consequences of criminal conviction for criminals, and in general, criminal police movement orientation should be toward in detaining, rehabilitating, reforming and educating.

This will not be obtained exception by cooperation of education, culture, health, training and services organizations and without the use of volunteer citizens' services, especially professors and teachers and students.

References

- 1. Beccaria, Cesare, 2014, offenses and penalties, translated by Mohammd Ali Ardebilie, Mizan Publication, seventh edition
- 2. Danesh, Taj Zaman, 1972, bail measures in Comparative Law, Faculty of Law and Political Science Magazine, number 9
- 3. Dehshiri, Mehdi, 2005, historical investigation of bail and educational measures evolution, Eslah and Tarbiat Journal, Issue 40
- 4. Dehshiri, M., 2005, historical investigation of bail and educational measures evolution, Eslah and Tarbiat Journal, Issue 41
 - 5. Rohamie, M., 2013, bail and educational measures, Mizan Publication, Second Edition
 - 6. Sanei, Parviz, 1982, General Criminal Law, Fourth Edition, published by Gange Danesh
 - 7. Alie Pour, H., 2013, General Criminal Justice handout 3, Shahrekord University
- 8. Farhoudie Nia, H., 2014, Reflections about time of complementary punishment, East Azarbaijan justice lawyers association journal
 - 9. Ghasemi, N., 1995, bail and educational measures in Iranian criminal law, First Edition
 - 10. Key Nia, Seyed Mehdi, 1980, Principles of Criminology, second edition, Tehran University Press
 - 11. Mohammad Nejad, Parviz, 2003, bail and educational measures in criminal law, Eslah and Tarbiat Magazine, Issue 19
 - 12. Mohammad Nejad, Parviz, 2003, bail and educational measures in criminal law, Eslah and Tarbiat Magazine, Issue 61
 - 13. Mohammad Nejad, Parviz, 2009, reviewing new developments and changes accordance to the executive regulation act 2005, Prisons Organization and Bail and Educational Measures, Eslah and Tarbiat Quarterly, Issue 86 14. Mirzaee, H., 2009, a look at penalties of prison and deterrent and its comparison with bail and educational measures, Govah Magazine, Issue 14

METADISCOURSE AWARENESS AND READING COMPREHENSION IN ESP CONTEXT

Shabnam Kurosh,

Department of English Language, Bonab Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bonab, Iran Shabnamkorosh@gmail.com

Abstract. Current theories of reading state that reading is neither passive and bottom-up nor top-down processes, but rather an active process including both lower and higher level processes working interactively. With metadiscourse awareness and strategies for using it, readers can understand the author's intentions better (Crismore, 1990). Thus, the present study investigated the effect of explicit metadiscourse (MD) markers instruction on EFL learners' immediate and delayed reading comprehension improvement by using metadiscoursal taxonomies proposed by Hyland (2005) in ESP classes (Accounting). For this end, 60 homogenous female participants out of the pool of 84 in two intact classes (30 in each class) were selected through Reading and Writing sections of Preliminary English Test (PET) and then the classes were randomly assigned into two groups, namely, experimental and control ones. The participants were of the same English proficiency level (i.e., at intermediate level). A meaningful guarantee for the homogeneity of the participants was obtained through a series of independent samples t-tests. Each group was instructed for 7 sessions, once a week. They received the same instruction in all the language skills and components except for the reading comprehension. The only difference between two groups was in teaching and learning MD markers. The experimental group received explicit instruction of MD markers for 7 sessions. However, the control group received no specific instructions in MD markers. The results of an independent-samples t-test revealed that the experimental groups receiving explicit MD markers instruction performed much better than the control group.

Key words: Metadiscourse markers, Reading comprehension, EFL learners.

Introduction. According to current theories, reading is not a passive skill, but rather an active process which includes both lower and higher level processes. In other words, reading comprehension occurs due to the interaction between the reader and the text using those processes (Grabe, 2009). According to Anderson (1991), today the major focus is usually on speaking and writing skills because they are easy for assessing achievement. Yet, as Jenkinson

(1998) mentions, the reading process is one of the means for receptive learning, stating that "books are still a prime source of knowledge" (p. 66). Although reading is a receptive skill and understanding of text depends on the interaction between the written words and their activation of knowledge outside of the text, difficulties of this skill create barriers for students in understanding the main idea of text. This is because of lack of knowledge and one of them is metadiscourse awareness and different types of it (Aidinlou & Vafaee, 2012; Parvaresh & Nemati, 2008).

Metadiscourse is a term used by William (as cited in Crismore, 2004). In Williams' view, metadiscourse is writing about writing everything that does not refer to the subject matter being addressed. This includes all connecting devices (e.g., therefore, however, for example, in the first place), and all comments about writer's attitude. Metadiscourse is a self-reflective linguistic material which refers to the text and to the writer and addressed reader of that text. It views writing as social engagement and in academic contexts represents how writers project themselves into their discourse to express their attitude towards both the content and the audience.

Current views of reading regard reading as an interactive process between the reader and the text which results in comprehension. The text presents words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning by activating metadiscoursive skills (Crismore, 1989). In considering the pragmatics of metadiscourse in academic context, Hyland (2010) defines written metadiscourse as those "aspects of a text, which explicitly organize the discourse, engage the audience and signal the writer's attitude" (p. 437). Hyland (1998) states that:

Based on a view of writing as a social and communicative engagement between writer and reader, metadiscourse focuses our attention on the ways writers project themselves into their work to signal their communicative intentions. It is a central pragmatic construct which allows us to see how writers seek to influence readers' understandings of both the text and their attitude towards its content and the audience. (p. 437)

With metadiscourse awareness and strategies for using it, readers can understand the author's intentions better (Crismore, 1990). According to Tavakoli, Dabaghi and Khorvash (2010), "they will know whether they are reading the introduction, the body or conclusion of a text; they will know when the author has shifted to a different topic or defined a text; they will understand that an author is emphasizing his idea or considering certain ideas more important than others" (p. 93).

From the cognition point of view, metadiscourse will necessarily focus on processing the text. In particular, through textual metadiscourse, readers can reconstruct the structure of the text, identify the logical relationships in the contents, process the flow of information more easily and can activate their schemas needed to get the meaning. Regarding sociological and pragmatics premises, attention can be drawn to the process of interaction between authors and readers. Accordingly, interpersonal metadiscourse allows the audience to understand author's implicatures and presuppositions as well as author's stance while considering the social framework of the speech act (Crismore, 1990).

Wilson and Sperber (as cited in Rasti, 2011) believe that via metadiscourse, readers can understand discourse, share meanings, and interpret ideologies underlying the text. Research on the effect of metadiscourse on reading and writing has brought about different and interesting results. For instance, researchers (Camiciottoli, 2003) found out that some metadiscourse martkers do not always result in full comprehension of texts, because other factors can interact with metadiscourse and affect comprehension.

It has been argued that metadiscourse awareness is particularly useful in helping English language learners to understand the writer's intention when reading texts. Camiciottoli (2003) conducted a classroom research with a group of university students to get more understandings of metadiscourse awareness on reading comprehension and the findings indicated that the use of metadiscourse is associated with improved comprehension.

Literature Review. Metadiscourse (MD) is discourse about discourse with the purpose of directing readers and not informing them (Williams, 1981). Metadiscourse does not include elements which refer to the external reality such as propositional or referential elements but includes the ones referring to the organization of the discourse itself and to the relationship between the author and the reader (Crismore 1989; Vande Kopple, 2002).

Metadiscourse elements are means of making a text reader understand it better and enable the writer to communicate with the audience. According to research, the use of metadiscourse in writing varies from one language to another and the rules of its use may be different in different cultures (Crismore & Abdollahzadeh, 2003; Crismore, Markkanen, & Steffensen, 1993; Mauranen, 1993). There are recent research studies on the effect of metadiscourse awareness on text comprehension and its impact on learners' reading and writing.

The view of learning underlying metadiscourse awareness is theoretically constructivist view of learning which emphasizes the learner's autonomy "that results from both a cognitive processing and organizing of information within an individual, and a social aspect, where the learner interacts and dialogues with the problem, the context and the players to discover meaning and value" (Gilbert, 2010, p. 2).

Cognitive constructivists believe that for reading comprehension, readers should go beyond words and sentence levels to discourse level. They argue that it is the readers rather than texts that carry the meaning and texts only provide cues for readers. From this view point the reader has an active role in making meaning as he/she interacts with the text and constructs his/her representation of the information by organizing, selecting, and connecting the content while applying both text-driven and knowledge-driven processes (Zarrati, Nambiar & Massum, 2012).

According to the constructivist view of reading, reading is not as a passive process but rather an interactive process in which the reader is an active participant in the dialogue with the writer and helps the goal of the text be achieved. Based on this view, metadiscourse has a facilitative role in the interaction between writer and reader and reading comprehension occurs at discourse level. The study of metadiscourse based on a social and communicative

interaction between the writer and the reader is in line with both social and cognitive constructivist views of reading as constructing meaning from the text through inter-mental and intra-mental dialogues (Rasti, 2011).

According to Alderson (2005), many researchers and educators have conducted studies on how a learner develops listening, speaking, reading and writing; however, many of them have focused on reading skill in different EFL situations. Views on reading comprehension have changed during the past decades. For many years reading has been viewed purely from cognitive perspective and the focus of most of the research on reading has been the cognitive aspect of reading (Grabe, 2009). Reading comprehension is a key skill that can influence the learning outcome and further language development. As Anderson (2012) pointed out, reading is a core skill needed for the development of other language skills and subskills such as listening, speaking, writing, vocabulary and grammar. Reading is a way to get information about science, new inventions, discoveries and ideas. Snow (2002) defined reading comprehension as "the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language" (p. 11).

Therefore, nowadays, research views reading as a dynamic process in which the readers construct meaning according to information he/she gets from the text (Tavakoli, Dabaghi & Khorvash, 2010). Reading is an interactive process that happens between the reader and the text resulting in comprehension. The text presents words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning by activating metadiscoursive skills (Crismore, 1989).

Through metadiscourse awareness, readers will better understand the author's intention and test organization (Crismore, 1990). Readers will know which section they are reading, that is, the introduction, the body or conclusion of a text; they will understand when the writer has introduced a different topic; they will understand how to follow the author, activate and hold schemas by connecting sentences, shift topics; they will recognize the author's attitudes as being subjective or objective; they will know the relevant signals and circumstances that define the rhetorical situation of the text. Readers will be able to get independent readers and to represent and encode the discourse into their long-term memory (Crismore, 1990; Tavakoli, et al., 2010).

Using metadiscourse, the author can predict the reader's schemas. Effective comprehension of the reader and writer will occur if both authors and readers use similar interpretive methods and belong to the same discourse community. Scholars state that good readers use complex processes interactively and simultaneously in order to enhance comprehension (Stanovich, 1991). This interaction among processes is very influential in teaching reading skills for ESP. In other words, successful readers activate their schemata of the topic and use textual information to make sense of the new information (Stanovich, 1991; Jalififar & Shooshtari, 2011)

The role of metadiscourse markers and their explicit instruction in reading comprehension have been studied many research studies (e.g., Camiciottoli, 2003; Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995; Vande Kopple, 1985). Moreover, there are studies in Iran as well (e.g., Dastgoshadeh, 2001; Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007; Parvaresh & Nemati, 2008; Aidinlou & Vafaee, 2012; Jalififar & Shooshtari, 2011; Karimi, Tabrizi, Sadeghoghli, 2013; Gholami, Tajjali & Shokrpour, 2014).

Dastgoshadeh (2001) investigated the effects of metadiscourse use on the reading comprehension of high and low levels EFL university students. Findings indicated that students at both high and low levels of English language proficiency used metadiscourse to comprehend the passage more effectively. Another study on the metadiscourse markers was conducted by Jalilifar and Alipour (2007). They examined the impact of metadiscourse instruction on TOEFL reading passages. The result indicated that the explicit metadiscourse instruction was useful in drawing participants' notice to become aware of these language forms and their functions while reading. Similarly, Zarrati, Nambiartengku and Maasum (2014) investigated the effect of metadiscourse awareness on EFL learners' reading comprehension in two text types, that is, academic and general including three levels of reading proficiency (i.e., low, medium, and high). The results showed that students in all three levels performed better on metadiscourse enriched test than their other groups who took the metadiscourse removed text. The findings of their study suggest that making students aware of metadiscoursal markers enhances students' reading comprehension.

Moreover, the results of the study by Karimi, Tabrizi and Sadeghoghli (2012) showed the positive effect of metadiscourse awareness on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension improvement in post-test. Aidinlo and Vafaee (2012) conducted a study on the effect of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers on the comprehension of English texts. The result of this study showed that metadiscourse markers can have a positive effect on comprehension and greater presence of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers can lead to the learners' better performance. Moreover, Behnam and Babapour (2015) examined the effect of metadiscourse awareness on reading comprehension of EFL intermediate students by using metadiscoursal taxonomies proposed by Hyland (2005). The experimental group was instructed metadiscourse markers for five sessions. However, the control group received no specific metadiscourse instruction. According to the results, explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers improves EFL learners' reading comprehension ability.

Nowadays, most researchers and teachers teaching English pay a lot of attention to the reading skill believing that reading is of great importance for ESL/EFL learners (Grabe & Stoller, 2001; Lynch & Hudson, 1991). Although the findings of some studies (e.g., Camiciottoli, 2003; Vande Kopple, 1985) do not support the idea that metadiscourse in a text improves comprehension, they suggest that it is a topic that needs further research. Thus, the importance and influence of metadiscourse knowledge as a key in understanding texts should further be investigated. Moreover, metadiscourse knowledge in second language acquisition should be emphasized in every English class in Iran, and important steps should be taken to increase this knowledge as efficiently as possible. Thus, this study was an attempt to

investigate the impact of explicit instruction of MD markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance in ESP classes. Moreover, the current study aimed to investigate whether any statistically significant difference existed from pre-test to immediate and delayed post-tests. The following research questions were put forward to examine the results. Thus, efforts were made to address the following questions:

- 1) Does explicit instruction of MD markers affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' immediate reading comprehension ability?
- 2) Does explicit instruction of MD markers affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' delayed reading comprehension ability?

Moreover, the researcher tested the following research hypotheses:

- 1) Explicit instruction of MD markers does not affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' immediate reading comprehension ability.
- 2) Explicit instruction of MD markers does not affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' delayed reading comprehension ability.

Method. Participants. Having selected two intact accounting classes (42 students in each class) at Urmia Azad University, the researcher used the Reading and Writing sections of a PET test and selected 30 homogenous participants in each class. Then the researcher assigned the classes randomly into two groups, namely, experimental and control ones. The participants were of the same English proficiency level (i.e., at intermediate level) studying accounting at Urmia Azad University. The participants were within the age range of 18-28 and B.A. students studying Accounting. They were speaking Turkish, Farsi and Kurdish as first languages.

Instruments

In the current study, the following instruments were utilized to pave the way for data collection procedures:

- 1) A proficiency test (PET)
- 2) An English book entitled English for the Students of Accounting (1) by Davoud Aghvami
- 3) Pre-test
- 4) Post-tests

Procedure. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants at the very beginning, the researcher used the Reading and Writing sections of a PET test for 84 students from which 60 students whose scores fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected in two intact classes. In other words, the researcher selected 30 students in each class for the research. Then, the classes were randomly assigned to two groups of 30 learners, one as experimental and one as control group. To guarantee the homogeneity of the participants in both control and experimental groups, the researcher calculated an independent sample t-test between the control and experimental groups to get assurance that there is no meaningful difference between them. A meaningful guarantee for the homogeneity of the participants was obtained through a series of independent samples t-tests.

After ensuring that the two groups were homogeneous and that there was no significant difference between them, the next step was to launch the instructional procedure. They received the same instruction in all the language skills and components except for the reading comprehension. The only difference between two groups was in teaching and learning MD markers.

The experimental group was exposed to explicit instruction of MD markers for 7 sessions. In each session, they got familiarized with definitions and examples of some types of MD markers proposed by Hyland (2005). The learners were asked to give synonyms for different types of MD markers and use them in sentences. They were given some sentences and asked to complete them with correct MD markers. Some passages with MD markers were also given to them. They had to read the passages, underline MD markers, write them down and explain the function of each marker clearly. The passages were then analyzed in terms of the quality and quantity of metadiscourse found in them. The analysis was based on Hyland's taxonomy (Hyland, 2000), which identifies various functional categories of metadiscourse found in textbooks as follows:

Table 1. Hyland's Metadiscourse Classification

Types	Definitions
Textual metadiscourse	
1) frame markers	that signal or preview a discourse act or text phase
2) code glosses	that help readers to better understand a particular text element
3) logical connectives	to express relations between clauses
4) endophoric markers	that refer to other parts of the text
5) evidentials	that refer to other information sources
Interpersonal metadiscourse	
1) emphatics	that express communicative force or the writer's certainty
2) hedges	that modify the writer's commitment to the proposition
3) person markers or person pronouns	first indicating the writer's presence

4) attitude markers	to express the writer's stance towards content
5) relational markers	to create a relationship with the reader

The treatment was conducted once a week for two months including roughly thirty minutes of MD markers instruction at the end of each session. Since this study aimed at determining the effects of MD markers instruction on the learner's performance, the control group received no specific instructions in MD markers. After the treatment which lasted for 7 sessions, in order to see the effect of MD markers awareness on the learners' reading comprehension, learners in both groups were given an immediate posttest of reading comprehension in the eighth session. After a month, the delayed posttest was administered. The passages used in pre-test were used in immediate and delayed-posttests, too (i.e., the passages served the purposes of pre-test and immediate and delayed post-tests). The participants' scores on the pre-test and immediate and delayed posttests were then compared to find the degree of improvement of each group in the short term and the long run.

Design of the Study. The purpose of this study was to see if explicit instruction of MD markers had any effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension. Homogenizing the participants regarding their level of proficiency using PET, the researcher selected 60 intermediate students (30 in each class) in two intact classes and randomly assigned the classes into control and experimental groups. Thus, this study had a quasi-experimental design. Then the experimental group went through the intervention in comparison to the control group with no treatment. At the end of the treatment, both groups were exposed to immediate and delayed post-tests to see if the treatment had any significant effect on the experimental group in the short term and the long run. As the results of pre-test were only used for the purpose of homogenization and were not taken for comparing with the post-test results, this study was post-test design. Therefore, the researcher attempted to investigate the impact of the independent variable, explicit metadiscourse instruction, on the dependent variable, reading comprehension improvement.

Data analysis

In order to test the hypothesis of the study, the researcher carried out some data analyses:

- 1) An independent-samples t-test to examine the differences between reading comprehension means of the experimental and control groups in pre-test.
- 2) An independent-samples t-test for comparing the mean score of the experimental group in immediate post-test with that of the control group.
- 3) An independent-samples t-test for comparing the mean score of the experimental group in delayed post-test with that of the control group.

Results. Quantitative Data Analysis for Pre-test Regarding Reading Comprehension

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics for differences between reading comprehension scores of the experimental and control groups prior to treatment in pre-test.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Comprehension in Pre-test

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Pre-test	Control group	30	15.25	3.12	.32	-
	Experimental group	30	15.40	3.21	.32	

According to the mean scores, there was no difference between two groups and an independent-samples t-test was employed to confirm it (see Table 3).

Table 3. T-test for Reading Comprehension in Pre-test

	Levene's for Equality Variance	of	t-test of me	for qua eans	ality				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference s	Std. Error Difference	95% Interval Differer	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.00	.63	31	58	.72	-17.68	13.29	-44.60	9.272
Equal variances not assumed			31	57	.72	-17.68	13.29	-44.67	9.328

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of experimental and control group. There was no significant difference in scores for experimental group (M=15.40, SD=3.21) and control group [M=15.25, SD=3.12; t (58) =-.31 p=.72 > .05], that is, the reading comprehension ability of both groups was the same.

Quantitative Data Analysis for Reading Comprehension in Immediate Post-test

An independent-samples t-test was run to compare the mean score of the experimental and control groups in the immediate post-test regarding reading comprehension. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented, accordingly, in Table 4.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Immediate Post-test Regarding Reading Comprehension

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Immediate	Control group	30	15.40	35.57	8.16
Post-test	Experimental group	30	18.80	45.72	10.49

According to the mean scores, there was a significant difference between two groups in immediate post-test and an independent-samples t-test was employed to confirm it (see Table 5).

Table 5. T-test for Immediate Post-test Regarding Reading Comprehension

	Lever Test f Equa Varia	or ality of	t-test	for qu	ality of me	ans				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference s	Std. Error Difference	95% Interva Differe	ence	
								Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	1.12	.36	-6.4	58	.00	-3.85	.484	-4.52	-2.72	
Equal variances not assumed			-6.4	57	.00	-3.85	.484	-4.52	-2.72	

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare reading comprehension scores of experimental and control group in immediate post-test. There was a significant difference in scores among experimental group (M=18.80, SD=45.72) and control group [M=15.40, SD=35.57; t (58) = -6.4, p=.00< .05], that is, the reading comprehension score of the experimental group was significantly more than that of the control group.

Quantitative Data Analysis for Reading Comprehension in Delayed Post-test

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean score of the experimental and control groups in the delayed post-test regarding reading comprehension. The results of the descriptive statistics are as follows (see Table 6).

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for Delayed Post-test Regarding Reading Comprehension

		Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Delayed	Post-	Control group	30	15.42	34.87	8.44	
test		Experimental group	30	18.74	44.80	10.73	

According to the mean scores, there was a significant difference between two groups in post-test and an independent t-test was employed to confirm it (see Table 7).

Table 7. T-test for Reading Comprehension Scores in the Immediate Post-test

Levene's	t-test for quality of means
Test for	
Equality	
of	
Variances	

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference s	Std. Error Difference	95% Interval Differer	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.95	.33	-6.6	58	.02	-4.12	.428	-4.23	-3.15
Equal variances not assumed			-6.6	57	.02	-4.12	.428	-4.23	-3.15

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the reading scores of experimental and control group in delayed post-test. There was a significant difference in scores for experimental group (M=18.74, SD=44.80) and control group [M=15.42, SD=34.87; t (58) =-6.6, p=.02< .05], that is, the reading comprehension scores of the experimental group was significantly more than that of the control group.

Discussion. The present study investigated the effect of explicit MD markers instruction on EFL learners' immediate and delayed reading comprehension improvement in ESP classes. The results of the study revealed that the experimental groups receiving explicit MD markers instruction performed much better than the control group.

The results of this study are in line with most of the studies that indicated the positive effect of metadiscourse on reading comprehension of EFL learners. Particularly the present study confirm the result obtained by the studies conducted by Dastgoshadeh (2001), Jalilifar & Alipour (2007) and Hashemian, Rahimi Domakani, and Rahmati (2012) which showed the positive effect of MD markers instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension who were at two levels of language proficiency (low and high). They found that students at both high and low levels of English language proficiency used metadiscourse to comprehend the passage more effectively.

According to Crismore (1990), with metadiscourse awareness, readers will be able to understand the author's intended meaning better. Moreover, in line with Tavakoli et al., (2010), the researcher believes that using MD markers allows readers to understand discourse structure, to infer intended meanings, and to understand the ideologies in the texts. Explicit instruction of MD markers is necessary for the readers to interpret the text correctly and understand the writers' idea. In addition, through instruction, readers can cope with possible misinterpretations of writers' opinions and facts. The results indicated that in foreign language contexts, textual and interpersonal metadiscourse knowledge can improve learners' reading comprehension. Camiciottoli (2003), in consistent with findings of his study, suggests that a more pronounced use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse will be associated with improved comprehension.

However, the findings of this study however, partly contradict with the results gained by the findings of some studies (e.g. Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995; Vande Kopple, 1985) which do not provide clear evidence that the presence of MD markers in a text improves comprehension; however, they do suggest that it has a facilitating role. Moreover, according to Jalilifar and Alipour's (2007) study, it appears that the removal of metadiscourse markers with proper modifications in a way that the text coherence is not ruined will not significantly affect reading comprehension.

However, from pragmatic view, textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers establish a link between writers and readers and show the writer's intention so that the readers comprehend the meaning of sentence better and text becomes coherent. Kumpf (2000) highlights that omission of the use of textual and interpersonal MD markers on the text would blur the separation of content and make the text less cohesive and less considerate of readers. So using textual and interpersonal MD markers in reading text can facilitate the reading process, promote understanding, and build relationship between writers and readers. Most texts contain some MD markers and without them an author cannot indicate that s/he is changing subject or coming to conclusion, that his or her ideas are important, or what s/he is asserting is more or less reliable.

Therefore, explicit instruction is undoubtedly a step forward in enhancing university students' knowledge of such elements. Explicit instruction can provide students with important rhetorical knowledge and equip them with ways of making discourse decisions that are socially grounded in the inquiry patterns and knowledge structures of their disciplines. From cognitive point of view, textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers will focus on text processing. Particularly, through textual metadiscourse markers, readers can do over the organizing structure of the text, identify a logical linkage of contents in this way processing the flow of information more easily and can also activate conceptual schema which involved in communication of meaning.

The findings of present study may be used to determine future instruction. In fact, the most important contribution of this study is its classroom application. Since students seem to have little awareness of MD markers in reading in general, teachers should use specific instruction into the reading courses in order to help students become more successful readers. Thus explicit instruction is very important in academic contexts in which most students have subject specific backgrounds.

This study, however, could also be beneficial for language teachers to benefit from the explicit MD instruction introduced to the experimental group as a part of their own strategies to enhance learners' reading comprehension. Reading teachers especially EFL teachers are encouraged to incorporate into their classes the instruction of MD features and their functions in different contexts and different text types. They should design activities to motivate English

learners to approach a reading course by sensitizing them to different types of MD markers and their applications.

Moreover, language learners may be considered as the ones who benefit more than other people from the teaching MD markers explicitly. Students should be taught to use their knowledge to infer the various types of MD markers in the texts. Crismore and Vande Kopple (1997) suggest that students perceive the relationships among ideas and integrate the text semantically, so that they can construct meaningful thought units. Students are more likely to use MD markers as a comprehension strategy with greater awareness of its contributive role in text organization. They should, moreover, understand the writer's attitude toward the content by focusing on attitude markers. Materials should also provide students with enough practice to feel the author's presence indicated by self-mentions and engagement markers. As any human production, this study has some limitations. A serious limitation of this study was that it failed to incorporate the proficiency level. The researcher addressed just one proficiency level, that is, intermediate. In order to make generalizations in a more confident manner other studies with larger samples could be done to ensure the external validity of these findings. Also, future studies might also aim at investigating MD change over time in different speech communities, styles, and genres. Last but not least is the scope of the research in conducting the study with only female learners which leaves the results with other gender in an aura of ambiguity.

References

- 1. Aidinlou, N. S., & Vafaee, A. (2012). The Effect of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers on Iranian EFL high school learners' reading comprehension. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 2(6), 6210-6214.
 - 2. Alderson, J. C. (2005). Assessing reading. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 3. Anderson, N. J. (1991). Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading and testing. *Modern Language Journal*, 75, 460-472.
- 4. Anderson, N. L. (2012). Reading instruction. In A. Burns and J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in second language teaching* (pp. 218-225). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- 5. Behnam, B., & Babapour, M. (2015). EFL learners' reading comprehension ability in the light of metadiscourse awareness. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(9), 1850-1856.
- 6. Camiciottoli, B C. (2003). Metadiscourse and ESP comprehension: an exploratory study. *Reading in a Foreign. Language*, 15(1), 15-33.
 - 7. Crismore, A. (1989). Talking with Readers: Metadiscourse as Rhetorical Act. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- 8. Crismore, A. (1990). Metadiscourse and discourse processes: Interactions and issues. *Discourse Processes*, 13, 191-205.
- 9. Crismore, A. (2004). Pronouns and metadiscourse as interpersonal rhetorical devices in fundraising letters: a corpus linguistic analysis. In U. Connor and T. A. Upton (Ed), *Discourse in the professions. Perspectives from corpus linguistics* (pp. 307-330). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- 10. Crismore, A., Abdollahzadeh, E. (2003). A review of recent metadiscourse studies: The Iranian context. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 9(2), 195-219.
- 11. Crismore, A., Markkanen, R., & Steffensen, M. (1993). Metadiscourse in persuasive writing: a study of texts written by American and Finnish university students. *Written Communication*, *10*, 39-71.
- 12. Crismore, A., & Vande Kopple, W. J. (1997). Hedges and readers: Effects on attitudes and learning. In S. Markkanen & H. Schroeder (Eds.), *Hedging and discourse: Approaches to the analysis of a pragmatic phenomenon in academic texts* (pp. 83-114). Berlin, Germany: Walter de Gruyter.
- 13. Dastgoshadeh, A. (2001). *Reading comprehension of EFL students using metadiscourse* (Unpublished master's dissertation). University of Tehran, Tehran.
- 14. Gholami, M., Tajalli, G. H., & Shokrpour, N. (2014). An investigation of metadiscourse markers in English medical texts and their Persian translation based on Hyland's model. *European Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 2(2), 1-41.
- 15. Gilbert, J. (2010). *Constructivism within the second language classroom. Boison State University*. Retrieved from http://edtech2.boisestate.edu/gilbertj/504/synthesis.pdf
 - 16. Grabe, W. (2009). Reading in a second language moving from theory to practice. Cambridge University Press.
- 17. Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. (2001). Reading for academic purposes: Guidelines for the ESL/EFL teacher. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language (3rd ed.)* (pp. 187–205). Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- 18. Hashemian, M., Rahimi Domakani, M., & Rahmati, Z. (2012). Metadiscourse and L2 reading comprehension: the effect of genre and L2 proficiency. *International Journal of English and Literaturem* 2(1), 62-73.
- 19. Hyland, K. (1998). Persuasion and context: The pragmatics of academic metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 30, 437-455.
 - 20. Hyland, K. (2000). Disciplinary discourse: Social interactions in academic writing. London: Longman.
 - 21. Hyland, K. (2005). Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing. London: Continuum.
- 22. Hyland, K. (2010). Metadiscourse: Mapping interaction in academic writing. *Nordic Journal of English Studies, Spesial Issue, Metadiscourse*, 9(2), 125-143.
- 23. Intaraprawat, P., & Steffensen, M. (1995). The use of metadiscourse in good and poor ESL essays. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 4(3), 263–272.

- 24. Jalilifar, A., & Alipour, M. (2007). How explicit instruction makes a difference: Metadiscourse markers and EFL learners' reading comprehension skill. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 38(1), 127-148.
- 25. Jalififar, A. R., & Shooshtari, Z. G. (2011). Metadiscourse Awareness and ESAP Comprehension. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 41(2),53-74.
 - 26. Jenkinson, R. (1998). The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing. John Benjamins.
- 27. Karimi, L., Tabrizi, A. R. N., & Sadeghoghli, H. (2013). The effect of explicit instruction of metadiscourse awareness on developing Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension and its relationship to the learners' memory. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 5(2), 262-273.
- 28. Kumpf., E. P. (2000) Visual metadiscourse: Designing the considerate text. *Technical Communication Quarterly*, 9(4), 401_424.
- 29. Lynch, B., & Hudson, T. (1991). EST Reading. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign Language* (2nd ed.) (pp. 216–232). Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
 - 30. Mauranen, A. (1993). Cultural differences in academic rhetoric. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
- 31. Parvaresh, V., & Nemati, M. (2008). Metadiscourse and Reading Comprehension: The Effects of Language and Proficiency. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 5(2), 220–239.
- 32. Rasti, I. (2011). *Involving the reader in the text: Engagement markers in native and non-native student argumentative essays.* Unpublished Doctoral thesis, University of Liverpool.
- 33. Snow, C. E. (2002). Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension. Santa Monica, CA: RAND.
- 34. Stanovich, K. (1991). Changing models of reading and reading acquisition. In L. L. Reiben & C. A. Perfetti (Eds.), *Learning to read: Basic research and implications* (pp. 19-31). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- 35. Tavakoli, M., Dabaghi, A., & Khorvash, Z. (2010). The Effect of metadiscourse awareness on L2 reading comprehension: A case of Iranian EFL learners. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(1), 92-102.
- 36. Vande Kopple, W.J. (1985). Some exploratory discourse on metadiscourse. *College Composition and Communication*, 36, 82–93.
- 37. Williams, J. M. (1981). *Style: Ten Lessons in Clarity and Grace*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Zarrati, Z., Nambiar, R. M. K., & Massum, T. N. R. (2012). Effect of Metadiscourse on Reading Comprehension of Iranian EFL Learners. *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 20(3), 27-38.

SETTLE DISPUTE METHODS IN DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL MARITIME TRANSPORTATION

Marziyeh Sheikh Mohammadi,

Young Researchers and Elites Club-Phd student of law facuity- Islamic Azad University of Birjand, Iran Msh.vakil@gmail.com

Dr Abraham Taghizadeh,

Assistant professor of law facuity- Islamic Azad University of Birjand, Iran Taghizadeh@gmail.com

Alireza Ghane Dashti,

Master student student law facuity of Islamic Azad University Ilkhchi unit of Tabriz-Iran Alifulkrum@gmail.com

Hadi Sheikh Mohammadi,

Master of art Educational Management facuity- Islamic Azad University of Garmsar, Iran Hsh18181@gmail.com

Mohammad Ali sheikh Mohammadi,.

Master Student facuity of Engineering - University of Eivanekey, Iran Mash102030@gmail.com

Abstract. The rapid economic growth of Iran in the middle of the last century on the one hand and the large number of maritime trade exchanges between Iran and other countries on the other hand led to the Iranian legislator ratified the regulations on maritime transport, therefore, the Iranian Marine Law was approved in 1964. Although today, due to rapid industrial progress, most of the domestic and international transportation is carried out through air and land; the movement of passengers by sea, especially in short trips or sea voyages, is still a major contributor to domestic and international transport. Now, one of the questions that arises is that in the event of a dispute how it is resolved, which we will discuss in this study (both at the domestic and international levels).

Keywords: Contract, transport, carrier, convention, arbitration.