meaning to

A. attempted
B. changed
C. lost
D. reached

30. The word "flamed" in line 5 is closest in meaning to

A. burned
B. divided
C. fallen
D. grown

31. The word "they" in line 6 refers to

A. nuclear reactions
B. giant planets
C. terrestrial
D. substances

32. According to the passage, hydrogen can become a metallic-like liquid when it is

A. extremely hot
B. combined with helium
C. similar atmospheres
D. metallic cores

33. According to the passage, some scientists believe Jupiter and Earth are similar in that they both have

A. solid surfaces
B. similar masses
C. similar atmospheres
D. metallic cores

34. The clouds surrounding Jupiter are mostly composed of

A. ammonia
B. helium
C. hydrogen
D. methane

35. It can be inferred from the passage that the appearance of alternating bands circling Jupiter is caused by

A. the Great Red Spot
B. heat from the Sun
C. the planet's fast rotation
D. Storms from the planet's Southern Hemisphere

36. The author uses the word "puzzling" in line 15 to suggest that the Great Red Spot is

A. the only spot of its kind
B. not well understood
C. among the largest of such spots
D. a problem for the planet's continued existence

37. Paragraph 3 supports which of the following conclusions?

A. Jupiter gives off twice as much heat as the Sun.
B. Jupiter has a weaker gravitational force than the other planets.
C. Scientists believe that Jupiter was once a star.
D. Scientists might learn about the beginning of the Solar System by Studying Jupiter.

38. Why does the author mention primeval heat (lines 19-20)?

A. To provide evidence that Jupiter is older than the Sun
B. To provide evidence that Jupiter is older than the other planets
C. To suggest a possible explanation for the number of satellites that Jupiter has
D. To suggest a possible source of the quantity of heat that Jupiter gives off

39. According to the passage, Jupiter's most distant moon is

A. the least dense
B. the largest
C. warm on the surface
D. very rocky on the surface

40. Which of the following statements is supported by the passage?

A. If Jupiter had fewer satellites, it would be easier for scientists to study the planet itself.
B. If Jupiter had had more mass, it would have developed internal nuclear reactions.
C. If Jupiter had been smaller, it would have become a terrestrial planet.
D. if Jupiter were larger, it would give off much less heat

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The Impact of Rhythmic Teaching on the Vocabulary Knowledge of Field Dependent and Field Independent EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the effect of using rhythmic instruction on FD and FI EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. To this end, 30 EFL learners were selected based on their performances on the Solutions Placement Test. Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT) was also administered to identify groups as field dependent and field independent participants. The participants were randomly assigned to one experimental and one control group. The experimental group was provided with rhythmic instruction whereas the participants in the control group were instructed through GTM. Both groups went through a 17-week instructional period. A 50-item vocabulary test, consisting of multiple-choice, matching items, and true or false items was developed, and used as pre-test and post-test. At the end of the course, an independent samples t-test was run between the obtained means of the two groups to determine whether there was any significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the post-test. The results revealed there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. To conclude, the participants in the experimental group who had received rhythmic instruction outperformed those in the control group without such instruction. However, the mean difference between the participants in the FI group in comparison with FD was not significant, and it indicated that FI and FD learners exposed to rhythmic instruction performed similarly. The major implication of the study is that rhythmic instruction as a crucial method of vocabulary learning should receive further attention in language teaching programs.

Keywords

Field dependent, Field independent, Rhythmic teaching, Vocabulary knowledge.

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Introduction

One of the main problems that learners face in learning a language is how to retain and recall vocabulary and gain control over it. Despite the fact that vocabulary plays an important role in any language, other aspects of language learning (such as, reading, writing, or grammar) have been emphasized by many researchers (Hedge, 2000; Richards & Renandya, 2002), but among them to a greater extent vocabulary has drawn researchers' attention (Amiryousefi &Vahid, 2010). Vocabulary learning is a vital part of both language teaching and learning. Learners encounter serious problems in sharing their ideas and thoughts when they lack sufficient lexical knowledge (Boonkongsaen & Intaraprasert, 2014).Thus, vocabulary learning will be challenging for foreign language learners if they are not able to gain mastery over L2 lexicon.

Even if teachers try to reinforce vocabulary knowledge through the majority of the classroom activities such as flashcards and wordlists, their students are not motivated, and are still struggling with acquisition and retention of new vocabulary. Lack of sufficient vocabulary knowledge often poses great challenges for learners to develop their linguistic fluency at the upper elementary and secondary levels (Thornbury, 2002).Therefore, teachers need to use modern teaching methods to prevent students from getting bored and discouraged from learning vocabulary items during their training.

Researchers recognize that learners approach language learning differently. Some learners understand and interact easily with new input that is presented out of context. For others, a lack of context indicates a challenge since most of their choices are based on external clues that help learners understand and interact with new input. This type of differentiation can be based on cognitive styles of learners (Davis, 2006). Moreover, cognitive styles act as powerful variables in various educational areas, such as interaction between learners and teachers in the classroom (Yang, 2006).

Researchers have indicated that the two hemispheres of the brain process information differently. The left hemisphere relates to logical,

analytical thought and linear information processing whereas the right hemisphere perceives tactile, visual, auditory images and processes information emotionally (Urgesi & Fabbro, 2009). Both sides of the brain can be engaged at the same time by activities such as music, which enable the brain to be more effectual in processing information. Furthermore, employing songs might be a valuable teaching aid in learners' vocabulary development. Therefore, Lake (2003) asserted that integration of music with words in both hemispheres of the brain helps long-term memorization. In this sense, the use of music in learning words stimulates both brain hemispheres and facilitates word recall.

Integration of music into school curriculum helps children improve their overall language skills and complements traditional methods (Mott, 2004). Moreover, since music is closely related to the nature of language, language learners will probably be more engaged in the learning process. Therefore, communicating through a musical tool has a beneficial effect on language learning (Stansell, 2005).

Several cognitive styles have been studied over the years. Cognitive style, defined as "a psychological construct relating to how individuals process information" (Brown & Brailsford, 2006, cited in Shi, 2011, p. 327), has many classifications. Among various types of cognitive styles, both field independence (FI) and field dependence (FD) have been extensively studied and viewed as the most well-known styles (Hedge, 2000). The function of the left and right brain is related to field-independent/dependent style, since the left hemisphere of the brain is related to cognition (logic, analysis) and the right hemisphere of the brain deals with perception (visual, auditory). Left and right brain learners learn faster when class activity includes dialogs, noticing details, etc. Left-brain learners feel better when topics consist of plenty of explanations and development of parts in a logical sequence. On the other hand, right-brain dominant learners see the topic more holistically and get better results in social encounters since they are more socially-oriented. Generally, better results are achieved in any topic for left and right brain learners when learning

process conditions are more consistent with their styles or needs (Davies, 2000).

The researcher's interest in this study comes from her experience as an EFL teacher who desired to know how differently students approached learning vocabulary presented through rhythm and how their learning styles impacted the choices they made. This perception leads to choose FD/FI learning styles that relate to the right and left-brain function. Some evidence exists that there may be such a relation. For example, Zoccolotti and Oltman (1978) declared that field-independent subjects display greater right hemisphere specialization for configurational processing and greater left hemisphere specialization for verbal processing than those who are relatively field-dependent subjects.

Furthermore, according to Salcedo (2002) majority of learners use their right hemisphere to process music. Applying nonverbal right-brain skills such as actions, emotions, and music assist learners to enhance their creativity, memory, and recall. Hence, in this study, the possible link between rhythmic instruction and enhancement of FD/FI learners' vocabulary knowledge was investigated.

Literature Review

Vocabulary acquisition

Recent studies indicate that teaching vocabulary is probably challenging because many teachers are not sure of the best way in vocabulary teaching nor do they know how their teaching will affect vocabulary learning (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008).Teaching vocabulary plays an important role in learning a language. The more words learners know, the more they will be able to comprehend and produce efficiently. Thus, learning a language without words is impossible as communication between human beings is based on words. Both teachers and learners are of the same opinion that acquisition of the vocabulary is essential in teaching a language (Walters, 2004).

It has been shown that there is a relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary size of EFL learners. Learners who

use different strategies instead of a limited number of learning strategies can acquire a large number of vocabulary items (Nation, 2001). It has been proposed that teachers attempt to make learners are aware of the contribution of learning strategies to their vocabulary size and ask them to apply these strategies in their vocabulary learning. Teachers should familiarize learners with how to use these strategies, and try to use these strategies in class activities and assignments in order to push learners to internalize these strategies (Cameron, 2001).

Teaching vocabulary is one of the most important parts of teaching English as a foreign language. A good teacher should equip himself or herself with different effective vocabulary teaching techniques and implement them in the language class. It is vital for teachers to be able to gain over mastery of content in order to be understandable by students, and engage them in teaching and learning process in the classroom (Alqatani, 2015).

Teaching methodology for English language learners has essentially changed. Just as general teaching method has changed from teacher-centered activities to student-centered activities, memorizing lists of decontextualized vocabulary has changed to learning vocabulary that is embedded within contexts (Segal, 2014).Thus, content should be introduced authentically and teachers use enjoyable and interesting ways to teach learners.

Theories related to the Brain, Music, and Language Production

Multiple Intelligences Theory and Application

Many teachers have tried to use multiple intelligences (MI) theory, first introduced by Gardner (2006), to enhance their teaching practice (Segal, 2014). Gardner (2006) states that learners learn effectively when teachers' lesson plan is based on learners' multiple intelligences. This gives learners an opportunity to take part in different activities that appeal to the various intelligences. In addition, neural networks that bring about long-term memory are activated when different parts of the brain are stimulated by targeting different intelligences.

Armstrong's (2009) literature considered that MI theory in the classroom is used as a teaching strategy, class management, and

assessment tool. Furthermore, Stanford (2003) indicated that similar aspects of MI theory are applied in the classroom based on three basic aspects of the theory. These three aspects consist of teaching strategies, curriculum adaptations, and student assessment, especially in the field of general education. There are several studies that show teachers' application of MI theory integrated with musical experiences. Indeed, unmotivated students have experienced academic improvement when exposed to techniques principled by MI theory (Janes et al., 2000).

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia is an instructional technique that assists learners to enhance their receptive skills. In this method, both left and right hemispheres of learners become active during lesson due to the use of music that stimulates both hemispheres of the brain (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Moreover, it is asserted that this method aids learners to be in a relaxed learning atmosphere, and brings about effective language acquisition. The key to the method is the idea that changing the rhythm of music constantly prevents boredom. Krashen, who indicates that Suggestopedia enables students to enhance their learning subconsciously, has supported this method (as cited in Salcedo, 2002).

Rhythm and Brain

The nature of rhythm and the correlations between rhythm in language learning and rhythm in music have been considered by studies that relate to brain functioning (Corriveau & Goswami, 2008; Patel, 2003). According to Overy and Turner (2009) rhythm as a "basic organizing principle of music" is the result of some musical behaviors such as clapping and dancing. In addition, they state that musical rhythm "strongly relates to temporal aspects of language"(p. 1). Research has indicated that the language and speech skills of children can develop if rhythm is involved in children's language and motor play. Learning becomes more holistic when the utterances are more rhythmic and voice modulated. Furthermore, music can be helpful for other kinds of language learners, that is to say it can help holistic learning by providing rhythmical exercises (Mora, 2000).

According to Medina (2002) in the psychological research, music and its subcomponent, rhythm, have both played an important role in rote memorization process. When different types of verbal information (e.g. spelling lists) are presented simultaneously with music, memorization is enhanced (Šišková, 2008). Besides, learners' memorization skills develop twenty-five times more than the traditional methods when music is used in a language class (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Callan et al. (2007) asserted that learning can be doubled if information processing in the brain is supported through memory aids such as music.

According to neuroscience studies, there is an overlap in the brain between language and music processing. Because of this overlap, using songs in English language teaching contexts might facilitate teaching language (Besson & Friederici, 2005). Another aspect of music that relates to brain functioning is the Mozart effect, which suggests that music can maximize brainpower and enhance students' cognitive abilities (Shellenberg, 2005).

It has been proven that music and language have always been interconnected in order for teaching vocabulary of a foreign language through rhythm to be effective (Fitch, 2005). Furthermore, rhythm helps to improve the ability of the mind to recall information. Therefore, rhythmic instruction helps learners to learn new vocabulary more efficiently and it is one of the best ways to stick information in mind (Šišková, 2008).

Rhythmic Instruction

What is Rhythm in English

Rhythm is a complex feature of pronunciation. Rhythm, in English, includes combination of stressed and unstressed syllables. That is to say, the contrast of stressed and unstressed syllables makes the rhythm of English, and the rhythmic beat is carried by the stressed syllables (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). Rhythm of spoken English is based on a unit with different terms. Roach (2000) called this rhythmic unit the foot**.** The foot "begins with a stressed syllable and includes all

following unstressed syllables up to (but not including) the following stressed syllable'' (Roach, 2000, p.135).

The pattern of spoken speech is referred to as rhythm when word and sentence stress combine. The combination of word stress and sentence stress (the regular patterned beat of stressed and unstressed syllables and pauses) creates the rhythm of an English utterance (Roach, 2000).

Current Strategies for Teaching Rhythmic Instruction

Strategies for teaching rhythm have been suggested by several music educators (e.g. Brown & Chesnutt, 2001; Conway, 2003; Dalby, 2005; Whaley, 2004). Researchers have recommended several strategies for teaching rhythm:

1. Teach correct word stress when introducing vocabulary (Field, 2005).When vocabularies are introduced in different contents, teacher should teach stress at the individual word level. Then, learners should focus on correct syllable stress in order to practice speaking new words. Besides, when words are used in a sentence, accurate stress of content words and unstress of function words may be modeled by the teacher. Therefore, learners will get an opportunity to practice rhythm.
2. Frequent choral repetitions with body movement (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). Choral repetition has been a traditional technique to assist learners practice pronunciation and to reach automaticity. In this way, learners can unconsciously practice intelligible chunks of language. Ideally, this choral practice correlates with kinesthetic movement, such as tapping, stepping, or clapping (McCurdy & Meyers, 2014, cited in Haasch, 2016).
3. Rhythm drills/congruent rhythm drills (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).This technique enhances learners' awareness to stressed elements within words and sentences. First, learners try to identify stressed elements in a sentence that teacher reads them aloud. Then, learners can tap on their desks or snap fingers while they listen for the second time. Learners should care about the stressed words that occur at regular intervals. Figure 1 is an example of a rhythm drill.

OOO
Cat eats mouse.
The cat eats mouse.
The cat will eat the mouse.
The cat will have eaten the mouse.
The cat might have been eating the mouse.

Fig. 1. Example of a rhythm drill

Based on the pattern, learners can practice chorally then in pairs. Rhythm drill is a controlled practice of the nature of English as a stress-timed language. Congruent rhythm drills provide controlled practice as well. A model of a given pattern is provided by tapping or clapping. Next, the example sentences are repeated chorally by learners. Figure 2 is an example of a congruent rhythm drill.

. o . o . O . . o . . o . . O
She doesn't like to hurry. He wanted to help her forget. Her father cleaned the basement. We needed to call them at ten. I didn't want to leave her. It's better to hide it from John.

Fig. 2. "Congruent rhythm drills" (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010, p.215).

Rhythm and Movement

Anvari et al. (2002) have stated that young children possess the ability to perceive rhythms within a musical context. However, Music educators at the elementary level believe that younger students are not able to comprehend rhythms completely. Based on this belief, instruction of rhythms to their younger students may be delayed by music educators (Bebeau, 1982). The musical growth of students can be hindered by this philosophy of teaching because rhythmic vocabulary needs to enhance over time and with experience (Ferrin, 2003).

Movement is a common component of rhythmic instruction. Many music educators use movement to teach rhythms (Celce-Murcia & Olhstain, 2000; Ferrin, 2003). Movement plays an important role in rhythmic instruction. Besides, rhythmic reading ability improves in learners who encounter kinesthetic learning activity in rhythmic education (Ferrin, 2003). The use of foot tapping and clapping during rhythmic instruction has been considered by some researchers (Boyle,

1970; Parisi, 2004). Rhythmic reading ability of learners significantly improves when learners use these learning devices (e.g. foot tapping and clapping) during rhythmic instruction. Thus, movement has been found to aid learners to learn rhythmic content in music.

Cognitive Styles

Cognitive psychologists tried to know human intelligence and the way people think. The theory of cognitive style became known during the 1970s, when cognitive psychologists placed greater emphasis on individual differences in domains of cognitive functioning and how individuals process information (Goodenough, 1976). Cognitive style refers to a different strategy used by everyone for encryption, storage and use of information (Atkinson, 2004). Allinson and Hayes (2012) examined cognitive style as the best way to accumulate, process, and evaluate data. Some authors have considered cognitive or learning styles, particularly FD/FI cognitive style (Chapelle & Heift, 2009; Rittschof, 2010; Thomas & McKay, 2010).

Field Dependence and Field Independence

Field dependent learners compared with field independent ones are more interested in group work and follow group instructions. Besides, Brown (2002) argues that FD learners see things that are generally less flexible and affiliated with others, whereas FI learners approach problems more analytically and they are more self-reliant and self-confident. In language learning classrooms, FD learners prefer group activities, role-plays and socially-oriented activities, while FI learners prefer to work individually and enjoy specific details in the exercise (Daniels & Moore, 2000).

Brown (2000) stated that field dependent people have a tendency to rely upon total field so that they cannot easily recognize the details embedded within the field although total field as a unified whole is perceived more clearly. He describes that field independent people can perceive particular connected items and are not distracted by other items in the context.

Field Dependence and Field Independence and Language Learning Strategy

Studies revealed that cognitive style (FD/FI) can be considered a crucial factor that affects language learning strategies (Naimie et al., 2010). Findings indicated that there is a significant relationship between FD/FI cognitive style and vocabulary learning strategies. Moreover, one of the most heuristic cognitive style constructs is field dependence/independence that consistently affects academic achievements (Tinajero et al., 2011).

Tinajero et al. (2012) explained that cognitive and metacognitive strategies were frequently used by field-independent learners. Three hundred thirty three first-year Brazilian university students participated in the study. The results indicated that field-independent learners consistently get better results than their field-dependent counterparts in terms of academic achievement. Furthermore, Chapelle and Heift (2009) investigated that FD and FI learners certainly vary in using learning strategies. Besides, they showed that FI learners intended to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies more frequently than their FD counterparts. Moreover, memory strategies such as elaboration, grouping, retention are used by FI participants whereas FD participants used more social strategies than FI ones (Dowlatabadi & Mehraganfar, 2014)

Empirical Studies

Ho, Cheung, and Chan (2003) examined the effect of musical training on verbal memory. They found that in multiple left hemisphere cortical areas including plenum temporal (PT) and auditory cortex, greater left hemispheric activation occurs in musicians compared to non-musicians (Ohnishi et al., 2001).This finding is crucial because language processing occurs in the left hemisphere too. Thus, musical training might activate the left hemisphere more than the right hemisphere and verbal memory abilities are enhanced in musicians.

Several researches have focused on the effect of musical training on verbal recall (e.g. Franklin et al., 2008; Ho et al, 2003). Ho et al. (2003) considered the effect of musical training on verbal memory in

children by conducting cross-sectional and longitudinal study. A word list was presented three times to the participants by the researchers. The participants were asked to recall as many words as possible after each test. Delayed recall test was administered within 10-minute and 30-minute in order to measure verbal memory. Results showed that more words were recalled in children who received musical training than the children without musical training.

Hart (2015) evaluated the impact of chant on student's ability to recall, read and spell words. To conduct the research, students were individually assessed using second edition of the Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA2) to determine a baseline of their language and reading abilities. Then, two songbooks were selected to use throughout the study. The first book was Down by the Bay (1988) and the second was Baby Beluga (1992). To incorporate a chant, days of the week chant was used because most of the students had difficulty in putting the days of the week in the correct order. Moreover, the researcher incorporated a chant for each new sight word to determine whether it would be helpful for learners to recall, read, and spell words or not. Along with this, a variety of nursery rhymes including Little Miss Muffet, Jack and Jill, Mary Had a Little Lamb, and Humpty Dumpty were utilized.

Over a period of four weeks, the two songbooks were incorporated. Prior to reading the first book, *Down by the Bay*, vocabulary pretest was administered in which ten specific key words from the book were selected. Then, researcher pointed to the picture in the songbook and asked students to tell her the word for the picture. The same test would then be conducted at the end of the study to determine vocabulary development.

Furthermore, each songbooks was practiced line by line, and sung the tune repeatedly for two weeks. In addition, words of the songs, which written on large chart paper, pointed to and read using a pointer. Over the course of the study, rhymes were introduced and practiced line by line daily over a one week period.

During the last week of the study, DRA-2 post-test was conducted to assess students' language development. Results showed that the use

of songs and nursery rhymes improved students' vocabulary knowledge throughout the course of the study.

However, previous research was conducted over a period of four weeks in which the researcher had time limit to do research. Furthermore, the study took place in a kindergarten classroom and did not focus on other levels and age groups. It is worth noting that most of the studies so far have considered the impact of music on vocabulary knowledge or learning styles separately. De Groot (2006) stated that music has a crucial role in enhancement of vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, Tinajero et al. (2011) determined the significant relationship between FD/FI cognitive style and vocabulary learning strategies. Taking into account the fact that no empirical study has been conducted on the effects of rhythmic instruction on the enhancement of vocabulary knowledge of FD and FI EFL learners, this study aims to investigate the effect of using rhythmic instruction on the enhancement of FD and FI EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge at pre-intermediate level. Thus, the research questions guiding this study are as follows:

1. Does rhythmic instruction have any impact on learners' vocabulary knowledge?
2. Will FD and FI learners perform similarly or differently when exposed to rhythmic vocabulary teaching? Will they display the same pattern?

Methodology

Participants

To accomplish the aims of this study and ensure homogeneity of all participants, Solutions Placement Test was utilized, and 40 participants were selected for the study. The participants' age varied from 12 to 17, who were randomly assigned to two groups, experimental and control group, each included 20 females.

Instruments

The following instruments were employed to collect data from the participants. The main instrument was Group Embedded Figure Test

(GEFT), which included 18 complex figures, each with an embedded simple figure. The participants were expected to find the hidden form or figure in the more complex one in a given time (12 minutes). The scores on GEFT ranged from 0 (the most FD) to 18 (the most FI) based on the number of correct answers given by students. The second instrument Solution Placement Test was used to ensure the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups prior to the commencement of the study. In addition, Oxford word skill Test was conducted as pre-test and post-test in which the words learners learned through rhythmic instruction were included.

Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT)

Group Embedded Figure Test (GEFT) was developed by Oltman et al. (1971), and was used to assess subjects' degree of FI/D. The test included a booklet containing 25 complex geometric designs in which test- takers were expected to find and mark the indicated simple designs within the complex designs in a given time (12 minutes). GEFT was sorted into three sections. The first section contained seven simple items in order to familiarize test -takers with the task, had a time limit of 2 minutes to practice, and the results obtained in this part were not included in the final score. Second and third sections, which were the main part of this test, each included nine difficult and challenging items within the time limit of five minutes for each. Based on the number of correct answers given by learners in second and third section the scores on GEFT ranged from 0 (the most FD) to 18 (the most FI). Those who scored above 11 were FI learners and those who scored below were FD learners.

Textbook

The learners' course book was "Oxford word skills'' by Ruth Gains and Stuart Redman; Oxford University Press (2008). The selected materials from ten chapters of the book were utilized during the treatment phase.

Solutions Placement Test

A solution placement test, a standardized proficiency test developed

by Oxford University press (2013), was given to the learners at the beginning of the study. Solutions Placement Test has been developed after consultation with teachers and was designed to assess learners' knowledge of key language from elementary to intermediate levels as well as their receptive and productive skills. The test contained 50 multiple-choice questions, each worth one point aimed to measure learners' grammar and vocabulary knowledge, a reading passage with 10 graded multiple-choice comprehension tests and a writing test.

Oxford Word Skill Test

Since available tests were not based on the materials taught to participants in the present study, samples in this exam were collected from the book, Oxford word skills by Ruth Gains and Stuart Redman, which is utilized in intact classes. The test consisted of 50 items: ? multiple choice items, ? true/false questions, ? matching questions and ? cloze tests. The learners were asked to answer within 50 minutes. The total score for the test was 50, each item worth one point.

Data Collection Procedure

The study followed placement test administration, GEFT administration, pre-test, treatment sessions, and post-test. The whole study was completed in 17sessions. At the beginning of the study, Solution Placement Test was administered to both groups in order to ensure the homogeneity of learners. The participants who scored 21 to 30 on grammar and vocabulary items, and those who gained 5 to 7 on their reading and writing tasks, were classified as pre-intermediate and qualified to be included in the analysis. Accordingly, forty pre-intermediate female EFL learners were selected based on Solution placement test administration for the present study. Having conducted the proficiency test, the researcher administered GEFT. Then the participants were randomly assigned into two groups (experimental and control). Although the number of the students to be included in each group was twenty, only eighteen learners from the experimental group and twelve learners from the control group participated in the study. This was because two learners in the experimental and eight

learners in the control group were not present on the day of the pre-test and GEFT. Thus, only students who had taken the pre-test and GEFT were included in the post-test after the study had been conducted. Based on the scores obtained from Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT), nine learners were field dependent (FD) and nine were field independent (FI) in the experimental group, and there were eight field dependent (FD) and four-field independent (FI) learners in the control group.

Next, Oxford word skill Test as pre-test was administered. Then, course objectives were clarified and elaborated on by the researcher. The experimental group received a 30- minute treatment at the end of regular class hour in each session. The group was taught vocabulary through rhythm and the learners were asked to practice the new words for the next session. But with the control group, the same words were taught through grammar translation method (GTM). That is new words and their meaning in learners' first language were given in each session and the learners were asked to memorize them. At the end of the study, a post-test was administered to evaluate the effectiveness of the treatment. The results obtained from the pre-test, post-test, and GEFT were analyzed through Independent Samples T-Test using the SPSS software.

How to Implement Rhythmic Learning in Classroom Context

Language has a natural rhythm, so using words instead of rhythmic gestures is a very intuitive way for students to learn. There are many variations to this approach, but a simple way of thinking about it is to determine words of common rhythmic gestures; for example, four semiquavers could be 'fascinating' (fa-sci-na-ting), a triplet might become 'festival' and two quavers could be 'contest'. Students clap the pulse and say the rhythm.

Furthermore, the general method that learners use to learn rhythm is to tap a steady beat with their feet. They can tap the pulse with their feet (and keep tapping through steps 3-5) and accent the pattern they are working on in their counting, then stop counting and vocalize the pattern. How they tap is up to them. They can alternate feet or use just

one foot. They can tap their heel or tap their toe, or rock back and forth from heel to toe.

Learners with their foot, tap four beats repeatedly as follows, making the beat on ONE the hardest.

ONE two three four ONE two three four ONE two three four

| . . . . | | |

Then, learners sing nonsense syllable "Da'' and hold it for four steps of their foot (tap the top line, sing the "Da'' line).

| | | |

Da . . . Da . . . Da . . .

Next step, learners practice to create notes that are half the duration.

. | . . . | . . . | . .

DadaDadaDada

When learners are able to do this comfortably, they practice to mix notes of different durations.

. | . . . | . . . | . .

DadaDaDada

After that, learners practice to create notes that take up only one beat.

. | . . . | . . . | . .

DadaDadadadaDada

When learners are able to do this comfortably, proceed to the next exercise where they are going to sing a different pattern.

. | . . | . . | . . | . .

DadadaDadadaDadadadaDa

Like any element of teaching, persistence plays an important role. In order to ingrain rhythm in learners, repetition and constant attention are necessary. Therefore, the teacher who teaches through rhythm should participate at least in ten session's workshop in order to know how to teach vocabulary through rhythm. Therefore, the researcher had attended several training courses regarding the implementation of rhythmic instruction in language classrooms and was well- trained in this area.

Data Analysis

In order to address the research questions, the analysis of the data included two distinct components. First, after gathering the data through pretest and posttest, it was analyzed by SPSS. Second, independent samples t-test was used to measure the differences, if any, between rhythmic learning group and the non- rhythmic learning group.

Results

Regarding question one, Independent Samples t-test was used in order to reveal the effects of rhythmic instruction on vocabulary learning. Besides, the assumption of normality of the analyzed data, which was tested through a one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in the present study, it was required to verify homogeneity of variances of the data sets:

Table 1. Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Control Pre-Test	.234	12	.068	.947	12	.596
Experimental Pre-Test	.183	12	.200*	.945	12	.570
Control Post-Test	.159	12	.200*	.908	12	.201
Experimental Post-Test	.175	12	.200*	.941	12	.509
Lilliefors Significance Correction b*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.						

Table 1 demonstrates the results of Normality test; there was not a statistically significant difference at the $p > .05$ level between the

means of the groups. In addition, to see whether the control and experimental groups were in equal conditions before receiving any treatment, the descriptive data of the study such as the mean scores and standard deviations of the groups were calculated.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Rhythmic Instruction for Experimental and Control Pre-Test Scores

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores	Control Pre-Test	12	5.0833	2.10878	.60875
	Experimental Pre-Test	18	5.0556	2.09964	.49489

Table 3. Independent Samples Test of Rhythmic Instruction Scores from Experimental and Control Pre-Test Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.019	.891	.035	28	.972	.02778	.78383	-1.57783	1.63338
	Equal variances not assumed			.035	23.658	.972	.02778	.78454	-1.59267	1.64822

Table 2 shows that the actual difference in the mean scores of the groups was very small (5.05and 5.08). Moreover, it shows that the mean score for the experimental group (M=5.05, SD=2.09) was not significantly different from the control group (M=5.08, SD=2.1). According to table 3, there was not a statistically significant difference at the $p > .05$ level between the means of the two groups. In short, the mean difference between the two groups was not significant, and it is assumed that they were at the same level before receiving any treatment.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Rhythmic Instruction for Experimental and Control Post-Test Scores

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-Test Scores	Control	12	22.5000	5.38516	1.55456
	Experimental	18	32.3333	6.31525	1.48852

Table 5. Independent Samples Test of Rhythmic instructions from Experimental and Control Post-Test Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-Test Scores	Equal variances assumed	.488	.490	-4.422	28	.000	-9.83333	2.22383	-14.38865	-5.27802
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.569	26.178	.000	-9.83333	2.15229	-14.25596	-5.41070

An Independent Samples T-test was conducted to explore the difference between the rhythmic instruction post-test scores of the experimental and control group. The actual difference in the mean scores between the participants in the control group in comparison with the experimental group is quite large. As Table 4 indicates the mean score for the experimental group (M=32.33, SD=6.31) was significantly different from that of the control group (M=22.5, SD=5.38). Furthermore, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the post-test scores of the two groups (table 5). Briefly, the mean difference between the two groups was significant, and it shows the effect of rhythmic instruction on vocabulary learning.

Regarding the second research question, Independent Samples t-test was used in order to reveal the effects of rhythmic instruction on FD and FI learners. In addition to the assumption of normality of the

analyzed data, which was tested through a one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in the present study, it verified the homogeneity of variances of the data sets:

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of Rhythmic Instruction for FI and FD Pre-Test Scores

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Test Scores	FI	9	5.1111	1.83333	.61111
	FD	9	5.0000	2.44949	.81650

Table 7. Independent Samples Test of Rhythmic Instruction Scores from FI and FD Pre-Test Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-Test Scores	Equal variances assumed	.602	.449	.109	16	.915	.11111	1.01986	-2.05090	2.27313
	Equal variances not assumed			.109	14.822	.915	.11111	1.01986	-2.06495	2.28717

Table 6 shows that the actual difference in the mean scores of the groups was very small (5.11and 5). Moreover, it shows that the mean score for the FI group (M=5.11, SD=1.83) was not significantly different from the FD group (M=5, SD=2.44). According to table 7, there was not a statistically significant difference at the $p > .05$ level between the means of the two groups. In short, the mean difference between the two groups was not significant, and it is assumed that they were at the same level of the rhythmic instruction at the outset of the study.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics of Rhythmic Instruction for FI and FD Post-Test Scores

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-Test Scores	FI	9	32.0000	5.52268	1.84089
	FD	9	32.6667	7.34847	2.44949

Table 9. Independent Samples Test of Rhythmic Instruction Scores from FI and FD Post-Test Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-Tes Scores	Equal variances assumed	.109	.745	-.218	16	.831	-.66667	3.06413	-7.16233	5.82900
	Equal variances no assumed			-.218	14.851	.831	-.66667	3.06413	-7.20340	5.87007

An Independent Samples T-test was conducted to explore the difference between the rhythmic instruction post-test scores of the FI and FD groups. The actual difference in the mean scores between the participants in the FI group in comparison with the FD group is quite large. As Table 8 indicates the mean score for the FI group (M=32, SD=5.52) was not statistically different from that of the FD group (M=32.66, SD=7.34).

Furthermore, there was not a statistically significant difference at the p >.05 level in the post-test scores of the two groups (table 9). Briefly, the mean difference between the two groups was not significant, and it showed that FI and FD learners exposed to rhythmic instruction performed similarly.

Discussion

This study was conducted to investigate the impact of rhythmic instruction on vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners. More specifically, the effectiveness of rhythmic instruction on FD/ FI

learners' vocabulary knowledge was the main question of this paper. The overall findings of this study, aligned with the results of many other studies (e.g., Cruz-Cruz, 2005; Fitch, 2005; Gardner, 2006, 2011;Šišková, 2008), support the position that rhythmic instruction can greatly enhance vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners suggesting that teaching vocabulary of a foreign language through rhythm could be effective and can help improve the ability of the mind to recall information.

The comparison of the rhythmic instruction and traditional methods revealed that rhythmic instruction was more effective, and the learners were generally eager to attend in class activity and that they were motivated to learn vocabulary, while they were reluctant to learn before the rhythmic instruction. This could be justified by several reasons. One likely reason for this could be related to fun and enjoyable atmosphere of the class due to utilizing rhythmic instruction. This finding concurs with the results of previous studies which stated that music reduces classroom stress, thereby facilitates learning (Engh, 2013; Salcedo, 2002).

Another possible explanation might be the fact that while recalling the text, mental mechanical activities help learners to hold in mind some information (for example, a sentence to be written down) while doing something that for them is mentally challenging (such as recalling vocabulary). When learning vocabulary through rhythmic instruction is accompanied by movement activities, the amount of oxygen in the brain is raised, which can help improve attention and focus. The findings of the present research are compatible with (Cruz-Cruz, 2005; Fitch, 2005; Gardner, 2006, 2011; Urgesi & Fabbro, 2009), since they all revealed that utilizing music in classroom context might ease learning more words in a language due to stimulating both hemispheric parts of the brain. Another convincing explanation could stem from the fact that rhythmic instruction stimulates both hemispheres of the brain. Thus, rhythmic instruction can promote learners' vocabulary knowledge by involving their right and left hemispheres.

The findings of the study fully support Salcedo's (2002) assertion that Suggestopedia aids learners to develop their language acquisition which stimulates both hemispheres of the brain by using background music and benefits learners in case of providing a relaxing atmosphere. Besides, the result of this study are in line with Lake (2003) who confirmed that both hemispheres of the brain integrate music with words more effectively. In this sense, learning more words in a language might be facilitated due to using music and stimulating both hemispheres of the brain. Furthermore, the findings of the current study agree Callan, Kawato, Parsons, and Turner (2007), who asserted that learning can be doubled if processing knowledge in brain is supported by memory aids such as music.

The final justification for the success of the rhythmic instruction comes from the fact that the performing rhythmic tasks could have activated the part of the brain that relates to language production. It means that music and its subcomponent rhythm could have engaged both brain hemispheres and affected the activities of the right and left hemisphere. Besides, whole brain was activated during rhythmic instruction in both FD/FI learners in order to learn vocabulary. Thus, rhythmic instruction assisted learners in both groups to have better performance in learning vocabulary in which rhythmic tasks facilitated recalling and storage of information in long-term memory. This could be regarded as a convincing argument in which both group of learners (FD/FI) had something in common when they were exposed to rhythmic instruction.

The interaction of FD and FI learners' variables and rhythmic instruction has never been considered the way present research has, as researchers so far have investigated the above-mentioned variables related to vocabulary learning in isolation. The findings of present study are consistent with the findings of these studies (Naimie et al., 2010) which indicate that there is significant relationship between FD/FI cognitive style and vocabulary learning strategies. Moreover, one of the most heuristic cognitive style constructs is field dependence/independence that consistently affects academic achievements (Tinajero et al., 2011).

The findings are also compatible with the findings of the study done in this area by Yang (2006), who argued that learning style is not the effective factor to impact learners achievement, and indicates that field-independent and field-dependent learners are not significantly different in their achievements. Consequently, even if learners have different learning styles, they learn equally well and there is no difference in their utilization of learning strategies.

Conclusion

The overall aim of the present study was to consider the effect of rhythmic instruction on vocabulary knowledge of FD/FI Iranian EFL learners. With regard to this general purpose, the main purposes of this study included: First, to ascertain whether rhythmic instruction had any impact on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. Second, to see if any pattern of performance existed for FD and FI learners when exposed to rhythmic instruction in terms of vocabulary knowledge. Thus, based on the obtained results and findings, the following conclusions were drawn. With respect to the first question, whether there is a relationship between rhythmic instruction and vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian EFL learners, it was found that there is significant correlation between rhythmic instruction and the learners' vocabulary knowledge. With regard to the impact of rhythmic instruction on FD/I learners, and the interaction of them on learning vocabulary, the results of the statistical procedure revealed that rhythmic instruction had a significant effect on both field dependent and field independent learners 'vocabulary knowledge.

This study can help improve teachers' knowledge about teaching vocabulary through rhythmic instruction in English language teaching classes, raise their awareness as to how to put rhythmic instruction into practice, and encourage them to use rhythmic instruction in teaching vocabulary in their courses. The present study provides evidence for and lends support to the use of rhythmic instruction in classroom settings, and thus help dispel some teachers' misconceptions about implementing rhythmic instruction in classroom contexts. These results may bring about changes in the curriculum, so

that teachers will willingly outline ways in which rhythmic vocabulary instruction can be applied more effectively in classroom settings.

An awareness of the learner's cognitive styles in rhythmic vocabulary learning may give educators the most powerful advantage and tool to analyze, motivate, and help learners in vocabulary learning. This type of knowledge can assist language instructors to choose the type of instructional materials that are well-suited to learners' cognitive style and help teachers know how such materials will have to be exploited and manipulated to cater for different learners' cognitive style, and the ways in which the same instructional materials should be introduced, presented and assessed in the language classrooms. Moreover, it is easy for children to remember words and patterns through rhythmic instruction. Words seem to be more emotively and personally significant when linked to rhythm, thus they will be easier to recollect (Cruz-Cruz, 2005).

In order to reach a better understanding about the relation between FD/FI cognitive styles and vocabulary learning strategies especially rhythmic instruction, other factors related to vocabulary learning such as gender, age, and learners' proficiency level need to be investigated. Overall, teachers and students are recommended to consider rhythmic instruction as a facilitative tool in learning English, especially in learning vocabulary.

The main delimitation of the study that affects its generalizability is gender of the participants. The study has delimited itself to female participants. Other studies on male learners also are required. The second point is the number of participants that limits the generalizability of the research to other populations. Moreover, convenient sample rather than random selection may limit the generalizability of the results of the study to other contexts.

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The effects of 'Find the Difference' and 'Describe and Draw' activities on speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the difference in the effects of "Find the Difference" and "Describe and Draw" activities on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners. The researcher adopted an experimental approach. This study consisted of 50 female participants, who were equally and randomly divided into two experimental groups. First, the researcher administered an Oxford Placement Test, followed by two interviews to make sure that the participants' level was pre-intermediate. Then, the researcher developed a teacher-made test and in order to prove the validity of the developed test a group of 40 participants, other than the major participants, took the test. The participants were divided into two experimental groups and the pre-test was administered before the instructional treatment. The treatment lasted for eight sessions and during this time the experimental groups received information gap activities. Finally, the post-test was administrated for the two groups and the results of the posttest were analyzed through some statistical procedures to determine the effect of the two types of information gap activities on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. The results indicated that there was no significant different in the performance of the two groups on the posttest which revealed that the two instructional techniques (i.e., 'Find the Difference' and 'Describe and Draw') were equally effective on enhancing Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' speaking ability.

Keywords

Describe and Draw task, Find the Difference task, Speaking ability.

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Introduction

Background

Language is for communication. People can transfer information and communicate their ideas and feelings through language. Learning English is very important, especially for students, because English is an international language. There are four skills that the students should master: listening, reading, writing and speaking skills. Speaking a language is specifically hard for foreign language learners because effective oral communication needs the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions.

Information gap is an activity in which the students may be in pairs or in groups of several people. They can be given different pieces of information about a topic to enable them to complete a task by sharing this separated information. Information gap is a helpful and interesting technique because it gives every student opportunity to speak and it considers the way we use language as a means of communication in real life. Moreover, speaking with peers is less frightening than presenting in front of the whole class and being evaluated. In this research, information gap activities are represented by two techniques that are 'Find the difference', and 'Describe and draw'.

In *describe and draw* activity, one student has a picture which they must not show to their partner. All the partner has to do is to draw the picture without looking at the original picture, so the one with the picture will give instructions and descriptions and his partner will ask questions and draw the picture.

In *find the difference* such as, puzzle books and newspaper entertainment sections, students each look at a picture which is very similar to the one their partner has. They have to find and say ten differences between their pictures without showing their pictures to each other. This means they will have to do a lot of describing and questioning and answering to find the differences. They can be useful in improving students' speaking ability.

Statement of the Problem

The researcher believes that the speaking skill, especially at pre-

intermediate levels, has been less considered and that is why in the current study the main focus was on the teaching of speaking at pre-intermediate levels based on information gap activities. In the current study, the researcher tried to propose a solution for teachers to implement one of the teaching techniques and help students to develop their oral communication skills in English. Information gap tasks through 'Find the difference' and 'Describe and draw' activities are techniques for improvement of speaking ability, and the major question in this study was "is there any significant difference in the effects of "Find the Difference" and "Describe and Draw" activities on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners?"

This study will be beneficial for students and teachers. This encourages teachers to design appropriate contexts and adapt the implementation of information gap activities to improve speaking mastery. In addition, the findings of this research could be beneficial to syllabus designers and text book writers in putting their selection, sequencing and grading on a more useful and practical basis.

The researcher believes that the speaking skill, at information gap activities especially at the two activities "Find the difference" and "Describe and draw" has been less considered and previous findings were not enough and clear. And the researcher attempted to fill this gap and to suggest a solution for teachers to implement one of the teaching techniques and help students to develop their students' oral communication skills in English. To investigate the effect of "Find the Difference" and" Describe and Draw" activities on enhancing speaking ability, the following research question was proposed.

Is there any significant difference between the effects of "Find the Difference" and "Describe and Draw" activities on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners?

Literature Review

Speaking Skill

Speaking is one of the productive activities in daily life and is the

most important language skill because it is the main skill needed to conduct a conversation. Also, speaking is an interactive process for constructing and receiving information. Specially, the mastery of speaking is a priority for students in schools and universities. In the communicative model of speaking class, the students should be taught how to speak well by using the constituents of English speaking skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, communication, fluency and comprehension.

According to Richards (2008) the mastery of speaking skill in English is a primacy for most foreign language learners. Learners often assess their achievement in learning foreign language through evaluating how their speaking ability has improved. Therefore, the teachers try to get the best method, approach or technique that is good to improve the students' speaking skill since there are varieties of methods, approaches, and techniques appear from direct approaches where the teacher focuses on specific features of oral interaction to indirect approaches where the teacher focuses in creating a condition for oral interaction which is appropriate for students. Cameron (2001) states that:

> Speaking is active uses of language that makes on learners of language in term of sharing meaning. In other words, speaking is the active use of language to express meanings so that other people can make sense of them. The label productive uses of language can be applied to speaking receptively. To construct understanding in a foreign language, learners will use their existing language resources, built up from previous experience of language use. To speak in the foreign language in order to share understandings with other people requires attention to precise details of the language. A speaker needs to find the most appropriate words and a correct grammar to convey meaning accurately and precisely and needs to organize the discourse so that the listener will understand. Speaking activities, because they are so demanding, require careful and plentiful support of various types, not just support for understanding, but also support for production (p.41).

Information Gap Techniques

Information gap activities are helpful activities in which one person

has information that the other lacks. The partners must use the second language to share the information. The follwing definition is supported by Thornberry (2005, p.80) as he states that "there is a knowledge gap that can only be bridged by using language. The students have to communicate in order to achieve the task outcome."

Richards (2006, p.18) also states "that information gap refers to the fact that in real communication, people normally communicate in order to get information they do not possess." According to Brown (2001, p. 185), information gap has two characteristics. The first one is that information gap focuses on the information and not on language forms. Second, information gap prioritizes the communicative interaction in order to reach the objective. Swan (1985, p.94) views information gap as "a basic concept in contemporary methodology" then he goes on to elaborate more on information gap: When one student talks to another, we feel that it is important that new information should be transmitted across the 'gap' between them. To do this end, ingenious exercises are devised in which half the class are provided with data to which the other half do not have access; those who lack the information then have to get it by using language in a suitable way." Kayi (2006) mentioned that:

> IGT [information gap tasks] are learning activities in which each student has a duty to work with his/her partner. One student has certain information which the other student does not have. Each student has different information. In this way, the students have to exchange information in order to complete the missing one or to fill in the gap (p. 2).

Information Gap Technique (IGT) challenge participants to exchange information in order to complete a lesson plan activity. Most IGT work is done in pairs where each student has a part of information on a task to be done. According to Harris (1990), "IGT is a good strategy for learning ESL because the activities provide good practice for using sentences which the students have just learned. IGT also gives the students chances to speak, interact and exchange information amongst them. The activities also make the lesson easy to understand and the students will speak more than their teacher does."

Neu & Reeser (1997) state "Activities in IGT are useful for speaking classes. In an activity, one person has certain information that must be shared with others in order to solve a problem, gather information or make decisions." These kinds of activities are very effective in the ESL classroom.

IGT activities can also make stronger vocabulary and a variety of grammatical structures taught in class. They permit participants to use linguistic forms and functions in a communicative way. These activities bring the language to life for the participants. Participants have the opportunity to use the building blocks of the language they are learning to speak in the second language.

Roles of teachers and students in information-gap activities

In the information-gap activities, the teacher carries out some special roles. Firstly, he/she works as a "facilitator" with some specific obligations such as to provide participants with linguistic forms or masteries that they require, to organize the classroom activities, to right the linguistic errors made by participants and to give help if essential. Secondly, the teacher plays a role of a co-communicator and takes part in students' activities. Lastly, during the activities, the teacher keeps participants under observation to understand good and bad points of participants to plan future activities. Learners often engage in role play or dramatization to adapt their use of the second language to various social contexts. - Learners' needs, styles and goals are focused on or accounted for. Learners are given some control; their creativity and new idea are encouraged.

Benefits of using information-gap activities in teaching speaking skill

The following are some of the benefits of using information-gap activities in teaching speaking skill:

1. Developing both accuracy and fluency of students
2. Ensuring equal students' participation
3. Improving students' ability of negotiating meaning
4. Increasing students' motivation for speaking

Bailey (2005, p. 46) states that "in order to develop the students' speaking skills, the writer uses Information Gap. The idea of the

information gap as an organizing concept for a speaking activity is that one person has information that another lacks." It means that the participants must use English to divide that information in order to achieve a task.

Afterwards, here are three definitions of Information Gap. The first is by Neu&Reeser (1997) in Violet Raptou he states that "in information gap activity, one person has certain information that must be shared with others in order to solve a problem, gather information or make decisions". The second is by Harmer (2007, p. 129) who writes "an information gap is where two speakers have different bits of information, and they can only complete the whole pictures by sharing that information-because they have different information, there is a 'gap' between them". The third is by DoritSasson who defines that information gap activities are those in which participants exchange information in order to complete a required lesson plan activity. Most information gap activities are done in pairs, with each participant having a part of the information.

Related Empirical studies

Some experts have discussed the advantages of applying information gaps activities in teaching speaking. Hess (2001) confirmed that information gap activities can provide a comprehensive feedback from the learners, such as a wide variety of opinions, references, and values, many different experiences and styles of learning. Then, he also added that information gap activities can promote a learner-autonomous learning style. According to Neu and Reeser (1997) "Information Gap Activities are useful for various reasons. Information Gap provides an opportunity for extended speaking practice, they represent real communication, motivation can be high, and they require sub-skills such as clarifying meaning and re-phrasing. It is very useful and helpful for the students to practice speaking in the real meaningful communication which involve sharing the different information in the task to each other."

A study conducted by Karimi (2010) revealed that the EFL learners' degree of learning increases when they learn new words by

the use of information-gap tasks in the classroom. Also the learners in the experimental group – taught through the use of information-gap tasks – were gradually seen to become less dependent upon teacher's help.

Another study conducted by Jondeya (2011) investigated the effectiveness of using information gap on developing speaking skills for eight graders in Gaza governorate schools. For achieving this aim, she adopted the experimental approach. The results proved that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores between the pre & post speaking test of the experimental group in each level of speaking skills in favor of posttest. The results also indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of each level of speaking skills in the post test for experimental group compared with the control group.

Astuti (2011) implemented information gap activities and other accompanying actions to enrich the students' speaking ability. The research was done in two cycles. The findings showed that the students' speaking ability was improved. The students are also more confident, enthusiastic, and active in doing activities during the teaching learning process. One popular information gap activity is called *Describe and draw*. In this activity, one student has a picture which they must not show their partner. All the partner has to do is draw the picture without looking at the original, so the one with the picture will give instructions and descriptions, and the artist will ask questions.

In the present study, the two experimental groups did not have any difference with each other and both tasks were communicative instruction activities. They were different from audio lingual and memorization and repetitive activities.

Methodology

Participants

The participants were chosen none-randomly at some language institutes in Qom. They were 50 female pre-intermediate English

students who had enrolled in pre-intermediate English courses at the institutes .Their age range was 12 to 16. The participants were divided into two experimental groups.

Instruments

In order to homogenize the participants' proficiency level, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used in this study. The researcher administered a teacher-made test and a PET standard test (2010) in order to choose the participants. The researcher also used printed materials; for example, she used 15 pictures downloaded from the Internet in "Find the Differences" activity and 15 pictures in "Describe and Draw" activity.

Data Collection Procedure

The participants were divided into two experimental groups. The researcher used information gap activities including "Find the difference"and "Describe and draw", which were used in teaching the experimental groups. In order to prove the validity of the teacher-made test a group of 40 participants, who were different from the two experimental groups mentioned above, were chosen. Then, to this group the OPT test was administered so that 20 out of the 40 participants who were at a pre-intermediate level could be selected. Then the teacher-made test and a PET test were administered to compute the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores in order to validate the developed test. Since the focus of the study was on the speaking skill, two interviewers interviewed students and then the researcher calculated the correlation. The correlation results are presented in following tables. Table 1 displays descriptive statistics information regarding the PET and teacher-made tests and Table 2 represents the results of the Pearson Correlation analysis. The correlation coefficient was .8, which indicate a high relationship between the two tests and proves the validity of the teacher-made test.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of PET and Teacher-made Tests

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PET	20.00	30.00	25.10	2.75
Teacher-made test	22.00	30.00	25.55	2.41

N=20

Table 2. Pearson Correlation between PET and Teacher-made tests

Test	PET	Teacher-made
Person correlation	1	.80
Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
N	20	20

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

Then, for the main groups, the researcher administered an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) followed by two interviews to make sure that the participants' level was pre-intermediate, and 50 participants were chosen out of the 70 participants. Then the pretest was administered before the treatment. The researcher administered the teacher-made test as a pre-test and post-test for the participants. Two interviewers interviewed students and then the students whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen for the study.

The treatment lasted for eight sessions and researcher explained her teaching procedure to participants in one session. One of the experimental groups included 25 participants who were divided into five groups of 5 participants. Every group received pictures related to "Describe and Draw" activity.Eight pictures of "Describe and Draw" were chosen and downloaded from the Internet by the researcher for the mentioned activity. The researcher used "Find the Difference" activity like the pervious activity. The experimental group for "Find the Difference activity" consisted of 25 participants and similary 8 pictures which were pertinent to the "Find the Difference" were chosen and downloaded from the Internet. In "Find the Difference" group, the participants each looked at a picture which was very similar to the one their partners had. They had to find, say, differences between their pictures without showing their pictures to each other.

This means they had to do a lot of describing and questioning and answering to find the differences. But in "Describe and Draw", one participant had a picture which they must not show to her partners. All the partner had to do was drawing the picture without looking at the original, so the one with the picture gave instructions and descriptions and the drawer asked questions. During this time the participants often made mistakes in grammar and had errors in pronunciation. Mispronunciation and using wrong grammar in oral English affected participants' speaking accuracy. Every session, participants were given the opportunity to speak in the class and discussed what they had drawn in their pictures. Speaking in the class greatly motivated the participants to speak.

Design of study

This study followed a quasi-experimental design. The design of this study included two experimental groups and each experimental group received treatment. The researcher administered a teacher-made test (based on KET Cambridge university press (2011) and a standard test (Based on PET Cambridge university press (2010) in order to choose the participants. The researcher used printed materials, for example in "Find the Differences activity" the researcher used 15 pictures downloaded from the Internet and 15pictures in "describe and draw activity". In this design researcher employed a pre- test and post- test before and after the treatment.

Data Analysis

The result of post-test was analyzed through independent samples t-test to determine whether the difference between the two experimental groups on the post test was significant not. The analysis or of the test scores was done through SPSS software to determine whether or not the hypothesis was rejected.

Data Analysis and results

Restatement of research hypothesis

The main aim of this study was to investigate the effect of "Find the

difference" and "Describe and draw" on enhancing the speaking of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners. The findings of the study are presented in this chapter. The research question was “Is there any statistically significant difference in the effects of “Find the Difference” and “Describe and Draw” activities on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners?

Descriptive statistics of teacher- made test and PET standard test

Table 3 illustrates descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation and maximum and minimum scores of obtained results on the teacher-made and PET test scores of the two groups.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of PET and Teacher-made Tests

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PET	20.00	30.00	25.10	2.75
Teacher-made test Valid N (list wise)	22.00	30.00	25.55	2.41

N=20

According to table 4, the correlation between the PET test and the teacher-made test was very high (r=.80) and the teacher-made test was shown to have a high validity.

Table 4. Pearson Correlation between PET and Teacher-made Tests

Test	PET	Teacher-made
Person correlation	1	.80
Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
N	20	20

Descriptive statistics of pre-test scores

1. Test of normality for the pretest

The test of normality for the pretest indicated that the data were normally distributed and there was normal distribution of scores on the pretest. The significance value (.39) proves normal distribution.

Table 5. Test of Normality for the Pre-test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretest	.09	50	.20	.97	50	.39

a. Lilliefors Significance correction

The following figure displays the Q-Q plot for the pretest results.

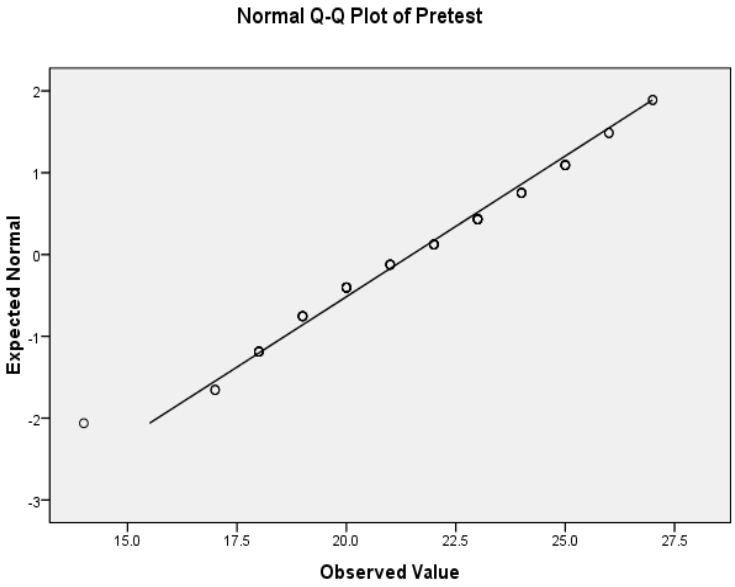

Fig. 1. Normal Q-Q Plot of Pre-test

2. Analysis of Pre-test results

Table 6 illustrates descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation and standard error mean of measurement of obtained results on pre-test scores of the two groups.

The following table shows the performance of the two groups on the pretest. As the table indicates the means of the two groups was not much different. It suggests that the two groups were similar before the treatment. However, an independent samples t-test was required to show if the difference between the groups was significant or not.

To compare the two groups on the test, an independent samples t-test was carried out on the scores of the participants of the two groups. The table 4.4 displays the descriptive statistics of the two groups' performance. As it is shown there was a difference in the performance of the two groups; the mean of the first group was 22 out of 30 and the mean of the second group was 21.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of the pretest scores

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	Find the Difference	25	22.00	3.26	.65
	Describe and Draw	25	21.00	2.46	.49

However, the results of the independent samples t-test, which is displayed in the following table, indicated that the difference was not statistically significant. The P value (Sig=.22), which was considerably higher than the critical .05 value, proved that there was not a significant difference between the two groups in their performance on the test. And the groups were almost the same in terms of their test performance.

The independent samples t-test comparing the performance of the Find the difference and Describe and draw groups on the pre-test indicated the groups were not significantly different. The results (t = 1.22, Sig = .22), the p vale of which is considerably above the critical p value, shows that the groups did not differ significantly.

Table 7. Independent Samples T-Test of the Pre-test Scores

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								90% Difference Error Confidence	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	mean	Std.	Difference Lower	Difference Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.57	.21	1.22	48	.22	1.00	.81	-.64	2.64

The following figure represents the performance of the two groups on the pre-test. As the table displays, there was not much difference in the performance of the two groups on the pretest. The performance of the find the difference was slightly better but there was no significant difference between the two groups in their pretest scores.

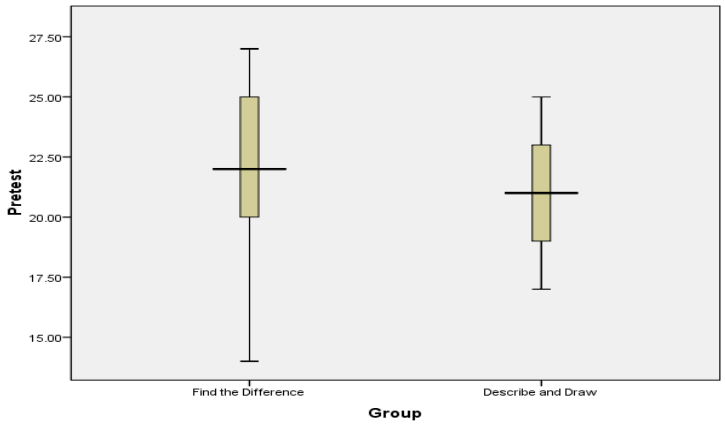

Fig. 2. Pre-test of groups

Descriptive statistics of post-test scores

1. Test of normality for the posttest

The test of normality for the posttest indicated that the data were normally distributed and there was normal distribution of scores on the posttest. The significance value (.84) proves normal distribution.

Table 8. Test of Normality for the Posttest

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**
Post test	.08	50	.20	.98	50	.84

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

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

The following figure displays the Q-Q plot for the posttest results.

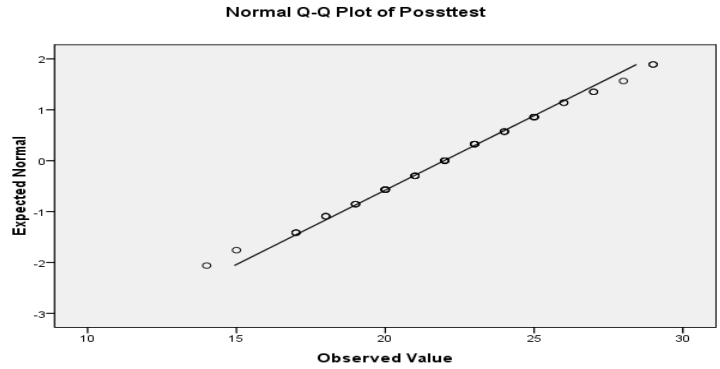

Fig. 3. Normal Q-Q plot of post-test

2. Analysis of Posttest results

Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics of the post test scores (means, standard deviations and standard error mean of measurement of obtained results on post-test scores of the two groups. The following table shows the performance of the two groups on the posttest. As the table indicates the means of the two groups was not much different. It suggests that the two groups were similar after the treatments (Find the difference and Describe and draw instructional programs). However, an independent samples t-test was required to show if the difference between the groups was significant or not.

Table 9. Descriptive statistics of the post-test scores

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post test	Find the Difference	25	22.44	3.99	.79
	Describe and Draw	25	21.52	2.74	.54

According to table 9, the independent samples t-test comparing the performance of the Find the difference and Describe and draw groups on the post-test indicated the groups were not significantly different. The results (t = .95, Sig = .34), the p vale of which is considerably above the critical p value, shows that the groups did not differ significantly. This indicates that there was no significant difference in the effects of the two types of instruction (describe and draw and find the difference activities) on the speaking performance of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners. The two techniques were equally effective.

Table 10. Independent Samples T-Test of the Post-test Scores

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								90% Difference Error Confidence	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	mean	Std.	Difference Lower	Difference Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.16	.14	.95	48	.34	.92	.96	-1.02	2.86
Equal variances not assumed			.95	42.51	.34	.92	.96	-1.03	2.87

The results (t=.95, df=48, Sig= .34) indicated that there was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups on the posttest. This reveals that the two methods were equally effective on the learning of the two groups.

The following figure represents the performance of the two groups on the post-test. As the table displays, there was not much difference in the performance of the two groups on the posttest. The performance of the find the difference was slightly better but there was no significant difference between the two groups in their posttest scores.

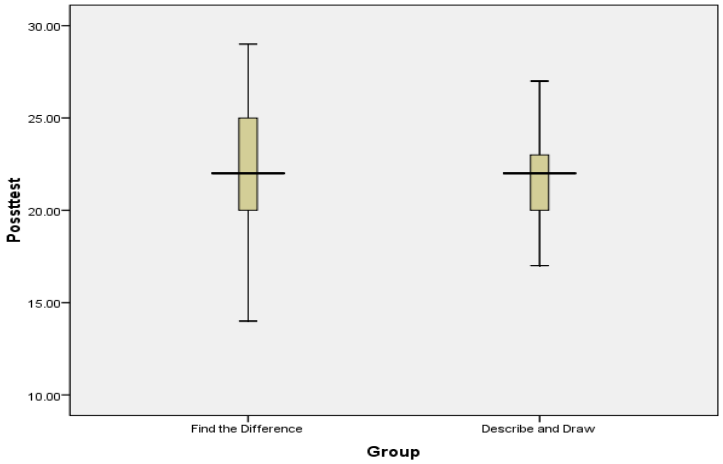

Fig. 4. Post-test of groups

Discussion and Conclusion

Summary of the findings

The objective of the current study was to investigate the effects of "Find the Difference" and "Describe and Draw" activities on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners. The findings of the study are presented in this chapter according to the following research question.

Is there any significant difference in the effects of "Find the Difference" and "Describe and Draw" activities on enhancing speaking ability of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners?

This study consisted of 50 female participants equally divided into 25 students for two experimental groups. The researcher designed

based on information gap activities including “Find the Difference”, “Describe and Draw”, which was used in teaching the experimental groups.The course lasted 8 sessions the researcher took a pre-test and a post-test before and after the treatment.To compare the two groups on the test, an independent samples t-test was carried out on the scores of the participants of the two groups. As it is shown the results of the independent samples t-test, which was displayed in chapter four, indicated that the difference was not statistically significant. The research proved that there was not a significant difference between the two groups in their performance on the post-test. And the groups were almost the same in terms of their post-test performance. This reveals that the two methods were equally effective on the speaking ability.

Discussion of the Results

The results of the researcher’s findings are in line with the conclusions from several previous studies in using information gap activities in EFL learners. Some experts have discussed the advantages of applying information gaps activities in teaching speaking. Hess (2001) confirmed that information gap activities can provide a comprehensive feedback from the learners, such as a wide variety of opinions, references, and values, many different experiences and styles of learning. Then, he also adds that information gap activities can promote a learner-autonomous learning style.

Another research conducted by Jondeya (2011) investigated the effectiveness of using information gap on developing speaking skills for eight graders in Gaza governorate schools. For achieving this aim, she adopted the experimental approach. The results proved that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores between the pre & post speaking test of the experimental group in each level of speaking skills in favor of posttest.

The results also indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of each level of speaking skills in the post test for experimental group compared with the control group.

In comparing the present study with previous studies, this research showed that both methods have same effect on speaking.

According to Neu and Reeser (1997) "Information Gap activities are useful for various reasons. Information Gap provides an opportunity for extended speaking practice, they represent real communication, motivation can be high, and they require sub-skills such as clarifying meaning and re-phrasing. It is very useful and helpful for the students to practice speaking in the real meaningful communication which involve sharing the different information in the task to each other."In this study, two experimental groups did not have any difference with each other and both tasks were communicative instruction activities. They were different from audio lingual and memorization and repetitive activities.

Conclusion

Based on the discussion and findings in the previous chapter, it can be stated that the two types of information gap activities were not different in their effects on learners' speaking ability.

First, information gap activities were conducted in pairs or in groups. Hence, the activity gave the students more opportunities to practice their speaking by communicating certain information to the other friends. Information gap activities also increased the students' motivation and confidence to speak in English. The activities require students to use the target language to fill in the gap. Hence, by using the target language continuously, the students felt motivated and confident to speak in English.

Second, the improvement also reflected from the teaching learning process. The students were more active in the speaking class. They discussed well by actively asking and answering the questions. Besides, the students also understood the classroom English very well. They were able to comprehend the target language spoken by the teacher.

The use of information gap activities in the speaking class also facilitated the students to interact with the others by asking and giving the information in the target language.

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The Study of the Relationship Between Kolb's Learning Model and Learning American Slang for Teaching and Learning by Iranian EFL Students

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Abstract

One of the most significant current discussions in learning and teaching communicative methods, especially in informal and communicative language, is the teaching and learning of American slang. There is not any study about the relationship between Kolb's Learning Model and Learning American slang among Iranian EFL students. In this study sixty three EFL students were selected. The 63 participants took the *Kolb's (2006) Learning Style Inventory questionnaire,* and then the *Slang Test.* The test and the questionnaire answered by the participants were scored. Then the data were analyzed using the descriptive statistics, correlation, regression and t-test. The outcomes of the study indicated that the Abstract Conceptualization (AC)/ being theorist, followed by the Active Experimentation (AE)/ being active, are the most dominant teaching and learning styles among the students. The outcomes of the correlation illustrated a significant and high positive correlation between the Kolb's (2005) teaching and learning model and teaching and learning slang. The study demonstrated the highest correlation between the experiential teaching and learning style (Concrete Experience (CE)/ being pragmatic) and the teaching and learning slang. The findings of this study may be useful for all persons who are concerned with language teaching and learning.

Keywords

Abstract Conceptualization (AC)/ being theorist, Active Experimentation (AE)/ being active, Concrete Experience (CE)/ being pragmatic, Learning styles, Slang learning.

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Introduction

Learning any language involving English causes many problems for learners as well as teachers. Communicative competence demands that language involves several dimensions, i.e. grammatical, discourse, and pragmatic methods. In fact, language learning at any level and any skill depends on an interaction among these four components or competences.

Online Merriam-Webster dictionary (2017) defines slang as words that are not considered part of the standard vocabulary of a language and that are used very informally in speech especially by a particular group of people. McGavigan (2009) declares that learning at least 3000 words are necessary for learning slangatic language. American slang may play a crucial role in learning and teaching informal and communicative language since producing natural language demands utilizing due American slang, informal and colligative American expressions (McCarthy et al., 2010).

Kolb (1984), according to David and Levin's previous efforts, offers a complete theory that is the basis for an approach to education and learning as a perpetual process that lies in the intellectual principles of social and cognitive psychology and philosophy (Zuber-Skerritt 1992a, 98). Kolb's (2006) model considers four different stages of learning which are convertible to the next stage. In fact, in any stage a particular dimension will be clarified, for instance, in the concrete experience stage the whatness of the experience, in the reflective observation the meaning, in the abstract conceptualization and in the active experimentation the howness. It is worth mentioning that any learning starts with the concrete experience in order to result into the active experimentation which in its turn leads to another concrete experience. Meanwhile, a successful learning experience demands going through the four stages; however, there are preferences among individuals in following any two types learning styles—concrete experience vs. abstract conceptualization or reflective observation vs. active experimentation (Kolb, 2006). One can use the Kolb method as a description of the learning process (Henry, 1989), but he strongly emphasizes its reflection and experience-based

learning. The importance of reflection by Boreham (1987, 89), also takes into account the importance of reflection, and points out that the expression Learning from experience means learning from reflection of experience. Boud (1985) has a slogan in his book title: "*Reflection: turning experience into learning*." Students may continue to make mistakes without reflection in the experience. The Kolb Multistage Model Principle is a simple explanation of the learning process that explains how the experience is used through reflection in the active experiment and the selection of new experiences. According to Coulb, these are several steps: concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE) (McKenna et al., 2017).

The process steps should be arranged to provide feedback, which is the basis for the new activity and the evaluation of its results. The learners should be in this cycle several times, so it might be better to think about that spiral cycle. The college considers the research process to be a helix of practice and research, which includes four main points: "*program, action, observation and reflection*" (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992b, 11). Race (1993) examines the steps, demands, performances, feedback, and digestion that a researcher uses in learning groups of students and geography staff (Healey, 1998).

Research Question

Is there any relationship between Kolb's Learning Model and Learning American slang for teaching and learning by Iranian EFL students?

Review of Literature

American slang: Theoretical Definitions

Macmillan English dictionary views American slang as an informal nonstandard vocabulary composed typically of coinages, arbitrarily changed words, and extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech. These words that are not considered part of the standard vocabulary of a language and that are used very informally in speech ... (Rundell & Fox, 2007). Meanwhile, American slang learning

demands a pre-requisite 3000 vocabulary size (McGavigan, 2009) which indicates to the complicated nature of American slang learning.

Hence, an American slang is a multi-word expression which has a fixed order with a non-literary meaning and that has to be learned in association with cultural, pragmatic and sociological use (Saberian & Fotovatnia, 2011).

Hence, American slang learning, according to Rodriguez and Winnberg (2013), demands a cultural knowledge. Nippold and Taylor (2002), in a similar vein, consider the cultural knowledge as the pre-requisite for American slang learning which gets started in childhood and is improving during the life of any speaker.

Learning Styles: Theoretical Definitions

Learning styles depict approaches and directions in learning which differentiate learners in their preferences for learning. In this regard, Günes (2004) considers learning style as the approach which is followed by an individual in tackling the learning task in processing, retaining and analyzing the incoming information or language input. Hence, learning styles refer to the relatively permanent direction in utilization and response to the particular language input that the language learners are exposed to the educational contexts. (Nielsen & Kreiner, 2017).

English language teaching and strategies to promote slang knowledge and communication Most studies conducted in the field of lexis indicate that vocabulary should be included in the language training center because the language contains grammatical lexical, not lexicalized grammar. Lewis (1993) indicated that the lexical method is a change in language teaching from grammar to vocabulary training; as language does not include none grammatical or traditional vocabularies, but often fragments made of several words (Lewis, 1997). These patches include slang collocations, fixed and semi-fixed terms. These patches are "*formulaic language*".

Approaches and Methods to Learning Styles

Understanding learning styles can help to use appropriate teaching methods (Vizeshfar & Torabizadeh, 2018).

Learning styles are very important factors that affect students' learning processes. Students use different styles according to their personal differences. The recognition of teaching and learning styles according to that recognition can help teachers use fruitful methods of teaching. Teachers should consider the students' personal differences and the students' educational needs (Vizeshfar & Torabizadeh, 2018).

Many students endeavor to choose effective styles in studying and suitable learning strategies. Many studies have been done to adaptation of teaching styles with learning styles (Vasileva-Stojanovska, Malinovski, Vasileva, Jovevski, & Trajkovik, 2015).

There are different approaches for dealing with learning styles, i.e. the Dunn and Dunn learning model, the Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI), Felder-Silverman learning model, the modularity theory, and Kolb's learning model.

Learning style depends on a person's learning preferences in perceiving, organizing, and processing information and then learning experiences (Vizeshfar & Torabizadeh, 2018). Students use different learning styles because of their personal differences. There are many different methods for people's learning. Kolb's learning style is one of the most prominent. Kolb claims that learning happens through a change in experience (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

The Kolb's Learning Style Model

Kolb's model is an empirical learning model. Learning includes a series of human activities, involving sensation, reflex, thinking and doing. According to this model, the main learning abilities are concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Learners based on their personal differences preference using one of these four styles.

Kolb's Theory of Learning Model, according to Kolb (2005), have composed of a continuum from concrete experience to active experimentation (concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation). The following explanes different type of this continuum

Concrete Experience (CE)

Concrete Experience (CE), according to Chapman (2006, p. 14), refers to being an important part of judgments is emotional. In fact, individuals are deprived of people and are people-oriented. They do not like the theory. They learn from specific cases and examples. They learn more from discussions with peers and feedback (Chapman, 2006, p. 17).

Reflective Observation (RO)

Reflective observation, is related to learning with an impartial, reflective and tentative approach (Chapman, 2006, p. 17). The RO individuals rely on their own and/or others experience (Chapman, 2006, p. 17), for example, they prefer lecture format learning.

Abstract Conceptualization (AC)

AC individuals, on the other hand, prefer a conceptual, analytical, rational evaluation and logical thinking approach to learning (Chapman, 2006, p. 17). The AC individuals pay attention to things no people. They learn from authority-based learning cases (Chapman, 2006, p. 17).

Active Experimentation (AE)

Active Experimentation demonstrates that an active is learned with experimentation (Chapman, 2006, p. 17). The AE individuals learn best with engaging in homework, projects, and small group discussion (Kolb, 2005, p. 17). Hence the AE individuals don't feel convenient with lectures.

The details of Kolb's learning styles model were illustrated above. Furthermore, the significance of learning American slang was discussed, too. Considering the aforementioned viewpoints, the researcher, particularly, is attempting to explain if there is a relationship between Kolb's Learning Model and Learning American slang among Iranian EFL students. The next section the research questions as well as research hypotheses are demonstrated, and the purposes of the study and the statement of the problem are clarified.

So far, some researchers have investigated few studies about American slang and American slang expressions and since they have

not studied about the relationship between Kolb's Learning Model and Learning American slang among Iranian EFL students we tried to do this. So, the researcher wanted to recognize whether there was any relation between Kolb's Learning Model and Learning American slang among Iranian EFL students.

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were 63 EFL BA students in University of Tehran who were selected out of 70 from two classes (they were selected with simple random sampling). The participants were from the both genders—27 males and 36 females with the age between 18 and 25, with Persian native language, and with English as their foreign language. In selecting participants, random sampling procedure was utilized. In fact, two classes were selected randomly and the participants took the *Solutions Placement Test: Elementary to* Intermediate which was developed by Edwards (2007), out of them, the participants with scores one standard deviation below and above the mean score were included. Meanwhile, 43% of the participants were males and 57% females.

Design of the Study

In a nutshell, the study was a correlational one in which the variables were investigated in order to determine that if these variables were correlated or not. Accordingly, the study was not going to determine whether a variable was the cause (independent variable) of other variables (dependent variables). It meant that the correlational studies investigate occurs among natural variables, while it creates a change in researcher's empirical studies in order to determine the cause of the independent variable(s) in the dependent variable(s). In this study, the correlation between learning styles and American slang learning were investigated. Hence, the difference between correlational and experimental designs should be recognized since only empirically controlled designs can well make conclusions about the cause and effect.

Instruments

Data Collection Procedures

The instruments for collecting data were two tests and one questionnaire: Elementary to Intermediate which was developed by Edwards (2007), Kolb's (2006) Learning Style Inventory questionnaire, and an American Slang Test (version 2006).

The Solutions Placement Test: Elementary to Intermediate which was developed by Edwards (2007) composed of two parts of grammar and vocabulary (50 items), and reading (one passage and 5 items). Kolb's (2006) Learning Style Inventory questionnaire composed of 80 items among which the students needed to choose the ones appropriate for them. The items of the Kolb's (2006) Learning Style Inventory questionnaire were to recognize different learning models of activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist. The American Slang Test (version 2006) composed of 15 multiple-choice items. Table 1 shows the characteristics of each test or questionnaire.

Table 1. Characteristics of the Instrumentations

Test/Questionnaire	Number of Items	Characteristics	Scoring Procedures
Solutions Placement Test: Elementary to Intermediate	55	Multiple-choice items	Based on the key answer for each item there is only one correct choice;
Kolb's (2006) Learning Style Inventory questionnaire	80	Simple statements out of the which the subjects select	Select the desired statements; no-correct answer; four sets of questions for a four-way classification;
The American Slang Test (version 2006)	15	Multiple-choice items	Based on the key answer for each item there is only one correct choice;

The randomized participants (63 out of 70) were divided into two groups-32 and 31- (both group almost with the same features in sex, age and level of education) and this group did not receive any instruction about teaching, learning and using of American slang,.

Since the Solutions Placement Test: Elementary to Intermediate (SPT) and The American Slang Test (IT) (version 2006) the standard and international tests , they enjoy from the appropriate validity—all of them cover the domain which is interested in the study, have face validity, content validity and construct validity. In terms of reliability,

Solutions Placement Test: Elementary to Intermediate (SPT) and The American Slang Test (IT) (version 2006) were administered to the EFL students in University of Tehran and the results according to the tables showed the acceptable reliability level (Hadley, 1993).

Data Analysis Procedures

In analyzing the data Spearman's rank order correlation (Rho) statistic were utilized to investigate the relationship between two variables (between learning styles and American slang learning to investigate the relation among the three variables, i.e. learning styles and American slang learning. Spearman's rank order correlation (Rho) refers to a statistic which calculated the association between two variables—at least one of them is non-parametric (the data that is nominal or ordinal which does not rely on numbers, but on ranking which in this case, learning style is non-parametric). Multiple regression, on the other hand, was utilized to measure the association among several variables—at least three.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The first variable investigated was the Kolb's learning styles among the participants. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics in the dominant learning models among the participants which used the Kolb's (1995) model. It was worth mentioning that sum of each style was also computed as the table shows.

Table 2. Kolb's Learning Styles among the Participants: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CE	63	6.00	16.00	10.9524	2.58674
RO	63	3.00	15.00	8.9841	2.76786
AE	63	10.00	18.00	13.6032	2.09099
AC	63	12.00	19.00	16.0000	1.89226
Styles	63	34.00	66.00	49.5397	8.58135

The participants of the study were 63 EFL students whose dominant styles and sum of the studies were presented in the table. The four styles demonstrated by the Kolb's Learning Styles are the four ones of Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Active Experimentation (AE), and Abstract Conceptualization (AC).

The participants with the Concrete Experience (CE) learning style showed the minimum of 6 and maximum of 16 with the mean about 11 and standard deviation of 2.5 among Iranian EFL students. Likewise, the Reflective Observation (RO) revealed the minimum of 3 and maximum of 15 with the mean about 9 and standard deviation of about 2 among Iranian EFL students. Moreover, the Active Experimentation (AE) illustrated the minimum of 10 and maximum of 18 with the mean about 13.5 and standard deviation of about 2 among Iranian EFL students. Finally, the Abstract Conceptualization (AC) demonstrated the minimum of 12 and maximum of 19 with the mean 16 and standard deviation of about 2 among Iranian EFL students.

In a further step, the sum of the four learning styles were computed to produce a more extensive image of performance of the participants in the study. As the table shows, the participants had the minimum of 34 and the maximum of 66 with the mean of 49.5 and the standard deviation about 9. Figure 1 shows the participants' performance in terms of their learning styles, pictorially.

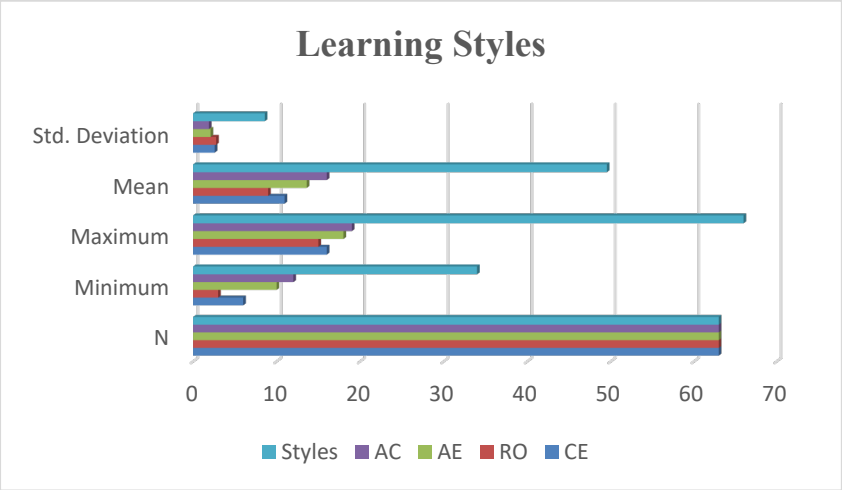

Fig. 1. Kolb's Learning Styles among the Participants

Association between the Variables

In this section, the correlation between the variables, i.e. between different kinds of styles as well as between each learning style and slang performance of the participants were investigated.

Table 3. Coefficient Statistics: Multiple Regression

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-3.214	2.075		-1.549	.127
	gender	-.049	.454	-.007	-.107	.915
	AC	.095	.249	.055	.379	.706
	AE	.079	.308	.051	.256	.799
	RO	.091	.180	.077	.504	.616
	CE	.884	.245	.705	3.604	.001

a. Dependent Variable: slang

Considering table 3 shows a significant regression among the variables, total learning style and the four types of Kolb's learning style with the slang. The average (b=0.884) is significant (p=0.01), and the coefficient is positive for slang learning. Concrete Experience shows the greater level of slang learning or performance. About the effect of gender, each type of learning model (Active Experimentation (AE) Learning style, Reflective Observation (RO) learning style and abstract Conceptualization (AC)) and the total learning style are non-significant (p-value is much higher than the cut score) and their coefficient is negative.

The Total Learning Style and Each Type of Kolb's Learning Style

Table 4 demonstrates the relationship between each type of learning style with the others as well as with learning style in general. The results of the two-tailed test at the level of 0.01 illustrates a significant positive correlation between each type of Kolb Leaning Style (KLS) and the total learning style.

Table 4. Associations between the Kolb's Learning Styles

		Style	CE	RO	AE	AC
Style	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.952**	.910**	.912**	.861**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	63	63	63	63	63
CE	Correlation Coefficient	.952**	1.000	.917**	.822**	.719**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	63	63	63	63	63
RO	Correlation Coefficient	.910**	.917**	1.000	.735**	.631**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	63	63	63	63	63
AE	Correlation Coefficient	.912**	.822**	.735**	1.000	.896**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	63	63	63	63	63
AC	Correlation Coefficient	.861**	.719**	.631**	.896**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	63	63	63	63	63

Generally, all the four kinds of Kolb Learning Styles revealed to correlate significantly and strongly with the general learning styles; however, the greatest correlation was found to be by the Concrete Experience (CE).

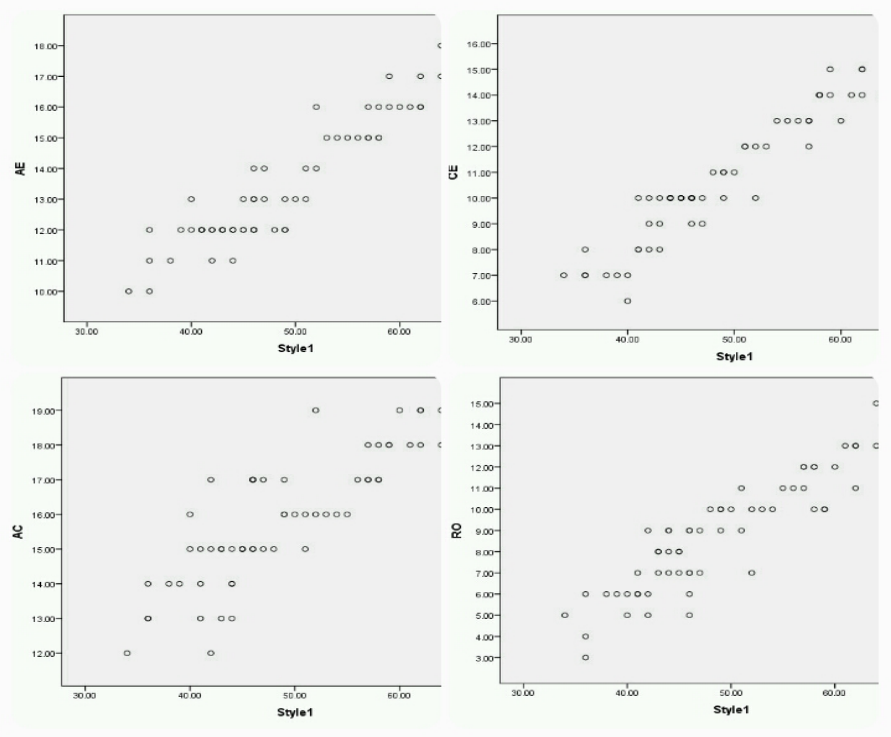

Fig. 2. Total Learning Style and the Four Types of Kolb's Learning Styles

The scatter graph of each four learning style in relation to the total learning style is presented in order to clarify the issue (Figure 2).

Learning Style and Slang

The total learning model and its types also were tested in relation to the slang learning among the participants. Table 5 illustrates the results of the correlation.

Table 5. Associations between Slang & the Kolb's Learning Style

			slang	Style	CE	RO	AE	AC
Spearman's rho	slang	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.854**	.868**	.804**	.732**	.645**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	63	63	63	63	63	63

The table indicates that slang learning is positively and significantly correlated with the total learning style and also with the four types of the Kolb's learning styles considering the results of the two-tailed test which is 0.000 for all of them. The correlation between slang learning and total style is 0.854 and the correlation value between the slang learning and the four types of learning styles, i.e. Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Active Experimentation (AE), and Abstract Conceptualization (AC) are respective, 0.868, 0.804, 0.732, and 0.645. Figure 3 shows the correlation between slang and learning styles. The Concrete Experience (CE) shows the highest correlation and the Abstract Conceptualization (AC) shows the lowest correlation.

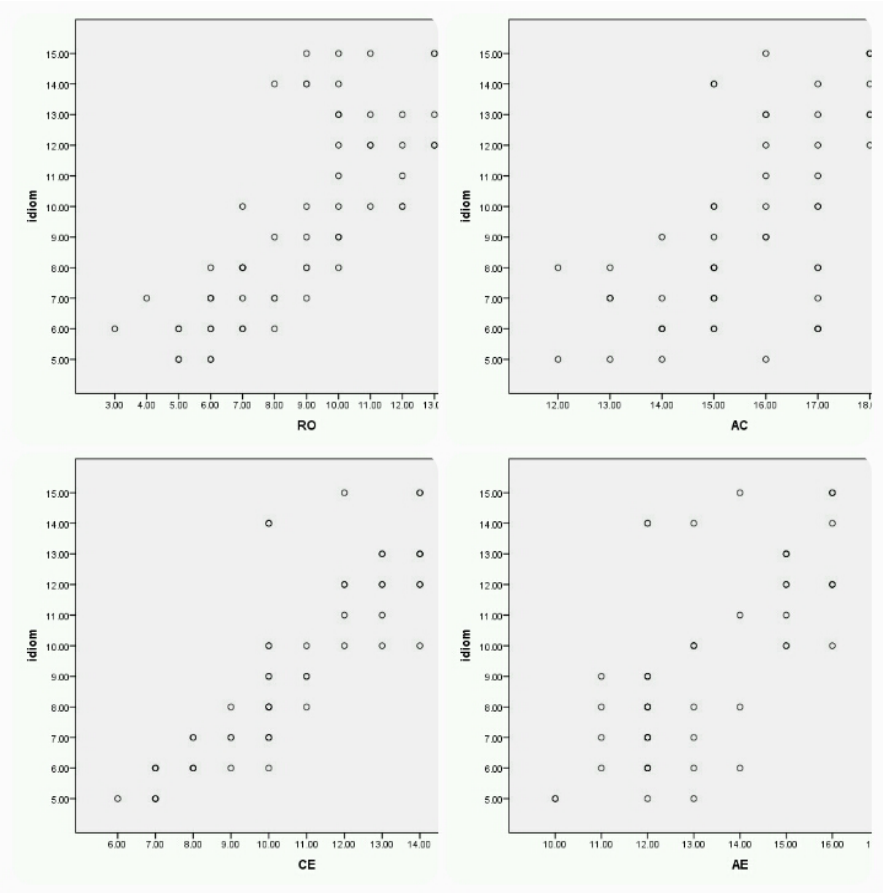

Fig. 3. Relationship between the Four Types of Kolb's Learning Styles and Slang Learning

Normality exploration test was applied which indicated to the normality distribution due to the p-value which is lower than the cut score of 0.05 and the t-test statistic was used since its pre-requisite condition is realized. Table 6 illustrates the results of the Chi-square test.

Table 6. Chi-square Test: T-test for Equality of Means

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
slang	Equal variances assumed	.078	.782	-.499	61	.619	-.41684	.83515	-2.08682	1.25314
	Equal variances not assumed			-.493	51.693	.624	-.41684	.84485	-2.11240	1.27872
CE	Equal variances assumed	.714	.401	-.713	61	.478	-.47401	.66461	-1.80297	.85495
	Equal variances not assumed			-.700	50.129	.487	-.47401	.67752	-1.83476	.88673
RO	Equal variances assumed	1.747	.191	-.682	61	.498	-.48545	.71139	-1.90795	.93706
	Equal variances not assumed			-.704	58.962	.484	-.48545	.68998	-1.86612	.89523
AE	Equal variances assumed	.007	.933	.083	61	.934	.04470	.53944	-1.03397	1.12337
	Equal variances not assumed			.083	54.163	.934	.04470	.53890	-1.03565	1.12505
AC	Equal variances assumed	.115	.736	-.134	61	.894	-.06549	.48812	-1.04155	.91058
	Equal variances not assumed			-.135	54.599	.893	-.06549	.48651	-1.04064	.90966
Style1	Equal variances assumed	.000	.994	-.443	61	.659	-.98025	2.21040	-5.40021	3.43971
	Equal variances not assumed			-.446	55.135	.657	-.98025	2.19672	-5.38234	3.42184

The results of the study indicated that the Abstract Conceptualization (AC), followed by the Active Experimentation (AE) are the most dominant learning styles among the participants.

The results of the correlation demonstrated the positive, significant and high correlation between the Kolb's (2005) learning style and slang learning. Likewise, the study proved the highest correlation between the experiential learning style (Concrete Experience (CE) and the slang learning. meanwhile, the study showed non-significant correlation.

Moreover, the outcomes of the regression showed a significant and high positive relationship with the most contribution is played by the Concrete Experience (CE).

In a nutshell, it was found that there is a significant relationship and possetive correlation between the total learning styles and slang learning, between the slang learning and all four kinds of Kolb's leaning models.

Discussion

Kolb's (2005) learning styles refers to a model composed of four kinds of learning models categorize individuals in terms of managing, grouping, perceiving and organizing information organizing. To this end, four different kinds of learning styles are presented as Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Abstract Conceptualization (AC), and Active Experimentation (AE).

In the study of the relationship between slang learning and Kolb's learning model, this question attempted to explain the relationship between two variables of the slang learning and Kolb's learning model among Iranian EFL students. The outcomes of the study showed not only a significant and positive correlation between the total learning style and slang learning, but also a significant and positive correlation between the slang learning and all four kinds of Kolb's leaning styles. It is worth mentioning that a combination of the Concrete Experience (CE) and the Abstract Conceptualization (AC) showed to be the greatest correlation with the slang learning.

Accordingly, the hypothesis which suggested a null hypothesis

where no-relation was indicated about the relationship between the two variables was rejected. In fact, the findings of the study are supporting Nasab and Hesabi (2014) who also argue about a possetive correlation between two variables. The outcome of the study, instead of a particular learning style which some studies consider the Concert Experience (CE) (Mohammadzadeh, 2012), showed the balance among the four learning styles is also fundamental; however, the most contribution was attributed to the CE.

Lane (2001) is one of the writers who argues that learning styles lead into improvement in the attitudes of the participants which in its turn may results into improvement of academic achievements, creativity or productivity. The outcome of the study which demonstrated possetive relationship between slang learning and Kolb's learning style are justifiable in light of Lane's arguments. Every individual uses a number of learning styles in tackling any problem—however in different extent—which lead to the conclusion that there is possetive correlation between different four kinds of learning styles and slang learning Hence, the study also indicated that it is not a predominant learning style that may result into the increase and improvement of the slang learning but the balance among the four Kolb's learning models and the total learning style is crucial and fundamental. Personality characteristics especially the balance among the learning styles influence and improve language learning including slang learning as it is discussed also by Wong (2011).

The outcomes of the regression showed a significant and high positive relationship with the most contribution is played by the Concrete Experience (CE).

Conclusion

Conclusion

Learning style and especially the balance among different learning styles are crucial at least for the situational context of learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The importance and balance between the two learning styles of the Concrete Experience (CE) and Abstract Conceptualization (AC) as the learning styles which play the most

contribution in slang learning. The results of the study illustrated a high, significant and positive regression total learning style, the four types of Kolb's learning style, i.e. Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Abstract Conceptualization (AC), and Active Experimentation (AE) and gender with the slang learning. Accordingly, slang learning in an EFL situational context demands considering not only the lexical and cultural background but also the learning styles which the study proved to be significantly correlated. It means that processes play fundamental role.

Pedagogical Implications

Kolb's learning styles are the base for learning models which can compose a new frame for teaching and learning American style in order to enhance the informal potential of ability of real social communication.

The results of the study can be beneficial to teachers, students, book writers, curriculum developers, and syllabus designers. For instance, it is useful for the students who are in the process of language learning. The teachers can use this learning model in the class to slang teaching. It is also beneficial to the book writers, curriculum developers or even syllabus designers.

Suggestions for Further Research

In order to explore the other dimensions of the study, it is highly recommended that the results of the study are examined through an empirical research. Likewise, the results of the study may be strengthened by including participants with different background knowledge (age, native language, foreign language, culture, and education). The study may also be replicated in other situational context by participating people with different native language or foreign language or with diverse ethnicity background.

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Language and ideology in newspaper headlines on Iran's nuclear program

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Abstract

This study is a critical discourse analysis of some western and Iranian newspaper headlines related to Iran's nuclear program. Newspaper headlines serve as precursors to news reports and reveal the social, cultural, and political representations disseminated in a community at any time. Thus, comparing newspaper headlines in two societies will bring into light interests and ideological intentions of the producers of those headlines. In this study 930 headlines, 460 headlines from two Iranian newspapers (Tehran Times and Iran Daily) and 470 headlines from three western newspapers (Washington Post, Fox News, and Haaretz), were analyzed for their vocabulary, topics, and referential devices. These features clearly indicated the hidden agenda or the ideological dimension underlying the construction of these headlines.

Keywords

Critical discourse analysis, Ideology, Language, Newspaper headlines.

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Introduction

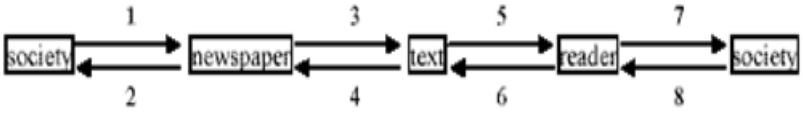
Discourse Analysis (DA) which "emerged as a new transdisciplinary field of study between the mid-1960s and mid-1970s" (Van Dijk, 1995, p. 108) is mainly related to the study of language above and beyond sentence level. The word 'above' refers to the fact that discourse analysis (DA) moves beyond word and sentence level and concerns the relationship between sentences. The word 'beyond' indicates that DA, as its second concern, pays much attention to the relationship between text and the outer world; that is, the social, cultural and political contexts in which texts are produced and consumed. The second concern of DA has gained more attention in recent times. Titscher et al. (2000, p.149) defines DA as "the analysis of relationships between concrete language use and the wider social cultural structures". Cameron (1999, p123) suggests two senses for the term discourse: the linguist's sense and the critical social theorist's sense. The former refers to 'language in use' and the latter is 'a form of social practice that constructs the objects of which it purports to speak'. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) which is highly related to DA, pertains to and "explores the connections between the use of language and the social and political contexts in which it occurs"(Paltridge, 2000, p.179). CDA applies the knowledge and methodologies developed in DA to reveal how text and talk play an important role in legitimating and sustaining inequality, injustice, and oppression in society. Cameron (1999, p.123) suggests that the word 'critical' in critical discourse analysis relates to a way of perceiving the social world which is drawn from critical theory. According to Leeuwen (2006), CDA "is not associated with a specific school of linguistics or discourse analysis" and "What unites critical discourse analysis is neither methodology nor theoretical orthodoxy, but a common goal: the critique of the hegemonic discourses and genres that effect inequalities, injustices, and oppression in contemporary society" (p. 291).

CDA is mainly concerned with the hidden agenda of discourse or its ideological dimension. Therefore, CDA investigates discourse to

find the "hidden meanings" in texts (McGregor, 2003). CDA analysts have a tendency to work with institutional rather than ordinary talk and many of them are specially inclined to study the language of the media. Words are never neutral; they carry power and reflect the interests of those who use them. News reporters and editors are never ideologically impartial; that is, they project their and the society's ideology and worldview in the text they produce. Fairclough (1995) asserts that "tendencies in the representation of … discourse in newspapers … accord with ideologies which are implicit in practices of news production" (p. 54). Olowe (1993), cited in Taiwo (2007), states that:

> the editor and his reporters on the one hand and their audience constitute an ideological empire. The newspaper subjects all newsworthy events that constantly come up in social life to rigorous linguistic manipulation to make them suit the ideological expectation of the audience. (p. 8)

In recent times the media has been a domain of discourse to which much CDA has been applied and plenty of research has been carried out on the media. The aim is to work out the hidden agenda or the ideological dimensions of newspapers and the interests of their producers and the audiences. According to Richardson (2007, p. 26) "society and culture are dialectically related to discourse" and that journalists and readers are the subjects in discourse practices who influence and are influenced by society and culture. Richardson (2007, p. 42) proposes the following diagram.



On one hand, various social events and opinions determine the context of their production (→1) that influences texts (e.g. newspaper articles) (→3). At the same time, based on the convention of a newspaper article, the collection and presentation of information is shaped (←4). Such a presentation of information is the opinion of journalists toward the society (←2). On the other hand, newspaper

articles influence society (→7) via determining opinions of people (→5) who read them and decode the meaning (←6). Moreover, such readers who try to influence society may get oppressed or supported in the process (←8).

Issues such as power imbalance, social inequalities, non-democratic practices and other sources of injustice are investigated in the media. According to Bell (1998), cited in Kong (2000, p. 253) a news story consists of three key components: *attribution*, *abstract* and *story*. Attribution includes information such as the name of the news agency and the journalist's by-line. The abstract includes information such as the headline and lead. The story is the most complicated component and can be subdivided into episodes and events. In each event, there are attribution, actors, action, setting, follow-up, commentary, and background. There have been some studies on each of these parts, although most of them addressed the story, i.e. the content of the news reports.

Previous Research

As mentioned before, newspaper discourse manifests the ideology and worldview of the editors and news reporters and their audience and these can be worked out by critical analysis of newspaper texts. Hence, there have been many studies critically analyzing newspaper discourse to display the language features of the media and the hidden agenda or the ideological viewpoints which they serve. Some studies will be mentioned in this section to clarify the point more.

Cameron (2000) points to the study by Glasgow Media Group (1980). They noticed a recurring pattern in the words used by the media to describe actions taken by two groups of people: workers and labor unions on the one hand and managers and employers on the other hand. The word 'workers' was collocated with such words as 'demanding' and 'threatening' and workers were described as demanding more money and threatening to leave their workplace, while the employers were depicted as 'offering' terms and appealing to workers to accept their offers. They suggested that linguistic

patterns which were found in news reporting naturalize an outlook of industrial disputes as arising from the aggressive and irrational behavior of workers.

Van Dijk (1991) explored ethnic relations in press reports. He studied the labeling of the minority ethnic groups in newspaper articles; they were mostly marked by terms like 'foreigners' and 'immigrants'. The European-born children of immigrants are not immigrants themselves but they are described as 'foreigners' and as 'them' rather than 'us'. The study suggests that many of these labels and descriptions are not factually accurate.

Clark (1992), cited in Richardson (2007), examined the ways in which the Sun Newspaper reported incidents of sexual violence. In the news articles always one of the participants were blamed for the incident and the other one was considered as innocent and blameless.

Olowe (1993), cited in Taiwo (2007, p. 221), looked at the interplay of language and ideology in Nigerian English-medium newspapers. Focusing on editorials, on nationally important issues of religion, labor relations and politics, Olowe identified the various linguistic devices used by these newspapers in projecting their ideological viewpoints, such as thematization, pasivization and nominalization.

Develote and Rechiewskey (1998) examined the representations of the newspapers in France and Australia over the crisis in Franco-Australian relations provoked by France's decision to recommence nuclear testing in the South Pacific in June 1995. A corpus of headlines was collected in a range of media over the months before, during and after the crisis. A quantitative analysis of the corpus revealed the relative importance each paper gave to an issue during a particular period.

Fang (2001) examines the discourse strategies of news stories on civil unrest in two Chinese language newspapers, People's Daily (mainland China) and Central Daily (Taiwan). Based on the analytic method used by van Dijk, Fang examines the textual and contextual components of a news discourse on the students' protests in South Africa in 1985 and the unrest in Argentina in 1989. After analyzing

headlines, thematic structures, and lexical and grammatical factors, Fang (2001) found that there were many differences in representing the South African case but not in the case of Argentina. For example, People's Daily calls the event "black demonstrations" and an "anti-Apartheid struggle" emphasizing inequality and showing sympathy to the black people, whereas Central Daily calls it a "riot" and considers the actions by the police as a "matter-of-fact". Moreover, while the dominating topics and themes of People's Daily are suppressing of the blacks by the police, those of Central Daily are the unrest and chaos that have been caused by one individual, not by the government. However, compared with the case in South Africa, the unrest in Argentina was shown to be dealt with in a similar way by the two newspapers. The difference in representing the South African case indicates the difference in ideologies of the two newspapers: whether they justify the policies of the South African government or not. And it was clarified that People's Daily condemns it while Central Daily admires it. This was a study which clarifies how political views of news reports are interpreted.

A Study published in the Guardian weekly examined the words used by journalists during the 1991 war against Iraq (cited in Allan 2004, pp. 162-163). The following list represents the words used to refer to people and actions in Iraqi and British troops.

THEY HAVE	WE HAVE
A war machine	Army, Navy, and Air force
Censorship	Reporting restrictions
Propaganda	Press briefings
THEY	WE
Destroy	Suppress
Kill	Eliminate
Kill	Neutralize
THEY LAUNCH	WE LAUNCH
Sneak attacks	First strikes
Without provocation	Pre-emptively
THEIR MEN ARE	OUR MEN ARE
Troops	Boys
Hords	Lads
SADDAM HUSSEIN IS	GEORGE BUSH [Snr] IS
Demented	At peace with himself

Defiant	Resolute

The alternatives in each pairings could have been employed to describe solders and actions of both Iraqi and British troops. But the ideological constraints of The British newspapers led them to use the negative terms for the Iraqis and the positive words for the British and American troops and authorities. Iraqi soldiers were described as 'violent, shelling rioting crowds with mortars and using machine guns to cut down unarmed protesters'. However, the British troops were represented in terms of "movement", "advancement", and "being poised to enter Basra". Shelling and killing of the British troops was glossed over by the choice of verbs.

Murata (2007) is a cross-cultural study between Japan and England on their media representation of whaling and seeks to explore possible cultural values and assumptions that may influence biased perspectives or ideologies. Two Japanese articles (*The Yomiuri Newspaper*) and one British article (*The Independent*) were analyzed and compared in detail: the result is that while *The Independent* article indirectly shows its anti-whaling ideology in terms of choice of lexis, grammatical structures, rhetorical devices, overall organization, and control of information in the text (e.g. Japan is described as an agent of the "outrageous" action of whaling), the articles in *The Yomiuri Newspape*r take the Japanese pro-whaling perspective for granted, and report the news in an objective tone. Thus the emotional tone of *The Independent*'s opposition to whaling and the rather neutral stance and reporting style of *The Yomiuri Newspaper* are shown in a detailed

textual analysis on the pro- and anti-whaling discourses.

Taiwo (2007) analyzed three hundred Nigerian newspaper headlines for peculiarity in the vocabulary and rhetorical devices used in order to identify the ideologies that underlie their constructions. A critical study of the headlines revealed that the headlines have hidden ideological meanings, being divided along some ideological lines reflecting the views of those whose interest is being served and those whose interest is being undermined. The study concluded that headlines were emotion-inducing strategy in the hands of the editor used to initiate, sustain discourse and shape the views of the readers on national issues.

Tagaki (2008) compared the different representations of the case of a Japanese girl in Okinawa who was raped by an American marine in some newspapers in Japan and the USA. Some Newspaper articles were analyzed for their linguistic construction based on the influence of social situations. The study explored the media discourse from the perspective of newspaper production as well as linguistic analysis based on the framework of critical discourse analysis (CDA) put forward by Fairclough (1995a, 2003) and Richardson (2007). The study indicated that both a criminal and a political discourse existed in the newspapers but what was represented in each discourse was different and that different ideologies were seen in the newspapers in Japan and the US.

A Frameworks for Analyzing News

A number of different frameworks for analyzing news discourse have developed over the years enabling media researchers to tailor investigations in specific directions depending on the text and what they are looking for. The following illustrate some examples which can be adopted or adapted.

Van Dijk's work on media discourse (1985, 1988a, 1988b, 1991) proposes an analytical framework for the structures of news discourse by bringing together production and interpretation of discourse as well as its textual analysis. Thematic analysis goes beyond micro-analysis of language and concentrates on the arrangement of themes in news

reports, such as narrative patterns which create dramatic tension in a story, or the non-chronological description of events influenced by its news value or relevance. Van Dijk parallels this broad semantic structure with a syntactic structure termed 'schemata'- the conventions and rules that organize content and the complexity of news themes. This includes categories such as the headline, lead paragraph, previous events (what happened before), background and the main event, which can be analyzed and their interrelationships investigated. Bell (1998) offers a step-by-step guide to analysis, which is used to determine the event structure in a news story and establish what a story actually *says* happened. Analysis of events, actors, times and places in a story 'shows up inconsistencies, incoherence, gaps and ambiguities within the story, conflicting forces during the story's production by journalist and copy-editor, and implications for readers 'comprehension' (Garrett and Bell1998, p. 9). In *The Language of News Media* (1991), Bell focuses on three themes: the processes which produce media language; the notion of the news story; and the role of the media audience. By analyzing news discourse through a framework that draws on analysis of personal narrative and van Dijk's structural approach, Bell emphasizes the concept of the 'story' as being central to the news.

Fairclough's (1995) framework for critical discourse analysis of communicative events involves the three overlapping dimensions of text, discourse practice and sociocultural practice. Each area can be dealt with separately but the interrelationship of all three is integral to the framework. Analyzing text involves areas such as structure, vocabulary or representation of actors through image, language or sound. Discourse practice relates to processes of text production and consumption which Fairclough divides into two threads: institutional routines such as journalistic practices of news selection, and discourse practices.

Last but not least, content analysis is widely used for the analysis of newspaper discourse. Content analysis is a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts or sets of texts. Researchers quantify and analyze the presence, meanings

and relationships of such words and concepts, then make inferences about the messages within the texts, the writer(s), the audience, and even the culture and time of which these are a part. Berelson (1952), sited in ……, defines content analysis as "a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest of communication" (p. 263). There are two types of content analysis: Conceptual analysis and relational analysis. Conceptual analysis can be thought of as establishing the existence and frequency of concepts "most often represented by words of phrases" in a text. For instance, say you have a hunch that your favorite poet often writes about hunger. With conceptual analysis you can determine how many times words such as "hunger", "hungry", "famished", or "starving" appear in a volume of poems. In contrast, relational analysis goes one step further by examining the relationships among concepts in a text. Returning to the "hunger" example, with relational analysis, you could identify what other words or phrases "hunger" or "famished" appear next to and then determine what different meanings emerge as a result of these groupings.

The Present Study

This research employs the last technique, content analysis, to explore the hidden agenda in the headlines of some Iranian and Western newspapers regarding Iran's nuclear program. Both conceptual analysis and relational analysis are used to avoid the problems mentioned for content analysis by Berelson (1952): That agency of actions is not considered and textual absences (topics which are absent in some newspapers due to their ideological tendencies) are not realized. Since in this study the collocations of the frequent words were examined, agency of actions and the viewpoints of the news reports and editors regarding any topic were well realized. Moreover, since the headlines come from opposing communities and political fronts, topics which were absent in one front were well treated in the other front.

The comparison of frequent words in these newspapers would reveal the viewpoints of the reporters and editors. For instance it is

expected that the Iranian news headlines would use words which suggest that the nuclear program is peaceful and for economic and energy purposes, on the other hand, the American news headlines would be abundant in words such as bomb, nuke, and danger. Also the collocations of every word would reveal how those words are viewed by the journalists and their audiences. Finally, referential devices in each newspaper indicate the editors and reports' attitudes toward the referred people and objects.

Results and Discussion

As it was expected the frequent words, their collocations, topics dealt with, and referential devices used in headlines of Iranian and Western newspapers were consistent with their producers' ideology, worldview, and interests. In the Iranian newspapers the mentioned linguistic features tried to imply to the reader that:

Iran's nuclear program is absolutely peaceful and it imposes no threat to the world. Moreover, they indicated that Iran's nuclear program is discussable and only diplomatic talks can solve the problem and sanctions and military actions are ineffective. On the other hand, the American and Israeli newspapers used the same features to impose to the readers that Iran's nuclear program is an imminent danger to the world. Through the collocations of Iran, nuclear bomb, sanctions, and military actions contributed to the sense that Iran's nuclear activities are dubious and something should be done to stop Iran from producing and using atomic bombs. They suggested that if Iran refuses to halt its Uranium enrichment, the only solution is tougher sanctions and military actions.

Frequent words and their collocations

The following were among the most frequent words in Iranian news headlines but absent or of low frequency in western newspaper headlines.

- ✓ *Program, fuel, plant, peaceful, technology, rights, talks, discuss, dialogue, diplomacy.*

The first five words suggests that Iran's nuclear program is peaceful and for civilian purposes. The second five words imply that

the nuclear crisis is still discussable and the only appropriate solution is diplomatic talks. Table 1 compares the frequency of these words in the Iranian and western newspapers headlines.

Table 1. Frequency of the words in the Iranian and western newspapers headlines

Words	Iranian papers	Western papers
Program	48	26
Fuel	41	12
Plant	34	2
Peaceful	10	1
Technology	10	0
Rights	17	3
Talk(s)	56	22
Discuss	11	1
Dialogue	8	3
Diplomacy	7	2

Other words which were much more frequent in Iranian newspaper headlines than in western ones include *solution, global disarmament, energy, constructive, civilian, reactor, hypocrisy.* The frequencies are indicative of the mentioned ideologies, worldviews and interests of those who produced and those who consumed these newspaper headlines.

These ideologies can be further revealed by the analysis of the above words'collocations in the Iranian and American and Israeli newspapers. Table 2 lists the common collocations of these words in the newspaper headlines.

Table 2. Common collocations of the words in the newspaper headlines

Words	Collocations in Iranian news	Collocations in Western news
Program	legal, peaceful, support, civilian	halt, atomic, nuke, threat
Fuel	Production, plant, sources	Nuke, bomb, atomic
Plant	Power, nuclear, Bushehr	Secret, enrichment
Talks	Continue, room for, preferable	Fail, disappointed, skeptical
Dialogue	Goes on, constructive, solution	Useless, disappointed
Rights	Nuclear technology, defend, support	U.N., rule out

Similarly, it is expected that some words must be more frequent in western newspapers than in Iranian papers and their collocations also differ. The following ten words were among the most frequent words in the American and Israeli newspaper headlines, but they occurred few or no times in Iranian news headlines.

- ✓ *Nuke, bomb, missile, threat, secret, sanctions, arms, military,*

strike, war.

Taking a glance on these words, one can identify the ideology and views of the journalists who have produced them and the audience who consume these headlines. The first five words implies to the reader that Iran's nuclear program is dubious and most probably a threat to the world and the second five words suggest that something should be done to stop Iran from producing and using atomic bombs. The last five words convince the readers that the west should impose more and tougher sanctions on Iran or even start military actions against it. Table 3 displays the frequency of these words in the Western and Iranian newspaper headlines.

Table 3. Frequency of the words in the Iranian and western newspapers headlines

Words	Western papers	Iranian papers
Nuke(s)	45	3
Bomb	11	4
Missile	11	2
Threat	12	6
Secret	11	1
Sanctions	44	21
Arms	17	6
Military	14	2
Strike	17	8
War	9	0

Other words which were highly frequent in the western headlines but less occurring in Iranian news headlines involve *warn, action, defiance, world, site, atomic, tough.*

The collocations of the above words were figured out to further reveal the ideologies, viewpoints, and interests of the producers of these headlines. The collocations confirm the west's *threat-so-actions* theory and Iran's *peaceful- let's talk* theory. Table 4 displays common collocations of the above mentioned words in the western and Iranian news headlines.

Table 4. Common collocations of the words in the western and Iranian news headlines

Words	Collocations in Western news	Collocations in Iranian news
Nuke (s)	Program, fuel, plan	Israel, Israeli
Threat	To world, Iran, nuclear	No, Israel, hyped
Secret	Nuclear plant, nuke sites	No
Sanctions	Tougher, new, harsh	Downplay, unlikely, ineffective
Military	Actions, option, moves	Can't halt, no solution

Strike	Military, ready for, Iran	Immune to, can't halt

The collocations further corroborates the west's theory that Iran is producing atomic bombs and should be stopped by sanctions or even military actions against it. They also represent Iran's stance that its nuclear program is not a threat to the world but it is Israel's nuke sites which poses a threat to the Middle East and the world, and that the western sanctions and military actions against Iran are ineffective and will not solve the problem.

Referential devices

The way that people and actions are referred to in news discourse "can have significant impact on the way in which they are viewed" (Richardson 2007, p. 47). Also, the way they are referred to represents journalists' attitudes and ideology. The study revealed that the western and Iranian newspaper headlines referred to actions and people differently in ways which favored their viewpoints and interests.

First, Iran's nuclear activities are referred to differently. The word 'nuclear', which is neutral and does not represent atomic bombs, was used 305 times in the Iranian news headlines while it occurred only 131 times in the western newspapers. In the western newspaper headlines it was referred to as nuke 45 times in phrases such as 'nuke program', 'nuke plan', 'nuke work' and so on. The reference terms used by the two sides represent their ideology and interests. Table 5 displays reference terms and their frequencies in the two fronts.

Table 5. Reference terms and their frequencies western and Iranian news headlines

Reference terms	Iranian newspapers	Western newspapers
Nuclear program	46	24
Nuclear plant	22	2
Nuclear technology	9	0
Nuclear fuel	35	8
Nuclear energy	4	1
Nuke	45	0
secret	8	0

Second, the Iranian news headlines referred to the former UN nuclear watchdog with his personal name, ElBaradei, 11 times but the

western news headlines never did so. In almost all of these 11 references, the watchdog was stating something in favor of Iran. The following sample headlines illustrate this.

- *Iran has not produced atomic bombs: ElBaradei*
- *Israel most serious threat to Middle East: ElBaradei*
- *ElBaradei: Row over Iran's nuclear program is 'political' and not 'technical'.*

Also Erdogan and Brzezinski, who have commented favorably about Iran's nuclear program, are referred to by their personal names. They have appeared twice in the Iranian news headlines while Clinton, who is more important authority, is mentioned only once.

Topic Preferences

Newspapers tend to involve topics which are within their interest and ignore the ones that are not. Many of the topics which were in favor of Iran's nuclear program and included in the Iranian newspaper headlines were absent in the western news headlines. Defense of Iran's right to nuclear facilities by some political and scientific authorities were not dealt with in the western papers. Turkish, Syrian, Egyptian, Bahraini, and Yemeni presidents' and the Swedish scientist's supportive statements about Iran's nuclear program and the statements by some of these authorities regarding Israel's nuke danger were ignored in the western news headlines.

The Iranian newspapers mentioned some nuclear activities by other countries, such as, Japan, France, and Israel, attempting to downplay the fuss that has been made about Iran's nuclear program. These topics are not dealt with in the Western newspapers.

Bushehr plant, which is a symbol of civilian nuclear facility and technology, is pointed at 20 times in the Iranian news headlines but it is never mentioned in the western newspapers.

Conclusion

Linguistic features (words, their collocations, referential devices, topics, and others) are always employed in news discourse to communicate their producers' ideology and viewpoints. This study revealed the hidden agenda in the Iranian and western newspaper

headlines and the language which was employed to convey those ideologies. Headlines are revealing of the social, political, and ideological representations in a society. They reach an audience which is far wider than those who read news articles. Many passersby may have a glimpse of the headlines on their way home or to work. Particularly it is the case with the front page headlines which mainly involve hot political issues. This study, which explored the headlines in some Iranian and American and Israeli newspapers, was very raveling about the ideologies, viewpoints, and interests of those two fronts.

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زبان و هویت در عنوان خبرهای روزنامه درباره برنامه هسته‌ای ایران

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چکیده

این تحقیق یک مطالعه تحلیل کلام انتقادی از برخی از عنوانهای خبری روزنامه های غربی و ایرانی در رابطه با برنامه هسته ای ایران می باشد. عنوان خبرها به عنوان پیش قراولان گزارشهای خبری عمل می کنند و نشان دهنده تفکرات اجتماعی، سیاسی و فرهنگی میباشد که در هر جامعه ای در هر زمانی منتشر میشود. بنابراین مقایسه عنوانهای خبری در دو جامعه علاقه مندیها و اهداف ایدولوژیک تولید کنندگان آن عنوانهای خبری را آشکار خواهد کرد. در این تحقیق 930 عنوان خبری روزنامه که 460 عنوان از دو روزنامه ایرانی (تهران تایمز و ایران دیلی) و 470 عنوان از سه روزنامه غربی (واشنگتن پست، فاکس نیوز، و هاآرتس) بودند برای واژگانشان، موضوعاتشان و ابزار ارجاعشان مورد بررسی قرار گرفتند. این ویژگیها جنبه های ایدولوژیکی و برنامه مخفی ساخت این عنوانهای خبری را نشان می داد.

کلیدواژگان

ایدولوژی، تحلیل کلام انتقادی، زبان، عنوان خبری روزنامه.

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مطالعه رابطه بین مدل یادگیری کلب و یادگیری و آموزش اصطلاحات عامیانه توسط زبان آموزان ایرانی

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چکیده

یکی از مهمترین بحثهای حال حاضر در شیوه های ارتباطی یادگیری و آموزش زبان ، به ویژه در زبان محاوره ای و غیر رسمی، یادگیری و آموزش اصطلاحات عامیانه می باشد. تحقیقی در باره ارتباط بین مدل یادگیری کلب و یادگیری اصطلاحات عامیانه توسط زبان آموزان ایرانی وجود ندارد. در این تحقیق، 63 زبان آموز انتخاب شدند و شرکت کنندگان پرسشنامه سبک یادگیری کلب (2006) و یک آزمون اصطلاحات عامیانه را جواب دادند. آزمون و پرسشنامه ای که شرکت کنندگان جواب داده بود تصحیح شد و داده ها با استفاده از آمار توصیفی، رابطه همبستگی ، رگراسیون و آزمون تی مورد تجزیه و تحلیل قرار گرفتند. نتایج تحقیق نشان داد که تصویر سازی ذهنی / نظریه پرداز بودن و به دنبال آن آزمایش فعال/ فعال بودن رایج ترین سبکهای یادگیری و آموزش در بین دانشجویان می باشد. نتایج آزمون همبستگی نشان دهنده رابطه مثبت و معنا داری بین مدل آموزش و یادگیری کلب و یادگیری اصطلاحات عامیانه وجود دارد. این تحقیق بالاترین رابطه را بین سبک آموزش و یادگیری آزمایشی (تجربه ملموس / کاربردی بودن) و یادگیری و آموزش اصطلاحات عامیانه نشان می داد. یافته های این تحقیق ممکن است برای تمامی کسانی که با آموزش و یادگیری زبان سرکار دارند مفید باشد.

کلیدواژگان

تجربه فعال/ فعال بودن، تجربه ملموس/ کاربردی بودن،

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تأثیر فعالیتهای "تفاوت را پیدا کن" و "توصیف کن و بکش" بر روی توانایی صحبت کردن زبان آموزان ایرانی پیش متوسطه

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(تاریخ دریافت: 1396/11/04؛ تاریخ پذیرش: 1396/12/12)

چکیده

هدف تحقیق حاضر بررسی تفاوت بین تاثیر فعالیتهای "تفاوت را پیدا کن" و "توصیف کن و بکش" بر روی ارتقای توانایی صحبت کردن زبان آموزان ایرانی پیش متوسطه می باشد. محقق یک شیوه آزمایشگاهی بکار برد. این تحقیق شامل 50 شرکت کننده خانم بود که بطور مساوی و تصادفی به دو گروه آزمایشی تقسیم شدند. ابتدا، محقق یک آزمون تعیین سطح آکسفورد (اُ پی تی) به همرا دو مصاحبه برگزار کرد تا اطمینان حاصل کند که سطح زبان آموزان پیش متوسطه می باشد. سپس محقق یک آزمون طراحی کرد و برای اثبات اعتبار این آزمون یک گروه چهل نفری از زبان آموزان، غیر زبان آموزان گروه های آزمایشی، این آزمون را امتحان دادند. شرکت کنندگان به دو گروه آزمایشی تقسیم شدند و قبل از آموزش پیش آزمون برگزار شد. آموزش هشت جلسه طول کشید و زبان آموزان در طول آن فعالیتهای شکاف اطلاعاتی دریافت کردند. سرانجام پس آزمون برگزار شد و نتایج پس آزمون با استفاده از برخی شیوه های آماری مورد تجزیه و تحلیل قرار گرفت تا تاثیر دو نوع فعالیت شکاف اطلاعاتی را بر روی توانایی صحبت کردن زبان آموزان ایرانی پبش متوسطه تعیین گردد. نتایج نشان داد که تفاوت معناداری در عملکرد دو گروه آزمایشی در پس آزمون وجود ندارد که نشان می داد دو شیوه آموزشی (" تفاوت را پیدا کن" و "توصیف کن و بکش") بطور مساوی بر روی توانایی صحبت کردن زبان آموزان ایرانی پیش متوسطه موثر می باشند.

کلیدواژگان

تفاوت را پیدا کن، توانایی صحبت کردن، توصیف کن و بکش.

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تأثیر آموزش موزون بر روی دانش واژگانی زبان آموزان کلی نگر و جزیی نگر

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چکیده

هدف این تحقیق بررسی تاثیر استفاده از آموزش موزون بر روی دانش واژگانی زبان آموزان جزیی نگر و کلی نگر می‌باشد. به همین دلیل 30 زبان آموز انگلیسی بر اساس عملکردشان در آزمون تعیین سطح سلوشن انتخاب شدند. همچنین یک آزمون جی ای اف تی (گروپ امبدد فیگر تست) برای تشخیص گروه های کلی نگر و جزیی نگر بین زبان آموزان برگزار شد. شرکت کنندگان بطور تصادفی به یک گروه آزمایشی و یک گروه کنترل تقسیم شدند. گروه آزمایشی آموزش موزون دریافت کردند در حالیکه گروه کنترل از طریق شیوه جی تی ام آموزش دیدند. هر دو گروه یک دوره آموزشی 17 هفته ای را سپری کردند. یک آزمون واژگانی 50 سوالی شامل سوالات چند گزینه ای، وصل کردن و درست-غلط طراحی شد و به عنوان پیش آزمون و پس آزمون مورد استفاده قرار گرفت. در انتهای دوره یک آزمون تی مستقل بین نمرات دو گروه در امتحان پس آزمون برای پیدا کردن تفاوت معنا دار بین میانگینهای گروه کنترل و گروه آزمایشی انجام شد. نتایج نشان داد که تفاوت معناداری بین میانگینهای دو گروه وجود دارد. در نتیجه، شرکت کنندگان گروه آزمایشی که آموزش موزون دریافت کرده بودند عملکرد بهتری نسبت به شرکت کنندگان گروه کنترل که چنین آموزشی را دریافت نکرده بودند داشتند. ولی تفاوت میانگینها بین شرکت کنندگان گروه کلی نگر در مقایسه با گروه جزی نگر معنادار نبود و این نشان داد که زبان آموزان کلی نگر و جزی نگری که آموزش موزون دریافت کردند عملکرد مشابهی داشتند. پیامد اصلی این تحقیق این است که آموزش موزون به عنوان یک شیوه مهم یادگیری واژگان باید توجه بیشتری

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در برنامه های زبان آموزی دریافت کنند.

کلیدواژگان

آموزوش موزون، جزی نگر، دانش واژگانی، کلی نگر.

تأثیر آموزش تفکر انتقادی بر روی توانایی خواندن و نگارش زبان آموزان ایرانی

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چکیده

تحقیقات کنونی نشان می دهد که تفکر انتقادی بطور معمول یک بخش درونی آموزش در هر سطحی نیست. دانشجویان بدون هیچ آموزشی در این حیطه فارق التحصیل میشوند در حالیکه دانشکده ها آنرا به عنوان محصول جانبی آموزش خود امری بدیهی فرض میکنند. ولی بدون طراحی نظامند تفکر انتقادی در آموزش و یادگیری سطحی و گذرا خواهد بود. بنابراین، هدف این تحقیق بررسی تاثیر آموزش مهارتهای تفکر انتقادی بر روی ارتقای مهارتهای خواندن و نگارش زبان آموزان ایرانی می باشد و در راستای مطالعات دیگر که رابطه مثبت بین تفکر انتقادی و مهارتهای زبانی را تایید میکنند می باشد. برنامه آموزشی ای تحقیق شامل 18 جلسه بیست دقیقه ای تدریس تفکر انتقادی بود. شرکت کنندگان شامل 50 دانشجوی زن و مرد در سطح توانایی قبل پیشرفته بودند. به شرکت کنندگان گروه آزمایشی مهارتهای تفکر انتقادی به همراه مطالب دیگر آموزش داده شد در حالیکه شرکت کنندگان گروه کنترل آموزشی بر روی تفکر انتقادی دریافت نکردند. داده ها با استفاده از چندین آزمون تی مستقل بر روی نمرات پیش آزمون و پس آزمون مورد تجزیه و تحلیل قرار گرفتند. نتایج نشان دادند که آموزش تفکر انتقادی منجر به پیشرفت معناداری در توانایی خواندن و نگارش دانشجویان گروه آزمایشی شده است. نتایج حاوی پیامدهایی برای معلمین، موسسات و تهیه کنندگان مطالب درسی میباشد.

کلیدواژگان

انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی، تفکر انتقادی، توانایی خواندن، توانایی نگارش، فعالیتهای حل مشکل.

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تبلیغات انگلیسی و فارسی: یک ترجمه بینانشانه ای

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چکیده

ترجمه تبلیغات مانند هر نوع دیگری از ترجمه که در تمام زبانها انجام میشود نیست. بلکه آن در ذهن بطور خودکار انجام میشود برای انتقال معنایی که تبلیغ کننده می خواهد ارایه شود، بنابراین طبیعی است که شرکتها و کمپانیها عناصر خواصی را انتخاب کنند. تصاویر می توانند برای مخاطبین یک هویت شخصی و آگهی از میراث فرهنگی فراهم کنند. تحقیق حاضر قصد دارد تصاویر همراه تبلیغات را به عنوان یک ترجمه بینانشانه ای مورد بررسی قرار دهد. این تحقیق متون تبلیغاتی و تصاویر همراه تبلیغات را برای نشان دادن رابطه های ترجمه ای بکار میگیرد. سپس تلاش میکند اهمیت تصاویر و نقشی که آنها ممکن است در انتقال معنا داشته باشند را آشکار سازد. در مرحله اول متون تبلیغاتی که هم عناصر زبانی و هم تصویر داشتند جمع آوری شدند. سپس آنها بر اساس رابطه متاقبل بین متون و تصاویر مورد بررسی قرار گرفتند؛ تلاشی انجام گرفت تا شیوه های مختلفی که تصاویر برای ترجمه عناصرزبانی به وسیله تولیدکنندگان متون بکاررفته بودند مشخص شود. پیکره بکار رفته حاوی متون تبلیغاتی بود که از منابع مختلفی از قبیل اینترنت، مغازه ها و روزنامه جمع آوری شده بودند. زمانیکه تمام نمونه ها مطالعه شدند و شیوها شناسایی شدند، تعداد و درصد هر شیوه شمارش شد و نتایج در جداولی ارایه شد. بررسی داده ها نشان داد که تصاویر نقش مهمی را در ترجمه عناصر زبانی ایفا میکنند.

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تبلیغات، ترجمه بینانشانه ای، تصاویر

دوفصلنامة کاربردهای مطالعات زبانی، سال دوم، شمارة اول، بهار و تابستان 1397

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زبان و هویت در عنوان خبرهای روزنامه درباره برنامه هسته‌ای ایران 6
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دوفصلنامة کاربردهای مطالعات زبان

سال دوم، شمارة اول، بهار و تابستان 1397

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علیرضا باقري ثالث

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محمود بیجن خان

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ویراستار ادبی: لیلا نیک نسب

صفحه‌آرا: زینب بزاز

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