2016
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Breaking Traditions: Active Learning

7th International Visible Conference on Educational Studies & Applied Linguistics

BOOK of PROCEEDING

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Foreword

Dear Authors, esteemed Readers,

It is with deep satisfaction that I write this Foreword to the Proceedings of the VESAL 2016, 7th International Visible Conference on Educational Studies & Applied Linguistics held by Education Faculty of Ishik University and the College of Education of Salahaddin University at Ishik university Education Faculty in Erbil, Iraq, 23-24 April.

VESAL continues a tradition of bringing together researchers, academics and professionals from the region and all over the world, experts in education and linguists. The conference particularly encouraged the interaction of researchers and developing academics with the more established academic community in an informal setting to present and to discuss new and current work. Their contributions helped to make the Conference as outstanding as it has been. The papers contributed the most recent scientific knowledge known in the field of, Teaching and Education, new trends in teaching English Language, and active learning in education life.

In addition to the contributed papers, two invited keynote presentations were given: by Dr. Himdad Abdul-Qahar Muhamed,who spoke about active learning and teaching in education field and Dr.Ismael M. Saeed who talked about English Literature

These Proceedings will furnish the researchers of the Kurdistan region of Iraq and middle East with an excellent reference book. I trust also that this will be an impetus to stimulate further study and research in all these areas.

We thank all authors and participants for their contributions.

Dr. Süleyman Çelik   Dr. Saeed Omer Ibrahim

Ishik University   Salahaddin University

Dean of Education Faculty   Dean of Education College

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Academic Learning and Early Childhood Behavior

Dr. Uma Shankar Singh

Aryan Kamaran

ISHIK University

ABSTRACT

Early childhood development is the most crucial time in the human development and learning. Academic learning makes an individual more competent for the higher development in life. The paper aims at the basic learning behavior of a child and measuring this impact on academic learning. The literature reviewed and it finds that poor development in early childhood have life-long consequences, setting children on a lower trajectory and adversely impacting a country's social and economic development. The research problem formulated based on the extensive literature review "Childhood care is the most important care in the human life development; it needs to get measured and fill the gap found for the transformation in childhood behavior that can have the positive impact on academic learning". Three objectives set to study the research problem are to know the early childhood behavior pattern, to understand the early childhood academic learning, and to find the impact of early childhood behavior on academic learning. The study is descriptive in nature with the sample size of 146 children; ages selected ranges in between five years to fifteen years. To balance the study both genders male child and female child have included in study. The geographic scope of the study is Erbil in Kurdistan. As the study is based on the concept of social development with behavior development and academic learning, so the study is implemented using a pretested measurement scale having all the components needed for the study. The data analysis is done using statistical techniques like t-test and regression using SPSS 20. The outcome of the research can help in parental care for the academic learning of their children in their academic development.

Keywords: Academic, behavior, childhood, development, learning, parental,

Introduction

Investing in young children is one of the smartest investments that countries can make for the sustainable growth of the country. Around the world, young children are growing up in disadvantaged circumstances, where the growth is under question mark. In developing countries, nearly 40 percent of all children younger than five years are stunted or living in poverty (Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). These children are more likely to demonstrate lower academic achievement outcomes and exhibit poorer cognitive ability (Glewwe, Jacoby, and King, 2001; Vegas and Santibanez, 2010). Disadvantaged children are also less likely to have access to quality health services, basic water and sanitation infrastructure, adequate nutrition, and quality childcare and preschools (Cole and Cole, 2000; Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). These multiple risk factors can lead to poor physical, socio-emotional, and cognitive development and set children on a path to lower achievement throughout life (Cole and Cole, 200; Naudeau, 2009). Cross-country evidence shows that by the time children enter primary school, significant gaps exist in children's development; these gaps widen with time. The effects of poor development in early childhood have life-long consequences, setting children on a lower trajectory and adversely impacting a country's social and economic development. Intervening during early childhood has the potential to mitigate the negative effects of poverty and promote equitable opportunities and better outcomes for education, health, and economic productivity (Heckman, 2008a; 2008b; Naudeau et al., 2011). Development in early childhood is a multidimensional and sequential process, with progress in one domain acting as a catalyst for development in other domains (Shonkoff et al., 2012). Interventions to influence a child's development should address four key domains: cognitive development, linguistic development, socio-emotional development, and physical well-being and growth (Naudeau et al., 2011; Vegas and Santibanez, 2010). Entry points to influence these four domains exist in a range of sectors, including health and nutrition, education, and social protection and can be directed toward pregnant women, young children, and parents and caregivers.

In cross-cultural research measuring toddler's temperaments, it is necessary to have a culture-free psychometric tool. A culture-free tool must also minimize construct, method, and item bias (He & van de Vijver, 2012; Van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004). If these sources of bias are eliminated, the instrument used to measure cultural differences in temperament can be considered equivalent across cultures. If bias is not eliminated, the tool cannot be considered equivalent and the differences in the measurement scores may stem from contamination by evaluators' cultural beliefs and/or expectations of children rather than reflecting differences in the toddlers' temperaments.

The present study sought to eliminate method bias using the same sample attributes and the same form of questionnaire as the original Early Childhood Behavior Questionnaire (ECBQ). The issue of item bias was addressed by using an appropriate translation method. However, as it was not clear if construct bias existed, this bias can be evaluated using social desirability. Caudill and Weinstein (1969) conducted a study comparing toddler's temperaments in the United States and Japan. This study found that Japanese mothers expect their babies to be quiet and content, while U.S. mothers expect babies to be vocal and active (Caudill & Weinstein, 1969). Bornstein (1989), in a later review of the literature, also found that infants in the United States had higher levels of motor activity than those in Japan (Putnam, S. P., Ellis, L. K., & Rothbart, M. K, 2001). Therefore, the present study expected that scores on the temperament scales on the Japanese ECBQ representing toddlers' activity, such as Activity Level and High-Intensity Pleasure (HIP), would be lower in Japan than those reported in the original ECBQ (Putnam, Gartstein, & Rothbart, 2006).

Literature Review

Trevarthen (1998) has argued from studies of newborn babies that one of the human infant's most fundamental needs is to become part of a culture. Babies actively engage with their social environment from the start. They are pre-adapted to social relationships, striving to make sense of their surroundings, by sharing with others in a process of inter-subjectivity on which joint activity, cooperation and communication is built. Judy Dunn (1988) worked with an older age group, revealing the way preschool children achieve social understanding in family contexts, negotiating disputes, teasing and joking with adults and siblings, already sharing in conversations about social and moral issues from a very early age. While these studies have been carried out in Euro-American settings they can be the starting point for elaborating the way children become initiated into features of their socio-cultural niche, including the range of settings and relationships, opportunities for sibling and peer interaction, through which they learn about social rules, rituals and meanings. A feature of early learning is young children's capacity to engage in a repertoire of interactive styles according to context and relationship, acknowledging that in complex pluralistic societies, children may encounter multiple, competing and even conflicting developmental niches as a normal part of everyday life.

To date Barbara Rogoff has perhaps gone furthest in elaborating a socio-cultural model with direct applicability to early childhood education (Rogoff, 1990). She elaborated 'guided participation' as a framework for examining the way children are initiated into cognitive and social skills perceived as relevant to their community Comparing mother-child dyads in India, Guatemala, Turkey and the USA, Rogoff et al (1993) found that 'guided participation'

was a feature in all these settings, but that the goals and processes of learning and teaching varied, which in turn was linked to the extent to which children's lives were segregated from the adult world of work. For example, while US mothers were often observed to create teaching situations, the Guatemalan mothers relied on child's engagement with activities of the community. In one sequence of Rogoff's research video; there is a fine illustration of these mothers' different orientation to communication. In the US context, the dominance of verbal communication is taken for granted. But when a Guatemalan mother wishes her toddler to hand over a toy, she says not a word, but merely touches the toddler's elbow, a simple direct communicative device whose symbolic meaning is already well-understood by the child. Most recently, Rogoff (2003) has elaborated this view that development is naturally social and cultural, and explored the ways children are inducted into communities of learners.

Different views on maturity, evolving capacities and developing competencies, are not exhaustive, nor necessarily in opposition. Lansdown (2005) suggests three interpretations of the concept of 'evolving capacities': a developmental concept - fulfilling children's rights to the development of their optimum capacities; an emancipatory concept – recognizing and respecting the evolving capacities of children; and a protective concept – protecting children from experiences beyond their capacities. Attachment theories have made important contributions to the notion of early experience. Attachment theory was developed by British psychologist and psychoanalyst John Bowlby. According to Bowl by (1973, 1980), experience with primary care givers leads to generalized expectations and beliefs "working models" about self, the world, and relationships. He describes these representations as persistent and yet opens to revision in light of experience. Persistent attachment representations allow positive secure base experiences to guide behavior when someone "stronger and wiser" is not at hand (Bowlby, 1985). The growing infant who began being totally dependent on mother for soothing, stimulation and emotional regulation, gradually claims the ability to manage alone. In other words: "early development entails the gradual transition from extreme dependence on others to manage the world for us to acquiring the competencies needed to manage the world for oneself" (Shonkoff and Phillips, 2000). Research on brain development, has shown that "the infant's transactions with the early socio-emotion environment indelibly influence the evolution of brain structures responsible for the individual's socio emotional functioning for the rest of the life span" (Schore, 1994). The brain is at its most adaptable, or plastic, for the first two years after birth, during which time the primary caregiver acts as an external psychobiological regulator of the 'experience dependent' growth of the infant's nervous system. Scale Definitions: Early Childhood Behavior Questionnaire (Putnam, Gartstein, & Rothbart, 2006).

Scale label	Definition
Activity Level	Level (rate and intensity) of gross motor activity, including rate and extent of locomotion
Attentional Focusing	Sustained duration of orienting on an object of attention; resisting distraction
Attentional Shifting	The ability to transfer attentional focus from one activity/task to another
Cuddliness	Child's expression of enjoyment in and molding of the body to being held by a caregiver
Discomfort	Amount of negative affect related to sensory qualities of stimulation
Fear	Negative affect related to anticipated pain, distress, sudden events, and/or potentially threatening situations
Frustration	Negative affect related to interruption of ongoing tasks or goal blocking
High-Intensity Pleasure	Pleasure or enjoyment related to situations involving high intensity, rate, complexity, novelty, and incongruity
Impulsivity	Speed of response initiation
Inhibitory Control	The capacity to stop, moderate, or refrain from a behavior under instruction
Low-Intensity Pleasure	Pleasure or enjoyment related to situations involving low intensity, rate, complexity, novelty, and incongruity
Motor Activation	Repetitive small-motor movements; Fidgeting
Perceptual Sensitivity	Detection of slight, low-intensity stimuli from the external environment
Positive Anticipation	Excitement about expected pleasurable activities
Sadness	Tearfulness or lowered mood related to suffering, disappointment, or loss
Shyness	Slow or inhibited approach and/or discomfort in social situations involving novelty or uncertainty
Sociability	Seeking and taking pleasure in interactions with others
Soothability	Rate of recovery from peak distress, excitement, or general arousal

Research Problem and Objectives

The literature reviewed and it finds that poor development in early childhood have life-long consequences, setting children on a lower trajectory and adversely impacting a country's social and economic development. The research problem formulated based on the extensive literature review "Childhood care is the most important care in the human life development; it needs to get measured and fill the gap found for the transformation in childhood behavior that can have the positive impact on academic learning". Three objectives set to study the research problem are:

- To know the early childhood behavior pattern,

- To understand the early childhood academic learning

- To find the impact of early childhood behavior on academic learning.

Research Methodology

The study is descriptive in nature with the sample size of 146 children; ages selected ranges in between five years to fifteen years. Simple random sampling method is adopted for sample selection, for the sample size selection (Cohen, J., 1992) statistical technique has been used. To balance the study both genders male child and female child have included in study. The geographic scope of the study is Erbil in Kurdistan. As the study is based on the concept of social development with behavior development and academic learning, so the study is implemented using a pretested measurement scale having all the components needed for the study (Putnam, Gartstein, & Rothbart, 2006) is explained in literature review. The data analysis is done using statistical techniques like t-test and regression using SPSS 20 to get the result that can help in parental care for the academic learning among children and their academic development. Research methodology is designed to keep the research objective in the mind.

Conceptual Model (Based on Theory)
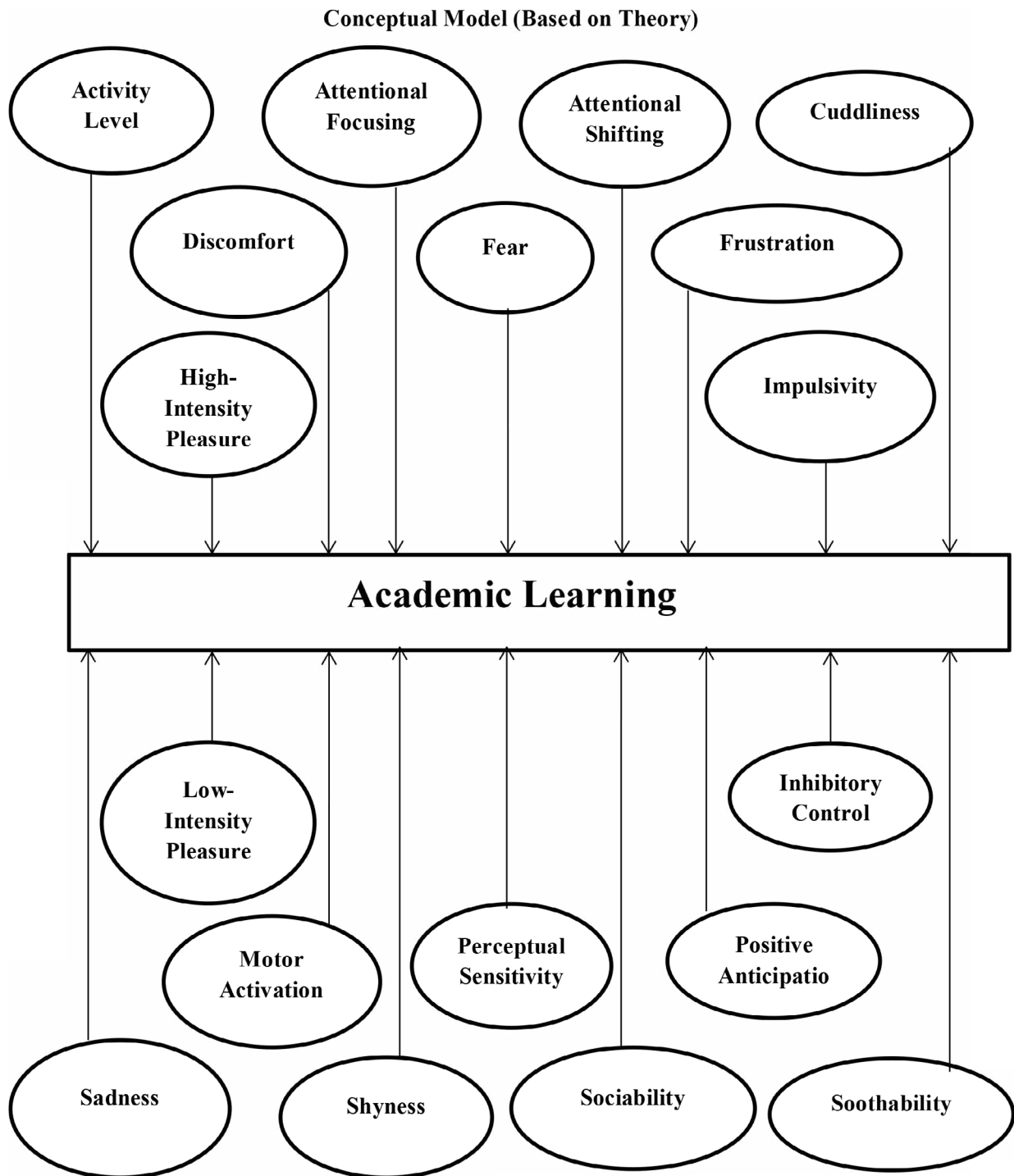
Data Analysis

Data analysis is performed very carefully. Firstly the data is tested for reliability analysis. It shows a considerable Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.734 on 18 items selected as shown in the next table (Table I).

Table I   **Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
.734	18

Table II   **One-Sample T- Test**

	Test Value = 5				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	sig. (2-tailed)	mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Activity Level	.180	145	.858	.021	-.21	.25
Attentional Focusing	-5.106	145	.000	-.616	-.86	-.38
Attentional Shifting	-4.205	145	.000	-.397	-.58	-.21
Cuddliness	-.528	145	.598	-.062	-.29	.17
Discomfort	-2.623	145	.010	-.315	-.55	-.08
Fear	-6.990	145	.000	-.918	-1.18	-.66
Frustration	-6.076	145	.000	-.774	-1.03	-.52
High-Intensity Pleasure	-4.998	145	.000	-.432	-.60	-.26
Impulsivity	-9.260	145	.000	-.747	-.91	-.59
Inhibitory Control	-8.449	145	.000	-1.164	-1.44	-.89
Low-Intensity Pleasure	-4.809	145	.000	-.568	-.80	-.33
Motor Activation	-7.774	145	.000	-1.048	-1.31	-.78
Perceptual Sensitivity	-5.965	145	.000	-.767	-1.02	-.51
Positive Anticipation	-10.569	145	.000	-1.144	-1.36	-.93
Sadness	-11.922	145	.000	-1.349	-1.57	-1.13
Shyness	-8.607	145	.000	-.986	-1.21	-.76
Sociability	-3.893	145	.000	-.377	-.57	-.19
Soothability	-5.165	145	.000	-.623	-.86	-.38

All 18 variables taken in the study and measured by (Putnam, Gartstein, & Rothbart, 2006) instrument checked for its acceptability in the study. Sixteen variables namely Attentional Focusing, Attentional Shifting, Discomfort, Fear, Frustration, High-Intensity, Pleasure, Impulsivity, Inhibitory Control, Low-Intensity, Pleasure, Motor Activation, Perceptual Sensitivity, Positive Anticipation, Sadness, Shyness, Sociability, Soothability having very significant outcome where Discomfort has 0.010, except this rest fifteen are having 0.000

as shown in the Table II. So these 16 variables are further taken for study. Out of eighteen variables two variables namely Activity Level and cuddliness are not having the significant results like 0.858 and 0.598 respectively as shown in the Table II, so discarded from the further study and conceptual model reformed. Academic Learning is formed as latent variable and formed with all 18 independent observed variables.

Conceptual Model (Reformed)
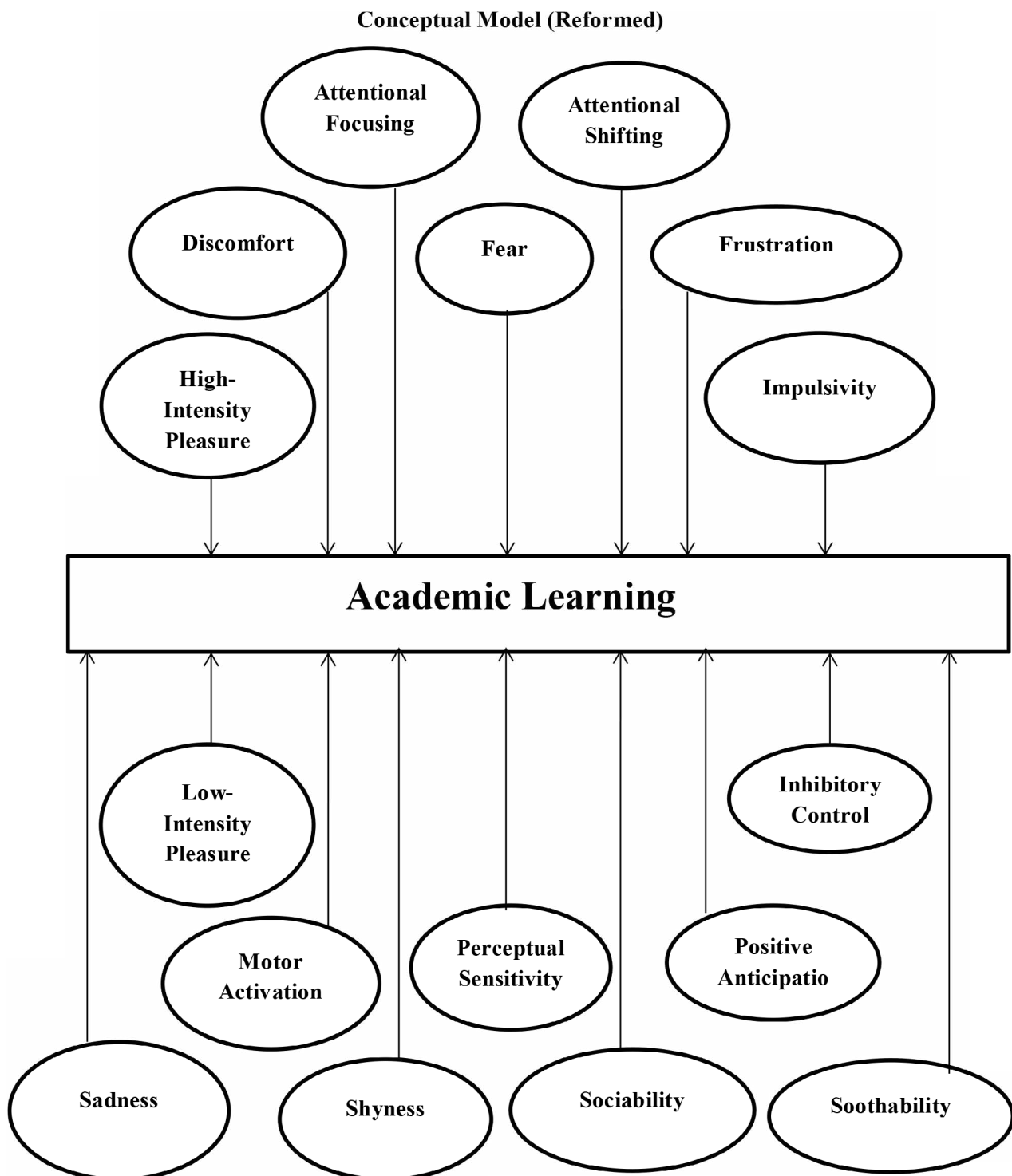
| Table III | | Regression Analysis | | |

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	R²	β	Sig.
Academic Learning	Attentional Focusing	0.252	0.507	0.000
	Attentional Shifting	0.078	0.291	0.000
	Discomfort	0.115	0.348	0.000
	Fear	0.209	0.463	0.000
	Frustration	0.311	0.562	0.000
	High-Intensity Pleasure	0.200	0.453	0.000
	Impulsivity	0.304	0.556	0.000
	Inhibitory Control	0.310	0.561	0.000
	Low-Intensity Pleasure	0.041	0.217	0.008
	Motor Activation	0.186	0.437	0.000
	Perceptual Sensitivity	0.454	0.677	0.000
	Positive Anticipation	0.262	0.517	0.000
	Sadness	0.265	0.520	0.000
	Shyness	0.203	0.457	0.000
	Sociability	0.018	0.157	0.058
	Soothability	0.436	0.663	0.000

The data analysis continued further, based on cause effect relation using regression technique. All sixteen independent variables are checked and explained here based on R squared and Beta value, where R square explains how much is the dependent variable getting explained by independent variable and Beta explains what would be the change in dependent variable with the change of 1 unit in independent variable. Academic Learning is the dependent variable in all sixteen cases, the Perceptual Sensitivity is the independent variable with the highest R squared and Beta value 0.454 and o.677 shows that out of sixteen variables first is considering the Perceptual Sensitivity is the most important and affects the academic learning. The second is the Soothability with 0.436 of R squared and 0.663 of Beta value are followed with Frustration, Inhibitory Control and Impulsivity with 0.311, 0.310 and 0.304 value of R square respectively and 0.562, 0.561 and 0.556 is the value of Beta respectively. The next category formed with Sadness, Positive Anticipation, Attentional Focusing, Fear and Shyness with 0.265, 0.262, 0.252, 0.209 and 0.203 are the values of R squared respectively and 0.520, 0.517, 0.507, 0.463 and 0.457 respectively. The last category can get considered as Motor Activation, Discomfort, Attentional Shifting, Low Intensity Pleasure and Sociability with 0.186, 0.115, 0.078, 0.041 and 0.018 of the value of R Squared and 0.437, 0.348, 0.291, 0.217 and 0.157 respectively.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Based on the data analysis it is very clearly observed that the sixteen independent variables are getting clubbed in four different categories, where the last category of independent variables have the least effect on dependent variable (Academic Learning). Another way, it can get concluded that the independent variables having the Beta value more than 0.5 means showing 50% change on the variation of 1 unit. So Out of sixteen variables, eight variables have the higher impact on Academic Learning are Perceptual Sensitivity (0.677), Soothability (0.663), Frustration (0.562), Inhibitory Control (0.561), Impulsivity (0.556), Sadness (0.520), Positive Anticipation (0.517), Attentional Focusing (0.507). The outcome of this study suggests parents to take care for these eight variables in their children that can help them to do better in academic learning performance.

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STRATEGIES OF TRANSLATING ALLUSIONS FROM KURDISH TO ENGLISH AND VICE VERSA

Rawand Sabah

Ishik University

ABSTRACT

There is no doubt that translators face a lot of difficulties during the process of translations. One of these difficulties is literary texts which pose challenges for them since literary texts are tightly knit to culture of languages. One of the literary devices which exist in about all literary texts and causing intercultural gaps is allusion. This study tries to show some definitions of allusions. Later the paper attempts to examine the strategies, translators can use in translating of allusive words, phrases, and sentences from Kurdish to English or vice versa. The paper ends with conclusions and recommendations.

Keywords: Allusions, Culture bound, Difficulties, Definitions, Strategies, Translations….etc.

1. INTRODUCTION

In a work of literature allusion is a brief reference, explicit or implicit, to a person, place, or event or to another literary work or passage (Abrams, 1999, p. 9). As Wheeler (1979, p.5) defines it, "Allusion helps to elucidate the meaning of each text and to indicate the literary modes and conventions in which its author works." .According to Gardi (1972, p. 103) allusion is a literary device which is used by a poet to refer to historic and literary events, or to a proverb and a Holy Quran verse. In Kurdish color may also be used as a allusion for denoting time as in (ڕەنگ زەردی خەزان), which denotes an autumn season or (دار سەوزبوون), which denotes time of spring season (Shekhani, p. 35) Leppihalme (1997, pp.78-83) states that when someone desires to know and translate something deep-rooted strongly in another nation's culture he/she must have much information other than what is seen overtly, actually, the comprehension of an allusion is barred by culture if the translators do not have knowledge of both cultures, so this obstacle should be removed. This study concentrates on strategies suggested by leppihalme (1997) to decipher the intercultural difficulty of translating allusions. It is quite obvious that target text readers, who have educated in a different culture, will usually be rather incapable of recognizing the names or phrases used and to make the necessary connection in order to make sense of target text passages in which source-cultural allusions take place. Allusive names and phrases may have sense

or carry connotations understood by members of the source culture but which may express nothing to target text readers in whose culture allusions are offered by different texts altogether.

1.2. DATA

The data is mainly collected from written resources such as books and dictionaries and daily conversations of both languages, such as the book of (Rhetoric in Kurdish Literature) by Aziz Gardi, and (Idiom in Kurdish Language) by Jala Muhamad Subhani. On the other hand most of the data in English taken from (The Oxford Dictionary of Allusions) by Andrew Delahunty Sheila Dignen, and Penny Stock, and (Merriam Webster' Dictionary of Allusions) by Elizabeth Webber & Mike Feinsilber.

1.3. METHODOLOGY

The paper attempts to find ways to translate allusions from Kurdish to English or vice versa according to Leppihalm's strategies. It also tries to discover the problems translators face during the process of translation, and how translators choose the best and the most appropriate strategy to translate allusions from the source text into the target text allusions or vice versa.

1.4. PROBLEMS

Culture is one of the difficulties on the way of translators since the meaning is mainly depending on the culture of the languages. Translators are required to have a good cross-cultural awareness; this is because words that have different connotations in one language might not have the same emotive associations in another language. The differences between Kurdish and English cultures make the process of translation difficult. One of the problems involved in the process of translations is allusive words or expressions. Therefore, the qualified translators must have a good knowledge about the ways of transferring the meaning of allusions between the source and target language.

1.5. OBJECTIVES

The Object is to clarify if these strategies are applicable or understandable when translators use the in translating allusions. The paper is seeking to answer the question whether these strategies are suitable or not when used in translating allusions from Kurdish to English or vice versa.

2. FUNCTIONS AND RECOGNITIONS OF ALLUSIONS

Paul Lennon (2004) classifies five functions of allusions. These five functional domains are as follows:

1. The intratextual domain: to draw reader's thought.

2. The inter (con) textual: to attain borrowed stylistic effects, to complete physical economy of expression, to make use of the creative vagueness of words and phrasal units.

3. The meta textual: to explain latest information alongside existing cultural principles and vice versa, to accomplish ironic effects of ridicule or criticism, to achieve amusingly ugly effects, and to persuade by plead to cultural values.

4. The processing domain: to simplify the perceptive processing weight for the reader and writer, to cognitively defy the reader and support him to continue reading.

5. The interpersonal-affective domain: to set up shared interest with the reader, to convince the reader syllogistically by hidden analogy, to convey artistic enjoyment to the reader, and to show the writer's world information, beliefs, ethics and wittiness.

Allusions refer to religious, historical, and literary sources. Recognizing allusions relies on the reader's knowledge on the cultural texts which are naturally brought to mind; however, one only can evoke something that is already there. Leppihalme (1997, pp: 62-6) proposes several methods which supports recognizing allusions which include, among others, the length of the phrase, non-standard spelling and syntax, deviations in style, rhythm and rhyme, and overt phrases. According to Ghanooni (2008) and Sahebhonar (2006) allusions can be divided into four thematic groups; religious allusion, mythological allusion, literary allusion, and historical allusion.

3. STRATEGEIS FOR TRANSLATING ALLUSIONS

Leppihalme (1997) proposes a number of strategies in her book entitled Culture Bumps. An Empirical Approach to the Translation of Allusions. Theorists have always discussed best strategies for translation. The solution of problem relies on: who is translating what, for whom, when, where, why and in what circumstances? (Hatim & Mason, 1990). A good translator often notices and analyzes functions of allusions in source languages text before deciding how to treat it.

Leppihalme (1997) has classified allusions into two groups: proper name allusion and key-phrase allusion. In PN allusions a name is mentioned, but in KP allusions no name is mentioned but instead there's a phrase that refers to that name. According to Leppihalme (1997) PN allusions can be real-life and fictional figures, international names of entertainers or

politicians, famous names of past generations, writers, painters and so on. These kinds of names are sometimes borrowed from Holy Scriptures or myths.

Leppihalm (1997) believes that "Bible is the most common single source of key-phrase allusions". She has also mentioned other sources such as: nursery rhymes and children's tales, songs, well-known films and topical television programs ,political slogans ,commercial product slogans ,various catch-phrases, clichés and proverbs ,various popular beliefs, assumptions and stories , and a writer's own experiences which may function as sources of private allusions.

Leppihalme (1997) differentiates between proper name and key phrase allusions. Retention of the allusion, changing it somehow and omitting the allusion altogether form the basis of both lists. Differences arise from the fact that key phrases may merely specially be maintained in their original-language forms (p. 83). But the list for proper-name allusions (pp. 78-9) is indeed based on retention of the name, replacement of the name by another name and omission of the name, each strategy with some additional variants. Here is the full list:

(1a) Retention of the name as such

Abraham→ئیبراهیم

Napoleon→ناپلیۆن

Salahaddin←سەلاحەدین

(1b) Retention of the name with some additional guidance

ئیبراهیم →Abraham, the prophet

Ishmael →پێغەمبەر ئیسماعیل

(1c) Retention of the name with detailed explanations.

اسرافیل →Israfil is the angle who will below the last trump twice .At first all living will die ,at the second all the dead will rise to be judged.

(2a) Replacement of the name with another source-language name

Christ←پێغەمبەر عیسی کوری مەریەمی پاکیزە

Virgin←مەریەمی پاکیزە

full moon ←مانگە شەو

→ cold warشەری ساردی

(2b) Replacement of the name with a target-language name

Romeo and Juliet→مەم و زین

(3a) Omission of the name, but the sense conveyed through a common noun.

مەحشەر → is the name of a place where all nations will gather for judgment in doomsday.

(3b) Omission of the name and allusion completely

The exceptional cases of retention as such (strategy 1a) are a group of names with conventional target-language forms. Typically such names are names of monarchs, certain cities, books and films.

For key-phrase allusions the list of potential strategies is somewhat longer. The potential strategies are:

(A) Use of a standard translation, e.g:

Apostles←حەواریەکان

شۆڤێنی← Chauvinist

ئاڵای سپی→White flag

(B) Minimum change / literal translation) the same as (A)

شاری قەڵاو مناره→the city of castle and minaret

Marathon - a long distance race; source of the Victory of the Greeks over Persians in 490 B.C. →ماراسۆن

(C) Addition of extra-allusive guidance (including typographical means)

Translators sometimes use inverted commas or italic forms in order to show an allusive sentence, another way which might be used is" an introductory phrase" ;such a phrase shows that this allusion is something cultural,e.g:….{and according to Holy Quran}…..

عومری نوح و سەبری ئەیوب→ ''According to the explanation of Holy Quran" to live for a long time as Noah the messenger and to be patient for a long time as Job the messenger who suffers a great deal but remains faithful whose faith in God was tested by Satan; though he lost his family and belongings, he remained patient and faithful.

(D) Footnotes, endnotes, forewords and other additional explanations outside the text itself.

قۆچی قوربانی →Scapegoat - one that is made an object of blame for others; the goat was symbolically burdened with the sins of Jewish people and thrown over a precipice outside of Jerusalem to rid the nation of iniquities.

جۆزەردان→ May: One of the months of year.

(E) Simulated familiarity, internal marking (marked wording or syntax)

It occurs when the translators make use of stylistic contrast to signal an allusion. Leppihalme (1997, p.118) suggests that it can be achieved by using lines from an existing translation of a classic to render an allusion.

(F) Replacement by preformed target-language item

→ No one is getting rich immediately کەس لەپڕ نابێ بە کوێر

(G) Reduction to sense (making the connotations overt but dispensing with the alluding words), e.g.:

hymn→ تسبیحات ٫نیشتمانی سروودی

(H) Re-creation using a variety of techniques

It is a suitable strategy when the translator is looking for a translation that would carry as much of the sense and feeling –tone of the allusion, resembling the work of an author, had to describe and more difficult to carry out (Leppihalme, 1997, p.122).

Achilles' heel→ خاڵی لاواز

Odyssey→ گەشتێکی دوورو درێژ

كۆتری سپی → Dove is symbol of peace and freedom

Scrooge →(چاوچنۆك) a bitter and/or greedy person; from Charles Dickens' A Christmas Carol, an elderly stingy miser who is given a reality check by 3 visiting ghosts.

Cain→(قابل/ قابل بکوژی هابل/ ئەو کەسەی براکەی دەکوژێت) a brother who kills a brother; from the story of Adam and Eve's son Cain, who killed his brother Abel out of jealousy.

(I) Omission: In addition to these nine strategies Leppihalme suggests that it is possible that the allusion is left untranslated, that is, it appears in the target text in its source-text form. The use of a standard translation is obviously applicable only if the exact allusion exists, and it may rarely be the same with the minimum change translation. Re-creation is a demanding strategy, so it is not very likely to come up in my analyses. (in Leppihalme 1997, p. 26). Omission is positioned the end in Leppihalme's list for two reasons: firstly, it may be effortless, but it does not result in a maximum of effect (p. 130), and secondly, she perceives omission, on the basis of the norms perceptible from her translator interviews, as the last resort; allowable only when everything else fails (p. 88).

4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

We come to conclusion that almost all allusions are culture-bound with the exception of some that they are understandable to some extent. There are barriers challenging translators in their process. There are various strategies presented to recognize and perceive meanings carried by them. If a novice translator does not pay attention to allusions, the connotation may not be conveyed due to the translator's failure to recognize them. They will be completely lost to most of the target language readers; as a result, the translation will be unproductive. Translation strategies are methods to solve translating problems. Since allusions are culture-bound, they create potential translational problems. So as to convey the connotations evoked by the allusions, translators are likely to add guidance to the translated

text. If the guidance is not added, the themes and meanings of allusions will change, even if the source language allusion meanings are clear. For proper-name allusions, there are less problems facing translators first as they can easily follow one of these strategies after recognizing type of allusions since the strategies are mainly relying on either retention of the name, replacement of the name by another name and omission of the name, each strategy with some additional variants, second in proper –name allusions names are mentioned and this makes the work of translator easier. Whereas the case is not the same as for key-phrase allusions no names are mentioned which cause problems for translators to find equivalents in the target language. Therefore, they are best understandable if explanations added to them and translators are careful which strategy they use.

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Assessment of the Educational Environment at Tikrit

University College of Medicine (TUCOM)

Prof. Hamid Hindi Sarhan
Tikrit University
Assistant Lecturer Arazoo J. Amin(Zand)
University of Hayat for Science

ABSTRACT

Background: TUCOM was established in 1989 and since its establishment adopted an innovative curriculum. There is a need to study and evaluate the educational environment in the college.

Objective: To measure students' perceptions of the educational environment of the TU-COM curriculum and to evaluate the internal consistency of the 50-item Dundee Ready .Education Environment Measure (DREEM) Arabic version questionnaire

Methods: The DREEM Arabic version questionnaire was administered to undergraduate medical students in year 2 & 3. Internal consistency of the instrument and its subscales were measured with the method described by Cronbach, and the results were expressed with .alpha coefficient ranging from 0 to 1

Results: The 50-item DREEM Arabic version was found highly reliable with alpha coefficient of 0.91. Scores for 10 out of 50 items (20%) were below 2, indicating areas of weaknesses of the TUCOM. Items 17, 3,50,23, and 33 had the lowest mean scores of the 50 items. The values for the majority of the items (96%) fell into the range that indicated aspects of the environment that would benefit from improvement (mean scores between 2 and 3). The subscale with the highest mean score was ''Academic Self-Perception'' which indicates student's perception of their academic achievements. Mean score of this subscale was 20.23 .± 4.8 corresponding to 63.22% of the maximum score for this domain

The subscale with the highest mean score was students' perceptions of their academic skills: 20.23 ± 4.8 out of 32, corresponding to 63.22% of the maximum score. The lowest mean score was for the students' perceptions of the college atmosphere: 23.97 ± 7.6 (49.94% of the maximum score). Scores observed for year 3 students were lower in subscales SPL, SPT, and SASP compared to years 2, but the difference not statistically significant.   The .(overall mean score for the 50 items was 113.91 ± 22.46 (56.96%

Conclusion: The DREEM is a reliable and practical tool for assessing educational environ

ment in Iraqi Medical Colleges. The learning environment of TUCOM is perceived positively and our students perspectives compares favorably with studies internationally. Certain problem areas identified such as cheating, the support systems for students who become stressed, teaching that over-emphasized factual learning, teaching is too teacher centered, and students irritation of their teachers, these problems need to be examined more closely. In addition, other areas require enhancement in the TUCOM educational environment were identified for effective management of learning especially in the students perception of teachers and students perception of atmosphere sub domains.

Keywords: Medical curricula, DREEM questionnaire, Educational environment, TUCOM.

<u>Correspondence address</u>: Assistant Lecturer Arazoo J. Amin(Zand), University of Hayat for Science and Technology, College of Art, Department of English.

Introduction:
Environment of learning plays a critical role in how students learn and in the quality of learning outcomes [1, 2, 3]. Tikrit University College of Medicine is a government medical institution situated in Tikrit, Iraq. It was started in 1989, adopting innovative curriculum, a community-oriented, community- based program incorporating problem-based learning approach [4]. Medical educators are agreed that an optimal climate is an important factor for effective learning to occur [5, 6]. Thus following any educational institution establishment, evaluation of the educational environment has been highlighted as the key to the delivery of high quality medical education [5,6]. The learning environment for medical students has been extensively in investigated around the world, with a view to identifying strengths and weakness, to monitor change at times of curriculum reform, to compare learning environments across teaching sites and to compare staff and students' perceptions [7-11].
Global changes in medical education caused students' perceptions of their educational environment to receive special attention [12]. Health care services delivery facing global changes which mainly influenced by cost, thus subsequently lead to short duration of admissions, increased patient acuity and greater use of ambulatory services [11]. This may lead to paradigm shift in health profession education toward primary health care and outpatient clinics.

Student's perceptions of the educational environment may represent a basis for implementing modifications to improve learning climate. Student's perceptions of their educational environment have a significant impact on their behavior, academic progress, learning experiences and outcomes. Regular assessment and modification of educational environment is a possible action that can be performed in medical education. However, it is essential to perform such evaluation by using a valid and reliable tool. Student's perception is one

method for assessing the educational environment. Dundy Ready Educational Environment Measure (DREEM) is used to assess the educational climate [13-30].This valuable tool was originally designed in English [16] and has been translated into various languages such as Arabic, Swedish, Greek and Spanish [22,23,27,28,31]. These researches have shown that DREEM is internationally accepted as a useful tool to provide feedback on strengths and weaknesses of the educational climate at particular educational institutions. One of important implications of DREEM is that it provides a standardized way for international comparisons between medical schools as well as allowing them to benchmark their educational climate [32]. In addition, it may locate areas of concern shared by the majority of students that might be unintentionally neglected by educators.

Reliability is broadly described as the consistency or reproducibility of a measurement over time and occasions and it can be gauged in the form of internal consistency and stability [34]. The internal consistency of a tool is commonly measured and based on a single administration while the stability of a tool is measured based on multiple administrations on different occasions or time [34]. The DREEM has been reported to have a high level of internal consistency with the overall Cronbach alpha coefficient being more than 0.7 [16,22,23, 31, 34]. It was also found to have a high level of stability with a test-retest correlation coefficient of more than 0.8 [23]. Apart from this instance, none of the articles have so far reported its reliability among Malaysian medical students. To the best of our knowledge, no previous research has used the DREEM to assess student's perceptions regarding educational environment at medical colleges in Iraq. The aim of this study was to assess the perceptions of medical students concerning their educational environment at Tikrit University College of Medicine in Iraq.

Objective:

To measure students' perceptions of the educational environment of the TUCOM curriculum and to evaluate the internal consistency of the 50-item Dundee Ready Education Environment Measure (DREEM) Arabic version questionnaire.

Materials and Methods:

Instrument:

The development and validation of the 50-item DREEM has been reported elsewhere [16]. Respondents score each item from 0 to 4 (4 = Strongly agree, 3 = Agree, 2 = Unsure, 1 = Disagree and 0 = Strongly disagree). Some items (4, 8, 9, 17, 25, 35, 39, 48 and 50) contain negative statements and are therefore reverse-coded when incorporated into scales. According to Roff *et al. [16]* individual items with a mean score of 3 or greater reflect a positive educational environment and are considered areas of strength for a school; values between

2 and 3 reflect areas that are neither strengths nor weaknesses but identify areas that could be enhanced; and items with a mean score below 2 are considered areas of weaknesses for a school of medicine. The DREEM yields a global score of up to 200 with its 50 items combined and has five subscales proposed by Roff *et al. [16]*: (1) Students' Perceptions of Learning (items 1, 7, 13, 16, 20, 22, 24, 25, 38, 44, 47 and 48), which addresses students' views of aspects of the teaching activities, such as whether they receive clear course objectives, and whether learning is student-focused and encourages active learning rather than being teacher-centred and stresses factual learning; (2) Students' Perceptions of Teachers (items 2, 6, 8, 9, 18, 29, 32, 37, 39, 40 and 50), which address students' views of the qualities of teachers, including their communication skills, whether they provide feedback to students and patients, their level of knowledge and their level preparation for classes; (3) Students' Perceptions of their Academic Skills (items 5, 10, 21, 26, 27, 31, 41 and 45), which includes students' views of the learning strategies and problem-solving skills they have developed to prepare themselves for their profession; (4) Students' Perceptions of the Learning Atmosphere (items 11, 12, 17, 23, 30, 33, 34, 35, 36, 42, 43 and 49), which includes items addressing how relaxed the atmosphere is during lectures and ward teaching, whether teaching activities are motivating for students, and whether there are opportunities for students to develop interpersonal skills; and (5) Students' Perceptions of the Social Environment (items 3, 4, 14, 15, 19, 28 and 46), which addresses students' views of the support systems available to those who become stressed, the school's accommodations for students, the quality of campus social life, and whether students' are able to find friends at school.

Sample:

This cross-sectional study was conducted at TUCOM in November 2014. The questionnaire was administered to undergraduate medical students of training years 2 and 3. The DREEM was administered in paper form to students. The questionnaires were answered anonymously by students.

The study design was approved by the ethical committee of TUCOM that was now registered in USA [**U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS)& Registration of an Institutional Review Board (IRB)].IORG #:** IORG0006885, **Institution:** Tikrit University College of Medicine [TUCOM] OMB No. 0990-0279.

Reliability:

The method described by Cronbach [35] was used to measure scale reliability. Since alpha depends on both the length of the scale (the number of questions) and the correlation of the items within the scale (actual reliability), the Spearman-Browne formula,

αsubscale = kα scale /[1+(k-1) α scale]

where k is the number of items of the subscale divided by the number of items of the overall scale [36,37], was used to estimate expected subscale alphas. Content validity was addressed by the original DREEM. Not willing to limit our ability to compare results internationally, we did not delete or add any items, change items, original order (randomly arranged), or rearrange subscales.[33]

Statistical analysis

The variables were described using means and standard deviations (SD). Comparisons of students of the various years were analyzed using t tests. Differences were considered statistically significant with a p value <0.05. The internal consistencies of the inventory and its subscales were calculated using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 11) and the results were expressed as alpha coefficients ranging from 0 to 1.

Results:

Completed questionnaires were received from 88 out of 114 students (77.2 %) in year 3, 108 out of 150 students (72%) in year 2. One questionnaire in year 3 with missed answer for some items, thus it was excluded from analysis. So only 87 questionnaires were for year 3 were analyzed. The overall response rate was 74% . Among respondents, 104 (53.3 %) were males and 91 (46.7%) were females.

Individual item scores

The mean scores of individual items are shown in Table 1-5. Scores for 10 out of 50 items (20%) were below 2, indicating areas of weaknesses of the TUCOM. Items 17, 3,50,23, and 33 had the lowest mean scores of the 50 items. The values for the majority of the items (96%) fell into the range that indicated aspects of the environment that would benefit from improvement (mean scores between 2 and 3). Two items (4%) had scores of 3 or greater

and identified areas perceived as contributing to a good educational environment by students: items 15, 19,10,45 and 7 were the five that received the highest mean scores.

Mean response values for 30 (60%) of the individual items were lower for students of year 3 than for students of years 2 (data not shown).

Regarding the students perceptions of learning, there was a significant differences between year 3 and year2 in items 7 (P=0.008), 20 (P=0.037), 25 (P=0.000) and 38 (P=0.029). In ad-

dition, there was a significant differences between male and female for items 13 (P=0.036) . Furthermore, a significant differences were observed for items 13 (P=0.025), 38 (P=0.008) and 47 (P=0.046) between students who entered the college through central channel and those come from colleges outside the country.

In terms of students perceptions of teachers, items 2, 8 and 50 show significant (P= 0.001, 0.027 and 0.019 respectively) differences between 3rd and 2nd year. In addition, significant gender differences achieved for items 2 (P=0.046), 9 (P=0.025) and 40 (P=0.046). Regarding the student's academic perceptions, item 10 was significantly different between male and female (P=0.012) and between 3rd and 2nd year (P=0.000).

Concerning students perceptions of atmosphere, there was significant differences demonstrated by gender for items 23 (P=0.04), 30 (P=0.003), 33 (P=0.004), 34 (P=0.007) and 36 (P=0.000). A significant difference between year 3 and 2 observed for item 17 (P=0.006) only. For acceptance channel, only item 30 demonstrated a significant (P=0.014) difference. Regarding students social perceptions, gender demonstrate significant differences for items 15 (P=0.02) and 46 (P=0.000). In addition, acceptance channel shows significant differences for items 15 (P=0.031), 19 (P=0.029), 28 (P=0.035) and 46 (P=0.006).

Subscales and overall mean scores:

The 5 subscales and overall mean scores according to study years are shown in Table 6. The subscale with the highest mean score was students' perceptions of their academic skills: 20.23 ± 4.8 out of 32, corresponding to 63.22% of the maximum score. The lowest mean score was for the students' perceptions of the college atmosphere: 23.97 ± 7.6 (49.94% of the maximum score). Scores observed for year 3 students were lower in subscales SPL, SPT, and SASP compared to years 2, but the difference not statistically significant. The overall mean score for the 50 items was 113.91 ± 22.46 (56.96%). Students of year 2 had the higher mean score with 115.18 ± 22.67, while year 3 overall mean value was 112.34 ± 22.24, with no significant difference.

The subscales and mean scores according to study years are shown in Table 7. The subscale with the highest mean score was SASP: 2.529 ± 0.263 out of 4, corresponding to 63.22% of the maximum score. The lowest mean score was for the SPA: 1.998 ± 0.392 (49.94% of the maximum score). Scores observed for year 3 students were lower in subscales SPL, SPT, and SASP compared to years 2, but the difference not statistically significant. The overall mean score for the 50 items was 2.278 ± 0.44 (56.96%). Students of year 2 had the higher mean score with 2.304 ± 0.451, while year 3 overall mean value was 2.247

± 0.458, with no significant difference.

The gender based difference was observed with regard to teaching being sufficiently concerned to develop competence in the student's perception of learning subscale (Male, 28.41 ± 5.46, 59.19% vs. female, 27.23 ± 5.62, 56.73%) Table 8. However the difference was not significant. The same findings observed for SASP and SPA. In contrast, female are with higher mean score of SPT & SSSP subscales (Table 8). The overall mean score for DREEM 50 items was higher in male (116.16 ± 22.75) as compared to female (111.34 ± 21.98), but the difference not significant.

When the data subdivided according to gender and study years, gender based significance difference was observed with regard to atmosphere (P=0.003), with negative value toward female (Male, 2.243± 0.381; female 1.1755 ± 0.361) Table 9.

Reliability

Internal consistency findings are shown in Table 10. The 50-item DREEM Arabic version was found highly reliable, with an alpha coefficient of 0.91 in year 3, 0.91 in year 2 (p=NS for difference in alphas across years). The internal consistency of the inventory among all 195 respondents was 0.91. Internal consistencies of the five subscales were found to reflect adequate reliability, although the coefficient for Perceptions of the Social Environment was lower than that of the other subscales indicating its poorer reliability. Internal consistency for gender was 0.91 for both sexes.

Comparison to standards:

Table 11 shows the comparison of these study findings with standards as suggested by McAleer & Roff [38]. The overall DREEM score indicating that education environment in TUCOM was more positive than negative. The student's perceptions of learning score indicating that teaching viewed positively, since the score was more than 24, which represent the upper limit score value of negative teaching view. Student's perceptions of teachers were moved in the right direction.

SASP score indicated that students feeling on the positive side. In addition, SSSP score suggest that TUCOM society is not too bad. In contrast, the study indicated a more negative atmosphere.

Discussion:

The overall alpha was much higher than the 0.7 [37] or 0.80 [33] threshold generally considered acceptable for scales. The DREEM questionnaire used in this study was found to

be an internally reliable instrument for measuring students' views of the educational climate of a TUCOM. The 50-item DREEM Arabic version was found to have a similar reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) to published studies of the DREEM translation in different language [22,23,27,28,31, 39, 40,41] . Furthermore, DREEM was with high alpha coefficient when analyzed in regards to gender and year of study, a similar finding to that reported for Greece [23]. However, the alpha coefficients of each subscale were lower than the overall reliability, ranging from 0.49 to 0.75. The lowest reliability was obtained by the Students' Social Self-Perceptions in agreement with other studies [22, 23,40] who obtained very similar alpha coefficients for the subscales and full inventory in India, Spain and Greece. Psychometric analyses of the instrument were carried out by de Oliveira Filho et al. [41] in postgraduate training programmes in Brasil. They found the DREEM inventory valid, with high discriminant and concurrent validities and high reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.93 and generalizability coefficient of 0.95.

The individual items' mean scores offered an opportunity to improve certain areas of the TUCOM educational environment that were perceived by students as weaknesses, including the support systems for students who become stressed, cheating as a problem in the college, teaching that over-emphasized factual learning, teaching is too teacher centered, and students irritation of their teachers. Analysis of individual items also proved to be a useful tool for recognizing areas where the educational environment was good, such as the quality of the college teachers in terms of their medical knowledge and teaching abilities. Furthermore, individual analysis addressed the areas that require enhancement, 19 items with mean score of lower than 2.4 (60% of score value require reform for their enhancement. However, other 10 items represent a problem in the educational process in TUCOM. Thus these 29 items should be considered by the college administration for reform, change and enhancement.

The female students scored more negatively on several aspects of educational environment than males (35/50 items). However, male perceived more loneliness. Gender differences reported in other studies with female students perceiving the learning environments

as less supportive than their male counterparts [7,30,42] are agreed with our findings. The present study findings contrast with others [11,20,29].
The analysis of the subscales showed a high mean score for students' academic perceptions. The teacher's confidence in their ability to teach is not supported by the views of their students. The mean score of the subscale, students perceptions of their teachers was the 4th of all (5) subscales. This finding is consistent with the item analysis and may reflect that the staff development programs were not designed properly. The college administration is

not interested in staff training and development. The other subscales that reflected a positive educational environment were students' perceptions of their academic skills and their perceptions of the learning. On the other   hand, students' perceptions of teachers and of the learning atmosphere revealed domains of the educational environment that could stand improvement.

Three of the five subscales mean scores of students in year 3 were lower than the mean scores for students in year 2. This may be due to differences in the physical environments, proportion of clinical activities and proportion of mature students or validity of the instrument used to measure the educational environment [43, 44]. Al-Hazimi et al. [14] analyzed the educational environment at three schools of medicine: two with traditional curricula in Saudi Arabia and the Republic of Yemen, and a third, Scottish medical school with an innovative curriculum as defined by the GMC in the UK [45]. The Scottish medical school obtained an overall DREEM score of 139, significantly higher than the scores obtained by the traditional universities, which 100 and 107. However, an innovative curriculum design is not the only factor related to a good educational environment. Curriculum changes are usually undertaken in order to improve the overall learning environment for students; the process, however, is often stressful for both students and faculty [16, 46].

The TUCOM obtained an overall mean score of 113.91, which is considered an indication of a generally positive educational environment. The DREEM scores obtained by students in year 3 and 2 were comparable with DREEM scores reported by UK medical schools with curricula aligned with the recommendations suggested by the GMC in Tomorrow's Doctors [14,16,19]. Roff [30] pointed out that "It remains to be established if the type of curriculum offered by a given school can be 'detected' by the DREEM". However, a higher DREEM score indicates a more student-centred curriculum, and schools with traditional curricula commonly score less than 120 [14,19].

DREEM has proven to be a useful tool for identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the TUCOM's curriculum. The results presented herein revealed that a mean overall score of 113.91/200 for the dream items.

According to the practical guide of McAleer and Roff [38], a mean score between 50 and 100 indicates potential problems. The overall DREEM score indicating that education environment in TUCOM was more positive than negative. The student's perceptions of learning score indicating that teaching viewed positively, since the score was more than 24, which represent the upper limit score value of negative teaching view. Student's perceptions of teachers were moved in the right direction. SASP score indicated that students feeling on the positive side. In addition, SSSP score suggest that TUCOM society is not too bad. In

contrast, the study indicated a more negative atmosphere.

In 2003-2010 the field work curriculum was reduced due to many factors and subsequently this gap is filled with theoretical teaching. This means that curriculum implementation was devoted from its design. In the mean time college administration tried to reform the curriculum and return back to its sound implementation. At the mean time the college curriculum implementation need to be devoted to field training and ambulatory clinical practice. The assessment system need improvement by expansion its use of Objective Structured Clinical Examinations (OSCE) and to introduce portfolios in order to minimize assessments of students' factual recall of information. The present study findings should be analyzed in depth by the focus group of students and teachers of the TUCOM in the context of the college's accreditation process. The purpose of such analyses by the Focus groups were to clarify the underlying causes for areas with poor scores, which varied by student-year, and gender group. Stress resulting from experiences on clinical placements was highlighted by some students and cheating in written examinations was confirmed as a general problem, although not for OSCE.

In Table 12, we compare the results of this study with other published data. Such comparison may not be valid as these studies were carried out in different years, and different environments. [20,22,23,24-30]. Nevertheless, our results indicated that global mean score (113.91) was lower than that reported for UK [16,30] Nepal [25], Spain [22] and Nigeria [25]. However, our global score was higher for Canada [7], Trinidad [26], Saudi Arabia [27,28]Iran [20], Greece [23]and Sri Lanka [29]. Our results rank 4ᵗʰ for SSSP,5ᵗʰ for SASP, 7ᵗʰ for SPL, 8ᵗʰ for SPT, and 10ᵗʰ for SPA.

However, DREEM has proven to be a useful tool for identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the TUCOM's curriculum. The qualitative data collected by a focus group have substantially enhanced questionnaire interpretation, allowing us to undertake remedies to address common causes for student dissatisfaction. This approach of combining DREEM results and qualitative analysis using focus groups and open ended questions has been rec

ommended by Whittle et al. [47] as an approach to improving the educational environment and the overall quality of students' education. In the future, the DREEM questionnaire could again be administered in TUCOM to measure the impact of current and future changes in the curriculum on students' perceptions of their educational environment.

Based on this study's findings, we recommend the 50-item DREEM Arabic version as

~~a reliable instrument for other Iraqi Medica Colleges students. It can be used to identify~~ an institution's strengths and weaknesses, make comparisons of students' perceptions of educational environments within an institution (like identifying changes in perceptions of over time) and between students of different medical schools. It can also be used to assess the correlation of the overall mean score of the DREEM questionnaire with students' academic performance reflected in their grade point averages, and serve as a tool to identify students who are likely to be academic achievers and those who are at risk of poor academic performance [30].

Conclusion:

The DREEM is a reliable and practical tool for assessing educational environment in Iraqi Medical Colleges. The learning environment of TUCOM is perceived positively and our students perspectives compares favorably with studies internationally. Certain problem areas identified such as cheating, the support systems for students who become stressed, teaching that over-emphasized factual learning, teaching is too teacher centered, and students irritation of their teachers, these problems need to be examined more closely. In addition, other areas require enhancement in the TUCOM educational environment were identified for effective management of learning especially in the students perception of teachers and students perception of atmosphere sub domains.

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Project – Based learning assessment methods comparison in undergraduate EFL classes

Azize kavlu

ABSTRACT

Project – Based learning assessment methods comparison in undergraduate EFL classes. Educators use different teaching approaches to equip students with 21st century skills. Project-Based learning (PBL) is one of them. The main principal of PBL is an active learning, student and their future career needs are the core of learning process. In Language acquisition (LA) and in English as a Foreign Language context PBL's essentials are to generate authentic learning environment which aids learners through various projects (power point presentation, short video, posters, magazines, and brochures) acquire not only required language skills and communicative competence but also gain real life experiences. Project- Based Learning is an end- product oriented; therefore the evaluation process of learners' exertion is crucial, because not evaluated effort causes decreases learners' motivation. It is a study case in one of first year classes in the Faculty of Education of Ishik University. Paper focuses on PBL assessment in EFL undergraduate students English language teaching classes. Multiple-choice, true-false tests and standardized tests are not adequate to measure learners' PBL end products and their endeavors on the process of reaching required learning outcomes. This study probes and compares 3 different PBL assessment methods on order to reveal the more applicable and easy acceptable assessment method.

Introduction

The 21ˢᵗ century competitive environment each passing day makes up progresses. Therefore success in education field connects with keeping up with century's technological innovations and to get well-equipped learners, rapid global and digital improvement requirements should not be ignored. Nowadays Project-based Learning (PBL) method establishes a ground to an in-depth knowledge and leads up learners to acquire real-life skills. Initially, PBL was used in scientific disciplines then with the increase demands to professional English , PBL implementation entered into Language Acquisition field such as ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language).

The important cause of implementing PBL in EFL context is the in spite of years of learning English in school – is not enough for University and at University – it is not enough in work –life. After graduating and facing with real life learners cannot use what have been learnt through long years. Even the perfect English solely is not sufficient to improve and get required success in competitive professional world because life-long skills are essential.

PBL is also used very productively in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) context because traditional English teaching way is insufficient. PBL gives opportunities to students not just to learn English relevant to their specialties but also varied projects helps to develop critical thinking, creativity, collaboration and self- direction. Furthermore, PBL opens the door to enjoyable and effective ways to learn English and gain real-life skills.

However, hence the name in PBL the end product is significant phase of learning process. Thus in PBL elaborative and objective evaluation and assessment criteria are considerable not only of end product but also whole product generation process's phases from the beginning to the end. It goes without saying that assessment and evaluation are prominent in education. For teachers evaluation outcome is a map which shows whether planned and intended goals were achieved or not, aids to indicate learners' strengths and weaknesses. On the other hand in PBL well- designed evaluation and assessment criteria and process is one of the way assists to keep learners' high enthusiastic level while trying to accomplish projects. Moreover, to know what is going to be gained and appraisement engender positive interaction and increase learners' motivation. Then how learners' endeavors and and final work results- projects (posters, power point presentations, short movies, videos, leaflets, magazine, debate) should be assessed? Can only Standardized test be used to evaluate projects? The paper attempts to reveal the aspects of different types of evaluation and assessment of PBL.

Theoretical Background

Many different resources were investigated for the literature review of this study. General consensus seems that English language is no longer seen as a lingua franca or as a tool that can be taught without engagement with other disciplines and skills. Learners need not only make progress in their English language proficiency but also advance other generic, global competences such as intercultural and interpersonal communicative competence, digital competence and integrate them into their skills' repertoire which entails the attitudes of flexibility, tolerance and collaboration (Fitzpatrick & O'Dowd, 2012).

19ᵗʰ and 20ᵗʰ centuries' industrial changes and 21ˢᵗ century high-speed technological progress are the main causes and triggers of implementing PBL in EFL and ESL context (Baş & Beyhan, 2010; Rousová, 2008). It synchronized with need an environment where learners acquire not only knowledge but also real-life skills (Bas, 2008). Therefore integration of PBL into EFL and ESL context increasingly has been growing since the early 1980s (Alan & Stoller, 2005;

Fried-Booth, 2002; Haines, 1989; Papandreou, 1994; Sheppard & Stoller, 1995; Simpson, 2011; Tessema, 2005; Tomei, Glick, & Holst, 1999). PBL based on constructivist theory (Ke, 2010) and it shifts away from traditional teaching method to learner-centered approach. According to constructivist theory knowledge it is not what taught it should be shaped with learner active behaviors (Benson, 2013; Yam & Rossini, 2010). Learning process occurs when learners connect new information with his or her background knowledge (Sidman-Taveau, 2005). Learning responsibility transfers from teacher to the learner (Doppelt, 2003). Teacher roles changes from lecturer to the role of partner, a facilitator, a guide and a tutor in the process of learning responsibility transfer (Barth, 1972). Learners are active, they gained knowledge through active thinking, solving problem. Knowledge is not rote- memorization, homework from books or exercises done for teachers (Gardner, 2011), it is learner's (his or her) selecting, retaining and elaborating information which allow learners to satisfy their curiosity (Holt, 1995; Rogers, 1970), learner build long-lasting knowledge and meaning when the new information connected with her or his peculiar way of perception and the world interpreting (Bas, 2010; Brooks, 1999). Learner active participation is prominent in PBL, it is a deep-learning approach which engages learners in the investigation of real-world problems and engenders active learning environment through substantial and valuable projects (Ribé & Vidal, 1993; Yam & Rossini, 2010). PBL conduces to learners to create links between textbooks and real life language (Fried-Booth, 2002).

Besides enhancing learners' engagement in probing important and meaningful questions PBL also assists learners to develop collaborative and communicative skills which are noteworthy features in learners later working life (Hadim & Esche, 2002). Collaborative learning improves learners' ideas ant thought interchanging and reflection on divers views. As projects are often done in groups, this joint undertaking trains and advances learners abilities for team-work and productive collaboration (Henze & Nejdl, 1998). Hilton- Jones explained PBL as an eligible approach for mixed-abilities language classes because while fulfilling project learners enable to work in the pace and level appropriate to them. PBL gives opportunities to learners to comprehend of their real needs for using target language (Dhieb-Henia, 1999; Hilton-Jones, 1988).

At the end, should be remarked there a lot of studies (MA and PhD thesis, longitudinal studies), researches investigates effects of PBL on not only different language being used skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) but also critical and analytical thinking, problem solving, generic and life-long skills, digital skills are reported positive, fruitful effects and repercussions (Ke, 2010; Petersen, 2008; Rousová, 2008; Simpson, 2011). The adaptation of PBL in EFL classrooms can be prosperous and advantageous.

Evaluation and PBL Assessment

The first order of business in an exploration of PBL assessment is to find out what "assessment" and "evaluation" mean. Learners' herself / himself strengths and weakness awareness strongly based on a sufficient amount of feedbacks, an adequate assessment and evaluation process. Feedbacks, assessment and evaluation are indispensable instruments in the learning development process. Learners generally won't be able to examine and manage adequately their learning process without assessment, evaluation and feedbacks which acquaint them with the outcomes of their efforts. The validity of these evaluation instruments assists in developing the coherent and consistent model of EFL (English as a foreign Language) learning. The one of main purposes of assessment is to estimate the achievement of both sides' learner and teacher. The assessment process of achievement is the feedback that promotes progress and makes it possible. Well-designed assessment enables instructors to indicate strengths and weaknesses in planned instructional goals. Other primary aspects of assessment in learning process, it gives opportunity to learner to realize what was missed and the teacher is able to identify learners' needs and what should be done as a next stage to advance learning. (Chastain, 1988).

PBL Assessment in EFL (English as a foreign Language) Context

Language assessment has showed a marked improvement in the last years. Literature has been provided outstanding reviews of these advancements, therefore this paper is not contemplated reviews rewording. This paper is aimed to compare some contemporary PBL in EFL context assessment types. In addition to elaborated comparison this paper undertakes eliciting might not the most proper but a little bit more convenient assessments form for learners' works.

From Lado's discrete –point test orientation (Lado, 1961) to Ollers' integrative tests (cloze and dictation) various theoretical principals (Oller, 1979) were offered and used by language test developers to get more satisfied and fair language test types. However in the early 80s Canale & Swain work marked a new epoch in the language testing field (Canale & Swain, 1980). The communicative competence notion and sociolinguistics as a principal component became a focal points in language assessment process.

In the case of PBL assessment in EFL context researches proved that it is a crucial and challenging phase. Compared to the traditional learning assessment PBL assessment is different as well as challenging. For example, teachers by implementing various forms of paper– and –pencil based tests can measure learner vocabulary and grammatical knowledge but communication skills (speaking skills) cannot. Learners' English spoken communication skills required oral performance. Accordingly, in PBL implementation real– life skills such

as higher order thinking, critical thinking, problem solving, formulating hypotheses, data collecting and drawing valid conclusions necessitate the use of different types of assessment. It goes without saying that for getting more reliable and efficient results for factual knowledge objective test items are important. However different types of assessment are used for PBL assessment, process self-assessment, peer assessment, case-based, performance-based assessment and portfolio assessments. As PBL, process and end- product oriented, true-false tests, multiple choice tests types of standardized tests are not adequate to measure whole getting end-product process' phases, because there is rarely sole right or best answer, may be multi-solutions, various outcomes and performances would be judged excellent (Linn, 2008).

While implementing PBL in language teaching, learners to accomplish learning purposes use real communication and authentic language and multiple learning experiences. Hence performance assessment forms are essential in PBL assessment. According to Hutchinson, grammatical and linguistic accuracy should not be single focal of PBL assessment (Hutchinson, 1993). Therefore as a conclusion an effective assessment program can be defined as a harmonization of multiple types of summative and formative assessments integrated to whole assessment process.

Self – and – Peer Assessment

As it mentioned above well – designed good assessment constructs instruction and it is an integral and powerful part of effective instruction. Correspondingly to assessment's advancements in education assessment forms in language teaching especially in teaching English as a second and foreign language show remarkable progress. Language teachers to get more adequate evaluation go steps further from test-based assessment to non-test, self – and peer – assessment are some of alternative assessment which are not only used in language field but also in other disciplines for different purposes.

Conventional language teaching argued that learners might not be able to assess properly themselves or their peers, most particularly in the early process of language acquisition. However recent years researches reveal the necessity and benefit of self – and peer – assessment (Brown & Hudson, 1998). Self – and peer – assessment are implemented in different disciplines and courses to understand learning process in teams and between team members (Tan & Keat, 2005). Furthermore, as stated above PBL implementation in EFL context assists enhancing 21st century skills. Therefore, to measure these abilities, 21st century assessment system is vital.

One of the main instructional goals for all learners is to learn how to evaluate one's own work. Self – assessment skills are vital for learners' advancements in a path of being independent learner.

Moreover, self – assessment gives learners opportunity to find out her/his strengths and weaknesses, while language acquisition. Self – assessment also can be learners' personal needs analysis survey to generate more perfect and knowledgeable projects and to explore English learning process gaps. Self – assessment increases learners' own mistakes awareness. It is common knowledge that people more forgetful to external correction, on the contrary when learners correct her/his own mistakes they hardly ever do them again which gives raise for life – long learning. Self – assessment aids learners to clarify learning goals to determine her/his own directions to accomplish required projects' objectives.

The other main sources of assessment are peers. In fact, outside life almost always requires being in touch and working with others. Peer – assessment is one of real-life settings reflections in the classroom. PBL's the most prominent features are establish and encourage a positive environment for learners' team – working activities. The projects of PBL are the end product of learners' collaboration and cooperation. Collaborative and cooperative learning are the keystones in PBL they allow learners to share their knowledge, language skills, life and learning experiences, engage and participate to their own learning process. Therefore in PBL peer – assessment with well-designed rubrics, evaluation forms provided by instructor or mutually agreed rubrics are significant, because they facilitate and make evaluation process smoother. Learners can evaluate their own group's or team's member as well as other groups' projects or stages of works by offering positive recommendations and suggestions for projects' advancement or provide support and help each other to requirements. In the peer– assessment process learners gain very important even it can be called vital skill, giving constructive feedback, because learners need this skill not only in projects formation or language learning process but also in their entire life from privet to educational. It should be highlighted; almost nobody enjoys bitter – criticism. In addition, peer – assessment it is not only process of marking others' works or presentations but it is also process of building knowledge with social interaction in meaningful, communicative with real – life aspects context. In peer – assessment learners are assessment providers as well as assessment receivers, what make them more serious, attentive and responsible for their interpretations and for their own weaknesses. Being active in development evaluation' criteria and assessment process, remove learners from being passive container where teachers throw information, to active learners in interactive learning process.

Peer – and self – assessment allow instructor to reveal what is overlooked and undetected to establish more substantial learning process, supervise and help learners in a better and more observantly way.

Nevertheless, self – and peer – assessment have been criticized with regard to fairness. Brindley and Scoffield stated that peers do not assign each other's low marks, even when the performance is insufficient or poor (Brindley & Scoffield, 1998). Moreover, some students feel that they cannot judge themselves fairly while others feel that they are not judged fairly.

Researcher attempt to schematized analysis and comparisons which done above.

	Self – Assessment	Peer – Assessment	Tutor, Facilitator – Assessment
Popularity	Increase	Increase	Required
Assessment Form	Authentic, Alternative Evaluate one's own work	Authentic, Alternative Evaluate peer work	Traditional Evaluate learners' personal effort and teamwork
Learner	Active Performer in assessment process Learner autonomy increase	Interactive and Active Performer in assessment process Learner autonomy increase	Feedback and Evaluation Receiver
Approach	Student – centered	Student – centered	According to implemented assessment form it can be teacher – centered or the equilibrium mixture of teacher and student centered approaches.
Information	Obtained directly from learner herself/himself (self-checklists, self-evaluation form)	Getting information, constructive feedbacks and enlightenments from peers or team members (peer-checklists, observation, peer-evaluation form)	Comments about learners' individual or intergroup progress. Feedbacks which assists learners to avoid misconception and to advance the process of learning
Learning Process	Active, responsible for his/ her own learning, self-correction, self – directing, acquired different assessment techniques	Active, construct knowledge, share information	Learner is passive, Instructor/Facilitator's positive feedbacks

Questions	What is my progress and deficiencies? What is my responsibility to fulfill our project? What is original can be done?	How I should provide constructive, effective and not offensive feedbacks? Are my feedbacks and rubrics criteria able to increase her/ his (or their if one team evaluate another) motivation, enthusiasm to accomplish project rather than generating negative competitive environment?	If the requirements that should be accomplish while doing projects are clear? How to keep students on track and make them not to lose focus? Do students shift from spoon-feeding towards active learning and being knowledge seeker

Table 1. Comparison table of Self – Assessment, Peer – Assessment and Tutor, Facilitator – Assessment

From Theory to Study

Researcher attempted to find out learners' attitude towards assessment types. The research questions were as follows:

1. What does assessment notion mean for student?
2. Students' opinion about do they think that test is sufficient to evaluate all their efforts while accomplishing project?
3. Which type of assessment students prefer; be assessed by
   a by teacher
   b by peers
   c self-evaluation

Method

Qualitative and quantitative instruments were used to collect data. For this study a five – point Likert scale was used, rating from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Codes 1 and 2 (strongly agree/agree) and codes 4 and 5 (disagree/strongly disagree) were tailed together to show clear opinions (McCarthy, 2010). As students thoughts are important a qualitative research was accepted a more suitable one. Based on questionnaires semi – structured interview were conducted. The researcher used qualitative instrument- semi-structured interview not to limit the respondent and allow her/him to discuss some issues

that researcher may not have considered in questionnaire. The aims of both questionnaire and interview were mainly to reveal the students' assessment perception and preferred assessment type.

The Participants

The participants of the study were Ishik University, Faculty of Education – First year students with different educational backgrounds. During the semester various projects (power point, booklet, city guide book) were done by students participated to the study.

Findings and Discussion

The questionnaire which supported by interview on order to get as more as possible information from participants showed that for 73,9 percent of students the most important type of assessment is self- assessment. In interview conducted by researcher students stated the reasons as;

1. If the students want to be successful so self – assessment should be the first step in students educational life advancements.

2. On the exam or test day or the day before you can be sick, you can miss it, you can study hard but suddenly when exam starts you can forget everything, so in that moment self – assessment relives yours (students) worries, because students themselves know how did they study. On the other hand students also indicated that sometimes without studying when the invigilators – teachers are not attentive during the test, shrewd students through prepared cheat papers (pieces of paper) or through looking to more clever students exam or test paper especially when tests are multiple choices may be it is not easy but it is also not too hard to cheat.

3. Nobody is able to know my strengths and weaknesses as well as me.

4. None of the student chose the peer – assessment type, as researchers mentioned above all of the study participants have a traditional- teaching background. Hence peer – assessment is the new notion for them and they still have not got accustomed with it as they for researcher while interview.

5. None of the students also accepted teacher's class observation as an assessment type. It has some reasons such as;

    a. In Ishik University in Faculty of Education student centered, student active learning process is prevailed.

    b. Lecturers try to implement various contemporary teaching – and learning approaches, which aims to shift learners from rote memorization to critical – analytical thinking, higher – order thinking, problem- solving and productivity. Therefore teacher is not in the main role, our students are leading actors and stars of learning process.

As it is not teacher dominant environment students know that they are responsible for learning proses.

c. Students also believe that mid-term and final exam results are more important than teacher observation. However, in their pre – Ishik University educational life students gave a lot of importance to teacher grading because they came from traditional – centered method. As researcher implements Project –Based Learning (PBL), it also assists learners to comprehend teacher's observation and feedbacks importance to get successful product or presentation..

26 percent of students stated that grades (test scores, exam results) for them, because it is the best evidence for their parents, friends and others around them. With regard to participants' responds, grade is the instrument which proved their knowledge.

Questionnaire Results

Assessment Types	%		
	Agree	Mid	Disagree
Test is quite good way to asses my all effort while fulfilling project	17	13	70
I would like to be assessed by my friend	66,7	8,3	25
I would like to be assessed by teacher	75	0	25
I am able to evaluate myself fairly	41,7	0	58,3

Table 2. Assessments Types

According to study result 70% percent of students believe that tests are insufficient to explore their efforts spent while doing projects. On the other hand 17% stated that tests are completely sufficient instruments for evaluation.

Moreover, approximately 67 % percent of student want to to be assessed by their friends. They are sure that their friends won't give them poor score even when their performance is poor. In the same time 25% of students don't want to be assessed by their friends because they think that their friends experience, knowledge are not adequate to evaluate others and they are incompetent.

The questionnaire result also clearly demonstrates students' assessment perception about evaluation by the highest percentage in level of being assessed by teacher, because students believe that teacher is:

More knowledgeable

More experience

More fair person than others without prejudices and preoccupancy

58,3% of students advocate that they cannot judge themselves properly because if the same

obstacles in peer assessment , like luck of experiences not to be able indicate mistakes because of low level of disciplinary knowledge than the instructors'.

Conclusion

All in all, researcher's concluding remarks are that teachers should not be the solely evaluator. Especially in new methods like PBL students should be involved to evaluation process. It goes without saying, the students won't know these criteria. Hence teachers while knowledge interaction should also train students how they would be able to assess themselves or their peers, or how to prepare proper rubrics. Different types of assessments from standardized test to authentic assessment should be implemented in learning process. PBL opens the door of opportunities to be active in learning process as well as in assessment which entails interaction between students and teachers. PBL implementation in Education Faculty also helps teachers to train their learners as a competent future generation' teachers and the prominent feature is the each evaluation system prepare students to the real life, because in the road of success people generally or evaluated, or if the person's awareness level is high she/he starts evaluate herself/himself, try to advance without feeling a need to external evaluation.

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Speaking Anxiety of Kurdish Candidate Teachers of English with Foreign Lecturers

Başar Batur

Nergz Khalid Mohammed

Ishik University

ABSTRACT

Speaking anxiety is one of the challenging difficulties for language learners. Even if they are going to be language teachers, some student teachers may also have the same problem when they talk to foreigners. In this research, reasons for speaking anxiety of candidate teachers talking to their foreign lecturers are portrayed as a result of interviews with them. Some candidate teachers of English Language Teaching Department of Ishik University, Erbil, were interviewed about their holding off speaking to their foreign lecturers while this is supposed to be a good practice for their speaking skills. Some solutions for students and lecturers are also suggested for this problem.

Keywords: Language, Learner, Speaking Anxiety.

INTRODUCTION

One of the aims of learning a second language and foreign language is to facilitate communication and understand different cultures and speak different languages (Yashima et al., 2004). Dörnyei (2005) states that it can be common to find people who tend to avoid entering second language communication situations even if they possess a high level of communicative competence. When people are given opportunity to use their second language skills, some of them choose to speak up and some others keeps silence. The question arises about this situation to understand the reason why some second language learners cannot become second language speakers even though they have studied this language for many years. This is not a simple question to answer easily; while there can be various factors such as individual, social, linguistic and situational (MacIntyre, 2007).

Speaking anxiety and willingness to communicate are two terms used in literature of language to define speaking problems of foreign language. Willingness to communicate is related with factors affecting the second language learners' psychological readiness to start communication (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

In fact speaking anxiety is described as one of the anxieties in language anxiety. Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the

uniqueness of the language learning process". Language anxiety is one of the important factors for the personality theories. Speaking anxiety includes two components of language anxiety. These are called state anxiety and trait anxiety. State anxiety consists of subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry as defined by Spielberger et al. (1976). They also stated trait anxiety as stable individual differences in anxiety tendency in dangerous and threatening situations.

Research has been done on speaking anxiety such as Gkonou (2011), Woodrow (2006) and Gopang et al. (2015). These studies concentrated on communication in the class during lessons. But this research is based on students' anxiety when they are communicating in foreign language with their foreign lecturers.

2- AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of this research is to identify reasons for the speaking anxiety problems of candidate teachers of English Language when they need to talk to foreigners and their foreign lecturers. The results can be useful to find a solution and overcome their speaking anxiety problems towards foreigners; and lead to better practice of their language skills with the foreigners.

3- METHOD

This is a qualitative study in which semi-structured interview method was used to collect data. In semi-structured interview, researcher prepares form consisting information and questions for the interview but may adapt and revise his/her questions during the interview to dig in interviewers' interests and knowledge about the subject (Altunısık, 2010). Furthermore, this research comprises an interview form was prepared consisting 7 questions for the student teachers. Some professionals were consulted in the preparation process of the form. Some of the questions were revised or extra questions were asked during interviews to get more information. The interviews were in Kurdish, mother tongue of the students. The recordings of the interviews were decoded and transferred to computer. Themes were decided on the collected data.

4- SAMPLING

This research covers candidate teachers studying in English Language Teaching Department of Ishik University, Erbil, Iraq. These student teachers are going to be teachers of English language in the following years. 5 of them were chosen as sample of this research.

They were chosen randomly among some of the candidate teachers reported as coming to see their foreign lecturers with a translator.

5- FINDINGS

Five students who were claimed to take someone with them to see their foreign lecturers were interviewed. Approximately half of their lecturers are foreigners so that students mostly have to communicate only in English. They were asked whether they were taking somebody with them to see their lecturers or not. They all approved that they took someone with them when they visited the foreign lecturers. However, some of them claimed that they were not using those people as a means of translation as opposed to their lecturers' assertion, while most of them confessed that they are using their friends as intermediaries between them and the lecturers. Some of the expressions (translated from Kurdish) for the confessions:

"I take somebody with me." S1 (Student 1)

"I go with friends…" S2

"Yes, I take someone." S3

"My friend is with me she is my cousin we're always together." S4

"Last year I used to talk someone but not this year, this year I am better." S5

Students have similar reasons for taking somebody with them and some of them using those friends as translators. Almost all used the words "shyness, worried, anxious, nervous, and scared" to express their feelings about visiting their foreign lecturers.

"Because I'm shy… For example today I went to see Mr L1 (Lecturer 1) but I couldn't find any of my friends to come with me I was able to ask my question and I got my answer but I was trembling and my heart was beating very fast." S1

"I am afraid and shy at the same time. When you fear but you don't shy its better but if you have both feelings at the same time you're helpless." S1

"I fell nervous…I scare if I make a mistake…" S2

"If I am lazy now the reason is my shyness…I feel anxious, because I am a shy person…I feel shy I cannot speak in front of any other teachers…I don't show my anxiety but inside me I am very anxious." S3

"I am shy and I was the same at school…When I first meet a lecturer I hesitate and worry…when you make a mistake you become worried" S4

"I feel anxious with some of the teachers and sometimes." S5

Even the students who claimed not using their friends as translators have similar feelings. Even though they don't use their friends for translation but they still feel uncomfortable to visit foreign lecturers.

"I take someone but not for translation…I make some jokes to hide my shyness…I feel anxious, because I am a shy person." S3
"When I first meet a lecturer I hesitate and worry because I don't know what his reaction will be, it's not like someone that you know." S5

Except from the one that doesn't use intermediaries, they have speaking anxiety as an obstacle affecting their communicating in the foreign language, English. They use translators to communicate with the feelings mentioned above. Students mentioned two main reasons for their speaking anxiety. One of them is their English level while the other one is the lecturers. First, they stated that they don't feel confident about their English level. They are worried about not to be understood and not being able to express their ideas well. They think they may mispronounce some words,

"I understand what the teacher says but I cannot transfer my opinions, words…I know the words and even the whole sentence but I doubt about my pronunciation… I am afraid of my incorrect words or misunderstanding… I'm shy because I don't know how to answer in English…I am afraid of saying the words incorrectly." S1

"I go with friends; because of my language .My language is not good enough to speak with teacher… I take a friend to help me and translate… because it's the second language I scare if I make a mistake or the teacher doesn't get me or I don't get the teacher that's why I take someone with me… Indeed the ones whose English is not very good many thoughts may come to their mind, they think a lot while they talk, and that's why they fear to speak and this thinking makes them to feel shy and not focus on what they say. They think of the whole sentence and it leads into errors a lot. I think it's bad because everyone makes mistakes at the beginning." S2

"I feel worried and afraid especially with Mr. L2. I am afraid of him because he has a difficult language and I feel scared of not understanding his words…I feel anxious of making mistakes and someone speaks later I feel very bad." S3
"Sometimes I forget the words they don't come up." S4
"Language creates a barrier and don't let me convey my message and feelings because

foreign language is different…I was taking a friend because of my weak language and sometimes I were asking students how to say my words in English then I was going to the office… I have problem in pronunciation as well." S5

Secondly, it seems that these students have negative perceptions about talking to some of their foreign lecturers. Some of them infer some prejudices or perceptions from their past memories even though the lecturer might not mean in that way. They also expressed that they feel comfortable with some of the foreign lecturers. The reason for this is varying such as being warned by the lecturer once, lecturers' identity, the pronunciation of the lecturer and the way lecturer speaks.

"Once Mr. L3 asked me to go and bring absent paper and I asked what then the other students translated into Kurdish and he became very angry and said you are third grade and you can't understand. So I prefer to keep silent rather than hearing harsh words and break my heart… I'm afraid of the teacher if he gets angry with me and blame me that I'm in the 3rd class and why I can't speak." S1

"Once we had a native teacher and I was afraid to participate."S2
"I feel worried and afraid especially with Mr. L2. I am afraid of him because he has a difficult language and I feel scared of not understanding his words." S3
"I hate repetition and my voice is very low then when the teacher asks me to repeat I don't like it… I panic to speak especially the ones that I had bad experience in class… because of the teachers' harsh words and you know previously that they might say some heart breaking words so I feel better not to speak." S5

However the same students may feel comfortable with some other foreign lecturers whom they feel closer and feel that they are understood.

"Especially Mr. L4 I am friend with him he easily understands me and I understand him… sometimes I make some Kurdish fun and speech with Mr. L4 just for fun." S3
"I feel okay with Mr. L5 because he gets my point even with very few words he understands what I say." S5

These students feel more comfortable with the Kurdish lecturers because they can speak Kurdish, even though some of them may still feel shyness.

"When I speak Kurdish its better but in English I can't speak at all…even with Kurdish teachers I shy to speak but it's a little bit better because at least they understand what I

want , yet I shy…I take someone with me because I shy" S1
"I don't take anyone because it's my own language and I express myself easily because it's the same language. I never feel worried and afraid I have no problem." S2
"I don't have problem with Kurdish teachers because if they don't understand me I will say it in Kurdish." S5

These student teachers were also asked about their participation in the class and a comparison between speaking foreign language in the class and in the lecturers' office. All of the participant students stated that their participation during the lessons in the class is low and they are reluctant to participate.

"It's (participation) very little… Last week one of our lecturers made group work in the class and he asked me to come in front of the class and tell my idea but I said I won't speak even in my place." S1
"If the teacher is Kurdish I participate…this year my participation is much better than before but yet it's not as necessary as it should be and as I have planned." S2
"I have very little participation." S3
"It's very limited .I know all the answers but I don't like to participate… Speaking with the teacher in the class is more formal." S4
"Very little (participation)." S5

They expressed similar reasons about their unwillingness of speaking in the class as it is with the foreign lecturers except from peer pressure. It seems that peer pressure is affecting their unwillingness of speaking more than other factors. They feel ashamed of other students even their close friends in the class. Gender issues are also important on these young adults, especially when it is considered that boys and girls were separated in different high schools. Due to lack of peer pressure in the office, they feel more comfortable to speak foreign language in their foreign lecturers' offices. Besides peer pressure, they have their own barriers such as being shy and their foreign language level while lecturers are still another factor of their unwillingness. Below are the sample expressions for the peer pressure showing their perceptions about the reactions of other students in the class.

"I don't want to speak in class because I feel the other students are looking at me.

Whenever I speak after I finish my face blushes and I turn around and look at the students to see who were looking at me… Especially my close friend I feel shy to speak in English in front of them." S1

"I think of the other students' opinion and staring at me a little bit, but the thing that I mostly feel anxious is my own incorrect answers. I feel ashamed of myself that I can't speak correctly… I fell nervous when I speak because of my broken language and the other students look." S2

"I feel the boys are looking at me while I am speaking in the class, it's very difficult but when I go to office I feel better. While I speak I think all of the students are staring at me and I scare to make mistakes and they laugh at me . It's very uncomfortable." S3

"I feel shy because of the students reaction sometimes even you don't have any mistakes but you don't like them to look at you." S4

"I don't want to give incorrect answer and waste other students' time." S5

The samples for other reasons for their unwillingness:

"I'm shy because I don't know how to answer in English… I am afraid of saying the words incorrectly." S1

"It was not because of the teacher it was because of my own mistakes…I fell nervous when I speak because of my broken language and the other students look." S2

"I can't speak in English in front of people even my parents, but I can speak with my sister alone at home…I don't participate because I am shy and my father is shy as well maybe it has effect as well." S3

"I don't like to participate I just don't want to participate, because I am shy and I was like that at (high) school as well" S4

"Because I am not prepared and didn't study at home so I don't want to give incorrect answer and waste other students' time. Whereas, when I study at home and feel ready in the class its better… I fear to participate because of the teachers harsh words and you know previously that they might say some heart breaking words so I feel better not to speak" S5

Even though having some problems Student teachers feel more comfortable while speaking English with their foreign lecturers in their offices.

"In the office I don't feel nervous and I can speak Kurdish or even English with the teacher"
S2
"Speaking in the class, it's very difficult but when I go to office I feel better." S3

Most of the students accept their speaking anxiety is a problem while some others do not accept it as a problem. They were asked if they have thought of any solutions to this problem. Although some of them were hopeless about the problem, some proposed several solutions as practicing more especially studying extensively out of courses by watching, listening and reading. The followings are statements of students.

"Yes, of course it's a problem… every year in the summer I plan many things to read story books , watch a lot of movies, listen to music and so but I the summer holiday ends and I never achieve my goals. In fact I need not only one course but four language courses to improve my English." S1

"Yes, it's a problem for me… I have a problem in my English until now, I can't speak well and it's an obstacle for me. If I didn't have these feelings I might have improve my language much better… external following up, English is not only the book that you study at class. If you movies or speak with your mates or reading extra things. But it's my personal fault until now I haven't started seriously to enter English language." S2

"It's a very very big problem, because my low marks are due to this… I don't think it has any solution." S3

"No, I don't see it as a problem because the teachers all know me. It's not nice feeling but it's not a big problem… I think by practicing a lot you can overcome it." S4

"I don't see it as a problem, because every problem if you try you can overcome it and sort it out." S5

6-CONCLUSION

In this research, the inferences of speaking anxiety of Kurdish candidate teachers of English Language towards foreign lecturers were analyzed. As a result, it is clarified that some candidate teachers may have speaking anxiety with foreign lecturers but causes can vary. There are some internal or external factors lead to speaking anxiety. Internal factors are handicaps coming from characteristics of the student teachers and level of their English language skills. Participants demonstrated themselves with shy personality and mostly found themselves insufficient in English or hesitant to speak. External factors are the lecturers. Student teachers don't feel comfortable with foreign lecturers if they haven't developed some kind of rapport with them. The language is another barrier between student teachers

and their lecturers. Some of the students are also affected by some of the expressions used by lecturers. These student teachers may feel speaking anxiety both in the class and office of the lecturers.

In terms of the results of this research, the administration or the lecturers may try to help these students which are not that many in number. Advising system of the University should be envolved to decrease speaking anxiety of these student teachers and overcome their problems. Personal advisory can be suggested for them to practice their language skills and overcome anxiety problems. The lecturers should think about what they say to students and their behaviors towards them in order not to discourage them from speaking in English with their lecturers. Anxiety is a problem in language learning. Lecturers should reduce anxiety by supporting them during lessons or their interactions out of the class.

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Child Humiliation in Stevie Smith's poems

Khadeeja Saeed Ismail
Salahaddin University-Erbil

ABSTRACT

The modern British poet Stevie Smith (1902-1971) is regarded by critics as a controversial poet. Her poetry is characterized by employing simple ballad cadences and possessing a multiplicity of speaking voices, with notoriously permeable and porous forms and genres. Smith's disregard of extremely strict commitment to rules which would seem conventional features of the serious writer also raises great difficulties. She provides the reader with a body of a work that veers from the shockingly strong or unknown to what is acutely profound. Therefore her writing is an invitation to the reader for reaction with generous affection (May, 2010:1).

It is noticed that Stevie Smith usually handles some significant motifs, such as death, alienation, unfulfilled love, and war. She is also known to be a keen critic of social problems and diseases that were common in Britain during the mid-Twentieth Century. The poet acts, in her poetry, as a social reformer who demonstrates domestic social problems and diseases of the British contemporary society. Yet, despite Smith's intention of reformation, her poetry frequently lacks the suggestion of convenient solutions.

n addition to treating social issues, such as family ties, the position of the British woman, and criticism of the despotic behaviors of some English lords against the poor and the needy, Smith manipulates the child's state in her poetry. Among the child problems that the poet tackles are child mortality, child illegitimacy, lack of parental care, violence against children, and juvenile aggressiveness (Kareem, 24: 2011). It is remarkable that the Second World War is the basic cause for most of the children's problems in her poetry. Moreover, Smith regards children to be the first victims of the war due to their innocence and powerlessness.

The interest of this paper is concentrating on Smith's exposition of the various aspects of child humiliation in the contemporary British society. It aims at demonstrating the revolutionary attitudes that Smith adopts in her poetry for defending child rights in modern age. It focuses also on Smith's indirect criticism of those parents, relatives, authorities who are responsible for children's lives. This is achieved through analyzing several poems of Smith, and showing the revolutionary voice of the poet and her appeal for reformation.

Introduction

1.1. The British Child's State after World War II:

With the end of the Second World War, hundreds of thousands of children were deprived of their families. They appealed the world, under the banner "Who knows our parents and our origins?" During the war an unprecedented number of children had been separated due to bombings, military service, evacuation, deportation, forced labor, ethnic cleansing, or murder. The issue of reuniting families in the post-World War II was regarded to be more than a daunting logistical puzzle, and thereby the so-called lost children held a special grip on people's imagination after the war. They became the center of bitter political conflicts between military authorities, social workers, Jewish agencies, East European Communist officials, and the displaced persons themselves, all of whom competed to determine their fates. These battles were the cause, in turn, to the emergence of such ideals as human rights, democracy, child welfare, and the reconstruction of European civilization at large. Therefore, many saw that "The lost identity of individual children is the Social Problem of the day on the continent of Europe." (Zahra, 2009: 45)

After the Second World War, Europe seemed to be a civilization in ruins. The sad physical and mental state of Europe's children was the cause of spawning dystopian fears of European families and societies in disarray. In the 1940s, there was an intention for altering the opinion about the peculiar and wild children of Europe who were called "wolf children". They lacked any knowledge of parental authority, running in packs like wolves, lacking all moral sense, having no civilized values, and knowing no sexual restrictions. They were ignorant of any laws except the law of self-preservation. Such thoughts reflect a wide-spread consensus that the Second World War had caused the destruction of the family as it had destroyed Europe's train tracks, factories, bridges, and roads. There was a redefinition of the concepts of both family and nation in twentieth-century Europe through experiences and perceptions of mass displacement. This is because postwar visions of stable families, democracies and nations frequently crystallized in opposing the perceived instability, immorality, and dysfunction of Europe's refugees and displaced persons.

Thus, the displaced children in this age were not just in need of shelter and of being prevented from starvation and disease, though these were formidable tasks. The postwar social activists worked as agents of individual psychological reconstruction and rehabilitation, as they thought that it was time to do something beyond giving food. They thought that children were in need of amelioration of psychological suffering and dislocation as men do not live by bread alone (Zahra, 2009: 45-47).

Therefore, these activists attempted to supply parental care to orphans who had lost their parents during the war, or the illegitimate children who were the products of the malicious behaviors of their parents. Thereby, the activists' task was not restricted to the mere act of reuniting children and their parents, but making the society aware of the child's rights and needs. They thought that they ought to stop violence against children. They had also to work for preventing child's humiliation and torture via giving a child's parents and relatives advice for feeding their children with true ideals and assisting them in maintaining united families.

1.2. The British Literary Climate in Smith's Age:

Modern British literature witnessed the end of a distinct phase as a result of Britain's official entry into the century's second European war. This is due to the fact that England's poets had rarely been so governed by a sense of the greater events of their time as those who were writing immediately before the Second World War. Therefore, the dominant poetry in England in the 1930s took on the qualities of social and political limits, more than the poetry written in the previous times had done.

Similarly, the written poems of that time were a response to the economic and social woes of countrymen, as the postwar slump in Britain gradually paved the way to worldwide depression. Britain's inability to regain its prewar markets resulted in unemployment problems, and thereby, a sense of hopelessness for thousands of families (Martin, 1985: 1).

As a Modernist, Smith was affected by the great changes of her age. She reflected the calamities that the individuals of her society exposed to. She worked as a spokesman of the repressed voices of her society, and acted as a reformer of the unacceptable phenomena she observed. Though she defended every English individual, she was a great supporter for children because of the impressive humiliation forms she observed in their life.

2- Child Humiliation in Smith's Poems:

As a social reformer, Smith attacks and criticizes social diseases, such as child humiliation, which spoil the social life in Britain. Though it is claimed that Smith seldom responded positively to children, she is one of the ardent defenders of children's rights, who wrote tenderly about them and their problems in contemporary British life. The poet describes her own admiration to children by saying, "why I admire children so much is that I think all the time, thank heaven they aren't mine". (Kareem, 2011: 24)Therefore, she draws a line between her social obligations towards British children and her personal relation to them.

Thus, the problems of children and their mortality is a recurrent theme in Smith's poems. These problems emerge as a result of war and the absence of medical care before and during the great economic crash in the 1930s. Linda Anderson sees that the poet's "preoccupation

with death, however, could be seen as having a historical, as well as personal, resonance. Britain had to confront the vast scale of its death toll in the trenches." (Kareem, 2011: 25) Accordingly, the reason for Smith's approach to child mortality is attributed to the idea that Britain was retreating from an assertive rhetoric of national and imperial destiny which had carried it into the Second World War. Consequently, war made both society and its subjects carry death within them through a prolonged and traumatic period of mourning (Corcoran, 2007: 175, 177).

It is remarkable that Smith was never exposed to the humiliation; she approaches in her poetry, during her childhood since she found domestic comfort and enduring warmth in her life with her aunt. Moreover, she never left her family home in Palmer's Green, the house she moved into with her mother and sister when she was four (Corcoran, 2007: 176). Nevertheless, she expressed the misery of the modern British child in an effective way.

Therefore, in her poems demanding children's rights, Smith attempts to distance herself from the speaking characters. She is seeking for making her poems sound objective, and for attracting the attention of the officials to the dangers children undergo. Such dangers could be observed in "The Parklands":

Through the Parklands, through the Parklands

Of the wild and misty north,

Walked a bebe of seven summers

In a maze of infant wrath.   (Smith, ll. 1-4)

The distanced speaker pities a seven-year old child whom she meets through the parklands and asks him some questions about his race and lineage without getting an answer:

"Of what race and what lineage,"

Questioning I held him there,

"Art thou, boy?" He answered nothing

Only stood in icy stare.   (Smith, ll. 13-16)

The silent child appears to be upset because of the absence of his parents. In fact, he admits that his sadness is because of the death of his father and mother. The orphan child's case represents the situation of thousands of children in Britain after the Second World War:

"Dead my father, dead my mother,

Dead their son, their only child."

"How is this when thou art living

Foolish boy, in wrath beguiled?"

"Ask me not," he said, and moving

Passed into the distance dim. (Smith, ll. 29-34)

The child's refusal to answer the speaker, and his request not to be asked, along with his standing in icy stare, indicate that the conversation is imaginative between the speaker and a dead child in his grave. The mortal child in this poem represents modern children's misfortunes and their destinies in life.

It is noticed that a sense of aggressiveness toward life is observed in Stevie Smith's attitudes about life. This is reflected in the poet's concept about being alive, which she admits: "Being alive is like being in enemy territory". Thereby, there is a cultural and social alienation in her poems, and this explains her wish toward escape from life as she remarks, "My poems are a bit deathwards in their wish" (Lawson, 1983: 94).

Though Smith seems to be whimsical in her poetry, she is satirical as well; with a sense of complacency. The poet is attracted by death as her characters are often about to die though without being upset by the prospect. Therefore, death is an imminent tool used by Smith, among other things, to shock people out of their unthinking cruelty or self-satisfaction (Adventures in American Literature, 1996: 960). Smith's hopes were directed to death, which she beseeched as a lover to come and take man from life, which she sees as a trial of suffering without the promise of redemption or eternity. Consequently, a voice of absurdity or a type of lunacy in response to the madness of modern life, which is usually anticipated by modernists, is manifested in Smith's poetry (Spurr, 2006: 304,305).

Such a feeling of absurdity to the triviality of modern life is reflected in children's thoughts. In "Angel Boley", Smith presents a sensitive child, Angel, who is frightened by the behavior of every adult, even her mother. The initial lines of the poem give a detailed description of her wicked mother:

There was a wicked woman called Malady Festing
Who lived with her son-in-law, Hark Boley,
And her daughter Angel,

In a house on the high moorlands
Of the West Riding of Yorkshire
In the middle of the last century. (Smith, ll. 1-6)

The story is based on the case of a serial murderer of small children Myra Hindley. It typically reflects and unsettles the range of available stories about her horrors (Dowson & Entwistle, 2005: 111).

The following lines of the poem describe the danger and malignancy of the crime that Angel's mother and her husband are planning to commit. The husband's response reveals the easiness with which the killers commit their crime:

One day Angel
Overheard her mother, Malady, talking to Hark, her husband
Hark, said Malady, it is time
To take another couple of children
Into our kitchen.
Hark laughed, for he too was wicked and he knew
For what purpose the little children
Were required. (Smith, ll. 7-14)

Though the children in this poem are aware of the sad fate of their friends, who suddenly disappear, they are attempting to live in a dream of absent mindedness as they cannot imagine the wickedness of their relatives:

But Angel, who was not happy and so
Lived out her life in a dream of absentmindedness,
In order not to be too much aware
Of her horrible relatives, and what it was
That happened every now and then
In the kitchen; and why the children who came
Were never seen again,   (Smith, ll. 15-21)

The poem manifests the sensitivity of children, who realize the bitterness of life in the modern age. Since the children are incapable of accepting life's miseries, they try to forget them. Therefore, the child in this poem undergoes psychological humiliation, which is more difficult than the physical torture which she predicts. The poem is an instance of violence against children:

I know now, she said, and all the time I have known
What I did not want to know, that they kill all children
They lure to this house; (Smith, ll. 24-26)

However, Smith's reforming attitude is observed through the child's voice pleading no more children to be murdered, tormented, corrupted, and be victims of her wicked mother and the husband. She wants to release children from the fear that surrounds them in twentieth-century Britain:

No more children are going to be murdered, and before they are
murdered tormented (Smith, ll. 34, 35)

Consequently the poem is a revelation of the degree of corruption surrounding the British society then. Moreover, it is a call for reformation and stopping violence against children.

It is obvious that Smith's approach to the various realms of children's life is an indication of her serious intention for treating children's problems. Another recurrent child issue in Smith's poems is the problem of illegitimate children. Smith throws the blame of such a malicious sin on men, and thinks that the victim is not only women, but the innocent children who are the products of such an illegitimate relationship. In "Infant", Smith calls the child "cynical babe" who is abandoned by its father before its birth:

<blockquote>
It was a cynical babe

Lay in its mother's arms

Born two months too soon

After many alarms

Why is its mother sad

Weeping without a friend

Where is its father-say? (Smith, ll. 1-7)
</blockquote>

Smith intends to defend a newly born baby who has to pay for the false behaviors of its parents. Thereby, she regards the child as sinless, and does not deserve to be condemned:

<blockquote>
It was a cynical babe. Reader before you condemn, pause,

It was a cynical babe. Not without cause.   (Smith, ll. 9, 10)
</blockquote>

Therefore, it is not only the parents but the society, too, that is criticized, since it is the cause of the child's humiliation. The poet's reforming voice is realized from her appeal to the reader to find causes for the "cynical babe".

Hence, via many attitudes and commentaries, Smith treats the powers of socialization especially false ideals fed to children (Dowson & Entwistle, 2005: 122). In other words, Smith seems to say that British children are sensible and aware of the calamities that befall them. This explains their negative attitudes conveyed through their sad voices in the poems. They feel that they are the victims of the wars, the officials, their community, and even the bad behavior of their parents. In "Papa Love Baby", a child of three demonstrates how she is suffering because of the romanticism of her mother and the carelessness of her father:

<blockquote>
My mother was a romantic girl

So she had to marry a man with his hair in curl

Who subsequently became my unrespected papa,

But that was a long time ago now.   (Smith, ll. 1-4)
</blockquote>

The child wants to show the delicate nature of her mother, and thereby of women in general, who are easily deceived by appearances. She wants to admit that the little children are the victims of the carelessness of their parents:

<blockquote>
What folly it is that daughters are always supposed to be
</blockquote>

In love with papa. It wasn't the case with me

I couldn't take to him at all

But he took to me

What a sad fate to befall

A child of three. (Smith, ll. 5-10)

The child's age is an indication of being indulged in the miseries of life helplessly. Moreover, the description of her inability to hide her feelings is a reference to her innocence. She is sad and frustrated because her father left her and her mother, and went to make illegal relationships with other girls:

I sat upright in my baby carriage

And wished mama hadn't made such a foolish marriage.

I tried to hide it, but it showed in my eyes unfortunately

And a fortnight later papa ran away to sea.

(Smith, ll. 11-14)

Accordingly, the sense of irresponsibility of the handsome father and the humbleness of the mother are the causes of the child's fearful and dark future. Consequently, Smith aims at introducing the world to the British children's agonies, through the expression of the feelings which are repressed otherwise.

Furthermore, Smith's source of inspiration was works of past-history books, as she believed that "a poet should get on with his work and not be bothered by what his status is in the community". Following this principle made Smith develop a unique and independent style with a great difference from that of her contemporaries. Therefore, she decided to avoid reading works of her contemporaries to be away from unconscious imitation. One of the prominent features of her style was the use of humorous verse for expressing what were in fact profoundly serious themes, such as child humiliation (Chin&, et.al., 2003:1090). Consequently, humor is a significant method for criticizing the officials and attributing the cause of humiliating children to them.

In "Louise", Smith humorously describes the misery of a female child who lost her parents and who has reached a railway station:

Why is the child so pale

Sitting alone in that sawny way

On an upturned valise

In a suburban sitting-room? (Smith, ll. 1-4)

In the following stanzas, Smith draws a colorless picture of the child's situation by illustrating how the child is not only deprived of her parents' sentiments, but is devoid of all the forms of accommodation in life:

And the money has given out
And they've telegraphed home for more
And meanwhile they're having to stay
In a small-beerish way
With Mr and Mrs Tease as I have said
Of Harringay Park instead
Of having a comfortable bed
At the Ritz.
The child is pale and precocious
She knows all the capitals of Europe
She knows all there is to know about Wagons-Lits
And First Class accommodation,   (Smith, ll. 13-24)

Thus the misfortune of the pale child is expressed with an implicit humor, manifested through revealing the precociousness and intelligence of the child, regardless to her paleness. The female child's cleverness is represented by her knowledge of the capitals of Europe, about Wagons-Lits and first class accommodation. However, Smith's humor is always dark and implied. Smith aims to satirize the officials who overlook children's talents and intelligence. So the child's situation is tackled as an idea used to wake people and the authority about the cruelty of life.

 In fact, the pale child's case might be the situation of thousands of children in England after the Second World War. Hence the phenomena related to children's life that Smith satirizes in her poems are ordinary ones in her society; and she is regarded an analytical observer of the ordinariness of life. Moreover, the poet's non-traditional style in approaching child's issues is paving the way for women poets to find their own voices (Thorne, 2006:367). The researcher thinks that Smith's frequent approach to female children is due to her interest in finding an outlet for expressing woman's agonies.

Consequently, though Smith's verse looks at first sight and sounds from first hearing as pure doggerel, it has a serious aim. It is a means for exposing the miserable human condition and demanding human rights, especially children's rights. This is because of children's great position in society. However, Smith's engagement in the problems of the time is the key to her success. According to Macbeth (1967: 213), Smith "has the power to amuse and entertain large audiences by sheer force of personality, and there is no doubt that the spirit of her poetry is in tune with the times." Thus, Smith is regarded recently "among the best of modern British poets" (Barbera, 1985: 221).

3-Conclusion:

The calamities of the Second World War were so great that no individual in the European community was safe from its effects and aftermath. England, as one of the countries involved in the war, underwent such influences. In fact, every member of the British society suffered because of the aftermath of war. Therefore, British poets obligated to express the Englishman's misery. Though Stevie Smith tackles various aspects of human life in her poetry, her major concern is society, especially the child's issue. Smith's attraction to the expression of child humiliation is due to her understanding of being responsible for introducing the world to the uneasiness of children's lives. In her poems the poet's role is restricted to the mere exposition of the child's calamity at times, or extends to taking the role

of a reformer via suggesting solutions to the problems she manipulates.

It is noticed that Smith's intelligence emerges from the fact that, though she acts as a defender of child rights, her poems are not autobiographical, as she never experienced the bitterness she tackles in her poems. Meanwhile, in spite of the poet's aim at arousing pity toward children who have lost parents, homes, relatives and life accommodations, Smith is capable of expressing the child's situation with humor; yet, her humor is often dark and implicit.

It is remarkable that, in her poems, Smith does not accuse a certain individual or group for being responsible for children's humiliation. She throws the blame of such a sin on the entire world. Thereby, her poems could be interpreted as a message to the world to realize the bitterness of war and its consequences. Moreover, the poet's interest in the theme of death assists her in making children's fatal life an outstanding phenomenon, and in demonstrating their real state. Furthermore, the poet's frequent approach to female children anticipates a voice requiring female rights.

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Coleridge's Dejection Ode as a Confessional Statement of His Own Epistemological Failure

Dr Basil Q. Muhammad,

Ishik University,

ABSTRACT

S. T. Coleridge held a well-defined conception of man's mental faculties at work, and hence of the process by means of which man acquires knowledge of both the world and the self. After collecting fragments of Coleridge's statements in this regard, side by side with views of Coleridgean and Romantic critics, this paper initially gives a description of Coleridge's epistemology, which he stated piecemeal through his later prose works. Thereby, knowledge of the world and self-knowledge are seen as begotten of each other, and as being interchangeable and complementary to each other. What is needed to gain knowledge of both types are two elements: a profound acknowledgement of the outer world, and an active presence of man's imaginative power. And man can thus achieve the rediscovery, redefinition and regeneration of the self only through an imaginative act of complex interaction with the outer world, or Nature.

Building upon this description of Coleridge's epistemology, the present paper reads the references to the spiritual effect of Nature upon its meditator in Coleridge's "Dejection: An Ode" (written in its first version in 1802) as early expressions of man acquiring spiritual knowledge of one's self and surroundings. And in the light of this reading, the paper examines Coleridge's plight illustrated in the Ode, embodying an epistemological problem that he tries to define – a problem that causes him a general failure to achieve profound, regenerative interaction with Nature.

Among philosophical matters that engaged Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772-1834) were the faculties and the obscure workings of the human mind. From the Greek philosophy of Plotinus, its expressions in European and British Neoplatonism, and its expansions in the German philosophy of Emanuel Kant and the post-Kantian philosophers of his time, Coleridge learned about the bilateral transaction between the human mind and nature, and about the ability of the mind's exalted faculty of imagination to achieve transcendental perception, above man's sensory bondage. From his diverse sources, Coleridge gathered

his conception of the relationship between man and his surrounding, which he wove within his large-scale System that he hoped would include the whole human knowledge, the whole human life, the whole natural phenomena and supernatural existence, and the whole orthodox Faith.

To Coleridge, the first principle in creation, and hence in his System, is "Polarity" – whereby everything in existence consists of two forces that oppose each other, while being complementary to each other. Life is born out of, and exists only within, the unity or synthesis of polar opposites, which are two counter-powers with "an equal and irremissive tendency on the one hand to oppose themselves and on the other hand to reunite in a 'synthesis' of 'thesis' and 'antithesis'" (Abrams 1972:119-20). Coleridge (Theory of Life:50) describes this synthetic polarity of distinct, antithetical, yet co-existent powers in creation as "the essential dualism of Nature", with which Life to him (Ibid.:48) becomes "the power that unites a given all into a whole that is presupposed by all its parts." And the two factors that qualify and cause this principle throughout the "one Life" of creation are explained by Coleridge (op. cit.) as the ability to include other objects, and the ability to integrate and dissolve in the whole – those two factors being "two contrary forces, the one of which tends to expand infinitely, while the other strives to apprehend or find itself in this infinity" (Biographia Literaria, XIII:308).

Coleridge highlights the psycho-ontological applicability of this principle. Man's imagination, he observes, acts best as a reconciler of opposites in Nature, where the mind itself stands in juxtaposition to Nature and to objects without, collecting its data, both sensory and extrasensory, from the observation of surroundings. To explain this further, Coleridge regards Nature as being not only material, and its perception as being achieved not solely through the physical senses. In the Theory of Life, he draws attention to a spiritual and energetic sense of the world around him, which he calls natura naturans – as opposed to natura naturata, which is sensory Nature. Coleridge thus enables man's mind to seek what is beyond appearances, behind and above anything the senses register, directing its inquiry not primarily toward the outward appearances of Nature, but rather toward these outward forms as manifestations of their inner creative principles at work both in Nature and in the mind of man (Wilson 1972:46).

Clarifying practically how man's mind reconciles opposites, Coleridge (Biographia Literaria, XII:291) states that "All Knowledge rests on the coincidence of an object with a subject" – where the "object" refers to "all that is merely objective," also called "Nature;" and where the "subject" refers to "all that is subjective," i.e. "the Self" or "Intelligence." In this epistemological act of subject-object interaction, the subject and its object act as "two opposite & counteracting

forces," which are "centrifugal and centripetal forces. The Intelligence in the one tends to objectize itself, and in the other to know itself in the object" (Ibid., XII:302, emphasis added). The human mental faculty that is responsible for achieving this Self-Nature, or subject-object, reconciliation is the Imagination – the "divine faculty" in Coleridge's philosophy, which functions as the "mediatress" to which he attributes the ability to transform objects during the act of perception.

During its imaginative union with and then detachment from Nature, man's Intelligence, or the Self, "counterposes, in order to reconcile, the world, as object, to itself, as subject" (Abrams 1972:121; Richards 1955:57). In this case of "reconciliation of opposites," the subject and the object become so perfectly united that the subject melts into what it perceives, and what it perceives becomes the subject itself. In Coleridge's words (Biographia Literaria, XII:291), "[t]here is here no first, and no second; both are coinstantaneous and one." Moreover, with no conception of time and space during this unity (Abrams 1958:158), man becomes "pure existence without essence" (Bernstein 1979:250). And by thus becoming imaginatively infinite, he can undergo a moment of Vision, of departing from the physical world and stepping into the world of the Unknown, the terra incognita (Richards 1955:47). During this climactic moment of subject-object coalescence, man dissolves and penetrates into great truths.

Other than the extrasensory knowledge of the outer world, there is another kind of extrasensory knowledge that man requires and continually acquires, which is knowledge of oneself. If considered in the light of Coleridge's earlier-quoted statement that "All knowledge rests on the coincidence of an object with a subject," self-knowledge is accordingly acquired through a process similar to that through which "all knowledge" is acquired. Ultimately, all knowledge for Coleridge turns out to be self-knowledge. Warnock (1976:83) writes, "If the truths about the world" that we glimpse by means of imagination "can be said to be about anything, it must be about ourselves. In observing the world we are necessarily aware of ourselves the observers". This is a fact to which Coleridge testifies in the Biographia Literaria (XII:290-300) when he makes "Know Thyself!" the "postulate of philosophy," and when he further makes it the key to understanding the world. He writes, "the act of self-consciousness is for us the source and principle of all our possible knowledge." Warnock (1976:102) finds Coleridge constantly looking for "the materials he needed to justify his own belief that in understanding one's feelings one can understand the riddle of the world". In an interesting notebook entry in this concern (Notebooks, 2:2546), Coleridge writes, In looking at objects of Nature, while I am thinking, as at yonder moon dim-glimmering thro' the dewy window-pane, I seem rather

to be seeking, as it were asking, a symbolic language for something within me that already and forever exists, than observing any thing new. Even when that latter is the case, yet still I have always an obscure feeling as if that new phenomenon were the dim Awaking of a forgotten or hidden Truth of my inner Nature.

From such passages as the above, and from the careful assimilation of Coleridge's other prose writings that are concerned with man's awareness of and interaction with his surroundings, several conceptions may be deduced that are integral to Coleridge's epistemology. The first is that knowledge of the world begets self-knowledge, at the same time that self-knowledge is the key to understanding the world. The second is that knowledge of the world and self-knowledge are hence interchangeable. Third is that these two kinds of knowledge are rendered complementary to each other. Fourth is that a profound acknowledgement of the outer world is essential for any knowledge acquisition process. Fifth is that, in any knowledge acquisition process, man's synthetic and creative power of imagination is crucially needed to ensure the establishment of an enlightening exchange between man and surroundings. Sixth is that, within such Man-Nature exchange, perception is gained mainly through man's inner senses, transcending his physical senses under the full control of his power of imagination. Seventh is that every spiritually intimate interaction between man and his surroundings is a process of self-rediscovery, redefinition and regeneration.

The Epistemological Nature of Coleridge's Complaint in the Dejection Ode

Coleridge wrote "Dejection: an Ode" in early April 1802, while going through personal crises – at a time of total discord with his wife, accompanied by desperate love for Sara Hutchinson, his best friend William Wordsworth's sister-in-law. It was also a time when a succession of physical illnesses had kept Coleridge bedridden for many months, resulting in his belief that he was dying, and in his growing reliance upon opium, which he continuously took for the purpose of escaping from physical as well as psychological pain. As a result, Coleridge then suffered from the exhaustion of his mental powers, which led him to a conviction that he was losing his creative power of imagination and, with it, his poetic expression. As "Letter to Sara Hutchinson", the poem was originally composed of 340 lines arranged in 20 stanzas, in which Coleridge admitted to Sara his love for her, and complained to her of his unhappiness with his wife and of the decline of his poetic powers. It later had to be much revised and purged of personal references in order to be made publishable. Therefore, it was gradually reduced to 139 lines arranged in 8 stanzas in the textus receptus, which was published in 1817 as "Dejection: an Ode". In this latter version, Coleridge addresses some unidentified "Lady" with his emotional complaint about a kind of spiritual estrangement from Nature that

he has been suffering from – which, in terms of the notion of Coleridge's epistemology made above, may be interpreted as an epistemological disconnection with the surroundings, and hence with the Self.

The first of the eight stanzas sets the scene through the poet's own senses and feelings. Coleridge sees the new moon as a "silver thread" encircling the "phantom" old moon, and wishes a certain old superstition would come true – that a wild rainy storm would soon be blowing, in order to raise his weighty soul and rid him of his distress:

| And oh! that even now the gust were swelling, |
| And the slant night-shower driving loud and fast! |
| Those sounds which oft have raised me, whilst they awed, |
| And sent my soul abroad, |
| Might now perhaps their wonted impulse give, |
| Might startle this dull pain, and make it move and live! |

(ll. 15-20)

The dejected Coleridge describes his constant failure to reinvigorate himself or to pull himself together. His spirits are so low that nothing seems to revivify him – not even the meditation of Nature, whose beautiful vigour long "raised" him and "sent [his] soul abroad" in the past (ll. 17-19). And he hopes that Nature may once again have that inspiring effect that it used to have upon him before, in order for him to overcome his present state of gloom.

Through elegant lines descriptive of his present natural surroundings, especially through the second verse paragraph, Coleridge admits being still aware of Nature's beauty. His problem, however, is that he does so only sensorily – with "blank" eyes (l. 30), and not feelingly or spiritually (ll. 37-38). And he explains to his "Lady" that the reason why his "genial spirits" (i.e. his innate powers)[1] thus hopelessly fail him is because the "fountains" for the perception of Nature's "passion" and "life" lie "within", i.e. inside the observer's mind, heart and soul. Therefore,

| It were a vain endeavour, |
| Though I should gaze forever |
| On that green light that lingers in the west! |
| I may not hope from outward forms to win |
| The passion and the life, whose fountains are within. |

(ll. 42-46)

These lines lead the way, through the fourth and fifth verse paragraphs, to the establishment of a clear image of a reciprocal relationship between man and Nature – a noble relationship through which man can understand himself and the whole life around him.

Coleridge begins to elaborate to his "Lady" upon his personal problem by elucidating to her that "we receive but what we give" (l. 47). He explains that, without man's spiritual readiness, Nature cannot seem but ineffective, even "inanimate" (l. 51) in his eyes, as

... from the soul itself must issue forth
A light, a glory, a fair luminous cloud
Enveloping the Earth—
And from the soul itself must there be sent
A sweet and potent voice, of its own birth,
Of all sweet sounds the life and element!

(ll. 53-58)

This spiritual element that is requisite for every fruitful interaction with Nature is identified in the fifth verse paragraph as "Joy." This is the inner power that "must issue forth" from man's very soul and thence overflow on man's surroundings, before he can interact spiritually with Nature. This is the power that man needs to have, in order for him to be able to sense anything "of higher worth" (l. 50) in both himself and his surroundings. It is a divine-like power (reminiscent of Revelation 21:1-2, where God creates with His Divine Power "a new heaven and a new earth") that would enable man to see "A new Earth and new Heaven" (Ower 1988).

The inner power that Coleridge calls "Joy", which activates man's inner senses and enables them to take over from his physical senses during the act of knowledge acquisition, is the spiritual element that Coleridge initially complains in the Dejection Ode of having personally lost. He asserts that this power "ne'er was given, / Save to the pure; and in their purest hour" (ll. 64-65). He means that the realisation of greater truths is to him the share of no one but those who are endowed with spiritual purity. To be prepared to witness profound truths, one ought to be "pure of heart" (much like the "Lady" whom the Ode addresses, l. 59) so that one's soul becomes "Awake to Love and Beauty", as Coleridge himself puts it in his earlier poem "This Lime-Tree Bower My Prison" (ll. 60-64). But even to "the pure," a self-redefining experience is reached only at moments of spiritual uplift, only "in their purest hour". Therefore, because Coleridge is presently spiritually disturbed, is impure in mood, lacking in the inner power of "Joy," he fails to achieve such a process that would revitalize him and relieve his burdened soul.

In the sixth verse paragraph, Coleridge remorsefully attributes his loss of the emotional-spiritual inner power that he calls "Joy" to the diminishing of his faculty of imagination, which at this point he also calls "Fancy":

There was a time when, though my path was rough,
This joy within me dallied with distress,
And all misfortunes were but as the stuff
Whence Fancy made me dreams of happiness:
For hope grew round me, like the twining vine,
And fruits, and foliage, not my own, seemed mine.

(ll. 76-81)

In the past, he says, whenever he was distressed, as now he is, it was his imagination then that made him "dreams of happiness" out of his very misfortunes. It was that mental faculty that gave him hope derived from the observation of the happiness around him. Imagination thus supplied him with the inner power of "Joy" that "dallied with [his] distress," and that raised his soul to high spiritual levels whence he could partake in epistemological experiences, to come out transformed and relieved. However, he complains, that time is gone, for so is his "shaping spirit of Imagination" (l. 86) [2]. He realizes that "afflictions" of life and its many "visitations", as well as "abstruse research" into philosophical matters, have jointly deprived him of that power which could otherwise make him "dreams of happiness". Now, short of the inner rejuvenating power of "Joy", and with his creative faculty of Imagination impaired, Coleridge is left alone with "Reality's dark dream" and with "viper thoughts, that coil around [his] mind" (ll. 94-95).

Coleridge's final diagnosis of his problem comes after his confirmation of his compound failure – his initial failure to define his suffering, to find spiritual vigour inside himself, to regain his lost imagination, to slip into happy reverie, to interact feelingly with Nature, and then to raise himself spiritually and overcome his dejection. Beyond this point, Coleridge is gradually carried away by imagining the wild, remote scenes that he enthusiastically tells the wind to seek, now that the wind is blowing faster (ll. 100-103). With his imagination thus being unexpectedly ignited, his perception begins to expand quickly (ll. 104-25), contrary to his desperate earlier claims. His involvement in the description gets deepened fast, until he suddenly loses himself unawares in the wind, in a state of unity with his object of contemplation, and gets wafted away from his imprisoned self by means of his reactivated imagination. Simultaneously with the unexpected "delight" that he finds in the wind's sound, Coleridge gains imaginative release, and the spiritual calmness of peace

after passion, instead of apathy and ennui (Fairbanks 1975:880; Abrams 1957:39). Eventually, returning in the final stanza from his imaginative journey with the wind, Coleridge is a transformed person. He has no desire to sleep, but wants to stay fully conscious to enjoy his present spiritual uplift, and to keep vigil, angel-like, over his "Lady".

Traceably, after his initial expression of melancholy in the Dejection Ode, Coleridge – "incapable of remaining Content with half-knowledge", as the later Romantic poet John Keats put it (Keanie 2007:282) – struggles through the attempt to know what is wrong with himself, why he is being irresponsive to Nature. At this stage, his deficient self-knowledge prevents him from getting into the spirit of the natural surroundings – as self-knowledge is the key to understanding the world, and vice versa, according to Coleridge's own epistemology. Yet, he stands courageously firm in his attempt at exploring the problem that he finds in himself (O'Neil 2011:110).

In terms of Coleridge's own Coleridge's epistemology, his exploration of his plight in the poem begins with him in verse paragraph I, depressed and with no hope in his own ability to relieve himself on his own. He therefore seeks some spiritually intimate interaction with Nature, in search of self-rediscovery, redefinition and regeneration. In verse paragraphs II to IV, he delineates his problem in terms of inability to have profound, inner-sense perception of the outer world. Then, in verse paragraph V, he reaches a diagnosis of his case as the loss of the inner spiritual power, which he calls "Joy". Unable to "proceed from the SELF" (as he writes in the Biographia Literaria, XII:186), Coleridge thus feels that he stands spiritually infirm, outside the affinity of the "one Life" that holds all natural elements together, unable to profoundly comprehend himself or the essence of his surroundings. In verse paragraph VI, Coleridge fine-tunes his diagnosis of his problem: it all actually is due to the "suspension" of his "shaping spirit of Imagination". Imagination used to enable him of undergoing pleasurable perception of both reality and dreams, in place of which what he presently perceives is only "Reality's dark dream". But, interestingly, while he thus grapples with "viper thoughts, that coil around [his] mind" in the seventh verse paragraph, Coleridge's reactivate his imagination unawares, and he thereby manages at last to lose himself in Nature in that and in the next verse paragraph – which is the poem's elated finale. The eighth verse paragraph thus witnesses Coleridge having been successfully liberated from his initial state of depression through his imaginative interaction with Nature. And the wind – which is an objective reflection of his Imagination – is now blowing free and fast "with wings of healing", and is full of life, "a mountain-birth". And with this epistemological rebirth that Coleridge undergoes, he manages to transcend his self-pity and self-concern at the Ode's outset.

Notes

[1] Derived from the Latin origin of the word "genius", which (according to the New Oxford English Dictionary) means the "innate ability or inclination", from the root of gignere, "to beget".

[2] This debilitation of his imagination Coleridge first ascribes to the successive personal "afflictions" through which he has been (ll. 82-86). Then, he ascribes it to his "abstruse research" for years into philosophy, theology and metaphysics (l. 90) – whose cold matter-of-factness and dry logic have supplanted a big portion of the tender feelings, the spontaneity and the creativeness of his imaginative mind set, until they have almost totally denatured him (ll. 90-93).

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University Students' Perceptions of Communicative and Non-communicative Activities in EFL Classroom

Zheen Hamad Amin Abdullah
Salahaddin University

ABSTRACT

Demands for Communicative Language Teaching have increased since its aim is to reinforce students' abilities to communicate. A great deal of debate has been increased in regards to introducing CLT into EFL teaching. The adaptation of CLT has become the center of attention regarding the needs for language learning and teaching. Consequently, considering students' perceptions to CLT has been taken into account. Thus, this research is an attempt to discover Kurdish university students' perceptions toward communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms. Furthermore, it probes deeper into the way students react to communicative and non-communicative activities. Teachers, in Kurdistan, are in need to discover learners' feelings and beliefs toward language learning experiences and accordingly to review and perhaps adapt their teaching process. Mixed method, questionnaire and interview were used as a tool to collect the data. The opinions of 30 Kurdish university students from colleges, Education and Basic Education/ English department were reported on the appropriateness and effectiveness of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL. Ten of them were chosen to be interviewees to achieve more detailed information. It was found that students prefer reconciling both communicative and non-communicative activities to be engages successfully in undertaking the tasks and utilize the language in meaningful situation. Furthermore, people who are responsible in designing curriculum needs have to consider students' opinion in the designing process to reduce the challenges students reported during this study, namely lack of motivation, passive style of learning, EFL learning situations, lack of facilities and large classes.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching, English as a foreign Language (EFL), English as a Second Language (ESL).

1. Introduction

Language teaching forms have been the focus of researchers rather than meaning of the language. Although, using target language efficiently does not mean to have effective grammar usage. Therefore, demands for Communicative Language Teaching have increased since its goal is to enhance students' communicative competence. A great deal of debate has been raised regarding introducing CLT into EFL teaching. It has been focused on the adaptation CLT to the needs for language learning and teaching. Therefore, considering students' perceptions to CLT has been taken into account. According to the recent studies on CLT, it has been found that students and teachers' perception occasionally differ.Thus, this research is an attempt to discover Kurdish students' perceptions toward communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms. Questionnaire and interview have been used as tools to collect the data. The research is divided into three main parts. The first part starts with the theoretical background in which the characteristics of CLT and CLT in Kurdistan are discussed. The second part is methodology that explains the participants and the instrument. Data analysis part is the third part where results and implication of the study are presented. Conclusion is the final part of the research.

2. Theoretical Background

This section presents an overview of Communicative Language Teaching and its principles in regards to (student-centered class, group work and communicative competence). Then it discusses CLT approach in Kurdistan.

2.1 Definitions and principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The dominated form of language teaching was completely focused on in the past, regardless to the meaning (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979). Nonetheless, using target language efficiently does not mean grammatical form has been entirely mastered (Johnson 1979). Therefore, an approach to teaching English language has been proposed to increase students' ability to communicative in an authentic context which is called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

Additionally, CLT provides students with practices that improve their communicative competence (Laresen_Freeman, 2000). Basic features of communicative competence, what to say and how to express it, properly depend on various criteria such as the context, members and their purposes. These were not included in the traditional approaches.

CLT mainly includes two versions, strong and weak. The former argues that despite of activating students' schemata; CLT encourages the language development (Holliday, 1994). However, the latter highlights the significance of integrating the activities that provide the

learners with opportunities to use the language effectively and meaningfully. In addition, certain beliefs are accentuated in the weak version namely, 'possibility', 'possession', 'making requests' and 'giving advice.' According to Howatt (1984, 279), strong version of CLT aims at "using English to learn it", while the weak version intends "learning to use English". Since the weak version of CLT has become more or less the dominated approach. Therefore, the below features are taken form it.

The most noticeable attribute of CLT, according to (Larsen-Freeman, 1986), is that "almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent" (p. 132). In CLT meaning is of paramount importance. Since learning foreign language is unconscious (Krashen, 1985), it is teacher's job to provide students with a number of activities to utilize the language in different contexts with diverse roles such as games, role play, simulations, and problem solving. Accordingly, Students are able to practise the target language meaningfully. They, moreover, are prevented to use their native language. Littlewood (1981) argues certain facets of the language occur through natural process and this operates when the major purpose of learners is to communicate using the target language. When the students are involved in communicating and sharing ideas with their classmates, the intended language can better operate (Snow, 1996).

In regards to activities in CLT, group work is considered as a crucial criterion. Students undertake the tasks and utilize the language with their colleagues in groups (Richards, 2006). It assists them in motivating their self-confidence and developing fluency. In addition, students accomplish negotiation of meaning through involving in group working and produce the language confidently (Canale and Swain, 1980).

Another feature of CLT is ""its learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 69). Each student owns certain characteristics, curiosity, learning style and purpose. Therefore, Savignon (1991) contends the plan of instructional methods should reflect these characteristics. Besides, it is significant if teaching materials and strategies are developed appropriately according to the students' interest and needs (Li, 1998). The intended language is practically achievable if the tasks involve learners in communicating and sharing point of views and utilizing the language authentically. Teachers are guide and support students instead of delivering the lecture, and they become guide on the side. Additionally, they facilitate the process of learning so that students feel secure while learning the target language and construct meaning (Brown, 2001).

2.2 Communicative Language Teaching in Kurdistan

Recently, teaching English as a foreign language in Kurdistan has witnessed a number of changes in regards to materials and approaches. At one time, the primary methods used in

Kurdistan were audio-lingual method, grammar-translation method and direct method (Al-Hamash and Abdul-Rahim, 1982; Al-Chalabi, 1975). Nevertheless, Ministry of Education in Kurdistan has recently developed the curriculum to enhance students' communicative competence. However, if Kurdish teachers implement CLT using the traditional method of instruction, undertaking more communicative tasks will have a little value.

3. Methodology

This section includes the participants; the tool is used in the process of collecting the data and the procedures of gathering the information.

3.1 Participants

The respondents were 30 students from English department, colleges of Education and Basic Education, University of Salahaddin. The selection of the participants was random since each individual student has an opportunity to participate in the process (Dane, 1990). The questionnaire was administered to the participants, and they were required to complete it. The respondents' language levels were almost the same; this is because they were from third and fourth grades. Closed-ended and open-ended questions were included in the questionnaire.

3.2 Procedures and instruments

Questionnaire is used as a tool to collect the data in the recent study (see appendix 1). The questions were designed through a program called Survey Monkey. After creating a link, it was sent to the participants online. The researcher explained to and informed the participants about the objectives of the study. Hence, the results were confirmed by the researcher online through the program. Closed-ended questions were computed through excel and survey monkey. However, the open-ended questions were analyzed though coding and content analysis. Flick (2011) states that through applying content analysis, a great amount of data is reduced. Then, 10 of the participants were chosen to be the interviewees, and they responded to a number of questions that were asked by the interviewer (see appendix 2). Pseudonym was used in the research. The researcher used fake names instead of interviewees' real names to conceal their identities. Baez (2002) explains that keeping participants' names confidential is crucial since trust and rapport are built among participants.

4. Data analysis and discussions

Data analysis does not mean to describe the data collected; rather it is a process by which interpretation of the data is brought by the researcher (Powney and Watts, 1987).

Through examining the data, the themes of this study were emerged (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992). After the data collection process, the researcher got the result analyzed through the Survey Monkey program. Then, the interview transcripts with the questionnaire's results were analyzed and interpreted to discover students' point of views of communicative and non-communicative activities in their classes. Additionally, the students' challenges were identified.

This section discusses the analysis of the data collection in regards to both research questions. Firstly, students' perceptions towards communicative and non-communicative activities are analyzed. Secondly, the challenges that students might encounter while applying CLT are examined.

4.1 What are the students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in the EFL classroom?

Table 1 below illustrates the items that are included in the questionnaire with respondents' answers. The first column (items) shows the numbers of questions while the right column (Number of participants) demonstrates the number of participants who favoured the items.

TABLE 1: Favoured activities reported by students in EFL classroom

Items	Number of participants
Communicative items	
Student-student interaction	
4	26
Student-teacher interaction	
11	24
3	27
Personal response to students' exercises	
8	18
Songs	
10	14
14	10
Non-communicative activities	
Workbook type drill and practice	
6	24
13	28
Audio-lingual drill	
9	26
15	22
Dictionary exercise	
16	12
Grammar rule explanation by teacher	
1	26
2	6
Error correction	
5	16
Obedience to teacher's instruction	
17	15
18	25

Certainly, the students' interpretations above demonstrate their present attitude towards applying various communicative and non-communicative activities. There were several noticeable features concerning communicative activities which were reported by the participants. A large number of respondents revealed that they prefer group work and pair work (item 4) in which a great deal of student-student effort is required. One of the interviewees stated:

"we mostly face difficulty when the lecturer asks us to undertake a task in pair work or in groups. One of the constraints is the large number of students which is not easy to control" (Sana, 2016).

In the table above, activities which require no communication skills are shown, for instance, using dictionary inside the classroom which was quite common during (1990s). However, 12 out of 30 students favoured using dictionary while reading an article (item 16). The same result is reported for error correction (item 5).

Surprisingly, 26 students responded they would like their teachers to explain grammatical patterns in English (item 1). Nonetheless, only 6 participants preferred using Kurdish language in explaining the rules (item 2). From these findings it can be noticed that students are aware of native language prevention strategy in EFL classroom. Ali who is one of the interviewees claims that:

"I want my teacher to communicate with us in English all the time; it is ok if my teacher uses Kurdish to clarify some difficult words".

Regarding obedience to teacher's instruction, a few number of participants (13 students) favoured teacher's explanation, and they declared that they would like to rely on the teacher to explain everything that they should know (item 17). This result corresponds with Littlewood's study in which he found that "Asian students do not, in fact, wish to be spoon-fed with facts from an all-knowing 'fount of knowledge'. They want to explore knowledge themselves and find their own answers" (Littlewood, 2000, p. 34).

This finding proposed that most of the students taken up the significance of using CLT inside the classroom. In addition, they would like to be involved in communicative activities to produce meaningful language skills. The progress will be greater when is hindered to the practical learning circumstances. From the result, it can be argued that considering the factual learning condition is necessary when CLT is adopted in a context.

Concerning (item 3), 90% of the respondents discovered that it is incentive to report on a newspaper or magazine article in English, and several students perceived it is helpful for the teacher to lead a class discussion on topics relating to Kurdistan (item 20).

"Variety of these tasks enables us to communicate in English and helps us to talk about our opinions in English, and also we update our knowledge" (Zana, 2016).

In regards to item 12 which is about interviewing English speakers outside of the class, most of the participants liked this activity, and one of the interviewees declared:

"It is helpful to interview in English because it helps us to use the language in real situations and we will be motivated and enthusiastic".

Brown (2001) argues that "interview technique" is suitable and useful since it involves students in actual learning circumstances, and students' interactions can be increased.

This result is similar to the findings of a study was undertaken by Rosmawati (1995), who discovered that interview technique is a motivated strategy to stimulate students to speak English (65% of total samples (25) are motivated by the interview technique in the study). In regards to personal response to students exercise, 18 students showed their preferences and the rest were disagreed (item 8), and they were moderate. It is noticeable from the table above that a number of communicative activities, relating to songs, were considered as important tasks by the students (items 10 and 14). There might be some reasons behind their dislikes, for instance the absence of using song as a technique to teaching English. Edden (1998: 139) demonstrates the relationship between language and music:

"Music and language sit comfortably together…Historically, we can think of storytelling and song being used as an exchange, as entertainment, even as a work aid… With younger people there are some largely unexplored and underestimated opportunities for teachers to develop language through musical activities".

Ahmad who is one of the participants mentioned a reason and explained: "In English classes the songs are associated with entertainment exclusively; therefore, students are skeptical of using song as a tool for learning" (2016).

4.2 What are the students' perceived difficulties in an EFL class exclusively conducted by a teacher using CLT?

The second research question sought to find out the challenges students might face when doing communicative activities. The participants demonstrated their preferences to the methods are applied by their teachers. They are unanimously indicated that through the combination of both communicative and non-communicative activities the students are capable to meet their needs in learning English language. However, some of them mentioned a number of challenges they, sometimes, face as a result of using CLT (table 2) as followings:

4.2.1 Lack of motivation and passive Style of learning

Lack of motivation may impede students' progresses and studies (Rabbini and Diem, 2006). Therefore, it is crucial to build confidence to the students and heightening their motivation. Twenty six students referred to lack of motivation as one of the primary obstacles on their interest in communicative activities in the classroom see (table 2) below. In spite of their awareness of communicative competence, students still pay more attention to grammar than to communicative competence. Some of them were taught English language deductively, in other words the teacher explained the whole materials and students were merely receiving the information. Kale mentioned:

"We studied 12 years English language, and our teachers explained everything for us, however the book was created to be taught according to communicative language teaching" (2016).

TABLE 2: reported difficulties face students by communicative activities in EFL classrooms

Difficulties	Number of participants
Lack of motivation	26
Passive style of learning	25
EFL learning situations	23
Lack of facilities	19
Large classes	23

Another reason which causes the reduction of students' motivation is their future career. Since the students become teachers after they graduate, they reported that they are in need to have a large amount of grammatical knowledge. This was clear from Azad's speech when he mentioned:

"We will become teachers at schools, and we have to have a good knowledge of grammar because the book we are going to teach includes many grammatical activities" (2016).

Large classes were considered as one of the obstacles students face when they are given tasks require communication. Students revealed that they are not provided with sufficient opportunities when undertaking communicative activities. Additionally, students might not receive individual attention from their teachers due to the over-crowded classes, and it is difficult to be controlled (Tsai, 2007; Liao, 2003; Liao, 2006; Yu, 2001; Karim, 2004).

"When we have a discussion in groups, sometimes all the members are not able to participate because the time finishes before the end of the task" (Azad, 2016).

4.2.2 EFL situations

All the participants were aware of the vital role CLT plays in improving students' English language and the differences between ESL and EFL. They demonstrated the significance of English language in the countries where political and economic lives of the citizens require English. Whereas, in the context where this study was conducted is merely taught in

educational situations. Thus, students have limited opportunities to communicate and utilize English language, and they meet constrains when applying it. This was mentioned by some interviewees. Ellis (1996) claims that EFL students are exposed to English merely during the class times; hence, they are unable to use and practise the language meaningfully and efficiently.

4.2.3 Lack of facilities

More than half of the students (19) refer to lack of facilities as one of the obstacles when using CLT (see table 2). Currently, most of the colleges do not have enough resources used in teaching English. For example, audio-visual equipment, authentic material and sound system lab. Ranasinghe and Leisher (2009) assert audio visual aids play remarkable roles in students' language development which create a collaborative learning environment.

"We do not have enough opportunities to communicate with English speakers, at list we need to have sound lab to progress our listening skill and listen to English people" (Kale, 2016).

5. Implication of the study

In general, the students' points of views were satisfying for those teachers who are concerned about whether students accept the current approach used in their classes. It was noticeable from the study that students prefer the combination of both types of activities (communicative and non-communicative). It might be more beneficial if teachers could develop the appropriate version of CLT according to the context where they teach (Thompson, 1996). A number of challenges were mentioned by the participants; therefore, the followings should be taken into consideration to solve or reduce these difficulties.

5.1 Avoiding the misconception of CLT and balancing between linguistic and communicative competence

Students are in need to be aware of the concept of CLT, and it is essential for teachers to explain the features and functions of CLT, what roles teachers and students play and what sorts of tasks are required. Additionally, the misconception of CLT has to be clarified to the students that grammar is not excluded from CLT (Penner, 1995; Markee, 1997). Rather, it is used as a resource or tool.

In regards to linguistic and communicative competence, both communicative and non-communicative activities are integrated; and it is crucial that teachers bias towards none of them. Moreover, communicative activities generate from linguistic competence. However, it does not mean communication does not occur without grammatical patterns, they facilitate

the process of enhancing students'' communication meaningfully.

5.2 Make use of any material available

Communication better takes place when teachers provide students with various materials to be engaged with activities. Importantly, lack of material avoids the occurrence of communicative competence. Furthermore, students do not have enough opportunity to practise the language. However, it does not mean that teachers have no substitution. Teachers can make use of articles and activities from the current local journals and newspapers, for instance (Reporter). International newspapers and magazines are also beneficial to be used since they provide students with updated information about countries and people (Kitao, 1995). More importantly, internet sources offer teachers and students with numerous topics and tasks.

6. Conclusion

The present study was an attempt to explore students' perceptions of using communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms. Additionally, a number of challenges that occurred as a result of CLT were revealed and discussed. Through multi-method, the data was collected via questionnaire and interview to provide more reliable result. Thirty students participated in the process from both colleges, Education and Basic Education/ Salahaddin University. The results demonstrated that students inclined toward using communicative and non-communicative activities, and they cannot ignore the traditional style of learning they received throughout their previous educational studies. The result corresponds with previous studies produced by Karavas-Doukas's (1 996) and Inceçay & Inceçay (2009).

Kurdish students were more open to the techniques they have not practised. It is evident from the study that teachers can make use of CLT through the combination of both communicative and non-communicative activities. It is important for Teachers and curriculum planners to consider students' needs not only through their intuition (Rudduck, 1991). It is recommended that studies on teachers' perceptions are needed to be produced in Kurdistan to develop their teaching methods that are suitable with the context and students' needs.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

NO	Questions	yes	N0
1	Do you like the teacher to explain a grammatical rule that is printed in the textbook in English, and then give you examples in English as well?		
2	Do you like the teacher to speak Kurdish when explaining a grammatical rule that is printed in the textbook, and then give examples in English?		
3	Do you like to find and report on an interesting newspaper or magazine article in English?		
4	Do you like the teacher to divide you into pairs or small groups, in which you have to ask your partner questions, and answer the questions your partner asks you?		
5	Do you like the teacher to correct all mistakes in your exercises?		
6	Do you like to do a written exercise in which you are asked to fill in the correct forms of verbs in sentences?		
7	Do you like to do an exercise in which you should find mistakes in grammar and correct the mistakes?		
8	Do you like the teacher to pay attention to the ideas and write short personal notes in response to what you say?		
9	Do you like to receive a sheet of paper with a number of sentences like: _____ is a fantastic dancer. _____ has visited Erbil. and then move around the classroom, ask your classmates questions in English, and try to fill the blanks with as many different names as possible?		
10	Do you like to be given the words in a song and sing the song, led by the teacher or a record?		
11	Do you like the teacher to call on all students in turn to change a sentence in some way? For example: TEACHER: ''John walks to school'', Maria. MARIA: John doesn't walk to school. TEACHER: Very good. ''John is walking to school'', Victor. VICTOR: John isn't walking to school.		
12	Do you like to interview and report on the interviews in English?		

13	Do you like to do an exercise in which you should find mistakes in grammar and correct the mistakes?		
14	Do you like to be given the words to a current hit song in English, and then listen to the recording, or watch the video?		
15	Do you like the teacher to speak a series of sentences and ask the entire class to respond orally to each sentence by changing it in some way? For example: TEACHER: John walks to school. CLASS: John doesn't walk to school. TEACHER: John is walking to school. CLASS: John isn't walking to school.		
16	Do you like the teacher to give you a list of words that occur in a story or article, and then ask you to look up the words in an English-English dictionary for the purpose of copying the definitions?		
17	Do you like to reply on the teacher to explain everything that you should know?		
18	Do you like the teacher to evaluate how much you have learnt?		
20	Do you like the teacher to lead a class discussion of a topic such as population problem, movies, or places to visit in Kurdistan?		

Appendix 2: The interview questions.

The following questions were asked in the interview process.

1. What do you think of applying CLT in EFL classrooms?

2. Do you prefer using group work or pair work during EFL classes?

3. Do you believe that class sizes and students' numbers affect when the teacher uses communicative tasks?

4. Do you think using native language in some conditions is beneficial, or you prefer English language completely?

5. Do you believe practicing English language through interviewing people outside classroom is necessary to improve your English language?

6. What activities do you think assist in enhancing your English language?

7. Is there any challenge you might face when practicing communicative activities?

8. Concerning grammatical activities, do you like your teacher to explain the grammatical patterns?

9. Do you believe discussing topics relating to your context will be helpful?

Conversational Implicatures in Shaw's
'How He Lied to Her Husband'

Salam Neamah Hirmiz Hakeem (PhD)
HoshangNajmaddin Mustafa (MA)
Salahaddin University, College of Languages

ABSTRACT

The researchers have selected various texts from one of Bernard Shaw's plays, which is entitled 'How He Lied to Her Husband', in an attempt to analyze the characters' use of language on the basis of Paul Grice's proposed maxims which the speakers and hearers are assumed to abide by in their conversations. In this play, the characters tend to violate or flout these maxims resulting in various conversational implicatures. Thus, there can be a gap between what is literally expressed and what is intended because the characters lie, manipulate, and deceive in order to achieve their goals. The results show that in their attempt for hiding the truth, the characters tend to especially violate and flout the maxims of quality and manner the most.

Keywords: conversational implicature, cooperative principle, maxim, violation.

1- Introduction:

This study analyzes conversations taken from Bernard Shaw's playlet "How He Lied to Her Husband" in order to unfold the intended meaning according to the cooperative principle. The playlet was published in 1905, and it is about an eighteen-year-old boy who is in love with a 37-year-old married woman. The boy, Henry, had written poems to the married woman, Aurora, who has lost the poems and she is worried that her sister-in-law, Georgina, finds the poems and gives them to Aurora's husband, Teddy. The husband eventually gets the poems, which explicitly mention the name Aurora many times. In the beginning, Henry has a fight with Teddy and he denies that the poems were written for Aurora, but later he confesses the truth but he claims that the relation between them was one-sided platonic love. Teddy believes this and he actually even offers to have the poems printed and published with the name "How He Lied to Her Husband ".

2- Theoretical framework

This study is based on Grice's pragmatic concept 'conversational implicature', which arises due to the violation of the 'Cooperative Principle' (henceforth, CP) and its maxims. The CP states: "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice 1975, cited in Verschueren 1999: 32). The CP gives rise to four conversational maxims:

1. <u>The Maxim of Quantity:</u>
- Make your contribution as informative as is required for the
    current purpose of the exchange
- Do not make your contribution more informative than is
    required

2. <u>The Maxim of Quality:</u> try to make your contribution one that is
    true.
- Do not say what you believe to be false
- Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

3. <u>The Maxim of Relation</u> (later called relevance):be relevant

4. <u>The Maxim of Manner</u>: be perspicuous
- Avoid obscurity of expression
- Avoid ambiguity
- Be brief
- Be orderly

It should be borne in mind that these maxims are psychological principles to which people are assumed to be adhering in any act of communication (Asher and Simpson 1994:3254). In other words, any interacting people are supposed to be as informative as possible, tell the truth, say what is relevant, and speak as clearly as possible. Even when a speaker flouts, or seems not to be adhering to, one of these maxims, the hearer still assumes that the speaker is being cooperative and therefore tries to infer the intended meaning through conversational implicature (Yule 1996:128). Thus, conversational implicatures denote meanings that a speaker intends to convey but does not explicitly express, for example:

(1)   Pete: Coming down to the pub tonight?

Bill: I've got to finish a piece of work.

Bill's response implies and is understood as a refusal although he does not explicitly say 'no' (Cruse 2006: 3).

Levinson (1983: 104) notes that "implicatures are not semantic inferences, but rather inferences on both the content of what has been said and some specific assumptions about the cooperative nature of ordinary verbal interaction". In fact, conversational implicatures are intended implied meanings that are derived from the context of conversation and inferred through the assumptions of the CP and its maxims. However, a speaker may also violate the conversational maxims intentionally with aim of misleading the hearer or hiding the truth. In other words, a speaker sometimes "deliberately supplies insufficient information, says something that is insincere, irrelevant or ambiguous, and the hearer wrongly assumes that they are cooperating." (Cutting 2002:40).

3- Research problem

Bernard Shaw's playlet "How He Lied to Her Husband" is a literary work that involves betrayal, deception, and manipulation. As such, the paper attempts to address the following:

1-   What are the reasons behind the characters' violation or flouting of the conversational maxims?

2-   Which maxims are mostly violated or flouted?

3-   What are the implicatures that can be derived from the characters' conversations?

4- Research objective

This study aims to linguistically analyze the playlet "How He Lied to Her Husband" according to the Gricean Cooperative Principle. Due to the deceptive nature of the play, it tends to include numerous instances of violation and flouting of the conversational maxims and the study aims to identify which maxims the characters mostly fail to observe and to unravel the intended meanings in an attempt to specify the reasons behind the characters' nonobservance of the maxims.

5-Research Procedure

The procedures that are followed in conducting this study involve collecting data through a scrutinized reading of the dialogues and arguments in the playlet and analyzing them according to the conversational maxims in order to specify the hidden implicatures and clarify the reasons behind the violation and/or flouting of these maxims.

6- Data

The data of the study are taken from Bernard Shaw's playlet "How He Lied to Her Husband". It consists of selected scripts from the arguments between the three major characters of the playlet. The reason behind choosing this literary work is that it involves concepts of appearance and reality in social and romantic relations, and eventually includes lots of instances of hidden implicatures due to the characters attempts to manipulate and hide the truth.

7- Implicatures through violation and/or flouting of maxims

The play opens with a description of a 'beautiful' young boy of eighteen who is well-dressed and carrying flowers for his 37-year-old beloved. The implication behind the writer's use of the word 'beautiful' might be to show that he is too young for her. His juvenile love is later confirmed when he kisses and smells her cloud, gloves and even the fan while waiting for her to come. Furthermore, the reader is prepared for the kind of inappropriate relationship between the young man and the married woman when the writer uses the words 'his folly' in reference to Henry. As explained below, the playlet includes lots of examples of violation and flouting of conversational maxims leading to informative implicatures.

5.1 Violation and/or flouting of the quantity maxim

The playlet includes only a few instances of violation and flouting of the quantity maxim, for example:

(2)   SHE (i.e. Aurora) [jumping up distractedly] If you say that again I shall do something I'll be sorry for. Here we are, standing on the edge of a frightful precipice. No doubt it's quite simple to go over and have done with it. But can't you suggest anything more agreeable?

She is giving too much information with little content because she is confused, but it sounds like a threat of breaking up with her lover.

(3)   SHE [springing up] Candida! No, I won't go to it again, Henry [tossing the flower on the piano]. It is that play that has done all the mischief. I'm very sorry I ever saw it: it ought to be stopped.

The audience is not given enough information about what has happened.

5.2 Violation and/or flouting of the quality maxim

There are numerous cases in which the characters violate or flout the quality maxim, as explained below:

(4)   HE. Ah, how I wish they had been addressed to an unmarried woman! How I

wish they had!
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He wishes and imagines something unreal, i.e. he wishes that Aurora were not married.

(5) HE. She [Georgina] will not understand them, I think.
He is lying to console her, since her name is mentioned many times in the poems.

(6) SHE [whisking herself abruptly away] Don't be selfish.
She is untruthful because she has been using him and her husband, so she is more selfish and still accuses him of being the selfish one in the relationship.

(7) SHE. No, Henry. I will do nothing improper, nothing dishonorable.
She has already done an improper thing by having an affair with a young boy
though she is married and twice his age.

(8) HE. All this alarm is needless, dearest. Believe me, nothing will happen. Your husband knows that I am capable of defending myself. Under such circumstances nothing ever does happen. And of course I shall do nothing. The man who once loved you is sacred to me.
If her husband were truly scared to him, he would not dishonor him by having an affair with his wife.

(9) SHE [turning to him with a gasp of relief] Oh, thank you, thank you! You really can be very nice, Henry.
This is ironic and eventually untrue because she is hurt by him and she means exactly the opposite.

(10) HE [with fierce politeness] I beg your pardon. What is it you want me to do? I am at your service. I am ready to behave like a gentleman if you will be kind enough to explain exactly how.
He pretends to be sorry and polite but he is upset and frustrated.

(11) SHE. Oh, well, if you come to that, what has become of you? Do you think I would ever have encouraged you if I had known you were such a littledevil?
He is not a devil but he behaved in an evil manner when he threatened to beat her husband.

(12)   SHE. It matters a lot, I can tell you. If there's nothing about Bompas in the poems, we can say that they were written to some other Aurora, and that you showed them to me because my name was Aurora too. So you've got to invent another Aurora for the occasion.
She is inventing a lie to hide the truth that the poems were written for her.

(13)   SHE. Surely, as a man of honor--as a gentleman, you wouldn't tell the truth, would you?
Being a man of honor, he should tell the truth. However, she is making him feel guilty and behave chivalrously so as to push him to lie about their true relationship.

(14)   SHE. Poor dear Georgina! I'm sorry I haven't been able to call on her this last week. I hope there's nothing the matter with her.
She pretends to be worried about her but the truth is that she hates and is afraid of her (because Georgina might have showed the poems to Teddy).

(15)   HE. I assure you I am quite at a loss. Can you not be a little more explicit? He pretends not to understand Teddy's accusations about writing the poems for his wife.

(16)   HE [formally and carefully] Mr Bompas [i.e.Teddy]: I pledge you my word you are mistaken. I need not tell you that MrsBompas is a lady of stainless honor, who has never cast an unworthy thought on me. The fact that she has shown you my poems—
He tries to hide the truth about their inappropriate relationship.

(17)   HE [earnestly] Believe me, you are. I assure you, on my honor as a gentleman, that I have never had the slightest feeling for MrsBompas[i.e. Aurora] beyond the ordinary esteem and regard of a pleasant acquaintance.
He is making a big lie in an eloquent manner.

(18)   HER HUSBAND. Jealousy! do you suppose I'm jealous of YOU? No, nor of ten like you. But if you think I'll stand here and let you insult my wife in her own house, you're mistaken.
He is jealous and this is why he is angry, but he wants to convey the message that he and his wife are of a higher status than Henry.

(19)   HE. Yes, I do mean it, and a lot more too. I asked Mrs Bompas to walk out of the house with me--to leave you--to get divorced from you and marry me. I begged and implored her to do it this very night. It was her refusal that ended everything be-tween us. [Looking very disparagingly at him] What she can see in you, goodness only knows!
He is lying in order to protect her and the relationship between them.

5.3 Violation and/or flouting of the relevance maxim

 The playlet includes several instances of violation and flouting of the relevance maxim:

(20)   SHE. I have lost your poems.
         HE. They were unworthy of you. I will write you some more.
Instead of offering a solution, he talks about the value of the poems because he wants to console her and he obviously has no solution for the problem.

(21)   HE [painfully jarred] Have you got sisters-in-law?
SHE. Yes, of course I have. Do you suppose I am an angel?
Instead of answering this question, she asks an irrelevant question which may imply that she is not in good relation with her in-laws.

(22)   SHE. I shouldn't have let you: I see that now. When I think of Georgina sitting there at Teddy's feet and reading them to him for the first time, I feel I shall just go distracted.
HE. Yes, you are right. It will be a profanation.
She is scared that her husband would know about their affair and he is simply stating that the sister-in-law's behavior is profane because he wants to divert her attention from the real problem.

(23)   SHE [a little frightened] Thank you, Henry: I was sure you would. You're not angry with me, are you?
HE. Go on. Go on quickly. Give me something to think about, or I will--I will--[he suddenly snatches up her fan and he is about to break it in his clenched fists].

Instead of answering her question, he asks her to explain what to do. The implicature is that he is really angry and wants to be busy with something before he does any harm to her or her belongings.

(24)   HER HUSBAND. Hallo! I thought you two were at the theatre.

SHE. I felt anxious about you, Teddy. Why didn't you come home to dinner?

Instead of responding to his inquiry, she pretends to be anxious about him and asks him an irrelevant question because she wants to change the subject and not talk about her and Henry.

5.4 Violation and/or flouting of the manner maxim

There are also various cases in which the characters violate or flout the manner maxim, for example:

(25)   HE: They will think that a man once loved a woman more devotedly than ever man loved woman before. But they will not know what man it was.

He is unclear about the identity of the writer of the poems so he thinks that people can't tell who the writer is.

(26)   HE. She [i.e. Georgina] really sees the world in that way. That is her punishment.

He is not perspicuous and the implication might be that Georgina does not appreciate love, and this is why they should feel sorry for her instead of hating her.

(27)   HE [coming to a sudden stop and speaking with considerable confidence] You don't understand these things, my darling, how could you? In one respect I am unlike the poet in the play. I have followed the Greek ideal and not neglected the culture of my body. Your husband would make a tolerable second-rate heavy weight if he were in training and ten years younger. As it is, he could, if strung up to a great effort by a burst of passion, give a good account of himself for perhaps fifteen seconds. But I am active enough to keep out of his reach for fifteen seconds; and after that I should be simply all over him.

Instead of being brief and clear by simply saying that he is stronger than Teddy, he tries to show off using a prolonged description of his abilities in order to impress her.

(28)   HE. Yes: I'm capable of anything now. I should not have told him the truth by halves; and now I will not lie by halves. I'll wallow in the honor of a gentleman.

It is unclear whether he is going to tell the truth or a complete lie to her husband because he does not seem to have decided which one will work better for his relationship with Aurora to

(29)   HER HUSBAND [grinning] Apjohn [i.e. Henry]: that's really very ready of you. You are cut out for literature; and the day will come when Rory and I will be proud to have you about the house. I have heard far thinner stories from much older men.
Teddy indirectly accuses him of lying.

(30)   HE. Oh, I don't mind. I am past minding anything. I have grown too fast this evening.
He is unclear to imply that he went through a lot of situations that made him more mature and indifferent about anything else that may happen.

6. Discussion

The analysis of the conversations between the characters of the playlet revealed various instances of violation and flouting of conversational maxims due to various reasons, such as politeness, caution, fear and deception. This is particularly true for Henry, the young lover, who tries to satisfy and comfort Aurora, the married beloved, in every possible way and thus flouting such maxims as relevance (through changing the topic) and manner (by being vague about what could happen concerning the issue of his poems for Aurora). Besides, he blatantly violates the maxim of quality in his attempt to hide the truth about his relation with Aurora from her husband Teddy. Aurora, on the other hand, mostly violates and flouts the quantity and quality maxims because she is embarrassed and confused about what she should do with Henry and the issue of the poems, so she sometimes gives too much or too little information and other times she tells lies to hide the truth because she does not want to lose her lover and, at the same time, she does not want to destroy her marriage. We can eventually notice that the maxims of manner and quality are the ones mostly violated or flouted because the two major characters do not want to be transparent or truthful about the inappropriate relationship between them.

7. Conclusion

It can be concluded that the characters use various strategies to manipulate, deceive and lie to each other. This is reflected in the tricky ways they use in their arguments. In fact, the closer we get to the end of the playlet, we find more and more instances of violation of quality maxim especially on the part of the young man who uses different tricks to hide the truth about this relationship with the married woman. It can also be noticed that most of the conversational implicatures are derived through the violation and flouting of maxims of manner and quality because the characters do their best to either be vague about the truth or completely deny it.

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Cooperative Learning Fosters Students Engagement in The Learning Process

Suleyman CELIK

Ishik University

ABSTRACT

Student engagement in the learning process, or engaged learning time, is a key behavior that refers to the amount of time students devote to learning in a classroom. Even though a teacher may be task oriented, providing maximum content coverage, the students may be disengaged. This means they are not actively thinking about, working with, or using what is being presented. Such disengagements prevent learning in the classroom. One way of engaging the students to the learning process is cooperative learning that motivates all the learners to participate to the courses actively. This study examines how cooperative learning engages and motivates the diverse students in reading classes of English Preparatory School of Ishik University to the learning environment. An engagement rate tally and pre and post examinations were used to gather data about students' actively engagement in the learning process. The preliminary results of the research show that students from different level participate the learning process actively and their exam results improve when cooperative learning is used. It can be concluded that students' participation in the learning process positively correlates with the lesson delivery that arouse their motivation and attraction.

Keywords: Cooperative Learning, Engage in the Learning Process, Motivation Reading, Success

Introduction

Student engagement in the learning process, or engaged learning time, is a key behavior that refers to the amount of time students devote to learning in the classroom. Student engagement is related to but different from a teacher task orientation. Teacher task orientation should provide students the greatest possible opportunity to learn and practice the material to be assessed.

Distinct from the task orientation or the amount of time that a teacher devotes to teaching a topic is the time that students are actively engaged in learning the material being taught. This has been called their engagement rate (Borich, 2011), or the percentage of time

devoted to learning when the students are actually on task, engaged with the instructional materials, and benefitting from the activities being presented. Even though a teacher may be task oriented, providing maximum content coverage, the students may be disengaged. This means they are not actively thinking about, working with, or using what is being presented (Borich, 2008).

Such disengagement can involve an emotional or mental detachment from the lesson that may or may not be obvious. When students jump out of their seats, talk, read a magazine, or leave for the restroom, they obviously not engaged in instruction. Students also can be disengaged in far more subtle ways, such as looking attentive while their thoughts are many miles away. An unpleasant fact of life is that one-quarter of a class may be off task at any time, distracted for personal reasons that are often amplified by an impending lunch period, the day before a holiday or a Friday afternoon (Thursday afternoons in Iraq). Correcting this type of disengagement may be difficult, requiring changes in the structure of the task itself and the cognitive demands placed on the learner (Baum, Viens, & Slatin, 2005).

Several authors (Evertson, 1995; Kuh, Kinzie, Smith, & Whitt, 1995) have contributed useful suggestions for increasing learning time and more importantly student engagements during learning. Those teaching practices have been found to be beneficial for small groups that are learning cooperatively (Anderson, Stevens, Prawat, & Nickerson, 1988).

Today's classrooms are consist of with different types of learners, the classes are very large and teaching is mainly teacher-centered where the not all of the students can use critical thinking, reasoning and problem-solving skills. Furthermore, teaching and learning time is not adequate for the teachers and students to cope with so many students. Cooperative learning is an approach where there is always interaction between the students, student teacher and teacher- student. As a result the students can learn better by interacting with each other. Also by bringing them together in adult like settings to provide appropriate models of social behavior, cooperative learning instills in learners improvement behaviours that prepare them to reason and perform in an adult world (Greeno, 2006; Jacobs, Power, & Loh, 2002).

One of the aims of Cooperative learning is to engage the students in the learning process and promote higher patterns of behavior. CL has been linked to increases in the academic achievement of learners at all ability levels ((Stevenson & Slavin, 2005). Cooperative learning actively engages students in the learning process and seeks to improve their critical-thinking, reasoning and problem solving. Critical thinking cannot occur outside a context of attitudes and values, prosaically behavior, alternative perspectives, and an integrated identity. But together with these outcomes, cooperative learning can provide the ingredients for higher thought processes and set them to work on realistic and adultlike tasks.

These higher thoughts processes are believed to be stimulated more by interaction with others than by books and lectures, which typically are not interactive. Books and lectures may be useful for teaching knowledge, comprehension and application, but they seldom are sufficient to bring about the private, inner speech required for thinking, reasoning and problem solving in real-life settings. These behaviors require interaction with others, as well as oneself, to unleash the motivation required for thinking and performing in complex ways. Researches have specifically studied whether cooperative tasks affect learning outcomes positively. Also they have investigated whether group cohesion, cooperative behaviour, and intergroup relations are improved through cooperative learning procedures. In some of their investigations they have examined the effects of cooperative task on traditional learning tasks, in which students are presented with material to master.

Cooperative learning groups generate the type of energy that results in improved academic learning. In classrooms organized so that students work in pairs and larger groups, tutor each other, and share ideas, there is greater mastery of material than with the common individual-study-cum- recitation pattern. The shared responsibility and interaction also produces more positive feelings toward tasks and others, generates better intergroup relations, and results in better self-images for students with histories of poor achievement. In other words, the results generally affirm the assumptions that underlie the use of cooperative learning methods (Sharan, 1990).

Some exciting studies of the cooperative procedures occur when it is combined them with models from other families in an effort to combine the effects of several models. For example , Baveja, Showers and Joyce (Baveja, Showers, & Joyce, 1985) conducted in India where concept attainment and inductive procedures were carried out in cooperative groups. The effects fulfilled the promise of the marriage between the information-processing and social models, reflecting gains that were twice those of a comparison group that received intensive individual and group tutoring over the same material.

Cooperative learning also improves the students' critical thinking ability as well as reasoning and problem-solving skills are of much use if they are applied in cooperative interaction with others. Besides, self-directed and cooperative learning share the complementary objectives of engaging students in the learning process and promoting more complex patterns of behavior.

2. Method

Participants: The participants were 48 English Language Preparatory School students. Those students were grouped as pre-intermediate experimental group and control group.

The size of the classroom in control group was 23 and in experimental group was 25. The mean age of the subjects in the study was 19.3. There were 13 female and 10 male students in the control group whereas, 12 female and 13 male students in the experimental group. Design: The most important part of the Cooperative learning is to divide the learners into the groups based on certain criteria. The population of this experiment was divided into 5 groups which consist of 5 students seem to work best, though depending on the task. Determining how the groups will be formed can be more complicated, since ideally the groups should be diverse enough to include students with a range of intellectual abilities, academic interests, and cognitive styles. Allowing students to select their own group members can work well in small classes, but this method always runs the risk of further isolating some students or creating cliques within the class as a whole. Those groups were formal groups and rely on student team learning methods, which include team rewards, individual accountability, and equal opportunities for success.

Instruments Procedure: This action research was conducted in the preparatory school of English Language at Ishik University. The study groups were pre intermediate level of English Language learners. One group was the experiment group and the other was the control group. Not only the test scores were very low, also their interest in reading was almost nothing. Those students do not like reading even in their mother tongue. So there were barriers in front of their understanding reading. Moreover, as a result of demotivated and negative attitudes toward reading generally classroom management became a tough and difficult issue.

Before the beginning of the study, the students had been observed and shared the ideas with the other instructors who were teaching them. And also a Multiple Intelligence Inventory test was conducted to decide the students' dominant intelligence. A personal questionnaire was conducted to figure out their socio economic status and their background knowledge in education. It was seen that the students were different in cognitive, socio economic and background knowledge. I tried to focus on these differences while creating the groups. Later on a pre test was held in reading whether they were good or not.

By implementing a cooperative learning activity in reading class, I tried to improve the students' academic and social interaction and decrease their difficulties in the classroom environment. I have had my students to employ collaborative learning in a systematic way. At the very beginning the easiest way of cooperative learning strategies were planned. The students were grouped as ''help line'' groups. Group members would work together to understand the difficult tasks or reading texts. They would make corrections to mistakes by relying on a group member who understood the text and got the correct answer.

The group would also study together before each test and on certain times with the goal of improving the groups' understanding of reading.

It was known that much of the success of those groups rest on their composition, and much work have been devoted to ensure that they are heterogeneous in many ways. First of all, the students' achievement scores and past grades in reading were checked and made sure all levels were represented within each group. It was also maintained cognitive diversity within the groups, as well as a male female balance reflective of the class. I tried to split up cliques and special friends and to mix shy with more outgoing students.

To communicate properly, each group member should be able to read fluently and know the key vocabularies to understand the text. Answering the comprehension questions were not enough. Participation was very important. All students had to play active roles in their group; there was mutual responsibility and benefit, shared identity, and joint celebration of success.

To show respect and support for each other, students were not to engage in ridicule or sarcasm. Instead they had to try to say constructive things about fellow group members.

Group work can easily get out of hand in the excitement, controversy, and natural dialogue that can come from passionate discussion. This possibility requires the teachers to place limits on each stage of the cooperative learning activity, so one stage does not take time from another and leave the task disjointed and incomplete in the learners' minds.

Most time, naturally, was devoted to the work of individual groups, during which the major portion of the end product would be completed. Individual group work normally would consume 60% to 80% of the time devoted to the cooperative learning activity. The remaining time divided among individual group presentations and whole class discussion and debriefing that places the group work into the perspective of a single end product.

The students were encouraged to accept the individual responsibility and idea sharing in a cooperative learning experience by making role assignments within groups and by applying task specialization across groups. These roles and responsibilities were used to complement group work and to interconnect the groups. Some effective cooperative learning role functions were assigned within the groups. These are: Summarizer, Checker, Researcher, Runner, Recorder, Supporter, Observer/ troubleshooter.

3. Results

The first and foremost job of reading teachers is to teach participants to be fluent and strategic readers by using cooperative learning instruction to various types of learners. Thus, an experiment was done and it was seen that implying cooperative learning instruction techniques were useful and beneficial for the learners. During the experiment held in 2011/2012 academic year all the students involved in the study were administrated one pre-

test, three achievement exanimations and a post-test to illustrate the changes in students' reading skills. Doing those examinations enabled me to see how cooperative learning and teaching activities affected the students' progress in reading courses. From an inspection of all those examinations of the reading courses, there seemed to be significant differences arising. Both the experiment and control groups had to take the same examinations, which identified the differences between the groups. The results were an important measure of how cooperative grouping affected the students' reading proficiency. SPSS 19.0 was used to analyze the results. It is shown in Table 3. 7.

Table 1.1 Descriptive statistics for the pre-test, achievement examinations and post-test of the control group and experimental groups at pre-intermediate level of English

	N	Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PRETEST (experimental)	25	42	84	68.48	14.145
PRETEST (control)	23	32	77	58.72	15.238
ACHIEVEMENT1 (experimental)	25	34	77	60.87	13.616
ACHIEVEMENT1 (control)	23	20	96	58.88	27.24
ACHIEVEMENT2 (experimental)	25	34	88	67.61	12.862
ACHIEVEMENT2 (control)	23	24	84	59.88	17.548
ACHIEVEMENT3 (experimental)	25	40	100	76.96	19.641
ACHIEVEMENT3 (control)	23	29	72	57.36	11.489
POSTTEST (experimental)	25	52	100	88.96	16.772
POSTTEST (control)	23	38	94	64.8	15.168

It is worth noting that at the beginning of the study the English language level of the two classes were nearly the same according to the placement test. As it is seen in the table, the experimental group showed a mean of 68.48 in the proficiency pre-test and 88.96 in the post-test (an increase of 20.48 points), while the control group showed a mean of 58.72 in pre-test and 64.80 in post-test (a less increase of 6.08).

Besides, though in the first achievement examination the mean of the experimental group was lower than the pre-test examination, probably, because until the first examination the students in the experimental group were trying to get used to the MI teaching activities, finally they received higher grades, besides, the grades were stably growing (60.87 → 67.61 → 76.96). In the control group the situation wasn't as good (58.88→ 59.88→ 57.36): the level of the skills didn't really increase, but just fluctuated. Analogous results were received in intermediate level experimental and control groups.

Looking specifically at the program and data on students' activities suggested some reasons why their reading skills improved.

Firstly, although the curriculum was designed the same with the control group, in the experimental group there were many different activities on the same curriculum both inside and outside the classroom based on the cooperative group work. While the control group was just taught in a traditional way, the experimental group worked as collaboratively With the help of each other , more than half of the experimental group students' reading level was significantly developed. In addition, all the students in the experimental group could go to the Learning Centers for self-study and cooperative study to complete their assignments and to do the activities as they wished. This did not mean extra time for the students of the experimental groups compared to the students of the control groups, as the students from the latter groups also could do extra studies at school on in class (thus, the controlled time variable did not change in any group). But it could have contributed to better results of experimental group (it created a positive environment not only for classwork, but also for homework).

This provided students a self-esteem and enthusiasm towards reading. Choosing to do activities which were adequate to their intelligence type made the experimental group' students motivated more than those from the control group. Motivation and attitudes were further transformed to the learning action. As a result, with the cooperative group work students' reading abilities obviously improved more than that of the control group students.

4. Discussion

Researchers have specifically studied whether cooperative tasks and reward structures affect learning outcomes positively. Also, they have asked whether group cohesion, cooperative behavior, and intergroup relations are improved through cooperative learning procedures. In this study it has been examined the effects of cooperative task and reward structures on 'traditional' learning tasks, in which students are presented with material to master.

The cooperative groups generate the type of energy that results in improved academic learning. The evidence is largely affirmative. In classrooms organized so that students work in pairs and larger groups, tutor each tutor, and share rewards, there is greater mastery of material than with the common individual-study-cum-recitation pattern. The shared responsibility and inter-action also produces more positive feelings toward tasks and others, generates better intergroup relations, and results in better self-images for students with histories of poor achievement. In other words, the results generally affirm the assumptions that underlie the use of cooperative learning methods (Sharan, 1990).

In our classrooms cooperative learning was an innovation found that it was easy to organize students in to pairs and triads. And it gets effects immediately. The combinations of social support and the increase in cognitive complexity caused by the social interaction have mild

but rapid effects on the learning of the content and skills. In addition, partnerships in learning provide a pleasant laboratory in which to develop social skills and empathy for others. Off-task and disruptive behavior diminish substantially. Students feel good in cooperative settings, and positive feelings toward self and others are enhanced.

Another nice feature that I met was that the students with poorer academic histories benefit so quickly. Partnerships increase involvement, and the concentration on cooperation has had the side effect of reducing self-absorption and increasing responsibility for personal learning. Whereas the effect sizes on academic learning were modest but consistent, the effects on social learning and personal esteem could be considerable when comparisons were made with individualistic classroom organizations.

5. Results

This action research lasted nearly six months with the pre intermediate students of Preparatory school at Ishik University. Many types of activities were done in the groups and many of the students succeed their goals in reading classes. First of all, the synergy generated in cooperative settings generated more motivation than do individualistic, competitive environments. Integrative social groups were, in effect, more than the sum of their parts. The feeling of connectedness produced positive energy. In addition, the members of cooperative group learnt from one another. Each learner had more helping hands than in a structure that generated isolation. Next, interacting with one another produces cognitive as well as social complexity, creating more intellectual activity that increases learning when contrasted with solitary study. Furthermore, cooperation increased positive feelings towards one another, reducing alienation and loneliness, building relationships and affirmative views of other people. It also increased the self-esteem not only through increased learning but also through the feeling of being respected and cared for by the others in the environment. The study also showed that the students whose prior knowledge was really so bad increased their reading skills. Their gradually increasing grades shows that they achieved the objectives of the lesson. Also, students could respond to experience in tasks requiring cooperation by increasing their capacity to work productively together. In other words, the more the learners are given the opportunity to work together, the better they get at it, which benefits their general social skills. Consequently all students can learn from training to increase their ability to work together.

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Decoding meaning in reading comprehension module/ EFL classes: Factors that cause difficulties and strategies that fulfill the purpose.

Bikhtiyar Omar Fattah

Hawkar Omar Ali

University of Koya

ABSTRACT

This study is titled " Decoding the meaning in reading comprehension module/ EFL classes: Factors that cause difficulties and strategies that fulfill the purpose". Although students may know the denotative meaning of all words and phrases within a sentence or a passage, they fail in catching the right interpretation of them. Therefore, this study aims at considering the problems that are associated with the decoding process of meaning, and recommending the strategies that help in deriving the accurate meaning of words and larger units in texts. Decoding meaning of words, and deriving the accurate theme of larger units in texts are very challenging tasks, especially for EFL learners. These challenges in Reading Comprehension module can be noticeably observed in EFL classes. To address this problem, this study considers the difficulties that EFL students face, and examines the factors that cause failure in decoding the accurate meaning. As a consequence, the indicated factors can function as a basis to recommend the most manipulated strategies that can contribute in the process of decoding meaning. This study will be a significant endeavor in developing the English language learners' reading comprehension skill in a way that can help both EFL teachers and students to get familiar with the factors that impede the process of decoding meaning, and gain insight into the strategies that engage in that process.

Keywords: Decoding Meaning, Decoding Strategies, Early experience strategy, Word Recognition strategy.

1. Introduction

It is evident for language instructors that EFL learners' problem is most likely associated with their failure in indicating the contextual meaning of the lexical words although they know the denotative meaning(s) of the concerned words. Almost all the studies that examine the contextual meaning of words and larger units of text, such as Brown and Yule (1983); Shankweiler (1989); Lin (2002); and Hadley (2003) agree that deriving the actual meaning of the lexical words, sentences and the larger units of statements is a challenging process,

especially for learners in EFL classes, because they may fail in determining the precise meaning of words and sentences. As a consequence, they cannot understand what does the sentence mean and/or what is the passage about.Thus, decoding meaning is regarded as one of the most problematic issue in teaching Reading Comprehension Model.

Decoding is a very comprehensive word which may result in a kind of misunderstanding in terms of meaning and use. The academic studies, and the resources that have been consulted in this study have used the notion of decoding to stand for word recognition, word identification, and word interpretation. Although, to a different degree, all the above mentioned terms deal with the meaning of words, the notion of decoding is the most accurate one because it can represent both word recognition, and the meaning of word and larger linguistic units.

Precisely, there is no consensus among the linguists concerning the definition of decoding, because this term has been defined from different perspectives. For instance, Carreker (2011: 3) defines decoding as "the ability to recognize words in print without conscious effort". Carreker only concentrates on the form of the words as a symbol that represents a particular meaning in a way that she has ignored all the aspects that contribute in the process of decoding the accurate meaning of words. Moreover, Scarborough (2001) Snowling (2002), and Nation (2005) mainly associate the notion of decoding with reading performance accuracy, and pay less attention to the meaning derivation. However, correlation between meaning and decoding has been comprehensively considered in the works by Shankweiler. According to Shankweiler (1989: 38), decoding is the process of interpreting the meaning of the words, phrases and statements that the writer of a passage intends to convey. Shankweiler adds that "comprehending the meaning of sentences and the larger units of text depends on correct comprehension of the individual words" (Ibid). Although word recognition is essential to understand the meaning of a word, a sentence and a larger linguistic unit, it does not always work. In order to have the right interpretation of words, and be able to comprehend the actual meaning of the concerned sentences and texts, EFL students should first make distinction between the denotative meaning and the connotative meaning of words. Denotation is defined as the dictionary meaning of the word that shows the relationship between "a linguistic unit (especially a lexical item) and the non-linguistic entities to which it refers" (Crystal, 2003: 129). Whereas connotation is defined as a type of lexical meaning in which "its main application is with reference to the emotional associations (personal or communal) which are suggested by, or are part of the meaning of, a linguistic unit, especially a lexical item"(Ibid: 97). Precisely, the accuracy in decoding the meaning of words requires some information about the word such as, the linguistic correlation, the context and/or the personal skills and experience.

This study is designed to figure out the factors that prevent EFL learners in catching the intended meanings of sentences and texts on the one hand, and to determine the strategies that can orient EFL students in this process. Moreover, this study also helps EFL instructors who teach Reading Comprehension Module get a deep insight into the nature of problems, and be familiar with the implementation of the strategies in the process of decoding meaning as a consequence, they know how to manage such a kind of class well.

2. Strategies for decoding meaning

There are many strategies that can be engaged in the process of determining the right intended meaning of words. However, this study considers three essential strategies in connection to decoding the meaning of words which are word recognition strategy, linguistic strategy, and contextual strategy. In addition to these strategies, early knowledge and skills strikingly contribute in the decoding process of meaning. Sometimes, EFL students need to consider all these strategies and contributions at a time to determine the meaning of words or larger units of context, whereas sometimes one of the aforementioned strategies can fulfill this purpose. This study basically examines all these strategies in terms of their degree of use by the students, and their significances, and ignorance consequences in meaning derivation.

2.1. Word recognition strategy

The first attempt towards decoding the meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and/or larger contexts is word recognition. According to Harris & Hodges (1995: 283), word recognition is "the process of determining the pronunciation and some degree of meaning of a word in written or printed form." It is very common that the first attempt of EFL students starts with recognizing the form and the pronunciation of a word in order to catch its meaning.

Indeed, word recognition is not always helpful to decode the accurate meaning of a word, as Nagy (1998:7) states that the "lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge is already an obvious and serious obstacle for many students". The first step to derive accurate meaning of the words and/or larger units starts with the recognition of the form, denotative meaning and position of the words. Although the form and the position of words in context sometimes help to determine the meaning of words, these contributions do not always bring about accurate meaning.

Moreover, for Aarnoutse et al. (2001: 63), "vocabulary refers to the knowledge of lexical meanings of words and the concepts connected to these meanings". The notion of knowledge that is given in his definition to vocabulary is a very comprehensive word. Knowledge involves

information about the form, the function, the part of speech, the denotative meaning of the words, and the position of the word, as well as the impact of linguistic and contextual factors. Here, at the level of word recognition, the form, the denotative meaning, and the parts of the speech of the words are considered. For instance, the common meaning of the word court is a (tribunal presided over by a judge, judges, or a magistrate in civil and criminal cases), where it can be used in different contexts to stand for different meanings such as, playground, session, large building, and some others. Moreover, the word court has both the verb and the noun form. Thus, the accurate meaning of the word court cannot be achieved by word recognition strategy. This diversity in the meaning of the same word cause confusion to the EFL students.

Another problem that faces EFL students in the process of word recognition is associated with confusable words and expressions. According to Swan, Michael (2005), confusable words such as, altogether and all together; beat and win; beside and besides; born and borne; fit and suit; principal and principle, and many more other pair of words cause confusion in the process of reading comprehension. For instance, all the dictionaries states that altogether means "completely" or "considering everything" (see example 1), whereas all together means "everyone" or "everything" (see example 2).

(1)   His new apartment is not altogether finished.

(2)   They went to the party all together.

Although word recognition sometimes helps the EFL student to identify the meaning of words, the process of word recognition by itself is a big challenge. Thus, a part from all the problems that are associated with the word recognition, still students may fail in identifying the precise meaning of words.

3.2. Linguistic approach

It is evident that the elements and components of phrases, sentences and texts should be linguistically organized to fulfill their function, because having the right grammatical formulae is an inevitable condition to bring about meaningful sentences. Simultaneously, any failure in determining the grammatical functions and forms of the elements of sentences causes failure in the process of decoding the meaning. Therefore, linguistic elements and the nature of relationship among them play a great role in the process of meaning decoding.

The recognition of words in terms of their linguistic functions sometimes can help to catch their accurate meaning. For instance, the position of the word friendly in the sentences (3.a, and 3.b), affects the function and the meaning of it. The word friendly in (3.a) functions as an adjective to present that friendliness is one of the characteristics that Sara is recognized

by, whereas the word friendly in (3.b) functions as an adverb to describe how Sara behaved in a particular context.

3. a. Sara is friendly

3. b. Sara behaved friendly

The structure of English sentences is sometimes so complex that even EFL language teachers face difficulty in determining the precise meaning of such kind of sentences. For example, the sentence (number 4) that is taken from a passage titled "Thames waters" by Roger Pilkington in a second year module book "fluency in English" demonstrates how difficult is that sentence to comprehend, especially for EFL students.

1- That this has not happened may be the fault of the university, for at both Oxford and Cambridge the colleges tend to live in an era which is certainly not of the twentieth century, and upon a planet which bears little resemblance to the war-torn Earth.

In order to comprehend complex sentences, EFL students should first get familiar with the issues that make sentences complex, because students cannot understand the precise meaning of words, phrases, and larger units unless they recognize the elements and the factors that result in such complexity. According to Scott and Balthazar (2013), noun phrase expansion, subordinated clause embedment, movements, ellipsis, and many other issues are behind complexity.

(5) The tall girl standing in the corner who became angry because you knocked over her glass after you waved to her when you   entered is Mary Smith. *(Quirk et al., 1985: 1238)*

(6) The suspect admits stealing a car from a garage, but he cannot remember which. (Ibid, 885)

EFL students definitely face difficulties in highlighting the noun phrases, the clauses, the types of clauses, the subject, the main verb, the object, and the other elements in independent clause and in subordinate clause(s) as in the example (5). This ignorance to the function and the form of these elements in that sentence prevents the students from understanding it. Due to the elliptical process, the example (6) becomes an ambiguous sentence, because what is elliptic after the word "which", at the end of the sentence, is confusing in a way that the word which can mean (which car) or (which garage). In such cases, drawing on a sentence out of the context can cause misapprehension. In other words, even if an EFL student recognizes the meaning and the form of all elements in that sentence, and also s/he is fully aware that there are elliptic words in it stills/he cannot make the right interpretation of the sentence.

3.3. Contextual approach

Context is one of the most essential strategies that contribute in the process of decoding the precise meaning of words and larger linguistic units in texts. The other aforementioned strategies sometimes fail to provide the accurate interpretation of text and language components; therefore it is the context that can be depended on to fulfill the purpose.

Context is defined as "a frame that surrounds the event being examined and provides resources for its appropriate interpretation" (Duranti and Goodwin, 1992: 3). The notion of context is a very comprehensive word that covers all the aspects that engage in the process of decoding meaning. According to Hymes, 1967, cited by Lindstorm (1992: 103), "context is often further sorted and broken down into various component elements such as settings, scenes, participants, ends, topic, tones, channels, codes, norms, genres, and so on" . Although contextual components of spoken language differ from those of texts, the elements that are recommended by Hymes represent all the issues that affect the meaning in texts. However, this study focuses on identifying the contextual elements that exclusively affect texts in general, and reading comprehension texts in particular. These contextual components are the setting, the topic, the linguistic aspects, genres, cultural background of the writer, and cultural background and experience of the readers. All these aspects at a time or separately affect the comprehending effort of the EFL learners to a particular word, sentence or text.

Basically, there is always a noticeable interrelation between text and context as it is stated by Lindstorm (1992: 102) that "if context informs the text, so can a text inform its context". This statement clearly shows the process of text composition and its elements interpretation. The original function and the authentic uses of car horn sound as a very simple example to support that statement. Car horn sound is originated to be used by driver as a means of warning passersby, whereas on the ground it is used to mean high, open the way, come on, fuck, and many more meanings. This means that the same car horn sound in different contexts and settings can have different meanings. The meaning of words and the larger linguistic units is just like the meaning of the car horn sound that cannot be precisely interpreted unless the reader observes the impact of contextual components. Thus, this study examines the extent to which EFL learners familiar with the contextual impact on the decoding meaning.

3. 4. Early Decoding Experience

Early experience plays a great role in the process of decoding. The significance of the early experience role can be observed in the findings of many studies. It has been approved that

it helps EFL students to have right interpretation of the meaning of words and sentences. As a consequence, it assists to derive the intended meaning of the text as a whole. The notion of the early experience is comprehensive, because it covers both students' early skills and students' early knowledge.

3.4.1 Early Decoding Skills

The students' early skills significantly contribute in the process of decoding the right meaning of words, phrases and sentences. According to Beck and Juel (1995: 10), "early attainment of decoding skill is important because this early skill accurately predicts later skill in reading comprehension". A successful reading comprehension attempt is associated with the EFL students' competence that is built in the previous academic stages. The competence can be achieved through students' constant practice and their familiarity with approaches to reading comprehension.

Wide reading is one of the factors that help EFL students to improve their comprehending skill to words and concepts (Ibid). It helps EFL students to grow in vocabularies and how to catch their meaning in various contexts. According to Pikulski and Templetion (2004: 9), "through wide independent reading, students come in contact with vocabulary that rarely occurs in spoken language but that is much more likely to be encountered in printed language

3.4.2 Prior Knowledge

There are many factors that engage in the process of text interpretation. Lin (2002) and Eskey (1986: 18) believe that readers' prior knowledge plays a crucial role in reading comprehension to bring about a successful interpretation/comprehension process. Eskey (1986: 18) categorizes reading knowledge into 'knowledge of form' and 'knowledge of substance'. The knowledge of form is concerned with the reader's knowledge about the language of the text which embraces the recognition of "graphophonic, lexical, syntactic/semantic and rhetorical patterns of language" (Ibid). Knowledge of substance beholds "cultural, pragmatic and subject-specific information" to fill the readers in with certain expectations about the larger conceptual structure of the text (Ibid). Orasanu (1986: 32) adds that "the knowledge a reader brings to a text is a principal determiner of how that text will be comprehended, and what may be learned and remembered".

Moreover, the "general knowledge about the world underpins our interpretation not only of discourse, but of virtually every aspect of our experience"(Brown and Yule, 1983: 233). General knowledge that the language learners have usually plays a great contribution in the process of decoding the meaning of words, sentences and the larger units of paragraph. For example, before making the last decision concerning conducting this study we (the

researchers of this study) decided to attend two different EFL classes and asked the attended students about the meaning of the 'court' in this sentence 'there was a struggle between the court and the peasants', some of the students directly gave the most common denotative meaning of the word court which is 'an authority having power to adjudicate in civil and criminal matters', due to their ignorance to the rest denotative meaning of that word, and their restricted general knowledge about the problem between monarchical authorities and peasants about land ownership in the past, whereas some other students were fully aware that the word 'court' in the above mentioned sentence does not stand for its most common meaning 'an authority having power to adjudicate in civil and criminal matters'; however, they failed derive the accurate meaning of 'court' in this sentence. This ensured us that the experience, prior general knowledge highly contributes in the process of meaning decoding.

4. The Methodology

The current paper aims at exploring students' ability to guess the correct meaning of words and larger linguistic units in reading comprehension module. To fulfill this aim, this study diagnoses the factors that prevent the students from deriving the accurate meaning of words, phrases and as a consequence the concerned text on the one hand, and recommends the strategies that contribute in the process of meaning decoding. Therefore, this study works on two research questions which are: determining the factors that cause misinterpretation, and identifying the strategies that can help students to bring about accurate interpretations. In order to find answers for the research questions, this paper adopts both quantitative and qualitative studies. For the quantitative study a reading comprehension test was conducted, and for the qualitative study some of the participants were administered a questionnaire.

4.1. The Participants

The participants of this study are third year students of English department/Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Koya University in Kurdistan Region-Iraq. Third year students have been taught Reading Comprehension module for two years (in the first and second year), which means that they are to some extent familiar with the factors and strategies.

Twenty-six students (15 males and 11 females) were tested and answered all the questions. When the students completed the test, they were asked to participate in the second phase which was the questionnaire. Fortunately, they all volunteered to participate in the second phase as well. Then, they are given enough time to answer all the questions.

4.2. The Instruments

This study uses two different instruments. The first instrument is a reading comprehension test (see appendix 1). To understand the students competence in decoding the meaning of words and larger units in a reading comprehension text the students were tested in. The test consisted of two sections: a reading comprehension passage and three sentences. Several words were bolded in the sentences and in the text; and the students were asked to provide the appropriate meaning of the bolded words. Further, there were other types of reading comprehension test such as multiple choice and pronoun-reference question. The words were formulated in accordance with the strategies and approaches of decoding meaning.

The second instrument was a questionnaire (see appendix 2). It consists of two parts: the first part is a closed-ended questionnaire, and the second part is an open-ended questionnaire. The questions are prepared to explore the strategies that the students use to derive the accurate meaning of words. Besides, other questions are designed for the questionnaire to discover the factors that impede the students from decoding the precise meaning of words and larger linguistic units.

5. The results

After the process of data collection and the data analysis, this study has brought about the results below:

5.1. The test-results: section one

In this section, the students were asked to provide the accurate synonym or precise explanation of some underlined words in four different sentences. To begin with, the majority of the students (18 out of 26) have provided the correct meaning of the first underlined word (account), whereas the majority of the participants (i.e. 17 out of 26) failed to provide the synonym or the right explanation for the second underlined word (courting). Concerned the third underlined word (book), all the students could give the right synonym or a suitable explanation. Finally, most of the participants (21 out of 26) could accurately guess the meaning of the underlined word (sickle) of the fourth sentence.

5.2. The test-results: section two

The second section of the test involves a text and three related questions to the text. The first question requests the students to guess the meaning of several underlined words in the text which are offenders, tried, peers, and enshrined. The statistics of the students' responses vary. Firstly, More than half (14 out of 26) could tell the meaning of the first word (offenders), and the third word (peers) while the rest (12 of them - less than half) could not know the precise meaning of these two words. Moreover, among these four words, the

second word (tried) seems to be the easiest to comprehend among the underlined words, whereas the fourth one (enshrined) seems to be the most difficult one to guess its meaning. All the participants correctly provided the meaning of the third word (tried), whereas only (6 out of 26) provided the accurate meaning of the fourth word (enshrined).

In addition, the second question was a reference question. The students were asked to find out a word to which an underlined pronoun (their) refers. Surprisingly, half of the students (13 of them) chose a wrong word or phrase in the text. Finally, the third question asked the students to fill in a blank, in the text, with the most appropriate word (from four given words - a multiple choice question). The majority of the participants (19 of them) were successful in choosing the correct answer. However, seven of them had difficulty in determining the grammatical form of the sentence in which the required word was deliberately removed.

5.3. The closed-ended questionnaire-results

After the collection of the respondents' answers in the questionnaire and checking their answers to make sure about the number of the answered questions; fortunately, all the questions have been answered. As mentioned in the methodology, the questionnaire consisted of two parts: a closed-ended questionnaire and an open-ended questionnaire.

In the closed-ended questionnaire, the participants' replies to the question items are different. The first item asks the participants about the significance degree of realizing the denotative meaning of words or using dictionary in deriving the accurate meaning of a sentence or a text. The following table shows the results:

Table 1: Students' responses to question item one

1. To what extent do you agree with this statement? Realizing the denotative meaning of words or using a dictionary is always enough to catch the precise meaning of any sentences or texts.				
1. Totally agree	2. Agree	3. Neutral	4. Disagree	5. Totally disagree
(No one)	(16 students)	(3 students)	(7 students)	(No one)

Table 1 shows that the majority of the participants believe that realizing the denotative meaning of words and using a dictionary is always enough to catch the precise meaning of any sentences or texts, whereas only seven students disagreed with the statement. Unlike to these two groups, there were three students who are not sure about the statement.

Additionally, the second question item of this part asks the students about any reasons that helped them to provide an accurate synonym for the given words in the test-section. They had four options to choose. Table 2 better explains their responses:

Table 2: Students' responses to the question item two

What helped you in providing a precise synonym/meaning of a word during the test? Circle one (or more) of the following options:	Number of students
I have already known the denotative meaning of the word.	19
The grammatical position and the form of the word helped me to provide each synonym.	13
The context helped me to make that decision.	14
My early experience and cultural background helped me to make that decision.	17

Since the students had the chance to circle more than one option, they mostly chose more than one reason behind their decision in providing the correct synonym/ meaning of a word. As can be seen in Table 2, most of the participants (19 of them) reported that they already knew the denotative meaning of the word. Besides, half of them said that the grammatical position and the form of the word helped them to provide each synonym during the test. Moreover, more than half of the students (14 of them) informed that the context helped them to make that decision.

Furthermore, the majority (17 of them) acknowledged that their early experience and cultural background helped them to make that decision.

5.4 The open-ended questionnaire-results

The open-ended questionnaire is formulated to determine the students' difficulties while decoding the meaning of a word in a sentence or in a text. Further, it attempted to explore their strategies to overcome any obstacle they confront while decoding the meaning of difficult words or larger linguistic units. Thus, the participants were asked two questions.

The first question asks the students about the difficulties and problems they face in guessing the meaning of words within sentences and texts, whereas the second question asked the participants about their strategies to master the difficulties that they may face in the process of meaning decoding. Despite the fact that some of them had similar difficulties, they sometimes used similar strategies to overcome those difficulties. Thus, their answers revealed some worth mentioning points. Nevertheless, there were students who did not answer these two question items. Table 3 and Table 4 below present a list of difficulties that cause hindrance in deriving the accurate meaning of words and larger linguistic units, and strategies that they made use of them to overcome those difficulties. Similar answers are combined and written together. Further, uncompleted answers and irrelevant parts of

Table 3: Difficulties that the students face while decoding meaning

- o Phrasal verbs, collocations, idioms, slang words, literary words, old fashioned words, science-related words are the most challenging ones to determine their meanings.

- o The form of the word (especially difficult words) is confusing. If one doesn't know the form of a word, it will be difficult to comprehend its meaning.

- o Comprehending a sentence with more than one unfamiliar word is challenging.

- o Coming across to a word that is very similar to another word that one already knows. For example, *rogue* and *rouge* in which their spellings are quiet similar.

- o English words can stand for many different meanings. When one checks a dictionary for a word meaning, s/he comes across to many different meanings (sometimes more than 15 meanings). So, it is not easy to decide which one to choose.

- o Grammatical forms and rules sometimes are problematic, especially exceptions and irregular rules.

Table 3 shows that it is not that much easy to decide the meaning of a word in a sentence or in a text. The students reported several difficulties that challenge them when they try to decode meaning of words.

Table 4: Strategies they use to overcome difficulties in decoding meaning

o   Having many different dictionaries will be very helpful. For example, there are useful dictionaries for phrasal verbs, collocations and slangs. However, during exams, dictionaries are not allowed.

o   The function, the form and the position of the words, as well as considering the coherence, the cohesion, the anaphora, and grammatical rules and tenses of the text can help in determining the meaning of words or larger linguistic units.

o   Driving the precise meaning of a word in a text can be sometimes fulfilled by reading the whole sentence, or even the whole paragraph.

o   Recalling the personal experience and the general knowledge are sometimes helpful.

As it is seen in Table 4, the students declared some strategies to overcome those difficulties they face while decoding meaning. These strategies are very helpful for many situations to decode meaning of a word in a sentence or in a text. Sometimes on strategy can fulfill the purpose, whereas sometimes else one can make use of more than one strategy at a time to derive the meaning of a word. However, it does not always work. To illustrate, one of the students said "I use many strategies and I have achieved good results, but my strategies cannot guarantee me for every situation".

6. <u>Discussion of the results</u>

Based on the abovementioned analysis of the collected data, the results of the current study presents some interesting points to be discussed. Since they are the main concern of this study, the factors that cause difficulties in decoding meaning and strategies to overcome those difficulties are discussed and explained a little bit detailed in this section.

The results of the tests show that the participants had difficulties in decoding meaning of a word in a sentence or in a text. As it was expected, they could perform better to guess the

meaning of those words that look more familiar to them. So, word recognition strategy and early decoding experience seem to play a great role in decoding meaning. To illustrate, most of the students were successful in providing the accurate meaning for words like (account, book, tried) whereas most of them failed in decoding the meaning of (enshrined). However, this is not always true. For example, the word (sickle) is a word that may not be familiar enough to the most of the participants, but most of them could easily guess its meaning. How? It can be easily understood how they interpreted the meaning of this word when one has a look at the whole sentence. "In the past, farmers used <u>sickle</u> to harvest and cut wheat, barley, chickpea and some other\ types of corps". The contextual meaning and the linguistic meaning also play a role in decoding meaning of words in texts and sentences.

Moreover, sometimes, general knowledge may negatively affect some students; they may decide on the meaning of a word (because they have seen the word before) without thinking about its linguistic form and/or discourse function. So, another problem that causes misinterpretation or confusion is associated with the ignorance of the role of the context in deducing the meaning of a word. For example, once, the students were asked to replace the word '<u>courting</u>' by another word or phrase without affecting the meaning in this sentence 'John is <u>courting</u> the blue eyed girl in the class', but the majority of students failed to provide the accurate meaning of it. This example helped to discover that: to understand the meaning of a lexical word or a sentence, students usually either concentrate on the word that they do not know its meaning or directly go to the common denotative meaning of the word, then the sentence, but in fact the students are supposed to go to the sentence first to derive the meaning of the word occurs in. In the other words, students concentrate on the word that do not know it's accurate meaning to understand the sentence rather than concentrating on the rest words of the sentence to infer the meaning of the confusing word.

Furthermore, students sometimes may experience difficulties in pronoun reference. This is another issue that this research wanted to focus on. The findings showed that it is not easy to refer a pronoun to a word or phrase, especially when many different nouns are preceding that pronoun in the same sentence. Further, it sometimes happens that grammatical forms confuse students. In the test, a word was intentionally removed from the text, and the students had to find the correct word among four given words. The grammatical forms of the given words were different (complain, complaint, complains, complaints). To choose the correct option, the students had to first read the sentence and decide what parts of speech should be in that position. Then, they had to decide what grammatical forms should be in

In addition to those factors that are mentioned, the students reported several difficulties in the open-ended questionnaire. Chief among them, they stated that they mostly have difficulty in guessing the meaning of phrasal verbs, collocations, idioms, slangs, literary words, old-fashioned words and science-related words. If you take a word in a phrasal verb or in an idiom, it may have a meaning that is different from its ordinary meaning when it is alone. Further, slangs, old-fashioned words and science-related words are those words that students rarely face in their academic life. So, meanwhile the tests such as TOEFL and IELTS or reading a non-academic text, students often encounter difficulties in decoding meaning of such kind of words. Thus, teachers are encouraged to use authentic materials and help the students to read a lot. Moreover, word formation, grammatical structures, and spelling are other factors that cause troubles for the students to interpret the meaning of a word within a sentence or text. Sometimes, the form of the word or the grammatical form of the word is misleading. Sometimes, spelling leads them to confuse a word with another word which has a similar spelling. For example, the two words a student mentioned "rogue and rouge". Another difficulty can be the situation when more than one unknown word appears within the same sentence. Thus, it will not be that easy to understand the contextual meaning of a word. That is to say, it is not always easy to derive the meaning of a word through the meaning of the whole sentence or text, especially in sentences that beholds several unfamiliar words. Finally, the students revealed another problem while decoding meaning, especially when they check a dictionary for a word. Unlike their native language, there are many words in English language that have many different meanings. So, the decision to choose the most appropriate meaning is not easy.

The findings show that basing on the above mentioned difficulties the students suggest several strategies to overcome the difficulties that they face while decoding meaning. The first recommendation that is made by some of the students is that they need to have many different dictionaries to overcome the aforementioned difficulties. Nowadays, there are many useful dictionaries that include phrasal verbs, collocation, idioms and slangs. Those kinds of dictionaries may ease up the process of decoding meaning; however, this is not always helpful. One possible difficulty of this is –during the tests and exams the students are not allowed to use dictionary. Further, the results indicated that realizing the denotative meaning of a word or using a dictionary is very helpful to understand the precise meaning of a sentence or a text, but not always. Sometimes, even knowing the denotative meaning or dictionary meaning is not enough to decode a meaning. Moreover, to be able to understand the meaning of a word, students need to explore the grammatical form and function of the

be helpful: the form of the word; and the prefix and suffix (if any) of the word may help the students in decoding the meaning.

Additionally, the results of the closed-ended questionnaire showed that the students depend on some strategies and approaches to guess the meaning of an unknown word in a sentence and a text. Some of them are already mentioned in details such as the denotative meaning of the word, the grammatical position, the linguistic aspects, the form of a word, and the contextual meaning of the word. Further, the students' early experience, general knowledge and cultural background are sometimes helpful to decode the meaning of a word.

7. Conclusion

The most concluding points that have been derived throughout conducting this study are:

1. The nature of morphological structure and the irregularity in the word formation are very big challenging for EFL students to recognize and determine the meaning of words in English.

2. Phrasal verbs, collocations, idioms, slang words, literary words, old fashioned words, science-related words are usually confusing in terms of meaning derivation .

3. The complexity of the sentence structure and the state of the text formation in terms of cohesion, coherence, movements, and anaphora are sometimes misleading.

4. Earlier experience is helpful to decode the meaning of a word or larger linguistic units although it sometimes causes misunderstanding for EFL students, especially when the experience is associated with recalling only one meaning out of a larger group of the meanings that a word can stand for.

5. Realizing the denotative meaning of a word is not always helpful to derive the accurate meaning of a word.

6. Although word recognition strategy, linguistic strategy, contextual strategies, and/or earlier experience strategy can sometimes work alone in providing the accurate meaning of a word, it does not always fulfill the purpose unless two or more different strategies are observed at a time.

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Appendix 1: The Test
Section One
Provide either the right synonym or the precise explanation of the underlined words in the sentences below.

1. John gave us an interesting <u>account</u> of his travel in China.
1. John is <u>courting</u> the blue eyed girl in the class.
2. You can <u>book</u> a room in Sara hotel online.
4. In the past, farmers used <u>sickle</u> to harvest and cut wheat, barley, chickpea and some Other\ types of corps.
****

Section Two
Read this passage below and answer the questions that follow.
In the small city of Odessa, western Texas, local judicial authorities have reinterpreted the old legal principle that <u>offenders</u> should be <u>tried</u> by a jury of their <u>peers</u>. Odessa's "Teen Court" is one of over a thousand such courts in the USA, where teens themselves are responsible for trying and sentencing teenage offenders. It is worth mentioning that, when Thomas Jefferson and others drew up the American Declaration of Independence in 1776, one of the _____ that they made was that the King of England had deprived Americans of <u>their</u> right to trial by jury. Twelve years later, this right was <u>enshrined</u> in Article III of the new Constitution of the United States, where it has remained ever since.
1. Write down the meaning of the underlined words.
2. What does the underlined "<u>their</u>" refer to?
3. Fill in the blank (line 6) with the most appropriate word.
a. complain   b. complaint   c. complains   d. complaints
****

Appendix 2: The questionnaires

The closed-ended questionnaire:

1. Circle the option that best shows your agreement

To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Realizing the denotative meaning of words or using a dictionary is always enough to catch the precise meaning of any sentence or text.

| 1. Totally agree | 2. Agree | 3. Neutral | 4. Disagree | 5. Totally disagree |

2. What helped you in providing a precise synonym/meaning of a word during the test?

Circle one (or more) of the following options:

a. I have already known the denotative meaning of the word.

b. The grammatical position and the form of the word helped me to provide each synonym.

c. The context helped me to make that decision.

d. My early experience and cultural background helped me to make that decision.

The open-ended questionnaire:

1- What difficulties and problems do you face in guessing the meaning of words within sentences and texts?

2- What strategies do you use to overcome those difficulties you face while decoding meaning of words?

Differentiating Instructions by Using Multiple Teaching Ways in Reading Classes

Suleyman Celik

Ishik Universty

ABSTRACT

Learner diversity awareness in the classroom helps the teachers to adopt their instructional methods to the students' needs. Differentiated instruction approach focuses on the academic success of individual learners or small groups learners. Since not all the learners alike and needs and learning styles are different from each other, teachers can differentiate their teaching ways by taking into consideration of that learner diversity. One way of implementing differentiated instruction in the classroom is using Multiple Intelligence teaching strategies to accommodate the learning needs of all students. This study examines how Multiple Intelligence teaching strategies used as differentiated instructional methods and how it fosters the English Language Preparatory School students' improvement in reading classes. A questionnaire and an interview were used to collect date about students' perceptions of differentiated instruction, their attitudes toward reading, and motivation for reading. The results of the research show that the students from different academic level gained and improved their reading skills. All those different learners had a positive attitude toward reading, more confident and motivated. Thus, it can be concluded that implying multiple intelligence teaching ways as differentiating the instruction improves the students' self confident, motivation and success.

Keywords: Differentiated Instruction, Learner Diversity, Multiple Intelligence, Motivation, Reading Skills

Introduction

There is no doubt that in today's classrooms there is arrange of different level students this learner diversity can influence the outcomes of the instructors' teaching. 'Any observer in any classroom can quickly notice that learners vary in experience, socioeconomic status, culture and ethnicity, language and learning style'' (Borich G. D., 2011). These learner diversity influences what they learn and what and how the instructor teach (Banks J. , 1997); (Banks & Banks, 2001). After all, the teacher should teach the learners assigned them, regardless of their differences or special needs. But while trying to teach those varied

learners, VanSciever (VanScver, 2005) states that teachers face challenges. Imagine an English as Foreign Language classroom made up of 24 students with different learning styles, different background information, level of education and so on. One student may be reading at a high level, while the other is just spelling the words. One can understand the spoken language at B1 level, while the other is just saying the alphabet. In this case, the teachers should find different ways of teaching that meets the students' needs.

Researches have discovered that different instructional methods, if matched to the individual strengths and needs of learners, can significantly improve their achievement (Snow & Cronbach, 1981); (McTighe & Tomlinson, 2006). For example, student-centered discussions improve the achievement of highly anxious students by providing a more informal, nurturing climate, whereas teacher-centered lectures increase the achievement of low- anxiety students by allowing for a more efficient and faster pace. Researchers have found that achievement can be increased when the instructional method favors the learners' favored modalities for learning (Cushner, McClelland, & Safford, 2008).

One related approach to responding to learners' individual differences is called differentiated instruction. McBride (McBride, 2004) indicates that" Differentiated instruction is vital to effecting positive change in student performance, because one –strategy-fits all approach doesn't work in a real classroom"(p.39). Differentiated instruction focuses on the academic success of individual learners or small groups of learners rather than the whole class or groups of learners in the same classroom who may differ, for example, in English proficiency, number skills, or task relevant prior knowledge. Differentiated instruction is based on the premise that instructional approaches should also vary according to the individual whose academic success is or could be enhanced by a more targeted and individualized approach. To differentiate instruction is to recognize an individual student's learning history, background, readiness to learn, interests, and acquired skill set and then choose instructional strategies more tailored to a small group or an individual learner to speed academic success, which might be slowed if only large group instruction available. The goal of differentiated instruction, therefore, is to maximize each student's personal growth and academic success by meeting each student at his or her individual level and providing the needed instruction and resources to lift him or her to the next step on the learning ladder.

Tomlinson (Tomlinson C. , 2000) identifies three elements of the curriculum-content, process, and products- that can be differentiated to make instruction more responsive to the individual needs of learners.

In the content element differentiated can take the form of varying the modalities in which students gain access to important learning by a) listening, reading, and doing; b) presenting

content in incremental steps like rungs on a ladder and c) offering learners a choice in the complexity of content with which they will begin a learning task that matches their current level of understanding and from which every learner can experience academic success.

In the process period, differentiation takes the form of grouping flexibly, for example, by a) varying from whole class, to collaborative groups, to small groups, to individuals and b) providing incentives to learn based on a student's individual interests and current level of understanding.

During the products process Tomlinson (2004) suggests varying assessment methods by a) providing teachers a menu of choices that may include oral responses, interviews, demonstrations and reenactments, portfolios, and formal tests; b) keeping each learner challenged at his or her level of understanding with content at or slightly above his or her current level of functioning; and c) allowing students to have some choices in the means in which they may express what they know- for example, writing a story, drawing a picture, or telling about a real-life experience that involves what is being taught.

Tomlinson (2004) argues that the most important element in the differentiated instruction is that it provides the opportunity for the teacher to consider multiple characteristics of the learner simultaneously in choosing an instructional strategy for a particular learner and learning objective. Therefore differentiated instruction is ideally suited for a heterogonous classroom, in which learning histories, learning styles, learner interests, and skills as well as disabilities representing special populations may impair learning. Overall, the goal of differentiated instruction is to give learners alternate paths with which to learn. By varying teaching strategies, teacher makes sure that each student has the opportunity to learn in a manner compatible with his or her own learning strengths and preferences (Borich, 2011).

Since not all the learners alike to each other, it can be argued that there are as many methods of differentiated instruction as the number of learners in the classroom. 'There is no one –size- fits- all model'' says Huebnar ((Huebnar, 2010). As a way of differentiated instruction, Multiple Intelligence Theory can be implemented in the classrooms.

Multiple Intelligence Theory was proposed by Howard Gardner ((Gardner, 1983) a distinguished psychologist in Harvard University. In his theory of multiple intelligence, Gardner broadened the conceptions of intelligence to include not only the results of paper-and pencil tests but also knowledge of the human brain and sensitivity to the diverse of the human cultures. He also introduced the concept of an individual-centered school that takes this multifaceted view of intelligence seriously. In his point of view the intelligence is a pluralistic view rather than the unitary concept.

Multiple Intelligence Theory suggests that there is not just one concrete measure of intelligence and by implication a single way of teaching. Hence, Gardner suggests that learning and

teaching can be understood and practiced through many avenues. According to his theory there are eight types of intelligences namely Linguistic Verbal, Mathematical-Logical, Spatial, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, Musical, Kinesthetic and Naturalistic intelligence. And students with all these types of intelligences learn better in different ways from each other.

Since all intelligences are needed in the teaching and learning process, teachers should think of all intelligences as potentially equally important across the group of students they are teaching. Within a group, some students will have a preference for using some intelligence, while others will wish to use different ones. This approach is in contrast to traditional teacher-centered education, which emphasizes the development of Verbal and Mathematical intelligences. Therefore, the Theory of Multiple Intelligence implies that educators should recognize and teach according to a broader range of talents and skills that depend on the variety of intelligences.

In the classroom, Gardner recommended that integrated education would use students' natural talents successfully. Integrated education is the system that uses different educational approaches such as games, music, stories, images, etc. If materials are taught and assessed in only one way, we will benefit only a certain type of students, while others will have problems. Armstrong (Armstrong, 2009) recommended allowing students to help design and choose the learning strategies that will work best for them. In other words, differentiated instruction is needed in the classroom to reach the desired goals.

2. Method

Participants: The participants were 45 English Language Preparatory School students. Those students were grouped as intermediate experimental group and control group. The size of the classroom in control group was 23 and in experimental group was 22. The mean age of the subjects in the study was 19.6. There were 13 female and 10 male students in the control group whereas, 12 female and 10 male students in the experimental group.

Design: The participants were placed randomly to the control and experimental group from the population because it was supposed to provide a maximum assurance that a systematic bias did not exist in the selection process and that the selected participants were representative of the population.

Instruments Procedure:

At the very beginning of the study a Multiple Intelligence Inventory test was conducted to decide the students' dominant intelligence and it was decided that there were four different types of dominant intelligence in both experimental and control group.

Table 1. Distribution of dominant intelligence types among students of   Experimental and control groups

Dominant Intelligence	Intermediate level experimental group	Intermediate level control group
Logical-Mathematical intelligence	8 students	7 students
Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence	5 students	5 students
Intrapersonal intelligence	6 students	8 students
Spatial-Visual intelligence	3 students	3 students
Total	22	23

One of the most important parts of the experiment was arranging the classroom environment to accommodate the needs of different kinds of learners. The classroom ecology was rearranged based on the learners' interests and dominant intelligence to see if the same differentiated activities are useful for the members of each group.

After forming the groups of different intelligence, a questionnaire was utilized to understand the students' perceptions towards reading and different activities and learning ways regarding their interests and way of learning. The same questionnaire was conducted at the end of the study to see if there was a change during the teaching and learning process where many types of differentiated instructions had been used. The questionnaire consists of 13 items that taps students' sense of reading in English Language. (I can tell that my teachers like to listen to me read, When I read I don't have to try as hard as I used to Reading makes me feel happy inside, My teachers think I am a good reader, etc). Each item was measured on a 5-point scale anchored with the notations: Strongly agree, agree, Undecided, Disagree

Strongly disagree

After having decided the students' dominant intelligence and their perceptions about reading, I created eight different Learning Centers in the classroom that represent one type of intelligence. This kind of classroom arrangement still permitted the students to take part in all kinds of activities, but created a special 'climate' for holding the different types of tasks according to their type of intelligence. The students were aware of their dominant intelligence.

Although there were four groups of learners, the researcher created eight learning centers because all the individuals have eight types of intelligence with different level. In those learning centers different types of learning and teaching processes that corresponded to their intelligence type took place in the study. At the beginning of the experiment the groups stayed in their learning center relevant to their dominant intelligence. Each group stayed in their centers for one week and continued their learning with center-related activities which means that they usually were exposed different types of teaching process. As a result the teacher rotated the groups center by center in a clockwise manner until every group gained some experience differentiated instructions.

At the end of the study an interview was done with the volunteer students. By applying this interview I tried to explore the reasons behind the significant gain in the reading courses within the whole year. There were about 15 volunteer students from experimental group. Most of the students who were interviewed expressed an enjoyment for active participation, change, variety of different activities, self-correction and self-reflection which were all integrated into reading lessons through the use of very wide range activities that incorporated different intelligences in the experimental classes.

3. Results

The first and foremost job of reading teachers is to teach participants to be fluent and strategic readers by using differentiated instruction to various types of learners. Thus, an experiment was done and it was seen that implying differentiated instruction techniques were useful and beneficial for the learners. First of all a questionnaire was administrated as a pre-survey to all participants to figure out their assumptions towards reading. Later on at the end of the study the same questionnaire was conducted and the findings were analyzed by SPSS 19.0. In the pre-survey of the intermediate level control group the students were not very competent readers. 35 % of the students thought that they were good at reading and 41% of the participants agreed that their teachers think those students were good readers. Less than 40% of the participants answered that they liked reading - that is a low percentage. When students compared themselves to their classmates, half of the participants had the confidence to view themselves as adequate readers who know vocabulary as well as their peers. 59% of the students believed that they could understand well what they read. In general this pre-survey of the intermediate control group reveals that students' attitudes toward reading were not very positive. On the other hand, at the end of the academic year all the students had some changes in their attitudes toward reading such as: while in the pre-survey 32% of the students were thinking that they were good readers, in the post-survey

this ratio increased to 59%. Students believed that their reading pace increased: in the pre-survey it was 18%, while in the post-survey - 50%. Also their assumptions about what the teachers think about the students had changed in a very high ratio. In the pre-survey 50 % of the students thought that the teachers consider that they were good readers but in the post survey this idea shifted to 72%. When we compare pre and post-survey of the participants it is easy to see that there is a positive change in students' assumptions toward reading that has been expected.

Another tool to measure the impact of differentiated instruction was interview with the students. By applying interview I tried to explore the reasons behind the significant gain in the reading courses within the whole year. There were about 15 volunteer students from experimental group. Most of the students who were interviewed expressed an enjoyment for active participation, change, variety of different activities, self-correction and self-reflection which were all integrated into reading lessons through the use of very wide range activities that incorporated different intelligences in the experimental classes.

4. Discussion

Since all the learners are different from each other in gender, interest, socio economic status and so on, their learning abilities and prior knowledge is different too. To those unique learners one way of teaching does not fit. Reflective teachers always look for a new way of teaching or usually differentiate their teaching according to students needs and interest. One way of the differentiate the instructional strategies that intended to help students to achieve the learning objective is to use Multiple Intelligence teaching methods to different learners. Using Multiple Intelligence teaching activities as differentiated instruction range from being very explicit and teacher directed to being less explicit and student centered. A wide range of possible strategies exists. Some strategies are teacher directed, such as lectures, recitations, questions, and practice. Others are more interactive, such as various group and discussion methods. Still other strategies are more students directed; these often emphasize inquiry and discovery. Some of the Multiple Intelligence teachings are those in which teachers tell the students the concept or skill to be learned and then lead students through most of the instructional activities designed to lead to student learning. Those approaches include direct instruction, presentations, demonstrations, questions, recitations, practice and drills, reviews, and guided practice and homework. Some other Multiple Intelligence Instructional approaches are those that involve some type of exploratory activity helping to lead students to discover a concept or generalization. Teachers employ several strategies to help students to attain the concepts. Those kinds of approaches include concept attainment strategies, inquiry lessons, and projects, reports, and problems. Some of the instructional approaches

are social approaches in which students working together in various ways to gather, process, and learn the information or skills. Teachers act as a facilitator rather than the information provider. Discussions, cooperative learning, panels and debates, role-playing, simulations, and games are some examples of different types of Multiple Intelligence activities. One of the most important and effective Multiple Intelligence approach is independent instructional method where students are allowed to pursue content independently with less teacher direction than other lessons. Students sometimes are permitted to pursue their own interests. Independent approaches include learning centers, contracts, and independent work.

By doing these kinds of different tasks and approaches it was aimed to achieve the planned end result. Teaching a subject by just one way of instruction generally is not enough to achieve the goals of the course. All individuals are unique and teachers should find to arouse their interest towards the lesson. One of the ways to meet the students' needs and interest is using Multiple Intelligence teaching ways as differentiated instruction. It has been applied in the university preparatory level and observed that it was successful.

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The Establishment & Function of Iraq's Education Ministry from 1921 to 2014)

Serwan Abdullah Ismail
Deputy Chairman of the Education Committee

ABSTRACT

Before the establishment of Iraq on 22nd August 1918, Major Humphrey Bowman was tasked to initiate a ministry of Education. At that time, he didn't give permission to open high schools because he was waiting for first elementary graduators in the history of Iraq. On May 1919, and for the first time, he decided to open the first experimental high schools in Baghdad and Mosul. There were no teachers available to teach, so the Ministry of Education was relying on teachers from Egypt and Syria to teach at the high schools.

In 1920, the name of the Education Ministry was called the Ministry of Knowledge "Maarif"; its title was changed several times in the following years. In some cases, the Education Ministry was combined with the Health Ministry, which had no connection to the education process, and was called the Ministry of "Knowledge and Health". On August 14, 1958, the name changed again to the Ministry of Education. However, the name was altered again in 1968 to the Education Ministry.

Looking back at the history of the Education Ministry in Iraq, it is noticeable that none of the Iraqi Education Ministers (IEM) were neither experts nor educators from 1921 until 2014. The majority of minister's actual professions were clerics, Sheikhs, military officers and their views were Nationalists, Sectarians Socialists and all were members of political parties.

This study indicates that social reality, political views, and foreign interference had a great influence on the education process (Ahmed Jawdat, 2011). The list of professions of the ministers and their expertise is included later in this publication. In some incredible cases, the Defense or the Interior Ministers were taking over the Ministry of Education!

In (2010-2011) UNSCO reported that, "Until the end of the 1990, the overall objective of education in Iraq was to bring up an enlightened generation, believing in God, loyal to the homeland, and devoted to the Arab nation. The report also stated that, " the political changes that took place in Iraq after 2003 and the transition to democracy required a reform of the educational system in Iraq based on a new educational philosophy". However, during the rule of the dictatorship and centralized government until the liberation process of Iraq, everything was to glorify the central government (Serwan A. Ismail Master Theses 2008). Due to the lack of real leadership and the country heading towards war and violence, the

Iraqi government allocated all human and logistic resources for these purposes. During early eighties, Iraqi education was known as a good system in the region during this period by addressing both access and equality. Due to the eight-year war between Iraq and Iran, followed by the Gulf War of 1991, the education level in Iraq declined. Beginning in the 1980s, the Iraqi Dictatorship Regime focused only on the military and invested all the country's resources only into the military sector rather than social needs, education and country's development and infrastructure. The education budget continually suffered from a deficit until the liberation of Iraq in 2003.

Article 34 of the Constitution of 2005 stipulates that education is a fundamental factor for the progress of society and is a right guaranteed by the State. Primary education is mandatory and the State guarantees that it shall combat illiteracy. Meanwhile Article 4 specifies that the Arabic language and the Kurdish language are the two official languages of Iraq. Having inappropriate education sector, and the unfair treatment of minorities led the country towered sectarian war, disruption and separation. The Kurdistan Regional Government has constitutionally recognized authority over the provinces of Erbil, Duhok, and Sulaimaniya. Regardless of the laws and regulations that exist on paper, in reality there is no implementation complying with the constitutions!

After the American Coalition Liberation process, the Iraqi Government allocated large amounts from budgets for the education sector. Due to the deficiency of leadership and a lack of a transparent system, there was a loss of future projects. Vast amounts of funding that were allocated for the education sector went missing; unfortunately there are several goose projects on papers, but in reality there are no schools. Iraq needs over ten thousand school buildings. The previous schools' structure and environment were not sufficient and in many places we can even see schools built from clay.

Through the attached list of all the ministers over a century, it is clear that the majority of the (IEM)s professions were military officers, Sheiks, priests, politicians and all were Nationalists (Jawdat, A. 2011, p. 502). In order to be able to raise the new generation with the appropriate education, there should be professional educators in IEM positions as well as in all other related positions in the educational field. We have pride and regard for our army and their participation and sacrifice in defending the country, but they are not experts in education, so are unable to make changes and generate effective educators. The correlation between the struggles of a developing country and foreign influence is evident in that inappropriate educational leaders and lack of an effective system led to negative outcomes and the quality of education not progressing because they concentrated on implementing their politics rather than providing a good education.

Due to the interference of political parties and their membership and affiliations to the

most powerful political parties, the ministers have not the power and commitment to make changes or replace their general managers even if they were involved with corruption or fraud. This situation resulted in more complications. In some cases, the ministers or the political parties are trying to employ their acolytes, to give them strategic positions and power, without considering the impact that their lack of educational knowledge will have on future generations. Eventually, this type of management leads to corruption and it has slowed down the education process; they were manipulating their position for their own benefit rather than creating a proper educational environment for the sake of a better society and the improvement of life for their fellow citizens.

Education is the only way to make changes and become free of the crises that are facing our country. The Iraqi government must look for experts in all positions and particularly in the Education Ministry at all levels beginning from the top to the classroom. Some people think that the minister's position is a political and managerial position so is not important to have a professional educator in this position; however it is certainly impossible for the IEM to manage the ministry and develop a proper education system without having knowledge and a profession background. During my interview in Malaysia with professor (Dr. Sufean, 2016) the most senior professor at the University of Malaya, in this regard he said, "The educational leaders "School Leadership" must know the curriculum in order to make changes to comply with the educational environment in Kurdistan".

For example, the Swedish System that was imported to Kurdistan was neither compliant nor practical in Kurdistan due to the differences of culture and society as well to the lack of familiarity with the system. Without knowing the essence of the new Swedish Curriculum, school leader could not adopt and implement it; educational leaders have to be familiar with methodology and theories as well knowledgeable in all types of leaderships in addition to knowledge of curriculum development. Only then would it have been possible to adapt the Sweden Curriculum to suit the educational environment in Kurdistan.

The head of the Education Ministry and all other education leaders have an extensive impact on the education process, implementing projects and strategies, planning, and the process of learning, the head of the educational field, and through his professionalism and educational background could inspire managers, directors, supervisors, teachers and students to carry out their roles correctly and meet the required education standards.

Creating a proper education system and raising healthy generations is the key point of success and the solution to many social and economic issues, and confronting challenges that will lead to the establishment of a civilized nation and developed country. In this case there are considerable questions we need to ask and to put in mind when we try to make changes such us, who should make changes? Who is involved with the education process? How can we get there? Where can we start? Why we are not doing so? Who can take over

the education fields, or who can do that? Where shall we start and how? What kind steps we shall take? Who is primarily responsible and accountable? How long will it take? What is the role of parents? Who will benefit from a good educational system?

However, answering all the above questions (and many more) needs more research and study as well as comparison studies with developed countries. This will not happen in a short time, but we shall start and think about the future of our generations. To combat the terrorist organizations manipulating children, brain washing and misusing them for their own purposes as we see today in Mosul and elsewhere, we need to find the right path to ensure all our children have equal opportunities and a healthy educational environment to protect them from the influences of terrorist and criminal organizations. It is time for professionals and experts to move and take and action to make a strategic plan to resolve this undesirable crisis.

It is time for the Iraqi leaders and the Council Ministers, politicians, sectarians to look forward and think wisely towards education. Iraqis cannot survive mush more and in order to get rid of these crises that face the country, all can stand together to focus on improving the education system which will enable us to go towards the right direction for the sake of a better life for our fellow citizens by bringing justice and equal opportunities for all.

The background of Iraqi education with the involvement of the military, sectarian, and politicians and the (Jawdat, A. p 107-111), nationalist's mentality and their interference in the educational field brought Iraq and Iraqis to horror and catastrophe.

(Jawdat, A. 2011, p. 541) refers to this instance in Iraq, "After removing ministers, it is necessary to remove all advisors and directors that have been in their positions for several years and became the major obstacles of reform and changes".

The problems mentioned above are serious problems because the future of the further generations will be in danger if the authorities don't attend to these issues. These problems have different reasons and causes but the common denominator for all the problems is lack of strong leadership from the top to school staff level.

It's important that decision makers turn to leadership theories. Although leadership theories originate in the discipline of business administration and management, their application in the field of education by different theorists has been significant.

A basic definition of leadership is worth mentioning at this point. Burns (1978) states that he defines leadership as:

> Leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivation—the wants the needs, the aspirations and the expectations— of both leaders and followers. And the genius of leadership lies in the manner that leaders see and act on their own and their followers' values and motivations. (p.19)

Burns also made an important distinction between two types of leadership Transactional

and Transformational. Before going to the types of leadership, it's important to distinguish between leadership and management. Cuban (1988:xx) makes a clear distinction between the two concepts:

By leadership, I mean influencing others' actions in achieving desirable ends. Leaders are people who shape the goals, motivations, and actions of others. Frequently they initiate change to reach existing and new goals

... Leadership ... takes ... much ingenuity, energy and skill.

Managing is maintaining efficiently and effectively current organizational arrangements. While managing well often exhibits leadership skills, the overall function is toward maintenance rather than change. I prize both managing and leading and attach no special value to either since different settings and times call for varied responses.

Features of leaders are too many to count but the most important are the following:

1- Leaders have influence: Yukl (2002, p.3) explains this influence process: "Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person [or group] over other people [or groups] to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization."

2- Leadership is grounded in deep personal and professional values

3- Leaders have vision: Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989), for example, say that "outstanding leaders have a vision of their schools - a mental picture of a preferred future - which is shared with all in the school community" (p.99). They indicate four generalizations of leaders with vision: Outstanding leaders have a vision for their organisations. Vision must be communicated in a way which secures commitment among members of the organisation. Communication of vision requires communication of meaning. Attention should be given to institutionalizing vision if leadership is to be successful.

In this globalized century, with many crises and strong economical crises that faced our country with the interference of sectarian and nonprofessional to the education field, the outcomes are not satisfying educators and society.

Finally, in order to have proper education system with good processes, learning, disciplinary, we need to dispose of certain kinds of mentality and the interference of nationalists, sectarians, and manipulators. It is time to bring in the educators and academics, professionals to the core of education. It is never too late, and the distance of thousands miles starts with one step but under the supervision of professions and educational experts.

Following is the list of all Iraqi Ministers:

1- Izzat Pasha Karkukly (20/10/1920 – 28/2/1921) Military officer

2- Muhamed Mahdy Bahr Alilum (29/1/1921- 11/9/1921)

3-   Abdulkarim Aljazairy, He didn't accepted this position due to his duties as a religious cleric

4-   Muhamed Aly Alshahrstani (12/9/1921- 27/9/1922)

5-   Abdulmuhsn Shalal

6-   Abdulhusain Aljabali (8/11/1922 – 22/11/1923)

7-   Jahfar al Askary 9 27/5/1924-2/8/1924) He was from Sulaymania

8-   Muhamed Hasan Abumhasn (3/12/923 – 1/8/1924) Defense Minister during the King Faisal government

9-   Muhame Radha Shabibi 1924-1925 Religious Person

10- Abdlhusain Alchalabi 1925

11- Hikmat Sulaiman 1925

12- Alsaid Abdulmahdi 1926-1928

13- Tofiq Alswidi 1928-1929 Military Officer

14- Khalid Slaiman 1929-1929 Turkish Citizen

15- Abdulhasan Aljabali 1929 – 1930

16- Abdulhasan Aljabali 1930 – 1931

17- Abdulhasan Aljabali 1930 – 1932

18- Abas Mahdi 1933

19- Alsaid Abdulmahdi 1933

20- Salh Jabr   1933-1934

21- Jamal Baban (21-2 1934 – 26/8/1934) Kurdish Officer from Arbil

22- Abdulhusain Jabali 1934-1935

23- Shex Muhamad Radha Alshbibi 1935-1936

24- Sadiq Albasam 1936

25- Usif Ezaldin Ibrahim (1936-37) Army officer, Sunni

26- Jahmfar Hamdi (1937)

27- - Shex Muhamad Radha Alshbibi (1937- 38)

28- Salh Jabr (1939- 40)

29- Dr. Sami Shawkat (1940) Millitary Officer

30-Sadq Albasam (1940-41)

31- Muhamed hasan Slman (1941)

32- Tahsin Ali (1942-43) Military

33- Abdul Ilah Hafz (1943 – 44)

34- Ibrahim Akif Alalusi (1944- 46)

35- Nazib Alrawi (1946)

36- Nuri Alqazi (1946)

37– Sadiq Albasam (1946-47)

38- Tofiq Wahbi (1947-48) Kurdi, Sunni-Military Officer

39- Shex Muhamed Raza Alshbibi (1948)

40- Nazib Alrawi (1948-50)

41- Saad Umer (1950)

42- Khalil Kna (1950-52)

43- Abdullah Aldemeluji (1952)

44- Qasm Khalil (1952-53)

45- Khalil Kanna (1953)

46- Abdulmajid Qasab (1953-54)

47- Jamil Alaurfly (1954)

48- Abduliamid Kazm (1954)

49- Khalil Kanna (1955)

50- Munir Alqazi (1955- 56)

51- Abduliamid Kazm (1957-58)

52- Jabr Umer (1958) On August 14, 1958 changed the name of MOE to the Ministry of Education.

53-MhiAldin Abdulhamid (1959-60) Military Officer

54- Ismail Arif (1960-63) Kurd-Military Officer

55- Ahmad Abdalsatar Alcwari (1963-64)

56- Dr. Muhamed Nasr (1964-65)

57- Abdulmajid Saeid (1965) Military Officer

58- Sukry Salh Zaki

59- Khdr Abdualgafuor (1965-66)

60- Abdualrahman Alaqaisi (1966-68)

67- Taha Alaj Alyas (1968)

68- Ahmad Abdalsatar Alcwari (1968-74)

69- Saeid Abdulbaqi Alrawi (1974)

70-Muhamed Mahjub Alduri (1974-79)

71-Taya Abdulkarim (1979)

72-Abduljabar Abdulmajid Salman (1979-81)

73- Abdulqadr Ezaldin (1981-91)

74- Hikmat Abdallah Bazaz (1991- 95)

75- Abduljabar Tofiq Muhamed (1995-97)

76- Fahd Salm AlSkra (1997-2003)

77- Ala Abdulsahib Alalwan (2003-05) Physician

78-Khdr Musa Jahfar Alxwzahi (2006-2011)

79- Muhamed Ali Tamim Aljiburi (2011-2014) He holds a PhD in History and International Relations.

80- Muhamed Iqbal Ph. Physician (2014 - current)

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Teaching sociolinguistic competence in an EFL classroom.

Elvira Koran
Ishik University, Erbil

ABSTRACT

In order to be considered fully proficient in the target language, an EFL learner needs to acquire the cultural aspect of the language as well, that is sociolinguistic competence. Otherwise, learners will be able to produce sentences that are grammatically correct but sound awkward, unnatural and inappropriate. Sociolinguistic competence is one of the main components of the broader concept of communicative competence and is directly relevant to foreign language teaching. This paper overviews some of the methods for teaching it to EFL learners.

Keywords: communicative competence, EFL, sociolinguistic competence.

Most of the time EFL learners complete their studies with relatively good knowledge of grammar and form but lack the knowledge of the so-called "appropriateness", which is the intuitive knowledge of how to speak, when to speak, and when to remain silent (Hymes, 1972). This is particularly important in EFL situations where the students' exposure to the target language is usually limited to the language classroom, and the teachers are not native speakers of the language themselves. This paper suggests some of the techniques that might be employed for teaching the sociolinguistic competence.

The key to sociolinguistic competence is understanding the context of any social situation and responding appropriately within that context, using the correct language forms i.e. grammar. Because this is intrinsic to language communication it has a direct relevance in foreign language-teaching (Council of Europe, 2001).

A successfully completed L2 language program should mean that the learner has acquired more than just a competence in grammar but can marry language form with ability to handle social situations and within that context be able to make socially and contextually meaningful utterances. This ability should also extend to written texts as well as non-verbal communication such as appropriate gestures and facial expressions that are also part of the target language. These required outcomes are clearly stated in the Common European Framework (CEFR, 2001) for learners at B2 level.

According to the CEFR (2001) a B2 language learner should be able to:

- express him/herself with confidence in either formal or informal register and do so clearly within the social context of the event.
- Keep up with and contribute to any group discussion even when speech is colloquial and fast, although difficulty in doing so is to be expected.
- sustain a continuous communication with native speakers in the same way as native speakers do without unintentionally offending or irritating them or forcing them to react in a way not usual between native speakers.
- Express him/herself appropriately in various contexts avoiding gross errors in form or appropriateness. (p.122).

The importance of appropriateness in language communication is acknowledged worldwide, however it is an aspect of language teaching/learning that has been greatly neglected, as can be seen from these excepts from the CEFR document.

Sociolinguistic competence in language acquisition is a vital part of acquiring L2 language competence as a whole and is considered to be linked to the cultural aspect of any language group. (Savignon, 1983: p.37). Since most EFL teachers are not native speakers and receive their training outside the target language community, this aspect of language teaching is often overlooked as the teachers themselves are not fully aware or not competent in this aspect of language acquisition. Other reasons for sociolinguistic competence neglect may also be related to lack of classroom time, resources, curriculum overload or even the teacher's own lack of confidence in their ability to successfully teach this aspect of language competence. It could also be that student attitude could affect the teacher's ability to provide the learner motivation necessary for success in this area. (Omaggio, 2001)

Much of what is stated in the CEFR document is corroborated by Littlewood (1981) who states that the choice of appropriate language in any utterance depends on two things: overall knowledge of the language form and overall knowledge/understanding of context i.e. the social setting within which the communication takes place, which together make for knowledge of appropriateness.

If a speaker understands or has overall knowledge of the social setting in which he/she finds themselves he/she can then decide the appropriate register; either formal or informal and accordingly, which form of address would be appropriate. Choosing incorrectly sends the wrong signals and a breakdown in communication will occur. Therefore, any language course/program should include sociolinguistic competence as its objective/primary goal. So, the classroom should provide a social context for appropriate communication i.e. teaching/ learning sociolinguistic competence. Littlewood proposes that the L2 language class should therefore use only the target language as the medium for classroom activities in order to expose the L2 learner to context, form and appropriateness (Littlewood, 1981).

By using group discussion activities the L2 teacher can combine sociolinguistic competence with pragmatic competences such as turn-taking, ways of agreeing/disagreeing, expressing opinions etc. and in so doing stimulate and motivate learners to communicate in the target language.

Materials which provide L2 learners with a variety of social situations would allow them not only to choose the correct language forms (sociolinguistic/pragmatic/grammar) but would mean that their behaviour in each different setting would be appropriate overall.

Language appropriateness must be understood to encompass spoken, written and non-verbal communication but it is often the case that non-verbal communication is not included as part of sociolinguistic competence. To overcome this, a competent teacher should introduce video materials which feature native speakers in authentic situations. These materials would provide examples of appropriate gestures, body language, and intonation, combined with all other aspects of authentic language use. These materials would also provide interest and motivation for L2 learners thus extending their attention span and ability to learn. Brown and Yule, (1983) support this view by advising teachers to provide dialogues and conversations that demonstrate appropriate language use in video clips.

Other useful tools would be the introduction of Proverbs, quotations and idioms as these are also part of sociolinguistic appropriateness although quotations are used more in terms of providing L2 learners with a basis for appropriate language choices before a speaking or writing activity.

Speech Acts, another linguistic area of competence relevant to both sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence and necessary in any successfully sustained conversation in a target language should also be incorporated into classroom activities.

Even when the teachers are aware of the importance of teaching sociolinguistic competence, they might not have sufficient information as to how to teach the competence and what activities to follow. This paper suggested some methods and procedures which might be useful in developing language learners' sociolinguistic competence.

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The Effect of Culture on Language

Prof. Enas Subhi Amer

Baghdad University

ABSTRACT

It is believed that culture plays an important role in the ELF classroom activities (Al- Mutawa, & Kilani, 1989:87). It is important for the teacher to recognize potential negative (culturally based) perceptions of their learners. In Iraq, for instance, it is not.

Uncommon to meet silent expressionless students that arc supposedly English language learners. It is possible for the beginner to interpret this negatively as a lack of interest in the study of English. This interpretation may play a harmful role in the classroom methodology. An instructor has to be intercultural competent to be an effective teacher. It will be more effective if the instructor adopts a consistent style of instruction to allow learners to adapt within the bounds of their own personalities without being forced to behave outside their own cultural values. The FL teacher's task is to reduce the various kinds of communicative gaps that may result from poor grammatical structure and from misinterpretation because of contextual ambiguity and cultural unawareness.

Lyons (1968: 122) stresses that prefect knowledge of FL implies not only the knowledge of its grammar rules and vocabulary, but also an ability to employ a large variety of spoken and written registers. Speaking and FL is a skill that has to be supported and nourished throughout the learners' lifetime. That leads to the assumption that what the FL learners pursue, is a mythical native speakers-like linguistic competence. Many would agree that it will also involve such skills as the ability to recognize allusions, understand jokes or decode newspaper headlines.

Chapter one Culture

What is culture?

The word 'culture 'has several related senses which is more or less synonymous with "civilization "and it is opposed to "barbarism "This sense is operative in English and rests upon the classical conception of what constitutes in art , literature , manners and social institutions . This classical conception emphasized that culture should be related to the human history as a progress and self-development.

According to anthropological sense , the word " culture " is interpreted as a total set of beliefs , attitudes , customs , behavior and social habits own culture, and different subgroup with in

a society may have their own distinctive subculture .

Culture may be described technically as acquired knowledge. I.e. as the knowledge that someone has by virtue of his being a member of a particular society.

(John Lyons , language linguistics , p301-302)

Culture as a sociology is often a set in contrast to "civilization " It refers to the set of values accepted by the majority of the individuals of a nation .

Man can be created by contemporary circumstances and lead to the adoption of certain modes of behavior as well as implicated by modes of living accepted by the members of the community.

The idea that language is deeply embedded in culture is an unusual concept for some people because they believe that language is the key to the cultural heritage of another people or that knowledge of another language enables individuals to increase their personal culture through contact with great minds and works of literature. They would prefer to define culture as "that training which tends to develop the higher faculties, the imagination the sense of beauty and the intellectual comprehension " (Wilga M. Rivers , teaching foreign language skills , p3)

The culture of a people is certainly the result of training but training in all aspects of shared life in a community. The child growing up in a social group, learns ways of doing things, ways of expressing himself, ways of looking at things, what things he should value and what things he should despise or avoid, what is expected of him and what he may expect from others. All these attitudes, reactions and unspoken assumptions will be expressed in his action, in his social relationships, in his mind, in his moral convictions, in his attractions and in the art and literal….etc, without conscious of them since they become part of his way of life.

The word "culture" finds its place even in a literary criticism. Certain critics and poets define and understand "culture" according to their point of view such as:

Mathew Arnold:

He claims that culture is not a set of rules or collection of facts which we memorize, culture. Culture is an activity if the mind makes a person lives, feels and thinks in a tree and valuable way. The same values he sets for people, he also sets for literary criticism without it becomes unfruitful way of passing time.

T.s.Eliot:

Culture for Eliot is equivalent to "The mind of Europe is more important than individuals, whether poets or none. To that culture the poet must subordinate himself because Eliot understand it in every brood sense the poet should have on awareness of history an

awareness of past achievements in order to understand his role not as an individual is separate from others, but as a continuing that tradition. (Adnan k. Abdulla, History of literary criticism, p257, 265, 1988).

Culture or Civilization:

"Culture" and "civilization" should not be considered synonymous terms. "Civilization" as traditionally taught, has included such areas as geography, history, artistic and literary achievements, political, educational and religious institution, accomplishments in the sciences, and major philosophical concepts basic to the operation of the society. These represent the aspects of the culture.

"Culture" in the contemporary teaching of languages includes previous aspect. But it's more attention is paid on or to the everyday life style of ordinary citizens and the values, beliefs and prejudices they share with their fellows with in their linguistics and social groups, with due attention to inter a group differences of (Social class, for instance).

Smaller groups within that community. This is true of all peoples and all languages; it is a universal fact about language.

Anthropologists peak of the relations between languages and culture. It is indeed, more in accordance with reality, to consider language as a part of culture. "Culture" is here being used as it is throughout this article, anthropological sense, to refer all aspects of human life in so far as they are determined or conditional by membership in a society. The fact that a man eats or drinks is not itself culture; it is a biological necessity that he does so far the preservation of life. That he eats particular food and refrains from eating other substances, though they may be perfectly and nourishing and that they or he eats and drinks at particular times of day and in certain places are matters of culture, something "acquired by man as a member of society" according to the new classic definition of culture by the English anthropologist sir Edward Burnett Taylor. As thus defined, culture covers a very wide area of human life and behavior & language is manifestly apart, probably the most important part of it.

Although the faculty of language acquisition & language use is innate and inherited, and there is legitirnal debate over the extent of this innateness , every individuals language is "acquired by man as a member of society" along with and at the same time as other aspects of that society's culture in which he is brought up, society and language are mutually indispensable, language can have developed only in social setting however this may been structured, and human society in any from even remotely resembling what is known today or is recorded in history could be maintained only among people speaking and understanding language in common use.

Language is a fool of the society that employs it, and the ways in which language is used

reflects the culture of that society. This relationship between language and culture forms an important part of the acquisition of a second language because if involves the way in which member of a culture view the world. Thus a language is a part of culture (betty Wallace).

The influence of culture on a language:

Culture shapes language and its turn language expresses culture. This relationships can help in the design of the curriculum. Effective teaching starts with the familiar, and everyday language by definition talks about everyday matters. If we are not certain of the concerns and priorities of our learners. we may discover these simply by listening to their conversation. Just as modern curricula prescribe that children should start their study of science through observation of familiar features of their environment, surfer's literacy teaching also starts with the exploration of familiar language.

<u>**Chapter Two**</u>

Language & Culture

The definition of language:

From a certain physiological point of view it is basically a vocal behavior that takes place as a response to certain stimuli. Since language involves communication among individuals, it is also some kind of social behavior.

The behaviorist definition of "language" by itself is not fully adequate; language behavior is different from other types of behavior such as walking. The latter does not involve a body of objective facts while language does. He refers to that person's language as poor, polished, growing …. Etc., while walking is more behavior i.e. it doesn't involves any objective fact outside it.

From a physical point of view, language is essentially set of sound patterns to which the speakers have arbitrarily assigned meaning or reference on which they implicitly agree.

Language changes historically over the passage of time, geographically from place to place, socially from one social class to another and individually from person to person at the same time, in the same locality and social class.

In addition to that, language also manifests a certain degree of unity in the form of a "standard language" which often represents the ideal form a given language.

Thus languages ire defined as a set of vocal patterns to which arbitrary meanings are assigned used for the purpose of communication among individuals as a social group and manifesting a standard from and a variety of sub form.

(Idelt Journal 16, p8-9, 1980)

Language is central to learning and a prerequisite for most human communication. The way in which languages serve those universe function varies from country to country, from

culture to culture. A language develop to enable people to talk about things important to them. If we look at a vocabulary of a language, or at usage in a particular region, we find that a large and precise vocabulary will have developed to enable extensive communication on what is most important to the culture. For example, the Eskimo who discusses snow with precision is not a usual specialist her which vocabulary is common to all the people of her culture. If a foreigner starts to chat with her about the weathers she will probably find the outsider's observations vague, puzzling or even meaningless.

There is a hard and fast rule in sociolinguistics which advocates the following principle of language could. Whenever there is a cultural of any form, there must be a linguistic contact as a result. After all language is a system of human communication and the words and ideas of one language can spread through time and space in extremely curious ways.

The influence can be direct as happened during the expansion of the Islamic Empire in many parts of the Ancient world. In Asia, we find for instance, Persia and India coming under the Islamic rule; in Europe, we find Spain and Sicily; in Africa we find the Arabic speaking country and some countries south of the Sahara such as Kenya and Nigeria. The linguistic influence, on the other hand, can be indirect as is the case with English and some modern European languages which borrowed Arabic vocabulary through another language. As linguistics, we can maintain that there are no pure languages in the world.

To linguists, all languages are equal and one language is as important as another in forms of its grammatical and semantic structures. Therefore, languages can influence each other in unidirectional or bidirectional ways.

Eventually language is a fool of communication. Like any fool when used in various fields if acquires sharpness and flexibility thing than is to decide to use the language, not whether the language is usable or not.

Language is a part of culture:

Language is an important social factor. Anthropologists agree on the fact that language is an essential part of any nation's culture. As cultures are various so are languages. Like culture, languages acquired through the learning of broad behavioral patterns on the basic of which deleted and minute events can be explained. Also language and culture are subject to change as a result of the tremendous accumulation of experiences that the nation undergoes. A nation also needs a language to facilitate the process of culture growth.

Language cannot be separated completely from culture because it is deeply embedded in. Foreign language are the key to the cultural heritage of another people, and that knowledge of a foreign language enables an individual to increase his personal culture through contact with great minds and the great works of literature.

It has been seen that language is much more than the external expression and communication of internal thoughts formulated independently of their verbalization. In demonstrating the inadequacy and in appropriateness of such a view of language, attention has already been drawn to the ways in which one's mother langue is intimately and in all sorts of details related to the rest of one's life in a community and to work done in brazil by feire and his colleagues shows clearly how people's interests can be culturally distinct within one country with a common language. In freirian literacy group a set of key words is used to teach people to read. Between them, the words represent all the common syllables in Portuguese as each number learns new syllables, he can combine and recombine them to make new words. The key words are chosen because they are important to the learner and therefore more easily remembered.

The native language is learned along with the ways and attitudes of the social group in which one grows up, and these ways & attitudes find expression through the language. In this way the language is an integral part of the functioning social system. The psychologist as good has set out a theory of language, "meaning" which maintains that the full meaning of a word for an individuals is the result of the sum total of experiences which he has had with that word in the cultural environment in which he has grown up. As the members of the group have similar experiences, this meaning is shared by them all, but May fifer in certain respects from meaning the word has for certain other groups. It is became of this inter relationship of language and culture that one to one equivalences can rarely be established between words and expressions in two languages, once one has passed beyond the stage of physical identification.

The lines of linguistic penetration are not altogether physical, but cultural as well. A cultural that enjoys high prestige can make itself felt as desirable without recourse to force of arms while material arteries of language-land and seas-lake on a new element, the air, the language ways of the spirit and the mind acquire new force, derived from a variety of sources-trade, art, religion, literature ….. etc., but not least.

The belief that there is a very close relationship between language and culture has long been held by anthropologist and American linguistic with strong interest in non-European language. Like Edward Sapir, have emphasized the interplay between language and culture, it reflects, there is strong support among linguistic for statements like the following from Sapir. "Language does not exist a part from culture, that is from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives.

Human beings do not live in the objective world alone nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which

has become the medium for their society. The fact of the matter is that the "real world" is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group …. We see and hear otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation.

Ervin-Tripp reported on an experiment with Japanese & English speakers to test her hypothesis that "as language shifts" content will shift "in this study Japanese…. English women were asked to complete statements that they heard and read in both languages.

The responses of one woman, which were typically of the others were as follows:

- When my wishes conflict with my family ……

  (Japanese) it is a time of great unhappiness.

  (English) I do what I want

- I will probably become …….

  (Japanese) A house wife.

  (English) a teacher.

- Real friend should …….

  (Japanese) help each other.

  (English) be very frank.

In this study the specific language employed seemed to mirror a particular cultural view since the content of what was said varied with the language being used.

Tradgill provides another kind of example of the effect of the social or cultural environment on language. He points out that distinctions are important in the culture, are reflected in the lexicon of the language of that society. He says for example that the distinction between maternal and paternal aunt is not significant in English speaking culture; therefore, no special term is required as may be in other culture.

Charles C. Fries was wanted to use modes as an example of the way in which language and culture internal in the social situation. The word breakfast is fairly easy to understand "the first meal in the morning" But he would insist that one does not fully understands that word unless one knows what the meal consists of, where it is eaten, with whom and what time. Is it a large mail like that served in England? Is it prepared by one person or does each person in the family prepare his or her own. The full meaning of a given linguistic item will not be grasped unless it is associated with the situation in which if occurs.

Chapter three
Education and culture:

Effective education demands an understanding of the culture we need to start by looking at surface level feature of a culture. If we identify and reproduce in our material accepted conversations of behavior, people will be more likely to take the materials seriously. Educators need to respect the ways people in anyone culture communicate with each other, taking account of conventions of greetings, of conversational structure and features of non-verbal behavior, such points matter in pictures as well as speech; in one country a poster showing a man taking his pay packet in one hand lost its impact since in that culture gifts are normally taken in both hands together.

For much education; we need to study people's everyday lives. In nutrition, who collects the food or does the cooking? What are the conventions for serving and eating a meal? If for example, people normally take food from a number of centrally placed bowls, then a lesson on a balanced diet will have a different conclusion from one for a culture where different foods are served to each person on one plate. In agriculture, which job, do women do and which jobs do men do? What tools do they use most, and how do they use them? By looking at what people grow or eat, and how they do it, we can select and arrange suitable example to teach nutrition or agriculture. Farther questions need to be asked at a deeper level, to determine the implicit values of a culture. To do this, we can take pairs of opposing attitude, such as the following, and ask, which of the pair describes our community best:

Conservative-progressive.

Material wealth valued- spiritual wealth valued.

Sense of personal work-sense of personal unimportance.

The point of asking such questions is to deepen our understanding of that culture-to discover, for example, which features or institutions demonstrate community or individual is the values. We may find some of the answers by observing the style of formal proceedings for ceremonies, or examining artistic and literary traditions. Folk literature and ritual procedure of all kinds are the means by which aspects of culture are transmitted from one generation to the next. Investigation of them is likely to help us identify major cultural values.

It should be clear now that it is not enough to mimic in our material the superficial aspects of a culture. Culturally appropriate education needs more than a picture with culturally correct detailer a local folk story as a book on which to hang new ideas. The picture or the story may indeed help us, but the values they reflect and the values of the culture are at least as important.

A recent study shows how research can be used to retire and to discover these features that are most important to consider in planning education. Carol Mellette Amralunge chose

two superficially similar communities from Ghana & Sirlianka. Each community, similar nutrition projects were set up, and their progress studied. In both communities, villagers were apprehensive about the effects of change. The research disclosed that those who felt they could have little control over their lives were the least likely to make any changes as a result of the program.

Attitudes to change was not more important than educational background, neither the ability to read nor formal schooling made any difference to people's willingness to adopt new practices. In both villages roughly the same proportion of illiterate people and educated people benefited from the program; and in both villages people judged the program on its own merits with little reference to influential villagers.

But this was not the whole picture, a survey of the villagers showed that people were engaged in a variety of learning activities a part from the nutrition projects. They were mainly interested in three areas: acquiring traditional knowledge & skills in topics like agriculture or medicine; learning how to maintain simple machinery; and acquiring occupational skills, through informal apprenticeships or other methods of training they could afford.

There is difference between the communities in Sirilankas, the younger villagers were in general more progressive than the older ones, but in Ghana age made no differences. In Ghana the people who were most prepared to try out new ideas were those who had traveled most, who most frequently consulted external sources such as the radio or agricultural extension agents, and those who were better off; in sarilanka none of these factors were significant.

Carol Mellette draws three conclusions. First, it is not necessary to concentrate on teaching opinion leaders; all villagers are potential learners. Second, demonstrations will help to convince those who hesitate to make changes; practical examples are a better counter to fatalism than speeches. Third, social or moral attitudes affect actions; in Ghana high priority is given to material status whereas in srilnka the predominant philosophy is the anti-materialistic on of Buddhism. Carol goes on to point out that the decision to accept new ideas is taken rationally. There are practical and economic factors beyond the cultural ones that influence such decisions. Villagers were most likely to try out new idea which was culturally respected authority figure. They were most likely to reject ideas which contravened indigenous values and sanctions, were economically prohibitive and were thought to be difficult or impossible to realize.

This understanding of values and everyday practice enabled Carol Mellette to draw up guide lines for education in these communities. While these are of local relevance, the research has a much wider values. It demonstrates that such knowledge can be obtained without too much difficulty or delay.

2. Means of Teaching Culture & Language:

It is important to focus on both appropriate content and activities that enable students to assimilate content. Activities should encourage them to go beyond facts, so that it begins to perceive and experience vicariously deeper level of the culture of the speakers of the language.

. Describing & Explaining the Culture:

In the past, the commonest method of presenting cultural material has been done by exposition and explanation. Teachers have talked at great length about the geographical environment, the intuitions of their society, the history of the people, the literary and artistic achievements and even the small details of the everyday life or the people who speak the language. These cultural talks can be supported by the showing of films or slides, can occur as isolated, slightly irrelevant interpolation in the general language program, or they may be part of a carefully planned and developing series.

A cultural series beings at the elementary stage with discussions of the daily life of the peer group in the other language community-their families, their living conditions, their school, their relations with their friends, their leisure-time activities, the festival they celebrate, the ceremonies they go through, dating and marriage customs, at intermediate and advanced levels, attention may be drawn to geographical factors and their influence on daily living, major historical periods, how the society is organized, production, transport, buying and selling, major institutions (education, the government, religion), aspects of city and country life, the history of art, music, dance, and film, great men and women of whom the people are proved achievements in sciences and exploration, and the roots of the prevailing philosophy. These aspects of the culture are sometimes presented through short talks by the teacher, but more frequently through reports on research projects presented by groups of students or by individual students.

In the beginning, when cultural readings are supplementing basic language practice, these talks may be prepared by the students in their native language. As soon as they have sufficient command of the language, however, they try to present them in the largest language and engage in discussion of the material they have presented with other students. These presentations should accompany by visual illustration the form of the charts, diagrams, maps and pictures with films and slides where these are available.

Experiencing the culture through language use:

The question arises: can we take time in our language classes for the teaching of cultural background in this way?

There is another means which does not take time from the essential work of the language learning. In other words, teaching for cultural understanding is fully integrated with process of assimilation of syntax and vocabulary. Since language is so closely interwoven with every aspect of culture, this means is possible, but only when teachers are well informed and alert to cultural differences. Well-prepared teachers bring an awareness of cultural meaning into every aspect of their teaching, and their students absorb it in many small ways. This awareness becomes a part of every language act in the classroom, as students ask themselves: How do we say it as native speakers say it?

Through language use, students became conscious of correct levels of discourse and behavior; formulas of politeness and their relation to the temperament and social attitudes of the people, appropriateness if response in specific situations (within certain social group, among people of certain age groups). Gradually they begin to perceive the expectation within society and do glimpse the values which are basic to the various forms of behaviors. From the beginning, the teacher should orient the thinking of the students so that they will feel curious about such differences and become observant as they listen and read, applying what they have perceived in their active oral work.(Ibid, p. 326)

Dialogues:

One of the commonest devices used in the early stages of language learning is the dialogue. Carefully constructed, it tends itself to acting out culturally based situations. Each dialogue should be constructed around an experience compatible with the age and interests of the students, one which will clearly demonstrate behavior culturally appropriate for speakers of that particular language. As students familiar with the dialogue act it out, they learn through role playing how to interact with all kinds of people, as they did in their own culture in childhood games. For a short spell, they have the experience of the feeling Japanese or Russian or French, of reacting as a person of that culture would react. Such experiences are more valuable than many lines of comment&explanation.

Role Playing

After students have learned and acted out dialogues from their early reading, they are encouraged to try to use what they have learned freely and spontaneously in communication situations in and out of the classroom. They may also use the material in developing their own skits. Some fear that in this way students will be associating first, language behavior with second-language behavior or forms. This will be tree to a greater or lesser extent depending on the orientation the students are receiving throughout their language instruction. If they are encouraged to look upon much their language learning as role playing, they are more likely to carry this over into classroom conversations and skits, endeavoring by content,

intonation, gesture and reaction to simulate a situation in the second culture. They will be able to do this more successfully as their knowledge of the cultural behavior and attitudes of the people increases. (Ibid, 327-328)

7. Non-verbal communication:

Non-verbal communication is an important part of cultural behavior. A higher of meaning is communicated through facial expression and body language (gesture and body motion) than would think. Such non-verbal communication is language specific and should be learned as corollary of the linguistic aspects of language. It cannot be learned all at once, but should be absorbed little at time, often by careful observation of one's peers.

Watching films and television is helpful in learning gesture and other types of body language. Role playing in the classroom should include appropriate non-verbal signals(gesture and body stance, for example) H. Taylor suggests that teachers should become more aware of the role of non-verbal communication in teaching English to speakers of other languages(Betty Wallace,249,1978).

If the language is acquired where direct observation of culture of the language is not possible (e.g. English as foreign language in Europe), teachers will have to provide specific cultural information. This can be done in various ways:

Through pictures, films, magazines, literature, descriptions of their experiences in Europe or in English-speaking countries, and the like. But truly learning of language must go hand in hand with an understanding of the cultural setting in which it is used.(Ibid,p150,1978).

To develop cultural knowledge, the following strategies are appropriate for fostering awareness and interest in the foreign culture in the classroom:

• The environment of the classroom should reveal aspects of the target culture, this can be done through the use of bulletin boards, wall pictures, maps, magazines, newspapers, ….etc. For example, on bulletin boards pupils may display facts or information about the foreign country, newspaper clipping and topics of general interest ….etc. All these cultural items should be produced in the foreign language and be replaced with new ones at regular intervals.

• The teacher should provide the class with objects or pictures preventative of the foreign country (e.g. money, costumes, stamps and pictures of historical or interesting places) by these, pupils can familiarize themselves with the foreign culture.

• The language teacher may ask pupils as individuals or small groups to undertake projects such as drawing maps, writing time-tables & dialogues. The teacher

•   should select cultural activities that suit the pupils learning level and interests. After completing the projects, the teacher conducts class discussion to arouse pupil's interesting the target culture. Such discussion should give pupils a chance to compare foreign cultural material with similar material in their native culture, or focus on the pupil's attitudes towards the people of the foreign culture and their way of life.

•   The teacher can encourage his pupils to listen to songs and music of all types of the target culture. It is necessary to conduct such activities in English to enhance effective learning of both the culture and the language.

The problems of teaching culture:

There are certain problems in attempting to teach a culture, whether one's own or that of another language group.

•   Students who have experienced a uniform culture often suffer from culture shock when confronted with different ways of thinking, acting and reacting. It is important to convey cultural concepts dispassionately and objectively, so that students do not feel that the teacher considers everything in the new culture to be "better" or "worse" than in the student's native culture. Students try to understand why things are as they are in the new culture and in so doing they learn to understand why they are as they are in their own culture.

•   In attempting to fit complicated cultural systems into a simplified framework which is comprehensible to an early level student, we run the danger of imparting or reinforcing stereotypes of attitudes and behavior. Too much emphasis on the exotic or "the different" in superficial details ((example: isolated supervises on encountering certain aspects of behavior)) makes another culture seem weird and irrational.

Goals for the teaching of culture:

There are seven goals of cultural instructors toward which classroom activities and materials should be directed. Students should be able to demonstrate that they have acquired certain understands, abilities and attitudes.

•   That they understand that people act the way they do because they are using options the society allows for satisfying basic physical psychological needs.

•   That they understand that such social variables as age, sex, social class and place of residence affect the way people speak and behavior.

•   That they can demonstrate how people conventionally act in the most common mundane and crisis situations in the target culture.

•   That they aware that culturally conditional images are associated with even the most common target words and phrases.

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•   That they are able to evaluate the relative strength of a generality concerning the target culture in terms of the amount of evidence substantiating the statement.

•   That they have developed the skills needed to locate and organize material about the target culture from the library mass media and personal observation.

•   That they process intellectual curiosity about the target culture and empathy toward its people.

Thus there is general agreement that the individual's culture plays an almost all-powerful role in patterning his behavior, in determining what behaves in, what he strives for and how he strives for it, in award, his personality structure.

Language Teaching is Culture Teaching:

Second language educators leach and 1'TL students learn about the culture of the L2/ FL whether it is included overtly in the curriculum or not. This point was emphasized by McLeod. He points out that "by teaching a language one is inevitably teaching culture". In a discussion about discourse, Brown questions whether or not language may be value-free or independent of cultural backgrounds. She concludes: "there are values, presupposition and world view to be found in any normal use of language". Such normal language use is exactly what most L2 and FL instructors aim to teach.

Beyond this perspective. Brown refers to ethnographic language studies and summarizes several reasons why "language and culture are from the start inseparably connected":

•   The process of becoming a competent member of society is realized through exchanges of language in particular social situations;

•   Every society orchestrates the way in which children participate in particular situations, and this, in turn, affective the form, the function and the content of children's utterances;

•   Caregivers' primary concern is not with grammatical input, but with the transmission of sociocultural knowledge; end

•   The native learner, in addition to language, acquires also the paralinguistic patterns of his or her culture.

Having outlined these findings. Brown cautions readers that "as in the case of first vs. second language acquisition, first and second culture acquisition differ in many respects". Two further observations also explain just how language teaching is culture teaching:

•   Language codes cannot be taught in isolation, because the processes of sociocultural transmission are bound to be at work on many levels, e.g. the contents of language exercises, the cultural discourse of textbooks, and the teacher's attitudes towards the target culture;

Conclusion

It is concluded that culture is an important aspect in teaching language. Both-culture & language are interwoven to get the full understanding of language of other societies and to avoid culture shock.

Teaching culture features are so important also, it is like a crucial factor to acquire the communicative competence of language and by developing these cultural features, man can overcome false ideas and prejudice against people who speak the target language. It is an integral part of the learning process because it is located to human behavior which should reveal good values. One of the most important point that the teacher of culture should have, is an informed insight into the culture of his students and a similar understanding of the culture from which the language he is teaching is a part in order to face any problem nay arrive through the teaching process.

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Explicit and Implicit Utterances in English and Arabic Discourse

Dr. Adnan Abdul Dayem
Bayan University/Erbil

ABSTRACT

In this article, an argument is made to account for the thesis that at various instances of language usage and on different linguistic levels Arabic discourse enjoys a higher degree of explicitness than English. To develop this position the tendency in Arabic discourse to produce more explicit utterances is highlighted on lexical, syntactic and textual levels. In addition to explicitness induced by purely linguistic constraints, a tradition of socio-cultural norms is found to exert a considerable influence on characterizing the relatively more explicit Arabic discourse strategy. A corpus of Arabic examples, involving material in Modern Standard Arabic and derived mainly from realistic writing, printed interviews as well as printed data, is investigated to reach the findings reported in this paper.

1.Introduction

General use of language is noticeably characterized by various degrees of explicitness. Speakers are not always expected to bother about spelling out every minute point of expression, and a strategy of leaving room for inference to be worked out by listeners is normally involved in actual linguistic interaction. Such an inference-drawing strategy is based on what Clark and Clark (1977: 92-97) describe as 'the given-new contract', a cooperative agreement between speech participants whereby a problematic kind of inference can be signified.

As a linguistic feature, explicitness is graded on a scale such that utterances are characterized to range from the most or fully explicit to the least explicit or implicit utterances. The relevant degree of explicitness displayed by an utterance is constrained by two interrelated linguistic properties: 1. how far the utterance is detailed so that it will be fully explicit when the required linguistic elements are all contained and no elliptical material is encountered; and 2. the extent to which the utterance is direct, as it will be more explicit if it requires no inference or deduction on the part of the receiver since all required items surface. This makes it true to say that the more detailed and more direct an utterance is, the more explicit it will be. The principle of detailed-direct expression tendency is taken up in this study to account for the degree Arabic discourse is explicit in comparison with that of English. It has been found out upon research, for example Wierzbicka (1985), that the structure of languages manifests scalar degrees of explicitness and directness, and that linguistic

differences of this kind, though inherently induced by purely linguistic determinants, may ultimately be associated with cultural differences such as intimacy versus distance and spontaneity versus toleration. In addition to purely linguistic distinctions, cultural differences are also related to the issue of explicitness and should therefore be considered as pertinent to the comparison purported to be expounded in the endeavor we undertake in this study. For purposes of clarity of discussion the presentation of linguistic material is divided into purely linguistic and socio-cultural to coincide with the types of constraints which limit the degree of explicitness we seek to point out in the present analysis.

As initial exemplification, we may consider the following English utterance samples and their more likely Arabic counterparts.

1- The man killed in the battle.

al-rajul l-a<u>dh</u>i qutila fi l-ma9rakah.

If the English utterance, consisting in the phrase where the relativizer is elliptical, is favorably rendered into the Arabic clause by having the relativizer kept on the surface, the Arabic utterance should obviously be more explicit according to the detailed expression principle.

2- Muslims in Britain.

al-muslimuna l-a<u>dh</u>iina yuqiimuna fi bari<u>t</u>aaniya.

al- muslimuna l-miqimuna fi bari<u>t</u>aaniya.

If the Arabic utterances are favorably used as the equivalent of the English utterance in 2, they are more explicit than the English utterance since they have the semantic relation in the prepositional phrase lexically explained, which is not so displayed in the English utterance.

3- Will you forgive me my lord?

?arju ?an ta<u>gh</u>fira li yaa sayyidi.

When it is a tendency in Arabic to use the direct speech act of request for the predilection in English to use the indirect request as in 3, the Arabic utterance should be considered more explicit than the English utterance according to the principle of direct expression tendency.

2. Linguistic constraints

Lexical patterning and syntactic modeling of Arabic is characterized by kinds of repetition on different linguistic levels: morphological, lexical, syntactic, semantic and textual, that are highly favored by Arabic discourse (Koch, 1983). A considerable part of the repetitious structure of Arabic discourse is underlain by choices which are linguistically induced, and

can therefore be viewed to exert significant linguistic constraints on discourse tendencies. As it will be made clear in subsequent sections, these repetitions may have no little influence in assigning Arabic discourse a comparatively higher degree of explicitness.

2.1 Lexical patterning

Arabic morphology is characterized by a sort of root-pattern system. The root, being the radical verb and the bearer of the general lexical meaning, consists of three consonants usually represented by the letters f-9-l. It combines with the vocalic pattern (taf9iilah or siighah) to result in a derivation paradigm of maximal fifteen derivatives or lexical forms, not all of which are necessarily assumed by the trilateral verbs (for the complete paradigm of verbs see Wright (1975: 29).

This kind of morphological system is exploited in Arabic discourse to bring out the repetition of patterns as well as that of roots. The tendency to present co-occurring tandem forms modeled on one identical pattern accounts for a considerable part of lexical repetition. Such a strategy of discourse is linguistically manifested by what is known as lexical couplets (Johnston 1987), or word-strings (Al-Jubouri 1984: 105-107). These are pairs or series of words strung together to constitute one group mostly being coordinated with 'wa' (and). Different relations giving rise to semantic parallelism are displayed by the constituents of the string, the most important of which and that which we are most concerned with, is synonymy.

Some of these couplets, or doublets as they may also be labeled, are morphologically parallel by having a common internal vowel, germination or pre-fixation pattern:

3- at-tadmiir wa t-takhriib
   Destruction and demolition.
4- yuhaddid aw yukhattit
    Define and delimit.
5- ?al-?amthal wa l-?akmal
    The most ideal and the most perfect.Some other lexical couplets, or longer word strings, have no such expected morphological parallelism:
6- ?al-ta?yiid wa l-musaa9adah
    Aid and assistance.
7- ?al-wahm wa l-khayal
    Illusion and imagination.
Synonymy strings in Arabic, as the examples show, are not based on the concept of

synonymy in the narrowest sense, where linguistic signs of absolutely the same meaning are used in juxtaposition to one another. For absolute synonymy to occur Lyons (1981: 148), among others, stipulate that lexemes must "have the same distribution, and are completely synonymous in all their meanings and in all their contexts of occurrence". Nor are word-strings expected to make use of "complete synonymy" defined by Lyons (ibid) as involving

"the same descriptive, expressive, and social meaning in the range of certain contexts in question".

The kind of Arabic strings are expected to be concentrated in 'partial synonymy' where synonyms are differentiated in terms of any of the types of meaning as distinguished by Leech (1981: 10-12) or Lyons (1981: 152). To illustrate partial synonymy in Arabic word-strings we may consider the following utterance taken from Dayf (1977:76).

8- ?inna l-ḥasada ?aalamu wa ?aadha wa ?awja9u wa ?awda9u mina l-9adaawati.

Envy is more painful, more hurtful, more aching than and more inferior   to animosity.

Though the underlined synonyms all refer to pain, they are listed in accordance with the degree of pain which increases successively.

Partial synonymy involved in the wide-spread word-strings in Arabic makes it possible for synonyms to be used syntagmatically to reinforce one another in the same utterance. The resulting feature is the juxtaposition of items which are paratactically repeated. This, in turn, should point to the rich repository of Arabic synonyms and near synonyms.

It is not completely uncommon to encounter lexical couplets like "ways and means", and "aid and abet" in English discourse; nonetheless, the discrepancy they show with respect to the kind of lexical couplets in Arabic should be clear. Whereas the Arabic couplets are the result of a still-productive rule, and they still have spurts of productivity, the English couplets are frozen or semi-frozen idiomatic expressions. Al-Jubouri (1984: 104) cites a list of such prototypical English couplets. Some of these examples are:

9-Fair and square

    Each and every

    Law and order

    Give and bequeath

    Last will and testimony

Some of the lexical couplets in English may even turn out to be no more than pairs of co-

existent cognate native and borrowed words; e.g. 'skirt and shirt' or 'skipper and shipper', which are "rarely even descriptively synonymous" (Lyons 1981:206). For the ones which retain some degree of synonymy, Ullman (1962: 152) notes that a considerable number of the borrowed-based English couplets are the product of the tradition of "literary mannerism", according to which it was customary to explain a French word by adding to it a native English synonym. The following are examples which go back to the same tradition (ibid):

10- Mansion and house

Lord and master

Pray and beseech

On the other hand, as Koch (1983: 49) observes, Arabic word-strings are nonce forms. In so many instances of language usage, conjoined words with requisite coherence in meaning enable the speaker/writer to highlight different aspects of the designated object, and exert enrichment to the text by presenting additional semantic and evaluative values.

Another wide-spread sort of repetition on the morphological level is achieved by repeating morphological roots. One of the most noticeable structure which realizes this repetition is the 'cognate accusative', a common construction in which a verbal form (verb, participle, verbal noun, etc.) is modified by a phrase consisting of a verbal noun from the same root plus an adjective. The following are some examples of this construction:

11- mimma yadillu dilaalatat qaaṯi9atan 9alaa ?innahu

(One thing which indicates a decisive indication that he…..)

What decisively indicates that he ……

12- qaatala l-junuudu qitaalan baasilan

(The soldiers fought a brave fighting)

The soldiers fought bravely.

A cognate accusative may also come out with the verbal noun being made the second term of an ?iḏaafa, i.e. genitive, construction:

13- Kaana iltizaamuhu l-mabaadi?a ?asẖadda Itizaam.

(His adherence to the principles had been the strongest adherence)

He had adhered most strongly to the principles.

Cognate accusatives in Arabic serve an essential syntactic function of providing adverbial modification for the matrix verb of the clause. They constitute an alternative to prepositional adverbial qualification. Though the construction is not completely obligatory, it is highly favored by the syntactic structure of Arabic in the sense that the choices are still limited (Johnston 1987: 92-93; Farghal 1991: 183).

Like couplets and longer word-series, the use of cognate accusatives points to the tendency

in Arabic discourse to use paratactic repetition of parallel linguistic forms. On the level of content, both structures mark a single-word paraphrase which a speaker makes for explicating the utterance at hand. While cognate accusative is highly commendable in Arabic, it is much less so and even proscribed in English.

The kind of lexical repetition briefly accounted for will unmistakably point to a trait which Arabic possesses as an inherent peculiarity. Arabic lexical morphology has the potential of derivatives which, due to the dynamic category of 'pattern' as vocabulary-generating device, can make open classes to accommodate the necessary lexical growth of the language (cf. Hassan 1971: 166-170). This process of derivation, referred to in Arabic as '?ishtiqaaq', is different from that of 'derivation' and 'compounding', as the two major sources of English vocabulary expansion. The latter are concerned with the formation of new lexemes by affixation and compounding from two or more potential stems (see Bauer 1983: 201).

As most Arab linguists agree that '?ishtiqaaq' is the most productive process of Arabic word-formation, the difference it shows as regards derivation in English should be clear: "unlike English which heavily relies on affixation in derivation, Arabic heavily relies on patterns and analogy in derivation. Arabic uses a few derivational suffixes" (Al-Najjar 2007:232). Whereas the process of "ishtiqaaq" is achieved by derivational patterns which have fixed structures and functions, analogy is used as a yardstick to derive new derivatives conforming in structure and function to existing derivatives. Thus the pattern "?infa9ala" which is derived from the trilateral verb "fa9ala" has the form "fa9ala":"infa9ala" and the function of converting a transitive into a middle voice verb. Examples of verbs derived by this pattern may include "fataha": infataha, nasara: intasara, hasara: inhasara". Such discrepancies of lexical morphology between Arabic and English are naturally borne out by the discourse structures of the two languages. For Arabic the impact is that speakers and writers are encouraged to invest the rich paradigms and the enormous potentially available resources afforded by morphology. Thus it would seem legitimate to describe the morphological system of Arabic as the keystone of both linguistic and cultural structuring of the language (Koch 1983: 91-92).

It is now clear that a remarkably noticeable feature of the structure of Arabic reflected in the structure of Arabic discourse is lexical repetition. This, as witnessed above, is mostly represented by lexical couplets, longer word-strings, cognate accusatives, and other kinds of root repetition. What makes this feature pertinent to our purposes is that such conjoined words and phrases are rather related to acceptability than to grammaticality, and should therefore be considered to serve stylistic and discoursal tendencies.

2.2 Syntactic modeling

2.2.1 Paratactic repetition in syntax

Arabic discourse is rhetorically effective partly through the kinds of repetition which are actually rooted in the syntactic structure of the language. Grammatical categories entailing the use of forms repeated in juxtaposition to one another are so inherent in Arabic syntax that they account for their pragmatic use in discourse. Such structural and paratactic repetition can on the whole be taken as embedded in parataxis. This is the general syntactic category which, together with hypotaxis, accounts for the system of inter-dependency or tactic system, as one dimension of the functional semantic relations that make up the logic of natural language (Halliday 1985: 193).

The distinction between paratactic and hypotactic relation is introduced to mark the type of taxis, or of the relationships within all complexes: words, groups, phrases or clauses. As more specifically contrasted, parataxis and hypotaxis define different logical structures. In a paratactic structure, two elements of equal status, one initiating and the other continuing, are linked. A hypotactic structure, on the other hand, involves a dependent element and its dominant, the element on which it is dependent. Thus a pair of related clauses in a hypotactic relation is of unequal status since the dominant element is free, but the dependent element is not. Such a kind of relation will make the latter structure necessarily one of subordination where the elements are combined on not equal footing (ibid: 195, 198)

For the paratactic juxtaposition of items from the same syntactic category coordination stands out as highly valued mode of expression in Arabic discourse. The great deal use of this kind of syntactically characterized paratactic relation creates a wide-range occurrence of coordinated parallel phrases and clauses as well as periphrastic and near-periphrastic conjunction. Such paratactic structures, as represented by coordinated and structurally conjoined forms, are opted for in contrast with all sorts of subordination which are constantly kept at a lower degree in the frequency of the occurrence of linguistic forms. A cursory look at any piece of Arabic discourse will conspicuously point to the discrepancy in the use of the structures in question. Here are examples taken from <u>zuqaaq al-madaq,</u> a novel by Najeeb Mahfuz, and its English translation:

14- wa-lam ya<u>t</u>ul bi-lmar?ah al-?inti<u>dh</u>aar, fa-sur9aana maa jaa?at

um hamiidah muharwilatan wa-qad <u>gh</u>ayyarat jilbaab al-bayt.

The visitor did not wait long; soon Hamida's mother rushed in, <u>having</u>
<u>Just changed from her housecoat.</u>

15- ?ama 9alimat bi-fa<u>dh</u>i<u>h</u>at al-mu9allim Kir<u>sh</u>ah al-jadiidah? hiya

kasaabiqaatihaa, wa-qad ?itta<u>s</u>ala l-<u>kh</u>abar bi-zawjatihi, fa-ta9aarakat

ma9ahu wa-mazzaqat jubbatuhu.

Had she heard of Kirsha's new scandal? It was just like the previous
ones and the news got back to his wife, who had a fight with him
and tore his cloak.

16- ?anti sit 9aaqilah shariifah, wa-lkullu yashhadu bi-dhaalik.

You are a respectable and sensible person, as every one knows.

In each of these sentences, the underlined subordinate clause in English corresponds to
a coordinate clause in Arabic. In 15, English uses a non-finite participial clause; whereas
Arabic uses an independent clause. In 16, the subordinate clause in English which conveys
a cause-effect relation with the previous part of the text corresponds to a coordinate clause
introduced by 'fa'. In 17, the English subordinate clause of comment is equated by a
coordinate clause introduced by "wa".

Texts using coordination are easier to comprehend than those using subordination, but they
give the impression that they are loosely connected, which is a characteristic of conversational
language. Subordination increases the complexity of a text, and is often a characteristic of a
formal or written style. However, languages differ in their use of the two methods of building
a text. Some languages prefer subordination, others favor coordination, but probably all
languages use both these methods; no language or text confines itself wholly to one of
them only, to the exclusion of the other. It is probably true to say, as the above examples
show, that generally English texts make more use of subordination than do Arabic texts, a
tendency which on the whole characterizes Arabic discourse as more explicitly oriented.

In addition to coordination, other types of modification syntax constrain paratactic repetition
of items in the context of Arabic discourse. For the linguistic source of this constraint,
therefore, a number of modification categories, both verbal and nominal, would have to
be seen pertinent. These modifiers commonly involve utilizing structures from the same
syntactic category in a paratactic relation, and as such they are appositive in nature.

At the intra-sentential level, adverbial modification of the paratactic kind is   typically
represented by the circumstantial clause (jumlat l-haal). Being a linguistic alternative for
qualifying the matrix verb in the modified clause, a circumstantial (haal) clause can either be
nominal or verbal.

These are some illustrative examples (from Al-Rajihi 1975: 269):

17- Nominal: ra?aytu zaydan wa huwa saghiir.

        I saw Zayd when he was young.

        Taraktu l-bahra ?amyajhu 9aniifa.

        I left the sea (and) its waves were high.

Verbal: ra?aytu zaydan yakhruj.

I saw Zayd (and) he was going out.

lazimtu l-bayta wa qad haṯala l-maṯar.

I was staying at home while it was raining.

In all cases, the circumstantial clause must be linked to the main clause it modifies. The linking device could be 'wa' (waw l-ḥaal) (wa of condition), a pronoun co-referential with the subject of the noun phrase in the modified clause, either explicitly stated or implicitly construed, or both forms combined, as shown by the examples. Though the two clauses are made syntactically and semantically combined by such a linkage, they are very much like independent clauses paratactically juxtaposed to each other. This is even clearer where the use of 'wa' is either possibly dispensed with or grammatically prohibited. In a sentence comprising such a circumstantial clause, whereas in English the clause is obligatorily reduced and its verb is made a participial modifier, i.e. going out, it is preferably kept with a finite verb in Arabic. As it is mostly used to introduce circumstantial clauses, however, 'wa' of condition might therefore be held to be no different from the coordination 'wa', and the two are seen as clearly historically related (Beeston 1970: 89).

As to nominal modification proper, certain types of relative clauses in Arabic are more appositive-like construction, incorporating paratactically related forms. Indefinite relative clauses in Arabic, for example, are introduced with no relativizers, and as such are formally no different from full independent clauses. What merely helps distinguish them as dependent clauses is the fact that they contain a pronoun co-referential with and taking the same marking of the head noun in the co-occurring super-ordinate clause. This is the linking pronoun, al-9aa?id, which, as in all relative clauses, is the precondition of this kind of subordination (see, for example, Al-Rajihi 1975: 5). Here is an illustrative example from Arabic discourse:

18- Rafaḏa sayyadu l-?asmaaki ?ams muqtaraḥaatin jadiidatan
    taqaddamat bihaa l-hukuuma.(Al-Thawra Daily, 8,8, 1980)
            Fishermen yesterday rejected new proposals presented by the
            government.

The underlined indefinite relative clause can be seen as an appositive clause paratactically adjoined to the preceding main clause.

2.2.2 Syntactically motivated explicitness

A higher degree of explicitness of Arabic discourse is a function of the repetition in an utterance of lexical items carrying approximately similar meanings. Arabic couplets and word strings are lexical items markers of over-informativeness, and hence over-explicit

mode of expression. Though both monolingual and inter-lingual discrepancies are expected to exist as the explicit and implicit characterization of verbal utterances, Arabic on the whole displays a tendency towards greater explicitness at various language levels. As Emery (1987), quoted in Al-Sa'adi 1989: 122) states, "what is implicit in English has to be spelled out in Arabic".

Of the cases that we are to explicate in this connection are modification structures and prepositional phrases. Explicitness is effected in the majority of these instances by having to incorporate additions and expansions which are syntactically motivated by the structure of the language. To single out the kind of discrepancy embodied in such differing tendencies of language usage we might offer some examples on the relevant areas in both English and Arabic discourse styles. In so far as modification is concerned, it should be observed that what is sometimes concisely expressed by a single or compound adjective in English has to be explained by a periphrastic post-nominal adjectival phrase or clause in Arabic:

19- But it was clear that the 35-year rule of Tito was all over.
(Newsweek, 25 February, 1980)
wa laakin kaana min l-waadih ?anna hukma tito l-ladhi daama
khamsatan wa thalaathiina 9aaman maa kaana lahu ?illa ?an
yantahi.
>Distribution of food in draught-stricken northern Uganda has been suspended. (The Observer, 6 July, 1980)
>?inna Tawzii9 l-ghidha? fi shamaali ?ughanda l-lati yusiibuha l-jafaaf
>qad tamma ta9liiquhu.

As well as adjectives, explicitness in terms of expansion linguistically induced by Arabic structure may likewise involve other kinds of noun modification constructions. In such instances, modification paraphrases have to be sometimes used to act as part of a disambiguation strategy:
20- The enemy's acts of piracy….

?a9maalu l-qarsanah l-bahriyyah l-lati yaquumu bihaa
l-9aduw. (Al-Iraq Daily, 11 Auagust, 1980)

Explication of the same species of English utterances by means of periphrastic expression in Arabic can be further exemplified in the following commonly encountered examples:
21- Extended weather forecast.

haalat l-ṯaqs l-mutawwaqa9 khilaala l-?ayyam

l-qaliila l-qaadima.

Hunger-strike

al-?idhraab 9an l-ṯa9aam.

Freedom fighters.

muqaatiluun min ?ajli l-ḥuriyyah.

In line with the same strategy, prepositional phrases are often expanded in Arabic to explicate the kind of relation they are holding. This can be clearly attested by the way the following English utterance sample is usually rendered into Arabic:

22- A new development plan in preparation may stimulate

performance. (The Economist, 3 November, 1980)

khiṯah jadiidah lil-tanmiyyah yajri ?i9daaduhaa litahsiin

l-?adaa?.

2.3 Inter-sentential or textual constraints

The strongly advocated requirement of junction in Arabic would contribute further evidence to the considerable degree of explicitness characterizing its discourse. Such conjunctive items as 'wa' (and), "fa' (and), with such a wider range of conjunctive relational marking potential are prominently used as cohesive signaling devices in Arabic discourse. Thus whereas conjunctive relations are signaled by the merely ever-present cohesive devices of this kind in Arabic, there are instances of English discourse where inter-positional relations may not be expressed by such surface signals (Hatim and Mayson 1990: 207). In the latter case, an increasing degree of inferring should always be processed to account for the kinds of relations between prepositions which are left implicit. For this source of discrepancy, consider the following instances in both English and Arabic discourses:

23- yabdu ?anna qiyaadata j-jayshi fi bulivya lam taruq lahaa

siyaasati s-sayyidah ghubrayl…fa-qaamat binqilaabin 9askariy

wa-?aṯaaḥat bihaa. (Al-Thawra Daily, 14 September, 1980)

It seems that the army command in Bolivia does not like

Mrs. Gobriel policy. (Therefore) they conducted a coup

and toppled her down.

24- A disaster of huge proportions has hit north-east Africa.

Hundreds of people, mainly children, are dying from

starvation everyday. (The Economist, 14 June, 1980)

laqad ḍarabat kaariṯhatun bi?ab9aadin ḥaa?ilah shamaal

sharq ?afriqiyah ….lidhaa fa?inna lmi?aat mina n-naas wa-
   ma9zamuhum mina l-?atfaal yamuutuuna kulla yawm.

From the two Arabic and English discourse samples above, it is clear that a cohesive relation is differently signaled: in the Arabic texts, formal markers, i.e. the conjunctive 'fa' and the connective 'lidhaa', explicitly mark the causative relations as represented by the binary cause-effect value in the conjoined sentences; however, the parallel relations in the English texts, rather than explicitly stated, are only implied by the cohesive power of the underlying semantic relation, in the sense of Halliday and Hasan (1976: 129). In so far as sentence connectivity is concerned, it would therefore be suggested that Arabic discourse is more explicitly expressed than its counterpart in English.

To pursue this line of argument we may consider the discrepancy between the comparable modes of discourse in Arabic and English in relation to the distinction between what may be termed syndetic and asyndetic coordination both intra-sententially and inter-sententially. In an iconic text where sentences are arranged in the same way the events happened in the outside world, the sentences of an English text may be assumed to be linked by an implied 'and'; they are ascendetically coordinated. Consider the following text attributed to Julius Caesar where no formal device is used to link the three sentences:

25- I came; I saw; I conquered.
In the corresponding Arabic text, however
26- ji?tu; ra?aytu; ?intasartu.
one feels that the text lacks cohesion. Normally, the written text will be produced as:
27- ji?tu, wa-ra?aytu, wa-ntasartu.
Thus the Arabic text uses explicit cohesive devices, whereas the English text may use implied cohesive devices, which unmistakably makes it less explicit than its Arabic counterpart.

   In a text where the order of sentences is irrelevant to cohesion, the English mode can also show the same discrepancy. The following may serve to illustrate the point at hand:
28- Ali is typing in his room; Layla is cooking dinner.
Layla is cooking dinner; Ali is typing in his room.
Both texts in 28 have cohesion; they describe two events taking place at the same time. The fact that the two sentences are placed together; i.e. contiguous sentences, and that they make sense helps the reader to envisage an implied cohesive device linking the two parts of the text. Here, too, the corresponding Arabic text prefers an explicit cohesive device:
29- a. ?ahmed yatba9 fi ghurfatihi; wa-laylaa tu9idd l-ta9aam.
   b. laylaa tu9idd l-ta9aam; wa-?ahmed yutba9 fi ghurfatihi.

Here are some more examples where English uses implicit cohesion, while Arabic opts for explicit cohesion:

30- They stopped the race; it had started raining heavily.

?awqafu l-sibaaq. fa-qad ?ishtadda l-matar.

The garden was full of weeds; it has been neglected for a long time.

Kaanet l-hadiiqah malii?ah bi-l?a9shaab l- daarra. fa-qad ?uhmilat

muddatan tawiilatan.

31- We did not meet any of the inhabitants; they had left their houses for fear of war.

lam nushaahid ?ayyan mina l-sukkan; ?idh tarakuu buyuutahum khawfan mina l-harb.

3. Socio-cultural constraints

Semantically enriched and explicitly expanded Arabic utterances, as the stereotypical features of Arabic discourse, can be explicated by socio-cultural determinants as well. The principle of detailed-direct expression tendency that accounts for explicit Arabic discourse can be ultimately found as grounded in some norms of a cultural tradition. It would not be off the point to suggest that these features derive from oratory and the speaking mode of discourse. Such an underlying characterization of Arabic is taken to be partly attributable to the centrality of the word, the dominance of the verbal art and the artistic use of language as historically cultural institution of Arab society.

The role of culture in constraining discourse is such that different cultures would orient discourses in different ways. As Sa'adeddin (1998: 37) argues, though the mental orientations underlying text production are universal in a communally preconditioned way, "contrasts between texts written by producers from different language communities may arise from communal, sub-communal, and even individual preferences for one mode of text development over others".

The determinant parameters for the discoursal features of informativeness are the communal preferences for aural vs. visual norms, as well as the degree of "power and solidarity" between the native text users. These cultural determinants can readily explain the kind of discrepancies already expounded between Arabic and English discourses. Such markers of over-emphasis as repetition, recursive plain lexis, exaggeration and the repetition of specific syntactic structures will be remarkably figuring out in the discourse that is produced in an aural mode, but neglected in a visually developed discourse.

That Arabic discourse is characterized by the above-mentioned features is due, to some

degree, to its preference for aurally developed texts. English, on the other hand, opts for visually developed texts, which makes its discourse do without all what is associated with intimately and informally conveyed speech. The difference at hand is well summed up, and accounted for in terms of cultural orientations by Menacere (1992: 32), where he argues that "Arabic tends to favor repetition of what English may leave implicit. The explanation for this may be related to the fact that Arabic is more couched in aural culture than English". These contrasting traits of the two languages are further pinpointed such that "while Arabic discourse is often saturated with repetition, English is not so tolerant" (ibid: 33).

A lot of examples on Arabic discourse would obviously bring in such saturation of lexical or syntactic repetition of items. For convenience, however, let us consider an example where over-explicitness by a sequence of lexical items having almost similar meanings is taken to an extreme:

> 34. tazallu l-?ummatu ?asiirata d-da9fi wa- t-takhallufi wa-tafakkuki wa-
>   taraakhi wa-tashardhumi (Al-Thawra Daily, 8 October, 1980).
> (The nation remains imprisoned by weakness, backwardness, disintegration,
>   looseness and disunity)
>   The nation remains backward and disintegrated.
>   or: The nation remains in the grip of backwardness and disintegration.

In its original form, this Arabic utterance can but strike a native-English speaker of rhetorical and cultural expectations oriented towards preciseness as tantamount to a sheer redundancy. Though, following Lyons (1981), it might be accepted that European languages have gradually for the last period switched from power to solidarity as reflected in, for example, the change of the non-reciprocal into reciprocal speech, for a native-Arabic user solidarity is still differently employed; it involves such relations as friendliness, intimacy, warmth, and linguistic competence, all of which are viewed as being achievable by resorting to the informal and casual mode of discourse production. It is as such different from what a native-English speaker expects of his discourse building where orientation is towards encoding message in isolation, in a noise-free setting, and towards respecting his conventions regarding social distance (cf. Sa'adeddin 1989: 39).

3.1 Indirectness of Arabic discourse culturally constrained

As defined by Gumperz (1982: 138), the strategy of indirectness relates to the orientation of not to verbalize explicitly what the conversation is about, and let the listener depend on his background knowledge for purposes of recovery. Arabic discourse can be allocated a certain point on the scale of this strategy by highlighting some of the operative cultural values as they are engaged by native speakers of Arabic.

The aspects of Arabic culture that might be found to have some constraints on discourse directness include such norms as intimacy, cordiality, and warmth of feelings or emotionalism. As they stand, these cultural aspects suggest a clear contrast with some of their correlative values in the Anglo-Saxon culture where English is originally spoken as the native language. The latter would involve such values as privacy, individual autonomy, and toleration of individual idiosyncrasies and peculiarities as socio-cultural principles cultivated in the English-speaking community. The impact of any of these norms can be seen different from one area of linguistic communication to another in so far as the degree of indirectness is concerned. Thus it seems convenient to look at some selected speech areas where the above-mentioned English and Arabic cultural norms, different as they are, would provide linguistic differences.

3.1.1 Directives and other speech acts

In most speech acts of directives, i.e. the speech acts in which the speaker wants to get the addressee to do something English language has developed a wide-range system of structural devices for indirect ways of encoding (cf. Green, 1975; Searle, 1975). In this category of speech acts, which represents utterances very widely pervasive in human interaction, English shows a strikingly high degree of speech indirectness. The forms into which such English speech acts as 'request', 'advice' or 'suggestion' are realized embrace various structures in the interrogative, the conditional and the indicative moods. They are scarcely expressed in the imperative, the form with which they are directly associated, and even less so in the form of their explicit performative verbs, hence the indirectness they are characterized by in English. For example, 'request' and 'advice' are respectively given in such usual expressions as the following:

    35. Won't you close the door, please?
    36. Why don't you tell him the truth? I think it would be best. (Palmer, 1979: 118)

In contrast with these most favorable ways of expressions, the English verbs 'request' 'advise' are seldom used performatively in ordinary speech. The following way of requesting or advising sounds stilted or formal in English:

    37. I request you to close the door.
    38. I advise you to tell him the truth.

   Even when toned down by a politeness marker, 'request' or 'advice', or similar speech acts are restrictively realized in the imperative mood. The following utterances are comparatively less encountered in the English ordinary style of communication, having a noticeable touch of authoritative power incompatible with 'request' or 'advice'.

    39. Close the door, please.
    40. Tell him the truth, please.

In the literature on speech acts, it has been proposed that indirectness in the whole category of directives is chiefly motivated by politeness. Searle (1975: 64) considers that "ordinary conversation requirements of politeness make it awkward to issue flat imperative sentences, or explicit performatives", and that it is only for this reason that "we seek to find indirect means to our illocutionary ends". This would establish politeness requirements as absolute rules which are expected to be universally followed to bring in comparable indirect means in different languages. However, even if we restrict our attention to English language, it is possible to encounter some communicative instances where these rules do not seem to hold on. Some of the grammatical devices, the interrogative in particular, can be found perfectly compatible with verbal abuse or verbal violence, as in the following examples (quoted in Wierzbicka, 1985: 153):

    41. Can't you shut up?

    42. Will you bloody well hurry up?

Clearly, the speech acts performed by these utterances could be more conveniently reported by means of the verbs "order" or "command", thus casting doubt upon the explanatory force of the claim that politeness is the chief motivation for indirectness.

The predilection that English has for indirectness in this area of speech as well as in some other areas should therefore be sought to be explained at a level deeper than that of mere politeness principles. Rather than being exclusively associated with universal principles of politeness, this kind of indirectness can more convincingly be seen as a culture-specific feature, a manifestation of certain cultural norms. We will advance this position by dwelling upon material from Arabic whose cultural norms are manifestly different, leading to different strategies of linguistic presentation.

In Arabic, if the speaker asks the addressee to do something in a way the addressee is not forced to do it, he would normally put it in a relatively direct means of linguistic expression. Speech acts of 'request' in Arabic, more frequently than not, have an explicit form of lexical verbs performatively used to convey the act in question. This is an illustrative example:

    43. Kazum: ?arju ?an ta<u>gh</u>fir li yaa sayyidi l-?ustaa<u>dh</u> 9abd l-mawjuud. (Al-Tikarli, 1989: 6)

        Kazum: (I request you to forgive me my lord Mr. Abdul Mawjud)

        Kazum: Will you forgive me, my lord, Mr. Abdul Mawjud?

Arabic requests are no less often performed by issuing utterances containing an imperative form, usually with an accompanying politeness marker, as in the following examples:

    44. Hisham: ?ijlisi raja?an.

      Hind: (tajlis) na9am. (Lutfi, 1989: 45)
     Hisham: (Sit down, please)
     Hind: (getting sitting down) yes.
    Hisham: Why don't you sit down?
    Hind: (getting sitting down) yes.

The last example shows how extremely directly a request is conveyed in Arabic; besides the imperative verb, the politeness form rajaa?an (literally meaning 'requesting') indicates that even in politeness marking Arabic tends to be rather direct by using explicit performative markers.

The difference that Arabic shows in this regard can further be displayed by looking at some of the English interrogative forms and their literal equivalents in Arabic. The following utterances are regular examples of making requests in English (quoted in Green, 1975: 127, 130):

      45. Why don't you be nice to your brother?
        Why don't you be quiet?
        Why don't you be a honey and start dinner now?

When translated literally into Arabic, these utterances could not be used with the communicative intent of 'request' as such. They are more likely interpreted as genuine questions with a sort of criticism for not doing what was the right thing to do.

      Along similar lines, Arabic commonly tends to employ more direct means for extending one's piece of advice, in contrast with the linguistic structures employed in English to perform 'advice' indirectly. In Arabic, performative verbs or periphrastic phrases explicitly meaning the same concept of advice are ordinarily used for this purpose. The following are examples:

      46. The boss: hunaak…. ?ansahuka ?alla taqtarib minhuu. (Zangana, 1994: 108)
        The boss: (There… I advise you not to get close to him.)
        The boss: There… you ought not to get close to him.
      47. mina l-?ahsani ?an taqra?a fi l-maktabati.
        (It's better that you read in the library.)
        You should read in the library.

The second of the above examples makes use of the expression "mina l-?ahsan" (it's better) to yield advice in a direct and explicit manner. Such periphrastic phrases together with the passive forms of lexical verbs like "yustahsanu" (it's better) are the semantic carriers of 'advice' since they explicitly mean that some beneficial action is suggested to be done. Similar periphrastic phrases or passive lexical verbs of approximately similar meanings are also used to make suggestions. Thus in addition to the performative verb "?aqtarih"

(I suggest), proposals in Arabic can also be typically expressed in such utterances as the following:

48. ?aqtari<u>h</u>ua ?an ta<u>d</u>a9a t-taqriira fi makaanin ?aa<u>kh</u>ar.

   (I suggest that you put the report in another place.)

   The report may be put in another place.

49. mina l-mufa<u>dd</u>ali ?an na9mala <u>h</u>aflatan ?u<u>kh</u>raa.

   (It's preferable that we make another party.)

   We ought to make another party.

It is perhaps in "offer" and "invitation" that the difference between English and Arabic in the directness of linguistic expression is more clearly motivated. In performing both speech acts, an English speaker would consult the addressee's desires or opinions, and avoid imposing his will straightforwardly on the addressee. The speech act is therefore performed in a tentative manner, and is usually given in the interrogative form to help the speaker find out about the addressee's desire. English offers are consequently made indirectly in such structures as the following (quoted in Wierzbicka, 1985: 148-149).

50. How about a beer?

51. Would you like a beer?

52. Sure you wouldn't like a bush at some place.

The same strategy is followed in making invitations in English:

53. Would you like to come to the pub tomorrow night with me?

54. Hey, you wouldn't like to come to dinner tonight, would you?

On the other hand, in Arabic, such indirect and tentative utterances would make very poor offers or invitations. Arabic social conventions of hospitality would not encourage asking about the guest's desires as appropriate procedure to follow by the host. A typical Arabic offer is a generous one, an offer in which the speaker assumes that the addressee can have some more of what is offered, and that it is good for him to have some more. Similarly in invitation, rather than asking about the addressee's desires, it is more appropriate according to Arabic social principles that the speaker expresses overtly an assumption that the addressee would like to do what he is being invited to. Arabic offers and invitations are therefore more directly realized in such linguistic structures as in the following examples:

55. The manager: tafa<u>dd</u>al wa-rtaah <u>f</u>i <u>s</u>-<u>s</u>aalati. (Zangana, 1994: 108)

   The manager: (Come in and get comforted in the saloon.)

   The manager: Would you like to come in and get comforted in the saloon?

56. ta9aala ?uskin ma9i….bayti huwa bayttuka.

   (Come to live with me…my house is yours.)

   Would you like to come to live with me?

The tendency of directness in Arabic, as distinct from the indirectness advocated by English speakers, can readily be explained in terms of cultural attitudes. Given that intimacy of relations and spontaneity of behavior that Arabs are culturally characterized by, native speakers of Arabic feel psychologically close to one another, finding no such private existence that sets them apart. This feeling of closeness, originally experienced in non-verbal interaction, is also reflected in their linguistic behavior. Since a basic device to build closeness is to be direct, the result in Arabic discourse is the sort of direct and spontaneous mode of communication we have observed in this major area of language use. Arabic native speakers, that is, find no cultural need which compels them to take around-about way in communicating these speech acts to one another. In contrast, such a cultural need is already established for native speakers of English. This is embedded in the Anglo-Saxon tradition which places special emphasis on the autonomy of every individual, a tradition which calls for respecting everyone privacy, for non-interfering in his affairs. These cultural principles presuppose distance rather than closeness, and as such they lead to indirectness as a distance-building device in human interaction.

The social distance in English discourse is in fact a reflection of a general socio-cultural norm according to which English people can be seen as the product of a society regulated by long-standing individualistic tradition. This is the tradition according to which reverence is given first and foremost to the individual independence. English individualism contrasts sharply with Arabic endeavors to respect the society and the family, the kind of social loyalty as a cultural instituition overriding the individual status. The impact on their mode of discourse is that Arabs have become very affable, volunteering the flow of the encoded message with as much information as they generously find saying more a prerequisite of saying enough, i.e. of performing one's interactive goal.

3.1.2 General features of Arabic discourse directness
In addition to directives and similar speech acts, other areas of linguistic communication, especially assertives and expressives (cf. Searle, 1979: VIII), show discrepancies of discourse indirectness as a conversational strategy between English and Arabic, which can be accounted for along similar lines of cultural differences. A noticeable discrepancy in this regard relates to the hedged, tentative way a native speaker of English would express his opinions, comments or evaluations, as compared with their relatively more forceful and more direct expression by a native-Arabic speaker. Thus in a situation where it is preferable in Arabic to say

    57. haadhaa sahiihun.
      That's correct.

a typical English equivalent of this expression would be

    58. I like it.

      or even

      I think I like it.

Whereas in Arabic the opinion is expressed in strong terms, and presented as if it were a fact, it is only tentatively and indirectly presented by the English speaker.

      In English, a speaker is highly inclined to preface the opinions he expresses by phrases like "I think", "I believe" or "I guess" (the latter is more American) just to indicate the speaker's less commitment to what he is saying. Such expressions are very widely used in the English ordinary speech, and are used so informally and colloquially to have no intellectually contextual connotations whatsoever. Their conceivable Arabic equivalents (?atas̲awwar, ?az̲un, ?araa) would sound too intellectual to fit the same context in which they are commonly used. Consider these English examples:

    59. Peter: I'm…I'm sorry; I didn't mean to…

      Jerry: Forget it. I suppose you don't quite know what to make of me, eh?

        (Albee, 1976: 40)

    60. I guess, I'd never get a haircut if you weren't in town. (Saroyan, 1965: 119)

In addition to "I guess" or "I suppose", there are other more co-occurring hedging-bound expressions like "sort of", and "would rather", as in the following English instances:

    61. Christian: Well yes, sort of, I guess- I wasn't too clear at that time because I had a lot of things on my head. (Doneleavy, 1965: 150)

    62. Christian: Mr. How, I'm- I think I'd rather be a messenger boy. (Ibid: 150)

In examples like these, it is obvious that the English speaker takes the tentative way in which he presents his opinions to a far-reaching point. The form "sort of", which is so   recurrent on such occasions, is a peculiarly English hedging expression. Its conceivable Arabic equivalent "naw9amma" does not give exactly the same purely hedging influence. It is closer to the English "somewhat" which shows the speaker's inability to describe the quality in question, rather than his lack of full commitment to what he is saying. The multiple hedging "I think I'd rather" in the second example above simply makes the utterance sound too tentative, lacking in confidence for a native speaker of Arabic.

The different tendencies at hand are another manifestation of the same cultural differences. In Arabic, direct expression of opinion is encouraged by the unwritten social law according to which people feel intimate, and thus tolerate opinions being directly given to one another. In English, hedged comments go in line with indirect suggestions or indirect requests. In an assertive or expressive speech act, lexical hedges like "I suppose", "I guess' or "sort of" can

perform a function similar to that of interrogative or conditional structures in directive speech acts. In these areas of language use, English favors understatements, indirectness or hedging. By contrast, Arabic tends to overstate and thus emphasize what is being conveyed.

The different cultural assumptions between English and Arabic are reflected in other areas of linguistic communication. The discrepancy between the two languages in the use of tag questions, both quantitatively and qualitatively, could also be taken to have originated in different cultural traditions. In English, question tags are used in a far wider range of contexts than they are used in Arabic. This observation, though not statistically validated, can be ventured on a simple basis: reading through English and Arabic plays by different authors, one would encounter in the English texts a number of question tags which largely exceeds the number encountered in the Arabic texts. Thus in many of the contexts where question tags are preferably used by English speakers, direct expressions without a tag would be more familiar for speakers of Arabic. Consider, for example, the English tags in the following instance:

63. Girl: Oh, yes. I'm alive too, aren't I? I hadn't thought about that. When you're alive, you don't seem to notice it, do you? Being alive, I mean. (Campton, 1965: 184)

The speaker uses a question tag to consult the addressee's opinion about a commonplace fact, i.e. his being alive. The second tag is used to seek confirmation by the addressee on what appears as a more personal view.

In such cases, English question tags perform a function not very different from that they perform in directive speech acts like 'request' or 'invitation' in so far as indirect expression is concerned: "You'll come with me, won't you?" They are also not different from lexical hedges like 'I suppose' or 'sort of' in making linguistic communication seem less direct.

The major role tags have come to play in English would make it plausible to hold that their wide-spread use in the language reflects the same cultural attitudes in the use of indirect means or hedging forms of linguistic communication. The recurrent expression of the speaker's expectation that the addressee will confirm what he is saying signals a constant awareness of the possibility of differences of other people's opinions or points of view, which, according to cultural norms, should be respected as part of the individual's autonomy.

In Arabic, on the other hand, the range of contexts where the speaker would ask for confirmation is not precisely as wide as in English. Arabic cultural traditions do not foster constant attention to other people's points of view. A speaker here does not find it incumbent on him to be sensitive of other people's opinions in a way that the act of communication

might be jeopardized by direct expression of his personal feelings or views. Arabic cultural norms would tolerate forceful, direct expression of personal opinions or feelings. In most contexts, whatever the forcefulness of the extended view might be, tags can therefore be dispensed with, and the utterance is directly made.

However, though narrowly used, question tags in Arabic can nevertheless be detected on special occasions where a tentative, more indirect speech is purposefully introduced. Arabic tags, for most of their use, invite confirmation whether for simple general remarks or for cases of challenge, as in the following examples:

64. Sa'eed: ?aalaaf n-naas l-?aan fi l-hadaa9iqi yashrabuuna wa-yataaghaazaluuna, ?alaysa kadhaalik? (Al-Qaysi, 1979: 85)

Sa'eed: Thousands of people are now drinking and courting in parks, isn't that so?

65. laakinnaki takhaafina minhu, takhaafina haalata l-mawt, takhafina ?isma l- mawt, ?alaysa kadhaalik?   (Nassar, 1989: 37)

But you fear it, you fear the state of death, you fear the name death, isn't that so?
Tags in Arabic are limited in form to the interrogative negative structure, regardless of the affirmative or negative status of the preceding clause. Generally, they have a short form like '?alaysa kadhaalik?" (isn't that so?) or "?alaysa dhalika sahiihan?" (isn't that right?". These are short forms which are originally derived from an independent clause used rhetorically for confirmation rather than merely as information-seeking questions (cf. for example, Al-Hashimi, n.d.: 94). The restrictions imposed on the structure of Arabic tags, as compared with the various forms English tags can be associated with, is linguistic evidence of the limited use of tags in Arabic.

Perhaps the more salient archetypes of Arabic cultural values that militate against the indirectness strategy are cordiality and unrestricted display of emotions. These socio-cultural traditions have encouraged native speakers of Arabic to be effusive, emotionally unreserved. In clear contrast with this behavior, public disapproval of showing one's feelings overtly and without restraint is a culturally bound trait characterizing the behavior of English speakers. On the other hand, uncontrollable saying of what is on one's mind, characteristic of native speakers of Arabic, would enhance the direct mode of expression in Arabic discourse. At the non-verbal level, this behavior is reflected in such physical experiences as kissing, hugging, and hand shaking which take place on a daily basis in Arab society. Clearly, such body contacts are heavily restricted in the Anglo-Saxon culture where people are to some degree kept psychologically apart from one another.

4. Conclusions

Our investigation of some areas of Arabic discourse, as compared with parallel English usage, makes it clear that from both linguistic and cultural points of view native speakers of Arabic generally tend to use their language in relatively more explicit ways. Given that utterances are explicit when they are detailed and direct, it can be convincingly argued that such utterances are abundantly used in Arabic discourse. The tendency towards explicitness as a favored mode of expression in Arabic discourse is a function of determinants on different linguistic levels.

On the lexical level, the repetition in an utterance of lexical items carrying approximately similar meanings in what may be termed lexical couplets, word-strings and cognate accusatives function as markers of over-explicitness. Such over-informative and redundancy-saturated utterances are a corollary of the rich derivation paradigms and enormous potentially available lexical resources afforded by Arabic morphological system. On the syntactic level, explicitly paratactic modification syntax is a remarkable linguistic trait of Arabic. By and large, Arabic discourse is characterized by explicitness in terms of expansion which is linguistically induced by Arabic structure. Also on the intra-sentential level, coordination of various linguistic groups is an explicit paratactic repetition of structures that likewise represents a highly recurrent mode of expression in Arabic. The almost ever-present formal cohesive devices used as inter-sentential connectives signal an explicit discourse strategy in Arabic. They explicate the kind of semantic relation between sentences in stead of leaving it implicit to be interpreted by speech participants when no such formal devices are used, as it is often encountered in English.

As to implicitness in terms of directness, our exemplification of some areas of Arabic discourse, as compared with their parallels in English usage, demonstrates that native speakers of Arabic generally tend to use their language in relatively direct ways. Arabic, on the whole, preserves a higher degree of directness of speech than English does, a linguistic property that comes into play in such pervasive areas of linguistic communication as those of directive, expressive or assertive speech acts. Such markers of indirect discourse strategy characterizing native-English speech production as hedging and the overuse of question tags are comparatively more restrictively recurring in normal Arabic communicative style.

The tendency in Arabic discourse towards producing explicit utterances may in part be ultimately attributable to some stereotypical norms of Arabic cultural tradition. Chiefly among these cultural values are the speaking mode of text development, the communal preference for aurally, rather than visually, developed discourse, as well as the degree of solidarity. The latter Arabic cultural norm involves intimacy, cordiality, warmth of feelings or emotionalism,

which contrast with the conventions of social distance, privacy, and individual autonomy, traditions that are highly respected in native-English conversational style.

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Appendix: System of Transliteration

The following system of transliteration has been adopted for the Arabic examples in the present work.

1. Consonants

Arabic letters	Symbols	Examples	English equivalents
أ	?	?allah	God
ب	b	baab	door
ت	t	ta<u>h</u>t	under
ث	<u>th</u>	<u>th</u>amiin	valuable
ج	j	jamiil	beautiful
ح	<u>h</u>	<u>h</u>akiim	wise
خ	<u>kh</u>	<u>kh</u>ubz	bread
د	d	dumuu9	tears
ذ	<u>dh</u>	<u>dh</u>aalik	that
ر	r	rabii9	spring
ز	z	zayt	oil
س	s	sayf	sword
ش	<u>sh</u>	<u>sh</u>i9r	poetry
ص	<u>s</u>	<u>s</u>abaah	morning
ض	<u>d</u>	<u>d</u>aw?	light
ط	<u>t</u>	<u>t</u>aalib	student
ظ	<u>z</u>	<u>z</u>il	shade
ع	9	9alaa	on
غ	<u>gh</u>	<u>gh</u>uyuum	clouds
ف	f	fii	in
ق	q	qariib	near
ك	k	kabiir	large
ل	l	layl	night
م	m	mun<u>dh</u>u	since
ن	n	naar	fire
ه	h	hunaa	here
و	w	waraq	paper
ي	y	yawm	day

2. Vowels (short)

a		kanz	treasure
u		hum	they
i		sin	tooth
(long)			
aa		laa	no
uu		<u>kh</u>uluud	immortality
ii		<u>h</u>adiid	iron
(diphthongs)			
ay		kayf	how
aw		fawq	above

The perceived impact of introducing a secure english language test as part of the university of kurdistan hewler's admissions process

Kirstin Crawford
University of Kurdistan Hewlêr

The University of Kurdistan Hewlêr is an English-medium university located in Erbil, Kurdistan, which offers a range of programmes from foundation level through to post-graduate level. As part of the university's admissions process, the submission of a standardised English proficiency test was introduced in 2014. Prior to this, students' competency in English had been tested using in-house assessments. As the university has been an official Pearson test centre offering the Pearson Test of English (Academic) since early 2014, this test was the most widely-used and is the focus of this study. Having now used the Pearson Test of English (Academic) for over two academic years, its perceived impact on the admissions process and level of students admitted can be evaluated. Surveys containing open and closed ended questions in order to elicit perceptions concerning the Pearson Test were distributed to a number of relevant stakeholders including students, lecturers, department chairs, registry staff and members of senior management. The surveys focused on the academic skills tested, security of the exam and results, the structure of the exam, accuracy of scores, beliefs about the fairness of the exam in relation to students' scores, and finally students' ability to cope with undergraduate or postgraduate study with their scores. This study is of current significance to the region as the importance of a minimum level of competency in English within academia is being officially recognised by many institutions at undergraduate level. Furthermore, the Kurdistan Regional Government Ministry of Higher Education now requires all postgraduate applicants to submit an official result from a standardised English proficiency test as part of their admissions procedure.

Keywords: assessment, admissions, English, Kurdistan, proficiency test.

Introduction

The University of Kurdistan Hewlêr (UKH), which was established in 2006, is an English-medium university located in the city of Hewlêr in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq. It offers a number of programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate level as well as foundation programmes. Due to UKH's special status as a public university, it has been afforded the opportunity to decide its own admissions procedure and requirements, unlike other public universities in the region, which have to accept students directly from the Kurdistan Regional Government's (KRG) Ministry of Higher Education (Borg, 2016).

Prior to 2013, the vast majority of students entered the undergraduate programme through the former two year Access programme, which was restructured into a one year foundation programme before the academic year 2013-2014 began. In order to progress into the first year of an undergraduate programme, students were required to pass subject-specific modules related to their chosen major and an English language exam. This internally designed language test was designed to discriminate between learners with a level equivalent to an International English Language Testing System (IELTS) 5.5 and below. The test covered the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking using authentic academic tasks and included items from the Academic Word List in order to ensure the exam was valid and measuring what was required from students in an undergraduate programme. Grading rubrics were developed based on the public IELTS writing and speaking descriptors. Standardisation training sessions were delivered to all instructors involved in the assessments prior to grading in order to enhance the reliability of the results as well as blind double grading being conducted during the grading process.

1. Rationale for Introducing a Secure English Language Test (SELT)

At a regional level, the KRG Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research was encouraging the use of standardised, internationally recognised English language tests for entry into its postgraduate programmes as local assessments had failed to provide universities and students with the necessary tool to measure students' suitability for a programme based on their language skills. This was part of their attempts to reform Higher Education within the region in order to align the provision more closely with international practices (KMHESR, 2010). The Executive Management Board at UKH decided to introduce the submission of a SELT score as part of the UKH undergraduate and postgraduate admissions process. There were a number of reasons cited for doing this including the ability to benchmark students' level against international standards and being sure of reliable and valid results (A. Okanlawon, personal communication, February 28, 2016).

The Pearson Test of English (Academic) was encouraged at the University of Kurdistan Hewlêr as it became an official test centre in early 2014, and all students in the foundation programme in 2013/2014 were expected to score a minimum of 45 on the PTE. The PTE (Academic) is a computer based test which measures language ability through completing a series of tasks using authentic academic skills and language (Pearson, 2012). A module was introduced into the programme in order to prepare the students for this test. The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) offered by the British Council was also acceptable along with the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and equivalent scores to the PTE were made available to the students.

2. **Data Collection**

In order to assess the perceived impact of including the submission of a SELT score as part of the University of Kurdistan Hewlêr's admission process, a questionnaire containing open and closed ended questions was distributed to students, administration staff, teaching staff, and senior management staff. The questionnaires were returned to the Academic Support Unit in order to ensure anonymity. The response rate amongst teaching staff was lower than hoped for as only 9 out of 35 lecturers responded. 6 of the administrative staff responded along with 3 members of senior management. 59 students in the foundation programmes and undergraduate programmes participated in the survey. Due to the low teaching staff response rate, further studies need to be conducted as it is possible that those staff who did respond hold a more positive view than those who did not, so the results discussed here might be misrepresentative of the wider teaching staff. Postgraduate students did not participate in the study, so their views on the suitability of the minimum entry grade have not been ascertained.

Findings

Table 1: Responses to Statements Concerning the Introduction of the PTE (Academic)

Survey Question	Students	Administrative Staff	Teaching Staff	Senior Management Staff
Introducing the PTE as part of UKH's admission process was a positive development	Agree: 62%	Agree: 50%	Agree: 89%	Agree: 100%
	Neutral: 22%	Neutral: 17%	Neutral: 0%	Neutral: 0%
	Disagree: 16%	Disagree: 33%	Disagree: 11%	Disagree: 0%
Implementing the PTE helps UKH towards adopting international practices	Agree: 68%	Agree: 83%	Agree: 89%	Agree: 100%
	Neutral: 24%	Neutral: 0%	Neutral: 0%	Neutral: 0%
	Disagree: 8%	Disagree: 17%	Disagree: 11%	Disagree: 0%
The minimum score of 45 for UG and 50 for PG admission is adequate for students' success	Agree: 68%	Agree: 50%	Agree: 22%	Agree: 33.3%
	Neutral: 24%	Neutral: 33%	Neutral: 56%	Neutral: 33.3%
	Disagree: 8%	Disagree: 17%	Disagree: 22%	Disagree: 33.3%

Students and staff can feel confident in the students' competency level	Agree: 66%	Agree: 33%	Agree: 67%	Agree: 67%
	Neutral: 24%	Neutral: 50%	Neutral: 22%	Neutral: 33%
	Disagree: 10%	Disagree: 17%	Disagree: 11%	Disagree: 0%
UKH can accurately assess students with their own in-house test	Agree: 44%	Agree: 50%	Agree: 22%	Agree: 67%
	Neutral: 39%	Neutral: 17%	Neutral: 45%	Neutral: 33%
	Disagree: 17%	Disagree: 33%	Disagree: 33%	Disagree: 0%
Students narrowly missing the minimum entry level should be admitted	Agree: 49%	Agree: 33%	Agree: 22%	Agree: 33%
	Neutral: 31%	Neutral: 17%	Neutral: 11%	Neutral: 0%
	Disagree: 20%	Disagree: 50%	Disagree: 67%	Disagree: 67%

Table 1 above outlines the findings from the first section of the questionnaire in which respondents were asked to agree or disagree with a number of statements. It can be concluded from these findings that the overall perceived impact of introducing the submission of a SELT score is positive amongst the different stakeholders within UKH.

However, when looking at the individual questions and different groups of participants, some differences can be observed. The first statement about the general feelings about introducing a SELT score, notably the PTE (Academic), as part of the admissions process indicates that the administrative staff questioned are less positive about this change than the teaching staff and senior management. The students who participated are a little more positive about the change than the administrative staff although the students are still less positive than the academic and senior management staff. There are a number of possible reasons for this significant difference including the fact that the teaching staff and senior management staff have been subjected repeatedly to pressure from students and their family members in the past when students were not accepted into their chosen undergraduate programme due to not achieving the minimum required score. The introduction of a SELT removed the pressure teaching staff and senior management were under to change scores as the tests are externally graded and cannot be modified by UKH staff. This will undoubtedly affect teaching staff and senior management staff's beliefs about the test introduction.

A further considerable difference in responses amongst the different internal stakeholders is in the beliefs about the suitability of the entry score of 45 to undergraduate programmes and 50 for postgraduate programmes. Only 8% of students consider the above scores to be inadequate for academic study, while 68% of the participants consider the scores to be acceptable to allow them to succeed. It should be noted that the students who participated in this research were all foundation and undergraduate students, so perceptions about the entry score for postgraduate study have not been collected. Pearson (2012) suggest that in order for students to be able to study at undergraduate level in the United Kingdom, students would need a minimum score of 51. This score is considered to be adequate for students to be able to successfully complete some of the easiest tasks at the Common European Framework (CEF) level B2. B2, which ranges from 59-75, is thought to be the level at which students can participate in academic activities. Students with a score below this threshold are believed to be at a level which does not allow them to fully participate in academic activities and would require further English language courses. As the UKH entry requirement was set in the B1 range, additional English language classes are compulsory for all first year undergraduate students who have not scored a minimum of 54 on the PTE. English language classes currently continue in the second year of undergraduate programmes in the School of Social Sciences where the students require a higher degree of flexibility with their written language. Whilst students and administrative staff consider the undergraduate score to be suitable, the teaching staff and senior management staff largely did not agree that the score was adequate with more than half of the teaching staff neither agreeing nor disagreeing. This could be due to the fact that teaching staff have a better understanding of the level students need to demonstrate to be able to succeed in academic life and are more aware of international standards. Despite there being no further question on the survey about what stakeholders believed the minimum admissions score should be, a small number of teaching staff and two of the senior management members indicated that the admissions score should be raised. This would be desirable and is a long-term plan in order to align UKH closer to international standards, but due to the average level of students finishing high school in the region, this is currently extremely difficult to achieve as the number of admitted students would be too low to offer programmes. For the academic year 2016/17, the minimum entry score will remain the same with the provision of compulsory language classes alongside undergraduate programme modules.

Participants' beliefs also differed about UKH's ability to accurately assess students' language ability through their own in-house test. Only 22% of teaching staff agreed that students can be accurately assessed with an in-house test. Bachman and Palmer (1996) refer to the view that many teachers hold that test development is a skill which is limited to those who have

expert knowledge about how to create the 'best' test. Staff at UKH might not feel that they have adequate training to develop such a high stakes test which has serious implications for a student of not being selected. The pressure staff members have been placed under in the past might also influence their response as they feel less confident in using a test in which their judgment might be questioned. In-house tests are currently used at UKH for external, commercial language courses, which are relatively low stakes, and students are then placed according to CEF levels. Due to the lower stakes involved of this test, staff might feel more confident in designing and using these assessments rather than a higher stakes test for university admission.

The final area of noticeable difference in responses is in relation to students being accepted who narrowly fail to meet the minimum entry requirement for UG or PG programmes. Almost half of the students questioned stated that they thought students should be considered if they narrowly missed the minimum entry score, whereas 67% of teaching staff and senior management members believe that such students should not be considered. As previously mentioned, some students and their family members attempted to persuade staff to change the result if a student had narrowly failed to meet the minimum pass mark of the former in-house test, which could account for this high percentage of students who believe students who are below the minimum standard should be selected. In contrast, the academic staff might have a different view due to them being aware that the minimum entry scores are already lower than many institutions abroad would accept, which is why they believe that the entry requirements should not be lowered any further.

Table 2: Responses to Statements Ranked According to Importance (1 being the most important and 5 being the least important)

	Students	Administrative Staff	Teaching Staff	Senior Management Staff
Administrative staff, academic staff and students can be confident that the results are reliable and valid.	1	3	1	1
The wider community can be confident that a secure, fair assessment is being used.	3	1	5	4
Administrative staff, academic staff and students can feel confident that the students' level is mapped against international standards.	2	2	2	3
As the results are external, UKH staff are not under pressure to change results	4	4	4	2
Other universities in the region are starting to require a standardised language score, so we are in line with our competitors.	5	5	3	5

Table 2 illustrates a number of possible benefits of introducing a SELT as part of the UKH admissions process and how different internal stakeholders rank these benefits in terms of importance. It can be clearly seen that most of the stakeholders value the importance of test results being reliable and valid. Douglas (2010) discusses the importance of both reliability and validity in conducting ethical language assessments. Reliability refers to how consistent test results are and can be an area of weakness when dealing with test takers taking a different test at different test sessions with different graders marking the test. Reliability is essential in high stakes situations such as a university admissions exam. Research into the reliability of the PTE (Academic) in the overall scores ranging from 53

to 79 is 0.97. This is on a scale of 0 to 1 with 0 meaning no reliability and 1 showing total reliability. The same research conducted by Pearson claims that in a high stakes situation such as university admission, the reliability of a test should be a minimum of 0.9 (Pearson, 2012), which demonstrates the high reliability of this particular test. Validity is concerned with the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. A member of the administration staff commented in the questionnaire that many of the applicants coming from public high schools might not have strong academic skills, which are assessed in the PTE (Academic) and therefore the validity of the test might be questionable. The importance of using a valid test to measure students' level of English prior to commencing their first year of undergraduate study in the Kurdistan region is discussed by Borg (2016) as many public university lecturers state that they believe their students do not have a high enough level to be able to participate in academic activities in the medium of English. These beliefs support the position of the KMHESR that the local tests have failed to identify those students who can understand English medium instruction (2010).

In addition to the importance of reliability and validity, all participants also indicated that they hold similar beliefs about the importance of students' language ability being mapped against international, external standards, which was another of the main reasons that the EMB decided to implement the use of a SELT.

The potential benefit which showed the least agreement was on the issue of the wider community, an external stakeholder, being confident in the test used. Bachman and Palmer (1996) refer to the impact a test can have not only on test takers but also on the wider society as all members of a community can be indirectly affected by the results of a particular test being used. This research has demonstrated that this potential advantage of using a SELT is not of high importance to the internal stakeholders although further research would need to be conducted with external stakeholders in order to gauge their actual opinions. It is possible that students' families, employers and the KRG might find this potential benefit to be of more significance than the internal stakeholders.

Figure 1: Word Cloud Listing Participants' Overall Impressions of Introducing a SELT

Figure 1 above lists a sample of the terms listed in an open-ended question about participants' overall thoughts about introducing a SELT into the UKH admissions process. The sample selected here represent the positive and negative terms used by all categories of participants. The majority of words listed illustrate a positive impression towards a SELT submission as did the responses where participants had to agree or disagree with the statements shown in table 1.

3.   Conclusion

To conclude, the survey has shown that the perceived impact of introducing a Secure English Language Test such as the PTE (Academic) is overall a positive development according to those internal stakeholders who responded within the University of Kurdistan Hewlêr including students, administrative staff, teaching staff, and senior management members. The decision taken by the Executive Management Board to introduce a recognised, standardised test was made in order to benchmark UKH's students' level with students in other international institutions whilst allowing UKH to have more confidence in the reliability and validity of language test results. The research has demonstrated that this change in the admissions process has fulfilled the EMB's objectives, whilst supporting the Kurdish Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research's objective of reform within Higher Education to be more closely aligned with international standards.

4.   Recommendations

A number of recommendations can be made as a result of this research. Firstly, the minimum English entry level needs to be constantly reviewed. As previously stated, the long term plan at UKH is to increase the English language entry requirement for both undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. However, currently the English level that the majority of students graduate with from public high schools is insufficient to allow a feasible cohort to begin with a B2 level across all programmes currently offered at UKH. As Borg (2016) suggests in his recent report, in order to address this problem, students should participate in an intensive foundation programme which develops students' capacity in using English for Academic Purposes if their level of English is too low to meet the minimum undergraduate requirements.

For those students who meet the minimum UKH undergraduate requirement, compulsory English language classes should continue to be offered alongside the UG modules in order to address the shortfall in their language skills. These classes should better equip students to be able to participate in academic activities more fully as their language level grows stronger. Furthermore, more communication should take place between the university and these

students to familiarise them with why these classes are necessary as the results clearly indicate that the students questioned in this research believe that the entry score of 45 is sufficient to succeed in their undergraduate studies, so the classes might not be highly valued. In addition to these measures, UKH should continue to offer preparation courses which familiarise students with the academic skills content of the PTE(Academic) in order that students' results are as valid as possible. Students who are unaware of the exam content, which includes measuring authentic academic skills, might be unable to score as highly as they could therefore affecting validity and potential implications for a student of being rejected or required to complete a year of intensive English for Academic Purposes foundation programme.

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Frankly Speaking: Learner Perceptions of an Unplugged Speaking Course in Kurdistan, Iraq

Amal Isa, Maryam Isa

Ishik University

ABSTRACT

This study explores learner perceptions of the implementation of the Unplugged (or Dogme) approach in a speaking practice course that was taught at two levels. Because dissonance between teaching approaches and learner expectations regarding classroom norms can lead to a rejection of new methods, learner perceptions of and reactions to the introduction of unfamiliar approaches should be investigated. Unplugged is highly interactive, learner-personalized and materials-light. It focuses on language which emerges from learner needs and interests as the stimuli for learning rather than relying on course books or prefabricated materials. The Unplugged approach was applied because it was deemed an effective means of promoting authentic, personalized interaction that would encourage participation and language production. This approach stands in stark contrast to teaching methods and roles traditional to the region. Therefore, this study examines initial impressions of learners toward this pedagogic procedure. The study employs a questionnaire to garner perceptions, particularly focusing on opinions regarding the interaction, personalization and effectiveness of the course. The questionnaire is primarily quantitative though several open-ended questions gather richer qualitative data. After 16 hours of instruction, the questionnaire was administered to 34 learners in two separate classes: 10 pre-intermediate-level males and 24 elementary-level females. The participants were university graduates and were teachers-in-training in the Ishik University Teacher Development Program (IUTDP) in Erbil, Kurdistan, Iraq. The quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed to form generalizations about learner perceptions. These findings suggest that overall the learners of this speaking course were positive toward the Unplugged approach, although some voiced a desire for the inclusion of more structure and teacher-learner interaction.

Keywords: Dogme, interaction, learner perceptions, personalization, Unplugged,

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent years have seen a surge of focus in the education community on active learning, which is defined by Faust and Paulson (1998: 4) as 'any learning activity engaged in by students in a classroom other than listening passively to an instructor's lecture.' The field of ELT (English Language Teaching) is no exception. The 1980's saw the popularity of Communicative Language Teaching rise with calls for ELT educators to encourage learners to use the language actively to communicate rather than simply memorize rules or repeat staged sentences or dialogs (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). A movement called 'Dogme' has moved a step further and encouraged ELT professionals to make communication the exclusive focus of an English class (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). 'Dogme', also called 'Unplugged,' is a movement that started in 2000. As the name 'Unplugged' suggests, the approach emphasizes a move away from focus on the use of materials and course books to focus on the learners themselves as the 'sources' for the class. Written and spoken texts created by the learners, based on their own lives and interests, enable learners to engage with English to learn English. Language knowledge is first constructed socially as learners interact to negotiate meaning and then internalized by the individuals (Vygotsky, 1978 in Lantolf, 2000).

The three 'core precepts' of the Unplugged approach are:
- teaching that is conversation-driven
- teaching that is materials-light
- teaching that focuses on emergent language
  (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009: 8)

As the authors of this paper considered their role in the Ishik University Teacher Development Program (IUTDP), the Unplugged approach was selected for the speaking practice class as it would provide maximum communicative opportunities. The value of the Unplugged approach lies in the fact that it promotes active learning by involving each individual in authentic, personalized interaction. Based on the approaches to ELT in the traditional educational systems of the students' home countries, it was assumed (and later confirmed in discussions with the learners themselves) that while learners had studied English for years, little focus was on active, authentic communication.

The following sections introduce key themes that this study investigated. It then notes the educational context of the investigation and its participants, before placing the study in the context of previous studies.

2. THEORY

Learner perceptions were sought on the general categories of the effectiveness of classroom interaction and personalization as these are core principles of the Unplugged approach.

2.1 LEARNING THROUGH INTERACTION

How students learn has been a topic of increased research as learning and learner-focus have taken center-stage (Ambrose et al., 2010). Ambrose et al., in their book How Learning Works (2010), define learning as

> a process that leads to change, which occurs as a result of experience and increases the potential for improved performance and future learning (pp. 44-45).

Ambrose et al. (2010) go on to define principles for learning. These principles include the impact of learners' prior knowledge, the contribution of social and emotional as well as intellectual factors to learning, and the necessity of 'practice combining and integrating [skills and knowledge learned] to develop greater fluency and automaticity' (p. 49).

These principles have been applied specifically to second language learning in the change which occurs when learners engage in conversational interaction. Regarding previous knowledge, van Lier (1996: 171) stated 'Learning takes place when the new is embedded in the familiar...Conversational interaction naturally links the known to the new' (in Meddings & Thornbury, 2009: 10). Language proficiency is developed when learners interact actively in the language (Ellis, 2005). Such 'collaborative talking to learn' (Long, 2015: 81) is supported by the Interaction Hypothesis which proposes that learners acquire language as they negotiate for meaning (Long, 1996). 'Negotiation for meaning...connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways' (Long, 1996: 451-452).

The interactional learning that takes place in an Unplugged classroom is encapsulated in Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Lantolf, 2000). The ZPD is the optimal learning zone. It highlights the difference between what can be learned alone versus what can be learned through the interactional support of others (Lantolf, 2000). The Unplugged approach, with its emphasis on interaction through conversation positions learners in the ZPD, thus they learn more through interaction with others than they would have learned alone. Hatch (1978: 404), famously noted that 'language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations .... out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed' (in Long, 2015: 81). Through interaction, learners 'produce more accurate and appropriate language, which itself provides input for other students' (Hedge, 2000: 13). Engaging in conversation, learners collaborate for language output, and 'sometimes show unexpected quantum leaps in their development... language also emerges' (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009: 18).

2.2 LEARNING ENHANCED THROUGH PERSONALIZATION

Unplugged lessons are materials-light and therefore focused on 'the people in the room'

(Meddings & Thornbury, 2009: 21), enhancing personalization and individualized learning. From a cognitive perspective, new information is stored as knowledge in the brain after passing through the limbic system, and this is done more efficiently when information is 'connected to prior knowledge' and infused with personal meaning (Arends & Kilcher, 2010: 38).

> Storage and subsequent retrieval is also more efficient when new learning allows learners to build and expand on what they already know and when the subject of the lesson is something they care about.
>
> (Arends & Kilcher, 2010: 38)

An approach that relies on participation from learners at a personal level, then, will lead to more efficient learning.

In the personalized environment of the Unplugged classroom, learning follows learner communication needs rather than being dictated by course book or syllabus (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). Explicit teaching utilizes a 'focus on form' that corresponds to these immediate communicative needs (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009: 20). Long (2015), who coined the term 'focus on form,' explains that it

> involves reactive use of a wide variety of pedagogic procedures...to draw learners' attention to linguistic problems in context, as they arise during communication...thereby increasing the likelihood that attention to code features will be synchronized with the learner's internal syllabus, developmental stage, and processing ability. (p. 27)

'The egalitarian nature of classroom discourse' makes learners initiators and active negotiators, seeking language assistance when they sense the communicative necessity (Long, 2015: 77).

When learning is personalized, 'motivation is enhanced' (Arends & Kilcher, 2010:67). Dornyei and Ushioda (2011: 113) sum up the bottom line of common motivational advice as: 'Find out your students' goals and the topics they want to learn, and build these into your syllabus as much as possible.' This helps learners to develop a personal voice (Ellis, 2005). Interaction gives strength to that voice (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009), as the learners take ownership of their language learning. The classroom becomes 'a discourse community in its own right, where each individual's identity is validated, and where learners can easily claim the right to speak' (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009: 11). This creates a positive, motivating learning environment where learners' self-esteem and confidence are given room to grow (Hamilton, 2004).

Effective teaching includes creating an environment in the classroom where the social and emotional needs of individual learners are addressed (Arends & Kilcher, 2010). Such an environment of 'open and participatory communication', where 'students feel safe, and they

believe that they will have a say in what is going on' (Arends & Kilcher, 2010: 69) not only increases motivation but also enables deeper learning. When learners see that they are in control of their learning and the direction of the class, they are both motivated and focused, as they are 'encouraged to think about what they are doing (rather than how well they are doing it)' (Kohn, 1993: 198-99 in Taylor, 2013: 35).

The following section describes the particular context for this study. It considers the educational systems of the countries from which the participants originated.

2.3 CONTEXT

Both Turkish and Iraqi educational systems tend toward a traditional approach. A recent analysis of how to move toward reform in Iraqi Kurdistan noted that primary through university education has traditionally focused on memorizing information in order to 'feed it back' without an emphasis on processing or thinking creatively (MHE, 2011: 28 in Kakamad, 2014: 349). More recent reports and studies also note teacher-centered, rote memorization techniques as the norm in most Kurdish schools (Vernez, Culbertson & Constant, 2014; Kakamad, 2014). Students are focused on passing classes rather than on actual learning (Majeed, 2012). Similarly, recent studies in Turkey have cited the traditional approach to education as a reason for the lack of English proficiency among graduates (Koru & Akesson, 2011; TEPAV, 2013). The fact that classes are 'teacher-centric' with a focus on completing exercises and passing 'a grammar-based' test is blamed for the effect that 'students fail to learn how to communicate and function independently in English' (TEPAV, 2013: 16).

The next section will discuss the importance of exploring learner perceptions when introducing unfamiliar methods. It sets forth the rationale of studies into learner attitudes to teaching methods.

2.4 INVESTIGATION INTO LEARNER PERCEPTIONS

Tomlinson (2005) asserts that the learner's attitude 'toward pedagogic procedures undoubtedly affects their effectiveness' (p. 141) and should therefore be explored. Various studies report attempted innovations that failed or needed major modification because they ran counter to learning norms and classroom 'social order' in their context (e.g. Karavas-Doukas, 1998: 49; Shamin, 1996). Divergence between teacher and learner attitudes toward the efficacy of activities can result in resistance. In his study on Japanese learners' attitudes toward the Unplugged approach, Worth (2012) cited numerous teacher postings from an 'ELT Dogme' Yahoo forum as they introduced the Unplugged approach into their classrooms. Some reported learner resistance when methods clashed with learners' expectation of a traditional course book and a teacher-transmission approach. Some learners devalued the

lessons as unstructured and resented paying for games and chatting (Worth, 2012).

In contrast, other studies reported that new methods were met with positive reception and renewed motivation (Dat, 2002 in Tomlison, 2005; Rebuffet-Broadus, 2012; Chong, 2012). Because discrepant preferences exist between learners from different cultures (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004 in Tomlison, 2005), it is essential to consider learner attitudes and norms within the particular context into which one intends to introduce a new practice. This present study therefore seeks to contribute to the needed ongoing research by examining learner perceptions of the Unplugged approach, as well as to evaluate its use in future classes.

The following section moves beyond the educational context of the participants. It places the current study in the context of research that has been undertaken and that needs to be initiated.

2.5 RELEVANT STUDIES

While numerous studies chart their implementation of the Unplugged (Dogme) approach, to date there is a paucity of studies investigating learner perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the Unplugged approach to language learning within a particular cultural context. Rebuffet-Broadus (2012) used questionnaires to explore learner perceptions during a Dogme course in France, reporting that learners liked the approach partly because it had 'more personal topics' and 'helps prepare them for real life' by encouraging them to negotiate meaning (2012: Part 3, p. 2). Her learners stated that they had progressed more, particularly in authentic speaking, as compared to traditional courses (Rebuffet-Broadus, 2012). Similar learner attitudes toward a Dogme course were recorded by Chong's questionnaire study (2012). Worth's qualitative study (2012) investigated learner response to his use of Dogme alongside a course book, finding that learners valued Dogme for speaking practice but the course book for grammar instruction and examination preparation. While these few studies explore learner attitudes in a Western and two Asian countries, to date only one study has been carried out in a Middle Eastern context. Hamiliton's article, 'Dogme in Action' (2002), included some learner feedback on her Dogme lessons with a small class of male students in the United Arab Emirates, reporting their enthusiasm at choosing topics from their own interests, peer learning, authentic communication, and their progress in grammar. These studies (Rebuffet-Broadus, 2012; Chong 2012; Worth 2012) involved small classes, whereas this present study examines learner perspectives in larger Unplugged classes (12 and 27). This study seeks to shed further light on learner perspectives within the context of the Middle East.

The following section delineates the methodology. Design, participants and instrument are discussed.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 QUESTIONNAIRES FOR LEARNER PERCEPTIONS

Questionnaires can garner learners' 'reactions to learning and classroom instruction and activities (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 93). Such questionnaires have investigated learner perceptions, attitudes and beliefs in numerous studies (e.g. Borg, 2002; Law, 2011). McDonough (2002) relates how her questionnaire uncovered a disparity between teacher and learner perspectives on learning activities' value. Horwitz's (2014) well-known survey (BALLI) has been used to chart learner beliefs in countless studies since the 1980s. Rebuffet-Broadus (2012) and Chong (2012) employed questionnaires to examine learner perceptions as they implemented the Unplugged approach.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS

The participants of this study included 34 students who were present in class the day of the questionnaire. These were the majority of the sample population: 39 learners of two classes in the Ishik University Teacher Development Program (IUTDP). The participants were 10 of the 12 males in the mixed ability pre-intermediate class and 24 of the 27 females in the mixed ability elementary class. Three of the male learners were Kurdish and the remaining learners, male and female, were Turkish. Table 1 displays participant distribution.

Table 1. Participant Distribution

Gender	English Class Level	Nationality
Female (n=24)	Elementary	Turkish
Male (n=10)	Pre-Intermediate	Turkish (7)
		Kurdish (3)

All learners had obtained their bachelor's degrees in preparation for a teaching career and were enrolled in the teacher development program concurrent with the time of the study. The program is comprised of experiential courses geared to provide the pedagogical and linguistic skills necessary to teach in a primary or secondary English-medium school. The program includes specific English course book instruction but had proposed a special class for speaking practice. All learners completed eight 2-hour speaking classes which employed the Unplugged approach. The participants formed a representative sample of the population expected for this program (Oppenheim, 1992; Bell, 2005).

3.3 DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

This study's questionnaire examines learner perceptions about the effectiveness of the Unplugged approach for a speaking practice class. Questionnaires provide 'reliable and

replicable data' (Dörnyei, 2007: 29) gained in quantity at speed. This study's perception-targeting questionnaire utilizes a Likert scale to explore the degree or intensity of attitudes, opinions and perceptions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Bell, 2005). This makes them highly quantifiable (Cohen et al., 2007) and facilitates comparison across groups (Oppenheim, 1992). Several open questions garner more personalized, unanticipated opinions, providing richer description of learner perceptions. These questions are optional in order not to burden the respondent (Dörnyei, 2007).

The questionnaire items are generally grouped by targeted categories to aid respondent understanding (Dörnyei, 2007). Simpler items are placed first to put the respondent at ease (Cohen et al., 2007). Items are worded so as to avoid ambiguity and leading (Cohen et al., 2007). The items are provided in simple English at a level believed comprehensible to the participants. However, during administration of the questionnaire, translation was provided for the elementary-level class.

Questionnaire items were coded according to one of three categories: interaction (learning through conversations and from other students), personalization (having a voice in the class and being comfortable in the classroom environment) and effectiveness (overall improvement and opinion of the style of the approach). However, the researchers noted that many of the questions related to more than one category. For example, the style of learner-learner interaction through conversation is essentially personalizing the classroom environment. Moreover, the aim of the entire questionnaire was to gain learners' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Unplugged approach, which overlaps every aspect of the class (e.g. interaction and personalization). Therefore, many items were assigned a coding according to what they most centrally targeted, even though they targeted other categories as well. Table 2 shows the primary targeted category for each item in the questionnaire.

Table 2. Categories targeted by each questionnaire item

Category	Questionnaire items
Interaction	5. I have a lot of opportunities to speak in class.
	9. Conversations in class help me to remember the new vocabulary.
	14. Students learn from other students in the class.
	15. Talking with other students helps me to communicate better in English.
	16. The teacher should speak more than the students in class.
	17. Students help each other to learn in this class.
Personalization	1. I like speaking in this class.
	2. I can talk about my opinions in the class.
	3. Making speaking mistakes in this class is OK.
	6. We are encouraged to ask questions in class.
	7. I talk about things I want to talk about in class.
	8. In class, we talk about my life and my interests.
Effectiveness	4. I am more confident to speak English now.
	10. The grammar we talk about in class helps me to say what I want to say.
	11. There is not enough grammar instruction in this class.
	12. The teacher should prepare more structured lessons.
	13. My speaking is improving because of this class.

The questionnaire was administered after 16 hours of Unplugged classes. This seemed an appropriate point to evaluate learner perceptions and to re-evaluate course design. Questionnaires were administered in paper form as a more familiar form to the participants. They were administered simultaneously to both classes (males and females) during a regular class period under similar conditions to reduce variables and increase reliability. Each researcher administered the questionnaire to the other researcher's class in order to protect the anonymity of the respondents and to encourage freedom of response.

The following section will present the data that were collected. Quantitative data will be noted first and then qualitative data. A discussion of these results will follow.

4. RESULTS

4.1 QUANTITATIVE DATA

The total number of responses for each point on the Likert scale per question were tabulated and the percentage of the responses at each point was ascertained. It should be noted that for three items (items 3, 5 and 11) only 33 respondents answered. A different respondent

declined or neglected to answer in items 3, 5, and 11, so the percentages for those three items reflect 33 not 34 respondents. In discussion of the responses, percentages of 'agree' and 'strongly agree' responses are combined as agreement. 'Disagree' and 'strongly disagree' responses are combined as disagreement.
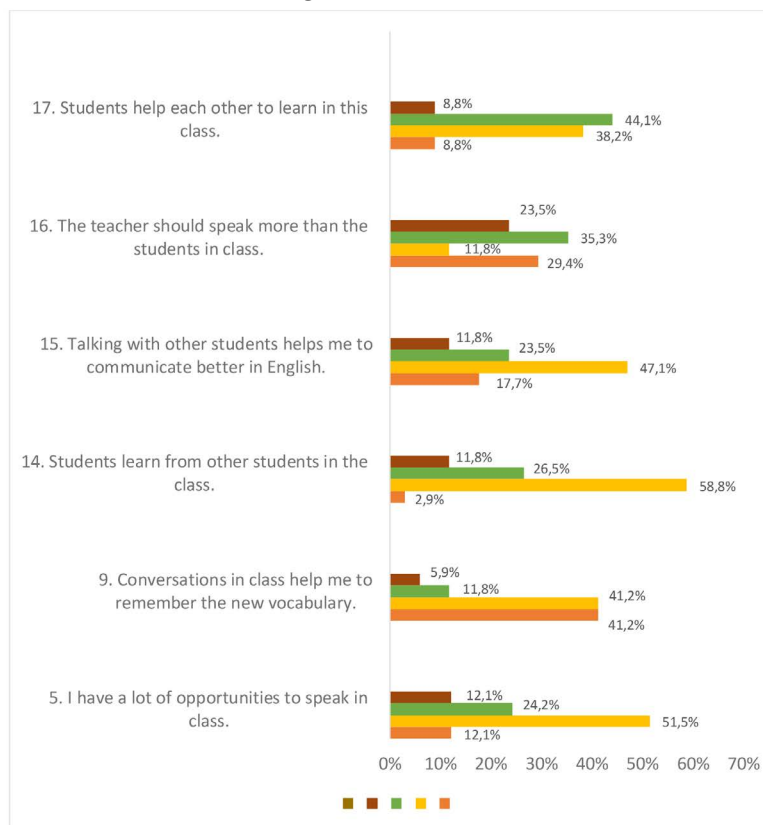
FIGURE 1. Responses to interaction items

Figure 1 provides a graphic representation the learners' perceptions regarding interaction in the classroom. Overall, the learners were positive about their involvement in the class. As seen in Figure 1, the majority felt personally involved in the class (63.6% agreement on item 5: I have a lot of opportunities to speak in the class). Furthermore, as seen in Figure 1, there was a sense that learning was enhanced by the techniques of utilizing conversation (item 9: 82.4% agreement) and learner-learner interaction (items 14: 61.7% agreement, 15: 64.8% agreement and 17: 47% agreement). Despite noting the benefits of the style of interaction in the Unplugged class, many learners still assented to the traditional teacher-fronted approach: item 16 (The teacher should speak more than the learners in class) with 41.2% agreement as opposed to only 23.5% disagreement. Having looked at learner perceptions on classroom interaction, the following figure will present responses to items regarding personalization.
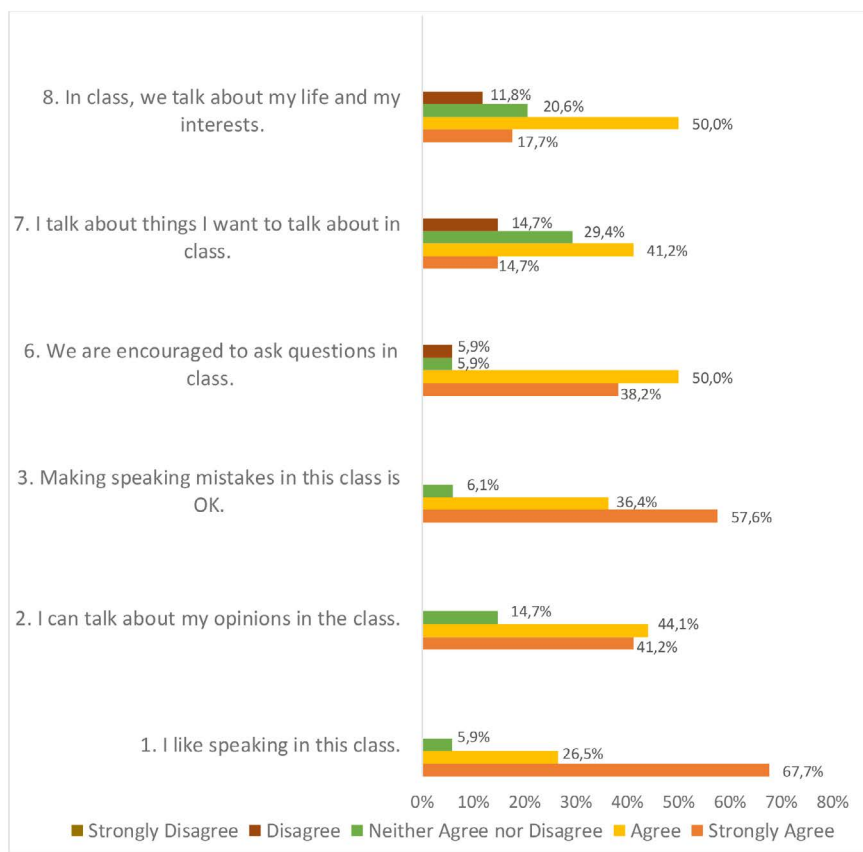
FIGURE 2. Responses to personalization items

Figure 2 graphically displays the learners' perceptions with reference to the personalization in the Unplugged classroom. No learner disagreed with the global question regarding enjoyment of speaking in the class (item 1: 94.2% agreement; 5.9% neutral). Learners reported that the atmosphere was such that they felt freedom to talk about personal opinions (item 2: 85.3% agreement) and make speaking mistakes (item 3: 94% agreement). From an affective standpoint, learners identified both that their questions were encouraged (item 6: 88.2% agreement) and that their voice was heard in the class (item 7: 55.9% agreement and item 8: 67.7% agreement). Moving on from personalization, the following figure depicts learners' perceptions on the overall effectiveness of the class.
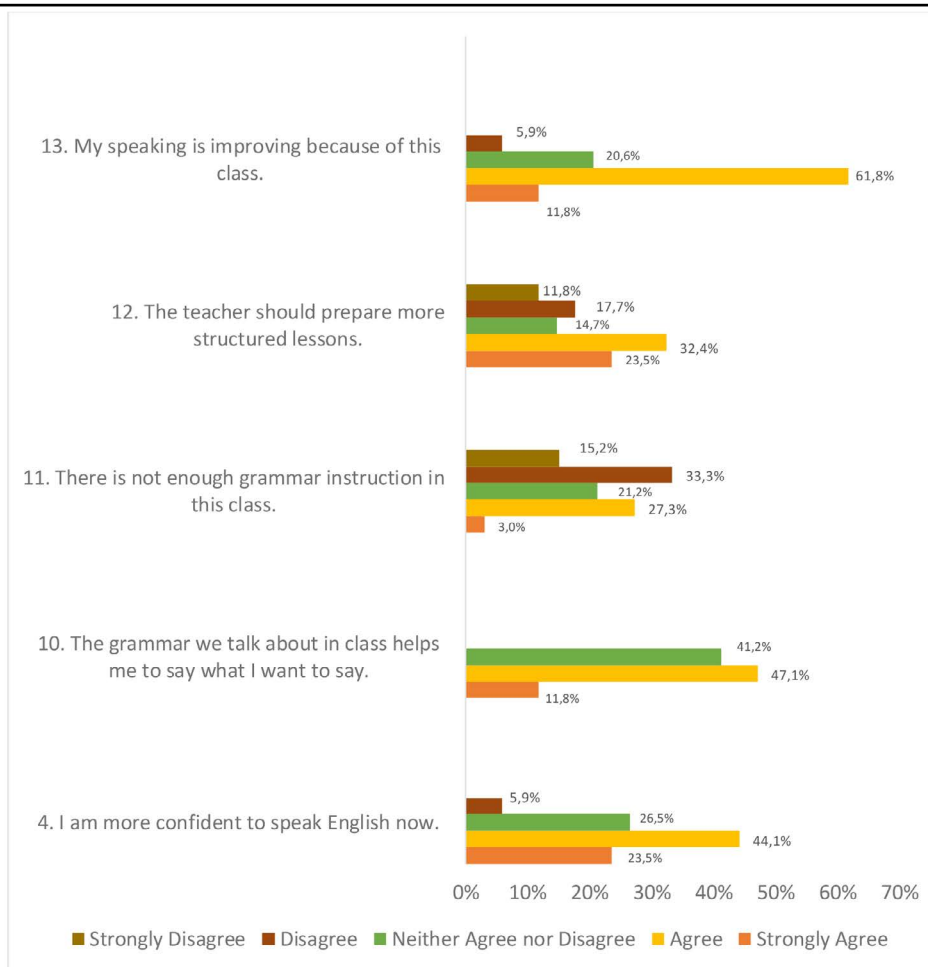
FIGURE 3. Responses to effectiveness items

Figure 3 illustrates the effectiveness of the class from the learners' perspectives. The perspectives were garnered with both positive and negative questionnaire items. Overall, learners agreed that they had seen an increase in their speaking ability (item 13: 73.6% agreement) and their confidence to speak English (item 4: 67.6% agreement) because of the class. In respect to the grammar in the class being effective to help learners say what they want to say (item 10), there was 58.9% agreement. Two items were included in the effectiveness category to ascertain if learners prefer a more traditional approach. In response to item 11 (There is not enough grammar instruction in this class), 48.5% of learners disagreed, while 21.2% were neutral. However, 30.3% agreed, indicating that they would prefer direct grammar instruction. Finally, in the strongest show of support for a traditional class, 55.9% agreed on item 12 (The teacher should prepare more structured lessons).

While the data show that most often the class of males and the class of females had similar perspectives, there were four notable differences. These will be demonstrated in Figures 4 -7 below.
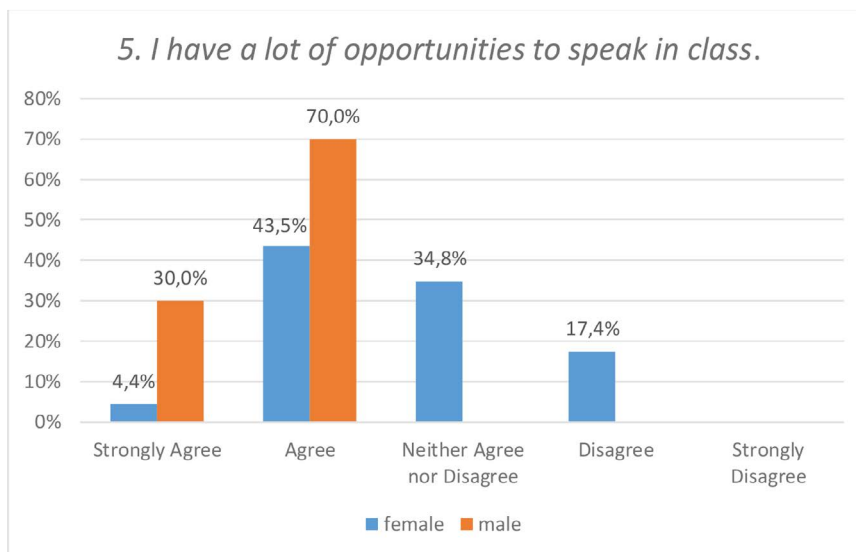
FIGURE 4. Male and female responses to item 5

Figure 4 shows the difference in male and female responses to item 5 (I have a lot of opportunities to speak in this class). Males agreed 100% that they had opportunities to speak while only 47.9% of females agreed. In all likelihood, the difference in the perception of opportunity to speak is related to the size difference in the two classes (12 males versus 27 females).
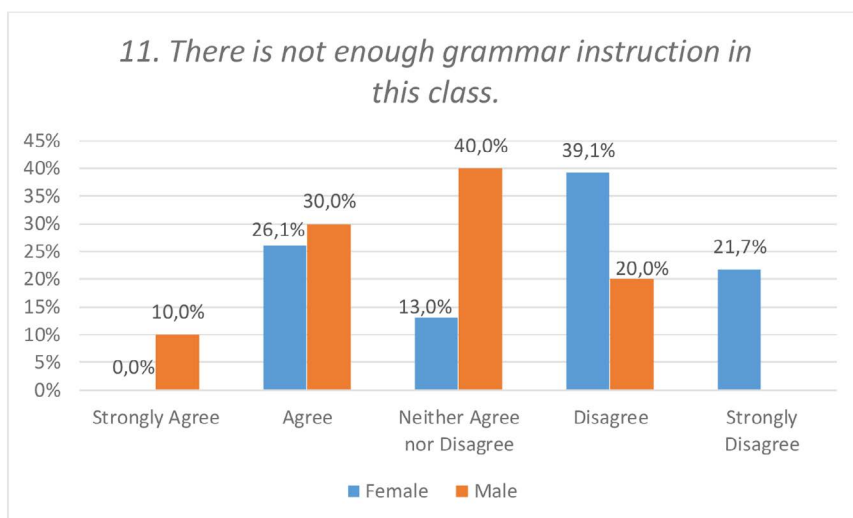
FIGURE 5. Male and female responses to item 11

Figure 5 shows the comparison of male and female learners in response to item 11 (There is not enough grammar instruction in this class). As this item is negatively-worded, a preferred response would be 'disagree'. Males had 40% agreement, although 40% were neutral. Females only had 26.1% agreement with 60.8% disagreement, indicating more satisfaction among females with the grammar instruction provided.
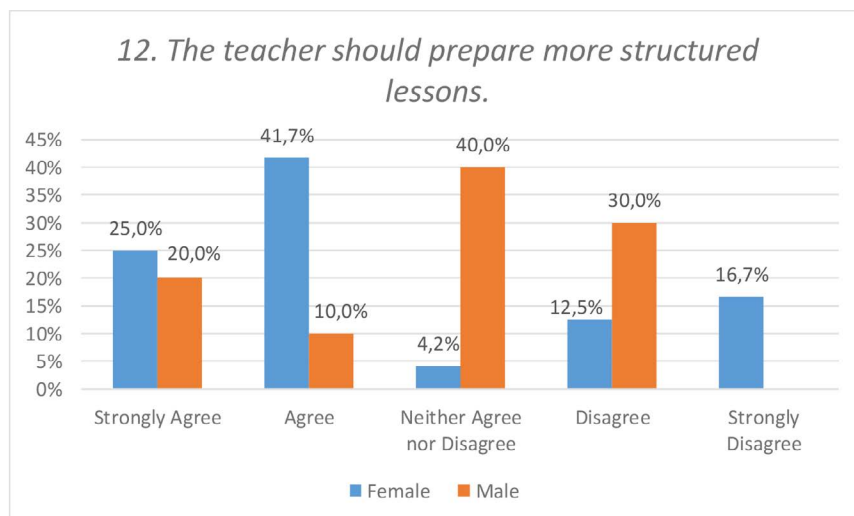
FIGURE 6. Male and female responses to item 12

Responses of males and females to item 12 (The teacher should prepare more structured lessons) are depicted in figure 6. Males equally agreed and disagreed at 30% respectively, with 40% being neutral. However, over half of females wanted more structured lessons with 66.7% agreement and only 29.2% disagreement, indicating that the females desire more structure in the class.
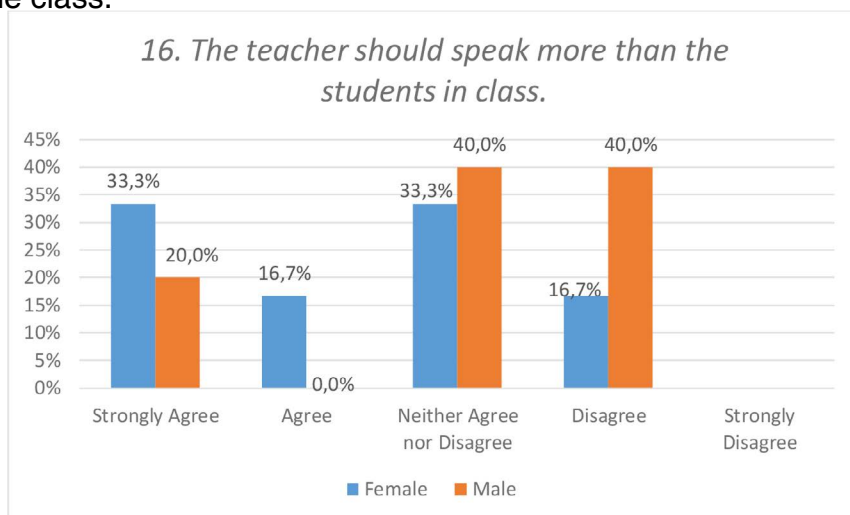
FIGURE 7. Male and female responses to item 16

The bar chart in figure 7 clarifies the differences between male and female responses to item 16 (The teacher should speak more than the learners in class). In this item, half of females agreed (50%) with only 16.7% disagreement. On the other hand, males had only 20% strong agreement with half of them disagreeing (50%) indicating that perhaps males accepted learner-learner interaction more than the females.

The following section presents the qualitative data. These items were added to extend quantitative data.

4.2 QUALITATIVE DATA

The three open-ended questions on the questionnaire provided thick data and expanded the answers given in the questionnaire. Respondents were numbered by class, F1-F24 for the females and M1-M10 for the males (represented in blue below). Responses were coded into categories as follows: Interaction, Personalization, Effectiveness. A cross-section of the data is reported and explained below. Learner quotations are recorded as they were written, including mistakes, to preserve the authenticity of the statements.

When asked what they liked about the class, responses focused on learning authentic English from a native speaker, a sense that learners had a voice in what was discussed, and an appreciation of the fact that learners interacted with each other and the teacher in conversations (see Table 3 below). Many of the responses expressed general enjoyment of the class.

Table 3. What students liked about the class

Category	Comments
Interaction	Speaking topics that we have oppurtinities of produce our conversation. (M4)
	I like speaking Native Speaker. Native Speaker speak to improve me. (F21)
	I like to make group in this class (M3)
Personalization	When I make a mistakes the teachers help me to fix it. (M10)
	I like speaking in this class ☺, I like talk about my opinions. (F7)
Effectiveness	I think, speaking activities is very effectively. (F20)
	We learn a lot of things with you about English grammar and phrases and many things. I look forward your lesson. (F17)

Respondents were asked what they did not like about the class and what they would do differently (see Table 4 below). Learners expressed some dissatisfaction with the style of interaction (learner-learner) and the choice of topics. There were complaints that there was not enough interaction with the teacher and that the class was too noisy, all of which were expressed by the class of females. Two males mentioned not wanting to interact with learners whose English level was lower than theirs. Finally, a desire for more structured lessons was expressed, with a specific request from both the males and the females for more focus on pronunciation.

Table 4. What students disliked about the class or would do differently

Category	Comments
Interaction	I think we should't speak each other. (F13)
	I want to more speak with my teachers, but we are crowded. (F2)
	[I don't like] Speaking with someone that his English level is different. From my level. (M8)
Personalization	Sometimes, some of the topics is boring. Exciting topic can be found. (F22)
	I want to different subject talk about. (F21)
Effectiveness	It could be better if we have a specific lesson plan . . . (F9)
	I like different activity. Please!!! watching video maybe short documentary, sort movie and listening song. (F8)
	Preparing some papers from teacher to students, speacially For making conversation better. (M8)
	I think This lesson is not enough once a week (F14)

These data will be discussed in the following section. Their relation to other studies will be noted.

5. DISCUSSION

For the majority of items on the questionnaire, there was strong support for the effectiveness of the Unplugged approach utilized in this course. In 16 of 17 quantitative questions on the questionnaire, the response in support of the approach was given (agree for positive questions and disagree for negative questions). In line with Ambrose et al.'s (2010) definition of learning as a result of experience and with the Interaction Hypothesis in which learners collaboratively talk to learn (Long, 2015), most respondents in this questionnaire felt that interaction with other learners had contributed toward learning. This indicates that the conversational interaction was perceived as beneficial by the learners. However, there were higher percentages of neutral responses to the items about learning from other learners than to other items. There was strong support for the teacher to talk more than the learners among the females, while the males, if taken by themselves, had a relatively small percentage that believed the teacher should talk more. The open-ended qualitative questions echoed this and clarified that the female class, in particular, wanted more interaction with the teacher, with some learners somewhat rejecting work with other learners. These facts seem to indicate, as predicted, that these learners would tend to locate the teacher more centrally in the classroom according to their prior learning norms and classroom 'social

order' (Karavas-Doukas, 1998: 49). The fact that the teachers were native English speakers was a motivating factor but also created frustration in the female class because they did not feel they had enough access to the teacher due to class size. The comments in the qualitative data regarding speaking with the teacher are probably due to the fact that the female class size did not allow as much individual attention. In contrast, the male class, which was less than half the size (12 males versus 27 females), all agreed that they have a lot of opportunities to speak in the class.

Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed a perception that the personalization in the class allowed for the voices of individual learners to be heard. Respondents recognized that the classroom was a safe place to be themselves and to make mistakes. Similar to the findings of Rebuffet-Broadus (2012), Chong (2012), and Hamilton (2000), learners appreciated the fact that they could talk about their own lives and interests in the class. However, a couple of the students expressed boredom with the topics and a desire for new topics in the qualitative section of the questionnaire. This sentiment may have been due to the fact that more vocal students pushed their own agendas as is often the case in a classroom setting. The majority response, though, was positive about the ability to speak into the content of the class, which is one of the principles of the conversation-driven aspect of the Unplugged approach. Furthermore, there was a sense of increased confidence in speaking as well as an improvement in speaking which was parallel to findings in Hamilton's 2000 study.

The preference shown by some learners for more structured lessons as well as the sense of some that there was not enough grammar instruction in the class corresponds to the findings of Worth's 2012 study in which learners preferred the course book when learning grammar and did not place as much value on an unstructured lesson. Interestingly, although the male class had a higher percentage of agreement than the female class to the item that there was not enough grammar instruction, there was less support by the males for more structured lessons. The qualitative data added specifics to the desire to have a structured lesson plan in that a couple of learners mentioned doing activities like movies and listening that would not be included in an Unplugged approach. Contrary to studies where innovative approaches have led to resistance (Karavas-Doukas, 1998: 49; Shamin, 1996; Worth, 2012), the learners in this study did not resist the approach overall and appear to have accepted the benefits it offers. The findings of this study corroborate those of Dat (2002 in Tomlison, 2005), Rebuffet-Broadus (2012) and Chong (2012) where new methods were received positively.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study seeks to contribute to findings from previous studies investigating learner perception, particularly regarding the Unplugged (Dogme) approach by extending previous research to the context of a university within the Middle East. This investigation employed a quantitative questionnaire augmented with three open-ended questions for richer data. Responses were gathered from 34 participants from Ishik University's Teacher Development Program (IUTDP). The data suggest a generally favorable impression of the effectiveness, interactional style and personalization of the communicative opportunities afforded in the speaking class. The Unplugged approach was well-received by the learners of these speaking classes, and the majority felt they had made progress. In spite of their felt improvement, slightly more than half of the participants voiced a request for more structure. This is in keeping with learning norms within the region. Surprisingly, there was little resistance to the approach itself but rather only a few requests for the addition of some structured activities. Some learners (particularly in the female class) also wanted more teacher-learner interaction, while recognizing that the class was too large to afford this.

This study highlights the importance of exploring learner perceptions when introducing non-traditional learning approaches, such as the Unplugged approach. The overall acceptance of the introduction of an approach unfamiliar to the learners corresponds to studies that report renewed motivation in response to a novel approach (e.g. Dat, 2002 in Tomlison, 2005; Rebuffet-Broadus, 2012; Chong, 2012). At the same time, there was some desire for more structure and a few requests for specific actives, which corresponds in part to Karavas-Doukas's 1998 study which indicates that unfamiliar approaches may require modification.

The data suggest a continued use of the Unplugged approach with slight modifications for speaking practice classes in the region. These modifications would include some integration of materials that give the learners a sense of formal structure and, whenever possible, smaller class sizes.

Further study is needed as to learner perceptions of the Unplugged approach in classes at a higher level of proficiency. Other studies could be undertaken when learner goals are proficiency rather than specific preparation for teaching in English-medium schools. Studies could also be conducted on the use of the Unplugged approach for writing and general grammatical and lexical learning. Such studies would extend the practical application and understanding of the benefits of the Unplugged approach for general English language learning in the region.

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Teachers' Awareness towards Using Google Forms in Teaching and Researching in EFL classes in Kurdistan

Zana Abbas

Hawran Saeed College of Basic Education

Salahaddin University, Erbil, Iraq

ABSTRACT

Google Forms is an online tool that can be adopted for a plethora of assorted academic purposes such as surveys, quizzes, feedback, etc. The study is an attempt to discuss and explore how teachers can make use of such a tool, especially in teaching and researching. The informants of this study are Kurdish-English instructors at Salahaddin University-Erbil (SUE) in Kurdistan Region of Iraq. In regards to the research data collection, two tools are employed, namely a questionnaire and analysing the available documents. It is revealed that the majority of the teachers are not aware of such a tool. However, very few participants are familiar with the tool but they do not how to make use of it effectively and efficiently.

Keywords: feedback, quizzes, Google Forms, survey,students'

1. Introduction

Nowadays, technology has been greatly employed in teaching and learning around the world including Kurdistan Region as well. In this manner, teachers, researchers and students have tried to use technology to enhance the process of education. Recently, teachers and students have been encouraged to utilise various technological tools in classroom to make the learning and teaching fun and enjoyable, such as projectors, smart boards, computers, sound lab systems, etc. In line with this, Google Company has provided several cooperative and beneficial tools like Google Docs, Google Sheets, Google Slides, Bloggers, etc. Such services have considerably assisted teachers in running their classes effectively (GCF Global, 2016). Yet, it has been years that researchers and teachers make efforts to ascertain a method to easily accumulate their research data, make quizzes, and obtain feedback from students (Davies, 2015). Hence, Google has added a new tool for its users named Google Forms.

Google Forms is a free online service that is offered within Google Drive in 2008 to "create, distribute, record and analyse custom forms online" (Bonventre & Lee, 2008 cited in Hutchinson, 2013: 2). It is apparent that sometimes instructors have had problems with doing quizzes due to the fact that it takes time to score the papers. Also, they have difficulties in amassing and analyzing data for their studies, since they may use SPSS or Excel program for the analysis. Therefore, this study tries to answer the following research questions: to what extent English teachers at SUE are aware of Google Forms, and for what purposes they can make use of it.

Researchers, methodologists, linguists and teachers may have heard the tools of Google Drive such as Docs, Sheets, Slides and Bloggers, but they might not have used Google Forms. With this tool, surveys, quizzes and assessments can be conducted with an ease (Davies, 2015; Fryer, 2010).

2. Google Forms for Research Purposes

It is obvious that instructors and researchers may find it problematic or challenging in gathering and analysing data. This is due to the fact that collecting and analysing data might be time-consuming, because the researchers usually have to print the questionnaire out and then dispense amongst the participants. After that, they have to collate the papers and analyse it through a programme which sometimes takes time and money.

Therefore, Google forms can be both time and money saving in this respect. This is because it is a free, web-based tool which can be shared, opened and edited by a number of users at the same time. In line with this, a number of question types can be created and made via this tool like Multiple-choice, short answer, checkboxes, paragraph, etc. Moreover, Davies (2015) highlights that the collected data can be automatically analysed in an Excel spreadsheets. That is, the data can be displayed via graphs, charts or tables. Also, the respondents' numbers are given as well. What is more, unlimited number of participants can take part in the paper whereas with the old version of conducting studies is sometimes hard to distribute and collect data with a larger scale. Another benefit is that email notifications of the respondents are sent to the researcher. Furthermore, researchers often find it embarrassing or unhappy while allocating the questionnaire with some serious mistakes. To overcome this, Google Forms can yet again save the researchers in which the form can be edited at anytime (Agarwal, 2014; Nesbitt, 2013).

2.1 Google Forms for Quizzes

It is clear that quiz(zes) is considered as one of the progress tests since it checks students' understanding. A qualified teacher has to make quizzes from time to time in their classes. Yet, some instructors neglect or disregard quizzes as they can be class time-consuming, as well as teachers usually spend a lot of time scoring the papers. In this regard, Agarwal (2014) confirms that Google Forms can be utilised for such a purpose. In other words, they can be time saving where teachers do not have to use class time and score the papers.

2.2 Google Forms for Feedback

In this day and age, students' feedback is regarded as one of the parts of quality assurance system worldwide. Teachers sometimes try to attain feedback from the students in order to identify his/her strengthens or weaknesses and/or their attitudes towards the module in general. One of the problems of doing so is that students may feel embarrassed or panic to comment on their own teachers or the module when it is face to face. That is why, Google forms can be adopted in this respect in which the students can give feedback online anonymously (Agarwal, 2014). This makes it more reliable. In addition, the printed feedback

can also be very time and money consuming. Whereas via the online feedback, results can be given and shown in minutes. Also, the results are more reliable in comparison with the printed one since the results cannot be changed.

3. Methodology

It is clear that sampling is one of the issues that has to be taken into account while conducting a research. There are a number of dissimilar types of sampling; yet, deciding the right type of sampling depends heavily on the purpose of the study. Purposive sampling is utilised in this piece of research. According to Tongco (2007:147), purposive sampling is "a deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities the informant possesses". It was employed so that it provides the researcher(s) with the necessary information for the research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). Taking the right sample number is controversial and contentious. There is no clear-cut of taking a sample; however, the right size of the sample counts heavily on the nature and aims of the study (Schwartz-Shea and Yanow, 2012 cited in Abbas, 2014).

The participants of this study were thirty Kurdish-English teachers at Salahaddin University. They were selected due to the fact that they had to speak English because this tool is only designed in English. Their ages ranged from 23 to over 50 years old. They had MA and Ph.D holders.

A mixed method approach was employed in this paper. It is defined as a kind of research where both qualitative and quantitative elements to collect data are utilized (Bergman, 2008; Cohen et al, 2011). A questionnaire was handed to participants, and documents were analyzed as well. Questionnaire was used as it is practical, cheap and can collect a large amount of data within a short time (Bell 2010; Oliver, 2010). The questions were both open and close-ended ones so that both type of date qualitative and quantitative can be gathered.

4. Data Analysis and Discussion

In this part, the data collected from the questionnaire is discussed. The overall trend is that the majority of the participants were not aware of Google Forms.
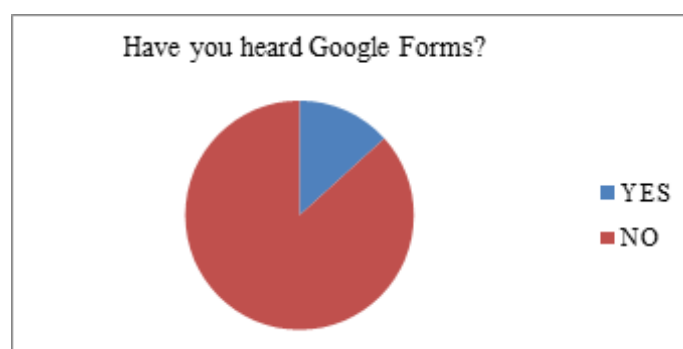
FIGURE 1. Teachers' Awareness towards Google Forms

It can be seen from the pie chart that the majority of the respondents (86.66%) did not hear the tool before. This may be due to insufficient training courses particularly technology. It is obvious that technology has dramatically increased and improved in every aspects of life. In the last decade, technology has played a significant role in teaching and learning. For that reason, instructors have to be updated on the current educational technological system by the university or teachers themselves. Further to this, there are computer labs without internet access at the colleges at SUE. This might hinder lecturers to search and utilise such educational and technological tools. Lack of information about this tool might also be related to self-motivation, because if they had had self-motivation, they could have surfed internet themselves somewhere else.

On the other hand, four of the informants (13.33%) were aware of this instrument. They also knew that it could be implemented mainly for these two educational purposes: surveys and quizzes. Amongst these participants, only two of them used it, merely for data collection.

In Kurdistan, researchers and senior students face several barriers while undertaking studies. Owing to the fact that, they use the SPSS or Excel programme to analyse the gathered data. This usually causes problems because many seniors do not have enough information about these two programmes for analysing the data, or sometimes it may cost researchers. In this regard, Google forms can substantially benefit them conduct their empirical research with an ease, because it can collect and analyse data automatically and quickly.

In line with the quizzes and feedback, none of the teachers adopted this instrument for such purposes. Kurdish-English lecturers usually have problem with scoring papers because of the large number of students in class as well as wasting class time. Moreover, at the universities in Kurdistan especially SUE, each year thousands of papers and money are spent on gaining students' feedback towards their instructors. This process takes a lot of time and effort to amass and analyse data. Consequently, this tool can ease the burden of shoulders of teachers and the university concern sides. Owing to the fact that, results are obtained as soon as the answers and data are given. This saves time and money for both the university and teachers.

5. Conclusion

This research was an attempt to figure out university teachers' awareness towards the usages of Google Forms in teaching and researching. Google Forms is a free online instrument that can be utilised for a plethora of different teaching and researching purposes such as surveys, quizzes, feedback, etc. The results were unexpected and shocking as the majority

of the instructors were not aware of such a tool. That is, they did not hear this tool before. However, only a very few number of the informants were familiar with this tool but they only adopted for survey purposes.

It is recommended that training courses should be opened for the instructors as part of teachers' ongoing development programmes to familiarize with and make the most out of this tool. Besides, Research Methods' instructors should include this instrument in their syllabus so that the senior students can make use of this tool for their final research projects.

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Appendices

1. A blank questionnaire

<div align="center">

Consent Form

</div>

Dear Volunteer,

We are conducting a research entitled "Teachers' Awareness towards Using Google Forms in Teaching and Researching in EFL classes in Kurdistan". The data is collected from teachers. According to the research ethical issues, we need your written consent to use the information you provide. Any information given will be used anonymously and kept confidentially. You will be able to withdraw, without any reason, at any time. By signing below and completing this questionnaire you confirm that you are giving consent to use the data.

Signature:
Date:

Name of Researcher: Hawran Saeed
Mobile: +(964) 750 486 0977
Email: hawran.abdullah@yahoo.com

Name of Researcher: Zana Abbas
Mobile: +(964) 750 453 7818
Email: sarok_85@yahoo.com

Have you ever heard Google Forms before?

Yes ☐   **No** ☐

If your answer is NO, don't answer the following questions.

If your answer is YES, then answer the following questions:

1. What is Google Forms?

```
[                                                                    ]
```

2. What is Google Forms used for?

```
[                                                                    ]
```

3. What is your opinion about Google Forms?

```
[                                                                    ]
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4. What are the challenges of using Google Forms?

```
[                                                                    ]
```

5. How have YOU used Google Forms before (for what purposes)?

```
[                                                                    ]
```
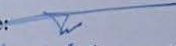
Thank You for Your Participation

2. A Sample Answered Questionnaire

Consent Form

Dear Volunteer,

We are conducting a research entitled **"Teachers' Awareness towards Using Google Forms in Teaching and Researching in EFL classes in Kurdistan"**. The data is collected from teachers. According to the research ethical issues, we need your written consent to use the information you provide. Any information given will be used **anonymously** and kept **confidentially**. You will be able to withdraw, without any reason, at any time. By signing below and completing this questionnaire you confirm that you are giving consent to use the data.

Signature:

Date: March 27, 2016

Name of Researcher: Hawran Saeed
Mobile: +(964) 750 486 0977
Email: hawran.abdullah@yahoo.com

Name of Researcher: Zana Abbas
Mobile: +(964) 750 453 7818
Email: sarok_85@yahoo.com

Have you ever used Google Forms before?

Yes ☑   No ☐

If your answer is NO, don't answer the following questions.

If your answer is YES, then answer the following questions:

1. What is Google Forms?

It's a web service provided by Google. It can be used for multiple services.

2. What is Google Forms used for?

It can be used for data collection and data analysis at the same time.

3. What is your opinion about Google Forms?

It is a very useful tool that can save you time and effort during data collection and analysis.

4. What are the challenges of using Google Forms?

One of the very challenges of Google Forms is that it has limited input. It cannot analyse all kinds of data.

5. How have YOU used Google Forms before (for what purposes)?

I have used it as sample for collecting data.

Thank You for Your Participation

Investigating the Reason behind the lack of Reading Classes in the English Department, College of Languages, Salahaddin University- Hawler

Assist Prof. Suhayla H. Majeed and
English Department, College of Languages,
Dr. Lanja A. Dabbagh
Salahaddin University- Hawler

ABSTRACT

This study has been conducted to reveal the reasons why there are no reading classes or activities in the English Department, College of Languages, Salahaddin University- Hawler. The data have been collected through a questionnaire (both for teachers and students), specifically designed for the study. Some interviews with the teachers where the interview questions serve the purpose of the study. The hypothesis is that due to restrictions of the curriculum, insufficient class time, and crowded classes as hindrances are the reasons behind the lack of reading classes and activities. The findings will reveal the exact problem of such deficiency in teaching language classes. They will, also, clarify, interpret, and explain other significant reasons for using little or no reading activities, even in comprehension classes, for example.

Introduction

Reading is a component processes. Individual differences in reading skill become a matter of understanding how these processes and their interactions contribute to successful reading outcomes. Where the successful outcome is reading individual words, the processes are localized in knowledge of word forms— both general and word-specific phonological and orthographic knowledge—and word meanings. Inadequate knowledge of word forms is the central obstacle to acquiring high levels of skill. Severe problems in word reading reflect severe problems in phonological knowledge. Where the successful outcome is comprehension, the critical processes continue to include word processes, and problems in comprehension are associated with problems in word processing. In addition, processes that contribute to basic sentence understanding and sentence integration become critical. Processes that provide basic propositional meaning, including word meaning selection and parsing, and those

that establish coherent text representations (integration processes, inferences, monitoring, conceptual knowledge) become critical to success. Less skilled readers, as assessed by comprehension tests, often show difficulties in one or more of these processes. Less clear is how to understand the causes of observed failures. A processing model helps to see the relationships among component processes and to guide studies of skill differences. The candidate causes of skill variation cannot be equally probable, when the output of lower-level processes are needed by higher level processes.

Reading

Reading is a bottom-up process in which readers "must first recognize a multiplicity of linguistic signals and use their linguistic data processing mechanisms to impose some sort of order to these signals" (Brown, 1994: 284). The reader chooses among all the information meaningful data and infers meanings, decides what to retain and what not to retain in his memory, and moves on. That is why meaning is constructed through reading not because a text carries it but because the reader brings information, knowledge, experience and culture to the printed word. This theory, known as Schema Theory (Brown, 1994: 284) emphasizes the conceptually driven, or top-down processing that brings background information to make decisions about meaning.

It is worth mentioning that we might not subscribe to either process in particular; rather learners should be encouraged to combine bottom-up and top-down processes in reading, which implies in practice doing such things as discussing the topic of a text before reading it, arousing expectations, eliciting connections between references in the text and situations known to the learners (Ur, 1996: 141).

Success at the university level mainly depends on existing pre-entry college attributes, including the mastery of some fundamental academic skills (Tinto, 1993). These include – reading, writing, critical thinking, oral presentation, and media literacy. Despite the importance of these skills for academic success, professors seldom teach them (Bean, 1996). They generally take them for granted, as they tend to presuppose that all students already acquired these skills either as part of their secondary education or elsewhere in college (Erickson, Peters, & Strommer, 2006). The reality is that most first-year students lack academic reading skills, especially because University-level reading greatly differs from High School reading. Thus, most students employ non-university strategies to read academic texts, which results in students taking a surface approach to reading.

Surface and Deep Reading

Learning a discipline involves developing familiarity with the ways of being, thinking, writing, and seeing the world of those experts in the discipline. Reading academic texts published by those disciplinary experts permits students to immerse in the culture of the discipline and facilitates learning its conventions, discourse, skills, and knowledge (Erickson, Peters, & Strommer, 2006, p.122). But, this is only possible if students take a deep approach to reading. A surface approach to reading is the tacit acceptance of information contained in the text. Students taking a surface approach to reading usually consider this information as isolated and unlinked facts. This leads to superficial retention of material for examinations and does not promote understanding or long-term retention of knowledge and information. In contrast, a deep approach to reading is an approach where the reader uses

higher- order cognitive skills such as the ability to analyze, synthesize, solve problems, and thinks meta-cognitively in order to negotiate meanings with the author and to construct new meaning from the text. The deep reader focuses on the author's message, on the ideas she is trying to convey, the line of argument, and the structure of the argument. The reader makes connections to already known concepts and principles and uses this understanding for problem solving in new contexts. Simply put, surface readers focus on the sign, i.e., the text itself, while deep readers focus on what is signified, i.e., the meaning of the text (Bowden & Marton, 2000, p. 49).

Research studies show that most university students today take a surface approach to reading and learning (Biggs, 1998, p. 58). This phenomenon occurs because teachers usually lecture the texts and evaluates students on their retention of facts and principles conveyed in the lectures (Wendling, 2008; Hobson, 2004, p.1)

Reading Academic Texts

Reading is a process shaped partly by the text, partly by the reader's background, and partly by the situation the reading occurs in (Hunt, 2004, p. 137). Reading an academic text does not simply involve finding information on the text itself. Rather, it is a process of working with the text. When reading an academic text, the reader recreates the meaning of the text, together with the author. In other words, readers negotiate the meaning with the author by applying their prior knowledge to it (Maleki & Heerman, 1992). This process is only possible if the reader uses a series of categories of analysis, some of which are specific to each academic discipline.

Thus, working with a text and recreating its meaning entail both non discipline specific and specific strategies. The expert reader has incorporated these categories and applies them almost intuitively. But, first-year students ignore these categories of analysis. So, professors

in each discipline need to teach both the general analytical tools and the discipline- specific values and strategies that facilitate disciplinary reading and learning (Bean, 1996, p. 133).

The Questioners

The Interviews

Results

Conclusions

Research studies on postsecondary education reading and learning show that most University students today adopt a surface approach to reading and learning. In general, these studies try to explain this phenomenon by focusing on students' attitudes, activities, and skills. The research study presented in this paper shows that when courses are designed in Salahaddin University for English Department in general and the one in the College of languages have no place for academic reading at the forefront of the course or anywhere else.

Recommendations

1.   Reading classes should be designed where the selected class activities encourage students to use higher-order cognitive skills to construct meaning from academic texts, and teachers implement assessment tools aimed at evaluating whether students use such skills to read academic texts, the result is that students tend to take a deep approach to reading and learning.

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ABSTRACT

Writing skill is one of the two productive language skills which is highly dependent on coherence and cohesion. Among the diverse influential variables the role of semantic markers among which discourse Markers (DMs) is prominent. Focusing on an ELT context, the study tried to determine whether there is any correlation between the writing ability and employing discourse markers among Iraqi ELT students. The study also tried to recognize the dominant discourse markers which deployed by Iraqi ELT students. To this end, 60 Iraqi ELT students were selected as the subjects of the study who were asked to write a composition on the exposed topic. Their compositions were scored holistically and analyzed in terms of the three types of discourse markers, namely, contrastive, elaborative and inferential. The data was put into SPSS 22 and were explored through Spearman Rho correlation coefficient. The findings revealed that Iraqi ELT students have mainly utilized the contrastive discourse markers comparing the other two types. The study also showed that there is strong and positive correlation between writing ability and the two types of discourse markers, i.e. contrastive and inferential. However, no correlation was found between writing ability and elaborative discourse markers. Likewise, discourse markers influence the quality of writing because discourse markers improve the cohesion and coherence of the writing. Accordingly, in teaching the productive skills, some portion of instruction should be devoted to teaching discourse markers.

Keywords: discourse markers, descriptive writing, elaborative discourse markers, inferential discourse markers

Introduction

Semantic connectors are one of the domains attracted the attention of many researchers in the field of language teaching. The main role of these semantic connectors is to clarify the

causal and adversative association among a vast variety of phenomena which shows the textual cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Discourse markers illustrate another type of cohesion which, according to Schiffrin (1987, p. 40), refer to the "linguistic, paralinguistic, or nonverbal elements that signal relations between units of talk by virtue of their syntactic and semantic properties and by virtue of their sequential relations as initial or terminal brackets

demarcating discourse units".

Discourse markers attracted the attention of many researchers since the 1970's and recently it was considered specifically in extended discourse with its focus on pragmatics and context. Fraser (1999) is one of the researchers who presented a comprehensive taxonomy in dealing with discourse markers. Discourse markers, according to Fraser (1999) composed of three main subclasses, i.e. contrastive markers, elaborative markers, and inferential markers. The first class, contrastive markers, refers to discourse markers that includes (but, however, (al)though, in contrast (with/to this/that), whereas, in comparison (with/to this/that), on the contrary, contrary to this/that, conversely, instead (of (doing) this/that), rather (than (doing) this/that), on the other hand, despite (doing) this/that, in spite of (doing) this/that, nevertheless, nonetheless, still)

the second class—elaborative markers—of discourse markers relating two parallel sentences or clauses and includes: and, above all, also, besides, better yet, for another thing, furthermore, in addition, moreover, more to the point, on top of it all, too, to cap it all off, what is more, I mean, in particular, namely, parenthetically, that is (to say), analogously, by the same token, correspondingly, equally, likewise, similarly, be that as it may, or, otherwise, that said, well.

The third class—inferential markers—is made up of discourse markers which assume one sentence or clause is the result of another and includes: so, of course, accordingly, as a consequence, as a logical conclusion, as a result, because of this/that, consequently, for this/that reason, hence, it can be concluded that, therefore, thus, in this/that case, under these/those conditions, then, all things considered.

There is no doubt regarding the issue that discourse markers influence the quality of writing because discourse markers improve the cohesion and coherence of the writing. Many researchers showed that discourse markers improve the quality of language in oral context (e.g. Müller, 2005; Shimada, 2014; Tagliamonte, 2005; Tree & Schrock, 1999; Zhao, 2013) or written compositions (e.g. Biber, Conrad, & Cortess, 2004; Jalilifar, 2008).

Likewise, discourse markers play a crucial role in constructing the quality of a text—written or spoken (e.g. Dan-ni & Zheng, 2010; Ghasemi 2013; Leo, 2012). Jalilifar (2008, p. 114) argues that discourse markers "enhance the quality of a piece of writing if they are used purposively and appropriately".

Considering the above introduction, the study tried to explore the discriptive composition written by ELT Iraqi students in terms of using discourse markers. In fact, the study addresses the following two questions:

1.   Is there any relationship between the quality of writing and using discourse markers among Iraqi ELT students?

2. Which category of the Discourse markers are mainly utilized by Iraqi ELT students in their expository compositions?

3.

2. Review of Literature

In this section some cases of empirical studies in which the role of discourse markers are investigated in language-related domains are numerated and discussed.

Jönsson (2013) explored "in what functions the discourse markers kind of and sort of are used in teenage conversation" (p. I). to this end, "a 500 000 word corpus of spontaneous teenage conversation, tape-recorded in London in 1993" (Jönsson, 2013, P. I) was gathered as the data. His study revealed four main functions, namely, "as a face-threat mitigator, as a delay device, as a compromiser and as a softener" (Jönsson, 2013, P. I). he also found that "the discourse marker sort of was more frequently used, compared to the discourse marker kind of" (Jönsson, 2013, P. I). he adds that "the functions that were most frequently used for sort of were as a face-threat mitigator and as a delay device and the functions that were the least frequently used were as a compromiser and as a softener" (Jönsson, 2013, P. I).

Zarei (2013, p. 107) explored "what discourse markers (DM) and their characteristics are in English". The researcher, in effect, examined the English discourse markers in conversations in Interchange series. She revealed that the two discourse markers of oh and well "were the most frequently used discourse markers in the conversations, and then the functions of them were explored to find the reason why the spoken discourse of the speakers was replete with forms such as oh and well" (Zarei, 2013, p. 107).

Sharndama and Yakubu (2013) examined "the use of discourse markers to enhance effective academic writing such as Laboratory Reports, Field Trip, Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES) or final year project Reports" (p. 15). They showed that "appropriate utilization of discourse markers" should be utilized in order "to enhance effective academic report writing" (Sharndama & Yakubu, 2013, p. 15).

Through a mixed method classroom research study, Jones (2011, p. 2) examined "the effectiveness of two different explicit teaching frameworks, Illustration –Interaction – Induction (III) and Present – Practice – Produce (PPP)" in teaching "the same spoken discourse

markers (DMs) to two different groups of Chinese learners at the same level of language competency". To this end, 36 Chinese learners (fourteen male, twenty two female) at the same broad level of language proficiency were selected as the participants of the study who were divided into three groups of experimental group 1 (III), experimental group 2 (PPP) and group 3 (control). The both experimental groups went under a ten-hour instruction and

the control group did not receive any instruction. The three groups took "a free response

speaking test used as a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test of eight weeks" (Jones, 2011, p. 2). The three tests were analyzed in terms of the frequency of target DMs used and learners were rated for interactive ability, discourse management and global achievement" (Jones, 2011, p. 2). The results of the study revealed that the "both experimental groups outperformed the control group in the immediate post-test in terms of the target DMs used but that this was weaker in the delayed test" (Jones, 2011, p. 2). Jones (2011, p. 3) also showed that there is "statistically significant differences between the experimental PPP group and the control group in terms of a higher mean usage of the target DMs in the immediate post-test, whilst the III group's score did not indicate a statistically significant difference when compared to the PPP and control groups".

Castro and Marcela (2009, p. 57) explored "the classroom interaction in the context of English as a foreign language being the teacher a non-native speaker of the language" in terms of discourse markers (DMs). Using data from an EFL class, "the occurrences and frequencies of DMs" were described (Castro, 2009, p. 57). Furthermore, the study tried to present the main functions of DMs as they were used by a non-native teacher of English and five adult students of EFL" (Castro, 2009, p. 57). They showed that "discourse markers fulfill a number of textual and interpersonal functions which may contribute greatly to the coherent and pragmatic flow of the discourse generated in classroom interaction" (Castro, 2009, p. 57). Hussein (2008, p. 1) explored "the semantics and pragmatics of discourse markers in English" by comparing "two accounts in the analysis of discourse markers, namely the Coherence account and the Relevance account". Through investigating "the similarities and differences between the two accounts", the researcher revealed that "the Relevance account is an ideal account and more appropriate for analyzing discourse markers than the Coherence one" Hussein (2008, p. 1).

Dülger (2007) explored the using of the discourse markers among Turkish EFL learners. To this end, the papers written by 67 second-grade students of Konya Selçuk were selected as the source of data which "were evaluated in terms of number of sentences used, the number of discourse markers used, and the variety of the discourse markers preferred in a

write five-paragraph essay" (Dülger, 2007, p. 257). His study showed that "effective usage of discourse markers is an indispensable part of attaining cohesive, coherent and unified pieces of written texts Dülger, 2007, p. 267).

Martínez (2004) examined utilizing the discourse markers in the expository compositions written by Spanish undergraduates. To this end, 78 first-year English students were asked

to write a composition whose writing were analyzed using Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of

Discourse Markers. The researcher concluded that "students employed a variety of discourse markers with some types used more frequently than others (in which) Elaborative markers followed by contrastive markers" (Martínez, 2004, p. 63) were the most dominant ones. The researcher also showed that there is "significant relationship between the scores of the compositions and the number of discourse markers used in the same compositions" (Martínez, 2004, p. 63).

Grote and Stede (1998) explored the discourse marker choices in sentence planning. The researchers tried to "enable the "generators to truly choose discourse markers on the basis of generation parameters and context" (p. 136). Hence, they developed "a lexicon of discourse markers" (Grote & Stede, 1998, p. 136) and showed "how such lexicon entries can be employed as a resource in the sentence planning phase of the generation process" (Grote & Stede, 1998, p. 136).

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 100 ELT students who were selected out of the 150 students who were majoring English language and studying in Tikrit University of Iraq.

3.2. Instrumentation (Data Collection & Data Analysis)

In conducting this study several instruments were used. First, a writing composition written by students on a topic. Second, holistic scoring procedure was utilized for evaluating and scoring the compositions of the subjects in order to provide more dependable result. Furthermore, the compositions were coded in terms of kind and number of discourse markers utilizing Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of Discourse Markers. The results of the compositions (scores) and type and frequency of the discourse markers were put into SPSS 22 and Spearman Correlation Coefficient was run to determine the relation between the quality of compositions and use of discourse markers. It is worth mentioning that Fraser's (1999) taxonomy includes three main subclasses, i.e. contrastive markers, elaborative markers, and inferential markers.

4. Findings

As it was mentioned 60 ELT students were asked to write a composition on the exposed topic which were analyzed in terms of the frequency and percentage of the utilized discourse markers. Furthermore, the writing were scored holistically out of 10. Table 1 shows the performances of the students.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Discourse Markers	elaborative	60	5.3167	2.73392
	inferential	60	5.6500	3.02994
	contrastive	60	6.2667	2.86337
	writing	60	7.4750	1.37602

According to the table 1, the subjects showed the means core of 7.5 for the writing test and the standard deviation of 1.37. Furthermore, the most utilized discourse markers was the contrastive ones with the mean of 6.27 and the standard deviation of 2.86. in order to determine whether there is any correlation between writing score and utilizing discourse markers, Spearman Rho correlation coefficient was run which resulted into the following table (table 2).

Table 2: Correlational Coefficient: Writing Score vs. Discourse Markers

Correlations			Discourse Markers		
			contrastive	elaborative	inferential
Spearman's Rho	writing	Correlation Coefficient	.593**	.161	.533**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.220	.000
		N	60	60	60
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 2 illustrates that the correlation between writing score and contrastive discourse markers (r=0.593, p<0.01) is positive and strong. Moreover, the correlation between the writing score and inferential discourse markers (r=0.533, p< 0.01) found to be positive and strong. The

correlation between the writing score and elaborative discourse markers (r=0.161, p<0.01), on the other hand, was revealed to be neutral. It means that however, there is correlation between the two types of discourse markers—contrastive and inferential—no correlation was found between the writing score and the elaborative discourse markers.

Table 3 sheds light on the total utilized discourse markers among Iraqi ELT students.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics in terms of frequency and type

	contrastive	elaborative	inferential
N	60	60	60
Sum	376.00	319.00	339.00
	36.5%	31%	33%

As the table shows the most utilized discourse markers type among Iraqi ELT students was the contrastive one followed by the inferential one and these two types of discourse markers were positively, significantly and strongly correlated to the quality of the writing abilities of the subjects. Figure one shows the percentages of each type of discourse markers utilized by Iraqi ELT students.
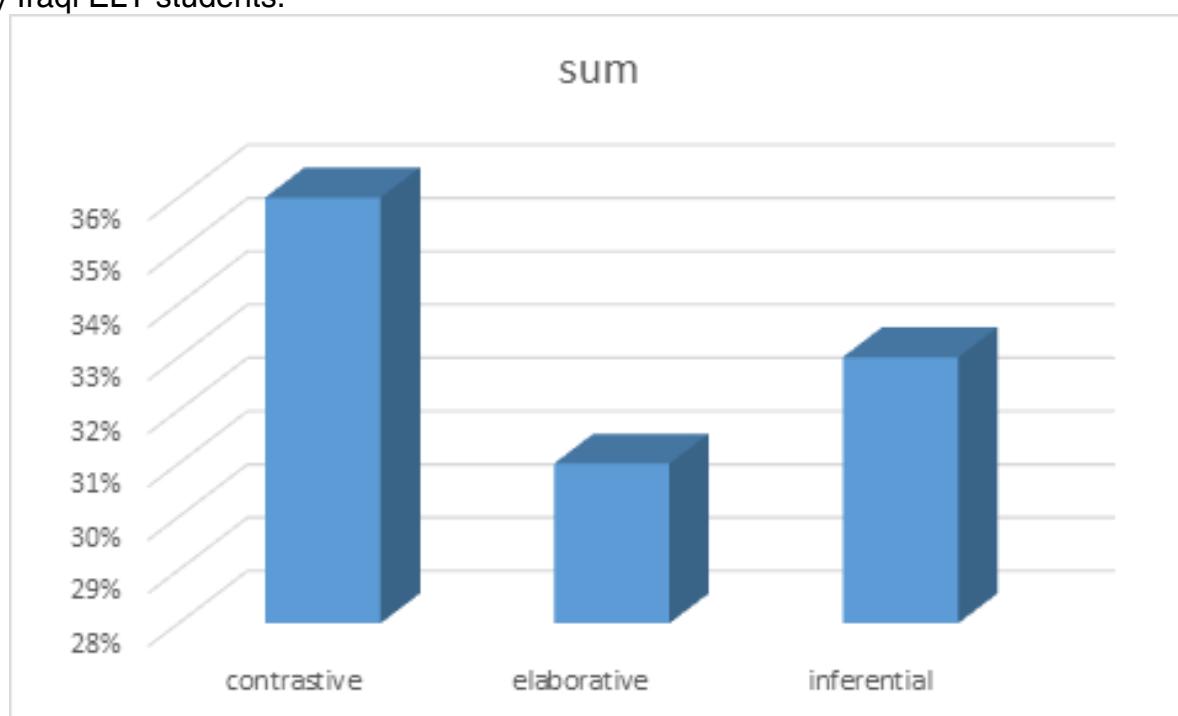
Figure 1: Percentages of Utilized Discourse Markers among Iraqi ELT students

5. Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

Writing skill is one of the two productive language skills which is highly dependent on coherence and cohesion. Among the diverse influential variables the role of semantic markers among which discourse Markers (DMs) is prominent. Discourse markers illustrate another type of cohesion which, according to Schiffrin (1987, p. 40), refer to the "linguistic,

paralinguistic, or nonverbal elements that signal relations between units of talk by virtue of their syntactic and semantic properties and by virtue of their sequential relations, as initial or terminal brackets demarcating discourse units".

Focusing on an ELT context, the study revealed that Iraqi ELT students have mainly utilized the contrastive discourse markers comparing the other two types. The study also showed that there is strong and positive correlation between writing ability and the two types of discourse markers, i.e. contrastive and inferential.

Likewise, discourse markers influence the quality of writing because discourse markers improve the cohesion and coherence of the writing. Hence, the results of the study supports the findings of many researchers who showed that discourse markers improve the quality of language in oral context (e.g. Müller, 2005; Shimada, 2014; Tagliamonte, 2005; Tree & Schrock, 1999; Zhao, 2013) or written compositions (e.g. Biber, Conrad, & Cortess, 2004; Jalilifar, 2008).

In a nutshell, discourse markers play a crucial role in constructing the quality of a text—written or spoken (e.g. Dan-ni & Zheng, 2010; Ghasemi 2013; Leo, 2012), which means that they "enhance the quality of a piece of writing if they are used purposively and appropriately" (Jalilifar, 2008, p. 114).

Accordingly, in teaching the productive skills, some portion of instruction should be devoted to teaching discourse markers in order to enable the students to write more appropriately with a higher proficiency. Hence, the results of the study is capable to be implemented in the curriculum courses, in teaching procedures for teachers and teachers' trainers as well as for learners to improve their writing ability.

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Mixed ability classrooms – a battlefield or a blessing? Evaluating heterogeneous and homogeneous EAP classes in Iraqi Kurdistan.

Stacey Xaelani

University of Kurdistan, Hewler, Iraqi Kurdistan

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research was to investigate into some issues concerning mixed ability and streamed English classes within an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) context in Kurdistan, North Iraq. Primarily, the focus was on researching into the effects of streaming classes on students' self-concept and motivation in both heterogeneous and homogeneous classes. The study used a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, to analyse data from questionnaires and focus group interviews. The findings and correlations between both pre- streamed and post-streamed classes were significant and it is hoped that this study will help spread awareness of students' self-concept when deliberating over whether streaming EAP students in a university setting is good practice or not.

Keywords: Homogeneous, Heterogeneous, Mixed-ability, Single-ability, Motivation, Self-concept

1- INTRODUCTION

Ability grouping, tracking, or streaming as it is better known, has been the focus of several theorists and education researchers, as evidenced by the fact that it "has been the subject of more research studies (well over 500) than almost any other educational practice" (George & Alexander,2003, p. 414).

The following quote from Klintworth's literature review gives a student's opinion of mixed ability classes through the following questions:

Would you enjoy having to tutor the other students on content you've already

mastered at the expense of the opportunity to enhance your own knowledge? How comfortable would you be as a master's student with no teaching experience in a class full of mostly doctoral students with an average of at least 10 years of teaching experience? Would you be excited by the thought of all you could learn from them, or would you be intimidated, lost, and overwhelmed because frankly you don't have a clue what they're talking about most of the time? (2009, p1)

Questions such as these were what initially inspired the present research project as similar remarks had been heard around campus by several teachers. On the face of it, it would seem that streamed classes (classes that are arranged according to ability) would be more beneficial for the students' progression as the teacher will be able to plan lessons according to their level and thus beneficial for the teachers too as it meant they would not have to spend too much time differentiating amongst abilities. It would appear to also allow the lower level students to get the specialised help that they need from their teachers and not get 'left behind' in mixed classes where the brighter students are the main focus of the class.

This leads us to the debate whether single ability or mixed ability groups are more suitable in an EAP university setting. This paper attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How do students of different levels feel about being in streamed classes as opposed to mixed ability classes?
2. After being placed in a streamed class, do the students feel they have been placed correctly?
3. Is there a difference between the motivation of higher level students and lower level students in both streamed and non-streamed classes?

This paper presents the result of some research into the self-concept and motivation of EAP students in a university in Iraqi Kurdistan. Due to the complexity of the research, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in an attempt to triangulate the results and enable the subject to be more understood from different aspects.

2- THEORY

Motivation

Motivation within groups, whether streamed or mixed ability, is a crucial factor to consider when assessing the effectiveness of grouping students.

Gillis-Furutaka and Sakurai (2002) conducted a study of the perspectives of students and the teachers regarding streaming and motivation which led to capricious responses. They gave questionnaires to students who had been streamed and who had been in classes where students had recently joined the class after being streamed. They found that some students who had moved class were less motivated by the move and it even affected the original students in the class who hadn't been moved who claimed that the new students never settled in properly.

Harlen and Malcolm (1999) observed that students who were placed in low ability groups often felt 'stigmatised and unmotivated' and all students were very much aware of whether they were high or low ability. Some opinions given during interviews carried out in Ogletree's study (1969) support this claim: "'People who are not clever, yet try hard are discouraged if they are put in the lower class, and the people in the top class become snobs'"(p23).

Joyce and McMillan (2010) hold a very contrary view to Harlen and Malcolm (1999) in that they concluded that there are advantages to streaming for both higher and lower level students. Despite this, they accept the claim that students at both ends of the scale (higher and lower proficiency) can benefit from peer tutoring in mixed ability classes and this can help them feel less stigmatized.

Joyce and McMillan (2010) carried out a study at a well-known Japanese university to investigate into streaming in first year students university classes. Students in streamed classes reported that they understood the learning materials better. Likewise, students at the higher end of the scale tended to feel that they were less sufficiently challenged in a mixed-ability class, while lower-proficiency students in non-streamed groups tended to regard their class as too difficult. Overall, the findings of the study concluded that there were more advantages to streaming when compared to mixed ability classes.

Saleh, Lazonder and De Jong (2005) also claim that low ability students not only achieve more, but they are more motivated to learn in mixed ability groups. Intermediate (average) students were found to learn better and achieve more in single ability groups whereas high ability students performed equally well in both settings.

Therefore, one could argue that streaming is not suitable for all levels of learners due to low levels of motivation. This could be the reason why so many schools and colleges have chosen to abandon streaming or ability tracking, as Daniel had advised: 'It is recommended that schools work to replace ability grouping with heterogeneous grouping wherever possible' (Daniel, 2007).

Self-concept

There have been several empirical studies associating student self-concept and learning. Liu, Wang, and Parkins (2005) found that after a three year placement into a single ability it was the lower ability students who had a more positive academic self-concept than their higher ability counterparts. They estimate that the reason for this finding could be that higher ability students are in a more competitive environment while lower ability students have the opportunity to experience success.

Wigfield and Eccles (2000) also found that student motivation is linked to teacher

expectations and concluded that they can have an influence on students' self-expectations and self-concept; both of which are elements of motivation in general.

Correspondingly, Ansalone and Biafora's study (2004) also included some empirical research that looked at self-concept of some students who have been streamed into single ability groups. Their findings were inconclusive as one perspective argued that when students had knowledge of being excluded from 'advanced' ability groups, or 'tracks', it contributed to a negative self-concept, whereas an alternative perspective advocated that streaming allows students of lower tracks to feel more at ease with themselves among peers of similar academic ability. Therefore the empirical evidence on self-concept and the long-term effects of mixed ability grouping remains mixed.

There is an abundance of studies available on the subjects of both motivation and self-concept in the ESL classroom, several of which discuss the effect of streaming/ placing students in single ability / mixed ability classes. However, there is very little research available within the EAP context in a university setting, and even fewer studies look at these issues within the Iraqi Kurdistan region.

3- METHODS

For this study, both questionnaires and interviews were used in order to gain a deeper insight into the students' perceptions of being streamed. As questionnaires usually invite limited responses and do not allow more detailed answers, it was decided that questionnaires (mostly close ended) would be used alongside group interviews. A total of five students volunteered for the group interviews.

The questionnaires consisted of 10 Likert scale type questions which probed participants for their opinions on being in a streamed / placed into mixed ability class. The questionnaires were back translated and the Kurdish translation appeared below the original question. The reason for this was to ensure that the students knew exactly what they were answering in order to achieve greater validity of the test. Even though the students who took part in the study had a good level of English, some words such as 'homogenous' could be difficult for them to understand.

The interview questions were developed after the analysis of the questionnaires in order to include any areas that were not covered on the questionnaire. During the interviews, a prompt sheet was used by the interviewer to prompt the participants to continue talking. With the consent and permission of the participants, the group interview was recorded and transcribed. When the interview had been transcribed and coded, the transcripts were shown to the 5 participants in order to check and confirm the content. For confidentiality

purposes, all participants were given a pseudonym and none were required to give their names for the questionnaires. As the student participants spoke Kurdish as a first language, the participants were initially asked to speak in Kurdish so that more detailed, quality responses could be gathered and to allow the participants to express themselves more freely in their mother tongue (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p49). However, the selected students wanted to conduct the interviews in English as they are students at an English medium university. Nevertheless, a translator was available during the interview and the participants were informed in the briefing session that if they have a point that they need to express in more detail then that option was available.

4- RESULTS

By doing a mixed methods study, it was hoped that a deeper insight would be given into the experiences of EAP students who are streamed into ability groups at a university level – something which traditionally is not done with adult learners. The interviews were transcribed and coded and common themes were prevalent which are discussed below. Some descriptive data from the results of the questionnaires will be then be discussed in this section according to the original research questions outlined in the introduction.

Interviews:

Streamed classes prevalent

From the five students who took part in the interviews, three of them preferred single ability groupings and the other two shared the opinion that mixed ability groups were better overall. Interestingly, of the three participants who opted for single ability as their preference, two were from higher bands and the other was a low band. All participants agreed that single ability classes create learning opportunities as students of a similar level are able to speak at a common level.

Sharing knowledge

As mentioned, as students agreed that they were able to speak easier to each other in a common level, all students agreed that sharing knowledge was a prime factor of importance in a class. Two of the students said that being in a single ability class is better for the sharing of knowledge and ideas because they can communicate easier. However, two of the other students said that they believed being in a mixed ability class allows knowledge to be shared between students easier. Speaker 3, a high level proponent of mixed ability stated 'What I couldn't understand from my teacher, I could understand from the others in the class.' She later continues to add that students who are of a lower level can ask higher level students for advice about how to study and how to complete tasks. Speaker 2, a low level proponent of single ability classes, disagrees and says that as a low level student, higher level students in

a mixed ability class were reluctant to share their knowledge or help him. He goes as far as to call such people 'selfish' for doing so. Speaker 4, also agrees with speaker 2 and explains a time when she was in a mixed ability group and was faced with. She mentions how 'they' (higher level students in a mixed ability class) feel too proud of themselves' and they don't want to share knowledge with others. However, overall she said that she could also be encouraged by others who are a higher level than her. Speaker 1 agrees that knowledge can be shared in both types of classes in different ways. He said 'Also...I mean can't the one level group I mean single ability groups, can't they share knowledge too? Of course they can.' This came as a rebuttal to a comment by speaker 5 who said that in mixed ability classes, ore knowledge is shared between students.

Communication

All students mentioned how speaking with others in the class a deciding factor as to which type of class they prefer. In the whole transcript, the words 'talk' is mentioned 12 times and 'speak' is mentioned 5 times which emphasises how important communication within the classroom is. Speaker 2 states: 'When you are in mixed ability you cannot speak with your friends (classmates) because you are different levels.' Speaker 1 talks about the time when he first joined the university:

'I had a friend that he had come back from Sweden whose English was really perfect. When I was talking to him, I feel... I mean I felt that he didn't want to talk to me because my English was different... My level was not as good as his. We were in a mixed ability class so that's why we couldn't talk to each other because when I was talking to him I was anxious I mean I felt I had anxiety but now because we are in the same level, we can talk to each other frankly.'

Achievement

The subject of achievement is something that was mentioned on 15 occasions during the group interview by several for the participants. When asked about ability and achievement, three of the five participants agreed that achievement would be higher in a single ability class. How achievement is measured is a separate issue but the participants questioned felt that personally, they are able to achieve more in a single ability group.

  Pre – streaming and Post –streaming questionnaire results

For the purpose of comparison, the results of both the pre-streaming and post-streaming questionnaires will be discussed simultaneously and thus presented in parallel in order to make direct comparisons. Below are the questions and raw data responses from both questionnaires. There were a total of 70 students who opted to take part in the study.

Pre-streaming questions

Table 1: Table of raw scores from the pre- streaming questionnaire.

Q#	Question	High	Medium	Low	
1	Compared to the students on your course, would you say your English level is	14	48	8	
		strongly agree	**agree**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**
2	I feel happy being taught in a mixed ability class	12	38	11	9
3	I understand my lessons and the teachers	20	42	7	1
4	I feel motivated to learn being amongst students of different levels.	5	42	19	4
5	I am happy to help students in my group who are at a lower level than me	25	36	7	2
6	Having stronger classmates motivates me to work harder	23	30	15	2
7	When some students in my class do not understand a concept, it holds up the class and I become annoyed	3	27	34	6
		similar ability groups	**mixed abilities groups**		
8	Which statement do you agree with most? (Who do you feel more confident working with?)	42	28		
		same level	**don't mind**	**mixed level**	
9	If I could choose, I would prefer to be in	39	3	28	

Question 10 pre streaming questionnaire:

This was a box in which participants could add any extra comments. Not all of the participants wrote a comment but this was only a space where they could leave any extra comments or opinions on the subject in question. The results from this open ended question showed that the majority of participants at this time, 21 out of 32 participants, commented that mixed ability classes were better in some way, mostly because they feel they can share more knowledge in those classes.

Post-streaming results

The students were then streamed after the first semester then after 2-3 weeks of being in their

new classes, they were given a similar questionnaire to complete. The table below shows the raw data for the 70 respondents who took part in the post-streaming questionnaires.

Post streaming questions 1 to 9

Table 2: Table showing raw scores from the post- streaming questionnaires

Q#	Question	High	Medium	Low	
1	Compared to the students on your course, would you say your English level is	10	58	2	
		strongly agree	**agree**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**
2	I feel happy being taught in a streamed class	12	52	6	2
3	I feel that I have been placed correctly according to my English level	18	44	8	0
4	I feel motivated to learn being amongst students of the same level.	20	42	8	0
5	I feel disheartened by being moved to a group of single ability	6	36	24	4
6	Having classmates of a similar level motivates me to work harder	20	40	10	0
7	The class sometimes moves at a pace which is unsuitable for me (too slow or fast)	4	40	26	0
		similar ability groups	**mixed abilities groups**		
8	Which statement do you agree with most? (Who do you feel more confident working with?)	48	22		
		same level classes	**don't mind**	**mixed level classes**	
9	If I could choose, I would prefer to be in	40	2	28	

Question 10 post streaming questionnaire:

This was another box in which participants could add any extra comments. On the post streaming questionnaire, there were less participants who wrote a comment for question 10, but from the 16 comments, 10 of them were supporting the idea of single ability groups.

5- DISCUSSION

Concurring with previous studies (Joyce and McMillan, 2010; Liu et al., 2005; Saleh, Lazonder and De Jong, 2005; Marzano and Pickering et al. 2001) these findings indicate

that the majority of EAP students questioned prefer single ability groupings and can take benefit from being streamed by ability. Questions 2,4 and 6 of the questionnaires showed significant results as the students opted for the grouping style that they were currently placed in whereas questions 8 and 9 indicate that regardless of their current groupings, the majority of students said they feel more confident and preferred single ability grouping as opposed to mixed ability grouping. This could mean that they are either complacent or it is a case of prestige bias. On the subject of motivation, during the interviews the majority of students felt that they were more motivated to learn in single ability classes whilst the minority others gave valid reasons for being more motivated in mixed ability classes. As the study shows that there was also a large group of students who preferred mixed ability groups for various reasons, it is important to recognise that the choices are based on individual preferences and could be related to previous positive or negative learning experiences of being in single or mixed ability groups.

Although this study was relatively small scale, dependent on the perceptions and opinions of learners and bore several limitations, the findings are still important for EAP and pre- undergraduate provision in this context. The study revealed that the majority of students on pre sessional EAP courses prefer single ability grouping which is contrary to many theories stating that mixed ability grouping is preferred by students and is more beneficial for motivation, self-concept and achievement.

Several recommendations for teachers and institutions have been detailed below as a result of this study. It is important that teachers within the EAP context are more aware of the students' needs and motivation within their classes. The teachers of students in streamed classes need to be aware of some potential problems such as some students having self-concept issues and feeling stigmatized.   Similarly, students who are in mixed ability classes may feel neglected as teachers focus their attention to the lower and higher students. Raising awareness and challenging teachers' beliefs necessitates professional development which should include collaboration to promote a shared understanding.

The measures outlined above necessitate teacher development and the fostering of a supportive, collaborative educational environment which would require managerial investment for staff development courses, allowing time for staff to participate in Continuous Professional Development (CPD) workshops and conferences. Management should trust that investment in analysing the students' emotional needs is time and money well spent as it will encourage student to be more motivated to learn, therefore achieve more whilst on their courses.

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BIO

Stacey has been teaching in the field of ESOL and EAP both in the UK and in Kurdistan for over a decade. She has been teaching in the English teaching unit at the University of Kurdistan since 2012. She has a MA in Education studies from the University of Derby (UK) and is currently a PhD student at the University of Leicester (UK) where her primary interests are motivation and self-concept.

Motivating English Foreign Language Students to Speak in English Classrooms

Mohammed Abdulazeez Mawlood Dizayi
Istanbul Aydin University, Istanbul, Turkey

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the factors that demotivate EFL students from speaking English in the classrooms, the motivational factors and strategies that can motivate EFL students and improve their ability to speak actively in classrooms.

For data collection, a questionnaire was administered to 106 3rd year EFL students who were randomly selected from College of Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil, ten EFL students and ten teachers were also interviewed at the above-mentioned university.

The findings of the study indicated that despite the students' positive attitudes towards speaking English, the majority of EFL students are not competent in speaking English. However, the students cannot speak actively due to some factors including linguistic, psychological, classroom environmental factors, insufficient use of motivational strategies, the curriculum and students being inaccurate and non-fluent.

The findings also indicated that teachers' use of words of applause, allocating more time for practicing speaking skill, providing friendly classroom atmosphere and allowing students to choose topics of discussion are among the most prominent factors that contribute in motivating EFL students to speak in the classrooms. Moreover, using technological utilities, inviting native speakers and the use of Communicative Language Teaching are also found as motivating factors.

The findings also indicated that the strategies such as applying role-play, debate and problem-solving, employing group/pair work discussion, providing friendly learning environment, raising students' confidence are very important to engage students in speaking activities.

The study also presented some suggestions including providing students with adequate motivation, developing vocabulary and grammar usage, using up-to-date teaching materials, adopting student-centered approach, suggesting topics which reflect students' needs, celebrating the students' success, applying role-play and group/pair work discussions to motivate EFL students to speak English in the classrooms.

Keywords: EFL Classrooms, EFL Students, Motivation, Speaking skill .

1- Introduction

One of the most important international languages is English. The present age is an age of globalization. Anything produced or invented in any parts of the world gets recognized globally and very rapidly. To keep up with the process of globalization, we need to learn English. Due to military, economic, scientific, political and cultural influence of the British Empire in the 18th and 19th centuries and that of the United States from the mid-20th century to present, English has achieved the prestige of global language. As a result, it has crossed the national borders of English speaking countries and has reached people who speak other languages. English is no longer a unique possession of the British or American people, but a language that belongs to world's people. It is estimated that around 340 million people use English as their first language and another 170 million use it as their second ("World languages & Culture," 2015). In Iraq, English is integrated into all aspects of life in education, business, communication, entertainment and so on. Through the global influence of native English speakers in cinema, airlines, broadcasting, entertainment, science and the internet recently, English is now the most widely learned foreign language in Iraq. Many students are required to learn English, because working knowledge of English is required in many fields and profession.

Speaking foreign language is the most important, challenging and difficult skill to be controlled by the second language (L2) speakers and for the majority of them, speaking skill is the weakest one (Carter & Nunan, 2001; Nunan, 2003; Martinez-Flor, Uso-Juan & Soler, 2006; Ur, 1996; Pathan, Aldersi & Alsout, 2014; Xian-long, 2009). However, Harmer (2007) pointed out that for many new L2 learners, speaking is the most difficult skill if it is compared to writing and listening skills due to two important factors, the first one is because speaking usually takes place in an immediate time and the listener is waiting to receive from the speaker immediately, the second factor is related to the process of edition while speaking, the speaker will not be able to conduct revision during speaking, contrary to the writing skill, as the writer can edit what s/he has written whenever needed.

Furthermore, language is considered as a mean of communication, it is the human being's nature that seeks to communicate with each other to express their feelings and in order to be acquainted with others. So, speaking is the cause of emerging a real and effective communication. According to Dörnyei (2005) speaking enhances the students' L2 communicative competence. Furthermore, Saifuddin (2013) claimed that the main skill is speaking that has a key role in language learning due to its purpose which is the ability to communicate through a target language. Also, Kenworthy (1987) stated that speaking

English, as a mean of communication, plays a specific role between speakers of the different first languages (L1) in many countries worldwide.

Speaking is being used in different situations as McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) claimed that for many learners, speaking the target language is to communicate in different circumstances, the researchers brought several examples in which it is stressed that speaking plays a key role in successful communication that has been widely used for several reasons such as traveling to a foreign country, doing business as well as conducting other professionals. Moreover, Richards and Renandya (2002) claimed that speaking has been used for many purposes, it has been used in ordinary conversations to contact with other people, to establish relationship, it is used while people involve in discussions to express feelings, to convince somebody to carry out something, the use of speaking also aims at giving or receiving instructions, it may be used to complain about behavior conducted by people or to describe things around, to make polite requests and questions, or it may be used for the purpose of entertaining.

Nevertheless, Ur (1996) pointed to the importance of speaking skill and claimed that speaking is a key skill to be used in communicating the target language, according to him the most significant skill among all the four language skills is speaking; he also attributed this to the fact that to know the target language, one has to be skillful in speaking skill because it includes the other three skills as well. According to Crystal (2003) English is a world language and speaking English has widely worked in different fields of life as speaking skill is being used in eighty-five percent of the world organizations. Richards and Renandya (2002) also confirmed that "A large percentage of the world's language learners study English in order to develop proficiency in speaking" (p.201). Thus as its found that speaking is the most important and difficult skill comparing to other skills, paying great attention to speaking skill is a must and teachers can exert every effort in eliminating students' speaking difficulties and encouraging them to improve their speaking skill.

Many studies have found the linguistic factors such as lack of vocabulary, mispronunciation and lack of grammar items hinder students speaking skill development (e.g., Pathan, Aldersi & Alsout, 2014; Bilal, Tareq, Rashid, Adnan, & Abbas, 2013; Chang & Goswami, 2011; Gan, 2012 ; Gilakjani, 2012; Hamad, 2013; Hosni, 2014; Jamila, 2014; Juhana, 2012; Noom-ura, 2013; Shabani, 2013; Pathan, 2013; Xiuqin, 2006). However according to the findings of many empirical studies the psychological factors such as lack of self-confidence, anxiety, shyness, lack of motivation, fear of making mistakes and fear of being rebuked by classmates and teachers are major factors that make EFL students to become passive

in speaking classroom (e.g., Pathan, et al., 2014; Al-Hebaish, 2012; Azizifar, Faryadian & Gowhary, 2014; Bilal et al., 2013; Chiang, 2012; Grubaugh, 1990; Hamad, 2013; jamila, 2014; Juhana, 2012; Liu & Jackson, 1998; Liu & Cheng, 2014; Nazara, 2011; Noom-ura, 2013; Ohata, 2005; Ozturk & Gurbuz, 2014; Pathan, 2013; Sidik, 2013; Subasi,2010; Tabatabaei & Molavi, 2012; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009; xiuqin, 2006). Nevertheless, the findings of many studies improved that the classroom environmental factors such as lack of time, lack of using technological equipments and large number of students in the classroom demotivate students from speaking English (e.g., Abdullah, Bakar & Mahbob, 2012; Afrough, Rahimi & Zarafshah, 2014; Chang & Goswami, 2011; Hamad, 2013; Nazara, 2011; Riasati, 2012; Soureshjani & Riahipour, 2012; Tabatabaie & Molavi, 2012; White, 2011; Xiuqin,2006). Chang and Goswami (2011) and Ozsevik (2010) claimed that the educational system creates obstacles in performing communicative language Teaching CLT in EFL classrooms.

Furthermore, many linguists have tried to examine the importance of motivation in language learning and have exerted their efforts to look for how students can be motivated by their teacher in the classroom (e.g., Brown, 2007; Cook, 2008; Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985). As one of the key concepts in psychology, Motivation is being used by teachers, researchers and English Foreign Language (EFL) students as an important factor which shapes the rate of success or/ and failure in the process of L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998). Meanwhile, Yule (2010) claimed that those students who are more successful are among those who are more motivated to learn. In the meantime, without having a strong and adequate motivation towards the L2 learning, having good curriculum, good teaching methods and having advanced capabilities would not be enough to secure the students' academic achievement (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei, 1998). Arends (2012) also claimed that motivating L2 students is an important action in teaching process.

According to Ur (1996) motivation has a significant role in learners' language learning achievement. Dörnyei (2001) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) introduced many motivational strategies that deal with the following components namely creating basic motivational conditions in which some particular conditions are going to be prepared in advance for the purpose of engendering effective motivation, generating initial students' motivation which means exerting efforts to generate students' positive attitude towards learning English language, maintaining motivation through creating a motivating classroom environment by the teachers for the purpose of improving students' language learning and encouraging positive self-evaluation which deals with students' self evaluation of what they have done in the past in a way that it would enhance, rather than discourage, their future attempts in learning English.

1-2- Research questions

The study aims to answer the following research questions:

1.   What are the factors that hinder students from speaking English when they are engaged in doing activities?

2.   What are the motivational factors that stimulate the students' willingness to practice speaking in an EFL classroom?

3.   What strategies can teachers use to motivate students to improve speaking skill?

2- Methodology

2-1- Participants

To gather the quantitative data, 106 EFL students (71 female and 35 male) participated in filling in the questionnaire, they were third grade students at the Department of English Language-College of Education in the (2014-2015) academic year at Salahaddin University-Erbil (SUE) in Erbil, Iraq. However, to gather the qualitative data, 10 university lecturers (8 male and 2 female) and 10 EFL students (6 female and 4 male) at the above-mentioned university were interviewed. It is worth mentioning that among those teachers who were interviewed, three of them were holders of PhD diploma and seven held MA certificates.

2-2- Instruments

Two types of data collection instruments were employed. The participants, from whom the quantitative data was collected, were filled in questionnaires which included the students' background information (gender and age) and four scales namely Speaking Demotivating Scale (SDS), Speaking Motivation Scale (SMS), Classroom Participation Scale (CPS) and Motivational Strategies Scale (MSS). The SDS consisted of seventeen items which aimed at finding the factors that mostly demotivate EFL students from speaking English in the classrooms, in this scale items (1-10) deal with Linguistic, psychological and classroom environmental Factors, however, items (11-17) shed light on the factors that related to the educational system, teachers and students. The SMS, which consisted of thirteen items, gives information about the factors that can motivate students to speak English in the classrooms, in this scale items (1-5) deal with providing students with motivation and items (6-13) deal with the role of classroom atmosphere, materials and teaching methodology in motivating students. Moreover, the CPS, with eight items, deals with the level of students' participation in speaking activities in the classroom and finally MSS, with eight items, is related to motivational strategies used by university lecturers to improve students' speaking skill. It is worthy to be mentioned that in SDS and SMS the students were asked to answer the items by ticking the five point scale ranged from "Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree",

at the mean time, the alternatives of CPS and MSS ranged from "Always to Never". The answers of the SDS scale is based on the statement "I cannot speak English because……". However, to gather the qualitative data, the researcher conducted interviews with 10 university lecturers at SUE, College of Education and College of Basic Education and 10 third grade EFL students at SUE, College of Education, Department of English Language. The questionnaire and the interview questions were relevant to the case of the study as they aimed at answering the research questions.

3- Results

3.1. Results of quantitative study

3.1.1. Results of Speaking Demotivation Scale SDS

This section deals with the answers collected from students through the questionnaires to answer the first research questions.

Table 3.1: Frequencies of the Linguistic, psychological and classroom environmental Factors as Demotivating Factors

No.	Item	S.A	A	N	D	S.D
1	I am afraid of making linguistic (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) mistakes that prevent me from speaking.	14.2	41.5	18.9	17.0	8.5
2	I suffer from lack of linguistic aspects (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation).	8.5	32.1	28.3	24.5	6.6
3	I mispronounce some words when I speak English.	10.4	34.9	26.4	21.7	6.6
4	I feel anxious when I try to speak English in the classroom.	15.1	40.6	22.6	11.3	10.4
5	I feel I would be laughed at by my classmates when I make oral mistakes.	17.0	25.5	25.5	17.0	15.1
6	I feel shy to speak English in front of the classroom.	26.4	17.9	21.7	17.9	16.0
7	I am not confident in myself to speak English in front of my class.	12.3	28.3	26.4	17.0	16.0
8	The lecture time is very limited to speak English in the classroom.	16.0	30.2	19.8	22.6	11.3
9	The classroom is too crowded to practice English speaking.	42.5	28.3	8.5	14.2	6.6
10	The classroom atmosphere is not friendly and is unmotivated to practice English speaking skill.	19.8	25.5	25.5	18.9	10.4

S.A= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, S.D = Strongly Disagree.

The results in table 3.1 demonstrate that more than half of students which equal to (55.7%A) are suffering from being afraid of making linguistic mistakes when they want to speak English and (25.5D) disagree, however (40.6%A) of them are suffering from lack of linguistic aspects (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) and (31.1% D) don't agree. Meanwhile most of the students (45.3%A) agreed to the statement "I mispronounce some words when I speak English" while (28.5% D) disagreed.

The results also showed that (55.7%A) believed that they cannot speak English because they feel anxious when they try to speak English in the classroom, while (21.7%D) disagreed. However, (42.5 %A) of the respondents believe that they don't speak English due to being laughed at by their classmates in the classroom, whereas (32.1%D) of them disagreed. Moreover, (44.3%A) of the students agreed that feeling shy to speak English in front of the classroom prevents them from speaking English, but (33.9%) disagreed. Nevertheless (40.6% A) of students agreed to the statement "I am not confident in myself to speak English in front of my class" whereas, (33.0% D) disagreed.

Table 3.1 also illustrates that (46.2%A) of the respondents believe that the time to practice speaking skill is very limited, while (33.9%D) disagree. In the mean time, (70.8%) of the students agree that they cannot practice speaking due to the large number of students in the classroom, but (20.6%D) disagreed. Finally, Table 3.1 shows that (45.3%A) of the respondents agreed that the classroom environment is unfriendly and non-motivating for speaking English, while (29.3%D) disagreed. students' attitudes towards their classroom environment may be due to several reasons for instance the classroom may not be well-equipped, lack of technical equipments such as tape recorders, videos, CDs, and projectors, as well as having large number of students may also negatively affect the students' eagerness to participate in the discussions.

Table 3.2: Frequencies of the factors related to educational system and factors related to teachers and students as demotivating factors

No.	Item	S.A	A	N	D	S.D
11	The topic of discussion is boring.	14.4	17.0	33.0	23.6	12.3
12	The curriculum is restricted that does not allow me to speak English in the classroom.	5.7	24.5	37.5	24.5	7.5
13	The method used to teach speaking skill in my university does not motivate me to speak English in the classroom.	27.4	22.6	18.9	18.9	12.3
14	I feel I am not fluent while speaking English in the classroom.	17.9	35.8	20.8	15.1	10.4
15	I feel I am not accurate while speaking English in the classroom.	6.6	40.6	35.8	14.2	2.8
16	I feel that the teacher becomes very angry when I make oral mistakes	1.9	5.7	27.4	28.3	36.8
17	I am not interested in speaking English in the classroom	4.7	11.3	10.4	27.4	46.2

S.A= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, S.D = Strongly Disagree

Table 3.2 shows that (35.9%D) disagree to the statement "The topic of discussion is boring", however, (33.0 %N) have no opinion and (31.4 %A) agreed to them item (11).

With regard to the item (12), (37.5%N) of the respondents have remained undecided, however, (32%D) of the respondents disagree to the item and (30.2%A) of them agreed that

the curriculum prevents them from speaking English in the classes.

Item (13) scored (27.4 S.A and 22.6%A) of the respondents who agreed that the method used in teaching the speaking skill does not motivate them to speak English in the classroom, while (31.2%) disagreed. This may be because teachers may not have used CLT enough and they may rely on using other teaching methodologies in teaching the speaking skill.

Table 3.2 also demonstrates that (53.7%A) of the respondents believe that they cannot speak English in the classroom because they are not fluent when speaking English, while (25.5%D) disagreed to the item (14). Furthermore, most of the respondents (47.2%A) agreed that being not accurate while speaking English is a factor that prevents them from speaking English, this affirms that students have difficulties with linguistic patterns in their utterances, This finding seems to support what was found earlier in table 3.1 as in response to item (1), more than half of the respondents identified their fear of making linguistics mistakes as a demotivating factor that hinders them from speaking English.

The finding of the item (15) also informs us that being inaccurate in speaking English has negatively affected the EFL students' level of fluency as well, since if students are not accurate then they cannot speak English fluently. The majority of respondents (65.1%D) disagree with the statement "I feel that the teacher becomes very angry when I make oral mistakes", in other words, they are happy enough with the teachers' reaction towards the students' oral mistakes, while small number of respondents (7.6%A) agreed with the statement. Finally, (73.6%D) of the students think negatively concerning item (17), while only (16% A) of them agreed to this item. This tells us that most of the students desired to speak English in the classroom. Thus, there may have other factors that cause students to be reluctant to speak English.

3.1.2. Results of Speaking Motivation Scale SMS

This section analyzes the students' responses about the factors that may contribute in motivation them to speak English in the classroom.

Table 3.3: Motivation and expectation: frequencies and responses

No.	Item	S.A	A	N	D	S.D
1	Providing Motivation leads me to speak English actively in the classroom.	44.3	36.8	14.2	4.7	0.0
2	Using words such as excellent, well done and applause from the teacher motivate me when I speak English in the classroom.	66.0	22.6	8.5	1.9	0.9
3	As a way of motivating students to speak in classes, teachers must use interesting games and activities.	61.3	26.4	10.4	1.9	0.0
4	Encouraging students to speak in the classroom leads them to become more self confident.	62.3	31.1	3.8	1.9	0.9
5	When I see students interact in English in the classroom, it encourages me to express myself.	48.1	31.1	17.9	1.9	0.9

S.A = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, S.D = Strongly Disagree

As shown in table 3.3, most of the respondents (81.1%A) believe that providing students with adequate motivation contributes in engaging them in speaking activities, while a small number of respondents (4.7%D) disagreed. Item (4) appears to be of significant finding as the majority of students (62.3%SA and 31.1%A) believe that providing motivation leads them to become more self-confident.

Also, the majority of students (66.6%SA and 22.6%A) agree on one accord that expressions such as excellent, fantastic, well done…etc, and applause can contribute to greater performance on the part of EFL students during speaking acts, but a very small number of students (2.8%D) disagree to the item (2). Therefore, students seem to be happy enough with celebrating their success and receiving such a kind of encouraging words. Moreover, the majority of respondents (61.3%SA and 26.4%A) believe that using interesting games and activities is far more essential to engage them in speaking activities, it is worth mentioning that only (1.9 %D) of the respondents disagree to the item (3).

Table 3.3 also illustrates that most of the students (48.1% SA and 31.1% A) are agreeable towards students' participation and interaction with each other in the classroom, while only (2.8%D) disagreed item (5), this affirms that student-student interaction in the classroom leads them to engage actively in speaking activities.

Table 3.4: Classroom atmosphere, materials and teaching methodology as motivating factors

No.	Item	S.A	A	N	D	S.D
6	Allotting more time to practice English motivates me to speak English in the classroom.	34.0	34.9	20.8	7.5	2.8
7	Teachers must provide a friendly and motivated atmosphere for the students to speak in the classroom.	72.6	20.8	5.7	0.9	0.0
8	Teacher must provide a friendly relationship with students.	41.5	36.8	17.0	1.9	2.8
9	Providing students with adequate time helps in promoting speaking English.	17.0	42.5	38.7	1.9	0.0
10	The English that I am studying in my university makes it easier for me to communicate in English language orally	23.6	37.7	21.7	12.3	4.7
11	Providing updating materials in teaching speaking skill motivates me to speak actively in the classroom.	26.4	35.8	21.7	11.3	4.7
12	If I have the opportunity of choosing the topics of discussion I would actively speaking English in the classroom.	43.4	34.0	17.9	3.8	0.9
13	The use of Communicative Language Teaching motivates me to speak English.	37.7	42.4	14.2	4.7	0.9

S.A = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, S.D = Strongly Disagree

Table 3.4 demonstrates that most of the students (34.0%SA and 34.9%A) believe that providing adequate time by the teacher helps to motivate students to become good English speakers, while (10.3%D) disagree to the item (6). However, the majority of the students (42.5% A and 17.0% SA) agreed to the statement "providing students with adequate time helps in promoting speaking English", whereas, only a very small number of students (1.9%) disagreed to the statement and (38.7%N) are undecided item. Thus, the findings of this item

indicate that the students are not quite satisfied with the current time provided for practicing speaking English and they need more time to think about the topics being discussed so that they can deliver their messages orally.

With regard to the item (7), as it is clear from table 3.4 the overwhelming majority of respondents (72.6%SA and 20.8%A) agreed that teachers must provide students with friendly and motivating atmosphere in the classroom, while only (0.9%D) of them disagreed. Moreover, the majority of students (41.5%SA and 36.8%A) stressed the importance of teachers' role in motivating students for speaking English by treating them in a friendly manner. Students' responses affirm the fact that teacher-student relationship significantly makes contribution to motivate them to speak English in the classroom. However, most of the students (23.6%SA and 37.7%A) believe that what they study are beneficial and offer facilities to speak in their L2, while (17%D) of them disagree to the item (10). Moreover, most of the respondents (35.8%A and 26.4%SA) agree that having up-to-date materials in teaching speaking skill encourages them to engage in the debates, only (16%D) disagree to the item (11).

The idea of letting students select the topics of discussions seems to be welcomed by students as the majority of them (43.4%SA and 34.0%A) believe that having permission of choosing the topics of discussion would motivate them to speak English actively in the classes. Hence, it is really essential for the university teachers to let the students decide for themselves in choosing topics of the argument.

Finally, in item (13), the majority of students (42.2%A and 37.7%SA) believe that the use of CLT in teaching the speaking skill motivate them to participate in oral activities, but small number of students (5.6%) disagree to the item (13). Students' responses to this item may be due to the fact that CLT includes some activates like presentation, pair/ group work discussion, role-play…etc. which let them get into a real conversation with the classmates.

3.1.3. Results of Classroom Participation Scale CPS

This part analyzes the students' level of participation in the activities and the difficulties they may face while practicing speaking skill.

Table 3.5: Frequencies of students' participation in the activities

No.	Item	A	O	S	R	N
1	How often do you speak English in the classroom?	8.5	24.5	49.1	16.0	1.9
2	How often do you face difficulties in practicing speaking skill in the classroom?	9.4	23.6	48.1	17.9	0.9
3	How often do you practice English orally with your classmates in the class?	2.8	21.7	31.1	34.0	10.4
4	How often do you practice English with your teacher in the classroom?	9.2	26.4	32.1	29.2	2.8
5	How often do you participate in group or pair work / discussion in the English speaking classroom?	14.2	27.4	37.7	15.1	5.7
6	How often does your teacher interact with students in English in the classroom?	13.2	49.1	27.4	6.6	3.8
7	How often do you feel shy, anxious and afraid of making oral errors while participating in speaking English in the classroom?	23.6	26.4	32.1	13.2	4.7
8	How often do you use words in the mother tongue while participating in speaking English?	3.8	18.9	34.0	32.1	11.3

A. Always, O = Often, S = Sometimes, R = Rarely, N= Never.

Table 3.5 shows that (49.1%) of participants state that they sometimes speak English in the classroom, while (24.5%O) say they often speak (item1). In item (2), most of the students (48.1%S and 23.6%O) state that they face obstacles in practicing speaking skill, while (17.9%) of them rarely face difficulties. The difficulties may be linguistic, psychological, environmental challenges and issues related to non-fluency and inaccuracy, as found earlier. With regard to the item (3), it seems that the students are not satisfied to practice and speak English with each other based on the inferred result representing, (34.0%R, 31.1%S, 21.7%O and 2.8%A). However, most of the students (32.1% S and 29.2% R) do not practice speaking with the teachers, while (26.4%O and 9.2%A) practice speaking with teacher (item4). This may be due to teachers that they have not provided enough motivation or due to challenges like linguistic, psychology, class environment… etc, as found earlier that hinder students from practicing speaking skill.

In Item (5), it is very clear from the inferred results representing (37.7%S and 15.1%R) that more than half of the respondents do not practice speaking skill in pair/group work discussion sufficiently, while (27.4%O and14.2%A) have the opposite view.

In the item (6), although students do not practice enough with their teachers, as found in the item (4) of the table 3.5 but more than half of them (49.1%O and 13.2%A) state that their teachers are cooperative in practicing speaking skill, this indicates that the students are quite happy with the teachers' interaction with them. As can be seen in the table 3.5 half of the students (26.4%O and 23.6%A) state that they feel shy, anxious and afraid of making oral mistakes while participating in speaking English in the classroom, while (32.1%S) say sometimes (item7). Finally, with regard to the item (8), it is clear from the inferred results

representing (34.0% S, 32.1%R and 11.3%N) that most of the students say that they only occasionally use L1 words in L2 speaking, while (18.9%O and 3.8%A) of the students say they use L1 words in L2 speaking frequently.

3.1.4. Results of Motivational Strategies Scale MSS

This section analyzes students' responses about the motivational strategies that lecturers can use to improve students' speaking skill.

Table 3.6: Motivational strategies

No.	Item	A	O	S	R	N
1	How often does your teacher help you to decrease the difficulties you face in speaking English in the class?	15.1	31.1	30.2	19.8	3.8
2	How often does your teacher apply role-play, pair or group work / discussion and information gap strategies to motivate you to speak English in classroom?	16.0	29.2	40.6	12.3	1.9
3	How often does your teacher encourage you to work in pairs or groups collaboratively in English speaking classroom?	21.7	24.5	40.6	12.3	0.9
4	How often does teacher neglect connecting topics of discussion with your daily life?	19.8	40.6	27.4	11.3	0.9
5	How often does your teacher use C.D, projector and recorders to motivate you to speak?	17.0	24.5	43.4	10.4	4.7
6	How often does your teacher offer rewards and grades when you participate actively in speaking English in the classroom?	0.9	10.4	32.1	27.4	24.5
7	How often does your teacher give you oral assignments (e.g., role-play, presentation)?	11.3	28.3	28.3	23.6	8.5
8	How often does your teacher use various types of activities to motivate you to speak English in the classroom?	5.7	20.8	39.6	24.5	9.4

A. Always, O = Often, S = Sometimes, R = Rarely, N= Never.

In the item (1), it seems that the students are quite happy with the help they receive from their teacher based on the results of table 3.6 that (31.1%O and 15.1%A) of respondents say that teachers are facilitator. While, (30.2%S) of them say teachers sometimes offer support to lessen students' speaking troubles. However, most of the students (40.6%S) state that their teachers sometimes use role-play, pair/group work discussion and information gap strategies to involve students in speaking activities (item2). Moreover, (24.5%O and 21.7%A) of the students are satisfied with the item (3), but is worth mentioning that (40.6%S) of them state that teachers sometimes motivate them to work in pair/group work discussion (item3), This may be due to lack of enough time and large classroom as affirmed earlier. Moreover, the result obtained from the item (4) is quite surprising, since most of the students (40.6%O and 19.8%A) say that the teachers ignore to link the topics of discussion with the students' daily life. This shows that students have to talk about a topic which may against their wishes. However, most of the students (43.4%) state that the teachers only sometimes use the technological utilities like CDs, cassettes and/or projectors to engage the students

in speaking English eagerly (item5). It is clear from the inferred results representing (0.9%A, 10.4%O, 32.1%S, 27.4 R and 24.5%N) that most of the students do not usually receive motivational rewards in return of their active participation (item6).

It seems that the findings of the item (7) is to be challenging since (28.3%O) of the students say that their teachers often ask them to do oral assignments, while exactly the same percentage of the respondents (28.3%S) state that they are only occasionally required to do so, however, (23.6%R) of them state that these types of motivational strategies are infrequently used by the teachers. Thus, the findings demonstrate that the teachers do not pay great attention to the use of oral assignments like role-play and presentation continually in most of the lectures.

Table 3.6 also demonstrates that (39.6%) of the respondents state that the teachers only sometimes apply different kinds of activities to motivate students to speak English, while (24.5%R) state that various kinds of activities are rarely used by the teachers, only (20.8%O) believe that the teacher use different activities. Little use of various types of activities by the teachers at SUE may be a reason that caused students not to participate in speaking English in the classroom.

3-2- Results of Qualitative Study
3-2-1- Interview with Teachers:

Teachers of different ages and subjects, who teach at the Department of English Language-College of Education and College of Basic Education at Salahaddin University-Erbil, were interviewed as to supply the questionnaire with further reliabilities. Seven questions were formed to ask ten university lecturers during the interviews which were relevant and related to the case of the research. Each teacher managed to answer the questions freely with no stress and pressure, they had all time to think, remember, and speak on their minds.

Concerning the first question (Based on your observation, what are the obstacles that hinder your students from speaking English in the classroom?), the responses given by all teachers (N=10) are as follows:

(Teacher 1 and 10): Here might be various reasons behind making students keep themselves away from speaking, including students' insufficiency of language skills, students' lack of self-confidence, lack of grammatical structure, classroom environment and atmosphere, large number of students in the classroom, anxiety and the topic being taught can be considered as another factors behind students' unwillingness to speak English.

(Teacher 2, 5 and 7): There are several obstacles/reasons of why students don't speak English in class such as shyness or embarrassing to speak in English in front of the

classmates. probably some students have got a very low-level English to speak with, lack of vocabulary, lack of grammatical structures, students' lack of self-confidence, lack of enough time provided for speaking activities.

(Teacher 3 and 4): There are many factors such as being shy; unmotivated; lack of time, large classroom, the negative impact of L1 and lack of proficiency in terms of pronunciation, grammatical structure and vocabulary.

(Teacher 6, 8 and 9): There are many factors, the most challenging one are shyness especially speaking in front of the opposite sex, fear of making mistakes, anxiety, large classroom in which students would have no enough chance to speak English, lack of time. Another problem is that they are not competent in their vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

Generally the teachers talked about challenges like mispronunciation, lack of vocabulary, lack of grammatical structure, shyness, anxiety, students' lack of self confidence, fear of making mistakes especially in front of the opposite sex, lack of time, large classroom and using mother tongue language.
Regarding the second question (What does a student need to be a good English speaker?), the responses given to this question are all about the following:

(Teacher 1, 3 and 5): In order to be a good English speaker, students need to have self motivation, practice by listening and imitating native speaker, listen to songs, watch movies and documentaries, feel confident in themselves, speak a lot with classmates and forget about who is the listener.

(Teacher 2 and 4): Students need to cooperate and interact with each other in the classroom; they should have enough vocabulary, good pronunciation, well grammatical structures, they should have motivation, there is no need to get afraid or feel shy when making mistakes, however, they need to listen to native speakers and imitate them to improve their pronunciation and participate in discussions.

(Teacher 6 and 9): Students should have patient and interest in learning English and reading extracurricular subjects related to the subject to improve their vocabulary, they should use the authentic language materials, they need to memorize the meaning of some important words, and above all they need to have interest in learning and speaking English.

(Teacher 7, 8, 10): Students need to listen to native speakers, listen to songs, read a lot to improve their vocabulary; they need to participate in casual activities plus having self confidence to speak English.

In conclusion, most of the teachers state that the students are in need of having self confidence, patience in learning, good grammatical structure, good vocabulary; they need to practice English language by listening to native speakers, songs and watching movies so that they would become a good English speaker.

In relation to the third question "Do you think instruction and curriculum in English classrooms at your university are satisfactory or not? Why/ or how? " (9) teachers think that the curriculum and instruction at SUE is not fully satisfactory, below are teachers' comments:

(Teacher 1, 3 and 10): The curriculum and instruction at SUE are not in favor of students to improve their speaking skill since there is no specific curriculum for spoken language, the current curriculum being used at SUE imported from foreign universities without any adaptation to local teaching planning environment.

(Teacher 2 and 7): The current curriculum and instruction are not satisfactory at all because learning outcomes are not satisfactory. The curriculum contains more about language subjects than language itself.

(Teacher 5 and 8): It can be said that it is not fully satisfactory since the majority of the students are not able to speak fluently. The main reason may be due to not taking into consideration the factors that are important in designing any course such as needs analysis, learners profile, social needs,…etc.

(Teacher 6 and 9): I'm not happy with the current curriculum and instruction at all, unfortunately at the moment there is not a clear-cut curriculum for improving students' spoken language, most of the time it is left to the teachers themselves to choose whatever materials he/she finds suitable and not all of us are lucky to find a good one, however, due to the linguistic and cultural variations most of the time such curriculum may not have proved to be useful to be used in our classrooms.

(Teacher 4): To some extent, it is promising, owing to the fact that the current curriculum and instruction assist the students to be good English language teachers when they graduate.

As seen above, the majority of the teachers are not happy with the curriculum and the instructions being used at Salahaddin University-Erbil.

With regard to the fourth question, (What are the best methods of teaching the speaking

skill to motivate students to speak in the classrooms?) all of the interviewed teachers (N=10) stressed on employing the CLT in the classroom as a best method for teaching the speaking skill to motivate students to speak English well. Below are the teachers' comments:

(Teacher 1, 3 and 8): I think every method focuses on a specific part of the language skills; the best method for teaching speaking skill is CLT since it focuses on communication, group /pair work discussion which are very important for the speaking skill.

(Teacher 2, 5 and 10): The CLT method is the best one that provides the most speaking opportunities to students and involves them in oral discussion after modeling by the teacher.

(Teacher 4 and 6): To motivate students there may exist some good methods, but the best one is the communicative approach for it is helpful for students to speak bravely better and quicker than other approaches.

(Teacher 7 and 9): CLT is the best method in teaching the speaking skill because the employing this method in teaching the speaking skill integrates students into a real conversation and they interact with each other continuously.

In conclusion, all of the teachers stressed the employment of CLT as a best method for teaching the speaking skill. According to them, it contained many activities which help the students to communicate with each other and improve their speaking skill.

In response to the fifth question (What are the most important strategies to help students speak in the target language?) the teachers shed light on the most important strategies to improve students' speaking skill, Some of the teachers' comments are as follows:

(Teacher 1, 5 and 9): There are many strategies teachers can use to improve students' speaking skill but the most important one are strategies like using role-play, debate and problem-solving, using group/pair work discussion, providing friendly learning environment, providing students with different activities, celebrating students' success and using technological equipments.

(Teacher 2, 3 and 8): Raising students' confidence, letting the students to choose topics of discussion, asking students to do presentation, adopting student-centered approach, awarding students when they successfully perform tasks and pay attention to individual needs are the most useful strategies teachers can use to motivate students to engage them in speaking activities.

(Teacher 4 , 6 , 7 and 10): The best strategies are providing high involvement to every student, preventing students from using L1, giving day-to-day topics to be discussed in the classroom, applying pair/group work discussion, celebrating students' progress and using

the cooperative learning strategies are very important for students, however, encouraging students to interact with each other is another important strategy because students learn from each other as when students speak with classmates they feel more comfortable and they can speak better.

In conclusion, the majority of the teachers stressed the use of dividing students into small pair groups, allowing them to choose topics for discussion, adopting student-centered approach, celebrating students' progress, using role-play and providing friendly learning environment…etc as best strategies teachers can use to improve students' speaking skill. The question six, (In your opinion, what teachers can do to motivate unwilling students to speak in the classrooms?), is specified to unmotivated students, it aims to get teachers opinion about motivating those students who are unwilling towards speaking English in the classroom. Some of the teachers' comments are as follows:

(Teacher 3, 7 and 10): To motivate unwilling students, teachers should see what the students like more, give them assignments that they like, reward them when they make a progress, show them the important of English language in shaping their future carrier.

(Teacher 1, 2, 4 and 6): unwilling students can be motivatied by allowing them to discuss what they like, making them feel comfortable, valuing their answers/views even if it is not appropriate to encourage them to participate in future discussions.

(Teacher 5, 8 and 9): Give students full support and help, using various scaffolding techniques when they speak, involving them in the classroom discussions and showing to all the importance and values of every individuals in class discussions, putting them into groups and giving them some tasks to do in groups, and occasionally making the unwilling students to be team speakers.

As seen above, teachers stressed on the use of over praising and valuing students, providing autonomy for discussing what they like, providing an atmosphere in which they feel comfortable, reward them when they make a progress are among techniques teachers can use to engage unwilling students into speaking activities.
As to the question seven (What do you suggest teachers to do to help students improve their speaking skill?) teachers suggested the following to improve students' speaking skill:
(Teacher 1, 5 and 7): Dividing students into small groups, because when teachers divide the students into groups they can interact and cooperate with each other and they would have more opportunities to speak and participate in classroom activities.

(Teacher 2, 3 and 10): Asking students very simple questions that would be easier for students to participate, students can be praised when they participate in speaking activities so that they feel they know something. This will help them to take part in different activities.

(Teacher 4 and 6): Helping the student break an ice by pushing them to talk & participate; facilitate easy ways to help them speak, making them feel comfortable, avoid punishment and reward them, celebrate the students' success, build students' self confidence.

(Teacher 8 and 9): Providing equal chance for all students to speak in the classroom, teachers can always be positive and praise students' progress, use competition, Giving positive feedback and chance. However, brain storming is another technique teachers can use because in brain storming the students can speak without being informed about their mistakes they made and this would give them more self confidence and they would be more comfortable.

Above are some comments by teachers as they suggested teachers to dividing students into small groups, praise students for their active participation in speaking activities, making students feel comfortable and avoid punishment and provide equal chance for all students to speak in the classroom in order to help students improve their speaking skill.

3-2-2- Interview with Students:

(10) Third year students at the Department of English language-College of Education at SUE were interviewed as to supply the questionnaire with further reliabilities. Seven questions were formed to ask students during the interviews which were relevant and related to the case of the research. Each student managed to answer the questions freely with no stress and pressure, they had all time to think, remember, and speak on their minds.

<u>Students' belief about their speaking ability:</u>

Regarding the first question (Do you think that you are excellent in speaking English?) none of the interviewees believe that they are fully competent in speaking English, only two students state that they are competent enough in speaking English comparing to their classmates. Below are some of the students' comments:

(Student 1): Since I was away from speaking English in primary and high school, so it is difficult for me to be a fluent English speaker, I think this needs more time.

(student 3 and 4): When I joined the university I thought that I am good at speaking English, but when I tried to speak it, I realized that I am just a beginner, still I am not confident in my speaking ability to say that I am an excellent English speaker.

(Student 6, 7 and 10): The only place for me to speaking English is my university, and because we are not speaking with our friends outside the class that's why I can't say I am excellent in speaking English.

(Student 2 and 8): When I joined SUE I had little knowledge about English language let alone speaking with it and I believe that the past years were just helped me to cope with the language. I think it takes time to obtain the ability of speaking English.

Student (5 and 9): To be honest, I cannot say I am not good at speaking English, but as a matter of fact, when I compare myself to my colleagues, I think that I am more advanced than the rest of the classmates.

In conclusion, the students' speaking abilities are not good, neither before joining the university nor after passing two fully academic years at the university. This is an indication that the students are really suffering from problems that needed to be addressed. However, it is worth mentioning that despite of poor speaking skill, and despite of having poor experiences in primary and secondary educations, now the students are optimistic to progress in their speaking skill and they believe that they need more time to become an advanced English speaker.

The second question (Among the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) do you think speaking skill is the most important one, why?) is asked to know the students' beliefs about the importance of the speaking skill among the four skills. All of the students (N=10) believe that speaking skill is the most important skill; the reasons for their answers are as follows:

(Student 1 and 2): Yes, speaking is the most important one because if I can speak English it means that I know the language.

(Student4, 6 and 7): Yes, because if I can speak English I am sure I would have more chance to get a good job in the future, so speaking English will provide a bright future for those who speaks it well.

(Student 3 and 9): Yes, because if I want to communicate with the foreigners, I have to be good at speaking English, because most of our communications are conducting through practicing the speaking skill, so if I can't speak English then I cannot say I know English.

(Student 5, 8 and 10): Yes it is the most important one, because I think knowing a language means applying it practically in your life.

Generally, all of the students believe that speaking skill is the most important skill among the four skills. They believe that knowing a language means speaking it and if one can speak well they can have more chance to find a good job.

Factors that demotivate students to speak:
The third question (What are the problems that discourage you to speak in the classroom?) was asked to know students' believes about the problems that discourage them from speaking English in the classes. The students mentioned about several factors that hinder them from speaking English. Below are some of the factors that are emphasized by the students as demotivating factors:

Psychological factors: Some of the students believe that lack of self confidence; shyness, anxiety, fear of making mistakes and fear of being laughed at by colleagues are factors that discourage them from speaking English in the classroom.

Students (N=7) believe that fear of making mistakes and fear of being laughed at by classmates are major factors that prevent them from speaking English.

(Student 1 and 3): My biggest problem that discourages me to speak is fear of making mistakes, when I am about to speak my heart start beating faster and faster.

(Student 4, 6 and 9): The main problem is the phobia of speaking, when I am trying to speak in the class, I think everybody laughs at me if I make a mistake.

(Student 8 and 10): Most of the time I feel shy because may be some students laugh at me when I make mistakes.

However (2) students looked at lack of self confidence as a demotivating factor that discourage them from speaking English, Meanwhile, shyness has also been mentioned by the students as a demotivating factor. (1students).

Linguistic Factors: linguistic factor is another problem that prevents EFL students from speaking English in the classroom.

(Student 1, 3 and 8): Sometimes when I want to speak English, I try to arrange a sentence in my mind, but suddenly I am missing two or three important vocabularies and then it become difficult to say what I am thinking about.

(Student 2 and 5): Incorrect pronunciation of a word is the most common barriers that discourage me to speak. I am not sure whether what I am pronouncing is correct or not.

(Student 4, 7 and 10): When I want to speak English, I think that I can't form grammatically corrected sentences. I always feel hesitated about my grammar.

Classroom Environment: the classroom environment is found to be another factor that discourages students from speaking English.

(Student1 and 3): our classroom consists of a large number of students; if I want to speak, I must shorten what I say because of other students who want to participate.
(Student 5 and 8): We are (55) students in the classroom, even if I speak for five minutes which is a maximum allowable time for a student to talk, I think it is not enough to improve my speaking skill.

(Student 2 and 10): Because of lack of time, we can't speak enough since we only have 40 minutes in each lecture and the teacher spend (5) minutes at the beginning to take the absentees names.

(student 4 and 9): We have a noisy classroom due to the large number of students, I think that because of this number of students, our teacher are not motivatived to give us a piece of movie and ask us to say our comments.

(Student 6 and 7): In our classroom there is an LCD projector but we haven't get benefit from it fully yet, the teacher don't use CDs or movies, besides, we have sound laboratory in our department but unfortunately we haven't used it yet.

Furthermore, the participants mentioned other reasons behind not speaking English in the classes like teachers' negative attitudes towards students' oral mistakes (2 students), some

of the topics of discussion are not interesting (2 students), lack of knowledge (3 students), inadequate curriculum (1 student). It is worthy to be mentioned that only one student believe that he has no problem in speaking English, as he stated that he had worked with the U.S. troops for more than three years after the Iraqi Operation Freedom in 2003.

Generally, according to what students say, the most challenging factors that prevent EFL students from speaking English are: linguistic factor, such as lack of vocabulary, lack of grammar and mispronunciation. Psychological factors, such as lack of self confidence, shyness, anxiety, fear of making mistakes and fear of being laughed at by colleagues when they make oral mistakes. Environmental factors, i.e. large number of students, lack of time and lack of using enough technical utilities. And curriculum and topics of discussion were mentioned by students as demotivating factors that discourage them from speaking English. The fourth question (Do you think speaking skill in your class emphasized by your teacher? How?) is asked to get EFL students' opinion about whether the speaking skill is emphasized by teachers or not. Most of the students (N=7) believe that the speaking skill is emphasized by the teacher in the class; however (3) students say that the speaking skill is not emphasized enough.

(Student, 2 and 5): Yes, to some extent the teacher focus on speaking skill, sometimes he invites native speakers to the class, this will help us to improve our pronunciation.

(Student 3 and 4): Yes, since most of the time he speaks English and help us when we forget words or pronounce them wrongly, he gives a positive feedback after I finish my speech.

(Student 7, 8 and 9): Yes somehow, because they didn't allow us to use mother tongue language a lot, he obliges us to use English as much as possible even if our speech is incorrect.

Moreover, only three students believe that the speaking skill has not given priority by the teachers.

(Student 1, 6 and 7): No, although I like to speak English but I think speaking skill is not emphasized by the teacher, since some times he uses words in Arabic or Kurdish languages to clarify the subject, and I noticed that when students use their first language, the teacher accepts this. We can say the speaking skill is not fully stressed on in the classroom.

Generally, the EFL students believe that the speaking skill is not highlighted enough that would oblige them to use English as the only language in the classroom.

The fifth question (Does your teacher spend enough time to practice English speaking skill in class? if yes, how much time does he spend?) is asked to get the students opinion about the time that they spend to speak English in each lecture. The majority of the students (N=8) believe that the teacher spend enough time to practice speaking skill.

(Student 1, 2, 5and 9): Yes, he spends half of the lecture time speaking English.
(Student 3, 4 and 7): yes, most of the time the teacher speaks English; it is approximately 40 minutes in each lecture.

(Student 8): Yes, often he speaks all the time; I can say 90% of the lecture time is allotted to speak English only.

Only two students, (student 6 and 10), believe that the teacher does not spend adequate time to practice English in the class. Thus, one can say that the teacher is always ready to use speaking skill to help student practice English.

The participants' opinion about the sixth question, (Does the classroom environment helps in motivating you to practice speaking skill?), are different, six students believe that the classroom environment doesn't contribute in motivating them to speak English, and four of them say to some extend it motivate students to speak. Some of the students' comments are as follows:

(Student1 and 6): No, it doesn't, because we are a large class, our class consists of 55 students, we have not an equal chance to speak at class, if a student speaks for 3 minutes at class , the rest of the students miss the chance to speak.

(Student 7 and 8): No, because of lack of time we cannot speak a lot, since we only have 40 minutes to speak and not all of the students can talk in every lecture.

(Student 9 and 10): The teacher only tries to deliver his lecture and finish it. He doesn't use LCD projectors or play CDs and movies too much to attract our attention to talk about the topic.

It is worthy to mention that four students state that to some extend the classroom environment helps us to improve our speaking skill, they believe that they manage to progress because when they joined the university they did not have the ability to even speak an understandable sentence, but now they can convey their message in English by speaking the language.

In conclusion, most of the EFL students are not happy with their classroom environment, large classroom; lack of time and lack of using technical utilities are major factors that deprive students from improving their speaking skill.

The seventh question (What do you suggest your teacher to do to help you improve your speaking skill?) is the last question in the interview, the participants' suggestions are as following:

- Dividing students into small groups or pairs.
- Engaging all the students in classroom activities by choosing controversial topics.
- Students should be introduced about the speaking activities before starting the lecture.
- Teachers can depend more on free topics and do not bound students by what is in the course book.
- Using technological utilities such as CDs, tape-recorders, LCD projectors, Movies, songs …etc.
- Allowing more time to speak in the classroom.
- Topics of discussion can reflect students' daily life.
- Granting students more chance to choose topics for discussion.
- Accepting students' mistakes and providing them with a positive feedback.
- Asking for more assignments.
- Inviting more native speakers.
- Asking for the reform of the educational system and providing new materials to contribute to the development of students' speaking skill.
- Providing motivational words like well-done, good, excellent when students participate in activities.
- Obliging students to speak English only and avoiding using mother tongue.
- More focus can be on employing CLT rather than using old-fashioned methods of teaching the speaking skill.

Above are students' suggestions to increase their classroom participation. Based on their suggestions, it seems that students have no enough opportunity of choosing topics for discussion. However, they suggest that the time allocated for speaking can be increased. Giving positive feedback and obliging students to forget about using L1 are students' other suggestions. Meanwhile, students suggest teachers to divide the classroom into small groups and/or pairs and invite more native speakers.

The data obtained from interviews with the university lecturers and EFL students demonstrated that the factors such as lack of vocabulary, mispronunciation, lack of grammatical patterns, shyness, anxiety, fear of making mistakes, fear of being laughed at by classmates, lack of self confidence, the constraint time, large number of students, and the curriculum are major

demotivating factors that prevent students from speaking English in the classroom actively. However, providing motivation by the lecturers, using CLT, students' self-confidence, practice, participation in different activities like group/pair work discussion, using technological equipments, students' well linguistic patterns, good vocabulary, students' patience in learning, interaction, providing a friendly learning environment and having more time for practicing were found to be significant motivating factor that encourage students to speak. Furthermore, concerning the strategies used to promote students' speaking skill, the qualitative data revealed that strategies such as role-play, debate and problem-solving, using group/pair work discussion, providing friendly learning environment, providing students with different activities, using technological equipments, raising students' confidence, letting the students choose topics of discussion, asking students to do presentation, adopting student-centered approach are the most important strategies teachers can use to promote students' speaking skill.

4- Discussion

Throughout working on this work as a whole, the researcher comes across a number of the most important points that have to be paid adequate attention in future endeavours of teachings. One of the significant findings is the EFL students' positive attitude towards speaking English as the majority of them reported that they were really interested in speaking English. The findings also revealed that the majority of EFL students were not fully competent in speaking English and they rarely participate in speaking activities. However, concerning the teachers' behavior in the classroom, unlike studies being conducted by (Nazara, 2011; Riahipour & Sourehjani, 2012), the majority of the EFL students in this study showed a positive attitude towards the teachers' classroom behavior. However the findings collected from quantitative and qualitative data can be presented as follows in more detail:

Factors that demotivate students from speaking English

Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that there are different factors that hinder students from speaking English actively in the classrooms. One of the main findings is that both EFL students and teachers at SUE indicated that the linguistic factors, such as mispronunciation, lack of grammatical patterns, lack of vocabulary and fear of making linguistic mistakes, are the most common factors that cause difficulties in practicing speaking skill. These findings affirm what was previously found by (xiuqin, 2006; Hamad, 2013; Hosni, 2014; Shabani, 2013; Gan, 2012; Juhana, 2012; Pathan, 2013) as they found that the linguistic factors mentioned above are demotivating students from speaking English.

Another conclusion drawn from this study is that the majority of the EFL students and teachers

reported that students' fear of making mistakes, fear of being laughed at by classmates, shyness, less of self-confidence and anxiety are among psychological factors that hinder students from speaking English. Therefore, this is an indication that what have been found in this study concerning the psychological factors go in line with what were previously found by (Pathan et al., 2014; Azizifar et al., 2014; Bilal et al., 2013; Chiang, 2012; Juhana, 2012; Grubaugh, 1990; Liu & Jackson, 1998; Nazara, 2011; Noom-ura, 2013; Ohata, 2005; Pathan, 2013; Sidik, 2013; Tabatabaei & Molavi, 2012; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009; xiuqin, 2006) as these researchers' findings confirmed that the psychological factors mentioned above are discouraging students from speaking English.

Moreover, both quantitative and qualitative data proved that large number of students, inadequate time allotted for speaking activities, lack of technological equipments and unfriendly classroom are main environmental factors that discourage students from speaking English in the classrooms. This finding supports what was previously found by (Abdullah et al., 2012; Chang & Goswami, 2011; Hamad, 2013; Nazara, 2011; Riasati, 2012; Tabatabaie & Molavi, 2012; White, 2011; Xiuqin,2006) as they found that environmental factors mentioned above are demotivating students from speaking English.

Furthermore, the results confirmed that most of the EFL students infrequently use L1 while they speak English; this indicated that the use of L1 in L2 speaking didn't contribute in demotivating EFL students at SUE from speaking. In this study, the EFL students reported that they cannot speak English because they feel that they are not fluent and inaccurate in speaking English. Nevertheless, the infrequently use of role play and pair/group work discussions were found as the other demotivting factors that impeded EFL students from being engaged in speaking activities.

The findings also indicated that most of the EFL students sometimes spoke English in the classroom and practiced speaking skill in pair/group work discussion. The findings obtained from questionnaire indicated that most EFL students did not practice enough with their classmates and teachers; this may be due to the demotivating factors mentioned above.

Factors that motivate students to speak English

In this study it was found that some of the motivating factors are related to students themselves, however, the study also confirmed that some factors are related to teachers who can motivate their students to speak actively.

Concerning what is on the students' side, it was found that the most motivating factor for students to motivate themselves is to have self confidence and participation in speaking activities. Another result is that in order for students to be good English speakers, they need to practice English a lot; they need to listen to native speakers, watch movies, trying to

make fewer mistakes and not to afraid of making mistakes and/or feeling shy when making mistakes.

However, regarding what is on the teachers to motivate their students, the current study found that providing motivation by the teacher leads the students to speak actively in the classroom and enhance their self confidence, meanwhile, the EFL students reported that encouraging words and applause contributed to greater performance on the part of EFL students during speaking acts. The study also found that providing interesting activities by the teachers motivate students to speak English in the classroom.

Furthermore, the findings of the current study approved that allowing students to choose the topics of discussion stimulate students to speak actively in the classroom. This finding goes in line with the findings of (Riasati, 2012) that students' familiarity with the topic of discussion is important factor that affect the degree of EFL students' willingness to speak in the classroom. Other motivational factors such as accepting students' mistakes, providing them with a positive feedback, and using CLT were also found.

Motivational strategies to improve students' speaking skill

In this study some motivational strategies were reported by the interviewed teachers to be employed for the purpose of improving students' speaking skill. The teachers suggested that teachers' friendly relationship with students, applying role-play, debate and problem-solving are tremendously important to engage students in speaking activities, however, using group/pair work discussion, providing friendly learning environment and raising students' confidence are really necessary teachers can use to improve students' speaking skill.

Finally, the study found that providing EFL students with strategies such as different activities, using technological utilities, letting the students choose topics of discussions, asking students to make presentations, adopting student-centered approach, paying attention to individual needs and preventing students from using L1 are among strategies teachers can use to help students engage in speaking activities. The above strategies support what was stated by Dörnyei (2001) and Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011).

5- Conclusion

This study provided information about the factors that hinder EFL students from speaking English in the classroom, factors that can motivate students to speak English and motivational strategies lecturers can use to improve students' speaking skill. Although the students are not competent in speaking English but the overwhelming majority of them are interested in speaking English.

The findings of the study indicated that challenges such as linguistic, psychological,

classroom environmental factors, inaccuracy, non-fluency are among major demotivating factors that prevent students from speaking English actively in the classroom.

There are other factors that contribute in encouraging students to take part in speaking activities such as providing motivation, students' good grammar, good pronunciation, good vocabulary as well as practicing speaking skill, patience in learning interaction, neglecting who is the listener to avoid being feared of them when speaking English.

The findings of the study showed that using motivational strategies like providing friendly learning environment, raising students' self confidence, using technological equipments, providing different activities such as role-play, debate and problem-solving, role-play, group/ pair work discussion, allowing students to choose topics of discussion are among the most important strategies teachers can employ to enhance students' speaking skill.

6- Recommendations

This study provides a wide range of knowledge regarding the importance of motivation in speaking English as a foreign language including:

• Providing students with utmost chances for students to perform speaking skill via enhancing learning environment, using authentic materials and speaking tasks.

• Providing students with a comfortable and motivating classroom atmosphere.

• Teachers should be more facilitator to help students improve their speaking skill.

• Dividing students into small groups or pairs to involve the large number of them into speaking activities.

•   In order to improve students' speaking skill teachers should increase listening exercises through the use of LCD projectors, tape-recorders, songs…etc.

• Teacher should provide students with vocabularies that are necessary for speaking English.

• Involving students into a variety of speaking activities and drills.

• Inviting native speakers to the classroom to improve students' pronunciation.

• Providing fully equipped classroom that strongly upgrade students' interest towards speaking.

• Adopting student-centered approach in the classroom.

• Reconsidering the current lecture time.

• Teachers should employ CLT in teaching the speaking skill to involve the majority of students in more conversations.

• Using effective activities and strategies such as pair/group work discussion, games, role-play, free discussion, competition, story-telling, presentation, interesting games and activities… etc. so that the students would have more opportunity to take part in real life activities.

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and functions of multiperspectivity are explained along with a table as an illustration. Then, the analysis of the two novels comes next and in the following manner; general points that combine the two novels in terms of the narrative are introduced. After that, each novel is separately discussed and analyzed based on specific purposes and functions. Finally, a conclusion of the study is provided.

The significance of the study lies in tackling a topic of narratology that has been rarely acknowledged in the field of literary studies. This study contributes to the field of comparative literature by examining two novels from different cultures and literary traditions. Moreover, the study provides a theoretical framework that can be employed in analyzing other literary works that utilize the same narrative technique.

The problem of the study can be summarized in the fact that the technique of multiperspectivity has not received adequate attention from literary critics and theorists. Furthermore, the few studies that have been conducted on this topic use different terms and approaches, which complicates the understanding of this narrative technique.

The study aims at achieving the following objectives:

1. To analyze multiperspectivity as a narrative technique in the selected novels.
2. To identify the purposes and functions of employing multiple narrators.
3. To compare the two novels in terms of the narrative technique and its effects.

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the purposes and implications of employing multiple narrators in the selected novels?
2. How does multiperspectivity affect the structure of the story and the reader?
3. What are the similarities and differences between the two novels in terms of the narrative technique?

on multiperspectival narration in addition to Marcus Hartner's valuable contribution to this technique, some of which are discussed in the following section. Nonetheless, the interest and objective of this research is to discover the implications, purposes and functions of using such technique by the two authors, Faulkner and Pamuk in their outstanding novels. The paper consists of three sections along with introduction and conclusion. The first section covers some significant explanations and controversies on multiperspectivity in reference to a number of model critics. The second and third sections are dedicated to the analyses of the two novels, Faulkner's As I Lay Dying and Pamuk's My Name is Red, in succession. The fourth section summarizes the findings and analyses of the preceding sections by way of showing a comparison of the two aforementioned novels in terms of multiperspectivity.

2. MULTIPERSPECTIVITY: THE NARRATIVE TECHNIQUE OF CONTROVERSY

There is a lack of consensus on the definition, classification, terminology and nature of multiperspectival narration due to the fact that there are few studies in the relevant field despite its common usage in the modern and postmodern novels. What's more, rarely have literary critics paid adequate attention to this indispensable literary phenomenon, except for some German scholars, who have fairly contributed to it along with some other recent dissertations by some researchers. Therefore, the controversial issues over this technique are still ongoing, some of which are briefly debated in this section.

From a historical perspective, multiperspectivity is not a recent phenomenon. Early examples can be found in Plato's Symposium, the Edda (13th century), or Chaucer's "Parliament of Fowls" (1381-82). Yet pre-modern forms of multiperspective narration remain quite few and often achieve "primarily rhetorical functions" (Hartner, 2008a). In the 19ᵗʰ century, the phenomenon becomes more prevalent and diversified as an increasing number of writers employ a range of strategies of multiperspectival narration in their works. Hence, modern and postmodern writers follow the trend and feature this form of narration in their novels. The occurrence of multiperspectivity is actually theoretically associated with the philosophy of perspectivism, which was developed by Nietzsche, Ortega y Gasset, and it seems to be primarily appropriate "to stage perceptual relativism and skepticism towards knowledge and reality". In this framework, critics have struggled to distinguish the main types of the technique and their contradictory "epistemological and semantic" inferences (Hartner, 2008a).

In their prominent study, which has become groundwork for many researchers, Vera and Ansgar Nünning define multiperspectivity as a form of narrative transmission in which an event, a subject, a character etc. is presented from a minimum of two or more individual viewpoints (Zsoldos, 2008). Multiperspectivity, compared to other narratological concepts, is a relatively equivocal term, and it is problematic to classify some works under multiperspectival narration. Therefore, to avoid theoretical confusions around the concept, Vera and Ansgar Nünning propose some queries to be taken into account while judging whether a narrative can be categorized as a multiperspectival narrative. In their view, multiperspectivity can be demonstrated in a narrative text only when a number of accounts of the same events, or of the same phenomenon happening at the story level, are offered. A multiperspectivally presented event or subject becomes especially important when there are inconsistencies and disparities in the judgment or evaluation of the multiply displayed incidents, characters,

places, truths, subjects or Weltanschauungs, in order that the synthesis of discrete perspectives cannot be made (Zsoldos, 2008). This, also, creates an unreliable narrator, in whom the reader is unable to trust. Overall, the versions of each event by various narrators need to be considered and observed from different angles in order to reach an authentic conclusion.

Correspondingly, Hartner argues that based on the common uses of the technique, multiperspectivity can be defined as a "basic aspect of narration or a mode of storytelling" wherein multiple and often different viewpoints are used to present and evaluate a story and its realm. In this framework, Hartner further claims that the arrangement of perspectives in multiperspective narratives possibly will accomplish a range of different tasks effectively. Typically, though, they foreground the "perceptually, epistemologically or ideologically restricted nature of individual perspectives", besides grabbing attention to numerous kinds of discrepancies and resemblances between the viewpoints presented in the text. In this fashion, multiperspectivity frequently serves to portray the relative character of personal viewpoints or perspectivity in general (Hartner, 2008a).

This distinctive technique is often used in narratives about investigation of a crime or a mystery. Moreover, the key to the puzzlement has to be found by the reader, who has to make sense of different witness accounts before any prejudgments. This structure, furthermore, tacitly suggests that "the only authentic approach to the problem of reality is one which allows multiple perspectives to be heard in debate with each other" (Schonfield, 2009:140). As a result, Multiperspectivity, as Hartner (2008b) maintains, typically highlights some sort of "tension" or "dissonance" that arises from the clash of the presented perspectives. Likewise, Mullan remarkably states that one drive of the novel has often been to demonstrate how the "truth about human behavior" can hinge on one's viewpoint (Mullan, 2006:56). Thus, the use of multiple perspectives serves not only the author, but the reader as well while seeking the truth in a discrete storyworld with a captivating soul and a curious mind.

3. MULTIPERSPECTIVITY IN AS I LAY DYING

The structure of As I Lay Dying is organized around the death of a woman, Addie. The story moves on in chronological time as the Bundren family takes her body to the town of Jefferson for burial. Its narration is divided into fifty-nine fragments of internal monologues by fifteen characters with first-point of view, each with different insight of the action and a different way of connecting to reality. The fifty-nine chapters of As I Lay Dying, each headed by the name of one of the fifteen first-person narrators, display a remarkable variance in tone: we listen to the dialect of poor white Mississippi farmers, talk by town storekeepers, anxious and hasty narrative, rich metaphors, and "philosophically charged speculation burdened by Latinate diction and convoluted syntax" (Ross, 1979). The novel is written mostly in stream-of-consciousness—a literary technique marked by a character's incessant flow of thoughts. The novel is a sequence of interior monologues, and through these dispersed passages we piece the story together. The length of chapters varies, starting from one sentence as Vardaman's "My mother is a fish" (84), to nearly ten pages; one chapter by Cash is a numbered list of reasons for making a coffin. Darl and Vardaman are the most frequent narrators, while characters like Jewel and Addie each only narrate one chapter. Faulkner seems to prefer some characters to others to be given the task of narration, mostly those who are present in many events.

Due to the biased nature of the narrators, we can hardly rely on what each one recounts. We have to draw conclusions and evaluate each character as we move on witnessing the events from all angles. Alldredge (1978) quite interestingly refers to the tension and irony of the story, she explains that the reader is sited within the conscience of various narrators and is detached from "linear or quantitative time". Most of the tension and irony of the novel is derived from the noticeable difference between external happenings and internal reality for the several characters. For instance, townsfolk disapprove and make humorous responses to the idea of a rotten corpse being moved through a country town, while the inner sights of the proceedings are extremely serious and fairly reasonable in the minds of Bundren family members. The reader must hold all of these different viewpoints in combination in an attempt to read the novel as one manifold image. Ramanathan, furthermore, indicates that we are thus allowed to enter much more deeply into the intricacies of character's minds than we could otherwise, it should be perceived that Faulkner has deprived himself of the rights of an omniscient writer (2010:84).

As we are given the chance of seeing into the mind of each character directly, we must analyze what we find there and decide for ourselves what sorts of characters they are. Their true nature is revealed based on how each one thinks about a particular incident or subject. This capacity of seeing each event from multiple perspectives is stimulating; for instance, as Roberts (1969: 3) points out, when the coffin is lost in the river, we have numerous narrations which permit us to observe the same event from different perspectives. Darl contributes his narration of the loss of the coffin; from Vardaman, we hear of his mother being a fish swimming in the river; from Cash, we hear that the coffin was not on a balance; and from Anse, we hear that this is just one more burden we must tolerate before he can achieve his false teeth.

Moreover, when a character tells what he actually said to another person in an incident, he always falls back into vernacular speech. Therefore, Vernon Tull tells his wife Cora: ".... I will help [Anse] out if he gets into a tight, with her sick and all. Like most folks around here, done holp him so much already I cant quit now" (33). In another example when Dewy Dell expresses her own feelings to herself, of using a very different sort of utterance. The girl is desperate with worry over her unwanted pregnancy, "I dont know whether I am worrying or not. Whether I can or not. I dont know whether I can cry or not. I dont know whether I have tried to or not. I feel like a wet seed wild in the hot blind earth" (64), (Ramanathan, 2010:85). Addie's sense of detachment from her husband drives her to commit adultery with the minister Whitfield, though she claims her being innocent, "I hid nothing. I tried to deceive no one."(174). She lays blame on her selfish and careless husband for the predicaments that befell on her and the family. Her impressions about sin and salvation, "duty to the alive", motherhood, religion, sex and other matters are astonishingly uncovered while we could barely have this clue about her character from accounts of others. In the middle of the novel, Faulkner gives this chance to Addie to relate her version of story. The reader is left wondering whether this might be a leap in time when Addie was alive or an account from the coffin, i.e. when she is dead. In the first case, Faulkner crafts a deviation in the structure of the novel as well as in the linearity of time. Assuming the second case, a dead person being given chance to narrate is, in effect, a notable feature of modernity in the field of narration,

namely, a celebration of multiperspectivity as a prodigious phenomenon in modern novel. The dysfunctional relationship of the Bundrens is unveiled when each family member shares his or her own view about other characters and their deeds. Faulkner makes evident how a band of people can group together when there is a misfortune and tragedy, though they can disapprove and even leave one other in search of their own egotistic advantages, all on account of "family." Even though the family appears to cooperate in its struggle to get Addie to Jefferson, each one of them seeks how to fulfill his or her own needs (Dudek, 2011:423). This recognition could not be achieved other than a technique that offers different windows to the narration, namely, multiperspectivity.

One of the main reasons of this technique of multiple narrators by Faulkner is, as Ramanathan describes, to build and support an important theme in this novel: the acute isolation of every human from others. Faulkner emphasizes on the loneliness of the individual, Addie Bundren feels separated from her husband and most of her children. Dewey Dell has nobody nearby or trustworthy to whom she can express her fears. Jewel is mostly irritated and senses his difference from the rest and depends on himself alone and disregards others (2010:85). Accordingly, multiperspectivity functions as a significant tool for Faulkner in that it imbues the narrative with complex motifs and clashing versions of events and characters. In effect, this technique pushes the reader to make a great effort understanding the true nature of the characters, resolving mysteries and implicit hints, and reaching genuine answers for the qualms held by him – the reader.

The lack of communication and Addie's assertion of the ineptness of words to convey the meaning or the true feelings of oneself suggests the "aloneness" and privacy of each character. Thus, the inner conflicts of the characters are revealed to us, whereas the characters are so protective and watchful about what they should say or do. The transition of narration from one character to another alters not only the dimensions of the plotline, but it also alters the tone and mood of the story as it flows on. All in all, Faulkner's goal for such technique is to show us the concerns and interests of the characters stored secretly and the little feelings they share with others. This duplicity would not be observed lest we are allowed to enter the minds of all characters and understand their personalities. Moreover, Faulkner seems to underscore some themes and motives predominant in the life of the family, the lack of communication, disconnection, dishonesty, egoism, and grief of individual. These states of affairs and issues can be observed through various eye and mind views owing to multiperspectival narration.

4. MULTIPERSPECTIVITY IN MY NAME IS RED

Similarly, Orhan Pamuk's My Name is Red comprises fifty-nine chapters like As I Lay Dying. This extraordinary coincidence of the two novels suggests that Pamuk, probably, has imitatively divided his novel on the same number of chapters. However, My Name is Red is narrated from twenty-one different voices with first-point of view, ten human characters including one with two identities, as a murderer and as an artist. A distinctive point in My Name is Red is that it consists of some inanimate narrators such as coin, tree, color red, etc. and animals such as dog and horse, as well as some other figures like Satan, death, a woman, a corpse and two dervishes. Each chapter of My Name Is Red has a title that tells us, in advance, who will be speaking: "I Am Your Beloved Uncle", "I, Shekure", "I Am Called Olive", and so forth. Each piece of narrative is in the first person. The main characters tell a

fragment of their own stories. The first chapter of the novel is headed "I Am a Corpse" and is indeed narrated by a dead person. The novel is concerned with finding the criminal and the cause for the murder. Afterwards, when the murderer reaches another victim, Enishte, the master of the miniaturists, we hear direct account from the victim being killed.

Nevertheless, there seems to be a striking similarity of point of view in both novels, which is the narration of the dead. In As I Lay Dying, Addie narrates her part of story, although it is not obvious whether her words are from the grave, or whether the narrative jumps back in time to when Addie is still alive. However, Addie mainly talks about her past life and experiences with Anse, the birth of her children and her illegal affair with Whitefield. On the contrary, the dead in My Name is Red speaks of the present moment of death and life after it, "there is indeed another world, thank God, and the proof is that I'm speaking to you from here. I've died, but as you can plainly tell, I haven't ceased to be." (4). Similar is the case with Enishte Effendi, "My funeral was splendid, exactly as I'd wanted" (228). As Mullan (2004) claims that these dead men give slightly comical interpretations of life after death. Certainly, they are so concerned to do so that they do not bother to tell us anything useful about their murders. Moreover, Pamuk's characters speak directly to the reader and show their fears, doubts and inner conflicts. They try to share their hidden feelings with the reader, but they keep their secrets and mysterious feelings for themselves and prevent from revealing to other characters in the story, thus, often characters return to the reader for conformation and confession, this metafiction technique is typical of Pamuk's writing. As Mullan (2006:57) illustrates that to hold the narratives together Pamuk needs the reader, to whom the characters admit. For instance, when Shekure describes finding her father's body, she somehow pretends that she is talking to someone who has read the accounts given by other characters and has a clue about the story, "Listen, I can tell by your tight-lipped and cold-blooded reaction that you've known for sometime what's happened in the room" (216). One of the suspicious miniaturists typically asks the reader, "Have I gained your trust as well?" (462). On another occasion when Esther's role comes to an end she concludes, "if Esther's taken out of the scene, she can't possibly continue with the story, can she now?" (351). The awareness of the narrators of their being fictional characters and their way of addressing the readers distinguishes this novel from As I Lay Dying.

Like a miniature, the writer has scattered the novel into many pieces and the reader needs to place them together and see it as a whole painting. Such a technique enables Pamuk to create suspense for his detective story and establish a bridge between the clashing cultural ethics and beliefs of East and West. Also, the use of multiple narrators, Smith (2011) argues, allows the reader to understand the conflicting viewpoints that developed as the miniaturists and their society came into a growing contact with other cultures, thereby understanding their artistic works and incorporating certain concepts and elements from them into their own work.

In an interview with Farnsworth (2002), Pamuk states some significant facts regarding the novel. When he is questioned about the miniatures, which display the artistic difference of eastern and western styles by miniaturists in the book, Pamuk claims as follows:
My miniaturists saw the world through the God's eye, so that's a very communitarian world where the rules are set and there is an endlessness of time. So from this single, all embrac

ing, medieval or Islamic point of view, transition to a multi-voiced, multi-perspective, rich, western point of view… means leaving aside a whole tradition, a whole way of seeing things. So I dramatized this clash of different ways of seeing the world, since I love dramatizing the eastness of East and the westness of West. (Farnsworth, interview 2002)

Here, it becomes palpable that Pamuk has employed multiperspectivity, primarily, for the purpose of presenting the two worldviews about art and religion, the eastern style advocates under the influence of Islamic tradition, and the adherers of western world of art under the influence of Frankish and Venetian style. As Çiçekoglu (2003) states, the visual narratives of miniature painting are given minute details similar to the contemporary Renaissance art revealing, above all, the differences in portraying faces. Style in visual narration is scanned in the novel as a reflection of viewing and drawing the faces in their distinctiveness opposite to the convention of Islamic book illumination where all faces are given the same impression. Each individual voice, speaking with complicated details of style suggestive of the individuality of the painting in visual terms indicates a maturation of Pamuk's own style, compatible to a novel where the main theme is the individualization of style (Çiçekoglu, 2003). The reader is, as a result, enabled to observe the clashing views of characters concerning art, all of which increase the curiosity of arriving at resolution point.

Moreover, in his 2003 interview, Pamuk himself comments on the purpose of using multiperspectivity in the novel:

I thought all these distinctive voices would produce a rich music—the texture of daily life in Istanbul four hundred years ago. These shifts in viewpoint also reflect the novel's main concern about looking at the world from our point of view versus the point of view of a supreme being. All of this is related to the use of perspective in painting; my characters line in a world where the restrictions of perspective do not exist so they speak in their own voice with their own humor. (Knopf, interview 2003)

Pamuk illustrates how narrow a single human standpoint can be on an issue, and how rich when multiple perspectives are harmonized. For Pamuk, Mullan emphasizes, the mystery of the story suits the narrative technique well; doubtfulness about events is reflected in the actual form. There is no omniscient narrator to see the whole truth. Multiperspectivity, what's more, fits "the historical aspect of Pamuk's fiction. A sense of the past is to be pieced together from separate testimonies rather than grasped by some 'modern' narrator" (Mullan, 2006:55). History itself is unreliable, especially if one reads from one source; therefore, a novel of historical genre like My Name is Red serves to convince the reader and gain his trustworthiness by showing different perspectives and accounts.

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, multiperspectivity serves the two novels in different ways, though the two narratives share some similar qualities in form. The narrative technique helps Faulkner, as a modernist writer, from a thematic perspective to build his narrative with a strong sense of isolation, dysfunctional relationships, the lack of communication, disconnection, untruthfulness, egoism, and secret anguish of individuals in the Bundren family. Multiperspectivity, on a higher scale, functions well in accordance with Faulkner's use of stream-of-consciousness technique and the interior monologues in the novel. Each character is allowed to relate his or her part of the story, which enables the reader to evaluate, judge and draw conclusions from each character's version story. The biased nature of the characters hinders our ability to

judge or assess their personality until we observe them from the eyes of the other characters. Also, the doubts, fears and inner conflicts of the characters are exposed to us, whereas the characters are so protective and watchful about what they should say or do in the presence of others around. The shift of narration from one character to another changes the tone and mood of Faulkner's narrative as it flows on. All in all, Faulkner's goal for such technique is to show us the hidden concerns and interests of his characters and the little feelings they share with others. This duplicity would not be observed lest we are allowed to enter the minds of all characters and understand their genuine identities. Accordingly, multiperspectivity functions as a significant tool for Faulkner in that it imbues the narrative with complex motifs and clashing versions of events and characters.

Similarly, Pamuk's characters own the same privilege of having their voices heard alternately; they tell their private secrets – though relatively –, their fears and qualms concerning the mysterious issues revolving around their lives. What distinguishes the narrators of My Name is Red is that they are aware of their being fictional figures, and that they directly address the readers and turn to them for confirmation and confession. In both narratives, the narrators are unreliable and that makes the task of the reader hard to arrive at an ultimate truth. Another exceptional point in My Name is Red is that it includes some non-living narrators such as coin, tree, color red, etc. and animals such as dog and horse, along with some other figures like Satan, death, a woman, a corpse and two dervishes. This symphony of many different voices is compatible in its form to its content as it expounds the concept of point of view in fictional narrative structure.

Multiperspectivity allows the reader of My Name is Red to grasp the disparate viewpoints that emerged as the miniaturists and their society came into a rising contact with other cultures and civilizations, thereby appreciating their artistic works and incorporating certain concepts and elements from them into their own works. In view of that, multiperspectivity suits the novel in presenting the two worldviews about art and religion, the Eastern style influenced by Islamic traditions of illumination and the contemporary Western style under the influence of the Renaissance art. What's more, the mystery of the story matches the narrative technique magnificently; uncertainty about occurrences is reflected in the actual form. There is no omniscient narrator to see the whole truth. Pamuk demonstrates how restricted a single human standpoint can be on a subject, and how rich when multiple perspectives are considered. The reader is marveled at the duplicity of the characters, their artifice and contrasting attitudes in different contexts. As a historical fiction, multiperspectivity serves the book brilliantly, since it offers different witness accounts and proofs to rely on and reach a truthful conclusion.
On the whole, both writers have employed this technique quite effectively and could enrich their narratives with an artistic sublimity. To a great extent, the use of such a creative technique has foregrounded the exceptional qualities of the two novels, both of which superbly present the storylines from several vantage points, which produce thrill, suspense and curiosity in the reader, and eventually, elevate the value of the works.

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Author's Educational Background

Parween Saadi Abdulaziz has graduated from College of Arts, Department of English- University of Duhok in 2005. She got Msc. in Pragmatics in 2010, the title of her Master's thesis is A Contrastive Study of the Speech Acts of Command and Request in English and Northern Kurdish. She taught many subjects in the department; like, Grammar, Phonetics and Phonology, Conversation, Essay Writing and Research Methodology. She has been the coordinator of Quality Assurance for the Department of English for four years. She also contributed in a course of curriculum design and lesson plans in Michigan State University. Parween has taught four courses of English for Business with Tasawi Program held by fhi360 Organization sponsored by American Embassy. Research published in Duhok University Journal are Speech Act of Apologizing in English and Kurdish, Hyponymy in Kurdish with Reference to English, Hedging in Kurdish with Reference to English, Congratulating in Kurdish with Reference to English. Speech Act of Promising in Kurdish with Reference to English published in Baghdad University.

Child- directed speech in kurdish with reference to english: a semantic study

Parween Saadi Abdulaziz

Duhok University, College of Humanities,

ABSTRACT

Mothers tend to talk with children in a different style than that with adults, using simple, diminutive words characterized by high pitch and exaggerated intonation. For example, dog-gy is used for dog and kitty for cat; the same case is upheld by Kurds as well. This study investigates the speech register motherese, i.e. child- directed speech in Kurdish and English. It is commonly known that English has been investigated profoundly in the field yet Kurdish needs such an analysis in the domain of language and linguistics. It is hypothesized that motherese is a universal phenomenon that can be found in all languages and that the vocabulary used in this register are closed items in a fixed number that one cannot add new ones. However, the two hypotheses are partially refuted, as in the process of researching it becomes apparent that motherese is a common notion but not general to all cultures as there are some cultures that the language parents use with their children seem to be the same one used with adults. Besides the vocabulary are open for enhancement especially among family members. They may invent new words for communicating with their children. The work shows that most of the words employed for Kurdish motherese are onomatopoeic that the word is made by the sound the object has or makes, i.e. there is one- to – one cor-respondence between the word and the object it refers to. Overgeneralization is too in this code as one word may be used to refer to different related objects. Reduplication is also shown in that the word or a part of the word is repeated. Although most people think that motherese helps children for language acquisition, Kurdish informants highlight its main em-ployment for endearment and enhancing communication with children more than language development.

Keywords: Caregiver Language, First Language Acquisition, Generalization, Speech Register, and Simplified Code.

1.1 THE PROBLEM

Motherese is repeatedly used by children care takers, seen by some people as a redundant phenomenon but highlighted by others as bridging the gap between the child and the people who communicate with him; however, it is either for endearment or language acquisition. Motherese is not investigated in the Bahdini Kurdish, so the humble work is an attempt to provide some minute details about the phenomenon in question.

1.2 STUDY AIMS

The Kurdish language directed to children is the topic of the current work - the first level of the Kurdish register is to be investigated from a semantically- oriented perspctive.

1.3 STUDY HYPOTHESES

It is hypothesized that:
- Child- directed speech is a universal phenomenon that exists in all languages of the world.
- The lexical items used for motherese are closed items; that means there is no possibility to add new ones?

1.4 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection for this humble work is twofold: A questionnaire and video recordings. Thirty informants, 15 males and fifty females are asked to answer questions and provide chunks of speech they use when they address children. Also there are video recordings of four children: two males and two females where parents and other relatives talk to them using the Kurdish register, motherese. Unstructured interviews are considered in video recordings to keep the data as authentic as possible.

1.5 DATA ANALYSIS

The Kurdish motherese words are classified into different categories; those related to eating, clothing, daily activities, etc. The terms are translated into English then analyzed in terms of their internal structure, reduplication, arbitrary and non- arbitrary relations, having a general or specific sense.

1.6 LIMITS OF THE STUDY

The aspects of phonetics and phonology are excluded in the study. Plus, teacher talk, the language used by teachers when talking to students, is also excluded in the work. The sign language directed to children or what is called visual motherese is left for future investigations. Moreover, only the commonly agreed lexical items used among the caretakers are given

analysis; the invented words particular to one child not to another identified as idiolect are not given scrutiny.

2.1 TERMINOLOGIES

When addressing infants and young children, it seems that adults who spend much time with children tend not to use the same structures and vocabulary that they employ when they are engaged in adult- to- adult interactions (Yule, 2006: 150). The term "motherese", suggested by Elissa Newport in the early of the 1970s, has been used in child language acquisition and refers to the diverse ways mothers address their infants and young children. Fatherese is used, yet another gender- neutral one, i.e. parentese is used to avoid sex bias (Glottopedia). These terms are put under the broader ones caretaker speech or caregiver speech (Crystal, 2003: 303). Finch (2005: 201) considers the term caregiver language as a polite term used instead the colloquial terms motherese and baby talk. This style is not only used by mothers so other terms are proposed by many specialists in the field (Matthew, 2007: 254). However, the terms caregiver and caretaker can refer to anyone who takes care of others like taking care of elderly people or patients. But, child- directed speech and infant- directed speech are more satisfactory found in language acquisition and psycholinguistics assuming that they are ample in scale and cover many speakers of this register.

2.2 MOTHERESE: DEFINITIONS

Motherese is a widespread phenomenon that is used spontaneously by mothers, fathers and caregivers to speak with infants and young children (Saint- George et al.). Also called mother talk, it is the simplified style of speech used by caretakers when talking to young children in the phase of their mother tongue development (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 63). The term is also used by Stern (2012) to describe the form of interaction in which the slightest emotional signals of babies are well understood by mothers that may not be perceived very well by women who do not have children.

Caregiver language is structured in a way that gives an interactive role to the baby even before s/he becomes a real participant in interaction whether speaker or addressee. (Yule, 2006: 151):

Mother: Touch! (Puts the child's hand on the dog)

Child: Smiles.

Mother: It is doggie.

Child: Vocalizes a babble string.

    Mother: Yes.

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF MOTHERESE

Motherese has many features (Aitchison, 1999: 127, Yule, 2006: 150- 151 and Thorne, 1997: 166):

Pace: There is slowness in the rate and the tempo of speech, and pauses are longer than in normal speech.

Loudness: By speaking out loud, caregivers assure that the child got each single sound and each single word. It gets and keeps the child's attention. There is a higher and a wider pitch than in normal speech.

Exaggerated intonation: There is no consideration of connected speech like assimilation, elision, etc. Kayani (2) is of the view that new information is usually emphasized by accentuation to single out the new vocabulary from the rest of the sentence, as in: "Daddy is eating a ba-n-ana."

Simplified Words: are used like "tummy," "nana." Generalization is used with concrete objects; the word "dog" is used in a broader sense for "spaniel" and Labrador" and the word "ball" is used for all sports with ball like football, basketball, cricket. Kayani (2) claims that **diminutive words** have no function but are the result from the notion that every item in the child's environment is cute and tiny. Big objects are usually uttered with deep voice, and small entities with high voice. As a result, one can assume that there is a direct correlation between the size of the entity and the way the word for is pronounced.

Simplified Sentence Structure: Recurrence of syntactic patterns; like, Where is …? Do you want a …?

Well-formed Utterances: Caretakers make sure that the sentence is grammatically correct and is logically to the point.

Tag Questions: They are easy and can be answered by certain sounds and gestures.

Commands: These are direct speech acts that leave no space to inference for the child. So, **communicating more than saying** is early to be employed in this early stage.

Repetition: Forms with repeated sounds and; such as, choo- choo, poo – poo, pee – pee, wawa. The reduplication is a strategy to ease communication and to recall words.

Concreteness: Motherese contains concrete objects in the child's physical context; hence, they are easily perceived and comprehended by the child.

Redundancy (Gramley and Patzold, 1992: 278): There are unnecessary words.

Shortness: utterances are short and mothers wait 1.5 words length (Gramley and Patzold, 1992: 278).

Immediate Time: Caregivers talk about entities and ideas in the present situation that there is a weak indication to past tense and future time (Gramley and Patzold, 1992: 278). So, they "Talk about here and now not about tomorrow or yesterday" (Tiegreman, 2008: 1).

Control: Control has a number of goals: getting a person's attention, establish a pecking order in specific social contexts, and monopolizing an interaction (Baron, 1989: 2).

Difficult Sounds Replaced by Easier Ones: like /t/ instead of /k/, as in "Tette for Kette" (Kayani: 2).

Proper Nouns Used Instead of First and Second Person- Pronouns: "Mammy is sleeping and lovely Johnny has also to go to bed.

Fathers, however, are usually involved in fewer exchanges with the children and there is tendency to use more new words and more utterances in the imperative mood, yet they ask less questions and repetition is not much in their speech (Gleason and Grief, 1983 cited in Gramley and Patzold, 1992: 278).

2.4 FUNCTIONS OF MOTHERESE

1-   Motherese reinforces communication in children (Ellis, 1987 cited in Vossoughi and Javaherian, 2000: 426). They know that conversation has to flow like turn taking; when to stop and when to talk; intonation can also mark certain language functions as warning, prohibiting, encouraging, etc.

2-   Motherese is a language teaching facility (Ellis, 1987 cited in Vossoughi and Javaherian, 2000: 426) that reinforces the child's language and is meant to be decisive in first language acquisition.

3-   Motherese socializes the child with the community (Ellis, 1987 cited in Vossoughi and Javaherian, 2000: 426). Children pay attention to social etiquettes like phatic communion, empty expressions that enhance the social relations, like greetings (e.g. say hello mommy!, How are you doing?)

2.5 MOTHERESE HYPOTHESIS

It assumes that maternal utterances play a major role in language acquisition. In its strong form, the Motherese Hypothesis is that the restrictive choices of vocabulary and structures are prerequisite in learning the mother tongue; in its weak form, the more the caregiver limits his speech to the prescribed form and content of sentence, the faster and the less erroneous learning will be (Gleitman et al, 1982: 45). By modifying their speech style, mothers encourage interaction and do their utmost to get a response from the child, i.e. to understand and interact successfully (Tiegerman, 2008:1). The turning point between the child's nonverbal to the verbal communication starts with use of motherese, a stage of development generally termed as Motherese Period (Newport, Gleitman & Gleitman, 1977 cited in Trueba, 1991: 122).

Motherese falls within the Interactive Approach to first language acquisition. This theory of

mother tongue acquisition shows the seminal role of interaction between the child and the adult; it claims that such communication gives children opportunities to participate in the discourse (Thorne, 1997: 166).

Finch (2005: 201) opines that there is little evidence that children acquisition of any syntactic or lexical knowledge from their interaction with the caretakers. Adults may use the technique of expansion of their utterances; for example, if a child says "Hands dirty," a caretaker may expand it to a complete sentence by saying "Yes, your hands are dirty." Coherence is decisive in conveying the meaning, but the adult's utterance is both cohesive and coherent while the child's is not cohesive that doesn't adhere to the grammatical rules of English (Resource: Researcher).

Expansions help the child develop language, but recent research suggests that recasts are more productive to language development - responses in which the caregivers repeat what the child utters but in an alternative way and continues the conversation, like "Your hands are dirty. Let's wash them, Shall we? (Resource: Researcher).

Motherese in child language acquisition is untenable. Parents' attempts to teach their children language is unsystematic and seems to have little influence; there are some communities in which there is no motherese (like Samoa). Parents do not talk to their children and still the later acquire language at the same speed of others where motherese was used during the acquisition of their first language (Horsey, 2001: 1, 58).

Motherese is superfluous since children do not use the same vocabulary and structures as they develop linguistically; words like doggy, kitty, etc. are not used by the same child when he becomes adult. Further evidence is that foreign learners of the same language do not start from motherese as a preliminary step for acquiring a second language. If motherese is decisive in language acquisition, foreign learners will start with this simple style of language and move on to more advanced styles (Resource: Researcher).

Chomsky (1965: 26- 27) attributes deformation and degeneration as features of child-directed speech and that it is not enough for children to acquire their mother tongue unless the existence of some innate knowledge of Universal Grammar. Language Acquisition Device is a means by which each child generates language systematically and is very rapid in mastering linguistic rules. This device gradually switches off as children get older in age. Language is innately guided behavior; it is the child's instinct to pick up speech sounds and generates syntactically and semantically satisfactory well- formed sentences (Aitchison, 1999: 127).

As motherese is a facilitator for language acquisition, it may be an indicator of the child's failure in language comprehension (Reese and Lipsitt, 1982: 52); the caretaker's frequent

use of simplified chunks boosts the child's ability of comprehending the very explicit structures of speech yet reduces his potentials for penetrating rapid, complicated speech and prevaricated expressions.

2.6 MOTHERESE IN KURDISH

The informants show different stands in using motherese with children, among those who highlight its role in language acquisition, endearment, or ease of communication.
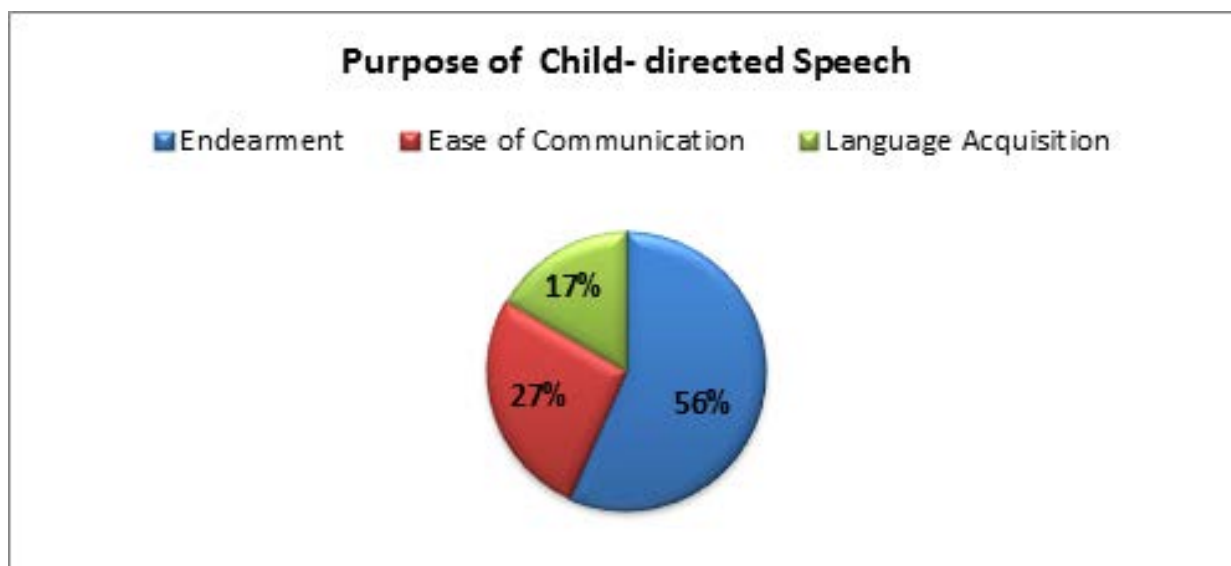
(Pie Chart NO. 1: Purpose of Child- directed Speech)
(Resource: Researcher)

Kurdish		English	Kurdish		English
Motherese	Normal		Mothererese	Normal	
/pɪʃiːke/	/ketɪk/	Cat	/mɑːriː/	/cɪrɪm/- /mɑːr /	Worm- Snake
/ ʕæwuːkiː/	/sæ/	Dog	/ qɪde/	/mɪriːʃk/	Hen
/ʔʊʃuːkiː/	/hæsp/ - / kær/	Horse	/qiːqe /	/ diːcɪl/	Rooster
/bæʕæke/	/ ˌpæz/	Sheep	/tʃiːtʃe/	/tʃiːtʃɪk/ -/ tʃiːtʃæluːk/	Bird

(Table No. 1: Vocabulary Related to Animals: (Resource: Researcher)

The words of the child- directed speech in Kurdish are usually inflected for gender markers: the /e/ for feminine and the /i:/ for masculine. These markers are also used to differentiate the friendly animals from those able to hurt the child. The speech act of warning is indicated by the masculine gender marker so the child takes his precautions and be always aware of the danger of such animals. The word /ʕæwuːkiː/ meaning "dog" is a culture bound vocabulary, while in the English culture, it is the best friend and very faithful, it is seen less faithful in the Kurdish culture and may be a source of danger to a child thus inflected with the masculine gender marker /i:/. These gender markers are also vocatives for an instant informative message.

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Words like /pɪʃiːk/ and /mɑːriː/ have a random relation with the entities they signify while / ʕæwuːkiː/ ,/bæʕæke/ ,/ʔʊʃuːkiː/ , /tʃiːtʃe/ are echoic words having a one- to- one correspondence between the entities and the sounds they make.

2.7 MOTHERSES RELATED TO EATING AND DRINKING

Kurdish		English	Kurdish		English
Motherese	Normal	Water	Mothererese	Normal	Dirty
/mæce/-[mpʼə]	/ɑːv/		/kɪxə/- / tɪxə/	/ piːsə/	
/ʕæme/	/xɑːrɪn/	Food	/lɑːle/- / ʔʊʼfe/	/gɪrɑːr/	Rice- Bulgur
/ʕæʼm/	/tʃænd xuːʃə/	Very Delicious	/mæmiː/	/ʃiːr/	Pacifier- breast feeding - artificial feeding
/ʒɪʒiː/	/guʃt/ - / bɑːdʒɑːn ræʃk/	Meat- eggplant	/qɑːqe/	/ ʃiriːnɑːhiː/	Candies

(Table NO. 2: Vocabulary Related to Eating and Drinking: Resource: Researcher)

The two words /mæce/-[mpʼə], referring to water are different; the first is pronounced with pulmonic eggressive airstream mechanism; the air is pushed out of the lungs, while second with pulmonic ingressive airstream mechanism; the air is pulled inwards. So, the former can be considered a word while the later is a paralinguistic feature of the language in question. /ʕæme/ is used to inform the child with the food while /ʕæʼm/ is used to refer to delicious food. Due to prevalence of embargo in Iraq, it seems this phenomenon also affected the vocabulary used in motherese; /ʒɪʒiː/was used to denote meat but because of the restrictions of the economic situation, parents called eggplants /ʒɪʒiː/ because they couldn't buy meat.

The words /kɪxə/ and / tɪxə/are onomatopoeic words, meaning "spit out" for something dirty or inedible. These are directive speech acts of commanding. As for /lɑːle/ and / ʔʊʼfe/ both refer to rice and bulgur but the later refers to the entity when very hot, functioning a warning for the child.

/mæmiː/used in the suckling stage, is a polysemous word, having different related meanings: pacifier, breast feeding or artificial infant feeding via nursing bottle. The vocabulary /qɑːqe/ is an arbitrary word now but an echoic word then; formed from the sound of almond and nuts when scraping them.

2. 8 MOTHERSES RELATED TO BODY PARTS

Kurdish		English	Kurdish		English
Mothere	Normal		Mothererese	Normal	
/tʃætʃiː/	/dæst/	Hand	/fine/- /xɪmxɪmke/	/dɪfɪn/	Nose
/qiːtʃe tə/	/ dɪdɑːne tə/	Your tooth	/pæpi /	/pe/- /pelav/-/ lɪng/	Foot, shoes, leg
/nuːke /	/nɑːfɪk/	Belly Button (Umbilicus)	/pæpi /	/pelav/-/bedʒɑːmə/	Pajamas

(Table NO. 3: Vocabulary Related to Body Parts: (Resource: Researcher)

Some words above have a semantic resemblance with the notions they denote. For instance, /nu:ke /, meaning chick pea is used for belly button, the two entities being the same in shape, /qi:tʃe tə/ is used for tooth, meaning " your sharp think". The word /fɪne/ is shortened for the ease of pronunciation while /xɪmxɪmke/ is the onomatopoeia of snoring. /pæpi / is generic with respect to meaning because it refers to different related entities. It is also used to denote shoes with the grammatical difference of number; it is plural in English but singular in Kurdish even when referring to shoes. For example, an adult may ask a child to put on his shoes using the singular format /pæpe xu: pke /   not the plural format /pæpet xu: pke / (Wear your shoes, wear your pajamas).

Arbitrariness is shown between /tʃætʃi:/ and /dæst/, meaning hand. These are not used interchangeably in Kurdish; hence the selection of one of them rather than the other is based on size; /dæst/ refers to a big hand that of an adult, and /tʃætʃi:/denotes a small hand that of a child.

2.9 MOTHERESE FUNCTIONING AS VOCATIVE FOR BABY GIRLS

Kurdish		English	Kurdish		Engli
Motherese	Normal		Mothererese	Normal	Buxom
/hɪti:k/ -/hɪte/	/ bibi:ka kɪtʃ/	A baby girl	/pɪte/	/qæʃæw	Chubby
/ bærxɑ: mɑːme xu: /	/ bærxɑ: mɑːme xu: /	The sheep of your uncle			

(Table NO. 4: Vocatives for Baby Girls: Resource: Researcher)

Kurdish		English	Kurdish		Engli
Motherese	Normal		Motherere	Normal	Buxom
/cʊndu:/	/cʊrke bɪtʃi:k/	A baby boy	/pɪtu:/	/qælæw /	Chubby
/ bærxe mɑːme xu: /	/ bærxɑ: mɑːme xu: /	The sheep of your uncle			

(Table NO. 5: Vocatives for Baby Boys: Resource: Researcher)

Vocative is the use of a noun phrase for direct address (Trask, 1993: 299); these appear in adult- to- infant dyads. While in English the vocative is always preceded by coma, as in: Can you give me a hand, Sidrah? the Kurdish language adheres itself to a morphologically distinctive case and also assigning the gender of the person addressed; the vocative for feminine is ended by /e/ and by /u:/ for masculine. Conversely, when the vocative is used with another noun or pronoun indicating possession, the gender marker /e/ is used for masculine, and /ɑ:/ is used for feminine, as mentioned in the table above. Some vocatives are not used randomly but based on the external appearance; the best example is /pɪte/ and /pɪtu:/used with overweight child to say s/he is similar to potato.

The functions of the words, in the table, are of double- dimensions; they are not only vocatives but also as referring expressions having the same function of proper nouns, as in:

- /keze jɑ: dkætə gɪri:/

- The weevil is crying.

Such a proposition can have a variety of utterances in the sense that it may function as an

informative sentence, giving a piece of information, or meaning directive speech acts, like: Give her milk, Check her maybe she is sick, check her maybe she wants to sleep, etc. Further, the utterance /keze hɑ:tə reze/ (The weevil has come to the queue/ pragmatically means the baby has grown and must have his/her space as an adult, indicating astonishment.

2.10 MOTHERESE: MISCELANEOUS

Kurdish		English	Kurdish		English
Motherese	Normal	Sleep!	Mothererese	Normal	Hold yourself
/ʔælɑ:/ /ʔælɑ:ke/	/bɪnvə/		/wæsti wæsti /	/xu: bɪgrə/	
/dʒu:dʒi:/	/sær ʃi:ʃtɪn/	Taking a shower	/tu:ti/	/ri:nə/	Sit down
/ʔɪne/ /vɪne/	/trɪmbel/	Car	/bɪvæ/	/dæste xu: næke/	Don't touch
/ti:te/	/trɪmbel/	Car	/ʔi:q/	/ʔi:q/	Peek a boo
/tɑ:tɑ:/ /pæpɑ:/	/revætʃu:n/	Walking	/qɪdi qɪdi /	/gɪli:zɑnk/	Tickling
/gæze/	/læqæke/	A bite	/tʃɪk/	/dærzi:k dɑ:n/	Injection

(Table NO. 6: Miscellaneous: Resource: Researcher)

/dʒu:dʒi:/ has an iconic relation to notion and car is represented by the sounds it makes like /ʔɪne/ and /vɪne/ and or the sounds of horns as/ti:te/. In encouraging the child to walk and/or to stand up, repetition of the word is salient for cheering sustainability of the action, so called Reduplication (Nordquist, 2015. The term tautonym is used to describe such words with reduplication, as: mama, papa, flip flop, etc. Corresponding words in Kurdish are: /tɑ:tɑ:/, /pæpɑ:/, /wæsti wæsti/,/tu:ti/, /dʒu:dʒi:/, and /qɪdi qɪdi/.

/gæze/means a very slight bite to show love and the sentence /kɑ:dɑ: bu:tə sɪʕætæke tʃekæm/ means biting the hand of the child, the traces of the teeth produce a picture similar to watch, and also means painting a watch on the hand of the child, using a pen.

4.1CONCLUSIONS

1-   Echoism (Onomatopoeia) is salient in mothesrese since it is more illustrative and has a natural connection with objects and ideas it refers to.

2-   One word may refer to all objects and ideas related to, so known as generalization.

3-   Repetition of the word or its first syllable, i.e. reduplication is common in child-caretaker's speech.

4-   Some vocabularies are used in certain stages of the child's physical development like /wæsti wæsti/, /tɑ:tɑ:/ are used with toddlers.

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My name is Parween Saadi Abdulaziz, I am researching the style of the Kurdish language directed to children and is not used with adults, known as motherese

Your Mother Tongue ………. Dialect ………

Place of Residence ……………………………

Sex of the Child: Male …….. Female………

Age of the Child: ……………………………..

Q1: Do you use a special style of Kurdish language with children that you do not use with adults?

Yes ………………… No…………………….

Q2: Is there any benefit behind using this style of language?

Yes …. Why? …………………………………..

No…… Why? …………………………………..

Q3: State ten words that you use with children and you do not use with adults, providing the purpose behind employing each.

- ……………………………………………………………………………………………

Linguistic errors in shop signs in Erbil city

ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating the language of business in Erbil city – the capital of Kurdistan region- to figure out how often shop signs fail to convey any relevant information to target language readers. These errors are classified into three categories: spelling, grammar, and word choice with the second having the highest frequency. This study supposes the reasons behind these sorts of errors include translator's language incompetence, translator's carelessness, and the socio-cultural differences between English, Arabic, and Kurdish.

Keywords: Arabic, English, Kurdish, Shop signs, translation errors,

1- Introduction

Due to the current unstable situation in most of the governorates in Iraq, most people and businessmen have traveled to Erbil city which is the capital of Kurdistan region. They settle there and make their own business. Within this trend, we have seen a lot of shop signs in different languages; namely, Arabic, English, and Kurdish which is the official language in Erbil. These shop signs play an indispensable role in business since they either encourage consumers to enter the shop or to forget about it at all. That's why, shop owners make their best to increase the ratio of their sales and to get the notice of buyers. They do so by using catchy signs in different languages but English is mostly used since it reflects the high prestige of the owner. Generally speaking, people tend to appreciate those who speak English and use English in the facades since it is a prestigious language. We can also see English words but in Kurdish and Arabic letters. In this era of modernity and globalization, the language of shop sign is somewhat "loaded" and challenging, so it is not difficult to justify why one should study their discourse (Al-Kharazbsheh, Al-Azzam, & Obeidat). The study of signs has started by two men Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) and American philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce (1839–1914) who are the founders of semiotics, the science of signs. The formers has defined the sign as a combination of a concept and a sound image. The latter, however, defines the sign as something which stands to somebody for something in some respect or capacity (Beger, 2004, p.3). From the marketing perspective, a sign is a device placed on or before a premise to identify its occupants and the nature of the business done there or to advertise a business or its products (cited by Al-Athwary, 2014, p. 141). The representation of a text in more than one language on a sign is called a bilingual (or more broadly a multilingual sign). These

multilingual shop signs are not free of mistakes. However, they are error-ridden. Some of these errors take place due to the translation, localization, and adaptation. Translation is the process of producing a text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances. Localization is ,however, wider than translation and it means taking a product and making it linguistically and culturally appropriate to the target locale. In adaptation ,the copywriter (they don't mention the word translator) will always aim to produce a copy in their own language, which reflects the tone and nuance of the original - at the same time creating a refreshing copy, which is culturally relevant (cited by Sotomayor, 2007). Therefore, this study comes into sight. Following the methodology adopted by Al-Kharabsheh (2008), four main types of errors have been identified: orthographic errors affecting the message, transliteration, translation errors and avoidance of translation via recoursing to total foreignization demonstrating ignorance at best.

2- Literature Review

Due to the extensive use of shop signs in different languages and colors, and using many textual elements to get buyers' attention, many researchers have been urged to study these shop signs.   Amer & Obeidat (2014), in their study entitled by "Linguistic landscape: a case study of shop signs in Aqaba city, Jordan", figure out that in most of the collected shop signs the author translates the Arabic name into English to make information about the goods and services they provide available for Arabic non-speakers and English is used to attract foreign customers' attention. They, on the other hand, find out that some shop owners prefer to use both Arabic and English in their shop signs since the former is associated with globalization, modernity, prestige and for decorative purposes. Arabic in English spelling occupies the second position according to frequency. Arabic spelling is used to represent English words and phrases on some signs. The reason for such representation is the fact that the English word is already used in the local dialect of the city as the case of dry clean, pizza, and chicken tikka.   In few cases English only is used on shop signs; in most of these businesses the target customers are foreigners as mentioned by shop owners.

Al-Athwary (2014) in his study entitled by "Translating shop signs into English in Sana'a's streets: a linguistic analysis", has revealed that the current situation of the translation of signs in the streets of big cities still suffers from deficiency and it is not satisfactory. A large number of signs contain errors of different types and varying levels of seriousness. Translation problems found in the shop signs occur in three categories of errors: spelling, grammatical, and lexical, with the last having the highest frequency. The various cases of poorly translated English signs present foreign readers with exotic messages which

consequently lead to confusion and frustration. He has mentioned that the reason behind that is translator's language incompetence, carelessness, the socio-cultural differences between Arabic and English, and mother tongue interference. Besides, the high-frequency errors, which deal with incorrect lexical choices and literal translation have come about partly due to the failure of the translators to pay adequate heed to semantic boundaries between lexical items in English and Arabic as well as to the failure to stick to the rule prohibiting verbatim translation of proper nouns.

Al-Kharabsheh, Al-Azzam, & Obeidat (2008), in their study entitled by "lost in translation: shop signs in Jordan", have investigated various types of problems and errors associated with translating shop signs into English. They show that that shop signs in Jordan are translationally error-ridden, due to various linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. The former involves word-order, wrong lexical choice, and reductionist strategies that have proved to result in information "skewing" and consequently giving rise to serious semantic-conceptual problems. The latter includes a variety of socio-cultural and promotional factors that have a great impact on the way shop signs are verbalized. They also figure out that in some shop signs there is no relationship between the source language text (SLT) and its supposed target language (TL) equivalent.

Guo (2012), in his study entitled by "Analysis on the English-translation errors of public signs", has shown that the current situation of the translation of publicity in big cities in China shows up its deficiency. There is no denial that public signs play an important role in daily life, and their English versions contribute great help and convenience to the foreigners in China. Additionally, they also have become an effective way to set up China's international image. The current situation of English translation of these signs is not satisfactory, and various cases of poorly translated English signs present foreign readers with a jumbled meaning. Perhaps the greater problem is the abundance of Chinese-English signs used for directing foreign tourists to and from places. Although there are problems existing in the translation of bilingual public signs, it is still delightful to see that the issue has been bought to spotlight by the academic scene, government and even the general public, and it has already become a public concern which arouses a flaming public interest that it should have deserved for long· The study of shop signs is not always a matter of text, but it is also connected with the term color and how some colors have different cultural connotation. Al-Adaileh (2012) in his research entitled by "the connotation of Arabic color terms", has investigated the figurative uses of black, white, yellow, red, green, and blue. In reference to the Jordanian Arabic, he has figured that all colors have euphemistic and dysphemistic connotations but while black, yellow, red and blue were found to be predominantly dysphemistic and associated with mostly

negative connotations, white is used euphemistically, and mostly has positive connotations, yet green is found to be having both euphemistic and dysphemistic connotations.

In coincidence with this study, Christelle (2012) has discussed the translation of advertisements based on Coca-Cola advertisements. She has discovered how colors play a magnificent role in advertising. She has demonstrated that colors are symbolic in advertising. Colors such as red, blue, green and yellow are used in Coca-Cola advertisements to portray fun, happiness, joy and freshness. Furthermore, she has observed that icons such as Eddie Fisher and Santa Claus were used in the advertisements to persuade the audience. Symbols such as happy people, clowns, and even hands were used effectively to persuade consumers.

3- Methodology

This research focuses on the foreign language presence in business sector in Erbil city in general and on shop signs in particular. Thus the target is to analyze shop signs in terms of language choice (Arabic, English, or Kurdish). By "sign" is meant all the linguistic material written to attract the attention to a shop, whether on a typical sign, a shop window, or on a moving door. All that relates to the same store or shop is seen a single sign. These signs are analyzed according to the type of foreign influence they exhibit. The spelling of the English material on these signs is kept as it is whenever referred to throughout this article. For the purpose of this study, commercial signs of 100 businesses have been randomly collected from different streets in Erbil. The type of business in the sample area include car rental, stores of carpet, real estate offices, shops for clothes and paints, companies, restaurants, clinics, and cafes. The signs are initially divided into four broad groups: signs that have Arabic language only, signs that have Kurdish language only, signs that have English and Arabic languages, and signs that have English and Kurdish languages.

4- Analysis and Results

The analysis of the data has shown that there are different errors in the collected shop signs. Following the methodology adopted by Al-Kharabsheh, Al-Azzam, and Obeidat, four types of translation errors are identified: orthographic errors affecting the message, transliteration, translation errors and avoidance of translating via recoursing to total foreignization demonstrating ignorance at best.

4-1- Orthographic errors

Orthographic errors are cognitive errors consisting of the substitution of a deviant spelling for a correct one when the writer simply doesn't know the correct spelling of a particular word or forgot it or misconceived it (ThambiJose, 2014, p.2439). One can find two important characteristic features of orthographic errors.

1. They generally result in a string which is phonologically identical or very similar to the correct strings.

For example, prefer instead of prefre.

2. Proper names, infrequent words (uncommon words) and borrowed words are particularly prone to orthographic errors.

For example, datem instead of datum.

The spelling in English depends upon the phonemic/phonetic representations. Having a quick glance at the shop signs in Erbil city, it is not difficult to realize spelling mistakes, which involve wrong spelling of a word, or missing or adding of one or more letters in a word. Misspelling found vary from the simple to the serious ones. To illustrate this category of errors, consider the following example:

1)   LORIS Parfume
2)   Chat coffe
3)   FisHouse.
4)   LABoss LUAY.
5)   ROYAL FOR CURTANIS
6)   International Developmant Bank
7)   Cosmetiques
8)   Tabuu
9)   Koton
10)   Vertu (Boutique Erbil)

Misspelling in examples (1) & (2) are simple and occur because they are written as they are pronounced, hence we get parfume for perfume and Coffe for Coffee. The mistake in the third example, however, is striking since the dropping of (h) and the deletion of the space result in Fishouse instead of Fish house. This mistake creates a kind of confusion to the foreigner and he cannot figure it out unless mental effort is exerted. In example (4) the mistake is really serious since the shop owner tries to put two names to the lab. These are boss and Luay in a way to show the leadership of his shop. Also, anyone reads the sign, he will figure out that it is a good place to make some blood tests. In reality, however, it is a studio for taking photos. Therefore, the sign here is really misleading. In example (5), the mistake is also serious which reflects the unawareness of the shop owner of the English translation and it also reflects the fact that most of the English speakers in Erbil tend to insert "I" before that last consonant in the word in pronunciation.

There is something else that attracts the attention of the researcher that most of the furniture

shops' owners tend to use the word mobilya instead of furniture. This word is neither English nor Kurdish which is the official language in Erbil city. It is, however, mostly used

by Egyptians. This means that either the shop owners are watching Egyptian series a lot or it is easier than furniture for them. The last five examples emphasize the point that shop's and bank's owners tend to write what they read. They also reflect the irresponsibility and carelessness of owners forgetting the point that these signs might be read by foreigners who might have a bad impression on Erbil.

4.2 Grammatical Errors

Most of grammatical deviations are simple and straight forward and don't seriously affect the conveyed message. These include inappropriate use of the plural form, and the wrong word order. At the same time, there are instances of signs in which target text structure seems odd and somehow disturbed. It refers to the insertion of the superfluous preposition for in target translation. They also include the wrong word order and the wrong part of speech as follows:

(11) 4 U for covermobil

(12) Femin

(13) Price صيرفه

*Price (exchange)

(14) Opal Optik

(15) Koton

(16) Coffee prince

(17) The future embracing the heritage.

(18) Live olive (Aleppo soap)

(19) Kitchen tasty

Example 11 shows and reflects the interference of the mother tongue (Arabic or Kurdish) by using cover mobile, not the other way around. It also has an orthographic error which is the deletion of the final (e) in the word (mobile). This is a common mistake in the collected data coming out from the point that anything not pronounced shouldn't be written. In addition, it has another common mistake which is the deletion of the space between (cover) and (mobile). Example 12, has a serious mistake. The translator means (femininity) which has to do with women's dresses and stuff, but he fails in expressing such a meaning by choosing a misspelt word. Example 13 expresses how much the translator is in lack of professionality. He has combined two languages in two words. He has also chosen the wrong word which is (price) instead of (money). Example 14 reflects the wrong use of the part of speech. It is also sending a disturbed message. If the translator means (optician) so we, as costumers,

should expect finding a person for checking the eyesight. On the ground, however, we find just a place for selling medical and sun glasses. It also has another common mistake which is the use of (k) instead of (c) that is repeated in example 15.

Example 16 also includes the false word order which reflects the mother tongue interference. The same mistakes is repeated in 19. Example 17 reflects the translator's language incompetence by deleting the verb – be- and using the gerund alone. Example 18 also reflects translator's language incompetence by using a noun after a verb where he must use an adverb.

4.3 Transliteration Errors

Transliteration is the task of converting a word in one language into a sequence of characters from a different language while attempting to best approximate the native pronunciation. Transliteration is essentially a translation problem, from the set of sounds in one language to those from another language. This phonetic translation process is made more difficult by the fact that the model may need to additionally incorporate the translation between the written representations of each language and the phonetic representations (Berwick, 2009). Transliterating shop signs by using Roman characters are of no use to target language readers and performs only one purpose intended by shop owners which is showing modernity and prestige.

Similar to grammar errors, some of transliteration errors are slight and have no effect on the conveyed message of shop signs. The focus will be on the diactrization (vowelling) and gemination (consonant lengthening) which are related to the transliteration process and usually lead to more serious translation problems. It will also pay attention to the addition of(ي) although it is not available in the original sign due to the intensive effect of the mother tongue.

(20) Rawah pomegranate

Rawwah

(21)كومبانياي بون فوياج

BonVoyage company

(22) British international Institute

سةنتري بةريتاني نيودةولةتي

(23)Ashna restauran

خوارةدنكةي ئاشنا

هوتيلي ئاكار(24)

Akar Hotel

In example 20, the semi-vowel (w) in Rawah needs to be geminated or doubled in order to get Rawwah ' Amazing'. Errors related to gemination are serious enough since gemination in Arabic serves an important morphological and semantic function. The non-existence of gemination renders the word meaningless. It is also clear that example 21 has been transliterated wrongly due to the absence of (fatha) in the Kurdish language and the use of (أ) instead. Also, in the Kurdish language the (ي) is used to substitue (of). There is (ي) in (كومبانياي) and there is no (of) in the original shop sign, though. This has been repeated in the three quarter of the collected data as you see in 22, 23, and 24. This reflects the point that there is a grammatical rule in the Kurdish language which states that we must use (ي) even if we don't have it in the original copy because in the English language this (of) can be understood implicitly but in the Kurdish language it is a must for using it explicitly. Example 22 reflects another error which is the use of (center) instead of (معهد) for (institute). This reflects the unawareness of the translator and his lack of information. The last error can be listed under informativeness errors.

Translating some shop names are sometimes interesting as well as problematic. This phenomenon refers to cases which involve a mixture of transliteration and translation as it can be revealed by the following examples.

(25) Al-Njoom Rest.

(26) Sara Spencer

(27) Pasha Palace Hotel

هوتيل قصر باشا

The striking error in the 25th example is the lack of diacritic (or short vowel) (i) in Njoom for Nigoom 'stars'. Missing this diacritic in the transliteration process brings about the emergence of initial consonant clusters which are not permissible in the Arabic syllable system. Example 26 represents the trick played by the shop owner to attract a lot of customers. He tries to attach Spencer to Sara to make it like (Marks & Spencer) the well-known department store in Britain.(الأ)   Example 27 reflects another transliteration problem which is the deletion of(from باشا) which is an integral part of this Arabic noun. (

To sum up, it can be said that transliterating shop names in the way shown in all examples above is not only wrong and unacceptable, but also totally unhelpful in translation as it generates exotic items that can be more confusing than helpful.

4.4 Inappropriate Lexical Choice

This type of translation errors has been repeated in the collected data. The reason behind that is the lack of the translator's and owner's awareness. The choice of a catchy shop sign

is not a matter of writing any English word. Beside the linguistic, cultural, and social features, it must be chosen according to the habits, traditions, and the religion of place residents. The following examples reflect the absence of all these considerations.

(28) Harveys furniture store

(29) German restaurant and beer garden

(30) Barista Coffee

Example 28 has used the word 'Harveys' which is a company for selling wine in Bristol. This word has nothing to do with furniture store and it reflects the shallow information of the shop owner. Example 29 has chosen "German" , and there is no German dish, though. It also uses "beer garden" which an exotic expression to the culture and the tradition of the people of Erbil city. Example 30 has chosen the word " Barista" which means a person serving in a coffee bar. This word is a little bit awkward and it is not acceptable a lot. Besides, the wrong lexical choice is used which is "coffee" instead of " café".

4.5 The Translation of Proper Names

Proper names are specific names assigned to places. So any name given to a business store and appear on a shop sign is dealt with as a proper name. It is a well-known fact that proper names are not usually translated. The main reason behind that is that proper names have no connotations and are the same in most languages. The problem with this category of errors is that most of the shop names are translated literally which is considered as an error and against the above mentioned rule.

(31) (hotel qasar basha)

Pasha palace hotel.

جمعية الامل (32)

Al-Amal hope center.

Here, the translator resorts to the literal meaning of the shop signs while the appropriate translation of such proper nouns is the use of transliteration technique. These errors are not much common in Erbil city but they are confusing. In example 31, the source sign implies that the hotel is big, prestigious, and providing five-star services but the target translation means it is only big and might the intended meaning not come to the reader's mind. Example 32 has two errors which is the repetition of the word(أمل) as transliterated and translated. Once the translator has used (Al-Amal) , there is no need to translate it. This reflects the carelessness of the translator. This tendency reflects the desire of the shop owner to show abreast to modernity and, in turn, to boost sales.

4.6 Culturally-Based Translation

Jensen (2009) says that differences in culture pose several challenges to the translator. The most obvious problem is probably what is sometimes called cultural words which are words or phrases that are difficult, and often impossible, to translate. They are difficult to translate because they are deeply rooted in the culture and values associated with the source language but are not part of the cultural context of the target language. Often, the translator will have to paraphrase them, come up with an inaccurate 'equivalent' or even coin a whole new word in the target language as you see in examples 34 and 35.

Al-Athwary (2014) says that signs in the public space cannot be denied as one of the main carriers of ethnological culture, and the meaning of the signs should not only implicate the entity but also connote the notion of culture. As a result, shop signs translation from Arabic or Kurdish into English is not only a bilingual activity, but also a bicultural activity.

(33) Altin Saray (Restaurant and café)

Golden castle (restaurant and Café)

(34) ميني ماركيتي جاوي جاوم

(35) جيشتخانة وكتبابي جةركي جةركم

As mentioned above, a single lexical item can sometimes destroy the general intended message of the shop sign due to first the socio-cultural differences between SL and Tl and second due to the odd linguistic structure of shop sign texts which don't exceed the form of words, phrases, and compounds, a linguistic property makes each word enjoy a greater semantic status than it would have in other larger texts. In 33, for example, the translator refers to the transliteration strategy instead of the translation one thinking that this kind of buildings is not part of the western culture and ,consequently, has no English equivalent while it is.

4.7 Informativeness Errors

Errors caused by loss or change of information in TL message are usually classified as mistranslation on the cultural level. Al-Kharabsheh et al. (2008) call this approach "reductionist " by which some information are lost due to translator's carelessness or due to spatial considerations governed by the size and the cost of sign compelling the translator to be short and brief in the translation of shop signs.

(29) Jame3 Anwa3 Alal3ab

Space toon

(30) كومبانياي بون فوياج بو فروكةتواني وكةتشت وكوزار

Bon Voyage

(31) Jame3 Anwa3 Alkhubaz w Almu3ajanat

Bakery and more

(32) Jame3 Anwa3 Almalabs Alshabbiya likila Aljinsen

Dockers

The sample examples show incomplete messages conveyed in TL. In (29) the translated item does not tell us that this store is dealing with all children's games unless you have an idea that the name (space toon) is a name of channel on TV for Cartoons. The situation is even worse in (30). The source version of the shop sign says that this company delivers a lot of services for tourism and flying. Moreover, the French name of the company may increase the perplexedness of the foreign reader; he or she may think that this company just deals with arranging flights to France. The same thing occurs in 3. Rendering the shop name Bakery and more into TL alone would not help compensate the lost information. The worst thing takes place in 32 in which nothing in the TL name can help customers that this shop is for smart casual unisex clothes.

The improper omission of such information is motivated by the shop owner's desire to appear more fashionable regardless whether "this any English" has conveyed the intended message or not.

5- Conclusions

This study has revealed that the current situation of the translation of signs in the streets of the capital of Kurdistan -Erbil- suffers from deficiency and is not satisfactory. Translation problems found in this sample of this study are mainly spelling, grammatical, and lexical. These errors cause a kind of misunderstanding and confusion for foreigners. Reason lay behind these errors include translators' language incompetence, translators' carelessness, socio-cultural differences between English, Arabic, and Kurdish interference. In other words, most of the errors that deal with the incorrect lexical choices and literal translation have come about partly because of the failure of the translator to pay sufficient attention to semantic boundaries between lexical items in English, Arabic, and Kurdish as well as to the failure to stick to the rule prohibiting verbatim translation of proper nouns. In order to avoid such errors, it needs paying great attention by translators, communicators, shop owners, and the local authorities as well.

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الأخطاء اللغوية في واجهات المحلات في مدينة أربيل

الملخص

يهدف هذا البحث الى التحقيق في اللغة المستخدمة في مجال الاعمال في مدينة اربيل عاصمة اقليم كردستان والتي قد تؤدي الى الفشل في ايصال المعنى للقارئ الاجنبي. ويمكن تصنيف هذه الاخطاء الى ثلاث مجاميع : الاملاء، القواعد، واختيار الكلمات. ونقترح بأن السبب وراء مثل هذه الأخطاء يكمن في عدم كفاءة لغة المترجم، قلة اهتمامه باللغة،أو الاختلافات الثقافية والأجتماعية بين كل من اللغة العربية ، الأنجليزية ،و ألكردية.

الكلمات المهمة: واجهات المحلات، أخطاء الترجمة، الأنجليزية، ألعربية، ألكردية

Recreational Reading Effects on Teaching:
From the Perspectives of Pre-service Teachers

Pashew M. Nuri

Ishik Univewsity

ABSTRACT

This research looks into the issue of recreational reading effects on teaching from the perspectives of pre-service teachers. It answers the question whether pre-service teachers believe recreational reading habits and behaviors affect their teaching? To answer the question, the study utilized a quantitative methodology, using a survey instrument. The participants of the study were graduate and undergraduates (seniors and juniors) students who were pursuing a teaching degree/license in both secondary and middle school education programs at a school of education in a large Midwestern university in the U.S.A. The participants were of different gender and ethnic backgrounds. It is in the findings of this study that there is a strong relationship between recreational reading and teaching improvement, teaching career, and relating to students. Pre-service teachers believe that recreational reading leaves positive effects on teaching and it can be a good source for teaching improvement. The study presents its significance towards teachers of K-12 education to see through the outstanding role recreational reading may have on their teaching practices on a daily basis.

Keywords: Effective Teaching, Pleasure Reading, Pre-service Teachers, Recreational Reading.

Introduction

Reading is one of the most important skills a person can possess. It is the foundational activity for literacy improvement. According to Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, (1985) reading is a corner-stone for success, not just in school, but throughout life. They assert that "without the ability to read well, opportunities for personal fulfillment and job success will inevitably be lost" (p.12). Yet, all too often, teachers, especially those who wish to teach reading may be unaware of reading's impact on school success, and especially the impact of recreational reading's impact on a person's quality of life.

As stated before, reading is a fundamental activity for literacy acquisition, which according to Lipson and Wixson (1997) it is driven by complex cognitive, emotional, social, and instructional

factors. It is fundamentally how children and adults acquire strategies for decoding words. For some, the acquisition is easier because they have been exposed to activities that are related to literacy. They either had parent or teacher modeling that helped them scaffold reading behaviors. Such modeling, according to Leslie and Allen (1999), helps the reader find meaning in the reading, hence a rewarding experience, which is like to lead to more reading. This tells us that teachers are effective in helping the students build a reading life. Studies have always supported this assumption to be true, Mueller (1973), Smith (1989), Daisey and Shroyer (1993), Hill and Beers (1993), Draper, Barksdale- Ladd, & Radencich (2000), Powell-Brown (2003), Gomez (2005), Applegate & Applegate (2004), Nathanson, Pruslow, & Levitt (2008), Popoola, Ajibade, Etim, Oloyede & Adeleke (2010).

The purpose of the Study

It can be said that the best course to be taken towards eliminating illiteracy, is to promote recreational reading among students and teachers. This can be done by studying teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards recreational reading and approach the issue with the realization of how teachers think about reading and what they can do about it. Indeed, a preemptive attempt may sound much wiser in this case. An attempt to study pre-service teachers' beliefs and behaviors towards recreational reading who are still under the teacher education programs in universities and institutes of education would be of great interest.

Therefore, this study is set upon one major purpose which is to examine the pre-service teacher's perspectives towards recreational reading and its relationship to teaching. The main questions the study attempts to answer are: Do the pre-service teachers read? Do they enjoy reading? And what relationships do the pre-service teacher believe exist between recreational reading and teaching?

Definition of Terms

In this study, the following terms are used as fit to their definition provided below:

Pre-service Teachers.

Pre-service teachers are those graduate and undergraduate teacher candidates in the School of Education at a large Midwestern university in the U.S, who are juniors that will start their student teaching year next year and/or seniors who are currently at their students teaching year. A pre-service teacher in this study is a college student involved or going to be involved in a school-based field experience.

Recreational Reading.

Upon review of the term, I found that recreational reading is defined in different ways and

with different terms, often limited to the research conducted. In literacy research studies it is termed as leisure reading (Mellon, 1987), voluntary reading (Krashen, 1993), independent reading (Cullinan, 2000), reading outside school (Anderson, Wilson, & Fielding, 1988), spare time reading (Searls, Mead, & Ward, 1985), and self-selected reading (Worthy, Turner, and Moorman, 1998). Though there isn't much or any difference in their meaning despite different wordings, this study uses recreational reading.

Essentially, it is defined according to the inclusion and exclusions of the type of reading counted within the limitations of the study. Greaney (1980) defined recreational reading as any reading activity out of school activities. He defined recreational reading as "reading of any kind, excluding school texts and other materials assigned at school" (p. 344). Greaney's definition for recreational reading is limited to school aged children and adolescents, it could be extended to college aged students as well, but he didn't mention about the choice and pleasure the student may have in their reading. However, Hughes-Hassell and Rodge (2007) in their study of urban adolescents, defined recreational reading as: "the reading students choose to do on their own, as opposed to reading that is assigned to them … leisure reading involves personal choice, choosing what one wants to read, and reading widely from a variety of sources, not just books" (p. 22). This definition can be considered the most comprehensive as it includes reading done for fun or leisure, reading in which the reader has choice, and the readings can include different resources, formats, genres, and formats not just books. Even though the study was limited to school teenagers alone but the same can be stated for adults as well.

Moreover Medaille (2012) in a series of focus group study, reported that from a social perspective recreational reading helps improve compassion and empathy, figure out occurrences in past and present. It gives readers the power to act and progress their own beliefs and understand the consequences of bad behavior. Moreover, recreational reading provides "entertainment, relaxation, reassurance, a creative outlet, and a means of escape" (p. 78). So, the person who is reading for entertainment and recreation benefits not only on a personal or individual level but also on a collective level that constitutes the society as a whole, as it can be concluded from Medaille (2012).

For the purpose of this study the researcher utilizes the definition of Hughes-Hassell and Rodge (2007) who defined recreational reading as "the reading students choose to do on their own, as opposed to reading that is assigned to them … leisure reading involves personal choice, choosing what one wants to read, and reading widely from a variety of sources, not just books" (p. 22).

Literature Review

There is a numerous number of studies done in the area of the effective impacts of recreational reading on one's personal and societal development. However, this study focuses on the contributions recreational reading makes to a teacher's teaching. In this part of the study the researcher tries to categorize what is found about recreational reading in previous studies into the role of the teacher in recreational reading and recreational reading among pre-service teachers. There is a clarification that needs to be made here, due to the lack of studies on the relationships between recreational reading and pre-service teachers, the study presented an array of recent studies that were made on the impacts of recreational reading on not only pre-service teachers, but also in-service as well.

The Role of the Teacher in Recreational Reading

The positive recreational reading habits and attitudes of pre-service teachers who are currently college students has a strong relationship with the influence a teacher has while teaching. There are studies that prove this to be true, Mueller (1973), Smith (1989), Daisey and Shroyer (1993), Hill and Beers (1993), Draper, Barksdale- Ladd, & Radencich (2000), Powell-Brown (2004), Gomez (2005), Applegate & Applegate (2004), Nathanson, Pruslow, & Levitt (2008), Popoola, Ajibade, Etim, Oloyede & Adeleke (2010).

Popoola, Ajibade, Etim, Oloyede & Adeleke (2010) conducted a study to determine the relationship between teaching effectiveness and reading attitudes among secondary school teachers in Osun State, Nigeria. Three hundred teachers from thirty secondary schools were approached to respond to the reading habits and teaching effectiveness questionnaire, and of this three hundred, two hundred and thirty five teachers returned the surveys. They found that majority of teachers 50.2% read on weekly basis, devoting less than one hour for recreational reading for every week and 25% said to have pleasure in reading and no plan to engage in reading whatsoever, while 23.4% of them admitted to read for pleasure only when they have travel or on a journey. More than 41% of the teachers reported to have bought no personal books in the last 12 months, 40.9% bought one or two books while 12.8% bought three to four books and 4.7% of them said to have bought more than four books.

Teachers' reading habits and teaching effectiveness were classified into categories of poor, fair, or good attitudes and teaching effectiveness, so the researchers can determine the connection between the two. The study resulted that 28.5% of the teachers showed poor attitudes towards reading, with 44.7% fair attitudes towards reading and 26.8% classified as possessing good attitudes towards reading. While the teaching effectiveness of 9.4% of the teachers classified as poor, 54.5% as fair and 36.2% as good teaching effectiveness. The

researchers found a correlation coefficient of .624 on the relationships between the reading attitude and the teaching effectiveness of the teachers, and they confirmed that "there was a significant positive relationship between teaching effectiveness and teachers' attitudes to reading" (p.148).

It is ultimately implied that though the teachers have a weak relationships with books and recreational reading but there is connection between recreational reading and being a better teacher, which means the more you read as a teacher recreationally, the more effective you are. As they commented that teachers with poor attitudes towards reading tend to be less or ineffective in their teaching, and the better attitudes they have towards reading more effective they tend to be.

Additionally, Hill and Beers (1993) in a presentation at the International Reading Association (IRA) in San Antonio, shared how they surveyed 625 teachers who represented all 50 states as well as Canada, 65% of which had taught 13 years or more, and with 64% holding a master's or doctoral degree. The researches attempted to discover whether teachers' reading habits impacted their teaching practice. The found that 77% of the teachers viewed themselves as avid readers, while 23% viewed themselves as dormant readers (those who liked to read, but weren't making time to do so). The researchers further concluded that teachers teach based on what they knew about good readers rather than utilizing reading methodologies in an explicit manner so they could motivate readers. Surprisingly enough, they implied that they knew least about working with unmotivated readers. Pre-service teachers are those who are currently students at colleges or universities, for that reason in the next section I am going to explore the literature about the U.S college students' attitudes and behaviors towards reading.

Recreational Reading among Pre-Service Teachers

There are several studies tackling around the issue of in-service and/or pre-service teachers' recreational reading habits and attitudes and the relationship between the recreational reading habits and attitudes with the teaching effectiveness of the teacher. Daisy (2010) examined pre-service secondary teachers' favorite past recreational reading experiences to answer the question whether and how their remembrances can improve classroom reading instruction. The researcher found that a connection exists between pre-service teachers' memories of favorite reading experiences with the instructional reading materials at school that are relevant to the lives of young adults they will eventually teach.

Mueller (1973) in an attempt to find out the teachers' reading attitudes, conducted a questionnaire survey study with participation of 20 graduates with teaching experience and 21 undergraduates who were seniors in their teaching semester. In the study 50% of

the graduates and 23.5% of undergraduates preferred to read than to watch T.V to which Nathanson, Pruslow, Levitt (2008) commented as them to be "enthusiastic readers". Less than half of either group chose to read newspapers over watching news on television or the radio. Had the participants been in a position of travel or any purpose, where they had adequate food, water, and shelter, in such instance the majority of both graduate and undergraduate groups said that they would have books to read with them as well. Despite the fact that such occasion seems fitting for reading, yet 19% of the undergraduates and 10% of the graduates were reported not to have mentioned reading at all but television set and media players. Approximately 40% of both groups reported reading as the fourth or further down in the list of activities they were to do in the times they were not on job. They (40% of undergraduate and 24% of graduates) further ranked reading third and lower in its importance for school studies with comparison to other curriculum areas, which is quite surprising realizing the fact that all of the participants were either in-service or pre-service teachers. Mueller concluded by stating that the participant held reading "mildly" in their lives both professionally and personally, and that the participants didn't appraise reading highly and that implicates serious teaching effectiveness.

In another study Smith (1989) wondered if there is a relationship between the reading attitudes and habits of education major pre-service teachers who are undergraduates in training and the number of reading methods and other reading and language-related courses they had taken. Forty seven students participated who mostly have studied reading and they were to teach reading at schools. The findings reflected a moderate positive attitude towards reading among the pre-service teachers. Smith however discussed that whether these individuals show their attitudes towards reading in a more positive way when they are practicing teachers or not, probably promoting professional reading materials and readings that are related to the area of teaching, would expose the classroom students to teachers who are models with positive attitudes towards reading.

Moreover, Daisey and Shroyer (1993) conducted a study where they interviewed 40 university instructors who were teaching pre-service teachers, addressing the question where do the students who are pre-service teachers get their negative attitudes towards reading? The researchers concluded that student teachers develop negative attitudes because a) they do not see the rationale for reading, which means that the students may not value new approaches as they have been educated in a different paradigm, that is why they don't uphold the new ones, b) the instructor's do not communicate with the students, and c) the students are not readers themselves to the extent that one of the interviewees commented

about the pre-service teachers that "[they] very likely have never learned to read books" (p. 627).

In their study Draper, Barksdale- Ladd, and Radencich (2000) elaborated that Frager's (1986) work, and their own observations in 1997 caution that a good number of pre-service teachers neither consider themselves as good reader, nor to enjoy reading, nor had finished or read a single book within the last six months, which to them it showed an aliteracy issue among pre-service teachers. One of the main questions in their (2000) qualitative study addressed the factors that influence the development of beliefs about reading and the current reading habits of pre-service elementary teachers. They interviewed 12 pre-service teachers, six of which had positive attitudes/habits towards reading based on a survey conducted ahead of time and the other six having negative attitudes/habits towards reading. They found that some of the students were enthusiastic readers and loved to share what they have read, while others couldn't find pleasure in reading. The researchers concluded that pre-service teachers were reluctant to assume that their students are readers and nor were they able to count on their students to own a love of reading. They further stated that none of the students were able to suggest any specific agenda or plan for creating a love of reading in their own future students.

In another study, Powell-Brown (2003) worked with her own students who were pre-service teacher for several semesters, they had only one semester left to go to teaching and their trainings were mostly finished. She tried to find out when did they came to love reading, if they love reading. She found that there were few pre-service teachers who never liked to read and mostly the group were reluctant readers, and she found that aliteracy was pervasive among her graduate students. Powell-Brown gathered her students from different semesters and discussed together the possibilities of developing a passion for kids and college students, she concluded and reemphasized what she previously believed that you as a teacher must demonstrate a positive attitude towards reading and should be a model of a passionate or good reader so you can create a passion in others to read.

In a response to Powell-Brown's you can't be a teacher of literacy if you don't love to read, Gomez (2005) pushed the question further and asked why would you be a teacher of literacy if you don't love to read? In her article she reflected that literacy teachers possess different selves of which they need to be informed and conscious. Teachers have a personal self, a literal self, a historical self and a professional self. In order to better prepare teachers who are able to cultivate positive reading attitude within their own selves and their students, all the selves should be well introduced specifically the literal self, as teacher confuse among their two private literal self (i.e., loving reading, struggling with reading, or disliking reading)

and public literal self (i.e., guiding children's reading, encouraging reading for pleasure, and advising parents about reading). The reconciliation between the two is firstly left up to the teacher and the support and guidance from literacy-focused teacher training programs. Gomes lastly concluded to answer her focal question why would teachers be teachers of literacy if they don't love to read? She says "I believe it is because those teachers are on a path of self-discovery and reconciliation between their public and personal literate selves" (p. 95).

Applegate and Applegate (2004) used the "Peter Effect" metaphor which he drew from the biblical story of the Apostle Peter. He was asked for money by a beggar, and he replied that he cannot give something he didn't have in the first place. The researchers use this story to characterize those teachers who are conveying to their students love and enthusiasm to reading that they themselves do not possess. They conducted a survey enrolling 195 sophomores from two different U.S institutions who were studying in a teacher certification program in elementary education. They found that 54.3% of the pre-service teachers classified s unenthusiastic readers and only 25.2% fell into the category of those "presumably" would capable of sharing a love of reading with their future student. They also found that the relationship between having higher SAT score and being an enthusiastic reader was weak, to mean that those students who had higher SAT scores fell into the category of unenthusiastic readers. Unsatisfied with these results they went along with a follow-up study to which they surveyed another 184 sophomores who intended to become elementary school teachers. They found that the percentage of unenthusiastic readers decreased to 48.4% in the follow-up study. The further found a correlation between college-level reading experience and the level of reading enjoyment, to mean that college can provide an environment boosting student's perspective on reading. In the open-ended questions they found that eighteen students responded that the teacher's attitudes and beliefs are clearly noticed in their teaching, seventeen of which were found to be unenthusiastic readers.

In search of finding out if the teacher-training institutions could bring about an environment to promote lifelong literacy among prospective and current teacher, and if the Peter Effect is still alive and it exists among the undergraduates, has it also affected the graduate students who are currently teachers in schools? Nathanson, Pruslow, and Levitt (2008) utilizing the same questionnaire Applegate and Applegate used in their study, among 788 graduate student in their program. They found that both in-service and pre-service graduate students did summer reading but they couldn't find an evidence of pleasure and enthusiasm in their act of reading. 17% of the total sample self-reported that they found no or little pleasure in reading and 47% of the respondents characterized themselves as enthusiastic readers.

Despite this finding, they wrote to have found evidence that teacher's attitude towards reading does make a difference and parents are powerful effects on cultivating enthusiasm in their children to read. They commented that the findings suggest that teachers collectively do not have established and firm reading habits, which they thought it connotes negative implications for the literacy of future generations. They suggested that the reason for the decline in reading today could in part be due to the lack of passion for reading in literacy professionals.

In a case study, Gerla (2009) studied the change in reading attitudes of her pre-service teacher subject who participated in a reading/writing workshop course of an entire semester and how this workshop has influenced the pre-service teacher. In the early interview the subject stated that she "dreaded reading just about anything" which to her it was because she "would rather watch television instead". The researcher elaborated that a transactional approach to teach which she used in the workshop, has a positive influence on student's perception of themselves as readers. In the end of the course and the study as well, the subject said "I look forward to reading books now because I have noticed how exciting and rewarding reading a good book can be...I can't believe how much my attitude has changed in just such a short amount of time" which is a quite tremendous change of perspective who would rather watch television than reading. The researcher found six conditions for such changes in perception towards reading to be rendered , which are; immersion in reading, social interaction, response, ownership and control, time, and a risk free environment all of which could be found in the workshop course the researcher as a professor gave.

METHOD

Research Design

This study undertook a quantitative research design utilizing a survey questionnaire with a qualitative element which is displayed in an open-ended question in the questionnaire. The qualitative data is shown analytically in a separate subsection of the results main section. According to Creswell (2014) a survey design is a "procedure […] in quantitative research in which investigators administer a survey to a sample or to the entire population of people to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of the population" (p.379). A cross-sectional survey was administered and distributed among the pre-service teacher who were at their junior or senior year, selected from a large Midwestern university in the U.S.A. To provide sufficient answer to the question of this study, the research utilized only several items of the survey as the rest were unrelated.

Sample

In a population of 181 pre-service teachers, a sample of 55 were conveniently chosen. These were three classes of students who were available at the time of study at a school of education in a large Midwestern university in the U.S.A. The participants included Male (25.45%) and   Female (74.55%). On the total of 55, White (87.27%), Latino (5.45%), Black (3.64%), and Asian (3.64%). They were graduate and undergraduates (seniors and juniors), pursuing a teaching degree/license in both secondary and middle school education programs. The participants came from different disciplines and different concentrations, natural science, language arts, social studies, science, math and curriculum and instruction.

Table 1: Distribution of participants by gender and ethnicity.

	Group	No.	Percentage %
Gender	Male	14	25.45
	Female	41	74.55
	Total	55	100%
Ethnicity	White	48	87.27
	Hispanic/Latino	3	5.45
	Black	2	3.64
	Asian	1	1.82
	Others	1	1.82
	Total	55	100%

Instrumentation and Procedures

The Pre-service Recreational Reading Attitudes and Behavior (PRRAB) survey, which was developed by the researcher himself, was used for data collection purposes. The survey addressed two purposes. The first purpose was to examine pre-service teachers' attitudes and behaviors towards recreational reading. The second purpose, which this study will use to gather sufficient data to answer the question, was to explore if pre-service teachers believe recreational reading is relevant or successful teaching.

The PRRAB survey contained 2 question of demographics (gender and ethnicity) and 12 recreational reading attitude and behavior questions. Despite that sought to explore pre-service teachers' recreational reading attitudes and behaviors, it included a likert scale item to show the level of agreement and disagreement statements of recreational reading relevance to successful teaching, and an open ended question to report why or why not reading is/isn't relevant to successful teaching. As stated before, this study utilized only parts of the survey to answer its core question.

For purposes of survey administration, the researcher contacted the class instructors so he can go into the class, and recruit and distribute the questionnaire among the participants. The survey was distributed to the students in class, after taking permission from the class instructors to go into the class and recruit the students. The researcher made it clear to the students that taking part in the study is voluntary and that they could withdraw from the participation at any time. The surveys were kept in an envelope, only the participants could open them. They were asked to close and sign the envelop when they are finished answering the questions. After showing consensus, the researcher distrusted the enveloped survey among them and left the room so the anonymity of the participants is kept. The class instructors were also asked to collect the sealed enveloped questionnaires and bring them back to the office of a professor so the researcher retain them back later on.

The data utilized in this study is original data, they were collected by the researcher. To analyze the data, STATA 13.1 statistical package was used.

Variables

The two main dependent variables are reading enjoyment and reading (whether the participant reads or not). These two variables are both dichotomous with an answer of Yes (valued 1) and No (valued 0). These variables were ran with three other likert scale items (independent variables) that were; reading improves my teaching, reading is important to my teaching career, and reading helps me relate to students on which the participants showed their level of agreement and disagreement on a scale of (1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Findings and Discussions

The study shows that majority (74.55%) of pre-service teachers in the study population read for recreation and %85.45 also enjoy reading. Only 25.45% of the participants stated that they do not read, 42.85% of which reported to enjoy recreational reading, and the other 57.14% responded neither to enjoy nor to read books.

There is a positive correlations between reading, reading enjoyment, and their effects on teaching improvement from the perspectives of pre-service teachers. Majority of the pre-service teachers who reported to read and enjoy reading, strongly agreed that recreational reading improves their teaching, as shown in table 2. This indicates the increase of enjoyment in reading in relation to the belief that it effects teaching betterment. The more a teacher enjoys recreational reading, the more affects it leaves on his/her teaching enhancement. That is despite the fact that reading is more or less a prerequisite to enjoying reading. As there is a higher expectation of someone who reads and to enjoy reading than someone

who does not read to say he/she enjoys reading. The study also shows that there could be teachers who would enjoy recreational reading but choose not to read. 42.85% of pre-service teachers who read, stated that they enjoy reading.

Only 3.63% of the participant disagreed that there is relationship between reading enjoyment and teaching improvement. While 14.54% (No. 8) have a neutral position in this regard, showing neither agreement nor disagreement towards the relationships between recreational reading and teaching improvement..

Table 2: Relationships between reading and teaching improvement.

Do you read?	Reading Enjoyment											
	Reading Improves my teaching											
	No						Yes					
	No Answer	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	No Answer	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	8						6					
1									2	8	9	22

N. = 55

Table 3 shows the relationships between reading and its importance to teaching career. The participants of this study showed immense consensus on this relationship. 60% of the participants (No. 33) showed that they both enjoy reading and strongly agree to believe the importance of reading to their teaching career. This shows the positive effects of recreational reading on teaching as a profession. Another 14.54% (No. 8) of the participants agreed that recreational reading is important to their teaching career. This accumulates a 74.54% of the entire population who read to express consensus on the relationships between recreational reading and teaching as a career.

Table 3: Relationships between reading and teaching career.

Do you read?	Reading Enjoyment											
	Reading is important to my teaching career											
	No						Yes					
	No Answer	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	No Answer	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	8						6					
1											8	33

N. = 55

Having the trait and ability to relate to students is a good way towards effective teaching. This study showed that majority 40% of the pre-service teachers strongly agree that if you read and enjoy reading, you will be able to relate to students. Relating to students is being able to put yourself in their shoes. Understanding their positions and relating to them. The participants strongly agree to the statement that reading helps teachers relate to students. According to the findings of this study, majority pre-service teachers have this conviction that to be able to relate to students reading is critical. It might seem interesting that only 1.81% of the participants as shown on table 4 disagreed that reading helps teachers relate to students, rather the majority (71.71%) of the participants believed that it was.

Table 4: Relationships between reading and relating to student.												
	Reading Enjoyment											
	Reading helps me relate to students											
	No						Yes					
Do you Read?	No Answer	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree	No Answer	S. Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	8						6					
1									1	9	9	22

N. = 55

This data portrayed a good sign of developing positive beliefs about teaching by pre-service teachers, as they have already established a foundation that recreational reading cause great contribution to their career and their relationships with their students. This means that the more a pre-service teacher reads, the more he/she tends to think positively about teaching and relationships with students. It deserves to mentions that the data show no relationships between not reading and teaching. There was 100% agreement among the teachers to believe that there is always a positive relationship between reading and teaching.

Conclusion

It is the findings of this study that there is a strong relationship between recreational reading and teaching career, teaching improvement, and relating to students in schools. The participants of this study showed that the more teachers read recreationally, the better teachers could be in their effective teaching, teaching-student relationships, and teaching career improvement. The findings of this study suggest that recreational reading (reading for fun, pleasure reading) can be a good asset on the journey of teaching if teachers consider

it so. It also suggests that recreational reading can be a different teaching tool that can be utilized for benefits even before teaching begins as a career, as reading has its own uses from the time when teachers decide to teacher till last. The findings of this study bare clear witness on this.

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Retelling the Irish Troubles through a Female Figure: The Irish Female Presence in Seamus Heaney's Poetry

Maha Qahtan Sulaiman

Baghdad University

ABSTRACT

The Irish Mother Goddess appears frequently in Seamus Heaney's poetry, through different female figures that are capable of destruction and regeneration. Heaney uses the Mother Earth myth to give significance and pattern to the discord and antagonism in Northern Ireland, converting them into introductory stages for a new epoch of rebirth, agreement, security, and righteousness. This is a recurrent motif in Heaney's poetry, indicating his belief that the spirit of Ireland is of a feminine nature and that the potentiality in Northern Ireland invariably moves from barrenness to abundance and fecundity.

Keywords: Mother Goddess, Northern Ireland, reconciliation,Troubles, myth.

Though the colonial bond between England and Ireland goes back to the sixteenth century, it is not until the eighteenth century that the nature of this bond was tackled in literature. In the poetry of this period, the Irish land is depicted as a vulnerable and innocent woman ravished by the powerful English coloniser. Ireland is depicted as an indigent woman, asking the Catholic young men to avenge her for the loss of her virginity and honour. Later on, in nineteenth and twentieth century Irish literature, Ireland "assume[s] the more militant guise of a mother goddess summoning her faithful sons to rise up against the infidel invader so that through the sacrificial shedding of their blood, she might be miraculously redeemed from the colonial violation and become free and pure again – that is, restored to pristine virginity of language, land and liturgy" (Armengol 9). The Irish Mother Goddess haunts the subconscious mind of the Catholics in Northern Ireland. She appears repeatedly throughout the poetry of the Irish poet Seamus Heaney, under different guises and in both creative and destructive roles.

In "Mossbawn", Heaney provides an account of his first conscious contact with what he considers to be the sacred feminine spirit of the land: the Mother Goddess territory and the dispossessed home of the mythical Cathleen Ni Houlihan, the symbol of Irish nationalism:

To this day, green, wet corners, flooded wastes, soft rushy bottoms, any place with the invitation of watery ground and tundra vegetation, even glimpsed from a car or train, possess an immediate and deeply peaceful attraction. It is as if I am betrothed to them, and I believe my betrothal happened one summer evening, thirty years ago, when another boy and myself stripped to the white country skin and bathed in a moss-hole, treading the liver-thick mud, unsettling a smoky muck off the bottom and coming out smeared and weedy and darkened. We dressed again and went home in our wet clothes, smelling of the ground and the standing pool, somehow initiated. (19)

Heaney considers this first contact with his homeland soil as a betrothal and the whole process has sexual connotations. Yet Heaney soon becomes aware that the same land which has become his muse is the stage on which sectarianism will play a violent role in the history of the country. The Troubles are alluded to in "Mossbawn" through a vocabulary related to the earth, revealing the psychological link between the land and its people: "For if this was the country of community, it was also the realm of division. Like the rabbit pads that loop across grazing, and tunnel the soft growths under ripening corn, the lines of the sectarian antagonism and affiliation followed the boundaries of the land" (20).

Heaney further elaborates on the nature of violence in the cultural, religious and historical context of Northern Ireland:

It would be possible to encompass the perspectives of a human reason and at the same time to grant the religious intensity of the violence its deplorable authenticity and complexity. And when I say religious, I am not thinking simply of the sectarian division. To some extent the enmity can be viewed as a struggle between the cults and the devotees of a god and a goddess. There is an indigenous territorial numen, a tutelary of the whole island, call her Mother Ireland, Kathleen Ni Houlihan, the poor old woman, the Shan Van Vocht, whatever; and her sovereignty has been temporarily usurped or infringed by a new male cult whose founding fathers were Cromwell, William of Orange and Edward Carson, and whose godhead is incarnate in a rex or caesar resident in a palace in London. What we have is the tail-end of a struggle in a province between territorial piety and imperial power. ("Feeling into Words" 56-57)

These dark forces of history – the victorious and the defeated – continue shaping the destiny of Northern Ireland. The religious and political divisions haunt the people's subconscious and bring doubt, fear, and terror to the place. In "Crediting Poetry" Heaney gives an account of Northern Ireland's situation between the years 1969 and 1994, that is between the beginning of the Troubles and the ceasefire: "The violence from below was then productive of nothing but a retaliatory violence from above, the dream of justice became subsumed into the callousness of reality . . . of hardening attitudes and narrowing possibilities that

were the natural result of political solidarity, traumatic suffering and sheer emotional self-protectiveness" (30). The Troubles was a continuation of the long historical conflict between the Protestant and Catholic communities in Northern Ireland. It influenced the lives of the Northern Irish people on a daily basis and shaped the people's political and communal perspectives.

However, the restoration of the noble elements in Northern Ireland's community is depicted in "Churning Day" through a process of making butter, remembered from the poet's childhood. The "large pottery bombs" used for milk fermentation are metaphorically weighty with the stench of error and evil. Heaney's mother would be the first to start the day churning and turn the "flabby milk" into "golden flakes" of butter. She is thus converting the cheaper substance into a purer and richer one, "yellow curd . . . weighting the churned up white, / heavy and rich . . . like gilded gravel" (DN 11). The yellow substance is stirred into a "sterilized . . . birchwood-bowl" to take its final shape. The resulting slabs of butter make the household walk with "gravid ease". "The word gravid is weighted with significance. It derives from the Latin gravis, meaning heavy, and gravidus, meaning pregnant. A sense of grace pervades the house, conjoined with a sense of gravity, of the heavy weight of the world that submits to human shape only after strenuous labor (Hart, Contrary Progressions 27-28). However, the poem reveals the poet's influencing by the Troubles in Northern Ireland as expressions like "large pottery bombs" and "hot brewery" are chosen to describe a domestic activity (Mukherjee 49). The role of Heaney's mother in this sense corresponds to that of Mother Goddess; both female figures are creative through a harsh process of destruction.

The Irish Mother Goddess appears in "The Tollund Man" under the guise of Nerthus, the fertility goddess in Germanic paganism. The poem is inspired by P. V. Glob's The Bog People which describes the significance of the Iron and Bronze Age mummified remains under Jutland's peat bogs. The human bodies recovered from the peat bogs were sacrifices to Nerthus in wintertime for ensuring the fertility of the crops in the next spring. Heaney, however, links this ritual and the killing in Northern Ireland during the Troubles, drawing an analogy between past and present and fusing mythical accounts with historical events.

The Tollund Man's preserved body was found in 1950 buried in Denmark's peat bog. Its head is displayed at the Silkeborg museum. Wedded to Nerthus, the Tollund Man completely surrenders to a bestial process that converts him into a lasting and sacred emblem of fertility and regeneration:

Naked except for
The cap, noose and girdle,
I will stand a long time.

Bridegroom to the goddess,

She tightened her torc on him

And opened her fen,

Those dark juices working

Him to a saint's kept body,

. . . .

Now his stained face

Reposes at Aarhus. (WO 47)

And "it is precisely this vision of repose amid the telltale signs of violence – the torc, the noose – that so fascinated Heaney" (Tobin 93). The goddesses' torc tightened on the Tollund Man is a sign of their union, the divine and the human. This union, the ancient man believed, generates life from the heart of violence and death. The Jutland cycle of human sacrifices extends to include Northern Ireland during the eruption of the communal violence. The notion of Mother Goddess haunting the place and demanding human sacrifice stands for the role of myth in shaping the people's collective memory, and consequently their destiny.

Heaney decides to visit Aarhus to see the Tollund Man. He drives through the village of Tollund where the sacrificial ritual was performed and feels the "sad freedom" of the Tollund Man when taken to his final destination:

Something of his sad freedom

As he rode the tumbril

Should come to me, driving,

Saying the names

Tollund, Grabaulle, Nebelgard . . . (WO 48)

On these lines Helen Vendler writes that "the 'sad freedom' of the certain knowledge of death – Hamlet's sad freedom in the last act – is bestowed on the young poet (Heaney is still only thirty-three) by the apparent repetitiveness of history. It happened at Tollund, it happened at Grauballe, it is happening in Derry, it will happen elsewhere" (43-44). It is also the sad freedom of giving up the individual will and submitting the self to the working of the Mother Goddess. Nerthus's counterpart in Ireland is also Kathleen Ni Houlihan, the symbol of Irish nationalism, and the Tollund Man's fellow victim is an endless series of Irish martyrs who irrigate a land always thirsty for the blood of its sons.

Heaney presents a more hopeful and harmonious aspect of Northern Ireland in "Sunlight". On this poem, during a reading given in The Blacksmith House at Cambridge, Heaney mentions that "he tried to write from the perspective of a fetus in the womb. The poem is

almost a paean to a maternal, nurturing presence" (Tobin 107). The poem is dedicated to Heaney's aunt Mary Heaney whose presence is preceded by a domestic and charming image of the setting sun, "like a griddle cooling / against the wall / of each long afternoon" (N 8). The cosy atmosphere continues whilst displaying through Mary Heaney's baking process a pivotal and creative spell which is keeping life in County Derry and the entire region. Under Derry's fleeting daylight, Heaney discerns a time of perfect love, peace, and tranquillity:

here is a space
again, the scone rising
to the tick of two clocks.
And here is love
like a tinsmith's scoop
sunk past its gleam
in the meal-bin. (N 9)

Geetanjali Mukherjee writes that "through the undramatic, daily routine of a care-giver, a woman standing 'in a floury apron / by the window', can be provided a 'space again', a place of blissful release from the violence of Ulster" (54). Despite the violence in Northern Ireland during the Troubles, life in the region keeps its other familiar and intimate aspects. They are these simple and domestic activities that provoke mercy, compassion, and consequently justice in the place.

The Northern Irish Troubles are tackled again in "Bog Queen", a poem whose title refers to the first documented human body exhumed from the bog on the Moira Estate to the south of Belfast in the year 1781. The resurrected Bog Queen is worshipped by both Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland, and to her sacrifices are offered from both sides. She becomes a "Braille / for the creeping influences" of "illiterate roots" (N 32). The Protestants consider the Bog Queen as an English sovereign though her crown has fallen apart:

My diadem grew carious,
gemstones dropped
in the peat floe
like the bearings of history. (N 33)

But the Catholic turf cutter believes that the Bog Queen is both the Irish earth goddess and the Catholic girl who was slaughtered for flirting with the enemy soldiers. In ancient times, Gauls cropped the hair of adulterous women. In more recent times, IRA members tarred and

feathered Catholic girls who flirted with British soldiers:
I was barbered
and stripped
by a turfcutter's spade
who veiled me again
and packed coomb softly
between the stone jambs
at my head and my feet. (N 33)

The Bog Queen hence is Ireland itself, complaining from a long bloody history which victimises life in the place. However, the Bog Queen has remained hidden in the bog's multiple layers till her brain became "a jar of spawn / fermenting underground" (N 32). According to Daniel Tobin "what . . . ferments underground, of course, is the archetypal pattern that spawns the atrocities of contemporary Ireland. Her resurrection thus recapitulates the pattern witnessed in 'Requiem for the Croppies': the fertility myth becomes an historical myth in which the seeds of primitive sacrifice give birth to a new incarnation" (126). The poem is about a repeated history of violence and pain in Ireland. The Bog Queen being related to both the Protestants and Catholics indicates the narrow perspective from which these fighting groups view their dilemma and rights to the place. The poem is about the people's inability to read the lessons of history.

The repeated history of violence and victimisation is the topic of "Punishment". Heaney's uncertainty regarding the concept of punishment, whether inflicted on the blameless or the evildoer, is disclosed here. The poem delineates the poet's mental image of an incident which took place during the first century AD, mentioned in Glob's The Bog People. It is about a gaunt young girl from Windeby who was escorted nude, head shaved, blindfolded, and with a noose around her neck to the peaty bog. There she was killed for adultery:

I can feel the tug
of the halter at the nape
of her neck, the wind
on her naked front.
It blows her nipples
to amber beads,
it shakes the frail rigging
of her ribs.
I can see her drowned

body in the bog,
the weighing stone,
the floating rods and boughs. (N 37)

Heaney describes himself in the poem as "the artful voyeur", sinfully glancing through centuries at a process of victimising a young girl for her illicit love affair. He partly blames himself for doing nothing to stop similar brutal behaviour in his community.

'Punishment' killings and maimings have been longstanding practices of the   I.R.A., and Heaney confesses to guilty bystanding in that arena too. During the 1940_s . . . "a favourite I.R.A. punishment of the time for serious dereliction of duty was wounding a man in the leg, or in both legs for more serious cases, with a revolver shot." . . . More recently, Catholic girls in Northern Ireland have been "cauled in tar" for repudiating I.R.A. totems and taboos. (Hart, Contrary Progressions 92)

The Catholics themselves have often been victims of the IRA which immensely contributed to the violence and destruction in Northern Ireland:

My poor scapegoat,
I almost love you
but would have cast, I know,
the stones of silence.
I am the artful voyeur
of your brain's exposed
and darkened combs,
your muscles' webbing
and all your numbered bones:
I who have stood dumb
when your betraying sisters,
cauled in tar,
wept by the railings,
who would connive
in civilized outrage
yet understand the exact
and tribal, intimate revenge. (N 38)

The poem is also directed against Heaney who charges himself of not seriously opposing the atrocious avengement of the IRA towards those who have dropped its moral standards. Heaney, though being against violence, quite understands his tribe's motive for revenge. They are the commandments of the Irish Mother Goddess.

The role of history in the Northern Irish Troubles is the topic of "Ocean's Love to Ireland", a poem about Walter Raleigh's invasion of the Irish land. The theme is tackled through Raleigh's rape of an Irish girl; on a different level he had raped the Irish Mother Goddess, marring her sacredness and dignity. The title of the poem is an imitation of Raleigh's "Ocean's Love to Cynthia", in which Raleigh expresses his respect to Queen Elizabeth I, addressing her as Cynthia, the moon. Heaney's title is ironic because Raleigh had violated the sacredness of the Irish Mother Goddess.

The poem opens with Raleigh backing an Irish girl to a tree and raping her. Heaney describes this incident with an emphasis on Raleigh's – in other words England's – masculine strength and superiority:

Speaking broad Devonshire,
Ralegh has backed the maid to a tree
As Ireland is backed to England
And drives inland
Till all her strands are breathless:
'Sweesir, Swatter! Sweesir, Swatter!'
He is water, he is ocean, lifting
Her farthingale like a scarf of weed lifting
In the front of a wave. (N 46)

The rape of the Irish girl by the English courtier, considered in the context of the poem, shows that Ireland has been aggressively and savagely invaded and annexed to England. The girl is, "in Raleigh's mind, an inferior in class, sex, and – at least in Heaney's version of the incident where the victim is an Irishwoman – race" (Moloney 77). The power of the invader is linked to that of the ocean, and it is set against a scarf of weed which represents the weakness, femininity, and delicacy of the invaded. The wave of water lifting the scarf of weed shows that annexing Ireland to England is destined and inevitable in the light of this imbalance of powers. The sense of fear which characterises Northern Ireland's Protestant and Catholic relations is the result of these events of the past – the English superior power and the Irish desire for revenge.

This is tackled again in "Act of Union", a poem which relates the violence in Ireland to the political unity between Great Britain and Ireland in the year 1801. This historic event is presented through a man and woman coupling together, standing for Britain and Ireland respectively. Britain addresses Ireland in a language which reveals a male's complete possession of his desired female:

Your back is a firm line of eastern coast
And arms and legs are thrown
Beyond your gradual hills. I caress
The heaving province where our past has grown.
I am the tall kingdom over your shoulder
That you would neither cajole nor ignore. (N 49)

The result of this incompatible match is a child whose nature is revealed in the second section of the poem: "The act sprouted an obstinate fifth column / Whose stance is growing unilateral" (N 49). Many interpretations have been given to the meaning of "obstinate fifth column", whose "parasitical / And ignorant little fits" beat in the province (N 50). This child could be either the Protestants or the Catholics, and it could be both; it may also refer to the Troubles or to Northern Ireland (Armengol 15-16). However, the poem ends with a pessimistic note as Britain assures the continuation of Ireland's suffering:

No treaty
I foresee will salve completely your tracked
And stretch marked body, the big pain
That leaves you raw, like opened ground, again. (N 50)

Heaney is choosing the fate of his country by the passive role he attributes to the subjected woman. The sense of despair at the end of the poem exposes the poet's injured spirit, which is like that of the land.

Moving to a more hopeful poem, "The Guttural Muse" focuses on the redemptive quality in Northern Ireland. Heaney remembers standing at the window of a hotel room on one hot summer's midnight. He felt like smelling the heat of the day and breathing the muddied breeze which had passed over a nearby lake. The poet was watching a group of young people leaving the disco:

Late summer, and at midnight
I smelt the heat of the day:

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At my window over the hotel car park

I breathed the muddied night airs off the lake

And watched a young crowd leave the discotheque. (FW 28)

Heaney mentions that the voices of these young people were "thick and comforting / As oily bubbles the feeding tench sent up" (FW 28). On a different level, the link is made between the Irish dialect and the tench that is known for its healing qualities. The Irish dialect serves as a magical spell that is spreading in the place, bringing to the poet soothing feelings of youth and vigour. The guttural sounds produced by the Irish youth indicate the continuity of the Celtic identity in Northern Ireland.

The poem focuses on the image of "a girl in a white dress"; she was one of the young people that had left the disco. She was "courted out among the cars: / As her voice swarmed and puddled into laughs" (FW 28). The girl's voice made Heaney feels "like some old pike all badged with sores / Wanting to swim in touch with soft-mouthed life" (FW 28). Heaney desires "to swim, even if indirectly through the symbol of an injured pike. He wants to swim, he wants to be part of the feminine world, wants even to establish communion with its 'soft-mouthed' source" (Moloney 102). The poet wants to keep in touch with the music of his native dialect which he identifies with the feminine and fertile principle of Ireland, with the purgation provided by water, and with the origins of his identity as an Irish poet.

But the sense of fear and discord that pervade Northern Ireland's community continue running in Heaney's poetry. This is evident in "Keeping Going" through Heaney's mother who warned him not to have contact with "bad boys / In that college that you're bound for" (SL 14). This reflects a divided community where suspicion of the other had become part of the culture of the place. Heaney compares his mother's warning with the witches' second meeting with Macbeth when they gave him a false feeling of security:

That scene, with Macbeth helpless and desperate

In his nightmare – when he meets the hags again

And sees the apparitions in the pot –

I felt at home with that one all right. (SL 14)

 The witches play a vital role in Macbeth's rise to power and his later fall, their predictions motivated his actions in both cases. The witches correspond to the role of the Irish Mother Goddess and the fatal female characters in Norse and Greek mythology. They are also

identified with Heaney's mother who by advising him to suspect others is installing the notions of hatred and destruction in the region.

Heaney tackles the outcome of Northern Ireland's civil war through a depiction of that of the Trojan War in "Mycenae Lookout". This sequence of verse reveals the extent to which the violence in a given place influences its people and poisons their lives, a ferocious existence that compels the living into a sinful life that coheres with its nature. However, the second section of the poem, entitled "Cassandra", links violence to sexuality through the figure of Cassandra. In this poem Heaney is stating that "orgasm and war-lust are one and the same" (Lunday 117). The rape of Cassandra by Ajax and then by Agamemnon reflects the rape of a given land by the invaders throughout human history, and the rape of the Irish land by the British invaders as far as Heaney's poetry is concerned. The poet creates an image of Cassandra which recalls in "Punishment" both the Iron Age Windeby girl and the twentieth century Irish girls whose heads were shaved, tarred, and feathered by the IRA. Cassandra is described by a lustful Watchman as "she went / to the knife / to the killer wife" (SL 38). The Watchman doesn't take Cassandra's side or defend her as she goes to Clytemnestra to be murdered. His account of Cassandra, mirroring both a violent society and Heaney as the "artful voyeur", shows a repeated pattern of victimisation and silent compliance with tribal code of conducts:

No such thing
as innocent
by standing.

Her soiled vest,
her little breasts,
her clipped, devast-

ated, scabbed
punk head,
the char-eyed
famine gawk-
she looked
camp-fucked

and simple. (SL 36)

The harsh imagery reflects the degrading effect of violence on people. However, the poet himself is victimised in these lines by his irreconcilable divided self and contradictory impulses. He is unable to answer his quest of moral justice and social responsibility in a place pervaded by a sense of vengeance.

So "Mycenae Lookout" relates destruction in the place to man's great desire for vengeance. This is approached in the poem through Clytemnestra's killing of Agamemnon in revenge for his sacrifice of their daughter, and through the Greeks avengement of the abduction of Helen (Collins 213). In "The Nights", in the fourth section of the poem, Heaney writes:

When the captains in the horse
felt Helen's hand caress
its wooden boards and belly
they nearly rode each other.
But in the end Troy's mothers
bore their brunt in alley,
bloodied cot and bed. (SL 43)

The destruction and deterioration in a given place is depicted through the rape of Troy's women by the Argive soldiers. This shows that they are the innocents who ultimately pay the price of violence. Again Heaney presents the violation of the sacred in the place through the violation of a female figure which recalls the Mother Goddess of his earlier poetry.

Thus in Heaney's poetry there is always a domineering feminine spirit who is partly responsible for – or the incarnation of – the loss, destruction, and death that characterised the quality of life in Northern Ireland during the Troubles. Yet this feminine spirit, be she the goddess of the land, the Gaelic language muse, a mother, wife, or an aunt, can also cure the old unhealed wounds that are caused by malice and vengeance, and bring life and revival to the place again. Heaney exploits the Mother Earth myth to give meaning and order to the chaos and destructiveness in Northern Ireland, converting them into preliminary stages for a new era of regeneration, peace, hope, and morality. This is a repeated pattern in Heaney's poetry, indicating his belief that the spirit of the place is of a feminine nature and that the potency in Northern Ireland constantly shifts from sterility and waste to fruitfulness.

Abbreviations

In order to simplify references of Heaney's own publications of volumes of verses, quotations of this essay will be referenced parenthetically thus:

DN   Heaney, Seamus. Death of a Naturalist. London: Faber & Faber, 1966.

FW   ---. Field Work. London: Faber & Faber, 1979.

N   ---. North. London: Faber & Faber, 1975.

SL   ---. The Spirit Level. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1996.

WO   ---. Wintering Out. London: Faber &Faber, 1972.

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The Impact of the Interaction between Teacher and Learner on the Motivation and Achievement of the Learners

Rauf Avci

İshik University

ABSTRACT

The target of the article is to discuss the importance of the interaction and the setting up good relationships with the students. The educators have a deep effect on the lives of the students; therefore, the interaction to be established will directly make influence on their motivation. Likewise, the motivation will shape their success graphics and the behaviors. A "good" teacher tries hard to be able to contribute to the academic, intellectual and personal development of his/her student by using his/her personal and occupational efficacy. That is why the role of the teachers is significant for the students.

Keywords: Academic, Effective Teacher, Education, Outcomes, Student Behavior, Teacher–Student Interaction, Teacher–Student Relationship, Quality Teaching

If you don't like something, change it; if you can't change it, change the way you think about it.

Mary Engelbreit

Introduction

The school has to be a place where people learn more things about everyday life and future careers. All people want to learn new things however they are scared of making mistakes during the learning process. At this point, there is a significant role on the shoulders of the teachers throughout the learning process because they are the ones who have to build such a scaffold for the learners. Hence the positive interaction between teacher and student will provide this by making the students feel safe while gaining social and academic skills (Baker et al., 2008; O'Connor, Dearing and Collins, 2011; Silver, Measelle, Armstrong and Essex, 2005). If teachers focus on building such an interaction and students believe that education is useful in their daily lives and forthcoming careers, then they will increase their motivation to learn. For example, if students are continuously engaged in the conversations with their teachers and seek attention and support when required, it is likely that their behavior will change. Students will feel more positive and confident toward classroom learning tasks,

which will be reflected in their academic achievements (Liberante, 2012).

Love is one of the strongest links between teacher and the students as mentioned by a famous saying education without love is not complete because the love itself is also a type of education, therefore; the love by teacher towards the students or vice versa is a key link to inaugurate teaching and learning processes. As retold by Wang and Lin (2014), Anton Semenovich Makarenko (1888~1939) said that to be a teacher, s/he should love each student and respect each student. Teachers are the engineers of the communities so if they love their job and the products, then they can be successful. Within this context, it is somehow a necessity for the teachers to love the students. This means that they have a good interaction with communication, caring, trying to understand the characters and characteristics of the students and sharing their happiness, sorrows and important moments. Thus, while teaching, teachers always should keep in mind that the praises, which addressed to the students, must be coming from the depths of the heart and when teachers have a negative comment on the students, it is highly advised to give the students the feeling that teachers have some other expectations for them unlike what they have committed (Wang and Lin, 2014). Only when students feel that teachers are not foreigners to them, the link between them will be set up and the very first barrier before the education will be removed.

The attitudes of the teachers towards the students will affect the teaching process; the role of teachers in the classroom is very important in this sense. Teachers have to build the teaching methodology, including classroom atmosphere and management by taking the creativity, imagination, motivations, skills, interests and the needs of the students into consideration (Gourneau,1997)

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the modern world of today, there are changes on the traditional views including education. In this sense, it is a necessity to be open to the new methods in education and to have positive teacher behaviors (Guskey, 1988) and to utilize much more human-based, motivating, or teacher-based methodologies to be able to cope with the students' problems (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990).

According to Gardner's motivation theory (1985), the motivation of the students will be provided if they feel that teachers pay attention to them. Such teachers are described as those displaying democratic interaction styles by developing expectations for student behavior in the light of individual diversities and role-model attitudes toward their own professions, and by providing constructive feedback.

The interaction between the student and teacher is of high importance to motivate the students because, as illustrated by McGinnis, A. L. (1985), there is a direct action-reaction relationship. Nugent, T. T. (2009) gives a place to the magnitude and direction of force by McGee in order to reflect this inter-influence; (See Figure 1)
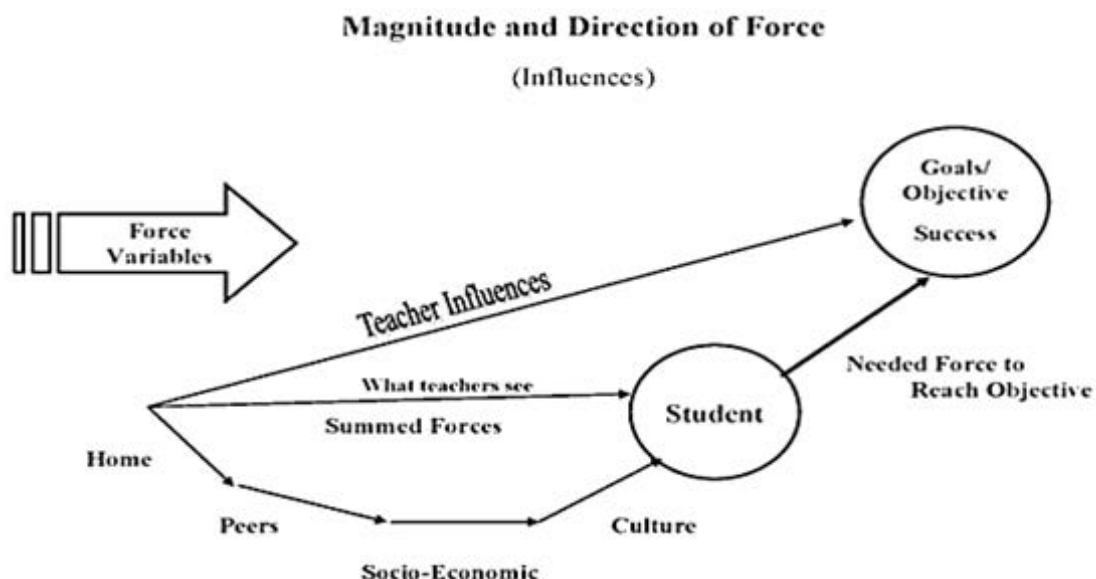
Figure 1 Magnitude and Direction of Force (W. S. McGee, 2009)

The teachers directly play a significant influence on the success and outcome of the teaching process is direct. Teacher ignites the needed force to reach at the objectives that are expected by family, teacher and the society, culture and more. Analyzing from the reverse angle, if students cannot reach at the target, then somehow it means that teachers could not set up the true correlation and a link; in other words, there is a problem regarding teachers' personal or occupational self-efficacy.

In the literature, the teaching has been described as an extremely psychological process by the educators such as Calderhead They have believed that a teacher's ability to sustain creativity environments will motivate the students and will affect personal decisions of the students depending on teachers' personal qualities and self-efficacy and their ability of having personal interactions with their students (Calderhead, 1996).

Teachers' Self-efficacy on Students' Motivation
The motivation requires special care to be shown by the teachers. To do so, they have to allot extra attention and time by setting up an interaction between their students and

themselves (Eschenmann, 1991). Within the same context, Whitaker (2004) stated that self-faith of the teachers in creating relationships with learners is a must to be a successful teacher because he accepts the teacher as the main variables not only in the classroom, but their life spans also because as Boltin and Gorneau (1998) has mentioned that the teachers have the opportunity to leave an indelible impression on their students' lives. The acquisitions that have been gained at schools will affect how they see themselves and the world around them.

In spite of the numerous revolutions in the intellectual and educational areas or the technological developments or educational reforms, nothing can be replaced with the teachers so Whitaker (2004) thinks that the teachers must be idealist people with high expectations for the learners and the very basic step of these expectations is to set up a healthy interaction with the students that will bring the achievement in the further processes.

In the literature, a good number of studies, discussing the impact of the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in students' success and achievements in schools, have been conducted. The influence of the self-efficacy on the students' success can be reflected in different types: the didactic skills of those teachers with higher self-efficacy faiths are more developed; their teaching methodologies will be abundant that will automatically affect the classroom management in a positive way since not only the regular students will be encouraged but also the learners with special care will be given attention as well (Allinder, 1994).

According to McGinnis (1985), "motivators are not born; they are made. There is no such thing as an unmotivated person". On the very contrary, as Steven Reiss said different things and different environments motivate different students in different ways (Briggs, 2013) and only the teachers love their students and only if they have self-efficacy values in their hearts, they will try to seek for alternatives to motivate their students.

Academic Outcomes

The interaction between the students and the teachers are vital to the academic success. According to Stipek (2002), most of the students with low academic success are the same ones whose relationships with their teachers is low as well. Each student wants to be accepted by the society in which s/he takes place. When the integration, link and the interaction between the learner and the teacher is not provided, typically academic success falls behind, too. In his mind, unlike their peers, the students with the positive attitudes towards the academics have much more nurturing relationship with the teacher.

Wang and Lin (2014) has stated that during his/her internship, s/he has witnessed that the students who are appreciated by the English teacher have an interest in the respective lesson as well as getting success. However, the rest of the students have failed to show required interest or achievement. Moving from this situation, s/he has mentioned that educators must love all of the students, not only the specific ones. This will increase not only the attention to the lesson, but also academic success, too.

The act of teaching English is the communication based on the emotions between the learner and the educator. The emotion will bring the harmony and change the mode of the class environment; therefore, not only the way of teaching, but also the actions or attitudes of the teachers plays a crucial role in favor of the students. For example, teachers with smiles, eagerness or inspiration has always affected their students in a positive way. This is somehow a cycle between the teachers and the students, especially for the primary and secondary schools.

In the literature, it has been suggested that it is required to pay attention to the nature and the quality of teacher-learner interaction and the relationship. Consequently, this will bring an enhanced acquisition for both the learner and the educator; the more students learn, the more effective teachers will be.

Even though many studies have been conducted to understand the importance of the teacher-learner relation so far, the interaction is of much more significance especially during the transition years, like from the elementary school to middle or from mid to higher school (Alexander et al., 1997).

Not only the relationships between the learner and the educator, but also students' attitudes and motivation towards learning impacts upon the social and academic outputs. "Motivation may play a key role in the relationship between teacher-student relationships and academic outcomes" (Bandura, 1997).

Student Behavior

Communication is one of the key concepts in terms of interaction. Should the teachers have a good communication with the students (that is, most of the time, ignored), then the learners show more care about the classes; the attitudes towards the teachers become much more positive. On the other side, when the relationship is weak, the student becomes a 'lost cause' both for the teacher and also for the school.

It should be kept in mind that the concepts of the tolerance and the respect will go side-by-side. Whatever invested in the classroom will yield a benefit; good behaviors will turn the students into good people.

AYDAN MEYDAN

The determination of the educator will affect the fate of the students; either it be to reach their goals or fail to do so. While doing this, the teachers will make use of the required technique and the materials that will be supported and enhanced by the enthusiasm, determination, motivation and interaction.

Churchill et al. (2011) have said that the behavior and engagement, however, are directly related, and therefore the challenge for teachers is to engage their students in learning. Similarly, it has been uttered that to be able to turn the learning into an enjoyable experience in a balanced classroom environment, a positive interaction with the students is required in addition to the engagement of the students (Krause, Bochner & Duchesne, 2006). It has been reported that if the learners are educated in a friendly atmosphere, then it is much more possible that they are motivated and feel optimistic about the schoolwork and also are eager to work cooperatively in teams (UNESCO, 2004) because the classroom will be a "good place for the students to be, then they will want to be there, and will generally be both on task and well behaved" (Churchill et al., 2011).

The attitudes of the teachers as well as the methodology will inspire the students. Rather than monotonousness, students will always find something new and wait for something new so the classes will not be a tedious place and the teacher will always be popular in the eyes of the students. This will directly affect the interaction and the success. Aydan Meydan is a good example in this sense. She has been chosen as the most inspiring teacher and has been given Google Science Fair 2015 - Inspiring Educator Award (Sarajevotimes, 2015) (Aydan Meydan from Bosna Sema School won the "Inspiring Educator Award"!, Retrieved from http://www.sarajevotimes.com/aydan-meydan-from-bosna-sema-school-won-the-inspiring-educator-award/ on 13.01.2016)

"I WANT TO BE A TEACHER"

Teachers have a notable impression on the lives of the students. Edward & Richard (2008) have illustrated this idea in a very strange way, by posing a question to the teachers. They challenge the teachers by the words "Take a moment to think about the person or persons you would like to emulate as a teacher. Perhaps a particular teacher left a significant impression(s) on you. Describe your best teacher with regard to each of these attributes" From this point of view, a question will be aroused in the minds: Whos is a good teacher or What is considered to be a good teacher? To be able to find a proper answer for this question, it is more true to move from the opposite way. As suggested by many researchers,

the success of the teachers is based on their relations and the interaction with the students through a suitable communication that will increase the motivation of the students. "Motivation may play a key role in the relationship between teacher-student relationships and academic outcomes" (Bandura, 1997).

In a communicative classroom, students will not be worried about expressing what they feel and they will always find themselves in a safe and democratic environment. Only those teachers supporting their learners will be able put their signatures under the social and academic successes of the students (Baker et al., 2008).

Teachers play a crucial role in the trajectory of learners throughout the formal academic experience (Baker, Grant, & Morlock, 2008), but teaching is not a phenomenon to be limited to the school environment or something that will be adjourned at the end of the day or the year (Edward & Richard, 2008). The correlation between student and teacher will affect the rest of the lives of the students as said before. Researches that have investigated teacher-student relationships for older students have shown that "positive teacher-student relationships are associated with positive academic and social outcomes for high school students" (Alexander, Entwisle,&Horset,1997).

Discussion and Conclusion

There are a lot of factors influencing the success during teaching and learning. One of those factors is inevitably positive teacher-learner interaction. This interaction has direct intangible and immeasurable effects on the academic achievement and the target behavior.

When the students are supported with the motivation -that will come through the interaction- in addition to the enhanced techniques and materials, they will be much more active and independent participants in their own learning. That is why, English classes should be an open adventure for students in which they can find various options and open their horizons.

A good communication that will result in a successful interaction or vice versa is an indispensable element of the education. The rules are the inevitably necessary parts of the systems, but Doghonadze challenges this by saying that "in my opinion, if there is good communication with the teacher and the student, there won`t be a need to put a list of the regulations or discipline rules to punish them. [Furthermore] teacher is going to enjoy teaching in the class as well as student" (Natela,p.96).

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Making Request Strategies by Kurdish migrants, None Native Speakers and British Native Speakers

Sangar S. Hamad

Bahcesehir University

ABSTRACT

The present study investigates the difference and similarities of giving request strategy by British native speakers and Kurdish immigrants in the UK. For this purpose, the data was collected using a discourse completion test (DCT). Accordingly, 16 participants were involved in this research studying at the Staffordshire University in Stoke-on-Trend city in the UK. They were asked to respond to the questions to three different situations in which they carried out the speech act of request. The data was analyzed by focusing on both indirect and direct level of requesting strategies according to the analytical framework of Blum-Kulka, et al (1989).

Analysis of the data showed that the participants perform similar and few different request strategies according to the social factors (social distance, social power) which are very influential in the choice of polite request strategies by none native speakers. The results revealed that, when requests are addressed to people in lower positions, Kurdish interlocutors tend to use more indirect request strategies in performing their requests. The findings have also shown that Kurdish subjects prefer to use conventionally indirect strategies in addressing their friends. Furthermore, when the listener is in a higher position, none native speakers use more indirect strategies to show their respect and deference. The responses of this study have shown that Kurdish immigrants who are educated in an English cultural environment are influenced by English linguistic and cultural environment; thus, it is suggested that pedagogical implication to study pragmatics in EFL setting to provide more native like learning sociolinguistic competence in target language.

Keywords: directness, politeness, request strategies, ranking of imposition, social distance, social power

1- Introduction

Knowing how to use the language in a host country is more challenging than learning instructional knowledge and vocabularies and their meaning; it involves hidden messages and performing actions. In this respect, via requesting, activities can be done by crossing

messages between the interlocutors (Grunberg 2011). The strategies which are adopted in requesting are apparently vary among cultures and languages around of the world.

The present study sheds light on the similarities and differences between the Kurds who are the immigrants living in UK and the British native speakers in adopting request strategies, it also finds out whether the social power and social distance affect these cultures choice of request strategies while addressing the request to lower, equal and higher states positions, therefore a comparison study has been studied between these two different groups.

Previous research studies have been conducted about the realization of the request strategies in various cross cultural studies; to date, however, not enough study about comparison between Kurdish and British cultures might have been analyzed while estimating 50,000 Kurds living in major cities in UK; London, Birmingham, New Castel, Liverpool and Manchester city, to communicate effectively in the host country they need to understand the culture, context and politeness strategies which is one of the reasons for conducting this study.

The findings are critically discussed according to the three categories of this study in terms of directness and indirectness strategies and social power and social distance by gaining information about participant's pragmatic abilities and none native speaker's adaptation in a different cultural environment.

2- Literature Review

A number of studies on speech acts have been established empirically (Coehn and Olsthain 1981; Kasper 1981; House 1982: Wolfson 1981; Blum-Kulka 1982; Thomas 1983) that second language speakers might fail to communicate effectively due to their pragmatic failures even though they have an excellent grammatical and lexical knowledge of the target language. The theory of speech act was popularized by Austin in (1962), who proposed actions that can be done through the production of certain utterances. Barron (2003), theoretical work on requests has shown, on the one hand, the complexity of the relationship between form, meaning, and pragmatic preconditions in realizing this act (Gordon & lakeoff, 1975; Searl, 1979), on the other hand, the high social status involved for both the speaker and the receiver in the choice of the specific way in which the request is made. Requests are pre-event acts; they express the speaker's expectation toward some prospective action, verbal or nonverbal, on the part of the hearer. Thus, as shown by Brown and Levinson (1978),

requests by definition are "face threatening." By making a request the speaker imagines on the receiver's claim for freedom of action and freedom from imposition.

Request as a sensitive speech act has been the subject of extensive research in cross-cultures: further, request realization and strategies have been questioned by many researchers, the terms of the frequency use of directness and indirectness in different cultures. Turner (1996) describes request as a positive politeness strategy, since by issuing the request, the speaker considers the listener as a reliable person.

Previous studies on requesting strategies by British English native speakers and German, Danish learners of English have been compared by House and Kasper (1981) in their study, they noted that the strategy which has become the red tape and more preferred by British native speakers is the "Query Preparatory" when making a request; for example, Could you give me that book?.

Furthermore, the British native speakers use the interrogative style as a method to mitigate them the request and in formulating them the request, the British native speakers tend to use certain linguistic expressions to downgrade the request force, such as politeness marker "please ". Some linguists relate to the overuse of politeness marker by the British native speakers to its dual function, as a hidden force point and as a clear mitigation of the imposition.

Moreover, a cross-culture comparison was undertaken by Fukushima (1996) between 16 native British and15 Japanese subjects. The participants of both cultures were almost at the same age and level of education. In the study two distinct request strategies negotiated; with high and low request imposition. The Japanese and the British informants appeared to be similarly affected by the social power and social distance between the interlocutors. Naturally, Fukushima noticed some differences because there are disagreements in sentence structure and vocabulary in both languages. Beside this, he confirmed that the most frequent strategy employed by Japanese people is more straightforward or direct but the British subjects preferred more indirect forms and modified their request either externally or internally.

El-Shazly (1993) investigated the similarities and differences in requesting strategies between Arabic, the Egyptian learners of English and American native speakers. Although the results of the study demonstrated that there are some similarities between the Americans and Egyptians, particularly in their use of modified requests, at the same time, she assumes that Egyptians have a high level of inclination to indirect requesting such as ' Suggestory formula' and 'Query Preparatory'. Additionally, it is noteworthy that in one request utterance,

Egyptians tend to utilize several downgrades. The most significant feature of requesting by Egyptians that El-Shazly (1993) identified was the use of some specific religious expressions as a symbol of the downgrade. The use of religious expressions by Arab people could have another aim, like giving no options to the listener and putting him in an embarrassing situation, and if he refuses the request later on he will feel guilty.

Suh (1999) studied the request strategies of Korean English learners and British native speakers of English. She compared the strategies used by both Korean and English speakers. Furthermore, 12 dissimilar situations were used in Suh's study based on the social power and social distance between the interlocutors. The results of the study showed that Korean speakers of English tend to use more direct strategies while English people are more likely to modify them the request and mostly they use conventionally indirect strategies such as Query Preparatory like, 'Can you?'. Additionally, no significant differences were noticed while requesting from a lower- or a higher-status person.(Rui Zhang, Shin and Kyu, 2007).

Al-Umar (2000) conducted a study to investigate the request strategies between 20 Arab learners of English including five Bahrain, five Saudi, five Egyptians and five Sudanese to represent Arab cultures with 20 British native speakers. Al-Umar used Discourse-Completion-test (DCT), to administer the 40 Arab subjects. He found that social power and distance have significant impact on Arab subjects when requesting. Hence, a negative correlation between them has been noticed that the level of directness in requesting with social power and social distance. This indicates that in Arab cultures direct levels of interaction might be more desirable which has made their request seem less polite. However, both Arabs and British cultures share similar request strategies which represent the universality of speech act realization.

A request strategy is defined as 'the obligatory choice of the level of directness by which the request is realized. Directness is defined as the degree to which the speaker's illocutionary intent is apparent from the locution (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989: 278). There are nine strategy types of requests, as in the following:

1. **Mood derivable** (e.g. Go out); --- direct strategy
2. **Performatives** (e.g. I am asking you to clean up the mess); --- direct strategy
3. **Hedged performatives** (e.g. I would like to ask you to give your presentation a week earlier than scheduled); --- direct strategy
4. **Obligation statements** (e.g. you'll have to move that car); --- direct strategy
5. **Want statements** (e.g. I really wish you'd stop bothering me); --- direct strategy
6. **Suggestory formulae** (e.g. How about cleaning up?) ------ Conventionally indirect strategy

7. **Query preparatory** (e.g. could you clean up the kitchen, please?); --- conventionally indirect strategy

8. **Strong hints** (e.g. you have left the kitchen in a right mess); -- non-conventionally indirect strategies

9. **Mild hints** (e.g. I am a teacher) (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989: 18) -- non-conventionally indirect strategies.

In this present study, only six types of strategies of requests (Mood derivable, Performatives, Hedged performatives, Query preparatory, Suggestory Formula and Mild hints) have been conducted which distributed to three categories (lower to high, equal to equal and lower to high positions) by three sample situations.

3- Methodology

3-1 Participants and Setting

To collect the data of this study, the researcher contacted with his 3 family members who have been living in UK since 2005 and the 8 Kurdish subjects and 8 native speakers to participate in this study after their consent, the researcher introduced himself and explained about the study through skype and how to answer the questions in the three situations in the survey questionnaire (see appendix 1). All the participants were undergraduate students at the Staffordshire University in Stoke-on-Trend city. Their ages were between 21 and 24 years old.

3-2 Research Questions:

In this study a compared question has been addressed in order to learn about the similarities and differences of request strategies between Kurdish immigrants who have been living in UK for some years and British native speakers.

"Is there a comparison of request strategies between Kurdish migrants and English native speakers?"

3-3 Materials and procedure

A modified version of the DCT was used to collect the data of this study which was taken from Al Umar (2004) (see appendix 1). Blum-Kulka in (1982) designed the DCT (Reiter 2000). It is a kind of questionnaire in which a number of situations have been described that facilitates the reactions of the participants to be as natural as possible. In this study, the DCT focuses on the speech act of requests. The questionnaire used in this study involves three written situations according to three different categories (high to low, equal to equal and low

to high positions), based on social power and social distance. The reason behind adopting this tool is that Kurdish immigrants could possibly face these situations of their daily life while living in a host country as it is also compatible to the British culture. This study focuses on analyzing the answers of the Kurdish participants to the three categories in three situations and then comparing these answers to the responses provided by British native speakers.

3-4 Data Collection

The DCT was used to collect data in order to ensure cross-cultural comparability, the instrument used was DCT originally developed for comparing the speech act realization patterns of native speakers and EFL/ESL learners (Blum-Kulka, 1982), and the questionnaire was administered to 8 Kurdish participants living in UK for more than seven years and 8 native speakers and all of the participants studying at Staffordshire University in Stoke-on-Trend city.

3-5 Data Analysis

To analyze the findings and reveal the similarities and differences between the British and Kurdish culture regarding the use of request strategies, the percentages of responses to each of the three situations were extracted from the answers of the Kurdish participants and the British when compared with the responses to the same situations.

Strategy	Category one (Situation one) by Kurdish subjects		Category one (Situation one) by British subjects	
	Number	%	Number	%
1. Mood Derivable	0	0	0	0
2. Performatives	0	0	0	0
3. Hedged Performatives	1	12.5	1	12.5
4. Query predatory	4	50	5	62.5
5. Suggestory Formula	0	0	0	0
6. Mid Hints	0	0	0	0

Table one: The use of the request strategies by both British and Kurdish participants in responding category one, situation one.

Table one: Shows that when requesting someone from a lower position, British and Kurdish participants are almost the same when requesting the waiter, Kurdish participants 12.5 % addressed the waiter indirectly and utilized the 'Query preparatory' strategy. In addition to

that, the results of the British participants showed 62.5%, in difference Kurdish subjects showed 50% less than the British speakers (see appendix 2).

Strategy	Category two (Situation two) by Kurdish subjects		Category two (Situation two) by British subjects	
	Number	%	Number	%
1. Mood Derivable	0	0	1	12.5
2. Performatives	0	0	0	0
3. Hedged Performatives	0	0	2	25
4. Query predatory	4	50	2	25
5. Suggestory Formula	1	12.5	2	25
6. Mid Hints	0	0	0	0

Table two: The use of the request strategies by both British and Kurdish participants in responding category two, situation two.

Table 2: In the second category, it is clear that in requesting among equal status, the use of "Mood Derivable and Performatives "which are direct strategies have been completely avoided by the Kurdish subjects, but "Mood Derrivable" was used by only one British speaker 12.5%. Furthermore, the most frequently used strategy by the Kurdish sample 50%, is the "Query preparatory" which is more than British subjects,25%, Thus, 'Query Preparatory' considered as the most frequently used strategy by both groups in category two. On the other hand, 'Mild Hints' was avoided completely by both groups (see appendix 3).

Strategy	Category three (Situation three) by Kurdish subjects		Category three (Situation three) by British subjects	
	Number	%	Number	%
1. Mood Derivable	0	0	0	0
2. Performatives	0	0	0	0
3. Hedged Performatives	2	25	1	12.5
4. Query predatory	5	62.5	2	25
5. Suggestory Formula	3	37.5	5	62.5
6. Mid Hints	0	0	0	0

Table three: The user of the request strategies by British and Kurdish Participants in responding category three, situation three.

Tables 3: Shows the similarities between the Kurdish and the British subjects while making the request to their superiors (lower to high position). Both groups largely utilized the same strategies and preferred more indirect strategies such as 'Query Preparatory' which were used more by Kurdish participants. Additionally, it is also found that in the British subjects used "Suggestory Formula' is the most frequently used strategy than other strategies in category three.

In light of these the similarities, the British and the Kurdish subjects completely avoided using the most direct strategies such as "Mood Derivable, and Performatives". Interestingly, in making requesting from their superiors, Kurdish speakers were more indirect than native speakers while they have used more Query Preparatory' by 62.5% . It shows that Kurdish subjects are adapted instructionally, socially and formally in a host country's cultural environment and interacted with English culture and learnt pragmatic information (see appendix 4).

4- Discussion

This study has investigated the similarities and differences between Kurdish and British cultural linguistics in using request strategies while asking for something from a listener to address the directness and indirectness level which each culture prefers to apply. Moreover, by providing the three categories (high, equal and low status) in three situations, the Kurdish participants were asked to show how their choice of request strategies could be affected by the social power and social distance between the listener and the speaker. The results indicate that Kurdish and British cultures share almost the same levels of indirectness and their choices of request strategies as they are used to living in a host country by effectively communicate and developed their interculturism while there is only one participant asking the waiter 'Hey' as a direct strategy to bring the bill. Therefore, both cultures shared very identical indirect strategies such as 'Query Preparatory'; I would like to, Could you, May I …? Would you mind…?

The main reason of using indirect strategies in addressing the waiter, although he/she is at a lower position, the Kurdish subjects used a high level of frequency such as 'Query Preparatory', because if the requester used direct strategies and appeared threatening people, the society might consider them as impolite or rude stated by Goffman (1967). It shows the sensitiveness of Kurdish culture when communicating with even lower status people.

To avoid face threatening, in addressing requests to the equals, both cultures are mostly modified the requests.

In this respect some Kurdish participants downgraded and mitigated the request force by using Excuse me and Please. Additionally, the Kurdish subjects in the situation two often give reasons for requesting: for example: "I fell asleep", or I was sick" these can be considered as a hidden strategy to persuade the listener, as Reiter (2000) indicates that giving a reason can be considered as a co-operator strategy that makes the addressee more likely to give help.

Addressing requests to a higher position, there is a high level of frequency in adopting indirect strategies in the third category (high to low statue) in situation three. The results show that the choice of request strategies in both cultures could be affected by the social power and social distance between the interlocutors, and make them more indirect than the first and second categories. In category three, situation three, both cultures carefully selected strategies to be perceived as more polite. Furthermore, the Kurdish subjects often made their requests tactful by using titles such as Sir and Dr.' and downgrading "if is this possible' to inform the listener that the requestor respects them and also to convince the addressee to agree to the request.

5- Conclusion

The findings of this research show cultural strategies when making requests by both Kurdish and British speakers to some extent how much they care about social power and social distance among interlocutors and both cultures seem to use a high level of indirectness in requesting things from the listeners. Some obtained results indicate that Kurdish speakers used direct strategies in category two (equal to equal), opposite to the British participants who avoid using 'Hints' but in a wider interethnic communication effectiveness generally, there are more similarities than differences between Kurdish and British culture. Both cultures are mostly modified their requests by giving reasons and elaborate while addressing the request to equals and those of higher status. Finally, the results of this study cannot be generalized to all Kurdish ESL learners but rather research should be taken as essential indicators of the behaviors of Kurdish migrants when giving requests. Therefore, this study proposes some useful pedagogical implication to implement of studying pragmatics in EFL classroom since EFL learners do not have the same opportunities as ESL learners who are living in English countries to interact with native speakers will not be easy for them to employ polite and indirect request strategies without cultural and pragmalinguistics instruction while pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction (Crystal, 1985, p.240).

Acknowledgement

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Appendix (1)

Cross-Cultural Communication Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

I am an MA student in English Language Teaching (ELT) program at Bahcesehir University in Turkey. Currently, I have been conducting research project on interethnic communication. Therefore, this questionnaire will serve for that purpose. Please response to the following questions honestly. Your effort is greatly appreciated. There are no known risks or hazards-involved in participating.

Sangar Hamad J

Participant's signature: _____

Participant's Name (Optional)_____

Age:…………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………

Directions: Please read the following situations then by providing them the complete request which you find to be the appropriate strategies for each of the situations. The there is no right or wrong answer. So, please, do not spend a lot of time thinking of how to respond, be honest and natural as much as possible.

1- You have a nice meal in public restaurant, and now it is time to ask the waiter to prepare your bill. What would you say? (high to lower status)

2- You missed an important lecture yesterday, and you want to borrow your friend's notebook for a day so as to copy what you have missed. What would you say? (equal to equal status)

3- You want to ask the director of your graduate program to write you a recommendation letter. What would you say? (lower to high status).

_____
_____

Thank you

Appendix (2)

Situation one (request from high to low status by Kurdish, Non-native speakers)

1. Can you bring me the bill please?
2. May I please have the bill, I 'm ready to pay?
3. I am ready to have my bill now, thank you.
4. Hey waiter, I want my bill now. Thank you
5. I wish to leave, May I please have the bill. Thank You
6. Excuse me please waiter, can you please get me the bill for the meal? Thank You.
7. Bill please waiter. Thank you.
8. Would you able to bring the price of food, please.

Situation one (request from high to low status by native speakers0

1. Hi, please could we get the bill? Thanks
2. Could you bring me the bill, please?
3. Excuse me, is my bill ready?
4. Can you bring me the bill?
5. Can you get me the bill, please?
6. I would like to ask you to bring the bill.
7. Can I have the bill, please?
8. May I have the bill?

……………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix (3)

Situation two (request from equal to equal status by Kurdish, Non-native speakers)

1. Can I please borrow your lecture notes for yesterday lecture?
2. Can I borrow your notes from yesterday, I fell asleep and forgot to put the alarm on and missed the lecture.
3. Can you please lend me your notebook, so that can I get your notes?, yesterday I was sick and I couldn't come to class.
4. I hope you don't mind if I borrow your notes from yesterday, I need to see what you have made notes of.
5. Please may I borrow your notes from yesterday? I will give them back to you as soon as I have finished. If you cannot then I understand.
6. Excuse me, can I please borrow your notebook so I can get some ideas what I have missed and to get back on track
7. I didn't come to lecture yesterday, so can I please borrow your notebook so I know what I have missed
8. Excuse me; may I borrow your notes from yesterday please?

Situation two (request from equal to equal status by native speakers)

1.   You there! Can I borrow your notebook? I've left mine somewhere.

2.   Hi mate, is it Ok if I borrow your notes?

3.   Would you mind if I take your notebook for yesterday's lecture?

4.   May I borrow your notebook to copy from it? I was absent yesterday.

5.   Because I missed yesterday's lecture, is it ok if you lend me your notebook only for a day?

6.   I missed yesterday's lecture and if it is ok, I would like to borrow your note book, if you don't mind, of course?.

7.   I would like to take your note book to copy yesterday's lecture, is it possible?

8.   Would you do me a favor? I really in need of your note book to get some ideas from yesterday's lecture.

………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix (4)

Situation three (request from lower to high status by Kurdish, Non-native speakers)

1.   Dr…. I was hoping you could write me a recommendation letter for a job interview please? I hope you don't mind, it's just that they have requested one from me and I think you're the only lecturer that knows me well and how determined I am with my degree and education.

2.   I would like you to write me a recommendation letter, if that is possible.

3.   Sir, I know you're busy with lecturing, but I was hoping if you could write me a recommendation letter, I have spoken to you on a few occasions, I was hoping you would do the letter for me please?

4.   Dear Director, I am in need of a recommendation letter for a position I am applying for. It would be of a great assistance if you could complete this for me.

5.   Can you please write me a recommendation letter, because I have always worked extra hard and giving everything I do 100%, so therefore please take this into consideration.

6.   Dear Director, I need of a recommendation letter from you. It would be really helpful if you could do this. Thank you

7.   Can you please write me a recommendation letter? I have worked extremely hard, because if you look at my grades and you can see my improvements throughout the year.

8.   Hi, sir, would you write me a recommendation letter for my graduated?

Situation three (request from lower to high status by native speakers)

1.   (Title), would it be possible for you to please write me a recommendation letter for my application? I'm sorry to ask but would really appreciate your time. Thank you very much

2.   Dear my professor, would you please write me a letter of recommendation?

3.   Sir, is it possible to write me a recommendation letter?

4.   Excuse me, sir; I would like to have your recommendation letter, please?

5.   Is it possible to write me a recommendation letter, sir?

6.   I really wish you to write me a recommendation letter?

7.   Hi, Sir, I was asking if you could write me a recommendation letter. It will help me a lot.

8.   Would you mind professor to me a recommendation letter? I need it.

Sorani Kurdish Kurdi sorani

Fatima Jalal Taher
Sulaimani University

ABSTRACT

This paper attempts to illustrate a cross linguistic study of Kurdish and identifying Kurdish in different ways such as: Null- subjective pattern, Case- system , Head -final, Head- Initial an and Agreement in Kurdish. It will clarify all cross linguistic features of Kurdish . In addition to some extraordinary properties of Kurdish syntax as the existence of Izafa in Kurdish. It will highlight some other phenomenon in Kurdish such as Subordination and Valency.

An Introduction to Sorani Kurdish

Kurdish is an Indo- Iranian language which belongs to Indo-European language family, Sorani is a dialect of central group of Kurdish, it is spoken in Kurdistan of Iraq and Kurdistan of Iran.

Word order and Null-subject

Word order in Kurdish is SOV where the verb is transitive but the order is SV where the verb is intransitive. The subject of the sentence is optional because Kurdish is a null-subject (pro-drop) language, it is illustrated in the following example;

(1) a. **(Min)** sew-ek-im xward

    I apple-INDEF-ISG eat.PAST

    'I ate an apple.'

  b. **(Min)** hat.im

    I come -PAST.1SG

    ' I came.'

Head-final and Head- marking

Sorani Kurdish is a head-final language; the heads normally follow their complements as shown in example (2). It is a head -marking language as the head is marked as in example (3).

(2) Sara xanu-aka-y kri

    Sara house-DEF- 3SG buy.PAST

    'Sara bought the house.'

  (3) xanu-aka-y Sara

    house-DEF-3SG Sara

    'Sara's house'

Case system in Sorani Kurdish

In Sorani Kurdish S,A,O are marked the same, as shown in example (4) so there is not a
 clear evidence for availability of case in Sorani. However, Haig (2004: 14) argues that Kurdish
is a language with **tense-sensitive alignment:** It illustrates Nominative/
accusative pattern in present tenses, while the alignment of transitive clauses in the past tense
deviate from that of the present tenses.

(4)

a. Ema roshtin .	b. Ema haz-man lawa.	c. Emayan dawat krd.
we leave.PAST-3PL	we like.PRES-PL to her	we-3PL invite.PAST
We(S) left.	We (A) like her/him	They invited us(O).

Agreement

- Subject verb agreement: The subject and verb agreement are overtly marked in person and
 number in present tense.

(5) a. Ema nan a-xo-in

    we bread PROG-eat-1PL

    'We are eating'

-Subject Object agreement: The subject and verb agreement overtly marked in person and number in past tense.

(5) b. Ema nan-man xward

    we bread-1PL eat.PAST

    'We ate bread'

-Null subject agreement: The subject is optional as Kurdish is a pro-drop language but the agreement is obligatory.

(5) c. Nan-man xward

    bread-1PL eat.PAST   'We ate bread'

Kurdish finite clause and clausal negation

Kurdish has finite clause but it does not have non-finite ones because it does not have bare form in clauses, it is always inflected. Clauses are negated with ne as shown in example (6.b).

(6) a. Min a-m-awe b-ro-m   b. Min wist-im ne-ch-m

    I Asp-1SG-want Asp.go-1SG   I want-1SG NEG-go-1SG

    'I want to go.'   'I did not want to go.'

Subordination

Sorani Kurdish has subordinate clauses, the complementizer (ka) connects two finite clauses,

in sentences where the verb is intransitive, the constituent order of the root clause and subordinate clause are similar as (shown in 7.a). But, the order is not similar where the
 sentence has transitive verb (shown in 7.b).

(7) a.   Hawre-ka-m wty [ka Sara a-xawet]

      S.   V.   S.   V.

     friend-INDEF-1SG said [COMP. Sara Asp-sleep.PRES]

    'My friend said that Sara is sleeping'

  b.   Sara wt-y [ka aw- kteb-ek -y -kri]   ' Sara said [that she bought a book]'

     Sara - say.PAST-3SG[COMP.s/he book-INDEF-3SG-buy.PAST

    S. V.   S.   O.   V.

Nominalised embedding:

- Kurdish has nominalised embedding as illustrates in (7c), the embedded clause precedes the verb.

 (7c) (altun winkrdn-aka-y Sara), min-y hapasan

    (gold lose-DEF-IZAFA Sara), I-3SG shock.PAST

    (Sara's losing her piece of gold) shocked me.

Constituent structure test
Cleft test :

(8) a. awa aw [kteb-a bu] ka Sara kri ba yakam ma3ash-y.

    DEM it [book-DEM AUX] COMP. Sara buy.PAST with first wages-3SG.

    It was [that book]NP that Sara bought with her first wages.

Valency

Sorani Kurdish has passive construction as in (9b) and causative construction as in (9c).

(9) a. Sara darga-ka-y daxst.   b. Dargaka kray-awa.

      Sara door-DEF-1SG close.PAST   door-DEF open-AUX

      Sara opened the door.   The door is opened.

(9c) kteb-aka-m pexwend-awa.

    book-DEF. 1SG read-AUX

    I made him read the book.

WH- Questions

- Kurdish has both Wh-fronting (10a) and Wh-in-situ (10b) because Wh- movement is optional.

 (10) a. Ke-t bin-i?

     who 2SG see-1SG

     who did you see?

(10) b. Sara 200 wena-y [mawda-y kam shaxa-y] grt ba kamera tazaka-y?

   Sara 200 picture [range-IZAFA which mountain-1SG] take.PAST with camera new-1

   Sara took 200 pictures of [which mountain range] with her new camera?

Relative clause: In Kurdish, relative clauses are preceding the verb as in (11) three different kind of relative clauses are shown in Kurdish.

(11) a. Jin-aka birnj-y lena

     woman-DEF. rice-3SG cook.PAST

     'the woman cooked the rice.'

  b. Aw jin-ay ka birnj-i lena

      DEM woman-DEF. food-3SG cook.PAST

    'the woman who cooked the rice'

  c. Aw birinja-i ka jin-aka le-y-na

     DEM rice - 3SG COMP woman-DEF-co-IZAFA-ok

A distinctive feature of Kurdish

A single feature of Sorani Kurdish is the presence of clitic pronouns used to cross reference arguments. According to Haig (2004: 14),' these clitics play a pivotal role as overt exponents of core arguments in the syntax'.

what is basic sentence structure in Kurdish , one of the sections will be a comparison of both Kurdish and English...

Conclusion

In conclusion, the research attempted to cover Kurdish cross linguistic properties and their related features. It involves a literature review and intuitive data which is checked by other native speakers. It has also benefited from some Romance languages as they share similar features with Kurdish and they are well studied. The sections of this paper consist of different features with examples which summarises the introduction and the background of the topic which are separately different issues namely syntactic and cross linguistic features but they are combined in this research and called A cross linguistic study of Sorani Kurdish.

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Sorani Kurdish or (CK) central Kurdish: it is spoken in some cities of Kurdistan of Iraq and Kurdistan of Iran.

A Structural Account of English Tenseless Clausal Constructions

Dr. Himdad Abdul-Qahhar Muhammad

Salahadin University-Erbil

College of Basic Education

Salih Ibrahim Ahmed

University of Raparin

Faculty of Education

ABSTRACT

This paper is an attempt to present a new classification for clausal constructions in English language, namely tenseless constructions. Moreover, it provides a structural account for this issue. It groups infinitive clauses, participle clauses, verbless clauses, and subjunctive that-clauses under the term 'tenseless' due to the absence of tense indicator in their structures. On this basis, the dichotomy of finite vs. non-finite is an imperfect classification as it excludes verbless and subjunctive that-clauses. Thus, the dichotomy of tensed vs. tenseless clauses is a better alternative since tenselessness is the feature which is common among all other clausal constructions other than tensed clauses. The focus of the paper is on the tenseless clausal constructions, and it consists of four sections: infinitive clauses, participle clauses, verbless clauses, and subjunctive that-clauses. The paper ends with the conclusions achieved throughout the study. One of the conclusions is that tenseless clauses are subordinate, and their structure is usually determined by the main-clause verb.

Keywords: finite clauses , tenseless constructions , that-clauses

1. Infinitive Clauses

Infinitive clauses are said to be a common type of tenseless clausal constructions. It is so called because the clause is introduced by an infinitive, with or without 'to', and the clause totally depends on the type of the infinitive. Hence, infinitive clauses fall into two subtypes: to-infinitive clauses and bare infinitive clauses (namely infinitive clauses without 'to'). Of the two subtypes, the to-infinitive clause attracts greater attention as it has many more

occurrences and uses than the bare infinitive clause.

The to-infinitive clause may occur with or without subject, and it can be classified with respect to time. Of this, Declerk (2006: 17) mentions present infinitive (to do) and perfect infinitive (to have done). The former expresses simultaneity to the time of the action while the latter expresses anteriority.

(1) John seems to be happy.

(2) John seems to have been happy.

With respect to (1), the to-infinitive clause tells us that John's happiness simultaneously coincides with his presence in the contextual time of the main clause. In (2), his happiness has happened before the given situation.

One of the related issues to to-infinitive clauses is control. In talking about control the focus is on the to-infinitive clause without subject because, when the subject is present in the to-infinitive clause, there is nothing to be controlled by the controller in the main clause. Cook and Newson (2007: 87) claim that a semantic-syntactic subject is implied while this implied subject is absent phonologically since it is not pronounced. This phonologically empty subject is known as PRO. In the example below, the controller of the empty pronoun PRO is 'she'.

(3) She attempted PRO to start the car.

According to Crystal (2003: 107), there is a relationship between PRO and the NP to which PRO refers, this relationship is called reference. Cook and Newson (2007: 89) argue that the reference of PRO is determined by the verb in the main clause. Thus, verbs like 'ask' and 'persuade' are known as object control verbs because their object is the controller. Conversely, verbs like 'promise' and 'pledge' are subject control verbs since their subject is the controller. It follows that sentence (4) involves object control while (5) involves subject control. From this perspective, subject control and object control are regarded as two types of control on the condition that there is an antecedent (i.e. a controller) in the main clause. Briefly speaking, control is the reference, PRO is controlled by either the subject or the object, which are called controllers and they occur in the main clause.

(4) I asked him$_i$ PRO$_i$ to root out corruption in the company.

(5) I$_i$ promised him PRO$_i$ to root out corruption in the company.

Another phenomenon which is closely related to to-infinitive clauses is raising. Like control, raising occurs when verbs such as seem and appear occur in the complex sentence. These verbs, as mentioned in Trask (1993: 228), are called raising verbs. The presence of these verbs leads to raising from the to-infinitive clause to the main clause. Thus, raising can be defined as the movement of the subject from the to-infinitive clause to the main clause under the conditions of having certain verbs (raising verbs). In such a condition , the subject

position of the main clause will be vacant and possible to be filled by the moved subject.
(6) Kate appears to be angry.

What sentence (6) claims is that the person who is angry is Kate, hence Kate is not the semantic subject of the verb 'appear'. Rather, she is the semantic subject of 'to be angry', and it is seen in the main clause due to raising.

Now, let's turn our consideration to bare infinitive clauses. The occurrence of this subtype is very restricted because, as Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 640-1) claim, the presence of a small set of verbs in the main clause produces the bare infinitive clause. The verbs include: make, see, hear, feel, let, have, help, observe, and watch. One should bear in mind that when the verb is help, the infinitive may be bare or may occur with 'to' (Ibid.: 661).
(7) They helped us (to) clean the house.

The structure of the bare infinitive clause may be very simple, even it may consist of only one word (the bare stem alone) as in (8) below. The clause can also be extended by adding some optional element such as an NP or an AdvP as in (9). The italicised units in the examples are bare infinitive clauses.
(8) I made him leave.
(9) I made him leave the house / leave quickly.

Like to-infinitive clauses, the bare ones can occur with or without subject as in (10) and (11) (Greenbaum, 1996: 329):
(10) We had her want to go to the restaurant.
(11) I think it helps support our style of policing structure.

Concerning the example sentence (10), a question may arise: whether 'her' is the direct object of the complex sentence or not. The answer to the question is that it cannot be the direct object since it is a part of the subordinate clause (bare infinitive clause) in that it becomes the subject of the clause, and the bare infinitive clause with its subject together become a clausal complement to the verb of the main clause (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999: 641). As for the form of this subject, van Gelderen (2002: 136) affirms that it has to be accusative rather than nominative even though it functions as the subject.

At the end of this section, we test the claim of infinitive clauses' tenselessness. All the above mentioned examples (1-11) are complex sentences, the sentences (1,2,6, and 11) are present, and (3,4,5,7,8,9, and 10) are past, when taking the whole complex sentences into consideration. Contrastively, when taking only the infinitive clauses (the italicised written parts), the tense distinction is neutralised in that they carry no tense. Thus, one concludes that infinitive clauses are tenseless.

2. Participle Clauses

Participle clauses, like infinitive clauses, are introduced by a verb form. Different from infinitive clauses, the verb form is not an infinitive; it is a participle form. Therefore, the clause is called 'participle clause'. It is commonly said that there exist two types of participle clauses: present participle and past participle. To Declerk (2006: 17), these two labels are not quite felicitous as the terms past and present are tense distinctions while participle clauses are tenseless. The researcher totally agrees with Declerk's view because participle clauses carry no indication of tense as can be seen in the following examples. Whatever tense the whole complex sentence has, the participle clause (the italicized part) is invariably tenseless.

(12a) I know the man talk*ing* to my brother.   (present)
(12b) I knew the man talk*ing* to my brother.   (past)
(13a) An article prepar*ed* by my teacher will appear next week.   (present)
(13b) An article prepar*ed* by my teacher appeared last week.   (past)

Depending on such examples, and following Quirk et al. (1985: 1263-4), the researcher prefers using the terms –ing participle clause and –ed participle clause instead of present participle and past participle clauses, respectively. Sometimes, the -ed participle clause may be labelled –en clause, as mentioned in Downing and Locke (2006: 71), because the term –ed participle verb form is equivalent to –en verb form.

van Gelderen (2002: 136) claims that one of the functions that participle clauses can have is being adverbial. On this basis, when the participle clause is an adverbial in the sentence structure, it can also be called adverbial clause because its existence in the sentence is optional. To put it in other words, removing the participle clause in the sentence structure has no influence on the meaning of the sentence as can be seen is (14) and (15) below.

(14) Driving very fast, he terrified everyone in the road.
(15) Nominated as president, he is now in power.

It is obvious that adverbial clauses normally begin with a subordinator, but the participle clause functioning as an adverbial clause can occur without a subordinator. Or, they may occur without subject. On such grounds, Greenbaum (1996: 337) asserts that when the participle clause occurs without a subordinator, its meaning is vague in relation to the main clause. For example, the –ing participle clause in (14) could be temporal after introducing it with after 'after driving very fast, …' or it may be causal by using because of 'because of driving very fast, …'. As for the missing subject, it is understood as identical to the subject of the main clause. Thus, the sentence (14) is interpreted as 'He drove/was driving very fast,

…', and that of (15) as 'He was nominated as president, …'. Now, one can see that lacking subject does not produce any ambiguity since the position of the missing subject can be filled by the subject of the main clause while lacking a subordinator causes ambiguity in that it makes the meaning of the participle clause obscure.

As already mentioned, –ing participles appear with and without subject. When they occur as the complement and with subject, the form of the subject determines its case. Quirk et al. (1985: 1194) indicate that when the subject is a pronoun with a personal reference, it normally appears in objective case. The genitive case is also possible in formal contexts, but it is rare when the pronoun has a non-personal reference or when the subject is not a pronoun.

(16) We look forward to *you/your becoming our neighbour*.

(17) I hate *the* ? $\left\{\begin{array}{l} children \\ children's \quad quarrelling \end{array}\right\}$

(18) I look forward to $\left\{\begin{array}{l} it \\ ? \ its \end{array}\right\}$ *getting warmer in spring*.

Participle clauses, both –ing and –ed participles, can function as a post-modifier of a noun phrase. In doing so, they correspond to a relative clause whose relative pronoun is subject.

(19a) The person *who* $\left\{\begin{array}{l} wrote \\ was\ writing \\ writes \\ is\ writing \\ will\ write \\ will\ be\ writing \end{array}\right\}$ *reports* is my colleague.

(19b) The person *writing reports* is my colleague.

(20) The car *that* $\left\{\begin{array}{l} was\ (being)\ repaired \\ is\ (being)\ repaired \\ will\ be\ repaired \end{array}\right\}$ by that mechanic is mine.

(20b) The car *(being) repaired* by that mechanic is mine.

Although –ing participles and –ed participles are similar in relation to the above feature, namely post-modification, there is a difference between the two in determining the aspect of the action. Further look at the example sentences (19) and (20) shows that in (19a) six different verb forms exist with simple and progressive aspects, but all of them have only one form in (19b) which is 'writing'. Thus, the aspectual contrast is neutralised when –ing participle clauses post-modify noun phrases. Conversely, –ed participle clauses indicate aspectual contrast, for example, the progressive version of (20a) has a progressive equivalent in (20b), which appears with 'being'. Taking the simple aspect into account, the aspect marker 'being' does not appear (Ibid.: 1263-5).

Finally, what is concluded in considering participle clauses is that they are tenseless subordinate clauses to another superordinate tensed clause. This statement can be proved by dealing with the examples (12-20) above as the participle clauses occur with present and past superordinate clauses but they themselves carry no tense. Moreover, –ed participle clauses usually correspond to sentences with the passive voice.

3. Verbless Clauses

As the title suggests, this kind of clauses is different from the other two types discussed before. Infinitive clauses and participle clauses are introduced by a verb while verbless clauses have no verb element in their structure whatsoever. The term "clause" is a two-fold term in that it may simply refer to a simple sentence, or to a part in a complex sentence. The status of the verbless construction depends on how it occurs: alone or being a part of a complex sentence. In both situations, it is explicitly tenseless since it lacks the tense indicator element. Yet, it can be implied that it is implicitly tensed when it can stand alone, even though the verb is absent because the pragmatic context determines its tense as being present. The implied tense is always expected to be the present tense. The structure can appear in an imperative, a question, or an exclamative form.

Before going into the detail of verbless clauses, a question arises. Is it possible for a construction without a verb to be a clause? Or, to put it in other words, is a verbless construction a clause? The question is certainly answered positively in that it can be proved syntactically and semantically. From a syntactic point of view, Quirk et al. (1985: 992) assert that verbless constructions are recognised as clauses as they put ". . . because we can analyse their internal structure into the same functional elements that we distinguish in finite clauses." The part in italics in (21a) is the verbless structure which is equivalent to the finite subordinate clause in (21b).

(21a) Although [conj] always [A] helpful [Cs], he was not liked.

(21b) Although [conj] he [S] was [V] always [A] helpful [Cs], he was not liked.

Semantically, Miller (2002: 85) affirms that verbless constructions are clauses on the ground that they express propositions. Moreover, Newson (2006: 288) adds that the basic proposition of the clause is not expressed by the verb, it is expressed by the other elements such as predicate and its arguments. Depending on these views, the present paper adopts the term 'verbless clauses' in a general sense to refer to any meaningful construction which lacks the verb element.

Downing and Locke (2006: 195) define 'verbless clause' as the term referring to "ellipted clauses which lack one or more structural elements . . . ". It is clear that their definition focuses on the structure of verbless clauses. One of the missing elements is always the verb as the term itself suggests. They (Ibid.) present a number of examples standing alone (not being a part of a complex sentence) and refer to them as verbless clauses. These verbless clauses can take question tags, the verbless clause may carry the force of question or exclamation subject to intonation (rising or falling) when the tag is absent. Here are some examples of these kinds of verbless clauses:

(22) In London, isn't he?

(23) What a waste of time!

(24) Sure?

(25) Fantastic!

In addition to the structures above, some aphoristic sentences which are usually common in proverbs, and some block language expressions in which no verb is needed belong to verbless constructions in that an element or more are ellipted. The element which usually appears to be ellipted is the verb BE because of its low information value (Quirk et al., 1985: 843-5). The examples in (26), which are proverbs, may implicitly carry the present tense because the past tense is not used when paraphrasing proverbs as they are not limited to a certain time. In other words, proverbs belong to tenseless expressions. Similarly, the block language expressions in (27) can bear an underlying present tense due to their contextual use, i.e., their pragmatic interpretation tells us that they should be present not past. Once more, they are explicitly tenseless.

(26a) No work, no money.

(26b) In for a penny, in for a pound.

(26c) Out of sight, out of mind.

(27a) No entry   (= there is no entry)

(27b) Entrance (= here is the entrance)

(27c) For Sale   (= this is for sale)

Cappelle (2005: 239-43) asserts that particles, which usually occur with verbs, can alone become verbless clauses. This is normal when the particle is used in a directive way. The

particle can appear with or without a noun phrase. Below is the summary of the situations in which a particle can be regarded as a verbless clause:

A. Verbless directives without an NP

This type consists of only an emphatic particle. The following two examples show that this type can be seen as a shortened version of a structure consisting of a light verb 'get' and a particle together functioning as an imperative sentence.

(28) Out!   (= Get out!)

(29) In!   (= Get in!)

B. Verbless directives with an NP

There is a syntactic difference between this type and the first one since there is an NP preceding the particle, and the form of the NP has to be a bare noun as in (30a). The difference is restricted only in syntactic structure because, pragmatically, both types have the same illocutionary force.

(30a) Hands up!   (= Put your hands up!)

Hands off!   (= Keep your hands off!)

(30b) *Your hands up/off!

One should bear in mind that it is a mistake to generalise all noun-particle combinations as verbless directives with an NP. For instance, hands down, or head on are idiomatic expressions and they have special meanings.

C. Verbless directives with a PP

This type, too, has the sense of coerciveness in common with the other two types. Semantically, it is usually (not always) related to a 'Let's-directive'. For example, the example (31) can be paraphrased as 'Let's get on with the show' while (32) cannot have any correspondence to 'Let's get off with her head' because it cannot be considered elliptical as it is the case with (31).

(31) On with the show!

(32) Off with her head!

Once again, all the directives above can have an implicit present tense since they appear as imperative sentences, and imperatives are always present on the basis of their pragmatic interpretation.

So far, verbless clauses have been discussed and exemplified as independent clauses that can stand alone. Henceforth, we shall confine ourselves to verbless clauses that appear subordinate to another clause with which they are found.

As shown before, one of the missing elements is invariably the verb. In addition to the verb, other elements can be absent in the structure of the verbless clause. Other missing elements could be subject, a subordinator, or both. Concerning this, Quirk et al. (1985: 996)

postulate that the missing subject can be recovered from the context in that it is identical to the subject of the other clause. But when the subject is available, only the verb is supposed to be recovered.

(33) Whether right or wrong, he usually speaks furiously.   (=whether she is right or wrong)

(34) Here he fought, a pistol in each hand.   (= a pistol was in each hand)

Among the seven sentence structures, there are two structures, namely SVC and SVA whose verb constituent is typically BE. Having said the missing verb is a form of BE, a correspondence can be found between these two sentence structures and verbless clauses with or without subject or a subordinator (Ibid.). The following two example sentences show that the italicised verbless clause in (35) corresponds to SVC structure, and that of (36) corresponds to SVA structure.

(35) We can meet again tomorrow, if necessary.   (= if it is necessary: SVC)

(36) Jane sat in the front seat, her hands in her lap. (= her hands are in her lap: SVA)

As we saw, verbless clauses correspond to the two sentence structures SVC and SVA. In relation to this, Greenbaum and Nelson (2009: 20) claim that the SVOC and SVOA sentence structures parallel to the SVC and SVA structures, respectively. Thus, one can find a verbless clause in SVOC and SVOA structures. It is obvious that the object in SVOC and SVOA is originally the subject of SVC and SVA, but this subject becomes the object of the larger sentence after the process of mixing. As the following examples demonstrate, the verb BE exists in (37) while it is omitted in (38) after putting the small sentence into the other.

(37a) Tom is tall.   (Tom is the subject)   SVC

(37b) Tom is outside.   (Tom is the subject)   SVA

(38a) I consider Tom tall.   (Tom is the object)   SVOC

(38b) I require Tom outside.   (Tom is the object)   SVOA

Here, we can prove that verbless clauses can be found in SVOC and SVOA sentence structures. As for the name of this kind of verbless clauses, as cited in Newson (2006: 288), the term 'small clauses' is adopted. He also adds that the structure of the small clause totally depends on the preceding verb to which the small clause becomes a complement. Consider the following:

(39) I consider him a liar / untrustworthy / *in the garden.

(40) I ordered him out of the room / *a fool / *foolish.

   What the above examples claim is that the verb 'consider' takes a small clause including an NP, an AdjP, but not a PP. On the contrary, the verb 'order' takes a small clause including a PP, but not an NP or an AdjP.

4. Subjunctive that-Clauses

This type of tenseless clausal construction is a clause which is introduced by that and carries a subjunctive mood. The subjunctive that-clause, like other tenseless clauses, is a subordinate clause. According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 51), the verb form in this kind of construction is always the base form. On this basis, the distinction in person, number, and tense is absent all the time. They also show the subjunctive that-clause can be placed after volitional verbs such as demand, insist, command, recommend, suggest, propose, order, etc. They (Ibid.: 355-6) add that in addition to volitional verbs, volitional adjectives can also accept a subjunctive that-clause. It follows that the modal aspect of the predicate of the main clause determines the structure of the subordinate clause. Here, volitional predicates require a specific kind of subordinate tenseless clause, i.e., a subjunctive that-clause.

(41a) They insist that John sign up for counselors.

(41b) They insisted that they sign up for a counselor.

(42) He was $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{keen} \\ \\ \text{insistent} \end{array} \right\}$ that they/he be present.

Here, the complex sentence of (41a) is present and that of (41b) is past while the subjunctive that-clauses have no indication of tense in that the verb form is the base in both sentences. Thus, this holds true that the subjunctive that-clause is a tenseless construction. As for (42), it is obvious that the verb form has to be the base even if it is BE.

Regarding negative subjunctive that-clauses, as stated by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 632-3), the negation element appears before the base verb form, and the dummy operator DO is not permissible as can be seen in (43b) below.

(43a) We demand(ed) that he not make the telephone call.

(43b) *We demand(ed) that he $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{do} \\ \\ \text{does} \end{array} \right\}$ not make the telephone call.

It is well-known that using subjunctive that-clauses is not common in present-day English. Of this, Radford (2004: 478) confirms that this construction is generally avoided since, sociolinguistically speaking, it is excessively formal.

5. Conclusions

1-Three different types of clauses: non-finite clauses, verbless clauses, and subjunctive that-clauses can be grouped together under one cover term, namely tenseless clauses.

2-Tenseless clauses are usually subordinate in that they occur in complex sentences; their structure is usually determined by the main-clause verb.

3-Even though verbless clauses have no verb element in their structure, they are considered tenseless because lacking the verb implies the absence of tense. Additionally, verbless clauses that can appear alone independently are explicitly tenseless, but there is an implicit present tense when they are considered pragmatically.

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The Effect of Self – Assessment as a Revision Technique on Preparatory School Students' Achievement in Writing English

Prof. Nahida Taha Majeed(Ph.D.)

Aseel Tayes Jabur (M.A.)

ABSTRACT

This study aims at : 1- identifying self-assessment as a revision technique that enables EFL learners to assess their own performance in writing EFL , and 2- finding out the effect of self-assessment on the achievement of PSSs' achievement in writing English .

To achieve the aims of this study an experiment is designed and a sample of fifty-two secondary school female students has been selected as two groups, a control group and an experimental group. Each group consists of twenty-six students. Both groups have been taught writing activities, composition, e-mail , essay and biography for ten weeks .The control group has been taught according to the traditional method , whereas the experimental group is taught by using self-assessment technique . In order to achieve the aims of the study it is hypothesized that :

1- There is no significant difference between the mean scores on the mid-year test and that of the final achievement test of the control group.

2-There is no significant difference between the mean scores on the mid-year test and that of the final achievement test of the experimental group.

3-There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group on the final-achievement test.

 So as to verify the hypotheses, an achievement test has been constructed in terms of the specified contents and behaviours and then verified by obtaining its validity, reliability, difficulty level and discrimination power. The constructed test has been applied to the involved sample of students . The collected data have been analyzed statistically .Results show that there is a significant difference between the students of two groups in the achievement test in the behalf of the experimental group, i.e. the achievement of the experimental group is better than that of the control one. This indicates that teaching writing by using self-assessment is more effective than teaching by conventional ones. Finally, a number of conclusions, recommendations and suggestions are presented.

Section One: Introduction

1 .1 Statement of the Problem

English has a significant importance in the field of education as it functions as a medium of instruction. Its role as a service subject links it directly to the achievement of any Educational Programme.

English learning is the acquisition of a set of skills : listening , speaking , reading , and writing . Writing and speech are viewed as an alternative equal system of linguistic expressions and their functions complete each other (Crystal, 1997 : 180).Writing as the basic communication skill and a unique asset in the process of learning a foreign language is a tool for learning and self - discovery . It is of immense importance , since it is a tool used to enable us to express what in our mind is (Pahuja , 1995 : 164).

The ability to write effectively is becoming increasingly important in our global community , and instruction in writing is thus assuming an increasing in both second and foreign languages education .As advances in transportation and technology allow people from various nations and cultures throughout the world to interact with each other , communication cross languages become ever more essential (Weigle ,2002 :1).

The production of a written text requires critical decisions necessary to perform effective , coherent , relevant and meaningful discourse . Writing requires the writer to demonstrate control of several variables at once . Successful writing involves mastering the mechanics of letter formation , obeying conventions of spelling and pronunciation and using the grammatical system to convey one's intended meaning (Nunan ,1991 :6).Therefore , learners of English as a foreign language (EFL, for short) face a lot of difficulties in communicating with others using written forms and a lot of serious difficulties are existed at various stages of learning , even at university level (AL-Karkhi , 1999 : 77).

Moreover, after spending a lot of time correcting students' errors in their composition test papers, teachers are often disappointed to see their students only glance at their grades and throw their papers away with the teachers' corrections left unnoticed on them. They may wonder what, if anything, their students have learned from their work (Wood, 1993:38).

Out of her long experience in teaching English to EFL learners, the researcher assumes that some variables and reasons virtually stand behind such learners' difficulties. One of those variables or reasons , is that EFL learners are unable to get any benefit from the errors or mistakes they make in their own writing .Those learners seem unable to utilize the activities of writing as a positive feedback to enhance their performance , i.e. They may be likely unable to review and assess their writing in English using clear and valid evidence .

Therefore , there is an urgent need to train our EFL learners on any instructional technique that enables them to review their own written performance and look critically at themselves .

Self-assessment could be used , summatively , in the context of collaborative group work .Its use emphasizes the importance for the students' progress in inflection on their own performance , their developing understanding and skills (Chambers and Gregory ,2006:185). Hence , this study attempts to investigate the effect of self – assessment as a revision technique on the achievement of preparatory school students'(PSSs, for short) in writing English.

1.2 Value of the Study:

It is hoped that this work will shed light on modern techniques of teaching English writing in secondary schools .This work will be also useful to teachers in the classrooms and designers of syllabuses , and helpful to students by providing the learners with instructions and strategies to be competent in using these instructions correctly.

Thus, the value of this study stems its significance from the following points:

1- This study is valuable to EFL educational supervisors in the direction of evaluating schools students in learning English inside the classroom.

2- This study could also be valuable to college instructors who are preparing undergraduate students to be well-trained teachers of English .

3- This study will be valuable to the researchers through providing them with some explanations and descriptions about the appropriate way of analysing writing texts.

1.3 Aims of the study :

This study aims at :-

1-   Identifying self-assessment as a revision technique that enables EFL learners to assess their own performance in writing EFL .

2-   Finding out the effect of self-assessment on the achievement of PSSs' achievement in writing English .

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study :

In order to achieve the aims of the study it is hypothesized that:

1.4.1 There is no significant difference between the mean scores on the mid-year test and that of the final achievement test of the control group.

1.4.2 There is no significant difference between the mean scores on the mid-year test and that of the final achievement test of the experimental group.

1.4.3 There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and that of the control group on the final-achievement test .

1.5 Limits of the Study :

This study is limited to writing activities included within units 3,4,5 and 6 in <u>English for Iraq</u> which is taught to the fifth – year female PSSs in the academic year 2013 – 2014 .

1.6 Definitions of Basic Terms :

The following items are defined for the purpose of clarification:-

1.6.1 Writing:

 -Writing is a medium where there is time to reflect, to rethink and to use language as a way of shaping thoughts (Crystal, 2007:139).

1.6.2   Self – Assessment :

- Self-assessments of knowledge refer to the evaluation learners make about their current knowledge levels or increases in their knowledge levels in a particular domain(Sitzmann et al , 2010 :171).

1.6.3 Effect :

-The effect of the use of language is the measurement of the meaning of the test in practice(Fulcher, 2010 : 277) .

1.6.4 Technique

 - Technique is "different methods make use of different kinds of classroom activity "(Richards and Schmidt, 2002:30).

1.7   Plan of the Study:

1-Selecting a sample of preparatory schools female students, and dividing them into two equal groups , i.e. experimental and control groups.

2- Teaching writing activities (composition , biography , e-mail and letter writing) to the experimental group through using self – assessment technique and the other group without using self – assessment.

3- Constructing an achievement test in writing various activities .

4- Subjecting the two groups of students to the constructed achievement test.

5- Treating the collected date statistically and discussing the obtained results.

Section Two: Theoretical Background

1.1   Writing Process

Writing is among the most important skills that second language students need to develop , and the ability to teach writing is central to the expertise of a well-trained language teacher (Hyland , 2008: xv). Writing as a combination of process and product refers to the act of gathering ideas and working with them until they are presented in a manner that is polished and comprehensible to readers (Lines 2005: 98).

Morocco and Soven (1990: 845- 846) explain writing status among the other skills of language :listening , speaking and reading .

At least six meanings of 'writing' can be distinguished: (1) a system of recording language by means of visible or tactile marks; (2) the activity of putting such a system to use ; (3) the result of such activity, a text; (4) the particular form of such a result, a script style such as block letter writing; (5) artistic composition; (6) a professional occupation(Coulmas , 2003: 1).

2.1. 1 Stages for the Writing Process

Writing process has a number of distinct stages as shown in Figure (1) (Cotton , 1988:3).

Writing process

Pre-writing	Drafting	Revising	Presenting,
▪ Using pre-writing together ideas ▪ Choosing a purpose and an audience ▪ Ordering ideas	▪ Putting ideas down on paper. ▪ Exploring new ideas during writing.	▪ Editing: considering ideas and organization ▪ Proofreading: correcting errors including sentence structure, usage, spelling, punctuation and capitalization. ▪ Polishing	sharing, writing.

Figure (1)

The Stages of the Writing Process

2.1.1.1 Pre- writing

It centers on engaging students in the writing process and helps them discover what is important or true for them about any subject at a particular time. Pre-writing turns to everything that precedes writing: conscious thinking, planning, and associating thoughts and language (Gersten et al, 1999:1). Figure (2) shows the steps that teacher may use in pre-writing to write a composition for instance about an animal (Haynes and Zacarian ,2010:94):
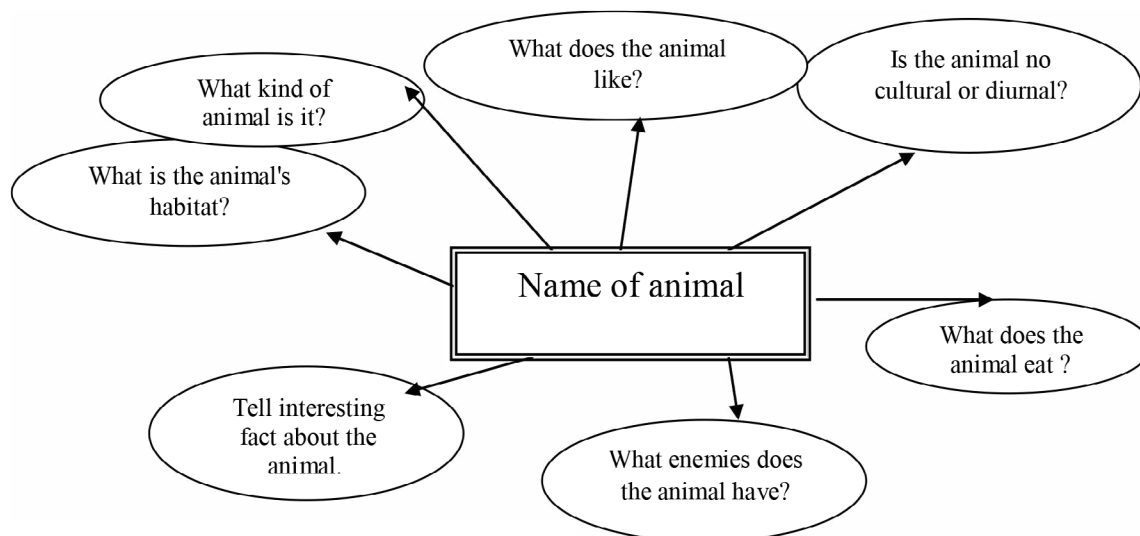
Figure (2)

Sample of Graphic Organizer for EFL During the Pre-writing Phase

2.1.1.2 Drafting

During this phase, writers produce a first draft. Students focus their attention on the development of meaning and the flow of thoughts in their writing (Cotton, 1988:3). The mechanics is secondary to the flow of ideas. Students should try to say what they mean quickly. Additional drafts can be written that further shape, organize, and clarify the work. Students can develop more objectivity and consider the reader. They should be encouraged to share drafts to confirm the direction of their writing (Worthington, 2002:1).

2.1.1.3 Revising

Drafts reflect the struggle to get words down on paper and, as such, they are usually rough and incomplete. Revising decides what should be changed, deleted, added or retained. Revising is the general post. The writing procedure which involves editing (revising for ideas and form) and proofreading involves revising for sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. Teachers should give students the language to discuss editing and proofreading as well as strategies to reshape and accomplish their writing (Ellis, 2001:1).

2.1.1.4 Presenting(Editing)

Presenting means "making public" or sharing with others. Students should be given the opportunity to choose pieces of writing they wish to have presented. The ways of presenting students' writing are numerous: shared reading, bulletin board, individual books, class newspapers, students anthologies, or literary contests. Teachers should be sensitive to

individuals' needs, while at the same time encourage them to share some of their best work (Fredrick, 1987:1).

2.1.2 Types of Writing

Readers , learners and even native speakers can notice written texts in various types and different situations according to the main purpose of writing a text or paragraph. School syllabus requires various writing tasks like composition , e-mail , letter , essay and story . Many pedagogical tasks aim to promote discrete skills, such as improving punctuation , developing pre-writing abilities or increasing an understanding of rhetorical forms. In these types of tasks students need to know specific information in order to build the competence required to accomplish their objectives .Such tasks should not be taught separately but it should be learned within contexts (Hyland, 2008 : 113).

Harmer (2001:23) suggests some types of writing that teachers can use through teaching –learning process which meet the criteria of realistic writing:

   1- writing compositions and stories .

   2- transactional letters where candidates reply to a job,an advertisement , or a complaint to a hotel based on information given in the   exam paper .

   3- information leaflets about their school or a place in their town .

   4- a set of instructions for some common tasks .

   5- newspaper articles about a recent event.

2.1.2.1 Composition

Composition in its form is the structuring of ideas and arranging them on paper. Samuel (1988:29) asserts, "compositions should display the process of a composer working out the meaning of the world around him". The students express their thoughts and feelings consciously before they become aware of their own motives, the image they present, and their effect on others (Wilkinson, 1985:134).

Composition is a means of communication between the writer and the audience on paper which requires independent thoughts, and good writing is facilitated by the integration of unconscious desire (Alcorn, 1999:2). (Gousseva 1998:1) has suggested that there is an interdependent relationship among writers, readers, and texts, considering the readers' expectation, and shaping their texts to meet expectations of the audience.

Riley (2003 :3) asserts that there are three steps in writing composition: introduction, body, and conclusion. In the introduction, the writer gains the audiences' attention by providing sufficient background information and defines terms of the issues discussed. The body

paragraph consists of proofs to the topic. The writer supports his ideas and tries to influence his audience by showing them that he is right. Lastly, the conclusion of the composition is the impression of the writer. In the concluding paragraph, the writer summarizes his main points and calls on the audience to act upon his beliefs by appealing to their emotions.

There are guided and free compositions. Guided composition is a technique in language learning to control writing. This type is taught to students in Iraqi intermediate and preparatory schools.When teaching guided composition, certain steps are to be followed. Such steps involve selecting the topic and discussing the ideas to be included in the composition and preparing an outline for the organization of ideas. Finally, the students have to follow the outline and the teacher has to collect and correct students' writing (Al-Ta'ee, 2005:63).

Whereas, free composition is a spontaneous free flowing type of writing that is un- edited and un- graded. It is brainstorming in a written format. Free writing permits a student to develop his own ideas and to create his own style of writing as he chooses. Free writing encourages critical thinking by offering a large view on a given topic, words call up words, and ideas call up more ideas(Kemp, 1994:12).

2.1.2.2 E-Mail

E-mail is the most basic and critical key to building healthy, productive work communities that communicate electronically. With these quick and easy guidelines, business people at all levels can learn to assess a situation, compose an effective message, and send a responsible e-mail (Hall ,2003:1).

E-mail is unlike any other forms of communication. It is composed and sent but requires no paper or stamp. E-mail is generally reliable and usually arrives within seconds in the recipient's mailbox. It can be composed easily and sent quickly. Unlike voice mail, the message can be planned and revised instead of made up on the spot. Formal e-mails are usually sent to people the writer does not know or to people outside the company .Whereas less formal e-mails are usually sent to people the writer knows well or a colleague (www.elt.oup.com/elt/students/result/pdf/br_pre_emails.pdf) .

2.1.2.3 Essay

An essay is a group of paragraphs, each with the function of supporting and developing one central or controlling idea (Brandon, 2001: 60). It is a longer piece of writing , which is written by a student as a task of a lesson of study or by a writer's writing for publication which expresses his/her point of view on a topic .An essay presents an opportunity for learners to develop and express their ideas and opinions on a topic of interest to learners of English language   (Richards and Schmidt , 2002 : 128).

2.1.2 .4 Story writing

One of the most interesting and favourable tasks for learners is to write a story created by them as group work . This can be noticeable by teachers , and it may enhance their feedback of vocabularies , using grammar , spelling and creativity in narrating events . Celce-Murcia (2001 : 144) states that " Stories are a powerful means of language teaching .A skillful teacher can use stories to develop more efficient listening , more fluent speaking and the ability to read and write easily and competently".

2.1.2.5 Summary Writing

A summary is   written in a continuous prose , not in a form of notes. As far as possible, it must be written in the summarizer's own words ,not in the words of the original passage .The   summary often shows how both comprehension and summary are connected to each other. Such kind of summary is a condensed form of the selective summary, requiring the same concentrated attention, the same mental processes, and the same writing skill (Burton, 1986: 89).

A good summary should give the substance of the original text in a clear and concise form, so that it may be easily and quickly understood. The summary should be one – third of the length of the original text, and it should contain all the major ideas expressed in the original text. The summary should normally be contained in one paragraph (Al -Hamash ,1981: 143).

2.2 Learning and Teaching Writing

Hyland (2008:43) illustrates that learning styles are cognitive , affective and conceptual traits that indicate how learners are perceptive :

1-   the cognitive dimension : here students flourish in cooperative , experiential classrooms with plenty of interaction and feedback on their writing .

2-   the affective dimension differentiates students who depend on social and emotional factors from those who rely more on logic. It also separates out extroverts and introverts.

3- Perceptual learning styles are most relevant in the ESL/EFL class. Visually oriented students like to see information written down , while auditory learners prefer lectures and spoken input.

Some of the most important stages and sub-skills of writing are also illustrated by Hyland (2008:43) as follows :

1- brainstorming ideas in preparation for writing ,selecting ,and rejecting ideas .

2-arranging information   .

3-sequencing events .

4- selecting an appropriate layout .

5-organizing content into paragraphs .

6- connecting paragraphs .

7- developing meaning within paragraphs and through the text .

8- avoid ambiguity .

9-producing grammatically accurate sentences .

10- using linking phrases or words .

Harmer (2007: 330) states some of the   techniques used in writing. The first technique is called "Writing-for-learning" which is a kind of writing teachers do to help students learn language or to test them on English language ,e.g. a teacher asks students to write three sentences using 'the going to' future .The aim of this type of writing is to practise a specific subject belongs to grammar .Later students are required to write four sentences about what they wish in the present and past . Whereas the second technique is called wring-for- writing . The aim of this type of writing is not to check grammar or punctuation but to ask students to narrate many paragraphs concerning the subject.

2.3 Assessment Process

Assessment refers to the variety of ways used to collect information on a learner's language ability or achievement .It is "one of the most potent forces influencing education". It has always been an integral part of EFL pedagogy and education in general whereas learning and teaching are considered inseparable from assessment practices. Its crucial importance lies in the powerful impact it has on learning, teaching, curriculum and consequently on learners and teachers(Crooks, 1988:448).

Assessment is the process of gathering, interpreting, recording and using information about pupils responses to educational tasks. It involves: more formal contexts and procedures including written, timed tests marked under strict conditions; and less formal settings including reading pupils' work and listening to what they have to say. Thus assessment encompasses responses to regular work as well as to specially devised tasks (Lambert and Lines 2000 :4).

As far as the teaching / learning process is concerned , assessment is regarded as an important step in this process since it is one of the most important ways by which one can measure the behaviour of persons at a certain time . An assessment serves two main purposes ; as a guide to the students and a guide to the teachers(ibid : 41) .

2.3.1   Purposes of Assessment

It is important for EFL learners , as providers of education to step back and consider why we

assess . Brown et al (1994:5) state the following purposes of assessment :

1. It enhances motivation;
2. It creates learning activities;
3. It gives feedback to the student to help him identify the strengths and weaknesses;
4. It gives feedback to the teachers on how well the message is getting across;
5. It judges performance (grade/degree classification); and
6. It provides quality assurance-internal and external to educational institutions and others.

Assessment is also seen as a systematic tool, technique, and procedure used to collect, classify, and interpret information about students' capability or the quality or success of a language teaching and learning course according to different sources of the students' performance. A product or outcome of inferring about the students' knowledge is also referred to as an assessment (Lines, 2005:138).

2.3.2 Types of Assessment
Assessment could be mainly divided into three types as follows :-

2.3.2.1 Formative Assessment
Formative assessment is a method designed to establish how much progress a student is making during learning with a view to give feedback to the student (Clark ,2003:204) . Formative assessment is summarized as the type of assessment which is designed to identify a learner's strengths and weaknesses to effect remedial action (Hyland ,2008: 213). Popham (1993: 83) points out that the formative evaluators gather information regarding the worth of aspects of an instructional sequence in order to make the sequence better. Instructional sequences stay weak that formative evaluation might serve would include :

1.   an early version of a set of self – instructional booklets or

2.   a newly initiated educational programme where the faculty is still trying to devise effective components of the programme .

Bloom et al (1981: 133) hope that the users of formative evaluation will relate the results of evaluation to the learning and instructional goals they regard as important and worthwhile. The teacher makes use of formative assessment, since it provides the teacher with a chance to modify the method of teaching he followed in time to make any necessary modification to suit the new situation and to solve the problem he / she may encounter during the time of the instruction .

2.3.2.2   Summative Assessment

It is concerned with summing up the quantity of knowledge student has learned at the end of course. It is a final mark or grade awarded . In contrast with formative assessment, i.e. the assessment of process, summative assessment equates with the assessment of the products or outcomes of learning (Hyland ,2008:213).

2.3.2.3   Norm-referenced Assessment

Norm-referenced assessment is an assessment system in which marks are allocated according to how well a student does in relation to other students who take the   test (Gibbs and Habeshaw, 1990: 12).

Faulty and Savage(2008 :10) state that the purpose of this assessment was to diagnose learning difficulties in the individual student, so that appropriate interventions could be planned and executed. Nowadays norm-referenced assessment is generally subsumed within formative assessment.

2.4 Self –Assessment Process

Self-assessment is the process of looking at oneself in order to assess aspects that are important to one's identity. It is one of the motives that drive self-evaluation, along with self-verification and self-enhancement .Though self-assessment is one of the self-evaluation motives it could be suggested that it may not be the most popular one. Self-enhancement is displayed in each of the experiments and self-assessment, and even self-verification to an extent was only displayed when it was tested out (Sedikides,1993 : 317).

Self-assessment is the process by which learners are trained to evaluate their own performances using clear criteria and weighting systems agreed on beforehand (McNamara 2000:136) .

Rolheiser and Ross (2000:3) add that through self-assessment students are judging the quality of their work, based on evidence and explicit criteria for the purpose of doing better work in the future .

Dam (1995:2) lists five characteristics of self-directed learners which can be ascribed at the same time to autonomous assessors:

1.   being an active participant in the decision-making process;
2.   taking charge of one's own learning;
3.   developing the capacity for critical reflection on learning outcomes;
4.   being an active interpreter of new information in terms of what is already known; and
5.   acting independently and in cooperation with others.

It is argued that reflection and planning for further learning are the two main functions of evaluation. This type of evaluation is usually targeted to learner autonomy (ibid: 49).

Involving pupils in self-assessment is a powerful way of achieving such goals, as fundamentally, it features assessment as something that is not done to others; rather, it is something to be involved in. Some go further than this, claiming that self-assessment is intrinsic to learning'. The very term self-assessment implies a kind of approach to classrooms that has been out of favour in some quarters in recent years: broadly, a progressive, learner-centred approach. Such an approach is more inclined to be sensitive to, and understand, the importance of pupils' feelings about learning (Lambert and Lines , 2000:141)

Self-assessment can be made more formal in numbers of ways. Students can be given material to guide them in making their own judgment,   for example a checklist to record how they feel about their progress .Students should tick if they are satisfied with their progress and put a cross if they are not satisfied . The item can be about for instance : tag questions , misunderstanding , expressing their opinion , agree and disagree politely , using prepositions , using the simple present tense …etc(Harmer,2001:103).

2.5   Assessing Students' Writing

When teachers decide to assess their students, they should consider how writing English is practised in the classroom   , and teachers should assess what they teach of writing activities (Weigle , 2009: 173).

There are various technologies concerning assessing writing , like the norms of standards for written texts .The other technology is   applied to the scoring of writing by computer which is more advanced and easier than the traditional way of scoring , and finally using the internet for the purpose of assessing .There are thus social and potential consequences of new technologies that should be considered (ibid:231).

Two issues can help students assess their writing .If a writing assessment is being given through a test, the teacher can be able to give extra help to students who do not understand the test directions, and teachers can extend the time if students have not finished. Second, when the student has finished a paper or test, the assessment is usually given to the student. With internal assessment, teachers have a great deal of control over the assessment process. They can even throw out a whole set of results if they see a problem with the test or the testing situation (Clark , 2003 : 203).

Section Three :The Procedures
3.1 The Experimental Design

The experimental design has a vast value since it helps the researcher to follow the right

way to get constant results that may assist the researcher to solve the problem of the study and to verify his hypotheses , and to obtain valid and suitable answers to the study questions (Christensen , 1980 : 158) .

As far as the educational experimental design is concerned, it is essential for any researcher to control the whole variables as accurately as possible. Since the present study aims to assess the effect of an independent variable on the students' achievement, the researcher has chosen the "Experimental -Control Group Design" which is widely used in such educational research (Robinson , 1981:228) .

This design is used on the basis that it assumes that such experimental and control groups of students are randomly assigned , and correlated together to avoid any bad effects that may contaminate the results in case of using mid-year test on an instruction course lasted for only three months (Mouly , 1978 : 253) .

In this design, only the experimental group receives the independent variable , i.e. self-assessment technique , as shown in table (1). Then the scores of both groups are compared. Therefore, if the experimental group's scores are significantly higher than the scores of the control group, the difference belongs to the independent variable (Robinson, 1981:189).As far as this study is concerned, the experimental group is exposed to the self-assessment technique for teaching writing activities, whereas the control group is not exposed to such technique.

Table (1)

The Experimental Design of the Study

Group	Treatment	Instrument
EG	Self-assessment technique of teaching writing skills	Achievement test
CG	Traditional way of teaching writing skills	

3.2 Population and Sampling

Population refers to any set of items, individuals ,etc , which share some common and observable characteristics and from which a sample can be taken . Whereas, the word sample refers to any small group or proportion of individuals which is selected to represent a population (Best and Kahn 2006: 13). There are fourteen secondary schools for girls in the city of Tikrit . Al-Zohoor Secondary School for Girls has randomly been derived from which the sample of this study is selected .The population of this study includes all the fifth year female students of that school who is seventy .Those students are already divided into two sections , (A) and (B) . The two sections are randomly involved to represent the two groups of this study .Section (A) represents the experimental group and section (B) represents

the control group .Two students are excluded from section (A) and one from section (B) because they are repeaters. Moreover ,fifteen students are excluded for the purpose of the pilot application of the study instrument . Hence the other fifty-two students represent the sample of the study , as shown in Table (2) .Those students are distributed equally into two groups , i.e. twenty-six for each of the experimental and control group.

In order to ensure that the two selected groups are equivalent they have been matched in the following variables : the level of fathers' education ,the level of mothers' education, subjects' scores in English in the mid-year exam ,subjects' age in months ,and subjects' scores in English in the first month of the academic year 2013-2014 .It is found that there are no significant difference between the two groups in these vaiables.

Table (2)

The Population and Sample

Group	No. of the whole students	No. of repeaters	No. of pilot study	No. of Sample
Experimental(section A)	36	2	8	26
Control(section B)	34	1	7	26
Total	70	3	15	52

3.3 Instructional Material and Students ' Instruction

The experiment started on 15th February , 2014 and ended on 10th May ,i.e. the experiment lasted for 12 weeks. The lessons were arranged for both groups on Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday. Students are taught the same instructional material which includes units 3 , 4 , 5 and 6 of English for Iraq Student's Book and Activity Book . Grammar for instance tenses , the form of words , vocabulary synonyms , antonyms and so on , are taught in addition to writing activities .

In this study, the students have equal instructional opportunities. In other words, the students of the two groups have the same, conditions, teacher and teaching method except in one aspect namely: the use of self- assessment technique with only the experimental group ,as shown in Appendix (A). During the lessons, students need to learn as many new words and ideas as they can to be used in their writings since activities of each unit are connected to general topics such as ; describing a place or identifying a person, etc.

3.3.1 The Control Group

The control group students are taught the writing material according to the steps described in the Teacher's Book. After studying the lessons of the Student's Book and acquiring a

good knowledge of each unit , writing activities of the Activity Book are practised during the lesson within at least fifteen minutes for each one. Student may complete their writing piece as at home as homework. The teacher allows each pair students to present their topic and its ideas, and he can ask students about tense, sequence of events, but writing practice should be alone, i.e. each student should write a writing activity herself.

3.3.2 The Experimental Group CG

The experiment group students are given an idea about how to assess themselves and how revise what they wrote. The students of experimental group are taught by using the same way used with control group , plus subjecting the students to the self- assessment technique .This means those students are finally exposed to *a checklist which include fourteen items distributed to four criteria , as show in Appendix (B) . The students are required to state their responses on the checklist items . The purpose behind this checklist is to make students revise what they have written and then they can find out their mistakes or errors to avoid them in future writing.

3.3.3 Management of Self- Assessment

The management of self-assessment technique was divided into two phases: the training phase and the implementation phase, as follows:

_____

* This checklist is adopted from Brown (2004:322) Language Assessment Principles and Techniques.

3.3.3.1 The Training Phase

In terms of writing, the traditional role of the Iraqi teacher of English has been to correct student writing and provide written comments and grades. The students simply write to be judged or assessed.

Since the students of the experimental group are to be engaged for the first time in self-assessment, they first have been trained in how to perform this task. The top priority is to provide them with an efficient assessment tool. Therefore, a checklist for self- assessment is adopted to assist students to carry out the assessment process accurately.

To be successful at self- assessment, students need reminders of what they should look for as they revised and edited their work.Generally, there are two major types of problems that face students in EFL writing. The first type is language problems in spelling, shift of pronouns, pronoun references, parts of speech, etc. The second is problems related to development and organization of ideas, topicalization and overall focus of texts.

As writing varied from individual to individual and the checklist could not cover all the

problems, the students are encouraged to add more items of their own if they feel that is necessary to make the checklist more comprehensive and responsive to the assessment process.

Students are guided and observed to be able to use self-assessment technique. Then the first piece of written work has been collected and evaluated. There are several advantages in doing this before students worked on self-assessment. One advantage is that the teacher's management of this first writing task helps the students gain a sense of the assessment process. The second advantage is that the teacher acquired better understanding of the students' writing skills and problems.

Knowing how well the students could write, and what writing knowledge they have, help the teacher modify the self- assessment checklist. This made the checklist more adaptable to new students. The final advantage is that the teacher's comments expose the students to a source of assessing models. Reading the comments, the students could at least learn to use assessment terminology such as organization, supporting details, using sequences or linking words , punctuation ...etc.

3.3.3.2 The Implementation Phase

When the second writing task is done, students are required to submit their composition with a self- assessment comment attached. To ensure the quality of critical thinking, taking into consideration the low language proficiency of some students, they are encouraged to state their comments in any way they choose , i.e. using their simple language . At the same time, the students are encouraged to seek help from their classmates, or to consult the researcher, if they feel they need to. The students are asked to write specific comments about their written work in the margin, using their checklists.

3.4   Test Construction

The English textbook of the fifth preparatory class which is entitled *English for Iraq, contains various topics and situations at both (Student's Book and Activity Book). These topics are really interesting for students to write on different real-life situations, such as cultures and customs ,communication and internet, the environment , food and drink, life in Ramadan ,festivals and celebrations , e-mail and computer ,...etc . Hence , the contents , behaviours ,questions ,and scores of the test have been specified in details , as shown in Table (3) .

_____

* English for Iraq , 5ᵗʰ Preparatory , by Olivia Johnston and Mark Farrell

Table (3)

Table of Specification of the Contents ,Behaviours ,Items and Scores of the Achievement Test

No.	Content area	Behavioural Objectives	No.of items	Scores
1	Guided composition	-to write a guided composition	1	10
2	E-mail	-to write an e-mail	1	10
3	essay	-to write an essay about any topic	1	10
4	Conversation	-to complete a blank conversation	5	10
5	Biography	-to describe any city chosen by the students .	1	10
	Total		9	50

From Table (3) the constructed test consists of five questions and ten scores are allotted to each question .

The first and second questions are designed to measure students' ability in writing a guided composition and a e-mail, ten scores are assigned for each one .

The third question demands students to write an essay or free composition. This means that students can write about any topic without being limited with any area , or even they can narrate a story in this question. The fourth question is about completing a blank conversation blanks by adding some sentences that students think suitable to make the conversation meaningful. Ten marks are assigned for this question. In the fifth question the respondents are asked to write a biography about any city in the world that they like to describe.

The achievement test has been constructed in terms of the specified contents and behaviours and then verified by obtaining its validity, reliability, and difficulty level and discrimination power.

3.5 Scoring Scheme of the Test

There are two approaches to scoring writing .The first is holistic : this type is based on single , integrated scores of writing behaviour, Whereas the second is the analytic scoring method which requires readers to judge a text against a set of criteria seen as important to good writing (Hyland,2008 :227).Since marking gets much more reliable when students' performance is analyzed in such greater details, the researcher adopts an analytical scheme of marking in which each component is to be graded separately. Two marks are assigned for each of the five composition components, as shown in table (4):

<div align="center">Table (4)</div>

<div align="center">**Scoring Scheme of the Achievement Test**</div>

Writing Components	Good 2 marks	Fair 1 mark	Weak zero
Grammar	2	1	0
Vocabulary	2	1	0
Mechanics & arrangement	2	1	0
Spelling Accuracy	2	1	0
Relevance	2	1	0
Total Mark	10	5	0

From table (9) students writing is scored in terms of the five criteria or components , namely ; grammar , vocabulary ,mechanics and arrangement , spelling and relevance .Each of those criteria is ranked as ; ' good ' , 'fair' ; or 'weak' . Two marks are given to good , one for 'fair' and zero for 'weak '.

3.6 Test Administration

After verifying the validity , reliability , DL and DP of the test , it has been administrated on the selected sample of fifty-two students on the   15th of May 2014 . The test papers as well as answer sheets have been distributed and the examinees are told to read carefully the given instructions and state their responses on the answer sheets within a period of 70- 85 minutes .

Section Four : Analysis of Data Collection and Discussion of Results
5.1 Analysis of Data

In order to verify the three hypotheses mentioned above , subjects' scores of the two involved groups (experimental and control) on the achievement test have been analyzed and compared as follows :

5.1.1 Comparison between the Scores of the Control Group on the Mid-Year Test and those on the Final Achievement Test :

The scores obtained by the subjects of the control group have been analyzed and compared by applying " one-sample t-test formula" ; in order to find out whether there is any significant difference between their mean scores on the two tests .

Results indicate that mean scores on the mid-year test and final achievement test are 51.20 and 51.89, respectively .Results also indicate that the t-calculated value is 0.51 and

the tabulated value is 2.02 at (0.05) level of significance and (51) degree of freedom, as shown in table (5). This means that there is no significant difference between those subjects' achievement on the two tests and hence , the first hypothesis is accepted .

Table (5)

Means , Standard Deviation and T-Value of the Control Group on the Mid-Year and Final Tests

Groups	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	d.f.	t. Value calculated	t. Value tabulated	Sig. level
Mid-year	26	51.20	11.31	50	0.51	2.02	0.05
Final Achievement	26	51.89					

5.1.2 Comparison between the Scores of the Experimental Group   on the Mid-Year Test and those on the Final Achievement Test :

The scores obtained by the subjects of the experimental group have been analyzed and compared by applying ' one-sample t-test formula ' ; in order to find out whether there is any significant difference between their mean scores on the two tests .

Table (6)

Means , Standard Deviation and T-Value of the Experimental Group on the Mid-Year and Final Tests

Groups	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	d.f	calculated t.Value	tabulated t.Value	level of Sig.
Mid-year	26	51.80	11.31	50	4.609	2.02	0.05
Final Achievement	26	73.96					

Results indicate that subjects' mean scores on the mid-year test and final achievement test are 51.80 and 73.96, respectively . Results also indicate that the t-calculated value is 4.609 and the tabulated value is 2.02 at (0.05) level of significance and (51) degree of freedom, as shown in table (6). This means that there is a significant difference between those subjects' achievement on the two tests and in favour of the final-achievement test , hence , the second hypothesis is rejected .

5.1.3 Comparison between the Scores of the Experimental Group and those of the Control Group on the Final Achievement Test:

The obtained mean scores of the experimental group on the final achievement test is 73.96 and that of the control group is 51.89 . The formula of the t-test for two-independent samples is applied in order to find whether there is any significant difference between the achievement of the two groups.

Table (7)

Means , Standard Deviations and T-Value of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Final Achievement Test

Groups	No. of students	$\overline{X}$	SD	d.f.	calculated t. Value	tabulated t. Value	Level of Sig.
Experimental	26	73.96	15.75	50	4.609	2.02	0.05
Control	26	51.80	11.31				

By comparing the obtained mean scores of the two groups , it seems that the calculated t-value 4.609 is higher than the tabulated   t-value 2.02 ,at (0.05) level of significance and (50) degree of freedom , as shown in table (7) .This means that there is a significant difference between the achievement of the experimental group on one hand , and that of the control group on the other hand , and in favour of the experimental group .Hence , the third hypothesis is also rejected .

5.2 Discussion of Results

From the statistical analysis of the collected data , it is found that the achievement of the experimental group is significantly better than that of the control group .This means that self-assessment as a revision technique is effective for teaching writing English activities to PSSs. This effectiveness may due to the following reasons :

1- Students prefer this technique because the may have freedom to find out their mistakes and errors to improve their writing performance.

2- Students have developed their capacity for critical reflection on their learning outcomes of writing logical texts .

3- Self-assessment supply PSSs with experience in written language.

4- after students review their work and find out their points of weakness ,they can work on their own progress in performing their written tasks .

5- self-assessment make student more confident in their learning of written activities .

It is worth pointing that the current study has verified the initially stated hypotheses and achieved its aims through first , identifying the properties of self-assessment as a revision technique and second ,through finding out positive effect of that technique on PSSs' achievement in writing English .

Section Five : Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion

1- According to the findings of this study, the achievement of the experimental group who were taught by the technique of self-assessment has been improved in composition . This has been based on a comparative statistical treatment of the subjects' scores on both groups of the two tests.

2-Applying a formative strategy helps students lessen anxiety before examinations and helps them realize how and what to study.

3-Using a formative assessing strategy motivates students and reinforces their learning which leads to increase their achievement.

4- The application of a formative strategy may help students know their progress through the learning task, and they will be more competent than those who lack such feeling.

5-When students write in English, they will gradually be creative. Also they need time to learn how to translate their thoughts from their native language into English , instead of using literal translation in their writing.

6- Some teachers of English in Iraq schools do not pay much attention to formative assessment strategy in teaching –learning process. Application of formative strategy would increase students' achievement level.

7- Self-assessment technique gives the students more chances to use the spoken and written forms of English language through some activities like: presentation of the reports, discussions, various writing consequently develop their accuracy and fluency.

8- It is preferable if teachers focus on feedback, comments, and advices from time to time after assessment practice and this may facilitate students' learning of writing skill.

9- Brainstorming is a very urgent method in writing any activity within classroom situations .This method can lead to a high quality of writing and stimulate students' competence to write logically.

10- Using the revision technique enables PSSs to identify their weak points and sustain their strong points in writing EFL .

5.2 Recommendations

1.   Teachers of EFL should be trained on using the new methods and techniques of teaching writing activities, such as self-assessment, task-based and consciousness raising methods, in order to supply their students with the proper opportunities to express themselves , freely and expand various ideas.

2. Devoting at least ten minutes of each lesson period to re-teaching the previous material that the teacher thinks it needs to be re-taught. Recycling is a teaching technique that is highly recommended but very rarely used.

3. Increasing English lessons to six instead of five in every week to give the teacher enough time to make quizzes, and re-teach the problematic areas that students encounter during teaching - learning process .

4. Teachers of English should be involved with an in-service training courses to be trained on using self-assessment as a revision technique when teaching writing activities to their students.

5. Teachers of English are recommended to write down their notes and corrections of errors on students' test papers as a feedback process.

6. Incorporating new tasks of writing into the current English syllabus such as requiring students to write online activities to each other.

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Appendix A
The Test

Q1 Guided composition   (10 M)

Write a composition about any city you choose .Describe its people , buildings , habits , …etc (try to use more than 100 words).

Q2 Guided composition   (10 M)

Write an e-mail for your foreigner pen friend telling him about Ramadhan in Iraq (try to describe the habits in this month ,food , people and the market) .

Q3-Free Composition   (10 M)

Write an essay about any topic you choose .

Q4-Conversation   (10 M)

Complete the following conversation between the customer and the waiter in the restaurant .

Waiter :   excuse me sir, what ……….you?

Customer : I would like ………………………..

Waiter   : But we don't have this dish , would you like to have ……………?

Customer : O.K. I will have ………………………………

Waiter   : What would you like to drink sir ?

Customer : …………….……………….……………

Waiter   : What about desserts ?

Customer : What kinds do you have ?

Waiter   : apple pie , cookies , cheese cake and rice pudding .

Customer : …………….……………cheese cake and apple pie .

Q5-Biography   (10 M)

Describe your school using the clues (classes / teachers / playground / lessons …etc).

Appendix B

Self-Assessment Checklist

STUDENT'S NAME:...DATE:....../..../ 2014
TITLE OF WORK:...

STUDENT'S NAME:……………..……………………………DATE:……/…../ 2014
TITLE OF WORK:…………………………………………………………..

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION	YES	NO
1. I stated my purpose clearly.	☐	☐
2. I organized my thoughts.	☐	☐
3. My work has a beginning, middle, and end.	☐	☐
4. I chose words that helped make my point.	☐	☐

WORD/ SENTENCE USE	YES	NO
5. I used some new vocabulary.	☐	☐
6. I wrote complete sentences.	☐	☐
7. I used correct subject-verb agreement.	☐	☐
8. I used the verb tense correctly.	☐	☐

MECHANICS/FORMAT	YES	NO
9. I spelled words correctly.	☐	☐
10. I used capitals to start sentences and for names.	☐	☐
11. I used punctuation marks correctly.	☐	☐
12. I wrote the indented paragraphs.	☐	☐

EDITING	YES	NO
13. I read my paper aloud to a partner.	☐	☐
14. I asked a partner to read my paper.	☐	☐

The Influence of Using Interactive Whiteboard on Learner Achievement in the Language Classroom: A Case Study

Mustafa Altun
Ishik University, Erbil, Iraq

ABSTRACT

Sustained engagement and increased attention in the language classroom enhances interactivity which leads to a higher degree of understanding by all learners in the learning setting. Motivation and learner engagement are essential ingredients in language learning that stimulate learners for better performance. Language learning in an interactive learning environment leads to achievement and interactive whiteboard has the potential to motivate language learners for an effective learning. This study investigated the influence of interactive whiteboard in the language classroom and found that learners showed better achievement in the language classroom when interactive whiteboard was employed. This study revealed that learners who had instruction with interactive whiteboard achieved better in language tests than the students who had traditional instruction.

Keywords: Achievement, Engagement, Interactivity, Interactive Whiteboard, Motivation,

Introduction

Since 1970s many researches have been conducted to determine the effects of Interactive Whiteboard (IWB) compared to traditional instruction (Morrison et al., 2010). In particular, a large research project focused on the integration of IWB into classroom instruction in 2000s. Today rather than the teacher-led lecture method of instruction, IWB supported teaching has become the suggested method of instruction in all classrooms. Traditional boards are being replaced by IWB for their effectiveness (Lewin et al., 2008), and IWB, which is considered as a modern teaching method, has become a part of many classrooms and met pedagogical needs of learners to a significant extent in today's class environment. IWB with its supportive role has enhanced the teaching and learning process and has proved to be the framework for the methodology. The impact of IWB on learner achievement is the foundation of this study.

Literature Review

With the advent of education technology tools, classroom practice has been changing to a significant extent by creating an interactive, collaborative, learner-oriented and discussion-based learning environment (Prensky, 2007). A wide base of literature related to technology

in education has investigated the role of technological tools on learner achievement. IWB, though relatively new as an instructional tool in the classroom, has proved itself effective on learner achievement. There has been considerable research conducted to investigate the effectiveness of IWB on learning styles, learner motivation, and interactivity which form the basic components of learner engagement. In social cognitive theory Vygotsky (1978) argues that instruction is most efficient when learners are engaged in activities in a supportive learning environment. The use of IWB encourages interactivity and collaborative learning (Bell, 1998). This idea is supported by Glover, Miller, Averis and Door (2007) who state that when teachers employ IWB as an educational tool in the classroom they "become more aware of the nature of interactivity and its stimulation as the basis for conceptual development and cognitive understanding" (p.17).

By the same token, constructivism, a theory of knowledge, emphasizes involvement in the learning process. Supporting this idea Alexiou-Ray, Wilson, Wright & Peirano (2003) focus on the learning process by actively participating in meaningful experiences through the use of IWB which "emphasized a more constructivist approach in which students are actively learning with 'real world' implications" (p.73). Both social cognitive theory and constructivism put an emphasis on collaboration and interactivity to facilitate understanding in the learning process.

Interactivity incorporates a variety of instructional strategies to learning. In a study by Smith, Hardman, and Higgins (2006) it was found that the use of IWB increased engagement in the classroom and offered more opportunities for whole-class teaching. Levy (2002) in her study investigated the impact of IWB on interactivity and found that interaction between teacher and student was triggered by discussions, participation and questions when IWB was employed in the learning environment. In another study by Gerard, Greene and Widener (1999) it was explored that IWB enhanced conversation between teacher and student which contributed to interactivity to a significant extent in the classroom.

Schut (2007) conducted a study on the use of IWB and her results indicated that IWB is engaging since it provides a wide range of visual materials which facilitate remembering things with ease. Moreover, the potential of applying various learning styles with IWB can meet the needs of each student for better achievement.

Motivation and learner engagement are essential ingredients in learning and these aspects are indicatives of effective learning. Weimer (2001) in his study indicated increased motivation when IWB is used in the classroom. Similarly, Berque (2004) in her study reports greater learner engagement with IWB use. Engagement and motivation invigorate achievement. Beeland (2002) advocating this idea found in his study that IWB notably raises learner achievement.

Research Questions

1.   Does integration of IWB into classroom instruction produce better motivation, engagement, and interactivity in the classroom?

2.   Does the use of IWB increase learner achievement?

3.

Research Methodology

Design of the Study

This study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods at the same time. Qualitative approach was used in this study by drawing meaningful results from test scores of learners to determine the influence of IWB on learner achievement. Quantitative approach allows reporting data results, which were obtained from tests students had on a regular basis, in numerical terms to measure the credibility of research findings.

Sample Selection

The target population in this study is students of English language teaching department at Ishik University. First year students were used in this study. Two groups of learners were created each of which included 20 students so totally a number of 40 students were selected. The students had a proficiency test after they were admitted to the university. It was assured that all learners had the same level of language proficiency to obtain credible results in this research for that reason students who had a score between 70 and 74 were placed in the control group and those who had a score between 65 and 69 were placed in the experimental group. The students were not informed that they were a part of the experiment.

Data Collection

The study investigated the impact of using IWB on learner achievement thus for six weeks while classroom instruction was provided for control group by traditional methods, it was provided for experimental group by the use of IWB in different classrooms. To explore the development of students, they had tests in every two weeks. Both groups had the same subjects in their classes and the same questions in the language tests during the experiment. The topics covered in the classes were the English tenses, if conditionals and modals. In the control group these subjects were taught using traditional instruction. Simply put, the grammatical rules were explicitly taught based on teacher-centered approach. To ensure that the grammatical patterns were grasped by the students, handouts were distributed and the questions were done in the classroom through providing explanations if needed. On the other hand, IWB was used in the experimental group. The students studied all topics through presentations on IWB. The potential of IWB enabled the students to have more exercises

in the classes. The collected data has been analyzed by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Findings

Table 1: Scores of students in both groups in tests

	IWB Supported Instruction			Traditional Instruction		
	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3
Student 1	86	92	٩٤	78	80	82
Student 2	84	88	٩٢	76	78	82
Student 3	84	88	90	72	74	78
Student 4	82	84	٨٨	70	72	76
Student 5	78	82	٨٤	68	70	74
Student 6	76	78	٨٢	64	66	68
Student 7	72	76	٨٠	62	64	66
Student 8	72	74	٧٨	60	62	66
Student 9	70	74	76	58	60	62
Student 10	70	74	٧٦	56	58	60
Student 11	68	72	٧٤	56	58	62
Student 12	66	70	72	54	58	60
Student 13	64	68	72	54	56	60
Student 14	62	66	70	52	54	56
Student 15	60	64	٦٨	52	56	58
Student 16	56	60	٦٤	50	54	56
Student 17	56	58	٦٢	50	52	54
Student 18	54	56	٦٠	50	54	56
Student 19	52	56	٦٠	48	52	56
Student 20	48	52	٥٨	46	50	54

Table 1 shows the test scores of students in the experimental group and the control group. While students in the experimental group had classroom instruction with IWB, students in the control group had classroom instruction by traditional methods. When test scores of students are examined, it is seen that students in the experimental group had better results in all tests. These scores yield that the use of IWB in the language classroom played a key role in language learning achievement.

Table 2: Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	IWB_Test_1	68.0000	20	11.46161	2.56289
	IWB_Test_2	71.6000	20	11.67273	2.61010
Pair 2	IWB_Test_2	71.6000	20	11.67273	2.61010
	IWB_Test_3	75.0000	20	11.07867	2.47727
Pair 3	Traditional_Test_1	58.8000	20	9.61140	2.14917
	Traditional_Test_2	61.4000	20	9.06352	2.02666
Pair 4	Traditional_Test_2	61.4000	20	9.06352	2.02666
	Traditional_Test_3	64.3000	20	9.34204	2.08894

Table 2 has generated descriptive statistics for the variables. In the Paired Samples Statistics Box, the mean for the experimental group IWB (IWB supported teaching) test 1 is 68, the mean for the IWB test 2 is 71.6, and the mean for IWB test 3 is 75. The mean for the traditional test 1 is 58.8, the mean for the traditional test 2 is 61.4 and the man for the traditional test 3 is 64.3. The number of participants in each condition (N) is 20.

Table 3: The achievement of students in tests
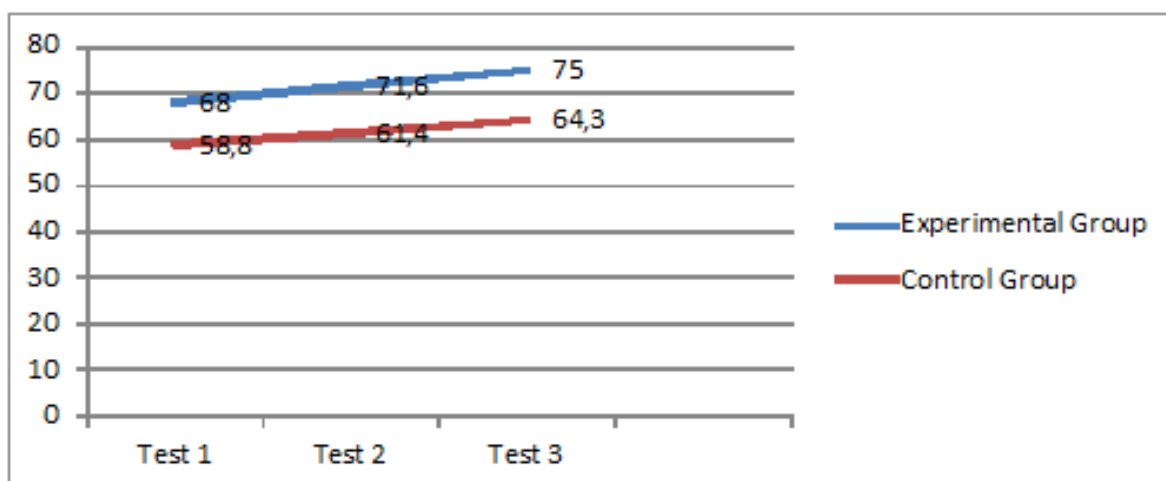
Both table 3 and table 4 reveals that the mean differences between tests are higher in experimental group which indicates that the improvement of students in tests is greater in the experimental group.

Table 4: Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	IWB_Test_1 - IWB_Test_2	-3.60000	1.04630	.23396	-4.08968	-3.11032	-15.387	19	.000
Pair 2	IWB_Test_2 - IWB_Test_3	-3.40000	1.14248	.25547	-3.93470	-2.86530	-13.309	19	.000
Pair 3	Traditional_Test_1 - Traditional_Test_2	-2.60000	.94032	.21026	-3.04009	-2.15991	-12.365	19	.000
Pair 4	Traditional_Test_2 - Traditional_Test_3	-2.90000	1.02084	.22827	-3.37777	-2.42223	-12.704	19	.000

The Sig. (2-Tailed) value in our example is 0.000 (If Sig < .01, then the model is significant at 99%). It can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean teaching with IWB and teaching with traditional methods. Since the Paired Samples Statistics box revealed that the mean number of experimental group tests was greater than the mean for the control group tests it can be concluded that the use of IWB is significantly more effective on learner achievement than the use of traditional methods.

Table 5: ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Traditional_Test_1	Between Groups	1673.867	4	418.467	77.176	.000
	Within Groups	81.333	15	5.422		
	Total	1755.200	19			
Traditional_Test_2	Between Groups	1481.067	4	370.267	69.657	.000
	Within Groups	79.733	15	5.316		
	Total	1560.800	19			
Traditional_Test_3	Between Groups	1560.267	4	390.067	59.745	.000
	Within Groups	97.933	15	6.529		
	Total	1658.200	19			

This is the table that shows the output of the ANOVA analysis and whether there is a statistically significant difference between the group means. It is seen that the significance level is 0.000 for all means (If Sig < .01, then the model is significant at 99%) therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the means for traditional tests.

Table 6: ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
IWB_ Test_1	Between Groups	2380.133	4	595.033	77.033	.000
	Within Groups	115.867	15	7.724		
	Total	2496.000	19			
IWB_ Test_2	Between Groups	2456.933	4	614.233	69.870	.000
	Within Groups	131.867	15	8.791		
	Total	2588.800	19			
IWB_ Test_3	Between Groups	2249.333	4	562.333	102.036	.000
	Within Groups	82.667	15	5.511		
	Total	2332.000	19			

This is the table that shows the output of the ANOVA analysis and whether there is a statistically significant difference between the group means. It is seen that the significance level is 0.000 for all means (If Sig < .01, then the model is significant at 99%) therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the means for IWB based instruction.

Discussion and Conclusion

IWB has become an integral part of education recently. Particularly its support for interactive teaching has been highlighted in many researches (Hennessy et al., 2007). Fun and enjoyment IWB has brought to daily lessons through the use of visual images is combined with heighted learner engagement, a key factor which likely leads to motivation and motivated learners tend to achieve more success. IWB has the potential to assist instructors in their efforts to motivate and maintain learner engagement.

The inclusion of interactivity into classroom instruction maximizes motivation (Martin, 2007). A great many researches has revealed the link between motivation and achievement (Weimer, 2001). From this point of view, the use of IWB in the learning setting augments learner achievement (Lewin et al., 2008).

A study conducted by Oleksiw (2007) found that students achieved better on their state test when instruction was provided with IWB. In another study by Dill (2008) it was revealed that

IWB was positively associated with student achievement. Swan, Schenker and Kratcoski (2008) investigated the influence of IWB on learner achievement and they found that students showed higher performance in the classroom where IWB was used.

By the same token, this study yielded that the use of IWB greatly impacts learner achievement in the language classroom. Compared with the results of learners who were exposed to traditional instruction, learners who had instruction with IWB showed better performance and achieved better in the tests. The use of visual materials facilitated the comprehension of materials and at the same time motivated learners towards better learning.

This study found that learning outcomes increased with IWB instruction. Students developed positive attitudes towards language learning when learning setting is equipped with IWB. Attention and motivation infused learners to get involved in the learning process actively. This engagement allowed learners to perform better in language tests.

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The landscape of Literature and Politics of the Early 20ᵗʰ Century

Enas Jaafar

Baghdad University

A writer who wishes to produce the best work that he is capable of producing, must first of all become a socialist in his practical life, must go over to the progressive side of the class conflict….. unless he joins it, his writing will become increasingly false, worthless as literature.   Stephen Spender, The Mind in Chains (1928)

ABSTRACT

At the advent of the 20ᵗʰ century, a great emphasis has been laid on the involvement of the literati in the political life as a method to define their social role. It was with the concurrent radical changes, crowned by the advent of the two world wars, that the men of letters found themselves unable to preserve an aesthetic distance to be separate from the harsh reality. Such a situation demolished their "ivory towers" to bring them down to earth as the "true legislators of the world", to use Shelley's favorite words. This research is surveying how the 20ᵗʰ century man of letters could find a convenient solution to the dilemmas in challenging the prevailing pessimistic feelings by creating an ideal political vision rooted much in the soil of the political thought.

The Twentieth-Century Political and Literary Scene

The relationship between literature and propaganda has always been debatable and subject to superheated controversies in modern times, particularly after the expiry of such approaches to literature as the purely aesthetic and the decadent. It is, therefore, with the radical transitions of modern times that some of the cleverest minds questioned the issue: whether the literati should involve themselves in politics or preserve an aesthetic distance between their worlds and the world of tough political struggle.

Such a relationship that should bind literature to propaganda can be mediated directly by some men of letters and critics, on one hand, like George Orwell. He thinks that no work of art is completely void of propaganda. He maintains, for instance, that "all art, is to some extent, propaganda," justifying his notion by his supposition that "every work of art has a

meaning and a purpose_ a political, social and religious purpose_ that our judgments, are always colored by our prejudices and beliefs. (Orwell & Angus, pp. 276 & 152). Other writers, on the other hand, are opposed to this notion, rejecting such a bond between literature and propaganda as insignificant. Such writers rely on their dismissal of the propaganda upon the distinction between the "real literature" and "tendentious writing."(Foulkes, p.5)

When considering the criterion of propaganda, as its real power resides in its capability of concealing itself, literature would appear to be the most influential medium for the successful accomplishment of such an objective. This can be apparently true in the periods of political and social disturbance, prior or proceeding revolutions or war-time, as it happened during the twentieth century, since this epoch was severely encompassed within the two World Wars.

Although submissive to a somehow excessive temper, such critics, as Frederic Jameson, have sought new methods for the evaluation of literary texts, giving the priority to the political interpretation of the literary texts, and arguing persuasively that the political perspective need no longer be a subordinate or "supplementary method … but rather as an absolute horizon of all reading and interpretation," or otherwise a literary work would subject itself to a reinforcement of privatization of contemporary life." (Jameson, pp. 17&20)

A more moderate viewpoint that has been propagated by the German writer Bertolt Brecht, whose radicalism was quite influential in directing the 20ᵗʰ century writers towards undertaking the political role as one of their prime objectives. According to Brecht, drama was nothing if it does not contribute to the social and revolutionary change. This to an extent can justify why many critics saw that Brecht's name as more valuable to the communists than to his own art. (Bentley, p.125)

Whether excessive or moderate, both trends of thought, concerning the political impact of literature, gave a credit to the many employments of literary works as political propaganda, especially in the opposition. Amongst its categories agitation propaganda (usually referred to as agitprop), siding with that of social criticism, has concerned itself with men of latters as they were opposed to the contemporary political and social order of their time. Seeking to overthrow the despotic government or the established order, writers attempted to propagate the political ideal they withheld and to show its adequacy and positive applicability.(Ellul, pp.75-7) in short agitation propaganda is a call for action. At times, this call may transfer itself, after achieving victory for the oppositional part, to an integrative mood for the assertion of the banners of the new regime in rise.

Since the concern of this study is the propaganda of the political ideas, it is convenient in the first place to note that the relationship between the governors and the governed has been undertaken theoretically by politicians and philosophers. Simultaneously, it is reflected in the

literary works of each period throughout the history of the main two poles of power, Britain and America, during the early decades of the 20th century.

It is significant to note that the early twentieth-century literature witnessed two main trends to approach the swift changes in the European societies. One was an escapist trend enhanced by the increasing sense of disintegration, disbelief and uncertainty. This sense resulted in the intellectuals' attempt to escape the contemporary reality and withdraw to a happier made up world. This substitute world was rooted much in the aesthetic objects as the source and objective of contemplation. The new world which the literary man was trying to enjoy had no real emblem of joy. It rather dwelled in some kind of "brutal chaos of reality," (Daiches, p.1122) that made life a mystery impossible to decode. This trend sought a substitute for the spiritual emptiness, taking the hold of such regimes as Walter Pater's "art for art's sake", or Hedonism (good in life) as a way to life.

Unlike the escapist trend in the literature of the early twentieth century, other artists and literary men conceived their role as moral agents in society. This was referred to as a traditional attitude to literature, because it relied on the intention to curb the excessiveness of the former trend beside its moralizing objectives. Although this trend was traditional in aim, it approached literary writings in a different style. First of all things this trend made an extensive use of the imagists' dry hardness and distinctiveness, which they have already inherited from the American poets, T. E. Hulme and Ezra Pound. In this way the moral agents' writings were rooted in the obvious, hard-toned and direct disinterested expressiveness. (Daiches, p.1122)

The two trends to literature mentioned above were initiated as a response to the increasing uneasiness concerning the romantic trend in literature, a trend which seemed increasingly inadaptable to the crises of the age. The "dry hardness and clarity" of the teachings of Hulme, and the condemnation of self-pity and expressiveness of T. S. Eliot, stood as ideals in the literary creation of the period. For Eliot, "the more perfect the artist, the more completely separate in him the man who suffers and the mind which creates" (Daiches, p.1123), and to avoid the artist's emotional indulgence, Eliot proposed "the objective correlative". Through this principle, the writer conveys the emotional formula of the poem, using a succession of images that continue this formula, instead of conveying the writer's personal impression about what he articulates. An outstanding example of the writer's persona detachment to his creation is "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" (1928) which echoes The Waste Land (1922) in its display of the age's sterility and absurdity. To Prufrock,

… the evening is spread out against the sky

Like a patient etherized upon a table;

…………………………………..

Streets that follow like a tedious argument

Of insidious intent

To lead you to an overwhelming question…

Oh, do not ask, "What is it?"

Let us go and make our visit. (Eliot, 1963)

Similar to this formula was the poetry of the Victorian poet, Gerard Manly Hopkins (1844-1890), whose originality stemmed from culminating the images to explode "inwardly", forcing the final meaning of the poem. This poetic "inscape", as Hopkins himself puts it, constituted the only way to reveal "the true reality of an escape", although this was believed to bring obscurity. Hopkins justifies this by stating that No doubt my poetry errs on the side of oddness, but… what strikes me most of all [is] design, pattern or what I am in the habit of calling 'inscape', … what I above all aim at in poetry. Now it is the virtue of… inscape to be distinctive and it is the vise of distinctiveness to become queer. (Daiches, p.1023)

The principles of clarity and distinctiveness which the two writers initiated in modern literature impressed many of the early twentieth-century writers who sought a poetic medium suiting the swift changes in the social and political life. Though fused with oddness, the poetic and dramatic works of W. H. Auden, Stephen Spender and Cecil Day-Lewis, and the liberal dialogues characterized the novels of Evelyn Waugh, owed much to the works of both of the above mentioned pioneers.

Another feature that was revived in the twentieth century literature, as long as it was needed to temper social and political criticism with satire and ridicule, was the music hall through its ironical possibilities. Dance, music and songs were all employed as they increasingly determined the prestige of the courts in the Europe of the Renaissance. Similarly, it was undertaken as a cultural standard of the ruling class, as is used in Auden's The Dance of Death (1933). Under these influences, the early twentieth century writers tried to mold their own symbols, images and language as they were seeking a convenient expression for the modern thought.

It is worth noting that the literary revolution in poetry and fiction founded its basis in drama too, yet with a slower pacing. This was due to the fact that drama absorbed a sentimental and melodramatic tide during the nineteenth century. Victorian dramatists tried to ignore social and political problems; except for the few like T. W. Robertson (1829-1871), who imposed some scrutiny on the contemporary social problems of the time in his two plays, Society (1865) and Caste (1867). Yet, this playwright never tried to break away from the

Victorian technical conventions. Eventually, such theatrical conditions were reflected in America, whose drama could not escape the sentimental tide until 1915. The change was initiated when some movements progressed in opening some theatres, particularly those headed by the workers' unions, who took the responsibility of employing a modern medium of expression in the theatre. (Krutch, pp.8-9)

As a first step of the development of social and political drama, the sentimental and melodramatic qualities were combined with realism and comedy to present the first American example of social melodrama. The pioneer of this fusion was Sidney Howard, whose play They Knew What They Wanted (1924), advanced a "crusade" of social writing during the 1920s. (Krutch, p.9) The second step was established in the advancement of a merely realistic trend in both literatures, the British and American. This step took place due to the work of the Norwegian playwright Henrick Ibsen (1828-1906), whose plays were translated late during the early twentieth century. George Bernard Shaw (1856-1950) followed in the footsteps of Ibsen without losing his own Shavian flavor. There are some main elements in the work of these playwrights that were acquainted with much appeal to the modern writers__ their radicalism and intellect. Both writers evoked a deep awareness of the origin of social maladies, proposing the solution in advancing a belief that man has the right to foster the revolutionary spirit when he feels obliged at a moment of an assertion of his human identity and individuality.

In this way, Ibsen, though serious drama, and Shaw, through comedy, enhanced the establishment of a new dramatic school in the treatment of the working class and bourgeoisie. Also, they based this treatment on the psychological layers in man's self as a way of commencing any solution to social problems. These two writers could really give pacing, through their realism, to the political writings of the 1930s, to be sure.

The immediate literary response to Ibsen's and Shaw's rebellious temper and intellectual open-ending technique was manifested by the writings of Harley Granville-Barker and Galsworthy in Britain, and James A. Herne in America. Herne, for instance proclaimed, in his article, "Art for Truth's Sake in Drama", the importance of free expression of man's rights, as his play Margaret Fleming in 1890 outstandingly. Barry B. Witham, in his "The Art of Good Business" (2007), that Herne's article emphasizes

humanity. It is not sufficient that the subject be attractive or beautiful, or that it does not offend. It must first of all express some large truth…. It strikes at unequal standards and unjust systems. It has supreme faith in man…. It stands for the higher development and thus the individual liberty of the human race. (Witham, p.160)

Then, Ibsen' innovation stepped its road between 1890s and 1910s, commencing a literary era, best described by John A. Lester s, "the clear emergence in English literary consciousness of a conviction that the known bearings of literary culture, whether humanist, romantic or Victorian, have been ever lost."(Bradbury, p.31). Those new "bearings of literary culture" were so much reiterated by the cause of World War I, as they became mainly rooted in finding an ideology to believe in. World War I had a devastating influence upon Europe since it was followed by a sheer feeling of disappointment for the young American and British generations. In Britain, those intellectuals who joined war driven by paradoxical motives sensed the huge gap between pre-war and post-war Britain, as they looked back to a lost paradise". Edmund, a poet who experienced war and survived it, articulated this unbridgeable gap in his collection of poems Undertones of War (1928), which expose his view of the pre-war scenes of nature as a landscape of innocent memories that were lost with the coming of the drums declaring war:

Drummers jumping from the tombs
Banged and thumped all through the town,
Past shut shops and silent rooms
While the flaming spires fell down;__
Now shut dreary thunder booms. (Blunden, "Death of Childhood Beliefs", 1928)

This unbridgeable gap yielded to a feeling of disintegration and loss, shuttering the feeling of belonging and identity. Therefore, the yearning for inherited English traits aroused an increasing adherence of urbanization and industrialism, as opposed to the pre-war rural life as the landmarks of traditional and secure English life. This attitude toward country life, as the ideal adequate living was clearly exposed in W. B. Yeats's poem "A Prayer to My Daughter" (1921), as an expression opposed to the middle class materialistic living:

And may her bridegroom bring her to a house
Where all's accustomed, ceremonious;
…………………………………….
How but in custom and ceremony
Are innocence and beauty born?
Ceremony's a name for the rich born,
And custom for the spreading laurel tree. (Yeats, Michael Robartes and the Dancer,1928)

Although America's involvement in the war was brief, yet its disillusionment resembled

Britain's. Adding to this, its disappointment was accompanied with losing faith in ideals. It is noteworthy that the American's participation in the war was marketed as some kind of a "crusade" to aid the two sources of tradition and history; some kind of a compensation to the Americans' realization of being devoid of these two aspects. Another element which contributed much to the war was the growing dominance of capitalism in the American society. This second reason was quite influential in driving the intellectuals who sought in this war a salvation from economic explosion which widened the gap between the rich and the poor.

Furthermore, stemming from the explorative and adventurous spirit inherent in the Americans, the younger generations thought o war as an opportunity to subdue this spirit. Therefore, the writers who enthusiastically joined war, already as volunteers, discovered no adventure in war; rather, it stood as a pessimistic episode in the current of civilization. The war's disastrous impact was well articulated in the works of John Dos Passos and Maxwell Anderson. The detailed description of war, that was rendered an Maxwell Anderson and Laurence Stalling's play What Price Glory? (1924), emphasized this tone of a lost civilization as the critic, Joseph Krutch puts it:

The most important thing about war is not death and destruction, but the way of life it develops; that the great conflict just passed lasted long enough and drew into itself a sufficient number of men to develop a civilization or anti-civilization by its own. (Krutch, pp.32-3)

This "anti-civilization" attitude stood as an accurate description of the post-war culture. The "possessive ideal" (Harmon, p.390) of the unrestrained capitalism survived the war bombs. Business flourished and the prosperity of the middle class was enhancing its luxurious living, making use of the most scientific and post-war cultural advancements. This resulted in the so-called "Jazz culture", depending on hectic gaiety in a attempt to conceal the undercurrent of despair, which coursed beneath and which was catering for a sense of rebellion against any stable and traditional values. Similar to the English loss of identity, the Americans lost their sense of belonging.

Consequently, the 1920s' American generation had fallen victims to a spiritual decadence as a result of both of the war and materialism. Such a notion was tackled by the American writers through different attitudes. One attitude was the deeply pessimistic, which was articulated in the plays of Elmer Rice, john Don Passos, Howard Lawson and Eugene O'Neill. These writers felt the loss of their idealism against the strong tide of materialism which they blamed on war. They articulated this pessimism in a way that mounted to the sense of circular continuous loss of man's confidence in his role in life. This notion was chanted by a group of strikers in Dos Passos' play Airway, Inc. (1928) published in 1962: "We work to eat to

get the strength to work to eat to get the strength to work…," (Passos, p.23) expressing the desperate position of the working class. This destruction of confidence culminated to the annihilation of man's position, an idea to which the character "Zero", in Elmer Rice's play The Adding Machine (1923), stood representative. In Rice's play the pessimistic annihilating tone was blended with a harsh tone of satire.*1

*   1*The Jazz generation yielded to a belief that the good values are either untenable or inapplicable; therefore, the result was bitter satire. Dramatically, this satire was either tainted with a justification of the satirical characters, as in Evelyn Waugh's novels, or excessively incorporated with hatred, as appeared in the plays of Aldous Huxley, E. E. Cunning and John Dos Passos. This latter more aggressive trend was following the footsteps of the German dramatists as Bertolt Brecht and Earnest Toller. (Gascoigne, pp. 12-17)

The mentioned pessimistic attitude constituted only one trend in the writings that followed the World War I. the other trend that aroused in response to war was the aesthetic optimistic and romantic escapist in search for a spiritual sovereignty as opposed to the spiritual barrenness of the age. This is why the 20th century literature witnessed a neo-romantic attitude. A pioneer in this trend was W. B. Yeats (1865-1939), whose "Sailing to Byzantium" (1928), substituted the decaying modern age with an everlasting and substantial beauty that is unaffected by mortal changes. Yeats's ideal vision of art did not espouse the role of art in edifying the maladies of the social life, as he believed that "poetry is an act of intervention__ that is an inclusion of cultural, political and social issues."(Lucas, pp.7-8 and Daiches, pp.1130-32) To the critics of the 1920s', this trait was a pillar on which his greatness lied, as he paved, later, the way to the new trend in the literature of the early 20th Century by writers, especially of the 1930s', who tried to overcome disillusionment and loss of faith through creating an in ideal to embrace.

During the 1920s', the literary scene witnessed an increasing curse of life corruption and spiritual blindness to an extent that the social protest became a familiar phenomenon in the drama and fiction of the period. They intensified man's striving for asserting an identity of humanity that has been extinguished with the increasing poverty and alienation, which contributed much in reducing man to a lower status. But this social assertive urge turned after the Great Depression of the thirties to a strong need to "act" rather than to be passively sufficed with identity-assertion.

The recognition of such a need for change was perceived by intellectuals of the period as a need for a revolution on all levels. They were urged to such a perception by the advent of the Russian Communism, which appeared, with its republican theory and socialist economics, as the only political doctrine that seemed to offer the needed solution against which all other doctrines seemed futile. The literary response was fused, in its turn, in compromise with the Marxist banner that "art is a weapon,"* rendering the importance of a literary work, not to its aesthetic entity, but to its being a defender of the virtuous ideologies it holds. This idea was

initiated by such men of letters who were so much attracted to the Brecht's epic theatre and his own particular concept of drama. Brecht believes that the main thing in drama is to "teach the spectator to reach a verdict."(Quoted in Bentley, p.254) His theatrical aim was so much appealing to the 1930s' writers who wanted to make the theatre a stage to establish this "verdict" and to animate the revolution they wanted. This made most of the socially-interested writers, side with communism, as the American novelist, Scott Fitzgerald once wrote; "to animate revolution, it may be necessary to work within the Communist Party."(Gascoigne, p.25).

In this respect, it is noted that the British and American theatres of the 1930s' tried enthusiastically to reflect the political situation rolling around the depression and the rise of fascism; both were held within a framework that copied Marxist ideology as their antidote. It was natural that he younger writers of the 1920s', who appeared in the literary scene after the depression, were more likely to be moved to create drama out of the distress over contemporary conditions. The elder generation of writers, such as Maxwell Anderson, S. N.Brehnman and Robert E. Sherwood, did not look in favor for the extreme and drastic changes in the political system. All of them felt and articulated the deficiency of the American political system in solving man's problems; yet, they preached no snatching attacks against the government. They were suffced with satirizing contemporary society, believing that no hope is to be delivered through any political philosophy in an age that is void of values. Adding to this, there stood the younger generation of writers who held the conviction that the political persuasion could manage to build up their ideal vision of resolvable society. (Gascoigne, p.26)

The beginnings of the political theatre took the form of agitation drama which was produced by the European workers' troupe in the 1920s. Plays presented by these troupes were designed to show the victory of the workers over their employers.in these plays, the workers are united to each other by their common sense and aim of freedom under a leadership made from them rather from any official organization. Although the political plays differed in the form of their presentation, yet, they were leagued all into one aim that is to use the theatre as a "soap- box oratory" (Warnock, p. 222), through which different doctrines are to be delivered to and preached to the audience.

Imitating the agitation plays, there appeared the melodramatic fables that were introduced on the stage, and they were based mainly on direct indictments to the dominant capitalist system; yet, without offering due explanation or debate, which may guarantee or even

arouse belief. This way of handling the political thought was an earlier twentieth-century trend of the dramatic discussion of political idealism and it was well manifested in the anti-Nazi play Judgment Day by Elmer Rice, who tried to support the play's argument through imposing violent scenes as a proof of its validity.

The other trend revealed itself in the fantastic fables for the presentation of the political doctrine, making much use of the psychological layer of characters in such a way as to earn its validity through arousing empathy on the part of its spectators. This trend was enhanced due to the inability to reveal openly harsh criticism against the political system, particularly in the conservative Britain. The representative playwright who sought this type of political discussion, was W. H. Auden, and who exposes in his Dog Beneath the Skin (1935), a fantasy resembling fairy tales.

Another trend in the political drama manifested itself in the emergence of political thought within a social framework, in an attempt to give it sufficient credibility. This trend was undertaken mostly by two American dramatists, Clifford Odets and Lillian Hellman. Though both were inclined to interpret the contemporary society under the light of political doctrine, yet, they differed in their way of interpretation. In the time that Clifford Odets sought an obvious revolutionary framework for change, Hellman tried to put her insights into a more personal non revolutionary texture.

Ultimately, it is indisputable that the pessimistic prospect of the west after the World War I left the sensitive and intelligent imaginative writers and poets' lost within a gloomy and unpromising situation of disillusionment. While some of those clever minds sought refuge in the escapist attitude maintaining some aesthetic distance with the disintegrated present, others sought some relief in the utopian prospects. The latter group clang to the socialist vision, in vogue then, to define their social role via identifying the self with that vision, a situation that resulted in a more committed involvement in propagating for the doctrine, and finding, thus, in literature an ideal channel for the political landscape.

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The Problems of Using Third Person Singular Morpheme in the English Language from Kurdish EFL Learners' Perspective

Nawzad Hassan Qadir
University of Raparin

Aram Hussein Hassan
Ministry of Education
Department of English

ABSTRACT

The present study is an attempt to investigate the omission of the third person singular morpheme done by the Kurdish EFL learners. The study of inflectional morpheme omission is crucially important in English language learning because this error requires the language teachers and researchers to observe the stages of language learning process attentively. The foreign language learners come across several difficulties in comprehending and using these morphemes that do not exist in their native language. This study gathers data from a group of junior students through a couple of instruments; they are spoken test and written production test. The central issue of this study is the error of the absence of third person inflectional morpheme in present simple tense. It aims to describe and provide an overall analysis for omitting this inflectional morpheme from the Kurdish EFL learners' perspectives.

Introduction

The process of error analysis in the second or foreign language learning has been paid a lot of attention among the applied linguists. It is often believed that committing errors in language learning is one of the consequences of building mental grammar subconsciously by language learners. Muftah and Galea (2013: 146) contend that error analysis incorporates the evaluation and analysis of these types of errors committed by the second or foreign language learners to specify the areas of difficulty for the learners to express themselves officially. Actually, these errors seem to be the main features of the learners' interlanguage which are different from the native speakers' errors because target language learners are not aware of these errors and they cannot correct the errors themselves. The errors occur at almost all the levels of language, such as phonology, morphology, and grammar (Bin Abdullah, 2013:1).

Most of the studies that are conducted in the field of language teaching investigate foreign language learners' errors in grammar and structure. In the context of language teaching, Zakariazadah and Moghaddas (2013: 53) believe that the knowledge of grammar is the most essential aspect in language because the learners' inability in using grammar properly shows their decline in the ability of expressing themselves grammatically and the lack of proficiency in the grammar of target language. Actually, grammar does not deal simply with form only; it also includes meaning and use. The three dimensions are interrelated; they are realized as syntax -the study of form, semantics -the study of meaning, and pragmatics -the study of use. Therefore, it explores the accuracy, meaningfulness and appropriateness of the structures (Larcen-Freeman, 1995: 101). That is why the language teachers should help the learners use the structures accurately, meaningfully and appropriately and these three dimensions make the students' needs explicit to learn using the structures of grammar with accuracy, meaningfulness and appropriacy.

The foreign language learners' interlanguage contains various sorts of errors, such as the omission of past tense, past participle and plural morphemes, the wrong insertion of past tense morpheme, and the omission of third person singular morpheme. Basically, the omission of third person singular inflectional morpheme in the present tense is a common problem among many English language learners. There can be found many reasons behind this omission, Hironymus (1992: 4) is of the opinion that the syntactic constraint including different types of [-s] morpheme is one of the reasons that makes the language learners not to recognize these morphemes easily, such as plural [-s], possessive [-'s], plural possessive [-s'], contractive [-s], and third person singular [-s]. There is also another syntactic reason which is the placement of adverbs between subject and verb in a sentence. The phonological constraint includes the sequence of some consonant sounds and this consonant cluster may not pertain to the learners' native language. On the other hand, mother tongue language interference seems to be another reason behind the foreign language learners' error in leaving out this inflectional morpheme (Al-Siadat, 2012: 21). The present research makes an attempt to analyze the students' errors in using the third person singular morpheme and it is expected to shed light on this issue to assist the learners to use this morpheme in a correct way.

Research Question and Hypothesis

This research is expected to answer the question "Do the Kurdish EFL learners who have some academic courses in the university come across difficulties in using third person singular morpheme?"

According to current literature, it is believed that most of the EFL learners, particularly Kurdish learners, have difficulty in using the third person singular morpheme in the spoken and the written form.

Literature Review

The Kurdish EFL learners, just like any other learners of the world, come across many difficulties in foreign language learning. One difficulty that the Kurdish EFL learners face is the omission of the third person singular [-s] morpheme in the present simple tense. The Kurdish learners know that this morpheme occurs in the present simple tense, but the problem is that they omit it as they speak and write. Leech (2006: 94) defines this [-s] as a kind of morpheme that is attached to the simple form of the verb at the present simple tense when the subject is the third person singular. It includes the most widely used form of verb phrase in English because it occurs in many cases and occasions.

Many linguistic researches have been conducted in this field. According to Hironymus (1992: 3), the third person singular morpheme is regarded as an inevitable concept for the English language learners. Despite the fact that many practical and useful games, recordings and exercises have been presented to the Spanish language learners, they still have problems in using this morpheme [-s]. However, both the teachers and students agree that the third person [-s] is easy, the rule is simple, but the learners still make mistakes. To him, there are some constraints causing to have these problems, they include the syntactic constraints such as, the possessive [-'s], plural [-s], contracted [-'s], and the third person singular [-s]. Thus, even if it is simple and rule bound, it seems difficult to be recognized. The phonological constraints include the sequence of consonants in the final position, this type of clustering may not exist in the native language of the language learners, that is why the third person [-s] is omitted.

In his research (1993: 38), Villanueva has dealt with the acquisition of the third person morpheme by the Spanish FL learners. He has described the sentences written in present simple with and without the third person [-s] and the overgeneralization of this morpheme with the other persons.

1- *Sue speak very fluently.

2-Sue advices her child to depend on himself.

3- *The students promises to be present on time.

He has also shown the difference between the spoken and the written form of the third person [-s]. To carry out his research, the learners of four different levels have been examined and

twenty students have been selected out of the different levels. He saw that the language learning does not proceed in a proper way because some learners are ahead of the others in all the levels and they can use the third person morpheme correctly whereas the others use it incorrectly. He concludes that the incorrect forms of the speaking are more than the incorrect forms of writing; especially in level four there exist slight incorrect forms of the written form.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 201) believe that as the EFL learners are exposed to a foreign language, they make some grammatical mistakes in many English speaking environments. One problem is the use of third person singular [-s] inflection in the levels of language learning specially the initial level. Because this [-s] carries the tense and agreement, the absence of this morpheme causes to have ungrammaticality. They state that ESL\EFL teachers know that the learners know and understand the third person singular morpheme [-s] ending the verb, they produce it as they write, but they omit it as they speak. The reason is that it is the only inflection that is required in the present simple tense. There is also a phonological factor that the sound system of the learner does not allow the final [-s] inflection, sometimes it is also omitted because of its low frequency in the learner's speech.

Thornbury (1999: 54) has focused on the pedagogical aspect of the present simple [-s] and he believes that the reason of this problem is the lack of practice and the best way for the improvement of this problem is the eliciting sentence examples on the part of the learner in present tense. The EFL teachers have to ask questions in present simple so that the answer can incorporate the third person singular [-s]. Then the teacher has to ask the students to write a similar list of sentences and verbs including this morpheme and he has to monitor the sentence writing and provide the vocabulary wherever needed. Finally the individual students should read the sentences and the teacher should provide improvement. Al-Saidat (2013: 23) states that the omission of the third person singular [-s] at the end of the verbs by the Arab EFL learners is the result of the insertion of adverbial adjuncts between the subject and the verb. This separates the subject from its verb that is why the third person [-s] is lost, as in:

4- *My father always tell me to be a doctor.

   This sentence lacks the subject and verb agreement feature which is the absence of third person [-s], this leads to ungrammaticality. Sometimes the subject is realized as a clause, and it disperses from the verb, so the inflectional morpheme is omitted, as in:

5-*That Tom answered the questions correctly please his friends.

These studies imply that there are so many reasons behind the omission of third person

singular morpheme [-s] in present simple tense, they include the syntactic, phonological and lack of practice problems. These researches have been conducted among in Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, and Iranian EFL learners; to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no research has been conducted among the Kurdish EFL learners.

Methodology

This section will describe the analysis and result which are collected through the investigation of this research; furthermore, this methodology will be helpful for English teachers to observe the issue of using and teaching third person singular [-s] in spoken and written forms of the English language to the Kurdish EFL learners.

Instructional Setting

This action research is conducted in the department of English – Faculty of Education\ University of Raparin \ Qalladze Campus, which is a public university in Kurdistan-Iraq. More specifically, this university follows a four year academic curriculum and the classes meet for five hours daily, but Friday and Saturday. Interestingly, the students who took part in this research were all Kurdish native speakers from different cities of Kurdistan-Iraq; they were all in the morning class. The classes are credit, meaning that the students were enrolled to earn a university credit for the completion of the four year courses.

Participants

The students who participated in the study come from different English proficiency levels, starting from pre-intermediate to pre- advanced. They were 10 participants in each group. The students' age in both groups varies approximately between 23 and 30, some of the students are married, but majority are single. In reality, they are all studying in this university to learn and improve their English language skills, but their main aim is to get a bachelor degree in the English language and literature. They are in the hope of being professional school teachers in the future.

Instruments

As an instrument of this experiment, two tests have been used in this research; they are written test and spoken test together in a paper sheet which includes some structured questions. (See Appendix A)

Treatments

Actually two types of treatment have been used in this research (see Appendix B); the first

type was based on oral test and the second type was based on written test. The researchers had two groups of third year students at the University of Raparin. Actually, it was wonderful to give our students the treatment, so they put it into practice in our research. In brief, the researchers used the treatment (using third person singular -s) as pre-test and post-test.

Procedures

After the pre-test was created which was an oral test with 10 questions, it was administered person to person with the students in 10 minutes. Then, the post- test was provided with the same question in the oral test and similarly gave the students a period of 20 minutes. As a general rule, the students had to word alone to answer the questions individually on a paper sheet, and the students' identities were kept anonymously; so their names were not prevailed in the research, but on their answer sheet paper and their oral recorded file. In fact, the students were selected randomly depending on their own choice.

Data Analysis

Since there were two groups of participants that were independent variables given some structured questions, two independent tests have been used, oral (pre-test) and written (post-test) so as to show whether the mean score of both tests between the two groups is significantly different or not. For this statistical analysis, the researchers consulted two statistical advisors; they compared the scores to show the difference. Then, they used the percentage of each group's scores to make the results understandable as well.

Results

Obviously, this section shows the answer for the research questions (see Appendix A3), and it also confirms the fact that the research hypothesis happened to be correct. By having a look at the statistical results of each group, we get a clear sense that the students who were in group A did significantly better than the students in group B. In both independent pre and post tests, there is a significant difference in scores between both groups showing the fact that group A did significantly better than group B. Despite the fact that both groups tried both tests and group A did better than group B, half of the students in both groups had difficulty in using third person singular [– s]. So, the results gaining from this research confirm that the EFL Kurdish students face difficulty in using the third person singular [–s] and they need more practice to solve this problem.

Discussion

Basically, two tests have been used in this research and it was not difficult to collect the

data; however, it took a long time to reach the results. As it was mentioned in the previous section, there were some volunteer students in our university at the department of English to perform the tests. After reaching the results, there was a significant difference between the two groups. Typically, there could be various reasons for that. One is that the students were randomly selected to perform both tests and they were randomly put into two groups. Thus, most of the students with upper proficiency level of English were in one of the groups. The other reason is that the EFL Kurdish students do not have the third person singular morpheme in their native language, but some of these students were aware of this morpheme, that is why some of them made this significant difference.

Appendix A1 (Group A)

Group A	Oral Test	Written Test	Change in Score	Difference in Score for Oral test from Mean squared	Difference in Score for Written test from Mean squared
Student A1	6.5	8.5	2	1	0.09
Student A2	7	9	2	0.25	0.04
Student A3	6	8.5	2.5	2.25	0.09
Student A4	5.5	9	3.5	4	0.04
Student A5	9	9.5	0.5	2.25	0.49
Student A6	9.5	8.5	1	4	0.09
Student A7	8	7.5	0.5	0.25	1.69
Student A8	8.5	9	0.5	1	0.04
Student A9	7.5	8.5	1	0	0.04
Student A10	7.5	10	2.5	0	1.44
Mean	7.5	8.8			
Total # of Students	10	10			
Standard Derivation for Oral Test				1.7	
Standard Derivation for Written Test					0.45

Appendix A2 (Group B)

Group B	Oral Test	Written Test	Change in Score	Difference in Score for Oral test from Mean squared	Difference in Score for Written test from Mean squared
Student B1	7	7.5	0.5	0.81	0.9025
Student B2	7.5	8.5	1	0.16	0.0025
Student B3	9	9.5	0.5	1.21	1.1025
Student B4	9	10	1	1.21	2.402
Student B5	7.5	9.5	2	0.16	1.1025
Student B6	6.5	9	2.5	1.96	0.3025
Student B7	6	3	3	3.61	29.7025
Student B8	7.5	8.5	1	0.16	0.0025
Student B9	9.5	9	0.5	2.56	0.3025
Student B10	9.5	10	0.5	2.56	2.4025
Mean	7.9	8.45			
Total # of Students	10	10			
Standard Derivation for Oral Test				1.6	
Standard Derivation for Written Test					4.25

Appendix A3 (Percentage Difference between Pre-test and Post test in Both Groups)

	Group A	Group B
Percentage of Pre-test Score (oral)	% 75	% 79
Percentage of Post-test Score (written)	% 88	% 84.5
Score Difference Between Treatment Method	% 13	% 5.5

Conclusion:

The description and analysis of the data that were collected from two groups of university students have indicated that Kurdish EFL learners have a great difficulty in using the third person singular morpheme [-s] of the present simple tense. The result of the two tests

shows that 85 % of the Kurdish learners have committed errors in the written test, but 100 % of them have committed errors in the spoken test. It seems that Kurdish learners have more problems in the oral test rather than the written test. It can be apparently seen that the learners have not mastered the English grammar because there seems to be an inherent tendency of the Kurdish EFL learners to violate subject and verb concord at the early stages of learning. Possibly, many factors, such as Kurdish language interference, overgeneralization, and the lack of practice have contributed in committing these errors in the English language.

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پوختەی تویژینەوە

ئەم تویژینەوە یە کە لە ژێر ناوونیشانی " گرفتی فێرخوازانی کورد لە کاتی بەکارهێنانی مۆڕفیمی کەسی سێیەمی تاك لە زمانی ئینگلیزی" دایە, هەوڵدانیێك بۆ لێکۆڵینەوە لە قرتاندنەوە مۆڕفیمی کەسی سێیەمی تاك   لەلایەن فێرخوازانی کوردەوە فێرخوازان لەکاتی فێربوونی زمانی بیانی دا [S-]لەکاتی فێربوونی زمانی ئینگلیزی دا. پرۆسەی شیکردنەوەی هەڵەکانی گرنگیەکی زۆری پێدەدرێت چونکە ئەو هەڵانە نیشانەی سەرەکی ئەو زمانەن کە تایبەتە بە فێرخوازان, ئەوەش جیاوازە لە سروشتی ئەو زمانەی کە فێرخواز فێری دەبێت. لێکۆڵینەوە لە قرتاندنی مۆڕفیمە ڕێزمانیەکان سەرنجی زۆری پێدەدرێت لە زمانی ئینگلیزی دا, چونکە ئەو هەڵانە وا لە مامۆستایان و تویژەرەوەکانی بواری زمانەوانی دەکەن کەچاودێری وردی قۆناغە یەك بە دوای یەکەکانی فێربوونی زمانەکە بکەن. فێرخوازانی زمانی بیانی توشی کۆمەڵێك گرفتی تێگەیشتن و بەکارهێنانی ئەو مۆڕفیمانە دەبن کەلەزمانی دایك دا بوونیان نیە. لەبەر ئەوە بۆ ئەو تویژینەوەیە, زانیاری لە بەشیێك لە فێرخوازانی قۆناغی سێیەمی بەشی زمانی ئینگلیزی – زانکۆی ڕاپەڕین وەرگیراوە لە ڕیگەی دوو تاقیکردنەوەی جیاوازەوە, کە تاقیکردنەوەی زارەکی و نووسین لە خۆ دەگرێت. گرفتی تویژینەوەکەش ئەوەیە کە زۆربەی فێرخوازانی کورد مۆڕفیمی بەندی کەسی سێیەمی تاکی کاتی ڕانەبردووی سادەی زمانی ئینگلیزی لە نووسین و قسەکردندا دەقرتێنن. ئامانجی ئەم تویژینەوەش بریتیە شیکردنەوەیەکی گشتی بۆ قرتاندنی ئەو جۆرە مۆڕفیمە لەلایەن فێرخوازانی کوردەوە لەکاتی فێربوونی زمانی ئینگلیزی داو دەرخستنی ئەو □ هۆکارانەی کە دەبنە هۆی قرتاندنی ئەو مۆڕفیمە.

□ملخص البحث

هذا البحث الذي بعنوان (مشكلة دراسي الكرد أثناء استعمال الضمير الغائب في اللغة الإنجليزية)، محاولة لبحث في حذف الضمير من قبل دارسي الكرد أثناء تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. عملية تحليل أخطاء الدارسين أثناء تعلم اللغة الإجنبية، تهتمُ   [S-]الغائب المفرد كثيراً في مجال اللغوية التطبيقية، لأن هذه الأخطاء علامة رئيسة للغة التي خاصة بالدارس، وهذه تختلف من طبيعة اللغة التي □يتحلمهاالطالب.

البحث في حذف الضمائر القواعدية، تهتمُ كثراً في اللغة الإنجليزية لأن هذه الأخطاء تجعل الأساتذة والباحثون في مجال اللغة أن يراعو بدقة، مراحل متتالية لتعلم اللغة. يتعرض متعلمي اللغة الأجنبية لمجموعة المشاكل من فهم واستعمال الضمائر التي غير موجودة في لغة الأم، لذلك أخذت المعلومات من طلاب المرحلة الثالثة في قسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة رابرين لكتابة هذا البحث، وذلك عن طريق اختبارين مختلفين، الذي يتضمن الاختبارَي الشفوي والتحريري. إنَ مشكلة هذا البحث هي أن معظم دارسي الكرد يحذفون الضمير الغائب في زمن الفعل المضارع البسيط أثناء الكلام والكتابة. والهدف من هذا البحث هو التحليل العام لحذف هذا النوع من المورفيم من قبل دارسي الكرد أثناء تعليم اللغة، والكشف أسبابه قبل هذا الحذف.

Teachers and Students Attitudes towards Conversation Courses

Prof Maysaa Rasheed Al-Rubai
University of Baghdad
Entesar Abbass Al-Gburi
School Teacher/Ministry of Education

ABSTRACT

Conversation course is considered to be an enigma in language teaching. It may help students improve their oral skills, i.e. to listen attentively, speak and communicate more confidently and clearly. This research explores teachers and students attitudes towards conversation courses. To achieve the aim of this research, the researchers adopted two questionnaires for teachers and students; each one of them consists of 25 items. Alpha Cronbach's formula was used for both types in order to ensure reliability. For teachers' questionnaire, it was found out that the reliability value was 0.705. For students' questionnaire, it was found out that the reliability value was 0.662. In order to find out whether there is any positive or negative attitudes towards conversation courses, teachers from different universities have been chosen as well as third year female college students. One sample t-test formula is used; it is found that the calculated t-value of teachers' attitudes is 48.339 whereas of students' attitudes is 58.217 which both are higher than the tabulated value 2.000. At the end, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies are put forward.

ميول التدريسسين و الطلاب تجاه مادة الحادثة

تعتبر مادة المحادثة لغزا في مجال التدريس. حيث تساعد الطلبة من تطوير مهارة الكلام، أي أن يستمع بانتباه، والتحدث والتواصل بثقة أكبر وبشكل واضح. يهدف هذا البحث الى معرفة ميول التدريسسين والطلاب تجاه مادة المحادثة. و لتحقيق هدف الدراسة اعتمدت الباحثتين استبانتين احدهما للتدريسسين واخرى للطالبات، كل منهما يحتوي على ٥٢ فقرة. من اجل ايجاد الثبات ثم استخدام معادلة الفاكرونباخ حيث وجد قيمة ثبات استبانة التدريسين ٥٠٧,٠ وقيمة ثبات استبانة الطالبات ٢٦٦,٠ و من اجل ايجاد الميول السلبية والايجابية، تم اختيار اساتذة من عدة جامعات مع الطالبات الاناث في الكلية للمرحلةالثالثة. استخدم الاختبار التائي لعينة مستقلة واحده حيث جد بأن القيمة التائية المحسوبة هي ٩٣٣,٨٤ بالنسبة للتدريسسين و ٧١٢,٨٥ للطالبات حيث تبين انها اكبر من القيمة الجدولية عند ٢,٠٠٠ و هذا يدل على أن ميول كل من التدريسيين و الطالبات عالية. وفي النهاية، تم وضع الخاتمة والتوصيات والمقترحات لدراسات اخرى.

Section One: Introduction

1.1 Problem of the study and its significance:

English language has an extremely significant role in cross-cultural communication, in which it presents the most important channel of communication in real life speaking. Communication can be performed in face to face interaction (speaking) or in other forms of verbal exchange (Widdowson, 1978:58). This is supported by Al-Hamash and Younis (1980:6) who claim that man invented other means of communication, such as signals, flags, bodily gestures, facial expressions, writing symbols…etc.

Speaking skill is considered to be one of the difficult aspects of EFL learning because most of EFL students have received the formal traditional teaching that enables them to have enough opportunities to speak and use English at their classes. For this, college students can be seen as poor and hesitant ones when they speak and participate at conversation classes (Al-Shimmary, 2003:2).

Traditionally, conversation subject is taught without taking into consideration students need and interest towards the topic. For this, they may have no relevant idea, no motivation and no desire to speak about it (Scrivener, as cited in Hedge :2008,261). Students' problem can be seen in reviewing a complex conversation within very limited time and identifying, interpreting structures, processing and suggesting alternative procedures for improvement. Adopting new topics or changing the direction need the ability to turn-take in a conversation, and to make lengthy and complex contributions as appropriate .Thus, instructors must help their student to be confident enough to develop their grammar, vocabularies, functional language and communicative skills knowledge as well as fluency (ibid.).

Another problem face EFL learners is that students cannot match their experiences (what they know or learn at conversation courses) with that native speakers have in a real life situation (Chastain, 1988:279). This is supported by Hedge (2008:262) who states that native speakers' dialogues can provide FL students with insights about what it is involved in terms of managing interaction. There are many skills relating to opening and closing conversations, sharing of time, taking turns and contributing both shorter and longer turns as appropriate …etc. Any lack of these terms breaks down communication.

Ur (1996:121) summarized problems that faced by students into the following points:

1-   Students are worried and inhibited about saying things in a foreign language in the classroom because of their fear of criticism or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts.

2-   Students have no motive to express themselves, i.e., the guilty feeling that they should be speaking.

3-   Low or uneven participation, this means that the tendency of some students to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.

4-   Students tend to share mother tongue because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a target language and because they feel less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue.

Therefore, classroom will present the only place where students have opportunities to listen and speak English .For this, teachers should choose topics that help to build positive stu

dents' attitudes, especially in the first few lectures in conversation courses. Students will feel confident and perform successfully in the class (Hedge, 2008:262).

1.2 Aim of the study:

This study aims at empirically investigating teachers and fourth year college students' attitudes towards conversation courses.

1.4 Limits of the study:

The present study is limited to fourth year female students (morning class at department of English / College of Education for Women during the academic year (2013 – 2014).

1.5 Definition of Basic Terms:

1.5.1 Conversation

Hartman and Stork (1976:54) defines conversation as "a spoken language used between at least two speakers. As opposed to written language and deliberate prose, conversation is often spontaneous speech (and sign language), and such has not been subjected to large-scale and detailed analysis in linguistics.

Richards and Renandya (2002:212) define conversations as "a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic". That is to say, the speaker and listener can ask questions, express disagreement, all of which need a command of particular language features and which can be learnt. They can engage participants in the process of negotiation collaboratively (ibid.). Conversation class lessons can be on " one or more of the language skills or fully integrated practice sessions such as: formal, polite, interviews, presentations, face-to-face and everyday conversations" (English Language Conversation Lessons and Classes, 2016:int.). Conversation classes are ranged from "quasi-communicative drilling to free, open, and sometimes agenda-less discussions among students" (Brown, 2000:281).

1.5.2 Attitudes:

An attitude is a "relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols"(Hogg and Vaughan, 2005:150).

Johnson and Johnson (1999:14) assume that attitudes can be explored in relation to language learning range from anxiety about the language and the learning situation, speakers attitudes towards L2 learning, the country in which it is spoken, the classroom, the teacher, other learners, the nature of language learning, particular elements in the learning activities, tests, and beliefs about learning in general.

Section Two: Theoretical Background

2.1 Speaking Skill:

Speaking can be seen as a physically situated face to face interaction or the physical context and use of a number of physical signals to indicate our attention or our attitude towards the interaction or towards what is being said (Bygate, as cited in Carter and Nunan, 2001:16).

In traditional methodologies, speaking has usually meant repeating after the teacher, memorizing a dialogue, or responding to drills, all of which reflect the sentence-based view of proficiency prevailing in the audio-lingual and other drill-based or repetition based methodologies of the 1970s (Richards, 2008 :2).

Recently, conversing is seen as the most common type of speaking, i.e., speaking a forging language involves the oral production of many different genres. Reciting poetry, participating in class, engaging in class discussion, and leaving message on answering machines are all different types of speaking (Bailey as cited in Nunan, 2003:62). Carter and Nunan (2001:17) claim that getting speakers of EFL focus on accuracy is likely to encourage a less exploratory or fluent use of the language. Helping them to develop fluency might encourage greater use of formulaic chunks of language, discouraging attention to accuracy and reducing speakers' capacity for processing complex language.

This is supported by Chastain (1988:270) who claims that a heavy emphasis should be based on speaking a language more than knowing the linguistics components of a message, and on developing language skills more than grammatical comprehension and vocabulary memorization. This means students need to perceive the knowledge of how natives use the language in different contexts (Richards and Renandya ,2002:204). But, speaking skill is difficult to learn by foreign students because it requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social context. The important factors that affect students learning to speak successfully are emotions, self–esteem, attitudes and motivation. Speaking skill has four processes: conceptualization which concerned with planning the massage content, help students to self- correct for expression, grammar, and pronunciation. Formulation which means that students find more words and phrases to express meaning putting them in appropriate grammatical rules. Articulation which refers to the motor control of the articulator organs, such as lips, tongues, teeth, alveolar and breathes. Finally, self –monitoring which means the ability to identify and self – correct mistakes (ibid:17).

2.2 Conversation

According to Becker-Mrotzek and Meier (1999: 19 as cited in Rickheit and Strohner, 2008: 315), conversation presents "verbal and non-verbal human acts aimed at mutual

understanding. Here must be understood in the broad sense of establishing common meanings for practical goals".

A normal conversation could follow these rules:

1.   usually only one speaker speaks at a time;

2.   the speakers change;

3.   the length of the any contribution varies;

4.   there are techniques for allowing the other party or parties to speak; and

5.   neither the content nor the amount of what we say is specified in advance

(Nolasco and Arthur, 2000: 7).

Richards (1980, as cited in Chastain, 1988:275) argues that conversation is more than exchange information; it involves discussing, lecturing, debating and so on. In other words, there are two or more participants involving in a joint communicative effort to ensure that the speaker creates a message that the listener can comprehend. In foreign classes, conversation is understood by some students as a list of continual questions and answers. However, in some well-known books, the following authors give different views on conversation:

First, Bailey (2005: 42) claims that conversation is "one of the most basic and pervasive forms of human interaction". Topics, for example, generally bear very little resemblance to authentic native-speaker conversation because they exclude some of the most vital grammatical, pragmatic and sociolinguistic features of everyday spoken English. Richards (2008:20) supports this by saying when choosing topics for conversational classes, it is necessary to recognize the different functions speaking performs in every day communication and the different purposes for which our students need speaking skills.

Second, Celce-Murcia (2014:110) assumes that there are four strategies for building speaking skill: get student talking through positive feedback, maintain conversational parity through turn-taking, ask leading questions (dealing with sentence-level problems, global discourse, etc.) and "link and extend" through verbal linkages (for example, echo student's own talk) and idea linkages (which incorporate student's ideas into the instructional dialogue, as when teachers summarize or paraphrase them). Moreover, conversation is really an argument where opinions clash with each other, and the best man wins, a good conversation employs a kind of parallel thinking where ideas are laid down alongside each other, without interaction between the contributions. There is no clash, no dispute, and no true/false judgment.

Unfortunately, conversational texts become associated with phrase book type English, focusing largely of transactional exchange such as service encounter, under the heading of "every day conversation" (Thornbury and Slade, 2006:250).

In conversation class context, the role of teacher is always encouraging students to engage in classroom activities, and their participation is often evaluated according to the amount and quality of their talk . Moreover, teachers must provide means of developing conversation skills, they must be aware of different media of communication to meet the students' individual differences. (Arulsamy and Zayapragassarazan ,2011:26)

2.3 Conversation course

The first step in designing any course is to identify learners' needs. This means setting the goals and objectives first makes conversation course comprehensive. Teaching conversation does not mean teaching grammar or teaching vocabulary, it is an organized system in term of specific conversational micro skills and selection of conversational topics (Thornbury, 2005:117).

Celce-Murcia (2014:116) claims that conversation courses should involve students in creating course materials and if this happen, students will improve attitudes, motivation, and self- confidence. EFL conversation courses may not stress speaking skills or may view them as an avenue to grammatical accuracy. Teachers who are non-native speakers of English may not be fully competent or confident in speaking and conversational skills.

Thornbury (2005:117) states that the second step is to decide on pedagogical tasks, this means designing, developing, modifying, or adopting communicative classroom tasks (see table 1).

Table (1) The content for a book on teaching conversation

Part one	Conversation skills
Unit 1	Conversation and Cooperation
Unit 2	Expanding what you say
Unit 3	Supporting what you say
Unit 4	Summarizing to show understanding
Unit 5	Going back to an earlier point
Unit 6	Vague language
Part 2	**Conversation topics**
Introduction	
Unit 1	Talking about children
Unit 2	Talking about etiquette
Unit 3	Talking about toys and games
Unit 4	Talking about a special occasion
Unit 5	Talking about age
Unit 6	Talking about marriage
Unit 7	Talking about friends
Unit 8	Talking about superstitions

He also explains that communicative activities can be characterized by the following points:

1-   motivation of the task or activity to achieve the aim of using the language.

2-   activity happens in real time.

3-   achieving the aim requires the participants interact, listen as well as speak.

4-   because of the spontaneous and jointly constructed nature of the interaction, the aim is not 100% predictable.

5-   there is no restriction on language usage.   (Ibid:79-80)

Nunan(2005:238) presents in table(2) below another example in terms of communicative goals for language proficiency.

Broad Goals	Specific Goals
Communication by participating in activities organized around use of the target language, students will acquire communication skills in the target language, in order to widen their networks of interpersonal relations, having direct access to information in the target language and use their language skills for study, vocational and leisure-based purposes.	To be able to use the target language to: 1-established and maintain relationships and discuss topics of interest.
	2-participate in social interaction related to solving problems, making decisions with others and public information.
	3-obtained information by searching for specific details in a spoken or written text and then process and use the information obtained.
	4-obtain information by listening or reading a spoken or written text as a whole, and then process and use the information obtained.
	5-give information in spoken or written form, e.g., gives a talk; write an essay, or a set of instructions.
	6-listen to, read or view, and respond personally to stimulate, e. g., a story, film, play song, poem, picture.

Students develop conversational competence if they choose conversational topics, this offer a challenge to the teachers because it is difficult to plan conversation topics as a casual conversation. Richards et.al (1985:49) explains that communicative competence involves:

1-   knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary

2-   knowledge of the rules of speaking

3-   knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts

4-   knowing how to use language appropriately

Participation in conversation presents the important factor for acquiring the English language; it is the best way to obtain input. Hence, it is impossible to acquire language without participating in conversation (Krashen1982:61).

Input ⟶ language Acquisition ⟶ output
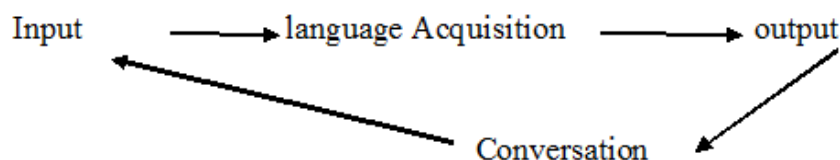
Conversation

Diagram 1 (knowing how to use language appropriately)

Encouraging learners to participate in conversations help to solve problems that arise in the process of communication. Thus, these activities can help learners develop the core vocabulary they need for effective communication. Therefore, these activities encourage learners to exploit possibilities of choice (Hinkel, 2005:490).

Thorbury and Slade (2006:256) conclude that to be able to do things with the language requires more than knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language (language usage) but also requires knowing how to put this knowledge to communicative use.

2.3 Conversation Course Teaching:

Conversation courses represent both theoretical and practical anxiety for researchers and teachers participation in foreign language pedagogy. As with theories of foreign language acquisition, pedagogy has explained how students participate in classroom activities using several teaching methods. However, conversation needs extra communication partners, i.e., foreign learners are able to role play, but are not often able to re-create the anxiety into unfamiliar face or peer. For this, the matter of teaching speaking skill is seen as an abroad issue, and there are many aspects to acquire conversation proficiency, i.e., to develop fluency in language use. Fluency is the natural language use occurs when a speaker is involved in meaningful interaction, comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his/her communicative competence.   Fluency is developed by creating classroom activities in which students must negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and work to avoid communication breakdowns (Brown, 2007:332).

Cohen and Macaro(2007:208) argue that the use of communication strategies was defined as a key interlanguage process. The interactional view of communication strategies related to interaction process between language learners and their interlocutors and by one or both parts.

Horwitz (2008:95) also gives another claim that it is not easy to simulate authentic conversation in the classroom and conversational participants have real goals for their

interactions. Teachers usually initiate classroom conversation by asking a question related to the day's course topic. Students are supposed to answer the question by relating some piece of information that was contained in the day's reading assignment. The teacher already knows the answers to the question and only asking it to find out if students know the answer or even more artificially to find out if students did the assigned reading.

Brown (2000:288) presents two main approaches for teaching conversation:

a. Direct Approach:

Direct approach means planning conversation course around specific micro skills, strategies, and processes are engaged in fluent conversational rules and strategies. That is to say, designing conversation program may give students specific micro skills and strategies required for fluent conversation by conversation openings, turn-taking, interrupting, topic shift, conversation closings, and so on. Before closing a conversation, speakers typically use a sequence of pre-closing formulas as a preparation for leaving (Brown,2007:332).

Burns and Seidlhofer as cited by Schmitt(2012:197) states that conversation is a part of daily life situation ,students may be expected to participate in speaking activities to reproduce all the aspects of their daily life in sets as similar as possible to real contexts in order to carry out various social activities .Thus, students will be encouraged to use better learning strategies which are supported by Brookfield (2012:201) who argues that it is better to start conversation by asking students "what would the topic problems look like?" By this , the teacher jump-starters the process by suggesting switch in how the topic framed and inviting students to take this new framing wherever it seems to go. Teachers should build positive attitudes to respond well with the topic and to help students feel comfortable with their understanding of the material.

b. Indirect approach

According to indirect approach, there is no actual teaching of conversation, i.e., students' acquire conversational competence by engaging in meaningful tasks. The focus is on using the language to complete a task rather than on practicing it.

An example of conversations: group of students of mixed language ability carry out a role play in which they have to adopt specified roles and personalities provided for them on cue cards. These roles involve drivers, witnesses, and the police at a collision between two cars. The language is entirely improvised by students, though they are heavily constrained by specified situations and characters. The teacher and the student acts out a dialogue in which a customer returns a faulty object she has purchased to a department store. The clerk asks what problem and promises to get a refund for the customer or to replace the item?

In groups, students may try to recreate the dialogue using language items of their choice. They are asked to recreate what happened preserving the meaning but not necessarily the exact language. Later, they act out their dialogues in front of the class (Richards, 1990:76). Therefore, Students are practicing dialogues contain examples of falling intonation in Wh-questions. The class is organized in groups of two, three students practicing the dialogue, in which the third playing the role of monitor. The monitor checks that the others are using the correct intonation pattern and corrects them where necessary.

Teachers are recommended to focus on fluency and accuracy. Accuracy work can come before or after fluency work. For example, based on students' performance on a fluency task, the teacher could assign accuracy work to deal with grammatical or pronunciation problems that the teacher observe while students are carrying out the task.

An issue that arises with fluency work is to develop fluency at the expense of accuracy. This often involves a heavy dependence on vocabulary and communication strategies, and there is a little motivation to use accurate grammar or pronunciation. Thus, fluency work requires extra attention on the part of the teacher in terms of preparing students for a fluency task, or follow-up activities that provide feedback on language use (Richards, 2006:14).

Scrivener (1994:60) summarizes some points that help to make teaching conversation work effectively:

1.   Frame the activity in a way that helps to find ways to lead in at the beginning and to close at the end.

2.   Giving a limited time before speaking activity begins to think about the topic.

3.   A brief role-cards can help to speak freely in else's character than in your own and to create a positive attitudes towards conversation (see table 3).

Table (3) An example about role cards

You are the chairman of this company. You are very concerned that the marketing division is spending too much money on TV advertising. In this meeting you want to hear their reasons for the high budget and, if necessary, agree tighter spending limits.	You are a member of the Green Guard. You organization wants to ban hang-gliding on the west Manor Hills because it disturbs the wildlife. Prepare some evidence that you can show at the public meeting in order to persuade people there to vote against hang – gliding.

Adopted from (Learning Teaching: A guidebook for English Language Teacher: p.60)

4.   The challenge is interesting, and more realistic to try a specific topic rather than general topic.

5.   Pyramid discussion is an organized conversational technique that works well with simple problem-based discussions. This technique gives students a chance to rehearse their arguments in smaller groups before facing the whole class.

6.   Different variations of seating and standing arrangements can be a useful technique helps students to move around easily and talk others.

Thornbury (2005:105) has noticed that conversation lesson be effective if the students are ready for it because learning language process evolves out of carry on conversation and how to communicate, so conversation in a foreign language is not a goal of language learning but it is the media where learning occurs. Hedge (2008:267) supports this by saying that students need relevant cultural competence in order to understand what appropriate response is. Therefore, gestures are a rich input in order to make students comprehend and communicate better. They help to "expand their understanding of FL acquisition, both as a product and as a process.

2.4 Managing interaction:

Classroom interaction can be described as the process in which students are exposed to the target language and how appropriate linguistics selections become available for students to use in an interactive way in the classroom. Generally, classroom interaction refers to any interaction which takes place between the teacher and students and among students themselves (Chastain, 1988:274).

The difficulty that speakers encounter in attempting to speak is not the multiplicity of sounds, words, phrases and discourse forms characterized any language but the interactive nature of most communication. Conversations are collaborative as participants who can engage in a process of negotiation of meaning (Brown, 2007:324).That is to say, when the teacher implements techniques in interactive classroom she/he must be sure that students can deal with both interactional and transactional dialogues that enable them converse with a total stranger as well as someone with whom they are quite familiar (ibid: p.326).

Hadeley (2003:283) adds that accuracy does not mean classroom environment where grammar rules reign supreme and correction is rapidly imposed. Rather, proficiency oriented classroom is one in which students have ample opportunities to use the language creatively and obtain appropriate feedback with which they can progressively build and refine their interlanguage to approximate the target language norm.   There are a number of rules that govern normal interactions and the relationship between the participations:

- **Opening and closing**

Hedge (2008:267) shows that opening is so important, lead to further conversation by giving a statement followed by response or a question. While closing is more important that provides students with natural models. In other words, they should be taught how to give signal as a pre-closing step before the actual closing.

- **Taking turns**

Thornbury (2005:8) states that turn-taking conversation class is very important in understanding students' participation. The turn-taking within classroom interaction means that the current speaker selects the next speaker or the next speaker self-selects. The skills that related to turn-taking are:1- recognizing a moment to get a turn, 2- understanding the fact that you want to speak, 3- recognizing when other students are signaling their wish to speak, 4- it is very important to understand the fact that you are listening. Also, Hedge (2008:269) adds that taking a turn fits the flow of the conversation, pick up on what has been said and select the language to express it. Students need to acquire the politeness phrases which acceptable in English conversation. Brown(2014:220) showed that unfortunately, students who teach English as a foreign language fail to use suitable signals to communicate with each other and with teacher; therefore, turn-taking requires tuned perception to be effective conversationalists.

- **Topic management**

Moving from one topic to another is the ultimate aspect of managing interaction. In order to engage students effectively in conversations, teachers should choose topics that are appropriate with students need and interests (ibid, p.270)

2.5 Interactive Conversational techniques:

EFL conversation courses need to embody some techniques and strategies since learners will have to speak the target language to interact with each other in real life as well as in classroom

- **Information gap:**

 It is a useful activity in which partners in a pair or group possessing information which the other partners do not have and this information must be shared by partners in the target language. This technique helps to engage in more negotiation of meaning where the partners or pairs would come to a stop with a task unless they could understand each other (Hedge, 2008:81).

- **Jigsaw activities:**

Baily as cited by Nunan(2003,56) states that this technique is considered as the multidirectional information gap. Each partner in a group has information that other partners need. For

example, one partner describes his family to the other partner especially if they don't know each other. Johnson and Johnson(1998:178) informs that according to jigsaw technique, the class is divided into subgroups and each group has a part of information concerning to the same topic . The groups must fit the pieces together to complete the task. Thus, students must use their language resources to communicate meaningfully and take part in meaningful communication practice.

- **Role – plays:**

Hedge (2008:279) states role play has several advantages being as a fluent activity. It is performed in pairs or groups than one group acting in front of the class. It encourages participations from a large number of students. Moreover, the success of role play depends on overcoming some limitations, such as asking students to take on roles.

- **Simulated conversations**

Integrating parts of the communicative reality into the workshop process can provide convincing illustrations of typical communication problems and simulated conversations that fulfill the didactic function of representation. Numerous publications on simulated conversation will be understood as interactions. Spoken interaction is simulated conversation, but it offers a more natural site for language acquisition than do grammar explanations. (Thorbury and Slade,2006:250).

Section Three: Procedures
3.1 Population and Sample
A. The Population
The population of this study is eighty college instructors from Baghdad University and Al-Mustansiriya University. Also, it includes EFL fourth year students of the department of English/ College of Education for Women during the academic year (2013/2014). There were 100 students distributed alphabetically into four sections.

B. The Sample
The sample is chosen randomly from the population mentioned above. It comprises sixty Iraqi EFL university instructors distributed among Baghdad University and Al-Mustansiriya University.
From University of Baghdad, thirty eight instructors were chosen from three colleges. They were Fifteen from College of Education for Women, fourteen from College of Languages and nine from College of Education Ibn/Rushd. From Al-Mustansiriya University, twenty two instructors were chosen from two colleges. They were twenty two instructors from College of Basic education and ten from college of arts. Also, the sample of students has been chosen

randomly from the population mentioned above. The total number of the sample was 80 students.

3.2 Main Instrument

The researchers have adopted two questionnaires from Kroeker (2009:48-56) and applied it on instructors as well as students after modifying and changing certain items as recommended by the jury of experts.

3.3 Description of the questionnaire

There were two questionnaires, each one of them consists of 25 items. The purpose of these questionnaires is to investigate both teachers and students' opinions and attitudes about English conversation courses offered for EFL college students. The five point scale (strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree, disagree, I don't know) is used. Each item is calculated by assigning 1 point to the fifth (lowest) level ' I don't know', 2 points for the fourth level 'disagree', 3 points for the third level 'strongly disagree', 4 points for the second level ' agree', and finally 5 points for the first (highest) level 'strongly agree' (see Appendix 1 and 2).

3.4 Questionnaire Validity

Validity as a term refers to the extent to which a test measures what it suppose to measure (Coombe et.el, 2007:xxii). The questionnaires were exposed to a jury of experts[11] in language teaching and linguistics in order to ensure face validity, to judge whether the questionnaire items are suitable or not for the proposed purpose. Then, the jurors are asked to read the questionnaire, add, delete or change the items (see Appendix 1 and 2).

3.5 Questionnaire Reliability

Cronbach's alpha formula was used for both types in order to ensure reliability. For teachers' questionnaire, it was found out that the reliability value was 0.705. For students' questionnaire, it was found out that the reliability value was 0.662. In order to assess a reliability of a questionnaire, (test-retest) type was used, i.e., the researchers repeated the questionnaire under the same conditions on students; it was found that the reliability value was 0.918. This shows that the questionnaires were quite reliable and acceptable.

Section Four Results, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions
4.1 Results

In order to find out whether there is any positive or negative attitude made from instructors and students towards conversation courses, one sample t-test formula is used. As shown in table 2 below, the calculated value of teachers' attitude is 48.339, whereas of students

attitude is 58.217 which both are higher than the tabulated value 2.000.

Table (4) A Comparison between Teachers and Students Attitudes

Attitudes	Number	Mean	Hypnotized Mean	S.D	df	Level of significance	t-calculated	t-tabulated
Teachers	60	90.3833	147	9.07239	59	0.05	48.339	2.000
Students	80	95.5625		7.90264	79		58.217	

1the jury members are:

1.   Prof. Dr. DuhaAttallah Hassan (College of Basic Education, Al-Mustansiriyah University).

2.   Instr. Dr. Shaymaa Mahdi(College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).

3.   Prof. Shatha Kahdim Al-Saadi (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).

4.   Instructor Narmeen Mahmood Muhammad (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).

5.   Instructor Susan Suood Aziz (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).

4.2 Conclusion

The researchers' conclusions can be summed up as follows:

a.   Conversation as a title is "not just saying something grammatically correct; it is a social activity and has a multitude of internal and social rules" (Rogers,2008:9). In speaking situations, students are good conversationalists in their mother tongue, i.e., to create and reproduce a good output in the foreign language. It is clearly noticed from the results obtained by using the test formula for one sample, the t-calculated value of teachers' attitude is 48.339, whereas of students attitude is 58.217 which both are higher than the tabulated value 2.000.

b.   Both teachers and students have positive attitudes towards teaching and learning conversational material. Teachers' positive attitude can be identified to the following:

1)   Choosing appropriate techniques and strategies to give students opportunity to practice improvising a range of real life situation in the classroom.

2)   Helping student to be self confident and cooperative, expressing attitudes and   emotions in order to convey intended meaning.

3)   Giving students an opportunity to choose topics intended to be more active for teaching conversation.

4)   Fluency and confidence are the ultimate aims when considering conversation lessons.

Students' positive attitude can be identified to the following:

1)   Students have opportunities to choose general topics are relevant and interesting.

2)   Students have opportunities to communicate with their partners through group or pair work to develop conversational skills and critical thinking.

3)   Free time to speak helps students to be confident speakers.

4)   Students use the language they are learning to interact in meaningful ways.

4.3 Recommendations:

The researchers recommend the following:

1-   The use of a role play as an effective technique at colleges as a successful way to develop students' ability to express themselves through speech would seem an important component of a language course.

2-   Helping students to select topics by themselves means be more motivated participants.

3-   Helping learners to use many techniques in order to ease the transition from the classroom to the outside world, such as tape diaries, audio and video conferencing, human-computer interaction, speech recognition and portfolios and diaries.

4-

4.3 Suggestions:

The researchers suggest the following for further researches:

1.   The functions of conversation in the foreign language classes.

2.   The importance of technology tools in English language Teaching.

3.   The effect of topic – centered discussion on teaching speaking skill.

4.   More attention should be paid on the effect of how the materials of conversation courses are written and how they are planned.

5.   Attention should be paid on the effect of starting with fluency activities than accuracy activities.

6.   The importance of using technology in teaching conversation course.

7.   Finally, the impact of task repetition on college students' proficiency.

Appendix (1) Students' Questionnaire

Items		Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Strongly Disagree 3	Disagree 2	I don't know 1
Textbooks						
1.	Studying textbooks is the best way to learn English conversation					
2.	Textbook dialogues are useful models for learning English conversation					
3.	Textbook dialogues focus on how native English speakers talk					
Conversational competence						
4.	In a conversation class, we should talk more than the teacher					
5.	The conversational partners should know different strategies for introducing a topic e.g. asking for opinion, advancing their own and so on.					
6.	The teacher should choose the conversation topics depending on our language and					

	interpersonal skills.					
7.	Students should mainly have conversation with the teacher.					
8.	Students should mainly have conversation with other students					
9.	My teacher is the best person to teach me conversation.					
10.	Introducing key words or phrases related to the topic will help me to make specific conversation					
11.	Dealing with the topic in term of content and intention includes all issues that the partners think relevant to the topic.					
12.	Partners do not reproduce the conversational material they have to perform in mutual process.					
13.	Conversation classes prepare me for speaking well with native English speakers					
Self confidence						

14.	Being confident in my grammar level means I am more confident in speaking English					
15.	I can practice English conversation by myself alone.					
16.	Conversation classes help increase my self-confidence when speaking					
Conversational Class						
17.	I cannot learn real conversation in a classroom					
18.	Sitting in groups is not a very important way to learn conversation					
19.	Conversation Class session is too long. 90 minutes with 5-10 minutes break would be suitable.					
20.	Conversation classes are just memorizing dialogues.					
Personal goals						
21.	After I graduate, speaking English will be important for me.					
22.	I want a job that					

	learning English conversation.					
6.	Knowing about Western culture is necessary for learning English conversation					
7.	There should be a university standard to meet when teaching conversation classes					
Personal goals						
8.	Teachers should focus on the direct teaching of conversation					
9.	Pragmatics is an important part of my conversation lessons.					
10.	I enjoy teaching the same conversation topics year after year					
11.	Managing topics help to make the conversational goal apparent.					
12.	English conversation should be an optional class for university students					
13.	Students are unaware of spoken grammatical features such as vagueness, ellipsis, and head and tail slot fillers.					
Conversational Competence						
14.	In a conversation class, teachers should talk more than the students					

	learning English conversation.					
6.	Knowing about Western culture is necessary for learning English conversation					
7.	There should be a university standard to meet when teaching conversation classes					
Personal goals						
8.	Teachers should focus on the direct teaching of conversation					
9.	Pragmatics is an important part of my conversation lessons.					
10.	I enjoy teaching the same conversation topics year after year					
11.	Managing topics help to make the conversational goal apparent.					
12.	English conversation should be an optional class for university students					
13.	Students are unaware of spoken grammatical features such as vagueness, ellipsis, and head and tail slot fillers.					
Conversational Competence						
14.	In a conversation class, teachers should talk more than the students					

15.	Teacher of conversation should keep everyone on the same level of information (e.g. asking questions , active listening and summaries					
16.	The teacher should choose the conversation topics					
17.	Students should mainly have conversation with the teacher.					
18.	Students should mainly have conversation with other students.					
19.	Upon completing the required conversation classes, most students are unable to have simple conversations in English					
20.	Students need more exposure to authentic English conversation.					
21.	University conversation classes prepare students for speaking well with a native English speaker					
Conversational Class						
22.	Sitting in groups is not a very important way to learn conversation					
23.	Teaching conversation is an ambiguous task					

Testing						
24.	Conversation tests should be standardized					
25.	Testing conversation should take a form of taped conversations followed by questions.					

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Duality of Time in Laurence Sterne's Novel Tristram Shandy

Dr. Sabah Atallah

Assist. Ins. Fawziya Mousa Ghanim

ABSTRACT

Laurence Sterne (1713-1768) was an English novelist , humorist , and a clergyman in York for many years before his talent became apparent. He began to write Tristram Shandy (1759-1767), an experimental novel, issued in nine parts in which the story was subordinate to its narrator's free associations and digressions . It is considered as one of the most important ancestors of the psychological and stream of consciousness fiction. By dramatic changing of chronological and psychological durations, he emphasized the dual nature of time. Sometimes ,when an individual 's respond was reasonable or emotional one.

Sterne 's work was influenced by John Lock's assumptions, when he dealt less with the passage of time as the clock measures it than with mental time , in which the events could move or less quickly than click time. Sterne's beliefs were accomplished by Locke's theory, when the mind and its representation of the world stand against the Newtonian Belief in a world that is attainable and capable of being measured by clockwork standards.

The aim of this paper is to discuss the duality of two poles of time shedding light on the effect of Locke's idea of duration on Sterne's mind, and how he explained the impact of psychological perception of time on the minds of his characters more than the conceptual time.

Keywords: John Lock , Laurence Sterne , Trasrtam Shandy, Time.

1.INTRODUCTION

1.1 Laurence Sterne : The Literary Achievement

Laurence Sterne was born in Ireland in 1713, the year of the treaty of Utrech that ended the war of the Spanish succession in which his father Roger Sterne had served, as an ensign . Sterne received a bachelor of arts from Jesus College , Cambridge. In 1738 he became the vicar at Sutton in the Forest , some eight miles north York.(Jefferson, 1968:11)

He married Elizabeth Lumley , but his marriage was unsuccessful . Being a political journalist , Sterne provided made more enemies than friends during his bondage to the Whigs. He wrote letters. He had two   ordinary sermons published in (1747 and 1750).He wrote about

local politics in 1742.   In 1748, Sterne published his verse "The Unknown World Verses" in the Gentleman's Magazine . several volumes of letters were published after his death like Journal to Eliza .(Allen,2002:224)

He composed a witty allegory in the manner of Swift entitled A political Romance ,

it was known as The History Good Warm Watch Cont. (Ibid,224)   Sterne's beliefs were accomplished by Locke's theory , when the mind and its representation of the world stood against the Newtonian belief in a world that was attainable and capable of being measured by clockwork standards.(Freeman,2002:3)

The enormous popularity of Sterne's unusual novel Tristram Shandy gave him social access to the great houses of London and Bath. The novel couldn't be said to have a message. It attacked almost every field of human inquiries, ethics, theology, philosophy , sex and politices. (Allen,2002:225)

The novel was widely popular, the enthusiastic James Boswell rhymed " who has not Tristram Shandy read / is any mortal so ill- bread" (Allen,2002:225).   It was published in 1759, when Sterne was forty six.   Sterne looked for a climate that was useful for his damaged lungs. He spent a good deal of time in France that furnished him the material for Book 7 of Tristram Shandy, as well as for the charming and successful Sentimental Journey . He died in March 1768 at the age of fifty- five as he was regarded as a forerunner of all the later novelists.

1.2. The Impact of Locke's Contributions

Henri Bergson (1859-1901), was a French philosopher of evolution, who believed that " a disbelief in surface reality denies the clock and makes the mind supreme arbiter of all temporal dimensions". (Karl,1972:23). The significance of an experience established the reality of time by the perception of mind, and the sensation of the body.

Like Bergson, Locke attacked the traditional view of human's mind independence, he insisted on the integrity of the body and mind . To Sterne, man is a fusion of reason and sense. John Locke (1632- 1704) , was an English empiricist . Being a moral, philosopher, he was one of the late 17th century figures with a formidable influence in the 18th century . In his Essay Concerning Human Understanding (1860), he   rejected a belief in innate ideas. He argued that the mind at birth was as a tabula rasa (blank sheet). He believed that the world could be attained through the senses, which were themselves over controlled by changes.

The essay tried to define that :

The exact limit of what the mind can truly claim to know, threw exciting new light on the working of human intelligence and stimulated further debate and exploration through the fertility of its suggestions … for example about the way in which ideas came to associated. (Britannica,1999:1)

Locke was concerned with liberating time from motion and any restrictive barrier. One of his ideas about the perception of the human's mind was the idea of duration. Man's idea of duration was the awareness of the interval between parts of the train of ideas. By awareness, man can distinguish the duration of his own self and the duration of the objective world, "time was a convenient assumption, not an actuality". (Cash ,1955:133). Sterne was able to transfer the intellectual ideas of Locke's theory to emotional and aesthetical text in the first modern novel.

Sterne's treatment of time is built in a careful calculation. He is regarded as an experimentalist. Through manipulation of time, he distinguished between different modes. Sterne's novel was influenced by the two sections of Locke's" Essay of Duration and its Simple Modes" , which explained that man's sense of time was derived from the train of ideas. Locke stated that: It is evident to anyone who will but observe what passes in his own mind, that there is a train of ideas , which constantly succeed one another in [man's] understanding . . . The distance between any parts of succession , or between the appearance of any two ideas in our minds, is that we call duration.(Locke,1950:106)

John Locke gave Sterne new principles of literary composition . Sterne considered it as a true scholastic pendulum :

It is about an hour and a half's tolerable good reading since my Uncle Toby rang the bell, when Obadiah was ordered to saddle a horse, and go for Dr. Slop, the man- midwife, so that no one can say, with reason that I have not allowed Obadiah enough [time], poetically speaking, and considering the emergency too, both to go and come : though morally and truly speaking, the man perhaps has scarce had time to get on his boots . . . If the hypercritic will go upon this; . . . should take upon himself to insult over me for such a breach in the unity of rather probability of time; I would remind him that the idea of duration and its simple modes is get merely from the train and succession of our idea and is the true scholastic pendulum. (Sterne, BK.II.Ch.8.90)

2.1. Definition of Time

Time is connected with human awareness of it. People feel the passage of time in their experiences , both psychic and physical. The progress of any phenomenon that undergoes

regular changes could be used to measure time. It occurs in , physics, astronomy, and chemistry. The duration of a continued event , could be distinguished as full or empty. Man had ceaseless efforts to escape from the tyranny of time in Tristram Shandy. Sterne looked for man's perception of time.

St. Aqustuine (354- 430), was one of the figures in the transition from classical antiquity to the Middle Ages. He pointed out that time " is nothing but extension , but [he] does not know of what it is amazing it is not of the mind itself ".(Swearinger,1977:98). He believed that " if nothing passed a way, there would be no past time, and if nothing were coming there would be no future time".(Ibid:98)

2.2. Tristram Shandy

The full title of this novel is The Life and Opinions of Gentleman Tristram Shandy. Sterne's work concentrates on the intellectual adventure of the characters, rather than theirs actions. Tristram Shandy had neither a beginning , middle, nor end. It started in the year 1718 and 1713, and in the intern went as far forward as 1766, and backward to the time of Henry the VIII. The novel elucidated that " everything was connected with everything. Single life may be seen as detachable from the world around it". (Probyn,1987:138).

The novelist liberated himself from the old structure, plot, and the traditional eighteenth century method of narration. He established a new order of time in fiction, there is a dissociation of time. He didn't pay attention to the simple narration of time in a way to adopt "(Ibid:140). There were debates throughout history whether infinity was a reality or an idea. Aristotle (384-322 B.C.), an ancient Greek philosopher [8] Aristotle (384-322 B.C.), an ancient Greek philosopher, introduced the terms of actual infinite and potential infinite. An actual infinite, suggests that infinity is a quantity. A potential infinite as a theoretical value that can be approached , but never attained. (http:// www. Bookrags)

The novel is about small incidents that determined an individual's life and works. Eventually , the complexity of the actual state of the human mind as composed of memories of the present, past, and of the future".(Probyn:1987:140). Unlike the traditional eighteenth century novels, the subjective time was essential time in the novel. Apparently, Sterne tried to transmit his point of view into a book, that encouraged a modern attitude. The idea of private time was elevated by Sterne. Qualitative time was based on the psychological life of the individual. He believed in the subjective time. When human's time was arbitrary, it didn't pay attention to ordinary logical relations. It would be intelligible only as a duration .

St. Auqustine is perplexed by the idea of time, while Shandy (Tristram's father) , lacked Au

qustine's interpretation. On the other hand, he rejected the idea of a clock measuring time and as he replaced it by the regular succession of ideas. That reflected Sterne's ability to reveal the secrets of time in his fiction. Tristram's father forget to wind the clock, that meant " the sexual act which will eventually produce the unfortunate Tristram is interrupted and the Homunculus takes disordered and discontinuous route towards conception ".(Ibid:140)

Henri Fluchere states that :

The digression is more than an exhilarating affirmation

Of liberty . It becomes the obedient instrument for

Capturing a hostile and fugitive reality, it explores

The secret recesses of space and time, knowledge and

mystery .(Fluchere,1965:44)

The novel opens with an account of the birth of the hero, it begins before the beginning . The time is filled by an account of the conversation of his father and uncle Toby. Sterne allows " his character's mind to wonder freely from one topic to another as happens in a state of reverie.(Probyn,1987:136)

2.3. Duality of Time in Tristram Shandy

The dilemma of time is explicitly raised in the novel. The narrator in the novel tries to reveal the panorama of his consciousness field as it is present to him. It is presented as a " simultaneity of past, present, and future not as a series of one thing after another".(Swearinger,1977:100)

The technique of time depends on the psychological time and duration rather than on chorological one. It is based on the free association of ideas, when time is measured by values not by the clock. In fact, the time of clock is used only for contrast. A. A. Mendilow thinks that the time of clock represents a contrast to psychological duration , because it has no validity in the world of feeling and thinking.(Mendilow,1968:94)

Sterne intends to show the relationship between two kinds of time and the reflection of the character. He tries to expose the complexity of Locke's theory, specially, when the concept of time is discussed by the two brothers (Toby and Walter Shandy). Toby thinks that passion, hobby horses govern his world. Walter is concerned with theories and systems: Walter Shandy "would move both heaven and earth, and twist and torture everything in nature to support his hypothesis.". He is above the passion, but even his philosophy cannot prevent him from observing that " it is two hours and ten minutes and no more . . . brother Toby- but

to [his] imagination seems almost an age".(Sterne,BK.X.III.Ch.18.167)

The mobility of time is governed by psychological factor. Walter tries to connect what happens to him with the succession of ideas. He gives a clear account of the matter by a metaphysical explanation upon the concept of duration and its simple modes:

> To understand what time is a right ,without which we can comprehend
> Infinity… we ought seriously sit down and consider what idea it is we
> Came by it… for if you will turn your eyes inwards upon your mind…
> And observe attentively, you will perceive , brother, that whilst you and
> I are talking , and thinking… whilst we receive successively ideas in our
> Minds, we know that we do exist.
> (BK. III.Ch.19)

According to Walter ,man measures time by minutes, hours, weeks, and months, still he " wishes there was not a clock in the kingdom"(BK.III.Ch.19.169). The novelist calls for the clarity of time as novelists, critics, and philosophers have done, when he affirms the idea of " poetic time", that is created by the mind of the character, of the narrator, and of the reader.

Man's sense of time would be evoked by the ideas that pass through his mind , and of the association of ideas. The myth of time changes its form and becomes humanized. Henri Fluchere comments that " Eternity and instant become paradoxically one in the most humble, the least philosophical individual consciousness".(Fluchere,128)

Throughout Trisram 's attempt to know the exact year of the story of " Bohemia and His Seven Castles". Uncle Toby gives a chance to choose any date: " . . . take any date in the whole world thou choosest, and put it to . . . thou art heartily welcome"(BK. VIII. Ch.19. 510).Toby's mind is over controlled by the idea of psychological time more than the physical one .Sterne explores before the reader a line of consciousness . He exposes the activity of a mind with its environment. His aim of writing is to live an ideal victory over time. In the final book, Tristram engages in an apostrophe, " this apostrophe is a mixture of abstraction and familiar sentimental , concrete images".(Ibid.127)

The awareness of time passage is explicitly manifested , when "[Tristram] is so acutely aware of time, which destroys the moment".(Ghent,1953:93).He keeps his eyes on Jenny's twisting her lock. The utility of time is demonstrated by Jenny's presence, and " gestures as she twists her lock, that the sense of time finds profoundest significance".(Ibid:43)love is threatened by the rapidity of time. Trisram compares the rushing of time with clouds of a windy day. Jenny's hair turns gray as he watches , but he appreciates time only when Jenny is near :

Time wastes, too fast: every letter, I trace tells me which rapidity life follows my pen; the days and hours of it, more precious, my dear Jenny!! Then the tubie , about they neck, are flying over our heads like light, clouds of a windy day, never to return more – everything presses on – whilst thou art twisting that clock , see ! It grows grey ; and every time I kiss thy hand to bid adieu , and every absence which follows it, are preludes to that eternal separation which we are shortly to make – Heaven have mercy upon us both ! (BK. IX, Ch.10. 558)

Sterne argues about the contradiction in human nature which is generated from a consciousness of its existence in time together, with a quiet refusal to surrender to time's Omnipotence. The novel explores the digression in physical life.

3-Conclusion

Laurence Sterne was the first novelist to be aware of duration as a positive factor that influenced man's mind. It played a part in the definition of his character . Tristram's awareness aimed at slowing the flow of time, though he abandoned " clock time" in favored of " thought time". Clock time had no meaning for the imagination, was artificial and arbitrary convention that evolved for the purposes of social expediency in order to regulate and to co-ordinate action.

The narrator (Tristram) depicted the passage of time and offered his narrative in form of a reading of his own life's temporal flow. Sterne emphasized the domination of psychological time. It was measured by a scholastic pendulum (Locke's duration).Moreover, man lacked the ability to know reality. His own experience, and the reality of identity was transformed from the soul to the separate and shifting ideas, which made up the content of the consciousness .

Shandean's philosophy is an elaborate of Locke's methods. The real Sternean conception of time depends on the imagination and the individual consciousness. Man's sense of time is numbered by his triumph over it. Particularly, when the sense of timelessness has a capacity to transcends any given time scheme.

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Undergraduates' Recognition of the Differences between British and American Spelling and Vocabulary

Professor Ayad Hammad Ali
University of Anbar

ABSTRACT

To study English as a foreign language in the Departments of English in Iraqi Universities, the English learners must choose which variety of English he should adopt in their study. Choosing British English (BrE) or American English (AmE), he / she should recognize the differences between both varieties from grammatical, lexical, phonetic, and orthographic points of view; otherwise, the learner would mix between the spelling and vocabulary of both varieties. This article is entirely designed to examine how far the English learners differentiate the British spelling from the American spelling, and the British vocabulary from the American vocabulary. The fact that most of the learners, who study English at the Department of English, mix between the spelling and lexicons of both varieties, has been proved. The best way to check up this hypothesis is to do a test which helps in figuring out the problems they face up when they write or speak English.

Keywords: American English, British English, Recognition, Spelling, Vocabulary

1. Introduction

The seventeenth century was the turning point in the history of England that witnessed the emergence of the industrial revolution inventing the machines and steam engines. As the British army colonized many countries in Africa and Asia which reached the Middle East countries along with the increase of the size of trade with different countries. All these factors led the British English to pervade in the whole world. But since the invention of the internet service in 1990 in California in the United States and spreading the Hollywood movies which have got a great rate of watching them in the world- being spoken in American English, all these led to spread the American English and compete the British English.

Standard British is the formal language spoken by the BBC radio announcers. Being standard and formal, it is regarded the language of the educated people and government offices in London. Hence, European and overseas students learn this standard language when they

come to London to study English as a second language. By the way, the territory south of London is included in the Standard British area. On the other hand, Standard American is the language spoken by the majority of educated speakers all over the territory of the United States and known as General American, (Janicki, 1977: 23-24). Consequently, General American (Henceforth GA) is defined by Crystal (2008:207) as "the majority accent of American English which conveys little or no information about the speaker's regional background". He (ibid) adds that most radio and television presenters use this accent.

Modiano (1996:18) states "there is substantial evidence that many American lexical items are becoming standard usage in the UK. At the same time, BrE has little influence on the language as it is spoken in America". This actually ensures that American English is pervasive nowadays and its global proliferation comes due to the progress of America in different fields of life including science, technology, computer, internet, space, military and industry. America receives thousands of immigrants and visitors from different countries annually where they are affected by their way of life and they adopt American English in lieu of the British English.

Noah Webster later was named Merriam- Webster Dictionary helped in developing and establishing the American English. He established many words in his dictionary regarding spelling and vocabulary. His dictionary then his daughter called it Merriam-Webster Dictionary represents the standard reference for checking any American word and its etymology. On the other hand, Oxford Dictionary and since its writing represents the standard reference for checking any British word and sometimes giving the British word and its American equivalent as in the word 'bookshop' which is already British and it gives its American equivalent 'bookstore'.

Davies (2005:84) confirms, "the lexicographer Noah Webster is responsible for many of the differences that distinguish American spelling from British spelling". He (ibid) emphasizes that his American Dictionary of the English Language, which came out in 1828, became the standard for US spelling. He originally wanted Americans to use much more strictly phonetic spelling, but he later compromised with only minor modifications.

2. Review of Literature

American English has now firmly established itself as an independent variety and is being widely used in books, journals, films, radio and TV broadcasts, (Thakur, 2002:209). He (ibid) believes that the important thing to do for the native speakers of English and those who learn

English as a second language is to get a clear idea of the ways in which American English differs from British English.

Everyone can observe that the number of those who learn American English is continually increased but in return the number of those who learn British English is noticeably decreased and this is almost noted in the chatting rooms, Facebook, Twitter and Instgram which adopt American slang and colloquial expressions, for instance, the word 'newbie' which is am American expression used in internet which means a beginner in using the internet service. This point of view is entirely supported by the linguist Pyles (2010:17) who declares "Yet despite the historical prestige of British, today American English has become the most important and influential variety of the English language". He (ibid) further comments that its influence is exerted through films, television, popular music, internet and the World Wide Web, air travel and control, commerce, scientific publications, economic and military assistance, and activities of the United States in world affairs, even when those activities are unpopular.

Any British native speaker goes to America and makes conversations with American native speaker in a moment one would misunderstand the other because the British speaker uses a word that gives negatively connotative meaning or snarl meaning in the American English. Therefore, Modiano (1996:19) indicates, "there are other words that could cause a communication breakdown are the terms rubber, public school, pudding, and sweet". To prove his statement, the word 'rubber' is used in England to refer to a piece of cloth that cleans the whiteboard, but in America this word means condom and if any British speaker uses it before an American speaker, it would bring about embarrassment.

The curricula, which are taught at the department of English – Faculty of Arts, are written by British and American authors where the British author uses the British variety in writing his book, while the American one uses the American variety in writing his book. This, in fact, obliges the students to use both varieties in their exams and their home assignments unconsciously and many of them ignore this matter or mix between the axioms of both varieties. The table below shows some of the books that are taught in the fore-mentioned department.

Table (1): Some British and American Curricula in Dept of English

No.	Book's Title	Subject	Author	Nationality	Stage Taught in
1.	Rapid Review of English Grammar	Grammar	Jean Praninskas	American	First
2.	Better English Pronunciation	Phonetics	J.D. O'Connor	British	First
3.	An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology	Phonology	Peter Roach	British	Second
4.	An Introductory English Grammar	Grammar	Norman C. Stageberg	American	Second
5.	Hard Times	Novel	Charles Dickens	British	Third
6.	Death of A Salesman	Drama	Arthur Miller	American	Forth

3. Statement of the Problem

The learners who learn English as a foreign language in the departments of English in Iraqi universities do not realize that English has some varieties British English, American English, Australian English, Canadian English, New Zealand English, and African English. In the present day, two varieties are adopted worldly in teaching and communicating; they are British English and American English. Since 1990s, the American English has been spread globally especially in the Middle East countries including Iraq and the American occupation to Iraq in 2003 led the Iraqis to adopt the American English even the American style of writing and printing books moved to the American version.

However, those who learn English as a foreign language in Iraqi universities do not know that there are differences between British English and American English in spelling and vocabulary because most of them believe that the difference between these two varieties lies in pronunciation as they are affected in the Hollywood Action movies which are being watched and impacted on many teens internationally. Another problem some of the English learners mix between the features of both varieties in the sense that they mix between the British spelling of the word 'colour' and the American spelling of the word 'color'. As they mix between the British word 'biscuit' and its American equivalent 'cookie' which both are a kind of pastry. Some of the learners originally do not know whether there is American English or British English or the differences between them, all they know is just 'English'. Thus, an appropriate test should be done to know the extent to which the learners can recognize the differences between such two varieties.

4. Objectives of the Study

The study aims at checking up the students' awareness of the dissimilarities between British spelling and American spelling from one hand, and the differences between the British vocabulary and American vocabulary on the other hand. Another objective is to know the

opinions of the undergraduates, who study English at the departments of English, about the necessity of making a syllabus that tackles the differences between these two varieties in order to make the students before graduating realize such differences of spelling and vocabulary of both English varieties. In so doing, such knowledge will avoid the graduates not to commit any mistake upon translating or teaching English expressions because British use the word 'Autumn' to refer to the first season of the year, whilst American use the word 'Fall'. Yet they have different forms, they denote the same meaning. The spelling of the word 'theatre' is British, whilst its American spelling is 'theater'. Hence, not knowing such a difference in vocabulary would embarrass the speaker/ translator when coping with British or American native speakers.

5. Methodology

  The section of methodology represents the purely practical part of any article or thesis or PhD dissertation because the collected data is analyzed and evaluated. This section includes two basic subsections; the first one is participants (sampling) which deals with the kind of the people who participate in the test where their career, education, gender, and age are mentioned. The second subsection is instrument that explains the approach of analyzing the data and evaluating the results in terms of numbers and statistics. Thus, McKay (2006:156) points out "the methodology section includes participants or subjects, materials, procedures, and analysis".

5.1. Sampling

  The study consists of (40) students; (20) of the third stage, while the other (20) students are of the forth stage at the Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Anbar University who study English as a foreign language who are supposed to be translators or English teachers after graduation. The Spring second course of the academic year (2015-2016) was chosen for carrying out the test. The reason behind choosing the third and forth stages instead of the first and second stages because the former are advanced stages and have a good idea of the nature and mechanics of the research. The test was carried out on Wednesday in March 2, 2016 at 10 am.

5.2. Instrument

  To examine the undergraduates' recognition of the differences between British Spelling and American Spelling and British vocabulary and American vocabulary, a suitable approach should be adopted in analyzing the resulted data, hence Online Oxford Learner's Dictionary (2016) which is adopted for measuring the British Spelling and vocabulary, while Online

Merriam-Webster Dictionary and Thesaurus (2016) is adopted for measuring the American spelling and vocabulary. To achieve this research, a questionnaire test should be done in order to recognize the students' capability in making the distinction between the spelling and vocabulary of both varieties. However, the questionnaire test consists of three questions; the first is about spelling where the tester should give a table consisting of (20) words to the students and each student must identify which is American and which is British. The second test is about vocabulary where the testees are given (20) words in order to make the students differentiate which lexicon is American and which is British. The third test consists of (5) questions which are about the students' opinions concerning their preference of the English variety. The students are obliged to only ticking on the box of Am (American English) or Br (British English) or (Yes) or (No). The span of time allocated for this test is (30) minutes knowing that some students spent (20) minutes in their responses.

6. Data Analysis

The approach of analysis relies on executing three tests and the students' responses are taken to be analyzed statistically in order to evaluate their recognition of the differences between both varieties on spelling and vocabulary levels. The results are tabulated and such tabulation contains students' responses along with the frequency and rates of the tested samples. The results help us in determining which variety is preferable.

Test (1)

Write down British in front of the British word, and American in front of the American word

No.	Word 1	Answer as British	No Answer	Wrong Answer	Total	Rate	Word 2	Answer as American	No Answer	Wrong Answer	Total	Rate
1.	Lorry	11	9	20	40	%27.5	Truck	10	10	20	40	%25
2.	Flat	13	9	18	40	%32.5	Apartment	7	10	13	40	17.5%
3.	Holiday	19	4	17	40	47.5%	Vacation	15	11	14	40	%37.5
5.	Sweets	25	2	13	40	62.5%	Candy	20	6	14	40	%50
6.	Railway	8	17	15	40	%20	Railroad	8	15	17	40	%20
7.	City centre	15	6	21	40	%37.5	Downtown	19	5	16	40	47.5%
8.	Pharmacy	13	16	11	40	32.5%	Drugstore	10	17	13	40	%25
9.	Lift	17	10	13	40	%42.5	Elevator	13	14	13	40	%32.5
10.	Rubber	20	12	8	40	%50	Eraser	12	17	11	40	%30

Test (2)

Write down British in front of the British spelling, and American in front of the American spelling

	Spelling 1	Answer as British	No Answer	Wrong Answer	Total	Rate	Spelling 2	Answer as American	No Answer	Wrong Answer	Total	Rate
1	Colour	22	5	13	40	%50	Color	21	6	13	40	%52.5
2	Centre	24	4	12	40	%60	Center	24	3	13	40	%60
3	Catalogue	15	15	10	40	%37.5	Catalog	16	14	10	40	%40
4	Cheque	19	6	15	40	%47.5	Check	20	5	15	40	%50
5	Defence	14	7	19	40	%35	Defense	14	6	20	40	%35
6	Favour	20	12	8	40	%50	Favor	20	11	9	40	%50
7	Mum	16	10	14	40	%40	Mom	16	10	14	40	%40
8	Organise	13	7	20	40	%32.5	Organize	12	7	19	40	%30
9	Programme	21	13	6	40	%52.5	Program	23	12	5	40	%57.5
10	Traveller	17	14	9	40	%42.5	Traveler	17	13	10	40	%42.5

Test (3)

Table (1) Students' opinions about the Differences between British and American English

	Types of Questions Addressed to the Students	Number of Yes Answers	Rate	Number of No Answers	Rate	Total
1	Do your teachers remind you that there are differences between British and American spelling and vocabulary throughout delivering the lectures?	33	%82.5	7	%17.5	40
2	Do you know that some of the books you study, are British and the others are American?	29	%72.5	11	27.5	40

	Types of Questions Addressed to the Students	British English	Rate	American English	Rate	Total
3	Which spelling of the above varieties do you prefer?	27	%67.5	13	%32.5	40
4	Which vocabulary of the above varieties do you prefer?	28	%70	12	%30	40
5	Do you prefer your teachers to speak British English or American English?	26	%65	14	%35	40

7. Results and Discussion

The assessment's results have proved that students' recognition of the spelling and vocabulary differences between BrE and AmE can be classified into three groups; the first group is not aware of the differences between such varieties yet they are very little in the sense that the samples (6, 12, 21, and 23) write down, in their responses, (x) in front of the British word spelled 'colour' as they write down (x) in front of the American word spelled 'color'. This indicates that they have no idea about British English or American English and all they know is just the English Language and nothing else. The second group mixes between both varieties in the sense that samples (18, 20, 26, 37 and 39) could not distinguish between the spelling of the British word 'programme' and the American word 'program'; hence they write British in front of the American spelling and vice versa. Also, samples (1, 25, 30, 35, and 40) mix between the spelling of the word 'traveller' and 'traveler'; hence they write British in front of the word 'traveler' which is already American, as they write American before the word 'traveller' which is already British. The third group represents those who are aware of the differences yet sometimes mix in some words.

Statistically, the word 'sweet' which is a British word has the highest frequency among the others as the right response occurs (25) out of the total number (40). Its rate is (%62), while its American equivalent 'candy' has the highest frequency occurring (20) times and rated (%50). The British word 'railway' and its American equivalent 'railroad' have the lowest frequency among the other words occurring (8) times and rating (%20).

As concerns spelling, the British word 'centre' and its American synonym 'center' get the highest frequency of occurrence where each word occurs (24) times with the rate (%60). Once again, the British word 'organise' has the lowest frequency of occurrence (13) with the rate (%32), but its American synonym 'organize' was lower than its British equivalent in one time (12) with the rate (%30).

The five questions which were addressed to the testees asking them about their opinions

about certain ideas. The first question has (33) yes responses with the rate (%82.5) and (7) no responses with a humble rate (%17.5). The second question has (29) yes responses rated (%72.5), while the negative responses have registered (11) with the rate (%27.5). The third question concerns the students' preference of the spelling, (27) students chose the British spelling with the rate (%67.5), but (13) students chose the American spelling which is rated (%32.5). The forth question concerns the students' preferences of the British or American vocabulary has (28) responses for the British vocabulary, while (12) responses went to the American vocabulary with the rate (%70) for British vocabulary and American vocabulary (%30). The fifth question, "Do you prefer your teachers to speak British English or American English? gets (26) responses for British English and this rates ((%65), while (14) responses go to American English which rates (%35).

8. Conclusions

The forty students who were taken as samples of analysis have proved that some of them do not realize between the spelling of BrE and AmE in the sense that they do not know that verbs which end with the suffix (-ise) are British, while those verbs which end with the suffix (-ize) are American. Through achieving the test, some students do not have any idea about such differences as it was shown in the two forms of the verb 'organize' and 'organise'. Others, but they are very few, just know that there is English spelling definitely and that was obvious in the words 'favour' and 'favor' where the former is British and the latter is American but some students believe that there is only one form which is British. Other students mix between both spellings, for example, they believe that the word 'cheque' is American and the word 'check' is British.

Lexically, some students do not recognize between BrE and AmE vocabulary in the sense that the results of the test prevail that the students believe that the word 'lift' is American and the word 'elevator' is British. But a few students have no idea whether there is BrE vocabulary and AmE vocabulary. The word 'public house' means the school that is owned by persons, i.e., private school. Contrarily, in America the word 'public house' means governmental schools that are run by ministry of Education. Thus, one should be careful when dealing with British words and their American synonyms because any misuse causes miscommunication.

The five questions, which were addressed to the students in order to give their opinions, their responses have shown that the rate of the students who prefer British spelling and vocabulary is higher than those who prefer the American ones. Even those who prefer their teachers to speak British English are higher than those who prefer their teachers to speak

American English because they believe that British English is the mother variety.

9. Recommendations

In conducting this research, the following suggestions and recommendations are concluded:

1. It is recommended to designate a book explaining the differences between BrE and AmE phonetically, grammatically, lexically and orthographically which should be taught at the forth stage in the Spring Course.

2. Teaching the undergraduates the differences between such varieties, helps them to decide which variety he would adopt –especially when he writes his research graduation project or when he joins the Master and PhD programs because he should be consistent in choosing one system of spelling and vocabulary.

3. Teachers should remind their students of the differences between these two varieties particularly when they deliver their lectures and come through British and American words in case of spelling or vocabulary and pronunciation too.

4. Holding seminars and symposia through which the participants show up the dissimilarities between the British English and American English. The discussion should give briefings about the history of British English and its dialects and accents and presenting briefings about the history of American English and its dialects and accents which let the students have a clear idea about the English language and its varieties.

5. Carrying out some tests that are concerned with verifying the students' awareness of the differences between these two varieties, which aid in figuring out their weaknesses and strengths in mastering this topic.

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Teachers' and students' beliefs about language learning

Fay Al Jibory
University of Kurdistan Hewler

ABSTRACT

Beliefs and perceptions about language have long been acknowledged to influence both language teaching and language learning processes. Starting with the so-called 'effective teacher' studies of the 1960s and 1970s, research has documented the prevailing influence of beliefs formed during an 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975), in which teachers learn to teach by assimilating the ways in which they were taught in schools. Concern about the negligible impact of both initial teacher training and continuous professional development on this apprenticeship has focused on the implicit, but enduring way in which beliefs shape teaching approaches and understanding of what occurs in the classroom. More recently, attention has been drawn not only to beliefs related to observable teaching behaviour, but also to how teacher beliefs are related to learning. It has been widely documented that learners approach the learning environment with their own beliefs and perceptions about language learning which are not necessarily shared by teachers, but too often there is a failure to explore the way such beliefs shape engagement and learning outcomes. This small scale study conducted in an EAP context in Kurdistan used questionnaires to examine the beliefs that teachers and students hold about language learning. Whilst similarities were found in responses within both groups, indicating common beliefs shared by students as a group, and teachers as a group, incongruences were found between the two groups in key areas relating to pedagogy and error correction. Implications of such opposing beliefs for the process of language teaching and learning are discussed in the light of these results. Notably, the need for teachers to recognize the role of beliefs in learning, and the effect that such a lack of shared assumptions about teaching and learning has for achieving learning outcomes. The paper ends with a call for further research to expand our understanding in this field.

Keywords: language teaching, language learning, student beliefs,Teacher beliefs .

1- INTRODUCTION

The area of teacher beliefs and their influence on classroom practice has been well documented in the literature (Borg, 2001; Clark and Peterson, 1986; Shavelson and Stern,

1981). It has been demonstrated that beliefs are powerfully related to shaping behaviour in education. This has been explored in such areas as the self-fulfilling prophecy (Brophy, 1983) and proficient learners (Prosser and Trigwell, 1999). In education generally, and in language learning more specifically, the beliefs that are held by teachers and learners shape their approaches to learning, their understanding of what goes on in the classroom, and their ideas about what and how to learn. However, little research has been done to look at the ways in which teachers' beliefs and perceptions about language, and language learning, relate to those held by students, and whether teachers and students are in harmony in their approaches to language learning. Where harmony is present, teaching and learning may proceed in concurrence with both teachers and learners sharing understandings of the learning environment and language. However, as Davis (2003) points out, where differences in beliefs and perceptions exist, learners may become disengaged and confused about the teaching and learning process, being unconvinced about content or pedagogy, or both. Consequently, such dispositions are likely to affect learning outcomes. As beliefs and perceptions are important in shaping learning behaviour then, this is an important area to explore more fully.

2- THEORY

The substantive domain of teacher cognition (beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, values and perceptions that shape behaviour) as an academic field of interest was largely shaped by responses to the early process – product research of the 1960s and 1970s which focused on identifying teaching behaviours that produced successful learning. Set within a broadly behaviourist understanding of human behaviour, in which stimulus produces certain predictable responses, researchers assumed that if those behaviours of 'good' teachers could be identified, then less effective teachers could be trained to imitate them, and successful learning outcomes could be guaranteed. These studies assumed the connection between categories of behaviour and learning outcomes. There was perceived to be an unproblematic relationship between the conduct of effective teachers and student learning outcomes as measured by scores on summative tests. These studies were broadly known as the effective teacher studies.

During the 1980s, criticisms of the effective teacher studies grew. These were advanced as disillusionment developed amongst researchers about the findings and implementation of the findings. It became clear that simply identifying behaviours and conveying them to teachers, in order to be adopted in their classroom practice, did not produce the kind of learning trajectories anticipated and predicted by the research. At the same time, criticism developed

towards behaviourism as being too reductionist in its approach towards human behaviour. Researchers began to acknowledge the need for new substantive areas of study informed by more refined theoretical and methodological frameworks. The importance of teachers' 'mental lives' (Walberg, 1977) and teachers' 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) were revived. Walberg argued for greater understanding of mediational factors that influence behaviour and pointed out that the teaching and learning process could not be understood without recognizing the importance of teachers' mental processes, cognitions, beliefs and affective factors. Lortie's concept of the 'apprenticeship of observation' corroborated the salience of teachers' and learners' prior learning experiences in shaping their beliefs about effective teaching and learning. Woods (1996) explored the formation and structure of beliefs further in his study. He demonstrated that beliefs, attitudes and knowledge exist in systemic networks and are not easily changed in isolation. Change in one area is often dependent on changes in the related belief structure.

The research done in this field demonstrates the prevalence of pre-existing beliefs on current perception and practice. This is relevant to both students and teachers. For students in Kurdistan, much of their time is spent in school contexts where there is an emphasis on rote learning, memorization and drills. Assessments tend to reflect the same pedagogical emphases and reinforce the view that knowledge consists of the straightforward accumulation of facts. These views dominate when they transfer to universities. However, the development of a knowledge base at tertiary level is dependent on the ability to interact with information on a different level. The academic skills outlined in Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson et al, 2001) reflect some of the higher cognitive attributes of undergraduates and graduates. Students must develop the ability to apply information to different contexts, analyse structures and identify the relationship between components, synthesise information, and evaluate sources or programmes. Mental consent to the deficiencies of former pedagogies is not sufficient to change organizing beliefs that exist in a deeply connected network or belief system.

Teachers, conversely, have some opportunity for restructuring their belief systems through teacher training, education and continuous professional development that allows for reflection (Calderhead, 1989), implementation and experimentation of different pedagogies, and the gradual assimilation of research-based outcomes and theory (Petty, 2009). As a result, teachers and students may have conflicting views about both language and how it is learned as they engage in teaching and learning in the classroom. This study examines this situation by reviewing the views of teachers and learners in a university in Kurdistan. It is similar to a study by Davis (2003) which was conducted in Macao, China. Davis' study also argues that

beliefs are formed early in life, are culturally bound and resistant to change (Davis, 2003, 209). Davis used Lightbown and Spada's (1993) ten dimensions of language learning. While he discovered areas of congruence, there were also areas of pronounced differences between what teachers and students believed about language learning.

Another relevant study which informs the discussion is Borg's (2016) recent study of the Kurdistan Region. The study illustrates the context in which there are concerns about the level of language proficiency of university students in the 13 public universities represented in his study. Notably, students' proficiency is much lower than it should be for engagement with undergraduate academic studies. Assessments in English to test undergraduates are also questionable given that students do not have the requisite English levels to understand their courses. Such as situation is exacerbated by expectations that one can memorise course content and so obtain a degree. Additionally, where expectations about language learning are in conflict, motivational levels decline as the goals are not shared by teachers and learners.

3- METHODOLOGY

The present paper also draws on the ten dimensions of Lightbown and Spada (1993) to achieve its two aims. Firstly, it attempts to find out whether students' and teachers' beliefs converge or diverge with regard to learning English in Kurdistan. Secondly, it aims to explore the implications of the convergence or divergence for language learning within this context. The study assumes the importance and indeed, the centrality of the role of beliefs in informing perceptions, attitudes and knowledge. It also assumes from a constructivist position, that such beliefs inform behaviour.

The research was conducted among a small sample of students and their teachers. In all, a total of forty students and four teachers participated in the study at a university in Kurdistan. This was a convenience sample, but given that both students and their teachers responded, and that these students were representative of others within the university, there is some justification for applying the findings more widely within that context. The method involved using a five-point Likert scale questionnaire and statistical analysis of the results. The Likert scale involved a rating scale where respondents used categories ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The questionnaire was intended to reflect perceptions and beliefs as they are held without consultation with others, and was conducted at the beginning of classes anonymously.

4- RESULTS

Data were analysed using Microsoft Excel. They are shown in full in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Teachers' and students' beliefs about language learning across 10 dimensions.

Dimensions		1. Strongly agree	2.	3.	4.	5. Strongly disagree	Total
1. Languages are learned mainly through imitation	Students	6 (15%)	11 (27.5%)	16 (40%)	1 (2.5%)	6 (15%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers		3 (75%)		1 (25%)		4 (100%)
2. Teachers should correct students when they make grammatical errors	Students	25 (62.5%)	6 (15%)	3 (7.5%)	2 (5%)	4 (10%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers			4 (100%)			4 (100%)
3. Students with high IQs are good language learners	Students	5 (12.5%)	11 (27.5%)	12 (30%)	6 (15%)	6 (15%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers		1 (25%)		3 (75%)		4 (100%)
3. Students with high IQs are good language learners	Students	5 (12.5%)	11 (27.5%)	12 (30%)	6 (15%)	6 (15%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers		1 (25%)		3 (75%)		4 (100%)
4. The most important factor in learning a second language successfully is motivation	Students	23 (57.5%)	8 (20%)	4 (10%)	3 (7.5%)	2 (5%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers	2 (50%)	2 (50%)				4 (100%)
5. The earlier a second language is introduced in schools, the greater the likelihood of success in learning	Students	21 (52.5%)	7 (17.5%)	4 (10%)	5 (12%)	3 (7.5%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers	4 (100%)					4 (100%)
6. Most of the mistakes that second	Students	8 (20%)	9 (22.5%)	11 (27.5%)	6 (15%)	6 (15%)	40 (100%)

language learners make are due to interference from their first language.	Teachers		1 (25%)	2 (50%)	1 (25%)		4 (100%)
7. Teachers should present grammatical rules one at a time, and students should practise examples of each one before going onto another.	Students	19 (47.5%)	13 (32.5%)	2 (5%)	4 (10%)	2 (5%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers				2 (50%)	2 (50%)	4 (100%)
8. Students' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.	Students	25 (62.5%)	8 (20%)	3 (7.5%)	1 (2.5%)	3 (7.5%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers		2 (50%)	1 (25%)	1 (25%)		
9. Teachers should use materials that expose students only to those language structures that they have already been taught.	Students	8 (20%)	7 (17.5%)	12 (30%)	7 (17.5%)	6 (15%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers				3 (75%)	1 (25%)	4 (100%)
10. When students are allowed to interact freely (for example in pair or group work), they learn from each other's mistakes.	Students	17 (42.5%)	9 (22.5%)	6 (15%)	3 (7.5%)	5 (12.5%)	40 (100%)
	Teachers			1 (25%)		3 (75%)	4 (100%)

As can be seen by the results, there was both convergence between groups of students and the group of teachers, and divergence between students and teachers. However, overall, the data represent more areas of considerable divergence between the beliefs held about language learning than convergence. With respect to dimensions concerning language learning as imitation, the central importance of motivation, the benefits to learning of early

introduction of language in schools, and mistakes stemming from the first language (1,4,5, and 6 respectively), there were no significant divergences. Both students and teachers held similar beliefs. However, there were areas of more marked divergence in beliefs on important pedagogical issues. Teachers are neutral with regards to correcting students' language mistakes when they make them, and do not share the beliefs of students about correction. The vast majority of students perceive correction to be of value.

Additionally, more students were generally more affirmative or neutral regarding links between high IQ levels and being a good language learner. However, most teachers were generally negative about the existence of such a link. Further divergence was indicated by responses to dimension 7, affirming the proposition that grammatical rules should be presented one at a time, with opportunities for practice before moving to other rules. 80% of students either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. In sharp contrast, 100% of teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the proposition. Moreover, 82.5% of students were in favour of immediate corrective feedback for their errors so as to avoid the formation of bad habits in dimension 8, whereas teachers' responses were more varied with two choosing agree, one being neutral, and one disagreeing with the proposition. However, none strongly agreed with this statement suggesting that teachers do not share the students' beliefs about the priority of corrective feedback for errors.

Dimension 9 concerns exposure to materials containing only language structures that students have already been taught. Student responses were generally more evenly spread out with 30% choosing to take a neither agree or disagree/neutral stance towards this, and with only two more students choosing either strongly agree or agree than strongly disagree or disagree. However, 100% of teacher responses were either disagree or strongly disagree, indicating that teachers' beliefs converge as a group and are generally incongruent with those held by their students. Finally, there was also divergence between teachers and students for dimension 10, with 75% of teachers strongly disagreeing that free interaction leads to students' learning mistakes from others whilst 65% of students either strongly agreeing or agreeing that this is the case.

5-DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results indicate that whilst there are clear areas where students and their teachers agree on how languages are learned, significant areas of incongruity exist. Most noticeably, there were differences in terms of beliefs about correction of grammar mistakes, the introduction and sequencing of grammar, the need for immediate correction of errors to avoid the

formation of bad habits, the need to control exposure to materials so that students encounter only those structures they have already been taught, and finally, the experience of learning the mistakes of others as a result of free interaction patterns in pair or group work. In every case, students agreed more strongly with affirming these dimensions, whilst teachers were more inclined to have a negative response, at times expressing a strong negative response.

The idea that teachers and learners share complementary views towards language learning is clearly undermined by these results. The first implication of these findings is that teachers must take exploratory measures to discover their students' beliefs and perceptions about learning languages. The assumption that students will understand and endorse curricula decisions, pedagogical approaches, choice of materials, and corrective regimes is unjustified. Students may be alienated, de-motivated, and even in conflict with the prevailing ethos in the classroom if a teacher implements an approach typical of the beliefs reflected by teachers in this small study. It seems that ensuring learners are aware of the rationale for their decisions at the point of student experience may be warranted. This may take considerable effort, but have worthwhile consequences if it leads to greater understanding of, and compliance with, the teaching and learning process.

Secondly, the results indicate considerable differences in approach to grammatical errors (dimension 2) and the timing of error correction and the consequences of its absence (dimension 8). Many students in Kurdish universities have been educated in schools that follow broadly behaviourist pedagogies. These would include an emphasis on rote learning of information, drills, focus on traditional presentations of grammar rules and their sequencing, memorization, and habit formation as techniques to promote language learning. This 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) may well mean that students assimilate these approaches and find themselves in conflict with alternative learning environments based on pedagogies that are unfamiliar and incomprehensible from their perspective.

Teachers in the university involved in the study had all had some exposure to more communicative language teacher training or other teaching methods within English for Academic Purposes education. This has led to them fostering approaches involving collaboration, interaction, task-based learning, communicative language development, use of authentic texts, contextualization, situational-functional approaches to grammar, skill development, critical thinking, and a focus on meaning and fluency, rather than accuracy, as the central tenet of general corrective feedback systems. It becomes clear that underlining responses to the ten dimensions above, many of the issues can be contextualized into more general theories about learning. Students largely reflect a behaviourist approach, whilst

teachers commonly exhibit more communicative or cognitive reactions.

Additionally, aspects of planning, such as curriculum development, choice of materials, presentation and sequencing of grammar, and use of diverse interactive patterns in class can become areas where students are consulted. If time is taken to explore and reflect on the source of our deeply held beliefs about learning, convey the rationale for pedagogical decisions, change what is tacitly held and allow for the restructuring of beliefs, and negotiate relevant aspects of course programmes with participating students, a more conducive, congruous, and congenial learning environment may emerge. An additional corollary of such action may be that students exhibit greater motivation, as they will experience greater concordance between their own beliefs and the learning environment created by their teachers. At least, such a process allows the explicit discussion and treatment of beliefs as they filter experience and shape behaviour; at best, it could stimulate greater motivation towards the teaching and learning process for both teachers and students – a dimension for which there was general agreement on its central importance.

6- CONCLUSION

This study has suggested that significant differences exist between the beliefs of students and teachers in the area of language learning. These are especially pronounced in the areas of correction, grammar, selection of materials, and the impact of free interaction with peers. In all these areas, students expressed stronger affirmation of the statements reflected in the ten dimensions used. This is suggestive of radically different approaches to learning more generally between students from the region, and their foreign-educated English language teachers, who generally converged in their responses and reflected a different pedagogical approach. Whilst these findings are suggestive of important differences which affect the classroom, such as motivation, engagement, and pedagogical allegiance, they also potentially affect the quality and quantity of learning. However, more research would be needed to verify these findings. The limitations of this study, in terms of size of the population, mean that without further investigation of these issues, generalization to wider populations is not possible. It would be preferable also to have larger numbers involved in future work than this study allowed. Given that some of these findings corroborate those discussed in other contexts (see Davis, 2003), the need for further investigation commends itself.

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Integrating Mobile Devices & Technology into the Educational Experience

Dirk Embery
University of Kurdistan

ABSTRACT

In the past 5 years in Kurdistan, we have witnessed a dramatic rise in the availability and usage of mobile devices. Technology that was once limited to the hands of the privileged few, has now been adopted and embraced by the greater public. As educators this widespread adoption of mobile device technology offers us an incredible opportunity to enhance the learning experience by making students active rather than passive learners and to ease and streamline our administrative duties, by integrating technology into the curriculum. Conscious of the fact that the availability and access to technology in the classroom in Kurdistan, varies from place to place, this paper will focus on how mobile devices can enhance the educational experience for students and educators outside of the classroom.

Keywords: Blended Learning, Learner Management Systems,Mobile devices, tablets.

Introduction

In the past five years in Iraqi Kurdistan, we have witnessed a dramatic rise in the availability and usage of technology. Technology that was once limited to the hands of the privileged few, has now been adopted and embraced by the greater public. To give an example of this incredible change, the first iPhone launched in 2007 and cost the equivalent of $800 in today's money. Whereas today we can buy an Android starting around $50, which is way cheaper and more technologically advanced than the first iPhone. In fact according to Bax we are currently in a time where digital technologies are 'normalized' (2011) and are in the hands of the many rather than the few. As educators this widespread adoption of technology whether it be in the form of a smart phone or software in the form of an online learning tool, offers us an incredible opportunity to enhance the students' learning experience and to ease and streamline our administrative duties, by integrating technology into the curriculum. Students that were once passive learners are being transformed into active learners, using their mobile devices to research, produce and present using a wide variety of online learning tools. According to McManus (2001) active learning uses techniques such as writing reflections, discussion, and problem solving that guide students towards achieving learning

objectives whereas passive learners are generally expected to record knowledge delivered by an instructor or textbook.

For the purpose of this paper, digital technologies refers to the vast range and ever-increasing availability of web-based tools that seek to support and enhance the performance of students and teachers alike, that can be accessed via smart phones, tablets or laptops. Conscious of the fact that the availability and access to technology in the classroom in Kurdistan, varies from place to place, I have chosen on purpose to focus on how the use of digital technologies can enhance the educational experience for students and educators, outside of the classroom. Through this paper I intend to give an overview of four different web based technologies that can be easily accessed via mobile devices and discuss their potential to transform the way the students learn and teachers teach.

Introduction to Engrade

Engrade is a website that seeks to unify your learning technologies in one site with many of the capabilities of a Learning Management System (LMS). It can manage most major assessment needs, including attendance records, provide a place to host homework quizzes, data files, videos as well as a tool to message students, parents and administration as well as share and collaborate with fellow teachers. While Engrade has both 'fee paying' and 'free' models, many teachers find that the free option covers most, if not all of their needs. The site targets K – 12 but it is also suitable for students at a university level. The clean and simply-designed site is easy to use, saves time and provides mobile-friendly access anywhere. Research by Elam and McKim (2012) into the use of Learning Management System (LMS) showed that once students' initial unfamiliarity with the system was surpassed, students expressed delight in the more enjoyable approach to doing homework and those that actively tracked their assessment results via the continuous assessment tool, were shown to excel in their coursework. Engrade fits into the area of 'Blended Learning' (BL) in which students work both online and face to face. By presenting content outside the classroom, teachers can 'flip' the traditional teaching model, freeing up more class time for more in depth discussions or activities to deepen their understanding of content.

The ability to share results, whether homework, quizzes, assignments or even attendance with fellow teachers, administration and parents leads to an improvement in communication. Data can be accessed immediately through a simple click and if the institution chooses, parents can be granted the same access allowing them to monitor their child's progress. This easy access to a child's academic achievement is a main advantage of Engrade.

To access Engrade teachers sign up, create a class page and add assignments to the grade book.

Quizzes can be easily create at the site and videos and other information such as data file can be uploaded for the students to access. Once the teacher has created a class, students are given an access code via a printout or email that allows entry to the site. When the student enters the site they are able to see their grade book and any posted results of past quizzes, exams or homework, as well as upcoming classwork or homework activities. Through the site students can message their teacher and conversely the teacher can use the site to message the class as well as teachers, parents and administration that you have chosen to share the class with.

Examples of possible uses for Engrade
Grade Book.
For continuous assessment the use of the grade book feature allows the monitoring of student performance by students and teachers alike. Students have expressed that they like the fact that they can view their performance, and complete homework on their mobile devices. The Grade Book can be shared in 'real-time' with fellow teachers and administration allowing the opportunity to track under-preforming students and take any necessary action.
Quizzes.
Using the quiz feature in the App bar, quizzes can be created and posted on the site along with accompanying videos, audio files and website links. Multiple choice quizzes for example can be electronically graded by Engrade. Allocation of homework quizzes can be set up well in advance of the start of the academic year, significantly lightening the teacher workload once classes begin.
Essays, Reports & Assignments.
Engrade is a great tool for posting essay requirements as well as place to submit complete work. Chat rooms can be established to enable brainstorming and discussion of essay topics.
Lesson Planning.
Lesson planning can be a time consuming but Engrade simplifies the process allowing teachers to customize lessons, assignments and quizzes to standards suitable for a variety of classes. It also allows you to post 3rd party content allowing for a more BL approach to teaching. Videos and website links covering topics in upcoming classes can be uploaded and viewed by students in advance of a class, requiring less time spent in class familiarizing students with a topic and more time spent on in depth study.
Uses of Engrade at the University of Kurdistan Hewler and Student Impressions
In our informal end of year class discussion students were asked as to which of the various online learning tool that we used, was their favourite. (At various times Edmodo, Voxopop, Moodle, Voki and EnglishCentral were used). Each year the answer was always

overwhelmingly Engrade. The fact that students had ready access to their results, no doubt played a big role in its resounding popularity amongst the student body.

Interim Summary

Engrade is a good choice for institutions seeking to modernize their classrooms by adopting and implementing a Learner Management System. The 'free' model is sufficient for most, which is welcome in these trying times. Users of the system should appreciate its ease of use and the important role it plays in improving communication flow. The adoption of a LMS-like systems that manage many of the aspects of the learning process is going to become much more common in the future and Engrade represents one LMS-like system that can be implemented with little work and at no on-going expense.

Introduction to Edmodo

Edmodo like Engrade is another example of a LMS that seeks to 'flip' the classroom and create a BL environment. As one of the world's leading education platform, it has over 50 million active users and while the core group of users is Grades 6 – 12, this doesn't limit its vale as an educational tool for older students. Edmodo is essentially 'Facebook' for the classroom with a focus on peer support and peer learning, though the big difference from 'Facebook' is the emphasis placed on group security, who is allowed to view, access and comment on topics. In keeping with the idea of a BL approach to education, Edmodo seeks to reinforce and enhance material covered in the classroom with the chance to go online outside the classroom and share, collaborative and continue the discussion with classmates. Signing up for Edmodo is straight forward and once a class has been created the teacher can share the secret access code with only those invited to join. Once students are signed up for the class they can see assigned homework, complete quizzes and view their performance in the grade book. Just like 'Facebook' students can post and respond to fellow students on the homepage encouraging class communication. In addition to the above, teachers via the 'Integrated Planner' can add, share and display important information, post reminders and notices and through the 'Progress Manager' reward progress with a series of virtual badges. A variety of Apps can be added to the site to enhance the learning experience. While Edmodo does offer a 'fee paying' model most teachers have found the 'free model' more than sufficient for their needs.

Examples of possible users for Edmodo

Class Discussion.

Students can be required to post and respond to fellow classmates a minimum number of times a week. This encourages the production of language in a informal setting and good class communication. The appointment of a student to monitor this activity, frees up the teacher who only needs to check the activity periodically to ensure student participation.

Homework.

Homework can be assigned through Edmodo as well as the posting of any necessary digital resources, such as data files, web links or audio files.

Create Polls.

Through Edmodo teachers and students can easily create online polls and have their classmates take them. The results are there for all to see. Polls can be used to check and reinforce understanding of topics covered in class.

Lesson Summaries.

Simple lesson summaries can be posted for those that missed the class or as a tool for revision for upcoming exams.

Blendspace.

The use of this App which is available through Edmodo allows teachers to create a 'Blendspace' lesson which is posted for all the class to see. Through the app teachers select a topic, 'Global Warming' for example and Blendspace will offer you a vast range of videos, photos, text and images that you can cherry-pick from, to create a lesson. It is simple and fast to use.

Uses of Edmodo at the University of Kurdistan Hewler and Student Impressions

During the course of the 2014 academic year Edmodo was used in a number of classes in the university's Foundation Program. It was essentially used as a student-led communication tool and the place to access their Blendspace lessons. Due to my familiarity with Engrade I chose to keep the bulk of the quizzes and the grade book there. A research paper on Edmodo by EdTechReview (2014) discussed the user experience, with the chance to post content, collaborate and connect with teachers, the most favourably rated features by students. In an informal discussion with my classes they said that they appreciated its use as a communication tool, though at the end of the day most would rather communicate with classmates through other social media tools.

Interim Summary

Edmodo is a simple, easy to use LMS that succeeds in its goal to flip the classroom and make more of the learning experience, student centred and student led. While a number of students mentioned that they liked Edmodo as tool for 'student to student' and 'student to teacher' communication, they would have much preferred everything on Edmodo or everything on Engrade. They did however value the ease of use of the Edmodo App on their mobile devices, rather than having to access the site via their computer.

Introduction to Voxopop

Voxopop is a free online voice technology that provides students with the opportunity to

record their voices, listen to classmates' submissions and respond in kind. With little effort teachers can create a 'talk group', decide whether the group is 100% private, restricted or open to the world and then invite students to join via email. Topics can be predetermined and set by the teacher or it can be left to be student centered and student led. Voxopop provides students a venue to engage in real communicative practice outside the classroom whether through presentations, work on collaborative projects or simply engage in student to student discussion. The tool provides teachers with a record of students speaking, so areas of concern can be addressed and a student's progress assessed.

Possible Uses of Voxopop

The following are examples of Voxopop that I utilized.

Mini Presentations.

Each week students would be required to complete several 3 minute presentations on topics that had been previously introduced in class. Both teachers and students can respond to others' recordings, producing a thread of oral comments. (Mork, 2014)

Dictation.

Students can listen to and write down recorded texts, then record their own version of it. Students can also be required to record sections of recent reading texts, listen to their recording and provide feedback on where they feel they are doing well and where they feel more work is needed.

Open Discussion.

Students can be required to post a minimum of ten minutes of discussion in no fewer than five fellow students' voice threads. Each week a different student can be chosen as the Discussion Monitor and would be required to produce a simple survey on who talked to whom, and their total discussion time. Periodically teachers can check to see if the survey results matched Edmodo records, but overall this is one activity that can be largely student led.

Use of Voxopop at the University of Kurdistan Hewler and Student Impressions

Voxopop was used in several classes during the 2013 – 2014 academic year in our Foundation Program and while the students weren't graded on the work produced, completion of the assigned tasks counted towards their overall homework mark.

Towards the end of the year an informal in-class discussion was conducted to gain student feedback on the technology used in the program and whether it would be beneficial for future students. A simple majority of students supported the notion that they enjoyed using the tool and felt that their speaking skills had been reinforced, however an overwhelming majority, teachers included expressed having technical issues at one time or another while using the technology.

There was a learning curve in troubleshooting the necessary tech requirements, (software upgrades, allowing microphones, etc.) that led to a feeling of student frustration on occasion, especially among students with limited English language skills.

Interim Summary

Voxopop while completely free, suffers from the need to install additional software such as Flash and Javascript, in a manner that sometimes isn't always evident to the end user. There was also an issue with recording time limitations and the inability to delete files saved to the system. (Mork, 2014) Despite recognizing the value of Voxopop as a tool to promote spoken language production, the discussed limitations with the tool, led us to in the following year to make the progression to a different online tool EnglishCentral, though it needs to be noted that the new site requires a paid subscription. Totally free online learning tools by their very nature can be expected to come with limitations, leading students and teachers alike to encounter potential operational shortcomings.

Introduction to EnglishCentral

EnglishCentral like Voxopop is an online tool designed to improve a student's oral fluency, pronunciation and vocabulary range. Where it differs from Voxopop is the capabilities' of the tool as it incorporates hundreds of videos along with their proprietary assessment technology and vocabulary learning system delivered via the web or straight to a student's mobile. All of these great features come at a price as unlimited access to the site requires a paid subscription, roughly in the range of the cost of a textbook. There is a free service but it allows limited access diminishing the effectiveness of the site for non-paying students.

Students can sign up and create an account, though ideally in order to secure an educational institute discount that comes with larger student numbers, teachers should create a class and invite students to join. Once students have joined the class they can select a level 'Beginner, Intermediate or Advanced' and then watch a video or video series selected by the teacher or of their own choice. Recent research by Dixon (2015) showed that students who watched videos selected by teachers tested higher than students given the freedom to watch whatever they liked. Once students have watched a video they learn the new vocabulary by listening to a sentence then typing in the missing word. The replay feature allows them to hear the sentence multiple times and once the student has typed in the word with the correct spelling they can move onto the next one. Once the vocabulary has been learnt, generally 5 – 7 words for a minute long video, the students move onto the speaking exercises. For the speaking portion of the exercise, the students hear a sentence from the video and are then required to repeat it back. Once the assessment tool is happy with

the student's pronunciation and fluency they can move onto the next one. With speaking completed the final exercise is a review of the new vocabulary, checked by selecting the correct definition and word usage via a mini quiz.

Possible Uses of EnglishCentral
Homework.
Students can be set an assigned number of video activities that they have to complete by a due date. The videos can be selected by the teacher to mirror course work and material covered in-class, or students can be left free to choose what is of interest to them.

Subject Specific Vocabulary.
Through the availability of EnglishCentral courses on a variety of subjects, such as Business, Media or Medical English, students can be set courses that focus on the vocabulary linked to their major.

Exam Preparation.
Students intending to take an International English Language Test such as IELTs, PTE or Toefl would benefit from using EnglishCentral in order to improve their oral fluency and pronunciation.

Uses of EnglishCentral at the University of Kurdistan Hewler and Student Impressions
As our Foundation students are required to take an international English language proficiency test to progress to undergraduate studies and as the speaking component of any such test is sizable, EnglishCentral was introduced to the students with that in mind. Initially I tried using one of our computer labs and spending in class time on the tool, however the dated IT equipment in our labs made the exercise fraught with difficulties. Since that time all student interaction with EnglishCentral has been done outside of the class as the basis of their weekly speaking homework. Interestingly the majority of the students prefer to access the tool via the EnglishCentral App on their tablet or smartphone. As EnglishCentral doesn't require the completion of all sections of a video activity in one seating, students check in out of the App, doing five minutes here, ten minutes there.

Interim Summary
In unsolicited feedback from a number of former Foundation Program students, they credited in EnglishCentral in playing a major role in improving their pronunciation and oral fluency which in turn enabled them to score the mark necessary to progress to undergraduate studies. Admittedly such a great tool comes at a price but for institutions with decent student numbers, averaged out, the cost of the program would be comparable to the cost of a textbook.

Conclusions

We have essentially reached the point where the majority of students we encounter on a day to day basis are for all purposes, 'digital nomads'. As educators rather than view this surge in digital technology adoption by our students as a distraction, an impediment to learning, we should instead embrace it for the potential it offers us to enhance language learning.

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Developing vocabulary strategies among Kurdish EFL students of English as a foreign language

Sara Jamal Muhammed
Koya University

ABSTRACT

This study followed a questionnaire-based approach to investigating English vocabulary learning strategies, which asked informants to provide information about their experiences of learning the English language. Sometimes, EFL learners could not enhance larger amount of second vocabulary meanings because of randomly- selected strategies. For investigating in this field, the participants were required to produce English synonyms and to take part in evaluations of their English vocabulary knowledge. The participants were two groups of Kurdish EFL learners: 20 graduate students, from the University of Leicester in England and 35 undergraduate students from the University of Sulaimaniyah in Kurdistan. The results indicate that the most effective vocabulary learning strategies are reading in English language and conversing with native speakers frequently.

However, other strategies such as watching television program and films, using English online, using bilingual dictionaries, translating English texts. Listening to English songs and narrative stories are found to be as beneficial as the other two strategies. Vocabulary notebooks and motivation from teachers are the other two strategies proposed by participants as being effective at enhancing English vocabulary knowledge. It is interesting to mention the fact that some learners can get benefit form bilingual or monolingual dictionaries when they are selective. Another technique that has a reasonable impact on gaining second language vocabulary learning is code-mixing technique. Using L1 and L2 in direct communication between EFL learners and instructors known as code mixing. When students as a learner find difficulties in understanding the whole words they aimed to use this technique for introducing foreign vocabulary.

The results indicate that the vocabulary notebook strategy is effective for retaining knowledge of particular English synonyms for a long period of time, while, improving motivation has a great impact on learners' English language learning.

Keywords: EFL learner, synonym, second language, learning strategy, vocabulary.

Section One:-

1.1. Introduction

Learning vocabulary is one of the most fundamental challenges that language learners face. Learners' insufficient vocabulary tends to impact on foreign language performance because vocabulary is the most crucial element for engaging effective language learning Weigel (1919: 340) argued that through getting a massive amount of second language vocabulary learners could be able to understanding contexts in second language an convey what they aimed to express in their conversation. Therefore, instructors should pay attention to educating language learners with productive vocabulary learning and teaching strategies. Moreover, various researchers emphasized the importance of using various strategies for effective second language vocabulary learning. Oxford (1990: 7) noted strategies, which were identified as steps that can be taken by EFL learners to enhance their own language learning. Language efficiency and self-confidence are two important features that improved with the growth of second language vocabulary. Learners are motivated by teachers to learn language through using particular types of techniques with great frequency in order to increase their own vocabulary knowledge. Utilizing strategies for second language vocabulary learning is vital because learners need to be able to deal with a significant volume of foreign vocabulary within quite a limited period of time.

This study uses a questionnaire-based approach toward examining the effectiveness of various learning strategies among Kurdish EFL learners in England and Kurdistan. Also, this study considers the effectiveness of a number of vocabulary learning strategies for the achievement of effective English language learning. The strategies are reading English texts, conversing with native speakers, using bilingual dictionaries, using English online, watching English-language films and television programs are strategies utilized by Kurdish learners in order to learn the English language efficiently. The study also addresses the relationship between vocabulary proficiency and the age at which learners first began learning the English language.

Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Leicester are different from the Kurdish participants from the University of Sulaimaniyah because of the provision of developed educational facilities. In addition, the frequency of practice has a great impact on the effectiveness of language acquisition. For instance, when learners spend more time on reading activities, they become more familiar with a great many previously unknown words, and pick up some of their meanings. Another strategy explored in this study is conversing with native speakers. Kurdish EFL learners are motivated through engaging with English speakers because

they are able to directly convey their points of view concerning a particular matter. The opportunities for such exchanges with native speakers differ for the two groups of Kurdish learners.

Kurdish students, who are practicing reading and speaking, using the native speaker's strategy, are also using different types of dictionaries to find more synonyms for unknown words. Bilingual and monolingual dictionaries are two beneficial types of dictionary that play an important role in improving Kurdish learners' abilities to recall and retain foreign vocabulary. Furthermore, using an English online method is another common strategy employed by Kurdish EFL learners rather than other language learners. Undoubtedly, there is a considerable volume of information available online that supports learners in extracting the most effective materials to increase their English vocabulary knowledge.

Vocabulary notebooks are frequently used by Kurdish EFL learners to acquire the wide range of English vocabulary. Walters and Bozkurt (2009: 419) argued that students frequently return back to their vocabulary notebooks because sometimes they hardly could memorize huge number of new words. They emphasized the fact that vocabulary notebooks paly a great role in second language vocabulary acquisition. Keeping new word meanings in a specific vocabulary notebook facilitates the memorizing of words and retention thereof for quite a long period of time. However, regular feedback and continuous encouragement are needed to maintain motivation and develop their language learning programs. It could be argued that utilizing foreign language vocabulary notebooks supports independent learning efficiency. Thus, second language acquisition requires significant and prolonged effort as well as selectivity in the types of language learning strategies utilized.

1.2. Background of the study

As we have already seen that second language learners are frequently use different types of language learning strategies. Vocabulary acquisition strategies can be the use of any techniques or tools to assist in the more efficient or rapid uptake of vocabulary, or to increase the ease with which this is accomplished. Independent second language learning is vital because learners are only focused on their personal learning ability. Oxford (1990: 2) and Eichholz and Barbe (1961: 1) argued that students could manage a wide range of foreign vocabulary by practicing learning techniques. Language learners should pay more attention to the strategies that they use because this is a great responsibility for improving individual language proficiency. Developing vocabulary knowledge is one of the greatest problems faced by teachers in the education process. Those writers argued that teachers believe that understanding a specific number of new words and emphasizing the meaning of them in a particular context could be a useful technique to engender familiarity with their meanings.

Therefore, teachers have a great role to play in encouraging students to learn and utilize new words in order for students to gain command of a large number of word meanings in a short space of time. Yang (1999: 517) and Shabani (2012: 127) demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between the level of acquisition of a second language and the type of strategies that are preferred by learners. Motivation and learners' beliefs have an effect on practicing strategies for learning foreign word meanings. Despite teachers' efforts and encouragement in classrooms, students could decide on the way that they prefer new vocabulary learning outside of class. It seems that EFL learners can get more benefits from a particular learning strategy that they are interested in because there is a greater connection between learners' desires and their learning capability.

Foreign language learners can obtain benefits from reading texts or books to master a greater number of new words. Most EFL learners make rapid progress in learning vocabulary while they spend more time reading books that interest them. Elley and Mangubhai (1983: 54) argued that students need to be motivated by their instructors to read books in English in order to explore a large number of new meanings. In this case, parents also play a great role in encouraging their children at very early ages to read and inform them about the importance of books for learning languages. In order to investigate the effects of reading English texts, Mangubhai Selected 380 groups of 4 to 5 students from eight rural Fijian schools and 250 English books were provided for them to read. The books were appealing, age-appropriate English language story books. Different methods are used for encouraging students to read the books provided. After eight months, those pupils who read the story books most showed a high degree of progression in learning English vocabulary. This result confirmed the researcher's hypothesis, of a strong and valid connection between reading interesting texts and vocabulary acquisition in a second language.

In contrasting, Noor and Amir (2009: 325) argued that reading practice is a slow process involving the collection of large amounts of second language vocabulary because reading requires accurate skills for recognizing new word meanings and treating them as normal words. Sometimes learners skip sentences or entire paragraphs that include extra unknown words because second language learners can only manage a limited number of new words in a short space of time. Noor and Amir investigated different types of learning strategies in their research. The results confirmed that reading could not be counted as a strong strategy for raising the score of English vocabulary knowledge. The majority of informants agreed that they felt anxious when they depended on reading as a learning strategy. However, some of students highlighted the point that those terms and words that they learned while reading were very well retained in their memory.

Thus, depending on various thoughts, ideas and findings provided by authors and other researchers, reading activity can be counted as one of the most important factors that

EFL learner can use to improve vocabulary at a faster than normal rate. However, some researchers believe that reading is a slow process for vocabulary improvement. Reading strategy is one of the most effective methods for supporting EFL learners to gain familiarity with numerous unknown words.

It is interesting to notice that television and other electronic devices have an influence on foreign language improvement by offering a substantial degree of second language vocabulary learning. Harji, Woods and Alavi (2010: 41) and Webb (2011: 118) argued that second language vocabulary development could achieve by EFL learners through many various learning or teaching processes. However, using some multimedia types for learning can be complicated and irritating. They emphasized the effectiveness of English language subtitles on the learners' uptake of definitions. It seems that EFL learners could store quite a number of second language word meanings by paying more attention to subtitled television programs.

Many EFL learners feel that a lack of foreign language vocabulary is the main obstacle to communicating fluently and being understood effectively. However, some learners can pick up a greater number of new words meaning by frequent use of bilingual dictionaries. Luppescu and Day (1993: 265) asserted that the contribution of using bilingual dictionaries for learning of second language vocabulary is crucial because dictionaries cover substantial quantities of word meanings and are arranged alphabetically.

1.3. Hypothesis of the study

It is quite clear that large numbers of previous authors and researchers had underlined various types of strategies utilized by instructors and learners for improving second language vocabulary. There are different educational systems applied in schools as well as universities based on each country's regulations. It is assumed that using various types of learning strategies for learning new vocabulary have a great effect on learners vocabulary knowledge in limited period of time and their attitudes will be more positive.

1.4. The scope of the study

This paper in mainly aimed to deal with EFL learner's ability to improve their range of new vocabulary through practicing different types of beneficial strategies or techniques. Graduated and undergraduate students took place in this research form Sulaimaniyah University/ English department and Leicester University from United Kingdom.

1.5. The purpose of the study

The major purpose of the study is to investigate the most effective vocabulary learning strategy by EFL learners and realizing learners' performance through serving each of those techniques. Some of learners could enhance larger quantity of new vocabulary through practicing specific strategy as compared to those who relied on more than three or four different learning strategies.

1.6. Statement of the problem

To underline this issue, the study aimed to answer the following research questions depending on the research literature. The questions are clearly highlighted below: -

1-   Does the age at which English learning begins influence Kurdish EFL learners' developing vocabulary knowledge?

2-   Does the level of variation in the English vocabulary knowledge among Kurdish EFL learners depend on whether they have learnt within an English speaking country?

3-   Do Kurdish EFL learners accurately identify their level of vocabulary knowledge?

4-   Which vocabulary strategies are the most effective for Kurdish EFL learners?

1.7. The significance of the study

In this field of study, researchers tried to observe different types of methods that hopefully served education field. However, developing vocabulary strategies for Kurdish EFL learners have not been conducted before by any researchers inside or outside the Kurdistan region. In this study, most strategies are investigated which are preferred by Kurdish EFL learners for improving their English vocabulary knowledge. The aim of this research is to identify the most effective strategies for managing significant volumes of English vocabulary by Kurdish EFL learners in the University of Sulaimaniyah and the University of Leicester.

Section two: -

2.1. Analysis, results and discussion

In order to provide the accurate and statistical results and to be able to generalize in relation to the main aims in this study, all data were analysed analysed that collected from 55 Kurdish EFL learners in Sulaimaniyah and Leicester University. For this purpose a table is formulated to cover all information that gathered for investigation. Normally, the answers coded from each of the questions by number to simplify the counting process.

Table 1A: The production of synonyms by informants according to the age at which they began learning English

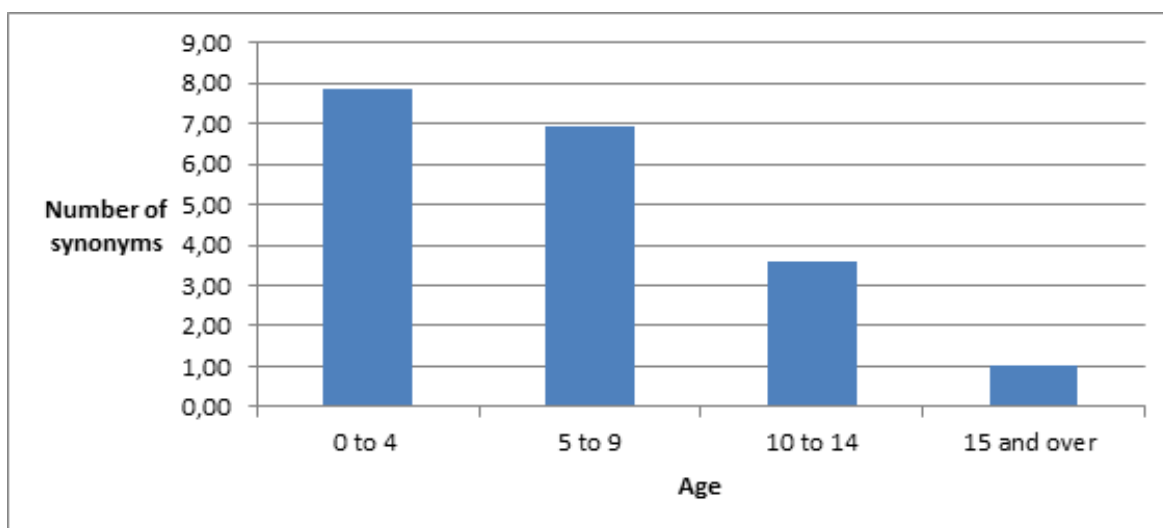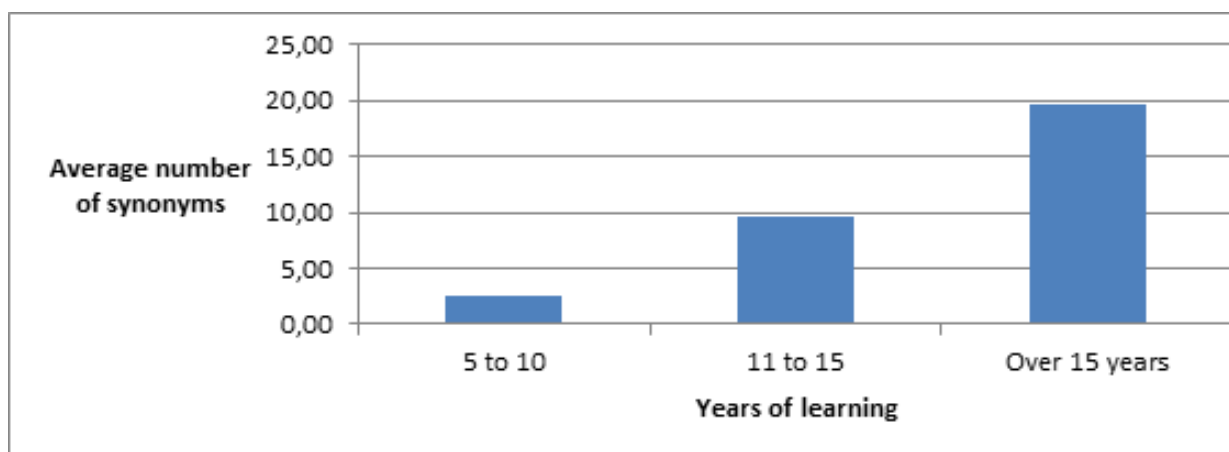| Age at which learning English began	Number of synonyms provided by informants
0 to 4	7.86
5 to 9	6.96
10 to 14	3.61
15 and over	1.00

Figure 1A: The production of synonyms by informants according to the age at which they began learning English

Table 1B: The production of synonyms by informants according to the numbers of years that they spend for learning English language

| Years of learning English language	Average number of synonyms provided
5 to 10	2.63
11 to 15	9.70
Over 15 years	19.67

Figure 1B: The production of synonyms by informants according to the numbers of years that they spend for learning English language

Table 1A, is formulated by selecting the age at which participants begun learning English language and the number of provided English synonyms depending on the learning age. Similarly, in the table 1B, the same software used for examining the number of provided English synonyms by informants based on the period of time that they spent in their life for English language learning.

Table 1 establishes that there is an inverse correlation between the age at which Kurdish EFL learners began learning the English language and the number of synonyms the participants produced. The results indicate that the number of English synonyms produced drops gradually based on the age at which they began learning English. However, there is no significant difference between those two groups of Kurdish EFL learners who were aged between 0 to 5 and 5 to 10, in English vocabulary knowledge. It can be concluded that children can manage second language learning better because they have a quite strong and adaptive mind for memorizing new words. Although, learning of the English language by those Kurdish EFL learners, who were aged from fifteen years old and over is problematic because they may feel difficulty in dealing with another language. Herschensohn (2007:17) argued that learning a second language becomes increasingly difficult with age. In contrasting, he highlighted that point that the primary school children are not able to master all aspects of the second language because of continuous progression in their minds. Also, the result indicated that those learners how are spend non to four years in English vocabulary learning could produce fewer number of English synonyms than those who spend more times for this purpose.

Table 2: The number of synonyms produced by Kurdish EFL learners at both the University of Leicester and the University of Sulaimaniyah, correlated with the frequency of reading practice

The frequency of reading practice of Kurdish EFL learners	Average number of English synonyms produced	
	University of Leicester	University of Sulaimaniyah
every day	15.28	7.50
once a week	13.20	6.83
at least once a month	12.33	5.57
less than once a month	0.00	5.50
Never	0.00	4.25
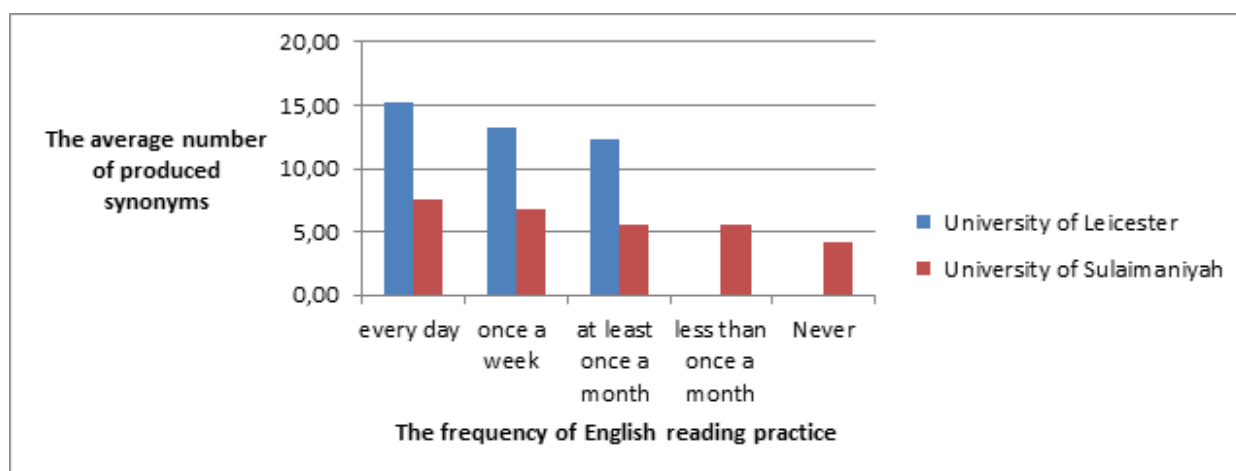
Figure 2: The number of synonyms produced by Kurdish EFL learners at both the University of Leicester and the University of Sulaimaniyah correlated with the frequency of reading practice.

Table (2) and figure (2) illustrates the effect of practicing English reading by both groups of Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Sulaimaniyah and the University of Leicester, simultaneously.

The effect of reading practice on the development of Kurdish EFL students' English vocabulary is highlighted in the second table. Kurdish EFL learners, who practiced reading English books, magazines and newspapers every day, could produce the highest number of English synonyms. Teachers in the University of Leicester had realized the primacy of the reading strategy for improving second language vocabulary based on their years of teaching experience. Studying in an English speaking country might be a contributory factor

in reporting a high number of English synonyms. Therefore, the English synonyms were produced synonyms with greater frequency compared to other Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Sulaimaniyah. Noor and Amir (2009: 313) mentioned that a reading strategy is a quite slow process for improving vocabulary knowledge. However, they recall is better as the vocabulary were rarely forgotten by EFL learners, when learnt from practicing the reading strategy.

Table 3: The correlation between the frequency of practicing watching television in English and the number of produced English synonyms by Kurdish EFL learners

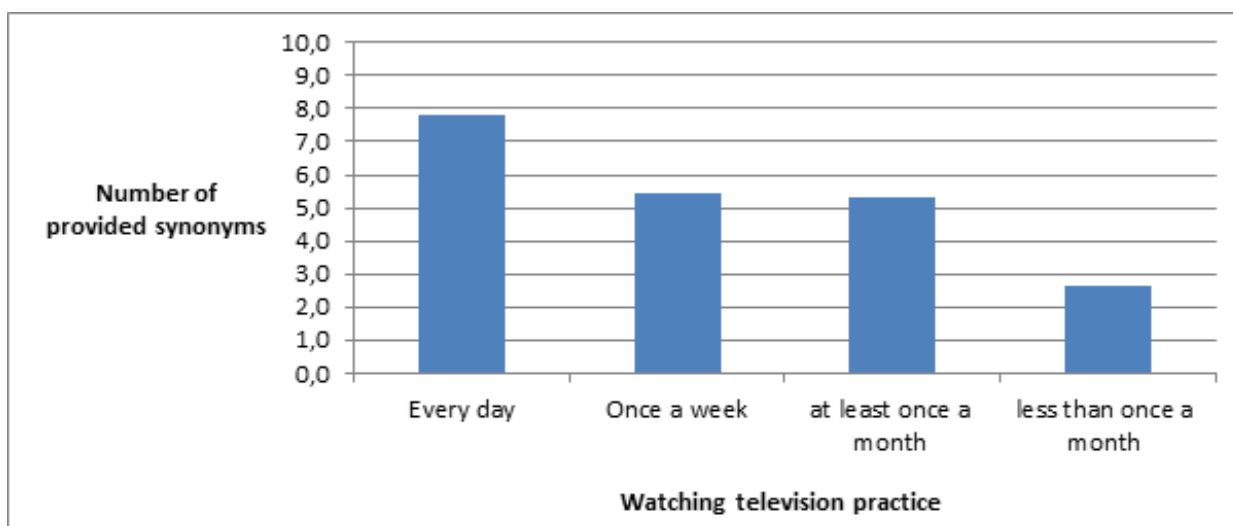| The frequency of watching television programs or films	The frequency of producing English vocabulary by Kurdish EFL learners
Every day	7.80
Once a week	5.46
at least once a month	5.31
less than once a month	2.67

Figure 3: The correlation between the frequency of practicing watching English television and the number of produced English synonyms by Kurdish EFL learners

In table (3), I display another type of activity that has a significant impact on improving second language vocabulary knowledge of Kurdish EFL learners in the University of Sulaimaniyah

and the University of Leicester. The frequency of practicing watching television channels in English and the average numbers of English synonyms are demonstrated in this particular table. Watching television was another strategy that was preferred by Kurdish EFL learners for improving their English vocabulary knowledge besides the reading strategy. Moreover, the frequency of watching television is significant because it affects their second language learning process. Oxford et al (1993: 46) argued that television is one of the major factors that have a great impact on language learning achievement and motivation in is very vital for this process. The points will be explicated more clearly by observing the third table.

The importance of subtitled programs or films is emphasized in this study, as well. Thus, young learners preferred watching foreign language programs with subtitles more than non-subtitled productions. It can be concluded that EFL learners could fill the gap that they have in learning the foreign language through watching television programs and films.

Table 4: The average number of synonyms produced by Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Sulaimaniyah and the University of Leicester correlated with practicing speaking with **native speakers**

The frequency of speaking practise	Average number of synonyms produced	
	University of Sulaimaniyah	**University of Leicester**
Every day	7.66	14.12
Once a week	7.20	12.55
At least once a month	6.57	12.00
Less than once a month	5.50	6.50
Never	4.77	0.00
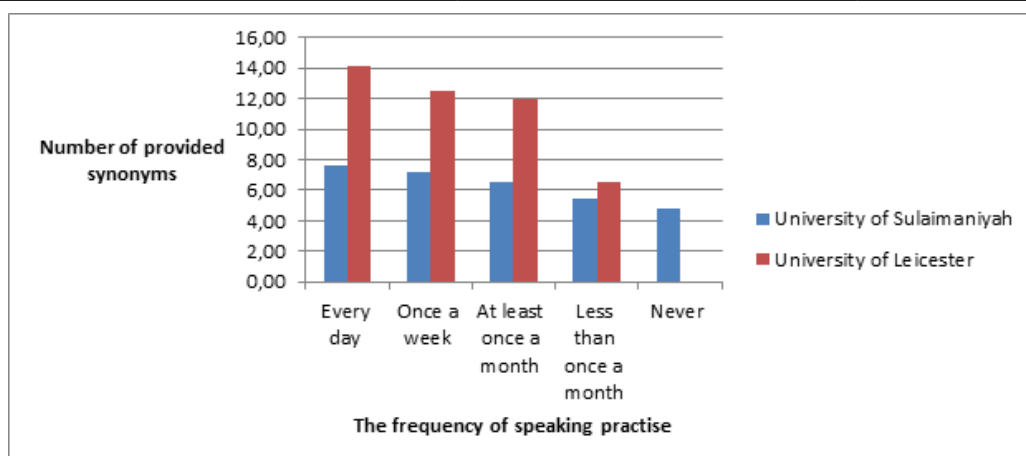
Figure 4: The average number of synonyms produced by Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Sulaimaniyah and the University of Leicester correlated with practicing speaking with native speakers

In table 4, the speaking with native speaker's strategy used by Kurdish EFL learners in Kurdistan and Leicester to gain their English vocabulary knowledge is highlighted. The frequencies of dealing with practicing speaking activity of Kurdish EFL learners at Kurdistan and England are also taken place in this table.

The average number of English synonyms produced by Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Leicester, who practice speaking every day, is over twice that of those students at the University of Sulaimaniyah. Kurdish learners at the University of Leicester were superior in their reporting of English synonyms even if they practiced English language in low frequencies. Certainly, the educational environment at the University of Leicester plays a great role in encouraging EFL learners to interact with other individuals using the English language. Bialystok (1990: 12) has asserted that lack of foreign language vocabulary leads to misunderstanding of language learners in different situations. Language learners should be familiar with the correct meanings of the foreign grammatical elements when they utilize them in their communication. Ellis (1997: 60) has explained that many communication strategies are the first choice of adult EFL learners in order to overcome difficulties that they face in their communication styles.

Table 5: The number of English synonyms provided by Kurdish EFL learners correlated with practising English dictionaries

The frequency of using English dictionaries	The average number of provided synonyms
at least once a month	7.25
one a week	8.09
every day	9.05
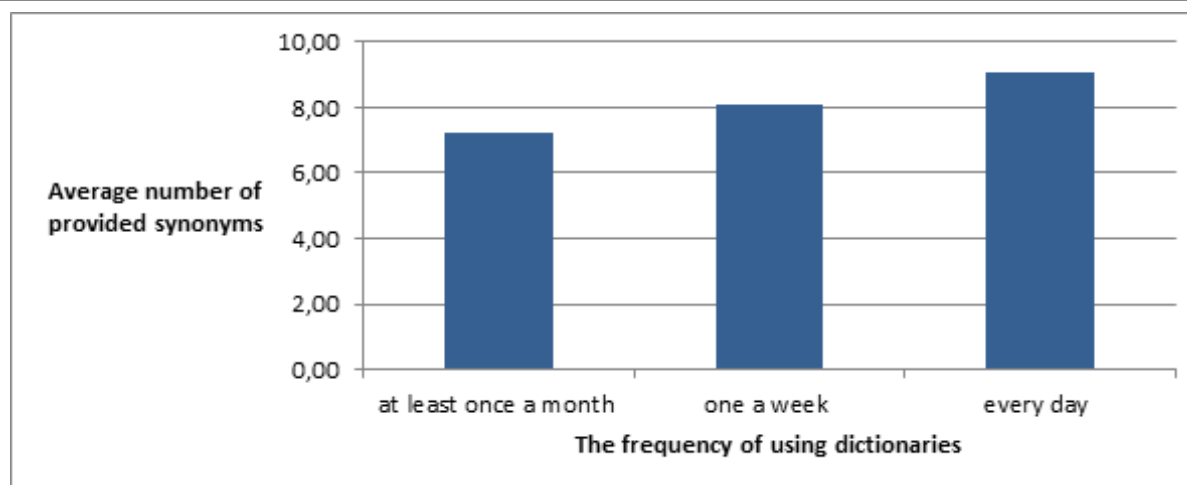
Figure 5: The number of English synonyms provided by Kurdish EFL learners correlated with practicing English dictionaries

Table (5) illustrates the relationship between the frequent using of bilingual dictionaries and English vocabulary produced. In the same way, figure (5) shows the same English average numbers based on the frequency of using English dictionaries but in a different manner. Kurdish EFL learners at both universities tend to use English dictionaries to improve their vocabulary knowledge, but with different frequencies. The difference between the average numbers of English synonyms produced in various frequencies is relatively small as is shown in Table 5.

The participants were paying more attention to the use of dictionaries because they believe that utilizing bilingual dictionaries is vital step to be familiar with for second language basics than advanced and academic words in English language. Obviously, electronic dictionaries are used considerably by the digital generation because they feel bored with paper versions of dictionaries and find them more time-consuming to refer to.

Shen (2013: 82) investigated the effects of dictionary usage and vocabulary knowledge on reading performance. The results reported that there is a positive correlation between using electronic dictionaries and learning a large number of new foreign meanings, in that her participants' reading scores were affected by their frequency of access to different bilingual dictionaries. Reading, in turn, supports growth of vocabulary knowledge. Golavar et al. (2012: 4452) explained that referring to monolingual and bilingual dictionaries is a crucial technique for learning unknown English words. Gu (2003) has suggested that learners should be free in selecting their preferred type of dictionary for their language improvement.

Table 6: The effect of using English language online as a strategy for vocabulary learning

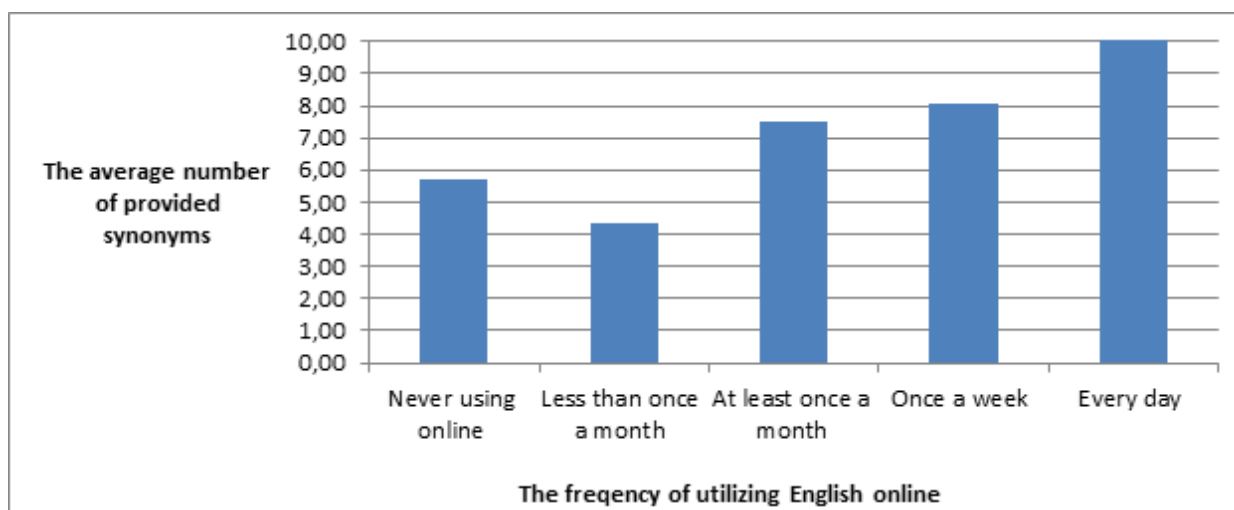| The frequency of using English online	The average number of provided English synonyms
Never	5.71
Less than once a month	4.33
At least once a month	7.50
At least once a week	8.07
Every day	10.08

Figure 6: The effect of using English language online as a strategy for vocabulary learning

Table (6) is structured to underline another strategy that is widely used by EFL Kurdish learners whether in Kurdistan or in an English speaking country. This common strategy is the use of English online. Kurdish EFL learners, who used the other strategies in different frequencies, have also used online sources as an additional technique for increasing their knowledge regarding foreign vocabulary. Most Kurdish students have used online sources for entertainment and learning simultaneously. Table 6 confirmed that the average number of English synonyms produced by every-day online users is double that of those learners who never use the internet, or did so 'at least once a month'.

Laufer and Hadar (1997: 195) noticed that learning vocabulary is a boring process. They found that when learners are motivated by teachers they can continue teach for a long period of time, and that games support learners to sustain their work and interests. Likewise, Yip and Kwan (2006: 247) suggested that learners could memorize and learn much new

vocabulary with different synonyms for each word. Their research indicates that educational games have a significant impact on improving vocabulary knowledge.

Table 7: The relationship between different strategies for learning vocabulary and the average number of synonyms produced

| Frequencies of practicing learning strategies	The average number of produced vocabulary through different strategies				
	Reading	Watching television	speaking with native speakers	Using English dictionary	Using online
Never	4.25	0.00	4.78	0.00	5.71
Less than once a month	5.50	2.70	12.00	0.00	4.33
At least once a month	9.75	5.31	18.57	7.25	7.50
Once a week	20.00	5.46	19.76	8.09	8.08
Every day	22.78	7.82	21.79	9.05	10.08
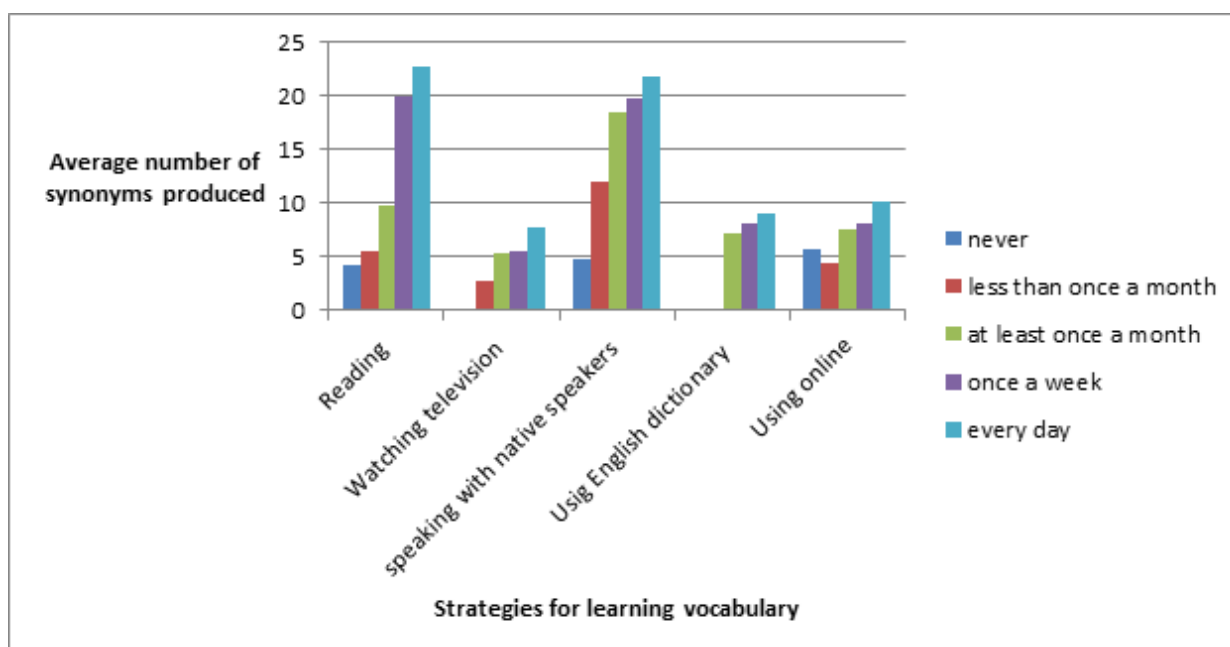
Figure 7: The relationship between different strategies for learning vocabulary and the average number of synonyms produced

Table 7 represents the effectiveness of most strategies used by Kurdish EFL learners for developing their English vocabulary knowledge. It demonstrates that the reading strategy is the most effective one for enhancing second language vocabulary. Those Kurdish learners who were able to produce the greatest number of English synonyms are those who spend more time practicing reading. The second strategy that has nearly the same effectiveness as the reading strategy is speaking with native speakers. There is not a significant difference in effectiveness between the other three strategies, which are using English online, using bilingual dictionaries and watching television programs or films. Moreover, the fourth research question which regards identifying the frequency of using other strategies that support Kurdish EFL learners to learn English vocabulary properly. Certainly, the answer would be the reading strategy and speaking with native speakers, as well. It is a useful finding for other EFL learners to follow, as this instruction may enable those learners to make better use of their time, to focus on more effective strategies, and so achieve higher levels of language proficiency through more targeted learning.

Section Three: -

3.1. Conclusion

Findings from the current study demonstrated that Kurdish EFL learners are more likely to use different strategies to develop their English vocabulary knowledge rather than randomly learning. Some of the Kurdish students were familiar with different aspects of the English language very early in life. While the usual age for learning a second language was eleven to twelve years old, based on Kurdistan educational curriculum, the results show that age has a great influence on enhancing English vocabulary knowledge, particularly the age at which the language is first studied. The frequency of using learning strategies by Kurdish students is distinct because of their selectivity in utilizing different strategies for learning English language. Depending on some participants' respond that they never communicated with native speakers but they were able to report few numbers of English synonyms in their questionnaire feedback.

The reading strategy is used considerably by Kurdish EFL students who studying the English language in both England and Kurdistan. Kurdish students, who practiced the reading strategy with greater frequency, are better able to produce English synonyms. The second strategy that has a great impact on improving English language vocabulary is conversing with native speakers. Kurdish EFL learners from the University of Leicester have more opportunities to practice conversing with native speakers frequently because of being in an English speaking country. Kurdish EFL learners at the University of Sulaimaniyah are generally restricted to communicating with their classmates in the English language in order

to increase their English vocabulary knowledge; this is evidently an inferior strategy. Additional strategies used by Kurdish EFL learners include watching English language television programs and films, using bilingual dictionaries, using the English language online. There was not a relative difference among the strategies, other than reading and speaking with native speakers; nearly the same amount of English synonyms were produced by Kurdish EFL learners using the other strategies. Watching films with subtitles and without subtitles may also have a significant effect on acquisition of definitions of new English vocabulary. It could be mentioned that using various strategies is crucial for effective English language vocabulary achievement.

To sum up reading and conversing with native speakers are the primary recommendations of this study for Kurdish EFL students, but also watching TV with subtitles. For governments, it is suggested that the age of 11 for learning language should be lowered to give a better advantage to future students. Kurdish EFL students, it was found, know their own level of English quite well and Kurdish EFL students at the University of Sulaimaniyah demonstrate less wide vocabularies than Kurdish EFL students at the University of Leicester. It is recommended that studying in an English-speaking country is better for vocabulary uptake of the English language, but future studies could investigate this in wider populations.

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A Cloud Computing System based Laborites' Learning Universities: Case study of Bayan University's Laborites -Erbil

Dr. Eng. Wassan Adnan. Hashim

Mr. Omar Abdulmaged Hammood

Mrs. Teeba Ismail Al-azraqe

Computer Science\Bayan University

ABSTRACT

The success of every tertiary institution in the 21st century will to a large extent rely on effective utilization of various forms of information and communications technology resources, understanding of Information Communication Technology (ICT) is therefore essential to meeting up the changing world. In recent years, Cloud computing as a new type of advanced technology accelerates the innovation for the education learning. Cloud computing is an extension of the concept of distributed computing – which is the process of running a program or application over many computers connected by a network. The term "cloud" is analogical to "Internet". The term "cloud computing" is used for the computation over the Internet. It is the future of Internet

The potential and efficiency of using Cloud computing in higher education has been recognized by many universities in the developed countries, the cloud computing in education will resolve not only from an academic point of view, but also particularly on a reduction of cost, effective communication, security, privacy, providing, flexibility and accessibility.

In the present paper a cloud-based computing labs is introduced and how it is beneficial for student's flexibility in accessing the lab resources from outside the university at any time. Virtualization technology through virtual computing lab-VCL is conducted in Bayan University, to gives the students an open and flexible environment and to ease the overflow of the physical computer labs by providing needed applications via an internet connection. Such flexibility provides them the ability to continue to work on their homework and projects outside the lab hours as well as at their convenience, preference and choice.

Keywords: cloud computing, information communication technology, higher education technology, virtual machine, virtual computing lab

1- INTRODUCTION

The success of every tertiary institution in the 21st century will to a large extent rely on effective utilization of various forms of information and communications technology

resources, understanding of Information Communication Technology (ICT) is therefore essential to meeting up the changing world. In the present information age, information and communications technology (ICT) plays a vital role in transforming the manner in which knowledge and skills are transferred to learners from traditional face-to-face approach, partly as a result of the increasing number of students seeking a place in one of the various departments in universities and other tertiary institutions (Akilu, Salisu 2015, Utpal, Majidul 2013).

Fortunately, cloud computing has a significant impact on the educational environment .By utilizing the cloud in education, universities would have cost effective, highly portable and maintenance-free solutions which in turn will improve collaboration and communication (Omar , Muhammad, Rana 2014). When Cloud Computing appears, it provides a new solution to establish a unified, open and flexible network teaching platform and reduce the hardware input .Internet is the resource where we can transform cloud computing, it can deliver the most advanced software and educational materials, hardware resources and services to students and educators (Utpal , Majidual 2013).

Cloud computing predecessors have been around for some time now, but the term became "popular" sometime in October 2007 when IBM and Google announced a collaboration in that domain. This was followed by IBM's announcement of the "Blue Cloud" effort. It is conceivable that August 24, 2006 will go down as the birthday of Cloud Computing, as it was on this day that Amazon made the test version of its Elastic Computing Cloud (EC2) public [Business Week 2006]. This offer, providing flexible IT resources (computing capacity), marks a definitive milestone in dynamic business relations between IT users and providers (Kiran 2014).

When compared to the existed traditional ICT, cloud computing has many advantages such as reduced upfront investment (i.e., software, hardware, and professional staff to maintain servers and upgrade software), reduced launching time, where days become hours ,expected performance, high availability, infinite scalability, tremendous fault-tolerance capability, and enhanced collaboration, accessibility, and mobility, allowing users to use any device, such as a personal computer (PC), or a mobile phone, etc. Some higher business units like Google, IBM, and Microsoft offer the cloud for free of cost for the education system, so it can be used in right way which will provide high quality education (Minutoli, et al. 2010, Joshi, Saravanan 2013).

There are two key educational technologies that are increasingly used for teaching and fundamentally changing how training is delivered. On one hand, online learning systems, on

the other hand, virtual machine technologies (e.g., VMware, VirtualBox) are more and more used by educators from different disciplines to create self-contained and potable virtual educational appliances (Jianwei , Yunhui, James 2014).

Virtualization technology lets a single PC or server simultaneously run multiple operating systems or multiple sessions of a single OS. This lets users put numerous applications—even those that run on different operating systems—on a single PC or server instead of having to host them on separate machines as in the past. It's technique, method or approach of creating a virtual (not actual) version of something such as a virtual hardware platform, operating system (OS), storage device, or network resources. It's using the simulation of the software and/or software upon which other software runs. This simulated environment is called a virtual machine (VM) (Niktita, Toshi 2014, Jithesh, Vasvi 2009).

It's very common that software for some course that was studied in universities only need a small portion of the departmental computers. Installing everything on the same system will also lead to deteriorated performance and potential software conflicts. So, Virtual Machine (VM) is a very promising solution to the above issues. Educational software can be conveniently packaged in their virtual machines (VMs) and transparently distributed and deployed to any computer.

VCL stands for Virtual Computing Lab. It is a free & open-source cloud computing platform with the primary goal of delivering dedicated, custom compute environments to users. VCL is a developed at the NCSU through a collaboration of its College of Engineering and IBM Virtual Computing, and supported provisioning several different types of compute resources including physical bare-metal machines, virtual machines hosted on several different hypervisors, and traditional computing lab computers you would normally find on a university campus (Jose, et al. 2015, William I, etc. 2006).
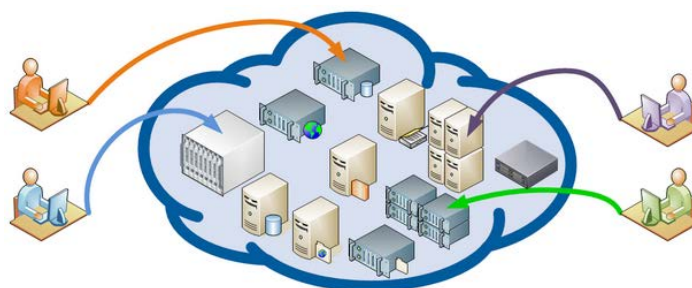
FIGURE 1. Architecture of VCL

The adoption of cloud computing in education has come hand in hand with an important research effort. There are a great number of scientific contributions that address the topic from different perspectives trying to harness cloud computing services for education (Jianwei, Yunhui 2014).

Based on the above considerations, we have deployed our cloud based virtual lab using VCL, as shown in Figure 2. The cloud in the middle represents online learning web site "Microsoft Azure", or our VCL-BU (Bayan University) cloud service in the core. Inside this cloud, the different ellipses signify various VM images that can be instanced for teaching purposes.
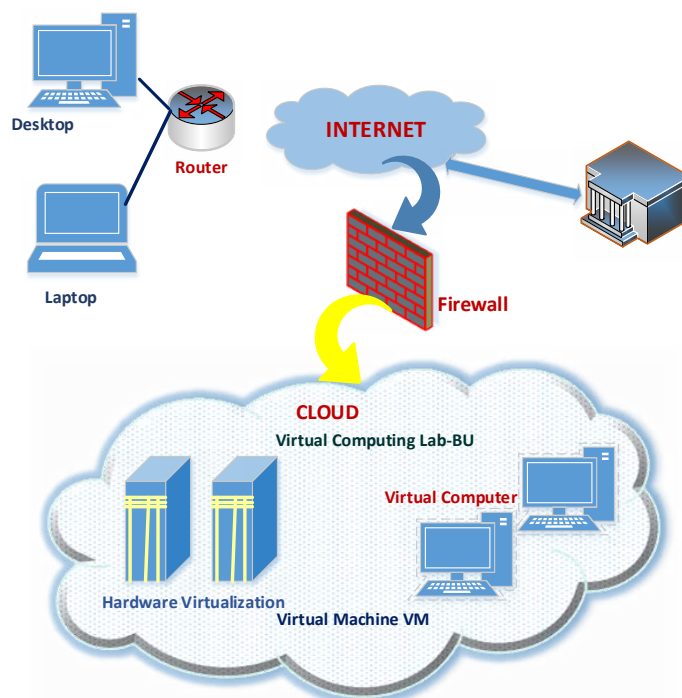
FIGURE 2. Implementation of VCL-BU

This paper is thus structured as follows. Section 2 provides some background information on cloud computing, characteristics, services and deployment models. Section 4 shows the main benefits and affordances of cloud computing for education. Section 4 presents the design and implementation of VCL-BU. Section 5 discusses the experiences from using VCL-BU to teach a real course. Finally, discussion and the main conclusions are laid out in Section 6.

2- BACKGROUND ON CLOUD COMPUTING

The cloud computing paradigm offers a pool of virtual resources (hardware, development platforms or services) available over the network. These computing capabilities can be pro-visioned and released to scale rapidly according to demand. The name comes from the use of a cloud-shaped symbol as an abstraction for the complex infrastructure it contains in system diagrams. Cloud computing entrusts remote services with a user's data, software and computation. Cloud computing services are typically categorized into three main types (Utpal, Majidul 2013, Pranay, Sumitha, N.Uma 2013) :
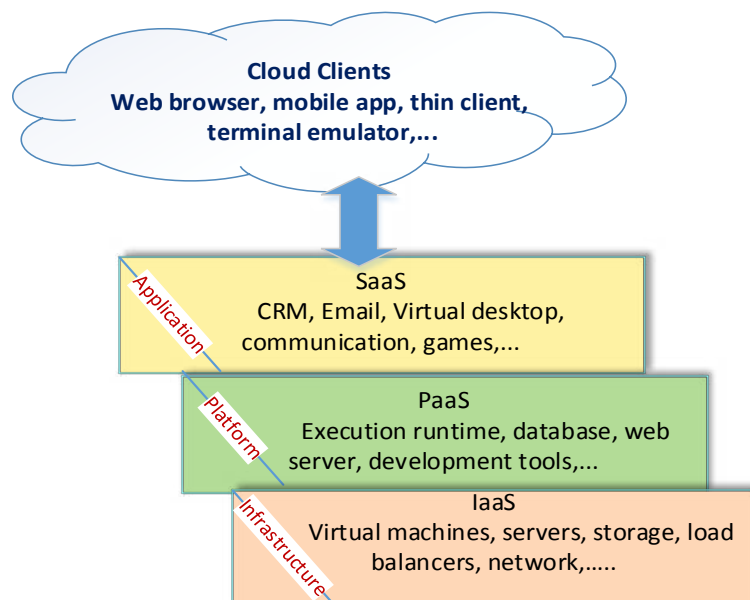
2-1- CLOUD COMPUTING SERVICE MODEL

There are three levels of services are supplied to cloud customers as shown in Figure 3. These various of services provides by the cloud are:

Software as a service (SaaS): Software applications are offered as services on the Internet rather than as software packages to be purchased by individual customers. This type of service is running on the provider's infrastructures and is accessed through client's browser (e.g. Google Apps and Salesforce.com).

Platform as a Service (PaaS): In this type of cloud computing, a customer pays to the service provider to use their platform as their IT solution. It's delivering to the customer the ability to create and deploy owned applications using programming languages and tools from the provider's cloud infrastructure, such as servers, network and operating systems, without the customer taking full control of the underlying infrastructure

Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS): Hardware resources (such as storage) and computing power (CPU and memory) are offered as services to customers. This enables businesses to rent these resources rather than spending money to buy dedicated servers and networking equipment. As examples in this category, Amazon, Flexi scale and Go Grid allow their Customers to have access to entire Virtual Machines (VMS) hosted by the Provider.


FIGURE 3: Service Models of Cloud Computing

2.2. CLOUD DEPLOYMENT MODELS

There are various deployment models, with variations in physical location and distribution, which have been adopted by the cloud computing, the following four cloud deployment models (Utpal, Majidul 2013, Jithesh, Vasvi 2009, Ghazal Riah 2015):

i.   Public cloud is a cloud computing deployment model in which infrastructure is made available to general public. It's also describing cloud computing in the traditional mainstream sense

ii.   A private cloud is a particular model of cloud computing that involves a distinct and secure cloud based environment in which only the specified client can operate "As Typically exist behind an organization's firewall and are deployed for internal customers"

iii.   A community cloud is shared by several organizations and supports a specific community that has shared concerns. Examples of community cloud include Google's "Gov Cloud".

iv.   Hybrid cloud uses a combination of both public and private storage cloud that remain unique entities but are bound together, offering the benefits of multiple deployment models.
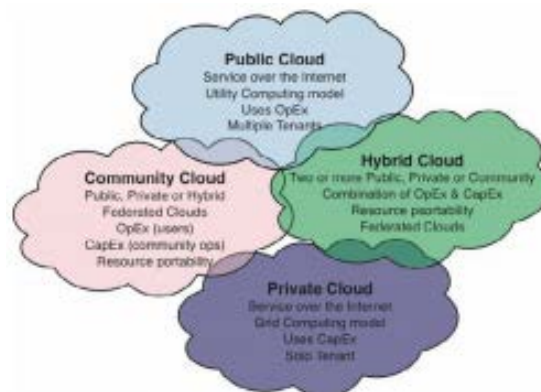
FIGURE 3: Cloud deployment models.

2.3. SECURITY IN CLOUD

Cloud computing security (sometimes referred to simply as "cloud security") is an evolving sub-domain of computer security, network security and more broadly, information security. It refers to a broad set of policies, technologies, and controls deployed to protect data, applications, and the associated infrastructure of cloud computing Ghazal Riah 2015).

3- CLOUD COMPUTING BASED EDUCATION LEARNING

One of the most interesting applications of cloud computing is educational cloud. While, most of the private educational institutions have become highly dependent on information technology to service their requirements. These services are increasingly provided using Internet technologies to faculty and students and accessed from web browsers. The main users of a typical higher education cloud include students, faculty. All the main users of the university are connected to the cloud .Separate login is provided for all the users for their respective work (Parashar et al 2013, Dr. Gokhan , Dr. Naveed 2014).

Cloud-based applications can provide students and teachers with free or low-cost alterna

tives to expensive, proprietary productivity tools. For many institutions, cloud computing offers a cost-effective solution to the problem of how to provide services, data storage, and computing power to a growing number of Internet users without investing capital in physical machines that need to be maintained and upgraded on-site. Teachers can upload various software, the class tutorials, assignments, and tests on the cloud server which students will be able to access all the teaching material provided by the teachers via Internet using computers and other electronic devices both at home and college and 24/7. The education system will make it possible for teachers to identify problem areas in which students.

However, teachers don't have to worry about using outdated or different versions of software. As an IT department, it often use advanced software languages, and when students send the test files to each other, this often generates errors because they don't have the same version installed. The same goes with Microsoft Word documents.   The cloud will take care of issues like these.

 There are numerous advantages when the education system is implemented with the cloud computing technology, they are:

- Lower costs

- Improved performance

- Instant software updates

- Improved document format compatibility

- Benefits for students

- Benefits for teachers

Most of the government schools and colleges in Iraq, IT plays very limited role. Most of the work is done manually from attendance to classroom teaching to examination system. So, Cloud computing technology can provide solutions for the mentioned problems in education system.

4- VIRTUAL COMPUTING LAB USING CLOUD COMPUTING TECHNOLOGY

The term virtualization or virtual machine (VM) dates back to the 1960's and refers to the experimental IBM M44/44X system. In this type of platform, a host control program provides a simulated computer environment (virtual machine) for its guest software. A virtual machine (VM) is a software implementation of a computer which includes the virtual hard drive, virtual memory, virtual network interface card, and so on. As any software, a virtual machine needs to run on a host computer. While running the virtual machine on the host computer, the virtual machine will use the physical memory and hard drive of the host computer

The role of virtualization in education, particularly computer education, is dramatically increasing. Virtualization allows for interactive as opposed to content only delivery. As shown in Figure 2 the virtual lab environment offers advantages in terms of usage and availability of resources to both the students and their faculty, while offering economic benefits to the university.

A virtual lab offers numerous benefits (Marianne, Marty 2008, Jithesh, Vasvi 2008):

- The virtual computer lab gives the students an open and flexible environment. Since, all applications and devices are on the cloud and under the cloud provider management; so, after each lab class, the lab administrator needs only a short time to reset the lab systems to its original status.

- A significant amount of time is saved when the students or instructors begin the request of a new application and the application is installed. An instructor can quickly install the new application needed for the course.

- Virtual labs prevent traffic jams and ease the burden of time and space. The students can access the needed software and hardware in the virtual environment; they don't have to be physically present in the lab.

There are various ways of organizing and implementing VCL including:
 • Remote access to multiple single-user computer systems
 • Remote access to one or more multiuser computer systems
 • Remote access to multiple virtual machines hosted within one or more to a
Accordingly to the above ways, we are employed third way for our project at university

4-1- BAYAN VIRTUAL COMPUTING LAB (VCL-BU)

Bayan Virtual Computing Lab or VCL-BU is a service that allows Bayan students to reserve a computer with specialized software and access it remotely from anywhere that you have Internet access. Therefore, in the proposed approach, Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS) provides virtual machines (VMs) on demand for students of the. These machines are customized for courses and laboratory exercises and provisioned to build virtual laboratory. So, the goal of this initiative are:

- To create a multi-institutional shared computing services community based upon the VCL model.

- To ease the overflow of the physical computer labs by providing needed applications via an internet connection.

- To reduce student costs of purchasing needed software on their personal computers by providing access to these applications in a virtual environment

- To support the growing Distance Education programs in future at the university.

More internet browser are used as the development environment such as Microsoft Azure Services, Google App Engine, Salesforce.com Internet Application Development platform and Bungee Connect platform. In our study, Microsoft Azure Services is used as development environment as shown in Figure 4. The windows Azure cloud Service Platform (ASP) includes services that allow the faculty, students and researchers to establish user identities, manage work flows, execute other functions.

However, ASP consists of an operating system, a fully relational database, message-based service bus, and a claims access controller providing security-enhanced connectivity and federated access for on premise applications (Pranay, N.Uma 2013).
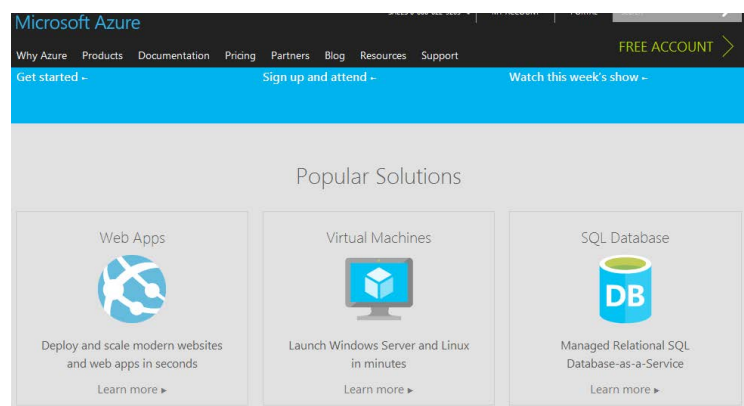
Figure 4: Microsoft Azure Services

4-2- INSTALLATIONS OF VCL-BU

Figure 5 illustrates the workflow of VCL-BU which consists of five main key parts: 1) It uses a web browser "Microsoft Azure" to create a free account. 2) It makes use of cloud computing resources to host the education VM and configured its'.3) It provide online access to the VM via Remote Desktop Connection and using a personal computer as an environment for it. 4) It uses VM as a protocol for main project VCL-BU. 5) It provide dashboard interface as a server manger to setup the desired education software.
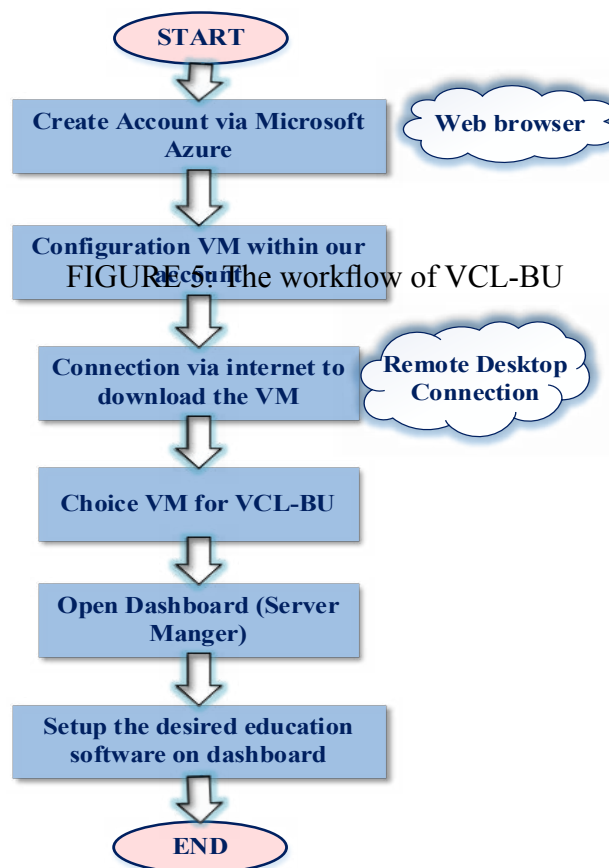
FIGURE 5: The workflow of VCL-BU

Following procedure can be followed to deploy this tool:

Step 1: Create account: with the Microsoft Azure as a web browser (https://azure.microsoft.com/en-us/), select create a free account >> Open. Then select the virtual machine using the browse button to locate the virtual machine. See Figure 6.

Step 2: Initialize the VM: choose the appropriate VM setting >>VM supports 32‑bit host operating system, provided that the following condition is met: we need a 32-bit processor with hardware virtualization support as shown in Figure 7.
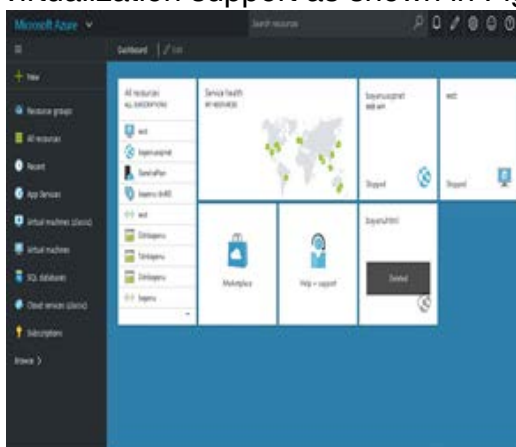
FIGURE 6: Create a free account
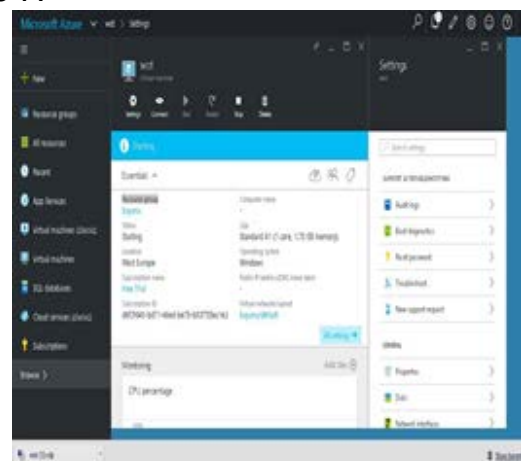
FIGURE 7: Initialize VM

Step 3: Download VM manger: make connection via Remote Desktop Connection to load the VM as shown in Figure 8. So, your cloud virtual machine is now created and we can use the machine in any environment (PC or Laptop). It also allows to change the hardware configuration of our VM after that.
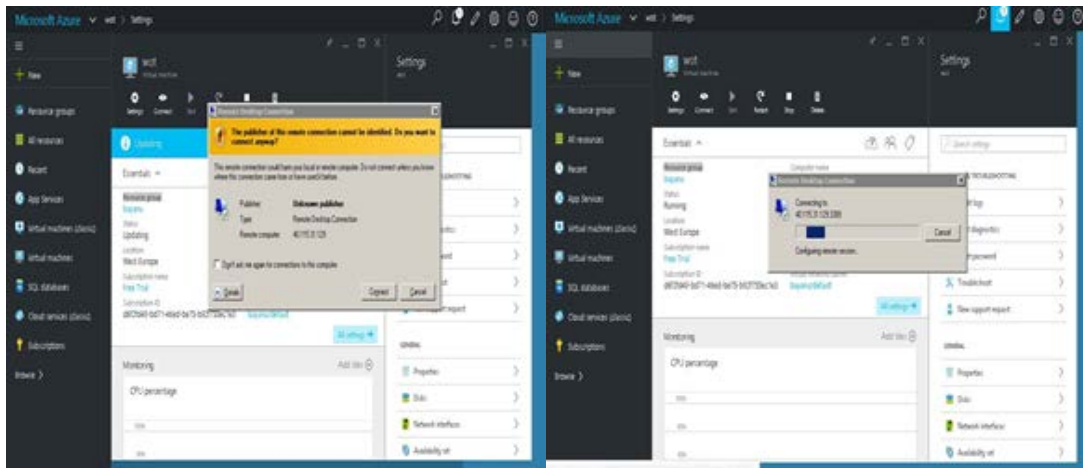
FIGURE 8: Download VM manger

Step 4: Dash Board Screen: Now, screen of dashboard opens as a server manger through our account as shown in Figure 9,   and prepare storage the desired educational software programs on the VCL-BU.
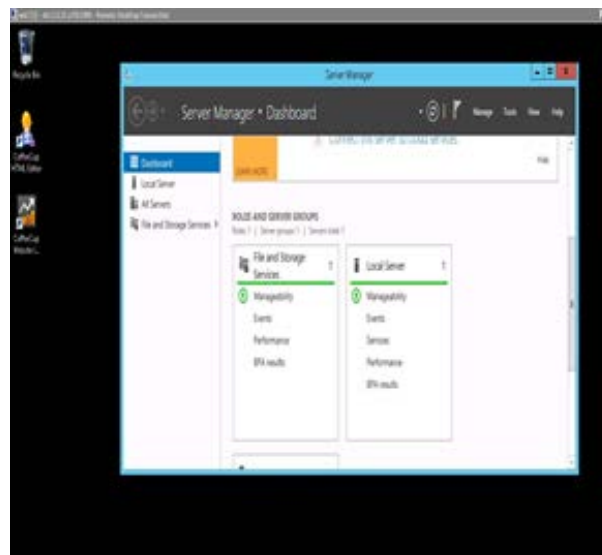
FIGURE 9: Dash Board screen

Step 5: Begin using the VCL-BU: we should be able to access a running our academic software program at this state as example here "Coffee Cup HTML Editor". Teachers can assessment and debagging student's exercises. And also, students run their courses software

from anywhere using own account. Above Figure 10   describe the running of educational software via VCL-BU.
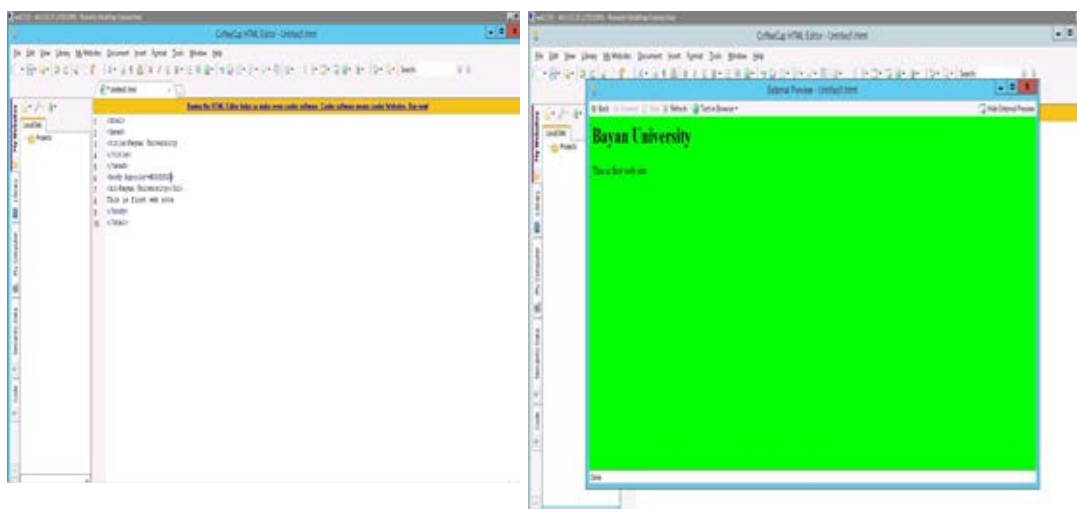
FIGURE 10: Academic Software Applications

5- CONCLUSION

Fortunately, cloud computing has a significant impact on the educational environment .By utilizing the cloud in education, universities would have cost effective, highly portable and maintenance-free solutions which in turn will improve collaboration and communication. While, the cloud computing based education allows us to access our work anywhere, any-time and share it with the professor. As a result, this paper provides some background in-formation on cloud computing, characteristics, services and deployment models. In addition, the cloud education system through virtualization technology is introduced in this paper. The role of virtualization or virtual machine (VMs) in education, particularly computer education, is dramatically increasing. Educational software can be conveniently packaged in their vir-tual machines (VMs) and transparently distributed and deployed to any computer. So, the goal of this paper is described the concept of VCL, conducted in Bayan University, to gives the students an open and flexible environment and to ease the overflow of the physical com-puter labs by providing needed applications via an internet connection.

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Investigating the Techniques and Strategies Used by EFL University Teachers of "Comprehension" in Giving the Meanings of New Vocabulary

Prof. Dr. Hussein A. Ahmed

Dean of College of Languages

Asst. Lect. Tariq I. Fannoush

Nawroz University /Duhok

ABSTRACT

A learner of a foreign language is supposed to acquire a set of competences, namely social, cultural, pragmatic, strategic, communicative and linguistic so as to manage his learning of the new language in a better and fruitful way. Learning new vocabulary and being acquainted with the techniques and strategies to retain them form part and parcel of the efforts exerted by teachers at all educational levels since such learning and retention are expected to contribute to the development of the competences already referred to. As such, the present research aims at identifying the techniques and strategies used by teachers of the subject "Comprehension" at university level in giving the meanings of new vocabulary. It hypothesizes that teachers of the subject Comprehension at university level do not use the already common techniques and strategies of teaching vocabulary. To verify the preceding hypothesis, a questionnaire, whose items have been drawn from the previous relevant studies and related literature, had been formulated. It was administered to a sample of (8) teachers of "Comprehension" at University of Mosul during the academic year 2013-2014. The results show that teachers of Comprehension mostly use a variety of techniques; i.e. all the techniques presented to them to give the meanings of new vocabulary; a result that rejects the hypothesis set for the current research.

Keywords: Vocabulary, Vocabulary Teaching, Vocabulary Learning.

I. Introduction

A remarkable number of factors are said to affect, either positively or negatively, the process of teaching and learning English as a foreign language (henceforth EFL). Of these factors, teaching materials undeniably play a pivotal role in putting the process on its right track and duly bringing about its set objectives. Such materials side by side with the techniques and

strategies used by teachers should be regularly looked into and reflected upon, in the first place by teachers themselves, and also by those whose main concern is a caliber of teaching with easily-achieved objectives that are brought about via right selection, organization and presentation; the main prerequisites for any efficient and effective instruction.

Vocabulary play a vital role in foreign language teaching (henceforth FLT). The abundance of substantial research that has probed the role of vocabulary enables us to have better understanding of such a role in the teaching of certain subjects. Furthermore, many obstacles that hinder both teaching and learning tasks can be overcome in case teachers have made use of the effective and sound techniques and strategies in giving the meanings of the new vocabulary. This is so since teachers' better understanding of the ways of the working, storage and use of vocabulary in a language can facilitate the mastery of such vocabulary.

The current research attends to the problem that students' learning of new vocabulary at university level does not go beyond the immediate presentation of the meanings of such vocabulary for the fulfillment of some learning tasks. In other words, there is much on-spot giving of the meanings of the new vocabulary either in English or in learners' native language, without the contextualization of such a presentation. This is quite evident in teaching the subject "Comprehension" at the Departments of English where students' weak management of learning the new words and the right contexts where they should be used have made them, i.e. students, fail to internalize these words and take benefit from them in developing their different linguistic skills.

Since the current research aims at investigating and duly identifying the strategies and techniques used by EFL teachers in their teaching of the vocabulary available in the materials used for teaching the subject "comprehension" at University level, it hypothesizes that "Teachers of Comprehension at University Level do not use enough varied strategies and techniques when presenting the meanings of the new vocabulary".

II. Vocabulary: Definition and Main Types

Language, as Rivers (1984: 462) outlines, is not dry bones but rather a living and growing entity that is clothed in the fleshing of words. As such, vocabulary form a cornerstone in language teaching as they integrate to form larger units such as phrases and sentences. They include the base forms and their inflections and derivatives and consist of grammatical items such as pronouns or determiners and other lexical items represented, in the main, by nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, etc. On his part, Scrivener (2005: 227) states that vocabulary stand specifically for single words, and sometimes to very tightly linked two- or three-word combinations.

Concerning the types of vocabulary, there are different categories according to the purposes behind vocabulary use, the role they play in developing various linguistic skills and sub-skills, and learners' use of them while engaged in the learning of the different linguistic activities. For instance, vocabulary are categorized into receptive (recognition) and productive words according to learners understanding and use of them (Bright and McGregor, 1970: 19). Vocabulary also fall into oral vocabulary used in speaking or reading and form the core of the vocabulary presented quite early in language learning, and written vocabulary whose meanings are known when dealing with written tasks (Hiebert and Kamil, 2005:3). Al-Hamash and Younis (1984: 108-109) classify vocabulary into speaking, reading and writing vocabulary in the light of skills they belong to. Finally, there are content vocabulary which, according to Cameron (2001: 81-82), underlie the lexical meaning of any syntactic structure they form a part of, and function vocabulary that carry grammatical meaning (Lado, 1964: 115).

III. The Role of Vocabulary in Language Learning

A salient quotation by Wilkins (1972) reads that in language learning, without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. Wilkin's words highlight that vocabulary form a part and parcel of the process of language learning. They play a pivotal role as a means for communication to express learners' thoughts, needs and interests. Similarly, Hayes et al (1996) quoting Davis (1942), point out that comprehension usually attends to two skills, viz. word knowledge and multiple meanings. As such, learners' knowledge of a certain vocabulary item in the first place, and the varied meanings that item carries can contribute to better understanding of a whole piece of writing.

Recently, the crucial role of vocabulary in the process of teaching and learning language has been quite appealing to many applied linguists who are saving no effort to arrive at the ways that vocabulary are used by either native speakers of a language or the foreign learners of this language. Such attempts have also culminated in the access to linguistic corpora so as "to identify common patterns of collocation, word formation, metaphor, and lexical phrases that are part of a speaker's lexical experience" (Richards and Renandya, 2002:255). This is added to the fact that learning a new language cannot be brought about if vocabulary learning does not form part and parcel of the process. This is so because, as Cameron (2001: 71) outlines, the more a learner knows about the functions of vocabulary and the techniques they are learned, the more s/he becomes aware of the crucial role played by vocabulary in language learning. This goes in line with Richards and Renandya's view (2002:255) that vocabulary learning enables learners to manage the different linguistic skills. Any deficiency in a learner's vocabulary and ignorance of the strategies for learning them would affect the

process of language learning quite negatively.

In spite of the focus placed on the role of vocabulary in language learning, vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching have not been accounted for as required in most methods and approaches of FL teaching. Only recently, and specifically during the last three decades, a number of approaches to language teaching and learning, namely The Lexical Syllabus (Willis, 1990), Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992), and The Lexical Approach (Lewis, 1993) have tackled vocabulary as a basic and central element in FL learning. Lewis (1993) and Richards and Rodgers (2001: 132) make the point that grammar, functions and notions are no longer the building blocks of language teaching and communication; it is lexis, i.e. words and word combinations that can make such tasks less effort and time consuming. Added to that, approaches of teaching that are task-based view lexis, whether single words or word combinations, as a basic element in the process of language teaching. Last but not least, corpus linguistics, namely computer-based studies of language, provide better chances for learners to access lexis, through focus on word combinations and collocations. The lexically based texts and computer resources represent, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 132), main areas of assistance in the teaching of vocabulary.

V. Strategies and Techniques of Vocabulary Teaching

Hatch and Brown (2000: 401) opine that teaching strategies (henceforth TSs) outline whatever is done by teachers in their attempt to make learners learn with noticeable consideration of the time available, knowledge acquired and the value of such knowledge.

Concerning vocabulary teaching and learning, the aim should go well beyond the mere learning of a particular set of words. In other words, teachers must adopt the most effective TSs so as to arrive at what knowing a vocabulary item means. In this respect, learners must be equipped with what enhances the knowledge of new vocabulary. The latter can be brought about via teachers' allocation of a portion of the class time for identifying, defining, and explaining the new words. Such a procedure should be coped with engagement in activities that subsume learners' constant use of the learned vocabulary in communication. It is worthy to note that the focus on vocabulary learning and the strategies for either teaching or learning them have resulted in the classification of such strategies into two main types, viz. Teacher-Centred Strategies and Learner-Centred Strategies.

1. Teacher-Centred Strategies

It is evident that the teacher carries out much of the task of teaching new vocabulary. Due to space limitation, reference will be briefly made to the most effective strategies used by teachers in teaching vocabulary.

After introducing a word, many teachers use the strategy of consolidation immediately by practicing this new word over and over through various activities. This is in line with Nation's recommendation (1990) that a new word should be encountered at least five or six times before having any chance of being finally learned. Likewise, Baker (2003) maintains that teaching vocabulary goes through a number of different stages as a teacher first conveys the pronunciation and meaning of the new word (Presentation), than checks that the learner has understood properly (Practice), and finally tries to get the learner to relate the word to his/her personal experience and use it in context (Production).

Sahragard (2008: 20-21) suggests the following techniques for vocabulary presentation, namely visual techniques which help learners remember words better by triggering visual memory and duly lead to vocabulary retention, verbal explanation by using examples, situations, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, and so on, use of dictionaries which fosters the learner's independence and ability to deal with new vocabulary items and expands their vocabulary, word association activities by connecting a new word with its equivalent in the native language, and defining the meaning through synonym, antonym, definition, giving examples, describing the function, definition by connection, and definition by classification, practice and production which help learners turn input into intake and to get the most out of any language they meet, use of games which motivates students to work more on the vocabulary items on their own and engage in the related activities.

It is worth noting that two separable set of techniques exist for presenting the meanings of new vocabulary on one hand, and the forms of such vocabulary on the other hand. Concerning the former, Pavi-i-Taka (n.d.: 19-20) specifies simple and clear definitions, context, direct connection of meanings with real objects, demonstration, realia and visual aids, and learners' involvement as the most effective techniques. As for forms, the same author (n.d.: 20-22) recommends the use of oral drills, writing the graphic form on the board, and spelling as the most effective and enhancing techniques(20-22).

As for reviewing and consolidating newly learned words, repetition and practice have been acknowledged as effective techniques in this respect. They are proved by Nation and Meara (2002: 43-44) as very effective to achieve fluency in vocabulary learning since learners are provided with enough opportunities to practice, connect, retrieve, and use words for all language skills and in various ways. Further activities here include mechanical repetition, copying, matching, giving definitions, grouping words, creating mental images by drawing diagrams, replacing the word with its synonym or antonym, highlighting collocations, completing sentences with words, using words in sentences, using games, speaking and writing activities, and repetitive encountering with the word.

Also effective and memorable expansion of vocabulary size, as Nation and Meara (2002: 42) opine, results from deliberate teaching which guarantees a systematic expansion of new vocabulary, rather than single words here and there. Here, each word and its various aspects, namely spelling, pronunciation, word parts, meaning, collocation, grammatical patterns and context of use are given their due time and attention to learn.

The use of realia, miming, pictures and dramatization has been proved a further strategy to make vocabulary learning more effective and memorable. Ur (2012: 66) stresses the use of this strategy especially in younger classes.

Teachers' use of clear and relevant definitions of words paves the way for their better understanding and knowledge. Yet, in presenting definitions, teachers should be aware that the language of the definitions should not go beyond learners' knowledge of their content. In other words, definitions should be clear, easy to understand and appealing to learners.

New vocabulary are further better presented through language-focused instruction that focuses, as Nation (2002: 270) outlines, on the pronunciation and spelling of words, deliberate learning of the meanings of a word, and memorizing collocations, phrases and sentences containing a word.

Translation is also viewed as an accurate, quick, easy and effective technique for presenting the meanings of new vocabulary. Yet teachers should be on their guard in using this technique since providing a native language equivalent for a new vocabulary does not suffice as each language dissects nature in its own way; a point that applies to the meanings of vocabulary in two different languages.

Last but not least, the use of mnemonic devices represented by the keyword technique, pictures, word groupings according to color, size, function, etc. and word clustering , having a key word in the middle, with related words as branches linked to the key word, are all effective techniques that can make learners knowledge of new vocabulary more memorable and fruitful (Nation, 2002: 272).

2. Learner-Centred Strategies

We turn now to the strategies that learners make use of to learn new vocabulary on their own. Learners' task, in this respect, is two-fold since their attempt to be acquainted with the ways to learn new vocabulary inside the class is complemented by systematic and continuous attempts to do so outside the classroom. Gu (2003) makes the point that "good learners seem to be those who initiate their own learning, selectively attend to words of their own choice, studiously try to remember these words, and seek opportunities to use them". This mostly applies to learners' autonomous doing of both reading and writing outside the classroom. This is a fact that has been outlined by Cunningham (2005: 49) who claims

that a noticeable amount of vocabulary is learned via incidental encountering while doing both oral and written skills. It is worthy to note that extensive reading has been pinpointed as an effective means to manipulate certain words repeatedly and duly learn them easily (Hiebert and Kamil, 2005: 9). Rivers (1981: 255) stresses the role of listening as a means for the initial oral presentation of the relevancies of the new language. This is added to the fact that manipulating new vocabulary by means of practicing them through the varied linguistic skills enhances their learning and many vocabulary shift from the receptive mode to the productive mode. Newton (1995) and Nation and Meara (2002: 41) specify the use of annotated pictures of definitions and group work where learners successfully and positively negotiate the meanings of unknown words with each other as effective activities to enhance vocabulary learning through productive skills.

Likewise, learners' personal preparation of well organized and appealing lists and note cards of new vocabulary side by side with the definition of the word, a sentence using the word, the grammar of the word, its pronunciation, and any synonyms, enhances their learning of such vocabulary. Commenting on this point, Ur (2012: 68) states that "constant rereading of the list, with immediate efforts to use the words in some appropriate way, either in communication with others or in internal dialogue, will help to impress these words upon the mind and facilitate storage".

Guessing the meanings of new vocabulary from context is but a further effective strategy to focus on unknown words and draw on the available clues for working out the meanings of these words. Although this technique has been labelled as the most difficult one for learners due to the linguistic knowledge, word knowledge and strategic knowledge it requires on the part of learners, it is, as the present researchers see, the most beneficial one since learners by deducing the meanings of new vocabulary from context on their own will feel more self-confident and adventure to deal with more difficult tasks due to the relaxation and comfort they have experienced in learning new vocabulary by doing such a job. It should be noted that the guessing procedures followed by learners, i.e. attending to the morphology, concreteness, the density of unknown words, the helpfulness of the sentences surrounding unknown words, and word repetition, all raise, as Nation (2002: 271) thinks, learners' confidence in guessing from context, make them sensitive to the range of clues available, and help them avoid the strategies that will reduce their chances of guessing accurately.

In the same vein, dictionaries of any type have proved to be sources for the provision of good knowledge about new vocabulary. This is so since, in addition to the information presented about the meaning of a word, a dictionary provides information about various

linguistic aspects such as pronunciation, orthography, grammatical category, meaning and semantic relations (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001).

To sum up, learners are required to be trained in the best ways of probing the meanings of new vocabulary. Though teachers' efforts in providing vocabulary knowledge can never belittled, learners can add to such knowledge by working on their own so as to be acquainted with the most effective vocabulary learning and vocabulary use strategies.

VI. The Procedure and Data Collection

A two-fold procedure is adopted in the current work. In addition to the theoretical part which subsumes a number of topics and subtopics that are relevant to the subject under investigation, the practical part attends to the methodology adopted in conducting the study. It makes reference to the questionnaire used to elicit data from the sample of teachers of "Comprehension" at university level so as to investigate the techniques and strategies they are using in teaching new vocabulary to their students. To identify the techniques and strategies used by the sample of teachers while presenting the meanings of new vocabulary, a questionnaire has been designed as the main research instrument where some relevant items have been put down, in the first place, depending on the related literature. To elicit data from the sample of teachers, Likert's 5-point scale has been adopted. Here, respondents are usually required to state their options according to a scale that ranges from "Never" to "Always" and as follows: 0 point = "Never"; 1 point = "Rarely"; 2 points = "Sometimes"; 3 points = "Often"; 4 points = "Always".

To prove both face and content validity of the draft questionnaire, it has been presented to a panel of jurors specialized in the methods of TEFL, applied linguistics and educational psychology. They were asked to judge both the face and content validity of the questionnaire by making the necessary additions, deletions and modification of the items included. Fortunately, all the items have been judged valid by at least 80% of the total number of the jurors who stated that the scale is within an acceptable and comprehensive standard, suitable for the sample under investigation, and measured what it intends to measure. However, some slight changes and modifications had been made and the questionnaire was ready for the pilot study.

Similarly, in an attempt to check the wording of the questionnaire, i.e. clarity of the questionnaire items, its instructions and layout, and whether the content covers the majority of the techniques and strategies manipulated by the sample of teachers, time required to give responses to the items of the questionnaire, and the reliability coefficient of the

questionnaire, the latter has been piloted on a sample of (8) teachers of "Comprehension" at university level on two occasions, with a time interval of 2 weeks. In other words, the present researcher has applied the test-retest method by using Pearson Coefficient Correlation technique. The correlation between the two tests was found to be coefficient and it scored 96%; a percentage that indicates the high reliability of the questionnaire. Building on that, the questionnaire had been approved and put in its final version.

VII. Statistical Means

The data collected by means of the designed questionnaire were analyzed by measuring the Weighted Arithmetic Mean (WAM) of each item, then ranking items from the highest to the lowest according to their WAM values.

VIII. Data Analysis and Discussion of Results

The data selected by means of the designed questionnaire were analyzed on the basis of the set hypothesis which states:

"University EFL Teachers of "Comprehension" do not use varied strategies and techniques to present the meanings of the new vocabulary encountered by their students".

Table (1) presents the techniques and strategies in question ranked according to their Weighted Arithmetic Means:

Table (1): The Techniques and Strategies Used by the Sample of University EFL Teachers of Comprehension Ranked according to their Weighted Arithmetic Means

	Items	
	To give the meanings of new vocabulary, I ……….	**WAMs**
1	attract students' attention to particular and frequently used words so that they are noticed when they are met again.	**3.87**
2	use synonyms and antonyms.	**3.62**
3	ask students first to guess the meanings of new words from context.	**3.25**
4	spend a reasonable amount of time on teaching each word such as its spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and grammatical patterns.	**3.25**
5	make students practice the written and spoken forms of the new words.	**2.50**
6	explain the new words or give definitions	**2.25**
7	write the new words with their meanings on the board.	**2.25**
8	use the keyword method: using words and illustrations that highlight salient features of meaning.	**2.25**
9	refer to real objects in the classroom.	**2.12**
10	create word families through word parts and semantic mapping (relating unknown-word forms and meanings to known word parts).	**2**
11	carry out word collocation activities.	**2**
12	carry out word matching activities..	**2**
13	use facial expressions, gestures or acting.	**1.75**
14	pre-teach the new words before a language use activity.	**1.62**
15	draw pictures and sketches on the board.	**1.37**
16	give translations of the meanings of the new words in students' native language	**1.37**
17	make students negotiate the meanings of new words in group work activities.	**1.21**
18	use cards with new words written on them.	**0.75**

A close look into the contents of Table (1) indicates that University EFL teachers of comprehension make use, although to different degrees, of all the techniques presented to them through the items of the questionnaire. Yet, a closer analysis of informants' responses can entail what follows:

1. The sample of teachers make heavy use of 4 techniques, namely attracting students' attention to particular and frequently used words so that they are noticed when they are met again, using synonyms and antonyms, asking students first to guess the meanings of new words from context, and spending a reasonable amount of time on teaching each word such as its spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and grammatical patterns. The WAMs of these

four techniques: 3.87, 3.62, 3.25 and 3.25 successively demonstrate teachers' use of these techniques almost "always".

2. The sample of the teachers of the subject "Comprehension" also indicated their "often" use of more 8 techniques, viz. making students practice the written and spoken forms of the new words, explain the new words or giving definitions, writing the new words with their meanings on the board, using the keyword method: using words and illustrations that highlight salient features of meaning, referring to real objects in the classroom, creating word families through word parts and semantic mapping (relating unknown-word forms and meanings to known word parts), carrying out word collocation activities, and carrying out word matching activities. This is evident from the WAMs of these items, i.e. techniques which are either at the mid-point 2 or beyond it.

3. There is also a "rare" use by the sample of teachers of 5 more techniques whuile presenting the meanings of new vocabulary. The techniques: using facial expressions, gestures or acting, pre-teaching the new words before a language use activity, drawing pictures and sketches on the board, giving translations of the meanings of the new words in students' native language, and making students negotiate the meanings of new words in group work activities with their successive WAMs, namely 1.75, 1.62, 1.37, 1.37, and 1.21indicate teachers' rare use of them. What draws one's attention here is the item pertinent to teachers' rare use of students' native language to give the meanings of new vocabulary; a point that outlines teachers' awareness that a student's native language should be the last resort when other techniques seem to be unworkable.

4. The item "using cards with new words written on them" has got the lowest WAM. This is so as teachers opine that such a technique is used with learners who are almost beginners in learning a new language. Added to that, this techniques side by side with that of "writing the meanings of the words to be learned on the board" are the only ones which require some physical and manual work on the part of teachers compared to other teacher-centred techniques which are done verbally (by saying things) or non-verbally (by pointing to things or demonstrating).

5. It can be noticed that instructors of "Comprehension" focus on students' learning of the different aspects of a new word. This is evident from their responses to item no.4, viz. "spending a reasonable amount of time on teaching each word such as its spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and grammatical patterns" with its high WAM 3.25. This also applies to teachers'

use of synonyms and antonyms, and asking students first to guess the meanings of new words from context which have got WAMs of the values 3.62 and 3.25 respectively.

IX. Conclusion

The handling of both theoretical and practical aspects of the current research paves the way to deduce the following concluding points:

1. Vocabulary form a crucial part of language learning. They should be heeded so as to facilitate the whole process of learning a new language.

2. Learning a new word is not the mere learning of its meaning whether in the learners' native language or in the language learned. It is rather a process of learning many aspects of the word in question.

3. The different types and functions of vocabulary require instructors' attendance to such various aspects and functions so as to facilitate learners' learning.

4. Teachers of Comprehension at university level make use of almost all the techniques and strategies for teaching vocabulary though to varied degrees.

5. Out of the (18) techniques and strategies for teaching vocabulary, presented to the sample of teachers, only 2 techniques namely "I draw pictures" and "I use cards with new words written on them" are rarely used.

X. Recommendations:

1. Due to the crucial role played by vocabulary in language learning at large and the learning of a new language in particular, the different aspects of the new vocabulary, namely meaning, spoken/written forms, collocations, connotations, grammatical behavior, etc. should be heavily heeded so as to facilitate the learning task on the part of the students.

2. Since practice has been proved to be an effective tool for impinging information in learners' memory, instructors of comprehension are advised to make students practice the newly-learned vocabulary via the different skills available to them and reading in particular as it has been proved to be a real source for vocabulary growth.

3. To make students feel relaxed and hence be more motivated while dealing with materials in the foreign language, their practicing of the reading skill should be triggered by encouragement to guess the meanings of the new words from context. As "success breeds success", learners' first successful attempts to guess rightly from context will motivate them to engage in the skills pertinent to the new language and hence achieve success and progress in learning it.

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APPENDIX
QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Teacher of Comprehension

I have the pleasure to benefit from your teaching experience and from your responses to the items of this questionnaire which investigates the techniques you might be using, in the classroom, to give the meanings of new vocabulary while teaching "Comprehension" as a subject at university level. Would you please state your frank and sincere answers to the items of the enclosed questionnaire by ticking (／) in the square that best applies to you. There is no need to mention your name. Answers will be used for research purposes only.

The Researchers

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

To give the meaning of new vocabulary, I ………….							
	Items	Never	Rarely	Some-times	Often	al-ways	
1.	Make students negotiate the meanings of new words in group work activities.						
2.	make students practice the written and spoken forms of the new words.						
3	create word families through word parts and semantic mapping (relating unknown-word forms and meanings to known word parts).						
4.	ask students first to guess the meanings of new words from context.						
5.	spend a reasonable amount of time on teaching each word such as its spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and grammatical patterns.						
6.	attract students' attention to particular and frequently used words so that they are noticed when they are met again.						
7.	pre-teach the new words before a language use activity.						
8.	carry out word collocation activities.						
9.	draw pictures and sketches on the board.						
10.	carry out word matching activities..						
11.	explain the new words or give definitions						
12.	use synonyms and antonyms.						
13.	use the keyword method: using words and illustrations that highlight salient features of meaning.						
14.	give translations of the meanings of the new words in my students' native language						
15.	use facial expressions, gestures or acting.						
16.	refer to real objects in the classroom.						
17.	use cards with new words written on them.						
18.	write the new words with their meanings on the board.						

Voice onset time in Turkish Language

Nergz Khalid Mohammed

Ishik University, Hawler

ABSTRACT

The starter investigators (Lisker and Abramson, 1964) of voicing contrasts in stop sounds using voice onset time have paved the path for many other researchers to explore more about VOT of their own languages or any other languages. VOT has become one of the most important methods to study the timing of voicing in plosives particularly in the initial position of the words in many languages (Chao&Chen, 2008). However, unfortunately only very few attempts have been made towards Turkish VOT patterns. Therefore, this paper discusses voice onset time (VOT) of voiced and voiceless initial plosives of Turkish comparing to English and pinpointing the similarities and significant differences in their pattern of continuum if exists. This article First defines the VOT then will be looking at the literature of English and Turkish voice onset time. Finally, a list of Turkish words starting by voiced/voiceless plosives /b,d,g/ and /p,t,k/ will be designed and the justification will be explained afterwards.

Keywords: Turkish Language, Voice onset time(VOT), voiced and voiceless plosives.

Literature review:

Lisker and Abramson(1964) were first who defined VOT as 'the time interval between the burst that marks release of the stop closure and the onset of quasi-periodicity that reflects laryngeal vibration' therefore VOT relies on the acoustic cues to measure the time of voicing in their widely known cross-language study considering the initial stops in 11 languages. Lisker and Abramson used VOT as a tool for "separating the stop categories of a number of languages in which both the number and phonetic characteristics of such categories are said to differ". According to Lisker and Abramson's study VOT has a vital role in differentiating voiced and voiceless phonemes. Such as "in English, the minimal pair 'pan' and 'ban' can only be distinguished by voicing contrast"(Chao&Chen, 2008). In addition to that there are many other studies had benefit from the same concept of VOT such as a report of 51 languages (Keating et al. 1983) and another recent research done in 18 languages (Cho&Ladefoged, 1999). It is worth mentioning that there is a bulk study concentrating on English (Lisker & Abramson ,1964; Klatt 1975; Port &Rotunno, 1979; Weismer, 1979; Keating et al., 1983; Docherty, 1992). There are studies including Spanish (Lisker&Abramson,

1964; Flege&Hammond, 1982; Flege&Eefting ,1987; Fellbaum 1996), French (Caramazza et al., 1973;Rochet et al., 1987), Arabic (Flege, 1980; Khattab, 2000) , Japanese (Shimizu, 1990; Riney &Takagi,1999) and very little data available for Turkish VOT(Öğüt et al., 2006).

PROCEDURE:

The following procedure was used to make the Turkish list of words. 60 tokens beginning with 6 stops are chosen which all are monosyllabic words since in Turkish unlike English most of the words can stand alone independently and give a proper meaning. It is thought it might be easier to record monosyllable tokens and also to detect the VOT more properly. A lot of minimal pairs (minimally distinguished by voicing in stops) are used which might show a difference in detecting the measurement of the VOT value of the plosives. In each pairs voiceless stops are pronounced first then the voiced stops. In addition, each of the stops /p, t, k, b, d, g/ is followed by three peripheral vowels two high vowels /i/ and /u/ and one low vowel /a/, thus giving a total of three variations for each stop as in the previous studies significant changes occurred due to the change of vowels or manner and the place of articulation. Klatt and Weismer (1975, 1979) are in agreement that the vowels following the stops usually is one of the factors that affects the VOTs and it is accepted that tense high vowels are correlating with longer VOTs than lax low vowels. The place of articulation is also varied in the word list because the /t,d/ stops in Turkish are generally dental less frequently alveolar unlike English and /k,g/ are velar in back vowel environment (Öğüt, et al. 2006) and /b,p/ similar to English bilabial. The procedure that is used is a PC recording tool (PRAAT) and in order to have a good quality of word recording the words in the list are repeated for three times in a normal reading pace. The target words are uttered with a carrier phrase ending in a vowel sound (dedi= h/she said) so that to hit the target and capture the exact VOT measurement. It is also ensured to read the words in a categorical order which is all words started with /k/ and /g/ then the others with /p/ and /b/ following that /t/ and /d/ straight into a computer. The lexicons that are chosen are in different categories some are nouns while others are verb, adjective, and adverb. It is important to mention that all the verbs used in the list are roots/base because in Turkish all verbs are recognized by the suffixes mak/ mek. The suffixes are not used so that all the words be monosyllables rather than mixing them with disyllables. The word list can be seen in an Appendix with their English meanings.

TURKISH AND ENGLISH VOT

Discussion:

As in the present paper exploring VOT of Turkish language and comparing to English language is aimed it is good to keep in mind that these two languages have different word

order, agglutinative structure and etc. Although the two languages have the same stops /p,t,k,b,d,g/ they might have different features and unlike VOTs according to the contexts and the vowels following them. Looking at English language stops in the initial position of the words the VOICED stops /b,d,g/ they might be either voiced or unvoiced and unaspirated and the VOICELESS stops are voiceless and aspirated (Keating et al. 1983). Furthermore, English stops are divided into two groups on the VOT continuum which some of them have short lag while others have long lag(Keating, 1984). Lisker and Abramson (1964) named the VOT measure occurring before the release burst as negative values and called voicing lead whereas VOT measures occurring after the release burst are positive values and called voicing lag. Depending on Keating and Lisker and Abramson in general English has short lag and long lag. While on the other hand plosives in Turkish language normally does not have voiced plosives /b,d,g/ in the final position of words except a few words they usually occur in the initial or middle of the words and voiceless plosives /p,t,k/ occur initially regularly. In addition to that while English plosives are not aspirated in the final position Turkish plosives are aspirated strongly such ap/ip, ak/ik and at/it and also the bilabial plosive has strong plosion in the final position as in ab/ib (Erdem et.al. 2013). It is crucial to note that Turkish language has a phonological rule which is devoicing the final plosives and affricates (Kornfilt, 1997). Turkish has vocalic system consisting of eight vowels /ɑ/, /ɛ/ ('e'), /ɯ/ ('ı'), /i/, /ɔ/ ('o'), /9/, ('ö'), /u/, /y/ ('ü'). They have different features, front/back, high/low, and rounded/ unrounded (Özsoy 2004; Göksel, Kerslake 2005). these vowels would occur long especially with Arabic and Persian loanwords: kira: 'rent', ma:vi 'blue'si:ne 'bosom' (Göksel, Kerslaka 2005:12). There are 21 consonant letters in Turkish b, c, ç, d, f, g, ğ, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, ş, t, v, y, z. "The letter ğ, or yumuşak ge 'soft g', has no consonantal sound. It normally represents a historical or underlying /g/ that has been deleted; in some Anatolian dialects, it survives as a voiced fricative"(Erdem et al. 2013).

Turkish average VOT values of /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/ and /g/ were found to be 41, _66, 50, _53, 69, and _10 ms, respectively (Öğüt, et al. 2006). While on the other end of the scale eight English speakers' VOT values of /p/, /t/, /k/,/b/, /d/, /g/ were found to be 62.5, 71.9, 74.8,19.7, 21.4, 35.2 ms in the study of Caruso and Burton (1987) according to the procedure recommended
by Klatt (1975). Looking the above findings it can be seen that the voiced plosives /b,d,g/ have negative values which means that they are prevoiced as Öğüt, et al.(2006) quoted in his study "The VOT value of /k/ is the longest in all of the languages. In the voiced plosives, the VOT values are negatives except for English. The VOT values for /b/ and /d/ are close to each other in all of the languages. Also, the VOT value of /g/ is close to the VOT values

of /b/ and /d/ in English, French, Italian, and Spanish when compared in each language, but it differs a lot in Turkish".

Conclusion:

To sum up, the present article tried to explore as much as possible about VOT of Turkish compared to English but unfortunately, due to the limitation more discussion could not be made. It was seen that the two languages might have similar stops /ptk/ and /bdg/ but with identical different manner and features.

The place of articulation of stops in Turkish is slightly different compared to English. As mentioned before the VOT of the two languages are unlike and the most remarkable characteristic of Turkish VOT of voiced stops is Negative value which means they are pre-voiced whereas all English stops are positive with different VOT value. A good suggestion for the future researchers would be studying the factors that might have influence on Turkish language VOT.

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Appendix A.1

Inventory of Turkish plosives followed by two high vowels /i/ and /u/, and a low vowel /a/:

	/p/	/t/	/k/	/b/	/d/	/g/
/i/	Pir Pis Pil	Tir Tip		Bir bit Bil Biz	Din diş dik Dil Diz	Gir Git
/u/	Pul	Tuz Tut Tur Tuş		Bul Buz Bu	Dul Dut Dur duş	
/a/	Pas Pak	Tas Tak Tat Taş		Bas Bak Bar Baş Bat Bal Bay	dar dam dal	Gaz

Appendix A 2.

The meaning of the Turkish words in English:

/p/	meaning	/t/	meaning	/k/	meaning
Pis	dirty	Tir	used for shivering	kir	waste
Pil	battery	Tip	shape	kis	a kind of disease
Pul	stamp	tuz	salt	kim	who
Pas	to pass	tut	grab	kin	hate
Pak	clean	tur	tour	kul	slave
Pir	old	tuş	button	kus	vomit
		Tas	bowel	kuş	bird
		Tak	plug	kas	muscle
		Tat	taste	kan	blood
		Taş	stone	kar	snow
				Kaş	eyebrow
				kaz	dig
				Kal	stay
				Kay	ski

/b/	meaning	/d/	meaning	/g/	meaning
Bir	one	dil	language	gir	come in
Bit	plant	dik	straight	git	go
Bil	know	diz	knee	gaz	gas
Biz	we	din	religion		
Bul	find	diş	tooth		
Buz	snow	dur	wait		
Bu	this	dut	berry		
Bas	press	dul	widow		
Bak	look	duş	shower		
Bar	bar	dar	narrow		
Baş	head	dam	terrace		
Bat	sunset	dal	branch		
Bal	honey				
Bay	Mr.				

Who is an Ideal Teacher in Students' Perspectives?
Is an Ideal Teacher born or made?

Asst.Prof. Suhayla Hameed Majeed, PhD

Truska Muhamad Alaadin, MA

Dr. Suhayla Hameed Majeed is assistant professor at college of Languages, English department, Salahadin University. She teaches linguistics for undergraduate students and pragmatics for PhD students.

Truska Muhamad Alaadin is lecturer at college of Languages, English department, Salahadin University. She is MA holder and teaches undergraduate students literature/Drama.

ABSTRACT

Few can deny the role of teachers in building students' personalities and becoming their model in life. Most teachers would love to be regarded ideal ones by their students, however not many of them can achieve this goal. This study was conducted to determine what factors from students' perspective might be contributing to teachers' target of becoming an ideal one. Answering this question might not be so easy because students might not have the same view about their model or ideal teacher as well as teachers might have different understanding of the notion "ideal teacher". Therefore, a questionnaire was deigned for this purpose. The participants were second and fourth Year students in English department/ College of Languages in Salahaddin University. The study investigates the students' opinion of the qualities of an ideal teacher through examining their answers to a set of questions made by the researchers. Furthermore, students wrote about their experience at home and at school which affected their opinions and personalities in class.

Keywords:

Introduction:

Over time, definitions of ideal teaching have changed somewhat. Rosencranz and Biddle defined it in (1960) as teachers' ability to behave in a specific way within a social institution. While Acheson and Gall also relate teacher effectiveness to the curriculum, Stevens views teaching excellence in teaching with high rates of success or the achievement of the learner defining teacher's ideality on the students outcome". Bailey, (2009).

Unlike other professions, teacher's raw material is his students. When a person chooses teaching profession, he should know that students are his main goal. Students, as all humans, being made up of mind and emotion, make teacher's task more difficult. So an ideal teacher should work on both levels (students' emotion and mind) to achieve a good result. Teachers

and students should know that they are correlated. Teachers without students are valueless as students without teachers. Therefore there should be a harmony and understanding of each other's essential role.

Teacher evaluation depends on some understanding of effective teaching, but over the years there has been a great deal of debate about how to define and measure teacher effectiveness. It is influenced by many variables, as Kathleen M. Bailey suggests, like the subject matter, students' ages and proficiency levels, institutional resources and constraints and cultural values of educational system. Bailey, (2009).

Through our experience in learning, we come across many teachers who have solid education and scientific achievements that make them ideal in their points of view while some students do not see them good enough to teach them. They may even complain from their being unable to communicate with or even making them understand the teaching stuff. It raises then a big question on the criteria or characteristics of an ideal teacher. To introduce some terms, we can say an ideal teacher should love his work (teaching), be knowledgeable, communicative, understand and respect his students and a "life long learner", as Dera suggests, looking for better teaching strategies, you should always grow as a teacher for example the use of new technology. Esturaso, (no date)

Is an Ideal Teacher made or born?

Some teachers are born with certain talents such as the talent of good communication but this talent alone can not make them ideal in their profession because they need to build a solid background and learn more effective skills. Placide (2011), in her research about the top qualities of a good teacher pointed out three criteria: 1. a teacher who answers all questions and makes sure every student understands the material; 2. a teacher who takes time aside from school time to give extra support and help; and 3. a teacher who is fun and enjoyable to be around. Her results are based on students' opinions. So the question is then can an ideal teacher be made?

An ideal teacher should love and enjoy teaching in order to make his students enjoy his classes too. Unfortunately we all have met at least once in our lives teachers who disliked their profession which made them less effective. The second criterion is having enough knowledge about the teaching material. If the students feel that their teacher's knowledge is humble and it does not satisfy them, they will feel superior. As a result the teacher will then not add anything to the students so they will not need him.

Shaw says: "The reasonable man adapts himself to the world: the unreasonable one persists in trying to adapt the world to himself". If a teacher loves his job and has vast knowledge about his field then he has gone some steps forward towards ideality. The knowledge that he has

should be transformed to his students through communication. It leads to the following point which is a teacher should respect and tries to understand his students. We should believe in "give respect- take respect". Students sometimes need their teachers to understand them and respect their problems, worries and feelings. It is important to understand students' needs and troubles to offer them support. Ellen Smyth, an instructor, believes that students love feeling important, valued, respected, and honored. She argues that respect is number one for students. It controls all other characteristics. Thus, we need to humble ourselves so that all students feel they are worthy of our attention and admiration. This is how we can grasp their mind and emotion to make them willing to learn the materials. (Smyth, 2011).

Methodology:

The participants of this study are second and fourth year students of English department in college of languages at Salahadin University, Erbil. The number of participants is forty male and female students, who have experienced variety of teachers and teaching methods through the course of their study at university. In order to make sure of whether an ideal teacher can exist or the notion of an ideal teacher is far from being real and to test the reliability of the above mentioned characteristics, a questionnaire has been designed for this purpose followed by result analysis and discussion. The results were analyzed randomly according to descriptive statistics in percentage in order to know if these characteristics are realistic and achievable.

Data Analysis and Discussion:

The questionnaire was divided into two parts; the first one was made up of twelve items that did not require an explanation from the students. In the second part they had to choose top five characteristics of an ideal teacher and arrange them according to their priority. However, they were given additional space to write down what they would do to be regarded ideal ones by their students, if they were teachers.

Table No. 1

(Assessment in percentage for the statements for the overall students' opinions)

	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I prefer punctual and organized teachers.			5%	45%	50%
2	My ideal teacher is fair and sympathetic.			7,5%	50%	42,5%
3	I prefer teachers who positively comment on student's assignments.			20%	52,5%	27,5%
4	I do not prefer teachers who give remarks on students' misbehavior.	7,5%	17,5%	25%	35%	15%
5	I believe in teacher- student friendship.		5%	7,5%	22,5%	65%
6	I prefer teachers who motivate students.		2,5%	2,5%	30%	65%
7	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his/her appearance.	42,5%	35%	15%	2,5%	5%
8	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his/her manners.	7,5%	5%	17,5%	55%	15%
9	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his/her knowledge and method of teaching		2,5%		32,5%	65%
10	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his examination questions and his evaluation.	5%	15%	35%	25%	20%
11	I prefer female teachers.	12,5%	12,5%	42,5%	20%	17,5%
12	I prefer male teachers.	2,5%	5%	47,5%	32,5%	12,5%

The first set of statements in part A in the questionnaire is related to the characteristics of the teachers as well as their behavior and method to discipline in different teaching contexts. The students' response shows that most students come in agreement with the given statements as follows:

For statement (1) 45% of the students are leaning towards 'agree' and 50% towards 'strongly agree' which makes 95% for agreement. As for the second statement, 50% of the students 'agree' and 42,5 % "strongly agree' and go for ideal teacher to be fair and sympathetic. In statement (3) again 52% state 'agree' while 27,5 % state 'strongly agree'; only 20% do not agree or diagree so they prefer teachers to comment positively on the students' assignments. Meanwhile regarding statement (4) on remarking students' misbehavior, the case is different, 35% lean for 'agree' and 15% go for 'strongly agree'; however 75% 'strongly disagree' and 17,5% disagree and 25% cannot decide, then they choose 'neither agree nor

disagree'. Despite the difference, still 50% go for agreement. In statement (5) 22,5% 'agree' and 65% 'strongly agree' on teacher and student friendship. As for item (6) about motivating students, 30% agree while 65% strongly agree, so this means 95% go with agreement. In statement (7) which is about teacher's appearance, the majority seems to totally disagree, that is 42,5% strongly disagree and 35% disagree. This shows that the talent of the teacher is not judged according to their appearance.

There is a positive attitude towards statements that emphasize the teachers talent is based on their manners and knowledge and method of teaching. Accordingly, in statement (8) 55%, 'agree' and 15% 'strongly agree' on judging teacher's talent on manners and in item (9), 32,2% of the students 'agree' and 65% 'strongly agree' on the teachers' method of teaching and their knowledge.

Considering teacher's examination and evaluation, in statement (10) 35% 'nether neither agree nor disagree', but 25% agree and 20% strongly agree. This finding shows that some students do not decide and most of them think of examination questions and evaluation to an extent.

As for statements (11) and (12) about preferring female or male teachers , students almost have neutral response since 42% 'neither agree nor disagree' about preferring female teacher and 47% also 'neither disagree nor agree' about preferring male teachers. However, totally 37,5% would go for female teachers and 45% would prefer male teachers. The results show that students prefer punctual, organized, fair, and sympathetic teachers. They do not consider the teachers' talent on their appearance but on knowledge and method of teaching.

As for part (B) in the questionnaire, the students are to organize some qualities of teachers in order to find out which qualities come first in the sequence. As it is shown in figure 1, most of the students 42% give priority to cleverness and put this quality at the top, while 30% have 'friendly' in the second position. The feature 'organized' forms 42% at the third stage and 'punctual' comes in position 4 which is 30%. However, 'good looking' comes in the final position, thus 60% confirms this position.
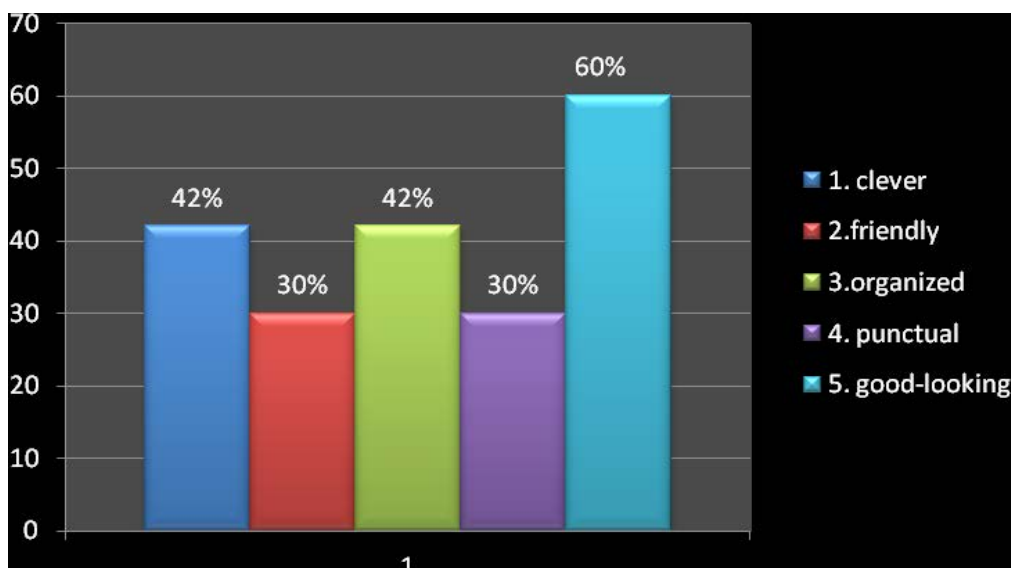
Figure 1

(Students' priority arrangement of ideal teacher's qualities)

In addition, students view on how they would behave, if they were teachers were stated as the followings:

1.   "I will give students information so that they set a strong ground for their future and be able to face the world with enough knowledge".

2.   "I will be fair, treat all students in the same way, ill do my best to be friendly with my students and will not boast on them".

3.   "I will respect them so they will respect me in return. I will be like their mother or sister to solve their problems".

4.   "An ideal teacher should think about the psychology and age of the students because every age has some special things that the teacher should know about".

Conclusion:

The variable teacher's gender plays a neutral role in the way that students perceive the ideal image of the college teacher. Students need and want education. They prefer teachers who positively deal with students, that is, certain features were chosen with great frequency such as being fair and sympathetic, knowledgeable, and friendly. As far as the ideal teacher's talent is concerned, students give emphasis on teachers' knowledge and method of teaching on their appearance.

The second part of the questionnaire confirms that students prefer a knowledgeable, clever, friendly, and organized teacher. However, punctuality is less considered as it comes before the last quality. Good looking comes last in the sequence which entails that it is the least

important and this is in conformity with item (1) since the majority of the students show disagreement on this item.

Moreover, most of our students love to become ideal teachers and have already their plan to achieve this goal as they have stated in the third part of the questionnaire. Samples of their own writings were selected and authentically put in the result analysis section.

Recommendations:

1.   As recommendation, good teachers should make use of their experience in tuition. They should be wise, fair, and sympathetic. Students expect the teachers to have knowledge of everything; therefore, they should always search for new ideas related to their field in teaching.

2.   Teachers must be friendly and caring since this shows how much a teacher values the emotional side of the students and this consequently would have the ease with which students get in dealing with such teachers.

3.   As for manners, teachers must be patient, understanding and always ready to answer students questions no matter how many are asked. If teachers are short tempered, students would create negative associations which may build a gap between them.

4.   Teacher's devotion to teaching, motivating students and vitalizing the class should not be forgotten. Further, teachers should be punctual, organized, and helpful although in this study, the looks do not matter that much for students, still it is recommended that teachers take care of their good looking since this affects positively in teaching context.

5.   Teachers should have sense of humor and try to make the class a home for learning. They have to consider it totally normal even to change their mind twice about an assignment finding students not ready to do it.

6.   An ideal teacher should challenge his students to do better and to improve all the time.

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Appendix:

Ideal Teacher Questionnaire

The following questions are intended for 2nd and 4th Y students of English department regarding ideal teachers in students' perspectives. Please give your answer honestly and tick the most suitable answer in order to have a reliable result.

A.

	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I prefer punctual and organized teachers.					
2	My ideal teacher is fair and sympathetic.					
3	I prefer teachers who positively comment on student's assignments.					
4	I do not prefer teachers who give remarks on students' misbehavior.					
5	I believe in teacher- student friendship.					
6	I prefer teachers who motivate students.					
7	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his/her appearance.					
8	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his/her manners.					
9	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his/her knowledge and method of teaching					
10	My judgment on teacher's talent is based on his examination questions and his evaluation.					
11	I prefer female teachers.					
12	I prefer male teachers.					

B.
1. Fill in the blanks using the following words according to their priority to you
(Organized, friendly, clever, good-looking, punctual, careless)
In my opinion an ideal teacher should be
 1……………….…2……………………3……….……………4……….…………5…………………
2. If you were a teacher, what would you have done in order to be regarded as an ideal teacher by your students?

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Evaluation of Academic Writing I Course: An Application of the Context-Adaptive Model of Language Program Evaluation

İbrahim Nişancı

Ishik University

Abstract

This paper presents an evaluation of Academic Writing 1, which is an English Language Teaching departmental course. The study used context-adaptive model of language program evaluation. It examines the effectiveness of the course on students' basic writing skills by using time series design to compare their scores at the outset, during the implementation, and at the end. Moreover, relevant findings of group focus interview are presented to provide better understanding of participants' self-evaluations about themselves and about the course too. The quantitative data analysis suggests that all participants have developed their basic writing skills such as finding and organizing ideas, sustaining coherence, using punctuation correctly etc. while qualitative data provides the students' insights about the process and the implementation.

Keywords: Academic Writing, Context Adaptive Model, Program Evaluation,

1. **Introduction**

Iraqi higher education has been on a downward course for decades because of war, dictatorship and isolation (Hamwi, 2006). After 2003, Iraq and its people faced a number of sociocultural changes after the war or the end of the Saddam Hussein regime. The following era of reconstruction needed new needs for Iraq and the people. Enthusiasm to integrate the global environment was the main reason for these needs. Consequently, English and teaching of English have increasingly gained importance (Al Mudhaffar, 2012). Although there have been significant changes in many aspects of life in the North of Iraq, there are a lot of things to be done for education. Krieger (2007) summarizes the situation of higher education in Northern Iraq as:

After decades of neglect and suffering under Saddam Hussein, Kurdish universities find themselves the object of unexpected envy by the barely functioning higher-education institutions elsewhere in the country. … But it will take more than new people to rebuild an educational system that had long been a pawn in Hussein's war against the Kurdish people. Faculty training and equipment are 30 years out of date, international donors are hesitant to

become involved in a region so close to the bloodshed, and the flood of refugees is creating as many challenges as opportunities.

Although Iraqi universities and higher educational institutions have been cut off for two decades from progress in educational curricula, resources, teaching methods, modern technology and research, there is a great demand for the integration with global academic world. Here comes the importance of English language teaching. There has been a rapid grow in the number of departments related to English language since 2003 (Iraqi Higher Education Organizing Committee, 2007).

English language teaching programme in Erbil Ishik University, which is a unit at the faculties of Education offers four years of education with some basic courses and language teaching related courses. Some of the courses aim to develop language knowledge and skill of students, while language teaching related courses aim to prepare them for their future professions. Academic Writing course is an essential part of English Language Teaching Program since it is crucial for university level students to express themselves clearly and accurately in writing. The course intends to prepare students to be able to write different kinds of paragraphs such as definition, descriptive, opinion etc. and they are expected to organize their ideas in a logical order. In Iraqi context, learners of English already lack some opportunities their contemporaries have because of the reasons mentioned earlier. Developing writing skills of students put more burdens on English Language teachers' shoulders since most of the Iraqi students even learn to write in Latin for the first time when they start learning English. In that case, the teachers, especially foreign teachers who work in this context have to evaluate on-going programs to assess the effectiveness of the courses they teach. Therefore, in essence, this study aims to identify whether Academic Writing I course in ELT department at Ishik University help students improve their basic writing skills.

1.1 Evaluation Context

Iraqi students generally lack in some basic skills of English due to many reasons. Learners find it very difficult to write in Latin, since they always read and write in Arabic letter system. In Kurdish region part of Iraq-Northern Iraq-, the situation about bilingualism and second language acquisition is quite complex because of ethnic diversity.

In state schools there are three main divisions concerning the languages. One of them is Turcoman schools in which the medium of instruction is in Turcoman -dialect of Turkish- and in Arabic. Kurdish schools offer education in Kurdish, while Arabic language is encouraged as a second language. Some state schools still teach in Arabic language and families who wish their kids to learn Arabic better prefer these schools. Some of the graduates of these schools express themselves better in Arabic than their mother tongue-Turcoman and

Kurdish-. As for Arab and Turcoman students in Arabic language-based schools, they learn Kurdish as a second language.

Things are quite different in the private schools' part. Number of private schools under university level is increasing day by day. In most of them, language of instruction is in English, nevertheless some lessons such as social sciences, other language lessons, and PE lessons etc. are in the language of the students who hold the majority. For instance, in Bilkent schools, which are run by Turcoman society, medium of instruction is in English while the lessons mentioned above are taught in Turcoman. While in private schools, which are initiated outside of Iraq (German, French, Lebanese, American and Turkish etc.) English is still main language for teaching; additionally, they try to teach their own languages intensively. Apart from these, they have to follow the ministry of educations' (run by Kurdistan Regional Government) regulations.

When it comes to English Language, it comes in the third place. Moreover, except for private schools in English instruction, students read and write in Arabic letter system and from left to right. Two years ago, learners started to begin studying English in 4th grades. They study English for 2-6 hours, which changes according to their grades, in a week until they graduate from high school.

A general entrance exam and the GPA of a student are the main determining factors to select a department. At the end of high school, students sit for exams from different subjects, which contain open-ended questions. Their final point is calculated by taking the average of the overall GPA and their score from the general exam. Then students go to universities and apply for different departments. There are certain point prerequisites for each department, which is appointed by Ministry of Higher Education.

Students who wish to study English Department have to attain minimum an average of 60 from the exam and GPA of high school. Moreover, average of 65 from high school English courses is needed. Most of the students who get higher averages than mentioned tend to choose more valued departments. As a result, some students only choose teaching when they resent attending other departments with lower positions.

In short, most of the students of ELT department are considered beginners when they start university. They are supported with extensive knowledge of language and skills in the first semester. Writing is introduced at the second semester of the program. They start with very basic writing skills and subskills such as sentence formation and basic punctuation rules, at the end of the course they are expected to familiarize with coherent and organized writing and very simple paragraphs. As for Academic Writing 1 course, they are considered to be ready for writing more academically and systematically. The course aims to teach learners

develop ideas and put them in texts (different types of paragraphs and basic essay). At the end of the course, learners are expected to produce texts with less punctuation and spelling mistakes too.

1.2 **Audience and Goals**

When applying CAM model in an evaluation, it is imperative that audience and goals are determined at the outset, which requires the consideration and prioritization of the people who are affected by the outcomes of the evaluation. Identification of audiences by ranking them helps to determine the primary and secondary stakeholders. Brown categorizes these stakeholders in four groups: academics, managers, staff, and students. With the help of ranking, the evaluator can generate the goals of the evaluation enquiry (Brown, 1998).

In our case, the primary stakeholders are the staff and student audiences as we intend to see the impact of outcomes at the end of the course. The researcher is the initiator of the evaluation without an external request by any other stakeholders.

The goal of the evaluation is to assess whether the course and the implementation achieve to reach intended goals by comparing students' writings at the outset, in the middle, and at the end. Moreover, it is intended to reach what students under evaluation think about their performances and the course in deep down.

Consequently, these research questions emerged:
1. Do the current implementation of AW I course improve students' basic writing skills?
2. What are the perceptions of students about Academic Writing I course?
3. Are there any points in the program that need improvement?

1.3 **Context Inventory**

Lynch (1990) proposes that an evaluation research need writing a context inventory. For this, study the dimensions below suited best for achieving the goals of the study:
1. Evaluation Group
2. Reliable and Valid Measures
3. Timing
4. Program Students
5. Staff
6. Size and Intensity
7. Instructional materials and resources
8. Purpose of the program
9. Social and Political Climate
10.

1.3.1 **Evaluation Group**

In the study, there is only one group different from Lynch's comparison group, because the circumstances in the research site did not allow us to follow a true experimental research design. ELT department in Ishik offers four-year education of both English and language teaching. Students attend main skill lessons for the first two years of program. Academic Writing I Course aims to prepare students to write better academic texts. ELT II students take this course in the third semester of their curriculum. Before this course, they also take writing course which focuses on more sentence level structure.

The study started with all of the students (n=24). However, there were 20 students at the end of the study because of different reasons: One student had to give a semester break, because she had a baby, three students failed because of attendance and could attend the posttest. Therefore, they have to be removed from the study.

1.3.2 **Reliable and Valid Measures**

As Owen (1999) stresses, impact evaluation is used to assess the effects of a settled program. Although focus of evaluation is on the outcomes of the program, evaluator may sometimes review some of the characteristics related to implementation in this type of evaluation. These kinds of studies are named process-outcome evaluation.

Time series tests seem to be the most adequate instrument to have accurate data about the development of the learners. The tests have been applied at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the semester. Students were asked to write descriptive and narrative paragraphs in the tests. Three different raters assessed the tests. In order to standardize the rating, these three raters have prepared rubrics for each type of paragraph by taking the objectives of the course into consideration. Statistical analysis of the tests was done with SPSS 15.0 by applying Friedman Test, which is a non-parametric alternative to the one-way ANOVA with repeated measures. The P value was found to be smaller than 0.005.

As for the identification of participants' perceptions, one of the qualitative data collection tools –focus group interview- has been used. The students were interviewed about their perceptions about the course and their own performances during the course. The data was reduced, coded, and then interpreted.

1.3.3 **Timing**

The evaluation of the course has to be conducted in the first semester of 2013-2014 academic year, because the department offers this course in this semester. The semester lasts for fourteen weeks (including two exam weeks); there are three periods of the course in a week.

1.3.4 **Program Students**

There are 24 students in the ELT II class. They differ in some ways; they come from different educational backgrounds and settings, cities, even countries. Three students from Turkey, three from Northern Iraq, and one student from Uzbekistan started to learn English when they started University. Six students had attended private schools in Northern Iraq whose medium of instruction was English. Five students attended language courses before. Only two students attended state schools and never attended any other language courses. Four students joined the program after they fled from the war in Syria. There are only seven male students while there are 17 female students.

1.3.5 **Staff**

The primary objective of this evaluation has arisen from the intention of assessing the outcomes of the course. Therefore, the researcher can be considered as internal evaluator as he is the lecturer of the course.

1.3.6 **Size and Intensity**

The course was offered in fourteen weeks-two weeks of exams excluded-. Students attend three hours, which are arranged two hours in a day one hour separately for every week. Lessons include theory and practice parts. Students are given various assignments such as writing different kinds of paragraphs.

1.3.7 **Instructional Materials and Resources**

Students mainly were encouraged to read different types of texts. However, during the lessons two academic writing skill books were followed especially for theoretical knowledge. As for practice, the lecturer provided some scaffolding by bringing various frameworks for different kind of writing activities such as brainstorming, organizing the ideas, controlled and guided writing activities etc. (Appendix 1).

1.3.8 **Purpose of the Course**

Purpose of the program is explained in the description of the course: This course is designed to help students get familiar with different types of writing. It focuses on the recognition of different kinds of paragraphs and introductory information about essay writing. Then students are asked to produce different types of paragraphs (descriptive, narrative, definition etc.) and essay in an academic way. In the study, for evaluation of the course, some basic skills have been used as measures: organizational skills, coherence, and mechanics of writing. These are summarized in the assessment rubric (Appendix 2) as Organization–

presenting ideas in an order, use of transition words and specific phrases (depending on paragraph type)-, Coherence-only one topic, strong supporting ideas, logical connection of ideas-, and Mechanics-grammar, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation-. In other words, the course aimed to develop students in these subskills to produce various paragraphs such as definition, descriptive, narrative, process-analysis, and opinion.

1.3.9 Social and Political Climate

As it can be concluded from the introduction part, Northern Iraq (Kurdistan region) there is a great effort to establish regulations about education. When it comes to teaching of English Language, many different educational institutions follow their own programs. Although English is not a very popular and common language in the region, everyday more and more people start-learning English. Knowing English is becoming more and more important in all aspects of life.

2.   Research Methodology

Questions of the research needed mixed research design for the study. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the implementation, since there was not an opportunity to have random selection and random assignment, time series measures were used for data collection. To reach more insights into what students think and feel about the course and the process, qualitative data collection was necessary. Therefore, focus group interview was held with seven students from two distinguishing groups- high achievers (n=3) and low achievers (n=4).

2.1   Thematic Framework:

The thematic framework of the study was developed by the researcher through an evaluation of his previous experience and with some advices from his colleagues. For the decision of the themes, the goals of the study were the most central factor. The thematic framework of the study has arisen like this:

1. Identification of students' proficiency in academic writing skills upon starting the course (1ˢᵗ test)
2. Use of instructional materials by program the lecturer.
3. Identification of students' progress in the middle of the semester (2ⁿᵈ test)
4. Use of instructional materials by program the lecturer.
5. Assessment of students' proficiency in academic writing skills at the end of the course (3ʳᵈ test)
6. Qualitative data collection (Group focus interview).
7. Analysis and writing the evaluation report.

2.2   Data Collection

Different data collection tools were administrated so as to reach the aims of the study. In order to attain a more reliable conclusion, one-group time series design was followed. So all students were given three writing tests (different types of paragraphs) at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the course. Three different raters assessed the tests by using predetermined assessment rubrics. In order to have more insight into the students' opinions focus group interview with students from two achieving groups were done which asked about their opinions about the course. They were mainly asked to comment on their performance, perceptions, and about the course.

Table-1: Steps of Data Collection

Steps	Procedures	Aims
1	3 writing (tests) tasks	To be able to track whether students improve their writing skills.
2	Focus group interview with students	To understand the perceptions of the students about strengths and weaknesses of the program.

3.   Data Analysis

The data analysis is explained in two parts. The first part deals with the descriptive statistics: Analysis of Friedman test to present whether there is a significant difference in participants' scores through the course and raw score data of each participant to observe the individual performances. Next, the qualitative data collected through focus group interview is interpreted in order to identify other factors that affected their performances.

3.1   Descriptive Analysis

In order to investigate the effect of the course on students' basic writing skills, students were given three tests at different times (at the outset, in the middle, at the end). Their scores were analyzed by using SPSS program. Friedman test analysis was done. "The Friedman test is a nonparametric test that compares three or more matched or paired groups. The Friedman test first ranks the values in each matched set (each row) from low to high. Each row is ranked separately" (how Friedman test works, n.d.) the Friedman test is used to increase the power of the test by controlling the experimental variability between subjects. For Friedman test ranks the values in each row, sources of variability, which equally affect all values in each row, do not affect the test. The P value is the answer the hypothesis of the study. If P value is smaller than 0.005, the null hypothesis (there is no significant difference) is rejected. If it is greater than 0.005, the null hypothesis is accepted (how Friedman test works, n.d.).

Test Statistics^a

N	20
Chi-Square	29,641
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	,000

a. Friedman Test

In our study, the null hypothesis (h_0) was that "there will be no significant difference in students' scores concerning writing tests. The table shows that, the P value was found to be smaller than 0.005. The null hypothesis was rejected; in other words, the findings revealed that the course increased their writing skills. The raw data in the table 3-2 can give a clear understanding about individual differences. According to the table, all students increased their scores. In short, Quantitative data revealed that there is an improvement in students' basic writing skills, which will be discussed, in the following chapter.

No	Name	PRE-TEST				Midtest				Posttest			
		R1	R2	R3	Average	R1	R2	R3	Average	R1	R2	R3	Average
1	Student 1	32	26	24	27	20	15	15	17	54	47	50	50
2	Student 2	26	24	25	25	50	55	50	52	54	55	56	55
3	Student 3	14	19	20	18	65	60	65	63	61	66	67	65
4	Student 4	21	26	25	24	55	60	65	60	63	66	53	61
5	Student 5	45	38	38	40	75	65	70	70	81	82	80	81
6	Student 6	56	55	55	55	65	60	55	60	75	75	75	75
7	Student 7	74	69	72	72	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
8	Student 8	50	45	50	48	50	55	45	50	66	62	67	65
9	Student 9	36	30	30	32	70	70	70	70	74	80	72	75
10	Student 10	73	65	64	67	75	65	70	70	85	87	84	85
11	Student 11	63	63	63	63	90	86	95	90	95	95	95	95
12	Student 12	38	33	35	35	75	80	85	80	88	92	90	90
13	Student 13	80	70	75	75	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
14	Student 14	30	30	30	30	40	45	40	42	48	55	48	50
15	Student 15	34	32	30	32	50	55	45	50	59	53	55	56
16	Student 16	25	20	25	23	20	10	10	13	47	42	45	45
17	Student 17	46	45	40	44	45	40	35	40	50	52	47	50
18	Student 18	30	28	30	29	70	75	65	70	70	66	72	69
19	Student 19	34	26	30	30	60	64	58	61	60	61	60	60
20	Student 20	77	71	72	73	92	88	90	90	100	100	100	100

Table3-2 Pre-test, mid-test, and post-test raw score data

3.2   Qualitative Data Analysis

In order to answer the second and third questions of the study, seven students from two representative groups-high achiever (n=3: S1, S3, S5) and low achiever (n=4: S2, S4, S5, S7) - answered some questions (Appendix 3). Their answers were read and coded and then categorized and interpreted.

Students' attitudes and opinions against the course were generally positive. All students stated that academic writing course is important and useful. They believe that writing is as essential as other skills; with writing, they can express themselves.

"It is and important subject. Before this lesson, I could not put my ideas on a paper." S1
"It is an important lesson to express yourself." S6
"It is very important, especially for my spelling. It certainly helps me for finding ideas by using my imagination." S3
"It is important, because we also need to write in English."

As for the improvements and gains they had from the course, all students stated that they had gained some benefits from the lesson. They mentioned theoretical and practical attainments. Some stated that they learned about some concepts for the first time such as topic sentence, thesis statement, brainstorming, conclusion etc. They also stated that they realized different types of paragraphs. Punctuation and capitalization rules were other topics that they stated that they learned. On share of practical benefits, some stated that they had learned about the organization of the writing especially paragraph. They said that with this lesson, they learned how to find and generate ideas and how to put them in a clear and more understandable way. They also stated that they started to pay more attention on the physical features of writing process such as punctuation rules, capitalization, and indentation.

"Before this course, I was not aware of some concepts like topic, supporting ideas etc. I did not pay attention before this course…I was not sure how to use punctuation before we studied…In this lesson, we learned different types of paragraphs for the first time." S1
"I also learned how to organize ideas too. I also started pay attention to the punctuation, writing a title, capitalization. Before the course I did not do any of these."S2
"Especially for punctuation and capitalization and developing ideas….Personally, I was not aware of the rules before. With this lesson I believe that I can think more deeply." S4
"I learned about brainstorming for the first time in this lesson…I was better at speaking and I did not write in English. In addition, when we have other exams I use the strategies we learned in this lesson. Now I write topic sentence first, support it, and write a conclusion. I

also learned to concentrate on one topic; I used to stray my ideas before, but now, I know that I have to write about the same topic."S5

"I learned that I used to make mistakes about indentation"S6

"I can tell that this course helped me especially for punctuation and capitalization and developing ideas." S7

When students are asked to evaluate on their own performance, students from two groups answered the question independently. Low achievers both admitted that they did not study very much for the course and there were some internal and external obstacles for them to be successful. Four of them stated that they only did classwork and homework, but never prepared for the classroom beforehand. Three students believed that their proficiency level is crucial for their lack of complete success. However, they see themselves better than at the beginning of the semester. When it comes to high achievers, two of them did not think that they studied enough; on the other hand, one of them believed that she paid her full attention and efforts.

"I tried to pay attention during the classes and I did my homework. I think all of my efforts developed my writing." S1

"Personally, I started to learn English here (in the department), and I think writing and reading are most useful for me. I feel a great difference between the beginning and end of the semester." S2

"I think I did not study enough when I compare my aim. I had to read more to write better." S3

"..my proficiency level was an obstacle for me; although I had ideas in my mind, I could not make sentences to express them." S4

"I did homework but I did not study extra…My proficiency level limited me" S7

None of the students stated any negative comment on the content of the course, which can be contributed to their lack of experience and knowledge on the topic. On the other hand, they voiced various and valuable ideas. First, five of them directly stated that the general enactment of the course was satisfactory. They stated that PowerPoint presentations, explanations, and mini revisions were useful. In addition, four of the students stated that homework assignments were beneficial, at the same time there could have been more homework and feedback. Two students urged that homework assignment should aim at preparing students for the next lesson; in this way, there could be better motivation in the classroom. Motivation was nearly problematic for all of the students mainly for external reasons. Five students stated that sudden and long holidays influenced their motivation for the course.

Five students complained about the indifference of some of their classmates; they felt uncomfortable when there were some students who did not pay attention and ruined the learning atmosphere in the classroom. Alternatively, two students detailed that they lost their motivation, when some students answer the questions very quickly and tried to take every turn. Furthermore, four students suggested that there should be more interesting activities such as games, competitions etc. to make the lesson more attractive. Finally, three students stated that writing lesson should include more hours and there should be more homework and quizzes.

"I think time for lesson is not enough. But the current implementation was ok…We should have more periods of writing course in a week. More hours, we can have more homework and feedback….Other students' indifference influenced me negatively." S1
I think we can have more homework and more interesting activities, for example teacher should assign students to get prepared for the lesson they attend… when other students talked out of the lesson, I lost my concentration." S5
"We benefited mostly from example from the book and explanations on PPTs… we can have more games and activities competitions… We feel like not following the lesson anymore when better students answer the questions faster." S6& S7

4.   **Conclusion**

The study aimed at evaluating the Academic Writing I course. In order to do that, students' academic development was put into test and it was checked whether there were any improvements in their scores, although a development could be anticipated before the course. Nevertheless, our aim was to evaluate the course scientifically by following a structured and valid framework (CAM). The Findings revealed that all the students showed some progress in their basic writing skills. It can be concluded that most of the students both developed their theoretical knowledge and practice in Academic writing. Nevertheless, these results should be appraised with some caution since it is valid for only the sample, which has been investigated.

Furthermore, the study enabled the researcher about the weaknesses and strengths of the course. The comments of the students acknowledged that number of the lessons should be increased and students should be assigned in a way that they have to prepare for oncoming lesson. They should get the feedback of their assignments sooner and in a more detailed way. In order to make the lesson more interesting, more interactive activities should be brought to the classroom.

As for the context-adaptive model of language program evaluation, it was useful for the researcher for providing clear-cut directions for enacting the program evaluation and enabling systematic investigation of the research questions.

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