



Reciprocal Teaching and Emotional Intelligence: A Study of Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

Mehri Izadi

Chabahar Maritime University

Hossein Nowrouzi

Islamic Azad University, Taybad Branch

ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at exploring the effect of reciprocal reading strategies instruction on reading comprehension of EFL learners. Emotional intelligence, another variable of interest, was assessed to indicate whether it plays a role in learners' comprehension. In a pre- and post-test study, forty two learners went through a reciprocal reading strategy instruction. High and low level readers' performances at two levels of emotional intelligence, high and low, were compared. Results of data analysis showed that (i) all learners outperformed in their post-test performances except low level readers in high emotional intelligent group, (ii) reciprocal instruction significantly improved learners' reading comprehension, and (iii) emotional intelligence did not reveal meaningful correlation with reciprocal strategy instruction as far as learners' reading comprehension was concerned.

INTRODUCTION

It is needless to state that reading comprehension proficiency is vital for educational success as it provides the basis for a substantial amount of learning in educational career. In the past few decades, an important goal of reading comprehension research has been to find useful reading strategies that enhance students' comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). A plethora of research findings indicates that reciprocal teaching (RT), which entails applying useful reading strategies of questioning, clarifying, summarizing and predicting is a rewarding metacognitive technique (Brown & Palincsar, 1989). These reading strategies lead to understanding the process of learning as well as the text which will broaden meaningful learning. A key to the effectiveness of RT is the adjustment of the task as students experience difficulty. As difficulties occur, the teacher provides assistance by discussing the task and he/she slowly withdraws support as the lesson progresses, enabling the students to continue on their own (Israel,

Block, Bauserman & Kinnucan-Welsch, 2005). Although a successful technique in reading comprehension, RT is a neglected area in the context of Iran. It has been chosen as a subject worthy of study to further explore its impact among Iranian EFL learners.

Emotional intelligence (EI), another variable of the study, has recently received considerable research interest in the field of education and psychology. Some investigators have addressed how EI training can help children and adults become better leaders, achieve better physical and mental health, and become more effective learners (Bar-On, 2007). Furthermore, Parker, Saklofske, Wood, and Collin (2009) provide linkages between EI and scholastic variables including achievement, retention, and student failure, and conclude that EI interventions have the potential to improve a range of outcomes for students and educational institutions. As EI seems to have pervasive effect on students' learning, the researchers of the present study set out to investigate whether or not EI makes any changes in learners' achievement over a RT course.

Therefore, this study aims at investigating Iranian EFL learners' performances in a RT course and the effect of EI on learners' reading achievement during the period of instruction. According to the available related literature, no similar research has ever been conducted in an Iranian EFL context. Hence, the dearth of research in this area creates a need to conduct the present study.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Reciprocal Teaching

RT is a cooperative learning technique developed by Palincsar and Brown in the 1980s. Students are taught to use four strategies in working through the text: predicting, questioning, summarizing, and clarifying misleading or complex portions of the text (Brown & Palincsar, 1989; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Each of these strategies will be briefly reviewed based on Palincsar and Brown (1984). Predicting involves students in drawing inferences and using evidence from the text throughout the reading process. Questioning makes students busy in asking and answering questions to understand the text and they can draw on multiple sources to answer questions. During clarifying students should apply grade level phonics and word analysis skills in decoding words in texts. They also use context to confirm or self-correct, and reread the text when necessary. Summarizing strategy entails identifying main ideas and details in paragraphs and in multiparagraph texts by students. They also compare and contrast the overall structure of a text and summarize their selected reading passages. These four strategies are involved in RT in ongoing dialogues between a dialogue leader and students of the learning group. The dialogue leader, who can be a teacher or a student, models the use of the strategies, provides conditional knowledge about strategy use, and helps students to apply a strategy to a passage. As the students in the group become more familiar with the strategies and the procedure, dialogue leaders fade their involvement and other students take turns as discussion leaders. An underlying assumption of RT is that by applying the strategies in a group process, especially less able students can learn from their more knowledgeable peers (*ibid*). The overall goal is to promote, through scaffolding instruction and collaboration, the self-directed and flexible use of the learned strategies (Brown & Palincsar, 1989). According to Stricklin (2011), teachers have three primary responsibilities during a RT session: 1) Before reading, activate prior knowledge of words or ideas students will encounter

during reading. 2) During reading, monitor, guide and encourage individuals or groups in their use of the learning strategies. 3) After reading, encourage student reflection and ask students to share which strategy helped the most and why. Metacognitive thinking involved in part three is an important tool that gives students insight into their learning styles and allows them to reflect on which tools help them gain the most understanding in reading (Israel et al., 2005). To sum, the following elements are essential to RT: instruction of the four comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring strategies, application of the strategies, using rich and meaningful reciprocal dialogues, and providing scaffold instruction during which teachers gradually fade their modeling of the strategies (Hacker & Tenen, 2002; Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

The theoretical basis of RT is Zimmerman's (1998) self-regulation model. In this model, self-regulation is assumed to be organized within a learning cycle that capitalizes on three types of self-reflective thoughts: (i) goal setting and strategic planning; (ii) self-monitoring of one's accuracy in implementing a selected strategy, and (iii) self-assessment of strategy outcome and task performance (*ibid*). He believed that these processes are considered to be cyclic or recursive because each process entails information that can lead to changes in a subsequent step of the cycle. In addition, these processes qualify as self-reflective cognitions in the sense that self-monitoring of learning activities and associated corrective processes are central features of each step included in the cycle (*ibid*). Drawing on Zimmerman's (1998) model, during RT, students are engaged in cognitive and metacognitive activities: they alternate between prompting the use of a strategy, applying the selected strategy, and monitoring its accurate implementation. Hence, self-regulation procedures as described by Zimmerman (1998) are integral to RT.

Since Palincsar and Brown's (1984) seminal work, many studies have been conducted to test the effectiveness of RT. The procedure has been applied to different settings, age groups, and populations (Alfassi, 1998; Hart & Speece, 1998; Song, 1998; Le Fevre, Moore, & Wilkinson, 2003; Lysynchuk, Pressley, & Vye, 1990; Palincsar, Brown, & Martin, 1987; Sporer, Brunstein & Kieschke, 2009; Schunemann, Sporer & Brunstein, 2013). In a meta-analysis involving 16 studies, Rosenshine and Meister (1994) reported a mean effect size of .32 for standardized test and .88 for experimenter-developed task favouring RT over control groups. Also, Royanto (2012) found that an intervention program like RT is effective for helping novice students to use metacognitive strategies in reading and improve their understanding of the passages. Yang (2010) conducted a study to develop a RT technique in remedial English reading classes. He concluded that students learned much more from the teacher's or their peers' externalization of strategy usage in reciprocal instruction. Therefore, students who are taught metacognitive strategies of RT seem to be more successful learners. In their analysis of different forms of strategy instruction, Sporer et al. (2009) explored the effect of explicit RT (summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting) on three groups: small group (reciprocal teaching), pairs, and instructor-guided small groups and compared their performances with a control group who had traditional instruction. The study reported that students of intervention groups scored higher both in their post- and follow-up tests. Moreover, small groups outperformed compared to instructor-guided and control groups.

Emotional Intelligence

Since EI was introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990), different opinions and definitions about EI's usefulness as a psychological construct have been expressed. Two schools of thought characterize the current literature on EI. On one hand, ability models conceive EI as a form of intelligence, encompassing abilities to manage emotions (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1997). On the

other hand, trait or mixed models conceptualize EI as represented by a wider range of skills, including competence and traits such as zeal, persistence, and self-control (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995).

The term EI as described by Mayer and Salovey (1997) refers to the extent to which people use emotions to guide and inform their thinking. Processing of emotional information is part of everyday life, yet people differ in the way they pay attention to and rely on their emotional abilities. Some use emotions in a productive way, for example, to improve the quality of their performance or to accomplish their goals. Others use emotion in a less efficient way, for example, to direct attention away from the task in which they are engaged. The main characteristic of the model is that it considers EI as an ability. Mayer and Salovey (1997) emphasize the intelligence component, which underlies the mental abilities required to process emotional information, as opposed to dispositional components responsible for categories of behavior, like traits. Mayer and Salovey in 1990 devised the influential four-branch model of EI arranged in four sub-abilities: (a) the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and in others, (b) the ability to use emotion to facilitate thought, (c) the ability to understand emotions, and (d) the ability to manage emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004, 2008). These abilities apply to perception, understanding and management of one's own and others' emotions (Mayer et al., 2008). Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) argued that EI meets the criteria for a type of intelligence in that it reflects mental performance, consists of related abilities, and develops with age. The first branch regards individual differences in perceiving emotions in oneself and in others. Recognition of other individuals' feelings occurs mainly through the perception of nonverbal cues, like facial expressions and body language. Although the ability to perceive basic emotions is universal (Ekman, 1989), people differ in how accurately they perceive their own and others' emotions. Some people may be resistant or unable to understand how they are feeling; others may tend to perceive emotions as pleasant or unpleasant only; a few people may possess a vast repertoire of emotional nuances to describe their and others' emotional experience. The second branch represents a more complex ability than emotion perception: using emotions to enhance or facilitate thought. This ability plays a role when people make a choice by anticipating how they would feel in a certain situation or when they pay attention to what a certain feeling is communicating in a decision-making process. Individuals differ in the way they use emotional information to pursue their goals. The third branch refers to understanding emotion and includes knowledge about the causes, the consequences, and the evolution of emotional reaction. Individuals high in EI are able to figure out the impact of their behavior on other people and use this knowledge to improve interpersonal relationships. Emotion understanding encompasses empathy, which is the ability to experience others' feelings. According to Mayer et al. (1999), the previous three branches constitute the foundation on which the most sophisticated ability can flourish: management of emotions (the fourth branch). They contended that this branch is based on awareness of emotional reaction as well as regulation of mood and emotions in oneself and in others. Individuals may be more or less successful at improving bad mood or at attuning themselves to the mood required in a particular circumstance (ibid).

Trait or mixed EI models, however, approach EI from a more general framework of individual self-perceived emotionality and emotion efficacy (e.g., Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Followers of trait/mixed models draw attention on the relationship between emotion-related personality traits and the environmental context. For example, Bar-On (1997) defined EI as "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p. 14). Goleman (1995) created a model that also was mixed and was characterized by five broad areas including (a) knowing one's

emotions, (b) managing emotions, (c) motivating oneself, (d) recognizing emotions in others, and (e) handling relationships. His list of specific attributes under motivation, for example, include, marshalling emotions, delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness, and entering flow states. He makes claims for the predictive validity of his mixed model and states that EI will account for success at home, at school, and at work. Among youth, EI will lead to less rudeness or aggressiveness, more popularity, improved learning (ibid). At work, EI will assist people “in teamwork, in cooperation, in helping learn together how to work more effectively” (Goleman, 1995, p. 163).

Ability EI researchers aim to measure the construct through IQ-like tests. This practice, however, does not comply with the basic psychometric principles, as it is not possible to objectify emotional responses (Fiori & Antonakis, 2011). Emotional experience is inherently subjective (Watkins, 2000), and it is difficult, if not impossible, to develop clear-cut criteria to judge a response as right or wrong (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; MacCann, Roberts, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2004; Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). Matthews, Deary, and Whiteman (2003) drew on problems inherent in assessing social intelligence to bring forward analogous problems in ability EI, including the question of what constitutes the ‘emotionally intelligent’ response across situations and contexts. There is a plethora of current research showing that ability EI is not a real intelligence and should not be investigated as such (Petrides, 2011). Mavroveli and Siu (2012) contended that the conceptualization of EI as a personality trait is consistent with existing research on mainstream differential psychology, consensual psychometric principles. Accordingly, the researchers of the present study decided to adopt EI as a personality trait and measure this characteristic.

EI is increasingly seen as representing skills needed for success in different areas because it enhances not only personal growth but also interpersonal relationships. For example, EI is recognized in leadership (Maulding, 2002; McDowelle & Bell, 1997), management (Nuttall, 2004), military (Lt Latour & Lt Hosmer, 2002) and nontraditional adult learning (Drago, 2004). In educational settings, EI affects, directly or indirectly, a very wide range of variables. For example, pupils with high EI tend to have fewer unauthorized absences and are less likely to have been expelled from school due to rule violations, in comparison to their low EI peers (Mavroveli, Petrides, Shove, & Whitehead, 2008 ; Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004). EI also influences children’s peer relations at school (Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham & Frederickson, 2006), reduces their stress, and decreases the likelihood of aggressive behavior (Santesso, Reker, Schmidt, & Segalowitz, 2006). In a similar vein, students and teachers with higher EI reported a greater attunement to the emotional needs of others, an especial ability to interact with other individuals, more effective management of their own emotional responses (Perry & Ball, 2005), and overall greater effectiveness (Penrose, Perry, & Ball, 2007). Furthermore, Parker et al. (2009) emphasize the role of EI in education programs and their effect on interpersonal and intrapersonal outcomes. These competencies, including interpersonal and communicative abilities and empathy, are important dimensions within most EI models and can be extrapolated to their usefulness within the classroom. Moreover, Brackett, Rivers and Salovey (2011) suggest that an emotionally positive learning environment is the foundation for both academic engagement and achievement. This fact further emphasizes that effective teaching demands skills beyond the conveyance of academic knowledge and requires emotion-related competencies. Overall, EI would seem to have the potential to improve psychological well-being, decrease stress, and increase teacher effectiveness, thus ultimately influencing student and classroom outcomes.

Likewise, more recently, the tenets pertaining to EI in attaining academic objectives have gained attention in EFL and ESL related research. For example, Hasanzadeh and Shahmohamadi (2011) found that there is a significant relationship between students EI and their learning strategies. However, they observed no significant difference between students' EI and their fields of study. Moreover, Motallebzadeh (2009) conducted a study to determine whether EI, as an interpersonal skill, had any relationship with reading comprehension of language learners. Their study demonstrated that there was a strong relationship between EI and EFL learners' reading comprehension except for the social responsibility and empathy subcategories of EI.

Some scholars in the fields of psychology and language education contend that RT and EI (both variables of this study) have pervasive effect on each other. According to Edgecombe-Walker (2010), cooperative learning, peer tutoring and RT are effective teaching techniques that utilize and reinforce social and emotional intelligences. Evidence of the effectiveness of these techniques highlights the power of social and emotional intelligences (Salend, 2005; Westwood, 2006). Similarly, Honigsfeld and Lupeke (2010) consider RT as one of the major strategies that boosts social-emotional intelligences of the learners.

In line with the objectives of the present study and the abovementioned literature, the following research questions were posed and investigated:

1. Does RT have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading achievement?
2. Does EI have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading achievement?

METHODOLOGY

Instruments

To collect data, a test and a questionnaire were used. The reading section of IELTS Test was employed as pre- and post-tests to check the possible effect of the instruction. The test was taken from Cambridge Practice Tests for IELTS 1 (Jakeman & McDowell, 1996), Practice Test 1. The book reflects the reality of the original exam (Cambridge Homepage, 2014) and is published by Cambridge University. IELTS test was selected as the main measure of reading evaluation in this study inasmuch as it is a standard means of assessing learners' language ability. The test consisted of three passages of forty-one questions required to be answered in 60 minutes. It was first administrated before the instruction to check the homogeneity of learners and as a pre-test. After instruction, the same test was administrated as a post-test. Another instrument of the study was the Trait Emotional Intelligence (Trait EI) Questionnaire-Adolescent Short Form (TEIQue-ASF) (Petrides, et al., 2006). The questionnaire is a simplified version in terms of wording and syntactic complexity consisting of 30 items which have been designed to measure global trait EI. Responses are given on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 *strongly disagree* and 7 *strongly agree*. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was reported as .80 (ibid).

The reading passages in Active Skills for Reading 3 (Anderson, 2009) were selected for students' practice of reading strategies during the study. This book was chosen insofar as it is reading-oriented, incorporates a range of various and interesting topics to be taught and discussed and was part of the materials assigned by the university to achieve the curriculum. Besides, each lesson contains reading comprehension pre and post activities which are in line with the reciprocal way of teaching reading passages. The book has efficiently been reported to develop readers'

reading comprehension and vocabulary skills. It helps learners become more confident, independent and active readers (ibid) which suits the aim of this study.

Participants and Procedure

To conduct the study, forty-two EFL sophomore learners participating in Reading Comprehension 2 were selected as the subjects of the study. Sophomore students were selected since they have already passed Reading Comprehension 1 course and become familiarized with reading skills and the necessity of reading comprehension. To begin, they took Cambridge IELTS Test 1 as to be homogenized and evaluated for further analysis in pre- and post-test administrations. Students also completed an EI (TEIQue-ASF) questionnaire. Based on the results of TEIQue-ASF questionnaire, students were divided into two groups of high emotional intelligent (n=20) and low emotional intelligent learners (n=22) (see Table 1). Learners of high and low reading abilities in each group were then identified based on learners' minimum, maximum and mean scores in reading test. Based on the scores, 23 was calculated as the cut point in classifying learners' reading abilities. Accordingly, nine learners were assigned as high proficient readers and eleven learners were assigned as low proficient readers in high emotional intelligent group. Concerning low emotional intelligent group, 25 was calculated as the cut point. Thus, twelve learners were identified as high proficient readers and ten ones as low proficient readers in low emotional intelligent group (Table 1).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Learners' Emotional Intelligence and Reading Ability

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional Intelligence	42	110.00	140.00	127.11	6.57
High EI	20	127.00	140.00	132.80	3.60
High Readers	9	24.00	31.00	28.33	1.87
Low Readers	11	15.00	23.00	22.18	8.06
Low EI	22	110.00	125.00	121.95	3.73
High Readers	12	26.00	34.00	27.08	6.61
Low Readers	10	17.00	25.00	21.30	1.88

The course consisted of twenty two sessions, two sessions per week except the last two weeks, over twelve weeks. At the beginning of the course, students were told about the reciprocal teaching and how they would work on the passages throughout the term; following Palincsar et al. (1987), explicit teaching was selected as the instructional form. During the intervention phase, instructor and students worked together on the paragraphs, took turns in dialogues, tried to ask questions to predict some points, summarized paragraphs and clarified difficult parts. Following Palincsar and Brown (1984), instructor first modeled and demonstrated how learners applied strategies; questioned topics and made prediction about the content of passages and main ideas,

summarized the paragraph to have a review and used prior knowledge and common sense to clarify misleading parts. Subsequently, students were encouraged to apply strategies and work on the texts. Teacher led the dialogue and provided them with praise and feedback. The same process was applied throughout the whole instruction.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Concerning the first question of the study, high and low readers' marks in each group of high and low emotional intelligent group were compared using Paired Sample *T*-Test before and after instruction. According to Table 2, there are statistically significant differences between students' performances before and after the intervention. It denotes that experiencing reciprocal way of reading practices does work for students and helps them to comprehend and tackle reading passages better than before. As for the high emotional intelligent group, learners with higher reading ability outperformed in their post-test exam ($p=.00$). It seems that they benefited more from instruction compared to their counterparts with lower reading ability. Low proficient readers, however, didn't reveal significant attainment over the pre and post administrations ($p=.64$).

Regarding learners with lower emotional intelligence, both high and low proficient readers performed significantly better after applying reciprocal strategies ($p=.00$). It denotes that learners, in this group, also benefited from predicting texts, summarizing passages and clarifying difficult points. These findings are in line with findings of Palincsar and Brown (1984) and Brown and Palincsar's (1989) strategy instruction and reciprocal teaching regarding learners' improvement. According to Sporer et al. (2009), reciprocal teaching should be involved in comprehension instruction in order to "achieve lasting effects of reading instruction" (p. 284). In their analysis of different strategy instruction effects, Sporer et al. reported that learners in reciprocal teaching group stood out from students in instructor-guided group (Cohen's $d=.55$), and control students (Cohen's $d=.57$) on standardized reading comprehension test. In their words, "only students who practiced reciprocal teaching in small groups showed far transfer in the sense that they got higher reading comprehension scores as assessed with the standardized test" (p. 284). Similarly, Schunemann et al. (2013) incorporating self-regulation in reciprocal instruction notified that "with pretest measures of reading comprehension, reading fluency, and language primarily spoken at home partialled out, the intervention effect was revealed to be significant both at posttest, $B = 3.31$, $SE = 1.03$, $\beta = 0.38$, $p = .001$, and at maintenance, $B = 2.98$, $SE = 1.29$, $\beta = 0.33$, $p = .021$ " (p. 299) for RT and RT+SRL over control group. Generally speaking, RT and RT+SLR learners outperformed in measures of reading comprehension, strategy related task performance, and self-efficacy for reading.

Table 2. Paired Samples *T*-Test between Groups before and after Reciprocal Instruction

			Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
N= 42							
High	High Readers	Pre Test Post	-3.11	1.90	-4.91	8	.001

	Emotional Intelligence	Low Readers	Pre Post	Test	1.18	8.12	.483	10	.640
Low	Emotional Intelligence	High Readers	Pre Post	Test	-3.66	.49	-	11	.000
							25.79		
		Low Readers	Pre Post	Test	-3.50	1.43	-7.72	9	.000

Assessing learners at three levels of high, mid and low ability of reading in an EFL university context, Song (1998) argued that learners' overall reading comprehension ability was significantly enhanced during RT, while low able readers were aided more by the strategy training than more able readers. The ANOVA analysis of pre- and post-tests revealed that low and intermediate learners' performance were significant at $p=.00$ and $p=.01$, respectively. However, high able readers didn't show the same significant level ($p=.23$) in pre and post-test administrations. Song's (1998) findings, in line with the present findings, confirm the power of the reciprocal method of working on reading passages. Likewise, Le Fevre et al. (2003), Israel et al. (2005) and Royanto (2012) argued that RT promoting readers' cognitive and metacognitive strategies assisted learners with lower reading proficiency more than the higher ones. Seemingly, in accord with Palincsar and Brown (1984), over time, the students' questioning and using strategies "became more like the tutor's, being classified as *inventions*, that is, questions and summaries of gist in one's own words, rather than *selections*, repetitions of words actually occurring in the text" (Brown & Day, 1983, cited in Palincsar & Brown, 1984, p. 135). As class progressed, students learned examples of guided learning and directed their reading based on class instruction. Gradually, they became able to summarize, clarify and explore the reading passages for better comprehension.

Following the efficient effect of reciprocal teaching on learners' reading achievements, we assessed emotional intelligence as another independent variable of the study. Achievements of high and low able readers in two groups of high and low emotional intelligence were compared running two-way ANOVA. As Table 3 indicates, there is no significant difference between learners' emotional intelligence and their reading achievement ($p=.05<.87$).

Table 3. Two-Way ANOVA between High and Low Emotional Intelligent Readers

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1194.047 ^a	3	398.016	16.332	.000
Intercept	27527.594	1	27527.594	1129.554	.000
Reader's Group	1187.798	1	1187.798	48.740	.000
EI Group	9.313	1	9.313	.382	.540
Reader's Group * EI Group	.663	1	.663	.027	.870
Error	926.072	38	24.370		
Total	29943.000	42			
Corrected Total	2120.119	41			

a. R Squared = .563 (Adjusted R Squared = .529)

Based on the findings, it seems that learners' emotional perception and application of emotion in learning would not benefit them where the reading skill was concerned. The findings of the study are in contrary to the positive role of EI in educational and academic setting reported in literature (e.g. Perry & Ball, 2005; Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011; Brackett et al., 2011, Salend, 2005; Westwood, 2006). However, in line with the present study, analyzing linguistics intelligence and emotional intelligence in reading, Rahimi, Sadighi and Hosseiny Fard (2011) reached the same results and claimed that although linguistics intelligence is a key feature in learners' reading achievement, emotional intelligence is not. Rahimi et al. argued that linguistic intelligence "has more to do with cognition (which is a very essential process in comprehension) than EI, which is a matter of personality trait" (p. 162). It could be implied that concerning text processing and comprehension, EI does not overshadow the reading attainment. One possible explanation for such insignificant influence could be the scientific and general nature of reading passages in instructional materials and IELTS exam. Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2002) asserted that readers "can learn much about various feelings when reading literary works that depict characters with the tendency to experience specific emotions (e.g., sadness, fear, distrust, surprise)"(p. 443). It seems that EI could advance learners' perception when their emotions are significantly involved in learning. Regarding such proposition, Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) and Abdolrezapour, Tavakoli and Ketabi (2013) proved that learners exposed to literature and texts with emotional background outperformed the students with no exposure to literary texts in light of their emotional intelligence. According to them, intensive exposure to emotional and literature response activities as pedagogical instruments would raise learners' EI.

Generally speaking, RT can meaningfully enhance learners' reading comprehension abilities. On the other hand, EI can assist learners to a great extent if emotion raising activities are integrated in instructional practices. This may also fortify the effect of RT in an EI-centered class.

CONCLUSION

In line with Palincsar and Brown (1984) and Brown and Palincsar (1989), reciprocal way of instructing learners does improve their comprehension of the reading passages. The data highlight the reliable quantitative progress in post-test comprehension. Replicating natural learning, summarizing, questioning, predicting and clarifying let students effectively apply their cognitive skills to handle difficult and unfamiliar texts. According to Palincsar and Brown (1984), these strategies are ideal comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring practices inasmuch as modeling empowers students in understanding and retrieving texts. Another undeniable pleasure is that students involved in challenging activities are indirectly obliged to talk and show their level of competence. It causes not only teachers have the "opportunity to gauge their competence and provide appropriate feedback" (Palincsar & Brown, 1984, p. 169), but students could optimize their competence and proficiency. Therefore, RT entails an incessant trial and error on the part of the learners and an incessant feedback on the part of the instructors. This helps to activate learners' underlined capabilities i.e. a mutual interaction than a traditional unidirectional one. Furthermore, it notifies the efficiency of coordinating multiple strategies with comprehension instruction to reap long-term impacts of reading instruction.

On the one hand, recognizing and regulating emotions seem not to affect learners' reading attainments. The students of the study in high and low level of emotional comprehension performed similarly during the instruction. It seems that readers do not benefit from their senses and emotions in tackling reading passages. The possible justification to this inefficiency could be the nature of the reading passages themselves. The more the passages incorporate emotion, the better the learners can exert their EI in learning. This may lead to the optimization of RT strategy use and enhancement of reading comprehension. Overall, the findings of the study argue significant implications for instructors and curriculum developers. Following the results of the study, teachers and instructors should apply and integrate reciprocal strategies in their classes inasmuch as the strategies optimize learners' comprehension. Teachers should also pay attention to and incorporate modeling and intensify monitoring learners' application of strategies so that they become independent readers. One limitation of the study is that learners' performances have been assessed only for one semester. It is suggested that future studies examine the long-term effects of reciprocal teaching on learners' reading abilities. It would also be useful to assess the effect of boosting learners' emotional intelligence through literary texts in a RT class. It is recommended that future studies compare implicit and explicit reciprocal instruction incorporating interpersonal and intrapersonal skills.

Mehri Izadi is a Ph.D. Candidate of TEFL at Chabahar Maritime University, Chabahar, Iran. Her areas of interest are psycholinguistics, sociocultural theory, CALL and assessment. She has authored and co-authored articles in self-efficacy beliefs, critical and creative thinking, online learning, and dynamic assessment.

Email: izadimi@yahoo.com

Hossein Nowrouzi is an EFL instructor at Islamic Azad University, Taybad Branch, and also Payame Nour University of Taybad, Iran. He has coauthored research articles in national and international scientific-research journals. His major research interests include language learning assessment and psycholinguistics.

Email: nowrozi_hossein@yahoo.com

REFERENCES

- Abdolrezapour, P. & Tavakoli, M. (2012). The relationship between emotional intelligence and EFL learners' achievement in reading comprehension. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6 (1), 1-13. doi:10.1080/17501229.2010.550686
- Abdolrezapour, P., Tavakoli, M., & Ketabi, S. (2012). Emotionalized dynamic assessment as a key to enhancing learners emotion in an L2 context. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 323 – 330.
- Alfassi, M. (1998). Reading for meaning: the efficacy of reciprocal teaching in fostering reading comprehension in high school students in remedial reading classes. *American Educational Research Journal*, 35, 309 – 332.
- Anderson, N. J. (2009). *ACTIVE Skills for Reading 3*. Heinle ELT.

- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): A test of emotional intelligence*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2007). How important is it to educate people to be emotionally intelligent, and can it be done? In R. Bar-On, J.G. Maree, & M. Elias (Eds.), *Educating people to be emotionally intelligent* (pp.1 – 14). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 5, 88 – 103.
- Brown, A. L., & Day, J. D. (1983). Macrorules for summarizing texts: The development of expertise. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 22(1), 1-14.
- Brown, A., & Palincsar, A. M. (1989). Guided, cooperative learning and individual knowledge acquisition. In L. B. Resnick, (Ed.), *Cognition and instruction: issues and agendas* (pp. 393 – 451). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cambridge. (2014). Cambridge IELTS 1. Retrieve April 22, 2014, from http://www.cambridge.org/pl/elt/catalogue/subject/project/item404992/?site_locale=pl_PL¤tSubjectID=2701617.
- Drago, J. M. (2004). *The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in nontraditional college students* (Doctoral dissertation). Walden University, Dissertation Abstracts International 3146375: 1–213.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: in search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 989 – 1015.
- Edgecombe-Walker, S. (2010). *Social and emotional intelligence: the heart of learning*. Retrieved from Open Conference Systems @ PAMA database. (EDU8719 Study Desk)
- Ekman, P. (1989). The argument and evidence about universals in facial expressions of emotion. In H. Wagner & A. Manstead (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychophysiology* (pp. 143-164). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Fiori, M., & Antonakis, J. (2011). The ability model of emotional intelligence: searching for valid measures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 50, 329 – 334.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Hacker, D. J., & Tenent, A. (2002). Implementing reciprocal teaching in the classroom: overcoming obstacles and making modifications. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94, 699 – 718.
- Hart, E. R., & Speece, D. L. (1998). Reciprocal teaching goes to college: effects of post-secondary students at risk for academic failure. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90, 670 – 681.
- Hasanzadeha, R., Shahmohamadi, F. (2011). Study of emotional intelligence and learning strategies. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 29, 1824 – 1829. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.430
- Honigsfeld, A., & Lupeke, Sh. (2010). *Emotional reactions*. Retrieved from <http://www.language magazine.com>
- Israel, S. E., Block, C. C., Bauserman, K. L., & Kinnucan-Welsch, K. (2005). *Metacognition in literary learning: theory, assessment, instruction, and professional development*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Jakeman, V., & McDowell, C. (1996). *Cambridge Practice Tests for IELTS 1*. Cambridge University Press.

- Le Fevre, D. M., Moore, D. W., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (2003). Tape-assisted reciprocal teaching: cognitive bootstrapping for poor decoders. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *73*, 37 – 58.
- Lt. Latour, S. M. & Lt. Gen. Hosmer, B. C. (2002). Emotional intelligence: implications for all United States air force leaders. *Air and Space Power Journal*, *2*, 27–35.
- Lysynchuk, L. M., Pressley, M., & Vye, N. J. (1990). Reciprocal teaching improves standardized reading-comprehension performance in poor comprehenders. *Elementary School Journal*, *90*, 471 – 484.
- MacCann, C., Roberts, R. D., Matthews, G., & Zeidner, M. (2004). Consensus scoring and empirical option weighting of performance-based emotional intelligence (EI) tests. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *36*, 645 – 662.
- Matthews, G., Deary, I. J., & Whiteman, M. C. (2003). *Personality traits* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. (2002). *Emotional intelligence: Science and myth*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Maulding, W. S. (2002, October). *Emotional intelligence and successful leadership*. Paper presented at the Meeting of the Annual Meeting of the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration. Kansas City, USA.
- Mavroveli, S., Petrides, K. V., Shove, C., & Whitehead, A. (2008). Validation of the construct of trait emotional intelligence in children. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, *17*, 516 – 526.
- Mavroveli, S. & Siu, A. F. (2012). The factor structure of trait emotional intelligence in Hong Kong adolescents. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment* *30*(6), 567 –576. doi: 10.1177/0734282912449596
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, *27*, 267 – 298.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, *15*, 197–215.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *The American Psychologist*, *63*, 503–517.
- McDowelle, J. O. & Bell, E. D. (1997, May). *Emotional intelligence and educational leadership at East Carolina University*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for Professors of Educational Administration, North Carolina, USA.
- Motallebzadeh, Kh. (2009). The relationship between the emotional intelligence of Iranian EFL learners and their reading comprehension and structural ability. *Journal of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Literature*, *1*(4), 39 – 55.
- National Reading Panel (2000). *Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.
- Nuttall, J. (2004). Modes of interpersonal relationship in management organizations. *Journal of Change Management* *4*(1), 15–29.
- Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension fostering and comprehension monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, *1*, 117–175.

- Palincsar, A. S., Brown, A. L., & Martin, S. M. (1987). Peer interaction in reading comprehension instruction. *Educational Psychologist*, 22, 231 – 253.
- Parker, J.D., Saklofske, D.H., Wood, L.M., & Collin, T. (2009). The role of emotional intelligence in education. In J.D. Parker, D.H. Saklofske & C. Stough (Eds.), *Assessing emotional intelligence* (pp. 239 – 255). New York: Springer. Doi: 10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0_13
- Penrose, A., Perry, C., & Ball, I. (2007). Emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy: the contribution of teacher status and length of experience. *Issues in Educational Research*, 17, 107-126.
- Perez, J. C., Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2005). Measuring trait emotional intelligence. In R. Schulze & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *International handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 124-143). Cambridge: Hogrefe & Huber.
- Perry, C., & Ball, I. (2005). Emotional intelligence and teaching: further validation evidence. *Issues in Educational Research*, 15, 175-192.
- Petrides, K. V. (2011). Ability and trait emotional intelligence. In T. Chamorro-Premuzic, A. Furnham, & S. V. Stumm (Eds.), *The Blackwell-Wiley handbook of individual differences* (pp. 120 – 138). New York: John Wiley.
- Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behaviour at school. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 277 – 293.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29, 313-320.
- Petrides, K. V., Sangareau, Y., Furnham, A. & Frederickson, N. (2006). Trait emotional intelligence and children's peer relations at school. *Social Development*, 15, 537 – 547.
- Rahimi, M., Sadighi, F., Hosseiny Fard, Z. (2011). The impact of linguistic and emotional intelligence on the reading performance of Iranian EFL learners. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills (JTLS)*, 3(1), 151-171.
- Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1994). Reciprocal teaching: a review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, 64, 479 – 530.
- Royanto, L. R. (2012). The effect of an intervention program based on scaffolding to improve metacognitive strategies in reading: a study of year 3 elementary school students in Jakarta. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences* 69, 1601–1609. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.12.105
- Salend, S. (2005). *Differentiating instruction* (5th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9, 185 – 211.
- Santesso, D. L., Reker, D. L., Schmidt, L. A. & Segalowitz, S. (2006). Frontal electroencephalogram activation asymmetry, emotional intelligence, and externalising behaviors in 10 year-old children. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, 36, 311 – 328.
- Schunemann, N., Sporer, N., & Brunstein, J. C. (2013). Integrating self-regulation in whole-class reciprocal teaching: A moderator–mediator analysis of incremental effects on fifth graders' reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 38, 289-305. doi:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2013.06.002
- Song, M-J (1998). Teaching reading strategies in an ongoing EFL university reading classroom. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 8, 41-54.

- Sporer, N., Brunstein, J. C., & Keischke, U. (2009). Improving students' reading comprehension skills: Effects of strategy instruction and reciprocal teaching. *Learning and Instruction, 19*, 272-286. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2008.05.003
- Stricklin, K. (2011). Hands-on reciprocal teaching: a comprehension technique. *The Reading Teacher, 64* (8), 620 – 625. doi: 10.1598/RT.64.8.8
- Watkins, M. W. (2000). Monte Carlo PCA for parallel analysis [Computer software]. State College, PA: Ed & Psych.
- Westwood, P. (2006). Chapter 2 in Teaching and learning difficulties: cross-curricular perspectives (p. 11-28). Victoria: ACER. *EDU8326 Learning difficulties: mathematics-selected readings. (2009). Toowoomba: University of Southern Queensland.*
- Yang, Y. F. (2010). Developing a reciprocal teaching/learning system for college remedial reading instruction. *Computers & Education, 55*, 1193–1201.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1998). Academic studying and the development of personal skill: a self-regulatory perspective. *Educational Psychologist, 33*, 73 – 86.