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"Building the Future: Promoting Education of Educators"

8th International Visible
Conference on Educational
Studies & Applied Linguistics

BOOK of PROCEEDING

April 23-24, 2017

Erbil - KRG, Iraq



ISHIK UNIVERSITY



SALAHADDIN UNIVERSITY

8TH INTERNATIONAL VISIBLE
CONFERENCE ON
EDUCATIONAL STUDIES
AND
APPLIED LINGUISTICS

BOOK OF PROCEEDING



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Foreword

This book contains Papers of the 8th Visible International Conference on Education Sciences and Applied Linguistics organized by Ishik University and Salahaddin University at Ishik University Education Faculty building. The purpose of the VESAL Conference is to bring together researchers and practitioners interested in all fields of Education, Language Learning and teaching, and applied linguistics. The VESAL 2017 conference is designed to attract the research communities to promote connections between theory and practice and explore different perspectives on the application of research findings into different practices. VESAL 2017 received 67 paper submissions from 10 different countries such as UK, Kazakhstan, Kirgizstan, Tajikistan, Tataristan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Georgia and Turkey. Our mission is to make Education Faculty of Ishik University a place where academics and researchers from all over the world meet to discuss the developments of their discipline and present their work. To serve this purpose, conferences are organized along the lines of well-established and well defined scientific disciplines. In addition, interdisciplinary conferences are also organized because they serve the mission statement of the University. We would like to thank all the participants, the members of the organizing and academic committee and University administrative for putting this conference together.



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INVESTIGATING EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF METAPHOR IN SCIENTIFIC TEXTS

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Abstract

In our new scientific world of complex and abstract concepts, which are often not directly perceivable, we need a new way to spark better our perceiving of unfamiliar, complex and some problematic ideas that enters our lives. The only appropriate way to achieve the former aim is , to use metaphor or specifically “ scientific metaphor “ which is considered such powerful and fundamental devices within the figurative language , that can affect in our everyday communication and thinking about scientific knowledge . Metaphor is viewed as a key element of human cognition by its importance as a crucial device which is found for helping us to perceive the new , complex and abstract concepts and make these concepts to be impact and memorable by linking them to old concept that we already perceiving with physical senses that evolution has given us . Metaphor is applied frequently on technology and used for scientific purposes to make people more familiar when they are talking or thinking about new things. Nowadays evolution has not equipped humans to directly perceive new concepts, as a computer and internet which are highly complex new technology means used for communication .Since long and complex sentences in scientific texts .and the the abstract phenomena cannot be perceived , they have to be perceived imaginatively in order to explain them by using metaphors or analogies , there is a need for this study .

The main aim of this study is to investigate EFL students' perception of metaphor in different scientific texts. The current study examines the hypothesis that the students of English as foreign language can not perceive metaphor, its source domain, the closest meaning of metaphorical expressions and literal meaning of metaphor in scientific text, it also investigates whether there is significant difference between male and female students in their perception of the same aspects and finding out EFL students level in perceiving metaphor in scientific texts. This study is limited to the students of fourth stage in English Department at Tikrit University during the academic year 2014 – 2015.

A diagnostic test has been constructed , its validity is achieved by presenting it to the jury members and its reliability has been ascertained by using Cronabach alpha formula. Percentages of the correct answers and incorrect answers to reveal the level of student's perception. T – Test formula for independent sample has been used to find out whether there is significant difference in perception of metaphor in scientific texts between male and female students

The obtained results indicate the following:

According to Halliday (1985: 101) a fundamental feature of language is helping human beings to build a mental image of reality ,to make sense about their experience or inside them . So, The “figurative “ or “ non – literal “ is a form of language in which this feature appears obviously . The figurative use of language has traditionally referred to the deviant use of words or phrases from everyday language usage in order to provide the readers with comparisons , symbols , substitution and patterns that shape or create something new(Trevor: 2001: 293). Generally , figures of speech were seen as stylistic decorative that the writers used them to make their language more interesting in order to force their readers to work more at making meaning in some senses “ figurative “ in order to perceive their messages that they intended to convey by ornament use of the literal language .Ken(2003:141) argues that the literal usage of language gives words the meaning outside of any figure of speech .So, it preserves a stable meaning regardless of the text with the intended meaning corresponding exactly to the meaning of the individual words .

(Abram et al , 1979 : 206) argues that literary texts usually concentrated their using of the figurative devices especially metaphor which is used in creative and salient ways to convey particular ideas , experiences , emotions , sights and world – views . Lakoff & Turner (1989 : 26 – 34) viewed that the beauty and richness of the literary writings sprang basically from the way in which the writers bring together different conventional metaphorical conceptualizations of the life and other symbolic things such as death , dream and journey .So ,the magic power of metaphor comes when two disparate concepts are related and some new explanations are created . Therefore , metaphor is considered such a fundamental device that plays a crucial role in our perceiving of the world we live in. According to Trevor (2001: 293) most languages are figurative in some senses and there are very few ways of talking and writing about the world that do not make use of comparisons and symbols because some words do not have single, objective meaning of literary devices even on scientific texts . therefore ; the study of metaphor , in its origin , was not apart of the language studies; it belongs to rhetoric which started being understood mainly as a study of figures of speech .Metaphor is among these figures , whose main function is to make the message more impactful to the interlocutor ,showing and asseverating ability , talent and elegance in communication . Consequently, Mio (1996:112) insisted that scientific writings need to use metaphor to simplify complex and abstract concept by adding interest and imagery to these pieces of writing it also increases the emotional content and connections between the words and readers, which can provide richer and more fulfilling experience by its persuasive power. Leary (1990: 8) asserts that fact when he noticed that scientists typically deal with phenomena that are not just partially understood, but also complex and often inaccessible to the senses. So, their main task is, to understand and explain those phenomena and to persuade other that their understanding and explanation are valid. Metaphor in scientific writings help us to think and talk a bout complex subjective , and sometimes delineated areas of experience that often connected closely with our own lives . This makes scientific metaphor an essential linguistic and cognitive phenomenon which is used to persuade , reason , evaluate , explain , and theorize something offering new conceptualization of reality (Mithen , 1998 : 262). Scientific metaphor is regarded as a complex issue which makes invisible process accessible and help to provide convincing account of particular phenomena .It is increasingly recognized that scientific knowledge achieved through or by means of symbolic and linguistic activity (Leary , 1990 : 20) .

EFL students study metaphor device in literature on their previous academic years and their instructors point out this device, but they don't deal with it in details to make students perceive the scientific metaphor . Students' ability in perceiving metaphor in scientific texts has not been investigated before. So , there is a need for the current study to shed light on this aspect to find out whether EFL

students are able to perceive it from other types of metaphor or not . It is worthy to mention that students at Iraqi Universities in the English departments do not study scientific metaphor in their previous academic years.

As well, many scholars and students think that metaphor is related to literary texts only. Little attention has been paid to this topic . So, this study will find out whether EFL students in the Department of English, College of Education, at University of Tikrit can perceive the real meaning of metaphorical expressions in scientific texts when they intend to explain them which leads to misunderstanding of these expressions or even may make some errors when they try to explain them far away from their exact meaning.

This study aims at:

Investigating that EFL students' perception of metaphor in scientific texts.

The following hypotheses are put forward to be verified:

1-Students of EFL in the Department of English, College of Education, at University of Tikrit cannot perceive metaphor, its source domain and its real meaning in scientific texts.

2-There are no significant differences between male and female's perception of metaphor in scientific texts.

3- EFL student's level in perceiving metaphor is below the average level.

The current study is limited to:

1-One language device is limited to metaphor in scientific texts only.

2-Fourth class EFL students in the Department of English, College of Education, University of Tikrit

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Language of Science

According to Mac Morris (1989: 31 – 33) 'science is a systematic method of gathering knowledge '. So, the best way to perceive the nature of science is to think about scientific knowledge which is described by Bell (2008) as the ability to realize and evaluate the participations of science, and to be able to use science in decision- making on both every day and socio-scientific issues .He has specified three domains of science that are momentarily for improving scientific writings.

So, the language of science by its essence , a language in which theories are built and its characteristics are namely those that theoretical discourse probable .Generally language and science scurry together and learnedness a science is to learn a language that is found for classifying , extending , and messaging scientific knowledge as Martin (1993 a : 2000) asserts this point of view that a language in science, is an essential tool which is used to codify, analyze , interpret , and restock the investigations that build the basis of scientific word view.

Martin also showed that science can not be perceived in our own words , it has evolved a special use of language in order to interpret the world in its own and not in common sense and terms (ibid) . So, people can realize there is such a thing as a scientific language at least in written mode.

This language has its own vocabulary , norms , sets of conversation and modes of academic discourse which has to characterize a separate culture , in which one into each discipline may represent separate cultural community (Bartholomae,1986:4-7).

Webster (2005 a, b: 221-228) directed our attention to the fact that there are some practical reasons for decomposing scientific language ,the most obvious is educational one. He showed that students of all ages may find language of science intricate to be read , it can be known from various research reports in order to understand it we have to perceive how this language is structured . In scientific writing , if a text is difficult to be read , it looks that there are certain features of the way meanings are arranged , the way they are phrased , and the way that presents special problems for learners , over unfamiliar subject matter and alienation from every day experience (Halliday 1985: 101)

Vandenberg et al (2003: 6) argues the complexity of the scientific language that is not bound to the semantic level but it is also deeply affected by arranging of private grammar items that form discourse. He believes that although technical terms are part of this overall effect, the difficulty lies more with technical terminology usually arises not from the technical terms themselves but from the complex relationship that they have between each other.

2.2. Scientific Texts

Gauche (2003: 435) shows that scientific knowledge is intimately tied to empirical results which can be gained in the form of testable explanation that can be used to foretell the findings of future experiments, whereas Martin (2010: 940) defines the scientific method as a body of techniques that used for proving phenomena, acquiring new knowledge or fettling and merging previous knowledge. So, Newton (1999 : 794 – 796) argues that any text in order to be termed as a scientific text , its method of inquiry should commonly base on commensurable or empirical evidence subject to appointed principles of reasoning .It is essentially for presenting this knowledge as sets of sentences that may be used in connected stretches of language which are significant in communication , because scientific writers communicate their findings and facts being studied not by means of individual words or segments of sentences in language , but by means of texts (Al- Amyri , 2007 : 67).

Scientific texts generally focuses on highly technical terms, and they are bothersome to perceive due to their complexity in form and meaning (Vandenberg et al, 2003 : 217) . These texts should have many textures which form the bases for unity and semantic interdependence within a text or , as expressed ' sequential implicativeness '(Schelloff and Sacks ,1974 : 112) . Any text lacks texture would simply be a bunch of isolated sentences that have no relationship to each other(Paul,1994:210). A language usually contains a linear sequence and this linear progression of a text creates a context of meaning or contextual meaning at the paragraph level is referred to as "coherence " while internal properties of meaning are referred to as " cohesion " (Eggins , 1994 : 85).

We can display such metaphors which are taken from many scientific texts that refer to the taxonomic categories of architectural, chemistry, physics, phyto-zoo –or anthropomorphic, sporting, biological, medical domains as follows:

- 1-adopting orphan drugs: refer to drugs which have been developed but not subject to testing and they have not approved.
- 2-Treatment triangle: this expression used to refer that there are three treatment options should be used.
- 3-Silent epidemic: this metaphor refers to “silent” meaning not being noticed or burgeoning in unseen a pathological condition.
- 4-Commensal bacteria: this word described bacteria as persons having meal together.
- 5-Medical missionaries: this expression is originally used on the domain of Religion, transferred to Medicine referring to the activity of proselytizing.
- 6-Mistral regurgitation: this is one example of a new metaphor which refers to the sound of blood following around improperly closed valve of the heart.

2.3. The Concept of Metaphors in Scientific Texts

Metaphor as a figure of speech , is described by Aristotle described as a an issue of representation of one thing to stand for another . For example “The drug war “

Lakoff and Johnson (1980 , 5) also explain metaphor as a systematic association (they called their system of metaphor the conceptual construction) , or metaphor as a mapping between two conceptual domain

- 1- source domain as the thing itself as the concrete form .
- 2- target domain as something that worked and should be understood behind the metaphor as the abstraction .Thus , whenever there is a connection between source domain and target domain , metaphor will exist.

For example : “ Inflation has eaten up all my savings “.

Inflation is viewed in terms of the properties of the other, it is viewed as something alive and it had the most important properties that living thing that eating to express Inflation’s hardness on one’s savings.

These points of view lead to that metaphor is one of the most important sense devices that are used to give any text its unique depth and special character because metaphorical mapping of a source domain is happening unconsciously . So, the conceptions that are generated by this direct experiences are called embodied schemata in contrast , abstract phenomena that cannot be mapping have to be perceived imaginatively .

2.4. The Role of Metaphor in Scientific Discourse

Writers occasionally use the term “scientific discourse” when they are talking generally about ways of speaking and writing concerned with scientific topics and activities across different disciplines and genres. They also distinguish among the more specific discourses associated with particular disciplines, sub-disciplines or approaches as a “genetic discourse” which can be perceived by texts belonging to different fields, such as scientific articles, popular science articles, and textbooks (Halliday, 2004 : xv). Metaphor plays a significant role in all these texts and genres. According to a common traditional view of science, scientists engage in the direct observation of phenomena, and use language to report their findings mentally and objectively.

Scientific disciplines have rigorous and explicit methods for validating ‘hypotheses’ and ‘theories’ but suggest that these activities also involve the linguistic construction of knowledge within particular genres and social practices (applying for grants, giving conference paper, writing academic articles) (Myers, 1990 : 32 : 38).

Within the traditional view of science as a neutral and objective activity, Metaphor tends to be regarded as at best irrelevant and at worst detrimental. Hobbes, famously argued that metaphors openly profess deceit, and should be excluded from reasoning, demonstration and “all rigorous search of truth” (Leary, 1990 b: 8-9). This view has been progressively displaced by recognition that the use of metaphor in science is both pervasive and essential. Indeed, many scientists have themselves written that the use of metaphor in their specific disciplines (Keller, 1995 : 155).

2.5 The Main Source Domains in Scientific Metaphors

Metaphors in scientific discourse can be used to offer new conceptualizations of reality by constructing something (target domain) in terms of something else (source domain). The choice of source domains in scientific discourse crucially depends on the scientist’s current understanding of particular phenomena and their attempts to present and support their intuitions or findings about the nature of these phenomena (Semino, 2008 : 155 -157).

Scientists utilized source domains correspond to comparatively concrete, reachable, well-structured, familiar and areas of experience. In such cases source domains may be invented for modeling specific phenomena rather than selected from familiar or concrete experience because the exploitation of known areas of experience is not necessary for successful metaphor. In other cases, source domain is structured exactly to be suited the main features of the phenomena that is styled for modeling.

The **WASTE DISPOSAL** metaphor is used widely for theory constitutive purpose to provide a structured model for the view of ageing as it is argued by Gems and McElwee (2005 : 383) in their studies of longevity when they used the WASTE DISPOSAL source domain. For example :

“The cell is under ‘constant threat’ from metabolic waste products, and xenobiotics. We suggest that the smooth ER ‘works’ as a cellular ‘filter’, deploying and phase 2 metabolism to metabolize and excrete

these mainly lipophilic toxins . This clears the cell of molecular , rubbish , thereby' preventing molecular damage' , and aging “ .

WAR / RHYICAL CONFLICT ,is conventionally used to describe disagreements , or situations in which it is difficult for different entities to co-exist such as protect ,defense , attack , destroy and damage . The functioning of the immune system is conventionally explained in terms of metaphors from the source domain of WAR /PHYSICAL CONFLICT , generally entities such as viruses and bacteria are conventionally described as external agents that attack the body by attempting to eliminate any harmful invasion from outside (Goatly , 1997 : 49 - 51) .

More specifically, the ideal state of stability for the organism ' homeostasis' is described by metaphorical expressions draw from the **MUSIC** source domain as ' harmony ' , ' harmonious ' .e.g.

'Human body requires harmonious interactions among all its constituents '

(Cameron,2003:235) .

HUMAN BEINGS AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS / ACTIVTES can be used in the context of the specialized discourse of immunology , however , many of the metaphorical expressions have related to these source domain that are used in ways that are broadly compatible with each other , but each source domain captures particular aspects of the target domain . e.g.

'The heart' pumps' the air that ' pushes' the blood round the body '

Another dominant metaphorical pattern draws from the source domain of **MACHINARY** metaphors. A range of different process are described as mechanisms ' and the ways in which some cells affect other cells are described in terms of ' control ' and ' regulation ' or having a ' regulatory ' function . **MACHINARY** metaphors often include using of such vocabularies as 'do programmed ' or ' hard – wired ' or to describe a particular ' mechanism e. g.

' ' There are two references to cells' being programmed" .(Semino , 2008 : 155) .

By the source domain of **LANGUAGE /COMMUNICATION** the molecular processes are conventionally explain in terms of metaphorical expressions for example , the activation of damage is systematically described in terms of “ responses “ or 'responding ' , 'interacting ' . Particular molecular are referred to as “transcription “ , “ signaling “ , or producing ' signal .

PATH / TRANSPORT SYSTEM metaphor is used widely in scientific texts to reflect the physical experience about motion in space . The PATH schema supports a way of metaphorical constructing aims as destinations , ways of reaching goals as movement forwards, and problems as obstacles of the movement .It includes such expressions as flow, vehicle ,travelers and impediments to travel (Chilton,2004:204) .e.g."Blood' flows' into the strong tubes are called arteries "

Cameron (2003: 204) argued “ technical metaphors” or as it is called **BOUNDARY** metaphors that have a primarily pedagogical function .It implies such expressions as that is used to explain the heart structure on the concept of a building , for example :

“Each heart has' four chambers' with muscular walls”,

The use of “ walls “ is used to express the strength and protective function of the physical wall .

2.6. Problems of EFL Students' Perception of Metaphors in Scientific Texts

Writing is considered the most essential way of communication which has several forms , the most important one is the academic or scientific writing which involves mutual relations between writers and their readers . This form of writing is based on certain intricate conventions as the texts are often more lexical density which is defined according to Halliday and Martin (1993 : 21) as it is a measure of how tightly or firmly the lexical items (content words) have been compacted into the grammatical structure .

Halliday and Martin asserted that a writer couldn't possibly and apparently express and capture his intended meaning through the congruent domain using the phrase so the writer uses the metaphorical expression for sending the intended message to the readers easily and makes it impressive , vivid and intriguing for them to digest it (1993 : 21) .

Perceiving scientific texts in a foreign language is more required for EFL students to find out how they can perceive academic or scientific texts that are written for native speakers and how they browse through its scientific terminology and syntactic complexity by their proficiency level which is ranging from limited users to competent users of English language (Fang, 2006 :491 –520).

Perception of scientific texts is viewed as interactive process between the students prior knowledge and the texts. It needs not only the knowledge of general English but also the language , and terminology of science EFL students also must be knowledgeable about scientific concepts renewed in the text (Graesser , Leon and Otero , 2012 : 1- 51) .So , EFL students face at least two major challenges in perceiving these texts : (1)- general English words (2)- long and complex scientific English sentences. Metaphor can help EFL students to reach for better scientific perceiving . most scientific terminology did not pose a big perception problem by Efl students as they had often unpacking general English words . Another challenge encountered by EFL students is long and complex general and scientific English sentences . Thus, metaphor is an important component in scientific texts that fully reflects the dynamics of the functioning of language in science and technology communication .The frequency use of metaphors in scientific language belongs to the metaphorical nature of language and the suggestive power of metaphor in this language (Norman, 1998 : 108) .

3-Proceduers

The practical side of this study includes choosing a sample .The sample is derived from the population . .According to Ary et al (1979 : 129) , the Sample is a small portion selected from the population for the purpose of observation and analysis . Sixty students (twenty two male and thirty eight female) from eighty five(thirty male and fifty five female) students from Fourth year of the College of Education at Tikrit University are randomly selected to represent the sample of this study .Twenty five

male and female students are also selected randomly from the Fourth year of the College of Education at Tikrit University students for the pilot study as shown in Table 1 .

Table (1)
The Sample of the Study

		Pilot	Sample
Male	30	8	22
Female	55	17	38
Total	85	25	60

In order to achieve the aims of this study a diagnostic test has been constructed to test the students' perception of metaphor in scientific texts . The first step in the construction of the test is specification of the behavioral objectives .Table (2) shows the analysis of the behavioral objectives of the test.

Table (2)

Specification of Contents , Behaviors and the Scores of the achievement Test.

Question Number	Contents	Behaviors	scores
1	The expressions That constitute the scientific metaphors	To recognize the metaphor concepts , specifically in the scientific text about the human body .	20
2	The source domain in the underlined scientific metaphor	To identify the source domain types in the scientific text about the human body system	30
3	The closest meaning to metaphorical expressions	To test the students' ability to perceive the closest meaning of the	30

		understand scientific metaphor in each item	
4	Match the scientific metaphorical expressions in list (A) with its literal meaning in list (B)	To test the students capability to understand and realize the literal meaning of the metaphorical expressions by matching them to the suitable metaphors	20

According to the (40) items of this test ,they are considered authentic as they have been taken from many books and textbooks which means that their content validity is already confirmed. In order to ascertain the face validity of the test in this study , the test has been submitted to a number of jurors and experts specialized in the field of methodology , linguistics and literature . The final form of the forty items is approved by the jury members. Then the test has been applied on the pilot sample of twenty five male and female students of College of Education /English Department /Tikrit University on 9th of July during the academic year 2014-2015 .

Test analysis for each item of the test has been applied . Difficulty level (DL) formula* has been used to compute the difficulty level of each of the test . The discrimination power (DP) formula* is used to compute each item of the test .The reliability of the test has been ascertain by using Cronabach Alpha formula* which is the most common statistical index of internal consistency .

$$*DL=H+L/N$$

where

DL=Difficulty level

H =N umber of correct answers of higher group .

L = Number of correct answers of lower group .

N = Total number of students in both groups .

(Groulund , 1974 : 211)

* DP = Discrimination power

where

$$DP = H + L = 1 / 2 N$$

H = Number of correct answers of high group .

L = Number of correct answers of low group .

N = Total number of students in both groups

***Cronbach Alpha formula**

$$a = \frac{L}{I - 1} \frac{f}{1} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k v^2 y_i}{v^2 x}$$

Where :

K = The number of components .

0-2x = the variance of the observed total test scores .

Yi = the variance of component for the current sample of persons (Devilles , 2003 v: 35).

After the application of the formula of the item discrimination power , it has been found that the discrimination power , “ good classroom test items have discriminating indices of (0.030) or more “ (Ebel , 1972 : 399) .Therefore , The discrimination power is satisfactory and acceptable as shown in the Table (3)

Table (3)

The Total Difficulty Level and Discrimination power and the mean for Each Question in the Achievement Test

Question No.	DF	DP	Mean
Q1	0.775	0.551	4.49
Q2	0.718	0.536	8.46

Q3	0.651	0.618	9.47
Q4	0.723	0.540	5.53

The obtained results show that the reliability index of the achievement test is (0.74) which is considered to be very good from a statistical point of view .The final version of the test has been applied and the scores have been processed statistically.

4. Analysis of Data

4.1 Students' Total perception of metaphor in Scientific Texts

To fulfill the first aim of this study which is 'investigating EFL students' perception of metaphor in scientific texts in general ' and to verify the first hypothesis which reads 'EFL students' can not perceive metaphor ,its source domains , the closest meaning , and the literal meaning of the metaphorical expressions in scientific texts ' .Students' perception is analyzed .T-test formula* for dependant sample has been applied i.e., the students' mean score is(25.85) and the standard deviation is(9.77). The computed t – value is(1.914) whereas the tabulated one is (2.00) at 0.05 level of significant . The theoretical mean is 50 and degree of freedom is 59. as shown in Table (4).

Table (4)

The Total Level of Students' perception of metaphor in scientific texts

No. of Students	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation	Theoretical Mean	T- value		Freedom Degree	Level of Significance
				Comp.	Tabu.		
60	25.85	9.77	50	1.914	2.00	59	0.05

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - A}{S / \sqrt{N}}$$

Where :

T = Test value

A= theoretical mean

S = standard deviation

N= number of the subjects

X = mean scores (Heyleet,1979:114)

Statistically, since the computed t – value is less than the tabulated one , it means that there is no significant difference in students’ perception of metaphor in scientific texts . The students’ level is less than (50) , it means it is below pass mark . The general level in perceiving metaphor in scientific texts , the types of metaphors’ source domain, the closest meaning for the metaphorical words and the literal meaning of the metaphorical expressions indicates the students’ level of perception is not satisfied and low .

4.2. Male and Female Students’ Perception of Metaphors in Scientific Texts

The T . test formula for two independent samples is also used to achieve the second aim of the current study that is “ finding out whether there is no significant difference in perception of metaphor in scientific texts between male and female students .The results indicate that mean score of male students is (25.32) with a standard deviation (10.21) , whereas the mean scores of female students is (26.16) with a standard deviation (9.63) . The computed t. value is (1.725) and the tabulated t. value is (2.00) at the level of significant 0.05 with the degree freedom (58).Since the computed t.value for male and female students in this study means is less than the tabulated one which means that there is no a significant difference between male and female students’ in their perception of metaphor in scientific texts as shown in Table (5) . The second hypothesis of this study is rejected.

Table (5)

Male and Female students’ perception of metaphors in Scientific Texts

Gander	No. of students	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation	T –Value		DF	Level of significance
				Comp.	Tabu .		

Male	22	25.32	10.21	1.725	2.00	58	0.05
female	38	26.16	9.63				

4.3 The percentages of Students' Responses Concerning Each Item of the Test

The frequency and percentage of the subjects perception of each item of the test are shown in Table (6) .This test consists of four question, each question consists of (10) items ,two marks are specified for each correct item in(Q1and Q4) and three marks for each correct item in (Q2 and Q3) , while the wrong one takes zero , thus the total numbers of scores is (100) . By this way , the test of this study consists of (40) items which are related to scientific metaphor subject which has been not studied by the student of Four year . These items are chosen carefully from various references and some of these items are modified by number of specialists in the field of English teaching .

The purpose of the question I items is to measure the student's ability in perceiving metaphor in different scientific texts. Table (4) shows that correct responses ranges between (15% to 40 %) whereas incorrect responses have got the highest percentage , especially (4,6) item . which have got(71 % and 85 %) percentage . These results indicate that students' level is very weak in perceiving metaphor in scientific texts and their perception is below the average level.

Question II measures the students ability to identify source domain types in many scientific text . Concerning , Q2 , Table (4) indicates that correct responses ranges between (21 % to 30 %) . The students fail to achieve the level of success in perceiving the types of metaphor source domain , whereas the percentage of incorrect answer ranges between (50 % to 65 %) .

Question III tests the students' abilities to perceive the closest meaning of the underlined scientific metaphor by selecting it from four multiple choice .Table (4) shows the percentages of students' correct answers only three items (5,9,10) have got the lowest percentages (31 % , 18% , 48 %) , whereas other items (1,2,3,4,6,7,8) have been answered correctly which have got (71%,76%,66%,50%,68%,55%,55%),this means that students can perceive these items. Respectively, since the other are incorrect items (5, 9, 10), it means that they can not perceive the close meaning of the metaphorical expression of these items, so their level is low.

Finally, question IV measures the students ability to perceive the metaphorical expressions in one list by matching them with their literal meanings in another list . Table (4) also refers that in question four the percentages of the students' correct answers to perceive the literal meaning of the scientific metaphor ranges between (30 % to 45 %) which refers that the percentage is very low, it also refers that the percentage of incorrect responses ranges between (30% to 45%) and the item (2) has got the highest percentage(45%).According to these results EFL students can not perceive the literal meaning of the scientific metaphor since they can not accomplish

the level of success in all the question items .The students level is less than 50, which means that it is below pass mark .

4.4. Discussions of the Obtained Results

The statistical analysis of the results obtained from the application of the T. Test formula indicate that EFL students' cannot perceive metaphors in scientific text in general which constitutes the widest and most important category within figurative language .The results also show that there is no significance difference between male and female students in their perception of metaphor in scientific texts.

The problematic area and weak of scientific metaphor that EFL students face are found out through the percentage of correct and incorrect responses of the students .The students have clear defaults in perceiving scientific metaphor of QI which is related to perceiving metaphor in specific scientific text .The results also show that QII about perception of the type of metaphor source domain ,QV that is concerned the perception of the closest meaning of metaphor and QVI which is related to the perception of the literal meaning of metaphorical expressions are problematic . In general, there are no high percentages of correct answers .Mostly, the percentages are less than the level of success.

Students' failure in perceiving metaphor in scientific text, which have been mentioned above, due to English syllabuses that do not pay enough attention to these areas. Besides, in the undergraduate studies, there is no attention paid to the figurative language and scientific metaphor by instructors , besides , students lack practice in scientific texts and they are not motivated to relate what they have studied with metaphor they found in their daily life .

5- Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the findings of this study:

- 1- EFL students at Tikrit University/College of Education/English Department basically do not perceive scientific or academic language which contains a lot of specialized vocabularies and technical terms.

EFL students consider this language as a complex language. As a result they cannot perceive metaphor device in scientific texts.

2-The failure in perception of metaphor in scientific texts might be ascribed to several sources, namely EFL instructors and students the English literature teaching methods and pedagogical syllabuses.

3- EFL students at Tikrit University can not perceive the source domain in metaphor used in scientific texts.

4- Most of EFL student's responses in a diagnostic test is described as weak level, since they couldn't achieve success mark the test.

5-EFL students (male and female) have sufficient motivation to recognize metaphor in scientific texts. They had at least instrumentally motivated by their willing to watch English films or to use internet, use the computer programmers or to read English articles.

6- EFL students can not recognize that studying metaphor as an important figurative device which is literate has useful functions in raising their awareness of scientific concepts and issues.

7- Most of EFL students perception of various written texts especially scientific text is based on misunderstanding the metaphorical meaning by using incorrect translation of its literal meaning that may distort the intended meaning .

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APPENDIX A

The Version of the Diagnostic Test Directed to the Fourth Year Tikrit University Students

Q1// Read this passage carefully. Find out the expression that constitute, scientific metaphor .

The human body , with its multitude of complexities , requires harmonious interactions among all its constituents for the maintenance of homeostasis . Because every member of this intricate community has its own ' agenda ' , peaceful and productive existence is not trivial . fortunately . the body has several means for avoiding potential and detrimental conflicts between a immune responses to self versus non – self . A fundamental strategy is ensuring that the immune cell repertoire is sufficiently devoid of those that could cause harm to self while maintaining a wide selection of those that are adept at taking stressed cell . Another level of control is provided by the active regulation of immune responses through cellular interaction and soluble mediators . These checks and balances are that essence of harmony that maintains the status quickly .

Q2 // Recognize the source domain in the following underlined scientific metaphors whether they relate to PATH , WAR , FAME , CODE , HUMAN BEING , PHYSICAL OBJECT , WASTE DISPOSAL , INSTRUCTION , MATIONARY, MUSIC, MASHIN AS MIND ,LANGUAGE /COMMUNICATION , BOUNDARY metaphors

A// Blood is the 'body's transport system .At the center of this system is your heart . It has four chambers with muscular walls . About once a second , the walls contract and squeeze blood out of the chambers into strong tubes , called arteries .The blood is pushed around your body . As the heart relax again . its chambers fill with more blood brought back to it by other tubes , the veins . This pumping which we call a heart beat , happens every second of everyday , for as long as you live .. no man – made pump is as yieldable as your heart . It can beat for 100 years or more without rest . Also , the heart is adjustable .It can beat faster or slower , and change how much blood it pump with each beat , depending one how active you are .

B // Genetic physical object . In theory babies could be genetically engineered . Their genetic material could be changed to make perfect babies . Impure genes and people could be weeded out and destroyed and those genes are not perfect would not allowed to have children .

C// My attic is a sad sight , a jumble of frayed carpet off cuts , half – empty cans of congealed paint , broken videos , dead computers and inoperative exercise bikes . Just the thought of dragging it all to the dump tiers me out .

Something similar is happening inside my body's cells – at least according to a new theory about why we age . The rubbish is piling up , and while I could clear it all out , that would take a lot of effort . So my metabolic cleaning systems are set to ' don't bother ' and the result is that harmful garbage is accumulating .

Q3//Encircle the correct choice that carries the closest meaning of the underlined metaphorical expressions .

1- He is a rebellious scientific writer .

- a. not willing to follow rules
- b. unfriendly
- c. incongruent

2- Electricity was a dramatic invention .

- a .unhappy
- b. ordinary
- c. amazing

3-Results of an experiment has valuable facts.

- a. expensive
- b. fairly important
- c. important and worth

4-It was a fruitful line of a research .

- a. It has an important idea .
- b. It has a main idea with an affective writing style .
- c. It has growing the main idea as the plants grow on the field

5-The cherry tree is a sea of blooms with soft and sweet perfume .

- a. It has decorative piece of water with its plants .
- b. It has too much flowers with a wonderful scent .
- c. It has colorful flowers with quiet smell.

6-The sun is a golden plate.

- a. It is very expensive as a golden plate .
- b. It has important place "the centre " within our galaxy .
- c. It is round , bright and yellow as a golden plate .

7-Each blade of grass was a tiny bayonet pointed firmly at our bare feet .

- a. Each plant may cause harm without any intention
- b. Each plant has a harmful part on its leaf

c. Each leaf of some weed plants has its own rake that can cause harm when we are passing across .

8- The researcher kept us in the dark of his plan .

a. His way of describing his plan was unclear.

b. He intended to make his plan unclear in order to be secret

c. His displaying of the plan's steps was confusing.

9-The theory collapsed after the scientist produced his new data.

a. His theory collapsed when he could not defend his opinion rationally.

b. His new ideas encouraged his challengers to resist his theory completely

c. His new data was not supported with logical evidence. Thus, it leads to landslide his theory as destroying of any building.

10-He left no stone unturned in his research for the truth .

a. He left nothing difficult it with out clarity .

b. He did not leave any thing with out studying .

c. He has not leave anything even the minimal facts without studying .

Q4//Match the scientific metaphorical expressions (1-10) in list A with its literal meanings(a-l) in list B .

List (A)

1-A researcher shot down his idea about nuclear power .

2-Blood flows down an artery is a train runs down a line .

3-Computer viruses affected negatively on computer system .

4-Under us the brown earth. The best bed for wonderers

5-His theory bed swan the seeds of knowledge in his readers minds

6-The bird chirp filled the empty night air .

7-An invention of a hybrid car can save energy .

8-A patient died after along battle with cancer .

9- AIDS is another headache for the medical researchers 10-The swan existing on the river is a song with accompaniment .

List (B)

a-It expresses its traveling over a period of time .

b-It expresses the technical bacteria action as the effect on biological one on the organism body .

c-It expresses that he planted the ideas in the brains as the farmer did.

d-It describes air as a storage place for include some thing .

e-It refers that he defend his self against who attack son his ideas but he is in an indefensible point of view .

f-It describes the struggle with illness as a strong enemy and it was the usually winner .

g-It indicates to the brown piece of land which is regarded the best place for sleeping now and forever(house and grave

h-It refers to the best choice to reduce consumption of power is using the multi-technical structures in one design.

I-It describes its voice with its motion in water as a concert.

J-It refers to the most important problems of society which requires a lot of money and effort to overcome.

THE VIEW OF WAR IN THE POETRY OF THE 1st WORLD WAR

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Abstract

This particular essay entitled, '*The View of War in the Poetry of the First World War*', the researcher (learner) attempted to make an in-depth as well as extensive study in understanding the scenario of Europe during the First world war and the ways by which the British and Irish poets pen down the experiences of the young individuals and their family members when they had go at the front war. In fact, the thesis statement for this piecework was to find out the viewpoint that people had in regards to war, especially in context to war poetry and whether any transformations occurred in the previous concepts of wars. Works of many famous poets had been taken into consideration, such as those like Wilfred Owen, Siegfried Sassoon, Issac Rosenberg, Charles Sorley, Ivory Gurney. Nonetheless, the works of certain women poets like Marjorie Wilson and Margaret Postgate Cole at the time of First World War, had also been studied to understand the emotions of the women left at homes and the ways they used to view war.

Keywords: Anger at war, Children at war, Futility of war, Theme of wounded, The Era of War Glorification and Viewing war.

Introduction

Down the ages, poets had chosen „war“ as one of the major topic, which aimed to affect the sentiments and emotions of people. For instance, Lord Tennyson in his *The Charge of the Light Brigade* penned down about the occurrence of the disastrous Crimean War (1854), which undoubtedly exemplified Victorian values. In such kind of poems, war was symbolised as a necessary action for the welfare of the state, thereby highlighting the glamour of bravery participating in the war.

*Their's not reason why,
Their's but to do and die:
Into the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred
(Wright, 2011)*

Researches done by Strachan (2010) indicated that war poetry circumscribed a wide range of poems such as those, written at the time of the First World War, which were found to have a massive impact on the handful of poets or the poems that the poets had written, thereby concentrating on the subject of war came up during that time.

People during the First World War had not only witnessed a drastic change in the political scenario but also a great transformation in the English poetry. It stands out as evident that, in early times, mostly the major poets used to write down poetry on war, thereby visualizing glorifying the act of war (McCrae, 2012). Nonetheless, it was also found during World War I that, even the young soldiers who used to be there at the front had penned down their experiences and feelings in the form of poetry.

Literature Review

This particular section points out the way by which literature have not been able to exclude itself from the emotional agony and tragedy that has affected the people at large.

The Era of War Glorification

Investigations done by Connor (2011) revealed that earlier poets used to consider war necessary in order to protect a nation as well as help it in becoming the best across the globe. In fact, the leaders during that time used to glorify war, thereby influencing the mass with oratory speeches, as well as stating that people need to fight for their nation and even give up their lives if required. Moreover, poets like John McCrae and Rupert Brooke were found to support this view, thereby glorifying war through their poetry and revealing that the services that the soldiers provide were a part of a just and noble cause. Most of the poems by *Rupert Brooke* focussed on highlighting patriotism along with urging to the readers as well as soldiers to show enthusiasm towards fighting wars in favour of the nation and the king. In fact, as Bristow (2014) indicated, Robert Brooke had been the sole poet who had highlighted the extent of sacrifice of the soldiers largely, thereby referring it to a just cause. Even though devastation, grief and death ruled as the vital themes of war poetry, nonetheless, poets like Rupert Brooke and John McCrae added on in their poetry the theme of nationality and sentimentality. As Howarth (2006) points out in his study, during the time of World War, Rupert Brooke in his poem, *The Soldier* used to manifest the horrors of war within a paradigm of romanticism and sentimentality. The voice in this poem, in fact describes his untimely death as an act of patriotism in favour of the country. He moreover, adds on that the land where he was supposed to be buried will definitely have “some corner” belonging to England forever (because he as an Englishman would be buried there).

John McCrae even views war as a glorifying activity in favour of the nation. It was through his poems such as *In Flanders Fields*, McCrae not only accounted the spring battles that took place in the Ypres but also the emotions and sentiments attached to it. He seemed to stir the sentiments of the soldiers as well as their family members while viewing war (Bloom, 2003). He mentioned that amidst the war situation, the poppies continued to “blow” even the soldiers are found to hide in between the “row on row”; even the larks flew high bravely and sang although they know that the mouths of the guns are targeted high. McCrae’s usage of the image of poppies in the field certainly

showcased the beauty of nature, which existed even during the war (Crang, 2006). It is to be noted that certain bloodiest battles took place during the

time of First World War at Picardy and Flanders and in fact, McCrae had been a part of the trench near Flanders, thereby experiencing the every aspect of the Second Battle of Ypres. This undoubtedly helped McCrae to produce a contrast between the liveliness of nature and the sombreness of death that the soldiers had experienced while being at the front at Ypres. In fact, later in his poetry, Brooke mentioned that since the soldiers had given up their lives in fighting for the country therefore the poppies were to be the symbol of their sacrifice and remembrance for their bravely acts and their contributions (Laskowski, 1994).

Siegfried Sassoon too in his poems written in his initial days used to focus on glorifying death. It is to be noted that Sassoon served his country at the front because of which he used to glorify the actions. During his early, he had the vigour in himself, which made him believe that one should give up his life for the country whenever required without even thinking twice. However, within the gradual passage of time and the experience that he gained, he ultimately realized the fragility of the concept of war glorification. In fact, researches done by de S. Pinto and Thorpe (1968) point out that Siegfried Sassoon was one of the innocent war poet because at his initial days with full of vitality and chivalry, he portrayed a different image of war in his poetry, thereby favouring war. Nonetheless, he realized that it was of no use. Hence, his later poems proved the transformation that occurred in his thinking abilities. It is then that he illustrated in his poems, the horrors of the trenches as well as the pretensions that people usually do in the name of nationalism and patriotism. *The Old Huntsman* is one of the famous poems of Sassoon. Thus, it is to be noted that the view of war totally changes in the eyes of Sassoon from a necessity and glorified actions for the country to a pointless action. In fact, he also stated in his poems later that, it is the pretentious nationalism, which led to the occurrence of “jingoism-fuelled war” (Sassoon, 1961).

Children at war

Most of the poems penned down during the War, revealed the fact the war has pulled out the children from their homes, who used to be under the care and protection of their parents. Male teenagers of about 14 years or more had to enlist their names for participating in the war (First World War Poetry Digital Archive. 2010). Undoubtedly, it was shocking to know that the teenagers happily and eagerly enlisted their names, without knowing the decision of the cruel fate. In fact, *Wilfred Owen* in his famous poem *Disabled*, pointed out that at the young age, when the boys used to play football, they decided to go to join the army. They did not know the exact reason as to why they need to do so. While some said they would look like a god in kilts” others said to please “his Meg” (Penny, 2011). In fact, Sassoon too, by this time realized the involvement of the young and immature boys in the army, thereby mentioning about a “simple soldier boy” in *Suicide in the Trenches*, who smiled at life “in empty joy” and went about whistling “with the lark” who had to spend his young adult period at the trench in winter “without rum” (Purkis *et al.* 1999). Nonetheless, the war poems can also be viewed as poems of separation from the loved ones. Different romantic relationships that the war poems demonstrate ultimately were destined to the temporary separation for going to the battlefield and then to permanent parting due to death. For instance, *Marian Allen's* „*The Wind on the Downs*’ clearly manifested the pain that the family members feel on the loss of their near and dear ones at the front. It was undoubtedly the futility of war, which deliberately and aggressively separated two lovers, Marian Allen and her fiancé Arthur first on a temporary basis by calling him at the front, which ultimately led to his death and permanent separation (Waterlines.org.uk, 2014).

Moreover, the young teenagers being pulled to the battlefield by emotional and patriotic manipulation often felt that their masculinity had been challenged while staying at the trench. Months after months and years after years, they had to wait at the front (although being alert) without doing much physical work as such. Thus, many soldiers at this point of time viewed war to be an adverse force, which transformed their working nature into feminine (Mahmud, 2009). On the contrary, it is to be noted that

the women played the role of the head of the family thereby nurturing the children and looking after the family. Nonetheless, there had been quite a few women poets at the time also who viewed war to be the snatcher of their near and dear ones. Women poets like *Margaret Postgate Cole* in her poem *The Falling Leaves*, presented an artistic lament for the sacrifice of the entire youth population of Europe (Connor, 2011). In fact, it is to be noted that even if the men returned they were either terribly injured or suffered from leprosy.

Theme of Wounded, Disablement and Death

It is to be noted that in the early war poetry, death was pictured as the biggest achievement if anyone died while fighting for his country. In fact, it had a metaphoric identity and was considered in relation to heroic and noble terms. As for example, *Rupert Brooke* in his work, *The Dead*, labelled death at the battlefield to be “shining peace”. Moreover, women poets like *Marjorie Wilson* in her poem *To Tony {Aged 3}*, creatively manifested the emotions of the mothers when they told their children that their fathers had died while fighting in wars so that they can lead their lives in peace (Bristow, 2014). Nonetheless, it is to be noted that an irony lied under such explanations because peace cannot be guaranteed to them even though the children had lost their fathers fighting for it. Thus, it was obvious that war can be futile since the fathers had died fighting and the male children possibly had the same fate.

Anger at the Horror of War

As days passed on, the soldiers realized that it became difficult for them to continue to be a part of the deadly war, since it had neither any possibility to end nor to set free the soldiers. Researches done by Sergeant (1954) point out that many of the young soldiers unable to handle the horror of their everyday lives at the front, which often made them witness the death of their friends being killed in front of them used to commit suicide by shooting themselves. Poems like *Suicide in the Trench* and *S.I.W.*

by *Sassoon* and *Owen* respectively demonstrated such situations, where the soldiers used to commit suicide in order to get rid of their own frustrated lives amidst the continuous bombardment and loss of the lives of friends. In fact, such actions of suicide undoubtedly made the war poets display the anger that they have on the horrifying activities of war. War at this point of time had been viewed as a taker of life. Poets like *Wilfred Owen* and *Isac Rosenburg* along with *Charles Sorley* and *Ivor Gurney*, put forward that death is inevitable and war certainly justified it (Fussell, 2012). It is either that the young adults would die while fighting at the front or by becoming frustrated and killing themselves. In fact an in-depth study of *Owen's Disabled* showcased that the soldiers ultimately developed a sense of hatred towards their seniors as well as the concept of war instead of their supposed enemy, i.e. the opposition party (Connor, 2011).

Change in the Attitude for viewing war

With the gradual passage of time and heavy loss of human resources, financial resources and property, a change in the attitude among the people in regards to the acceptance of the war was noticed. At the initial stage, people viewed war in a much high-spirited manner and patriotic approach. In fact, as mentioned earlier, the teenagers of around 16 years used to enlist their names agreeing for the war (Saks, 2007). However, the high amounts of injuries and death tolls had built a sense of fear among the people. A notable transformation in their attitude was evident where they no longer showed interest in going to the front. In fact, the poems written by certain poets like *Owen*, too revealed the futility of war because there cannot be an end to aggression and conquer. It is important to mention that war should never be glorified because it takes away the lives of people at large no matter for whatever reasons. Later poets revealed that it is indeed, significant to realize that the lives of people stand out as more important than the reputation of the nation. Moreover, as Connor (2011) puts forward that, the realization that war is futile has led to such a drastic change that people started suffering from shell shock. Some were found to get themselves hurt

purposively so that they could be returned back to home because they \were aware of the fact that penalties as against disapproval to fight or desertion were terribly high.

Futility of war

Ultimately, the change in the attitude of the people regarding their viewpoints towards war became negative since they realized the futility of war. In fact, Wilfred Owen at this point introduced the concept of „Dulce et Decorum est“, in accordance to which war stood to be neither noble nor honourable enough even if it stressed in favour of the nation; rather it led to tragedy, wastage and futility of individuals“ lives. He, thus, showcased an entirely different picture of war from its predecessors.

Most of Owen“s poems demonstrated that the futile nature of war and that there is not at all any importance of war, since it goes against humanity. Wilfred Owen, in his poem *Strange Meeting*, beautifully portrayed the way by which two soldiers appropriately fought bravely for their respective armies but nonetheless, they do die at the front and that they experienced a travel through a tunnel, which was actually a passage because life and death (Plantos *et al.* 1997). Owen artistically had put forward a conversation between the two soldiers, when they realize that both of them had fought their countries respectively and had hostile approaches towards each other even though they did not share any enmity personally. Thus, it helped the readers to realize that war is so futile because it develop problems between different people who are not even involved otherwise.

In fact, Sassoon“s later poem like *Suicide in the Trench*, presented the story of a young boy who gave up his life fighting for the country but once he was dead; “no one spoke of him again” (Connor, 2011). Moreover, even in his poem *Does it Matter*, Sassoon satirised the condition of those people who had become seriously injured in the First World War. It is to be noted that even though he moved on to say that it hardly mattered for the soldiers to lose any of their body parts as they would receive respect

from the countrymen; yet was obvious that they could neither be a part of the war any longer nor can they earn any livelihood. Moreover, they would become burden on their family (Saks, 2007). Theme of Shell Shock also seemed to be quite prominent among the soldiers since they feared that death would reach them any moment. It was considered as a post-war traumatic disorder. Owen stood to be one of the biggest examples of those people who lost their lives die to the shell shock

because of the destructive war.

Conclusion

On the completion of this essay, readers can undoubtedly realize that the concept and the picture of war that people developed into their minds in the initial days of the outbreak of the First World War had ultimately faced a transformation. At the beginning, the soldiers used to be in full energy and vigour in enlisting their names for the war and being a part of it. Moreover, even their family members took pride in the fact that their young sons or members became part of the glorified action, which would bring peace and liberty to their nation. Nonetheless, everyone realized that war can never be the solution to any problem except for the fact that it could only lead to death. Thus, gradually the war poets had degraded war to a position of life taker and futile action. Poets like Isac Rosenburg, Charles Sorley, Ivor Gurney, Siegfried Sassoon and Wilfred Owen have proved it in their works.

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Language Functions in Literary Works

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Abstract

Literature as a special form of language has been studied by literary critics as well as by linguists. It is impossible separating language and literature, because of their reciprocal relationship to each other. This relationship raises some questions such as: what does make any piece of writing a literary text? Is it possible to extract, from literary works, structural patterns so as to be followed by writers of literature? Are there several patterns, if the idea of patterns is true, or it is only one pattern? How can a writer change a piece of writing into a literary work? In what way is a work of art, from a linguistic point of view, related to life, reality or the world in which we live ?

The present paper tries to answer the above questions. It is an analytical study to some selected works of linguists and literary critics. It attempts to analyze selected essays written by Roman Jakobson, Vladimir Propp, Roland Barthes, Gerard Genette, Mikhail Bakhtin, Edward Said and Gerald Prince. Trying this kind of analysis will authenticate the paper try to depict language functions: their presence and meaning in different literary works. The aim of this study is to identify the linguistic rules in the literary structure. It aims also to define what various linguists and critics mean by the term "function".

Keywords: Function, literary language, literary works

Analytical Study

Roman Jakobson (1988:31-56) in "linguistics and Poetics" produces a summary of poetics and its relation to linguistics. For him poetics deals with the question: what (does make a verbal message a work of art? Poetics is entitled to the leading place as its main subject is the specific differences of verbal art from other arts as well as from other verbal behavior. To study the specific features or characteristics of verbal art, poetics studies the problems of verbal structure and is part of linguistics. He defines the poetic function by investigating all the variety of Language functions. He wants to define its place among the other functions of language, in any verbal communication. He argues that:

The ADDRESSER sends a MESSAGE to the ADDRESSEE. To be operative the message require a CONTEXT referred to sizable by the addressee, and either verbal or capable of being verbalized, a CODE fully, or at least partially, Common to the addresser and addressee (or in other words, to the encoder and decoder of the message), and, finally a CONTACT, a physical channel and psychological connection between the addresser and the addressee, enabling both of them to enter and stay in communication (Lodge, 1992: 33-39).

We have six essential factors for any verbal communication, i.e., to convey a message. The addresser and the addressee need a code, a context and a contact, Jakobson schematized theses six factors as follows:

ADDRESSER	CONTEXT	ADDRESSEE
	MESSAGE	
	CONTACT	
	CODE	

These six factors of language require six functions of language to carry them out. In the communication of one verbal message we have six basic aspects of language but we can hardly find verbal message that would fulfill only one function, the structure of a message depends on the predominant function, the accessory participation of the other function can be noticed by the observant reader, analyst or linguist.

A different language function focuses on each of these aspects of language involved in verbal communication. An orientation towards the context involves, the referential function which Jacobson considers it as, the leading task of numerous messages. The function which focuses on the addresser is the emotive or expressive function. It is a direct expression of the speaker and it produces an impression of certain emotion. The emotive function is characterized by its peculiar sound pattern which can be peculiar sound sequence or even unusual sound. It is characterized by its syntactic role, sentences are not components but equivalents of sentences. The emotive function flavors to some extent all our utterances phonetically, grammatically and lexically.

The expressive feature conveys ostensible information, when it is used to express angry or ironic attitudes and it has a phonemic aspect, whereas it depends not on the message itself, but on the delivery of the message. Jacobson (1988: 44) presents an example of the importance of the tone of the emotive message, a former actor in Stanislavskij's Moscow Theatre told him how at his audition he was asked by "the famous director to make forty different messages from the phrase "this evening" by varying its expressive tin. He made a list of some forty emotional situations, then emitted the given phrase in accordance with each of these situations, which his audience had to recognize only from the change in the sound shape of the two words. For a research work in the description and analysis of contemporary Standard Russian, this actor was asked to repeat Stanislavskij's test. He wrote down fifty situations and made fifty messages for a tape record, most of the messages were correctly decoded by Moscovite listeners.

The conative function involves an orientation towards the addressee. This function finds its purest grammatical expression in the vocative and imperative. This function is not liable to truth test. The imperative, unlike the declarative sentences, cannot be changed to the interrogative. Here Jacobson refers to Bühler who confines language functions to those three, referential, emotive and conative and says that certain additional verbal functions can be inferred from this triadic model. He notices three further constitutive factors of verbal communication and these three corresponding functions of language.

Some messages are serving to establish, to prolong or to discontinue communication, to check whether the channel works (Hello, do you hear me?), to attract the attention of the interlocutor or to confirm his attention (Are you listening?) This contact or phatic function may be displayed by exchanging of ritualized

formulas or by entire dialogues to start or sustain communication. It is typical of the talking birds and it is the first verbal function acquired by infants, to communicate before being able to send or receive informative communication.

The next function is the Meta – lingual function. In modern logic, there are two levels of language, object language and Meta – language. Object language speaks of objects and Meta – language speaks of language. We practice the Meta – language without realizing its existence. Whenever the addresser and the addressee need to check up whether they use the same code, whenever speech is focused on the code, it performs a meta – lingual function such as when the addressee says "I don't follow you – what do you mean ? " or when the addresser says, Do you know what I mean ?. The function of sentences which convey information merely about the lexical code of language and the acquisition of the mother tongue, it makes wide use of such Meta – lingual operations.

What about the message itself? The dominant of the verbal art is the poetic function, it cannot be studied in isolation of the general problems of language, and examining language requires a consideration of its poetic function.

Any attempt to reduce the sphere of poetic function to poetry or to confine poetry to poetic function would be a delusive oversimplification. Poetic function is not the sole function of verbal art but only its dominant, determining function, whereas in all other verbal activities it acts as a subsidiary, accessory constituent. This function, by promoting the palpability of signs, deepens the fundamental dichotomy of signs and object. Hence, when dealing with poetic function, linguistics cannot limit itself to the field of poetry. (Lodge: 136)

Furthermore, it is possible to divide the different kinds of poetry according to the linguistic functions adopted in writing such literary genre. The poetic function is the predominant but not the only function of poetry, and it is involved in all verbal activities as an accessory constituent, The poetic function is not confined to poetry, as poetry cannot be reduced simply to the poetic function, Jacobson says that the study of diverse poetic genres implies differently ranked participation of the other verbal functions with the dominant poetic. Epic poetry, focused on the third person, involves the referential function of language. Lyric poetry oriented toward the first person is intimately linked with the emotive function. Poetry of the second person is related to the conative function.

Jacobson complements his scheme of the fundamental factors by a corresponding scheme of function:

REFERENTIAL

EMOTIVE..... CONATIVE

PHATIC METALINGUIAL

He defines poetics as:

That part of linguistics which treats the poetic function in its relationship to the other function of language. Poetics in the wider sense of the word deals with the poetic function not only in poetry, where this function is superimposed upon other functions of language, but also outside of poetry, when some other function is superimposed upon the poetic function (Lodge, 1992: 39).

The word function has been used by a number of narrative theorists. In a chapter entitled the function of *Dramatis personae* in *Morphology of the Folktale* Vladimir Propp (1968: 161-169) assumes a grammar of the folktale. Functions play a role in an individual folk tale analogous to that played by parts of speech in a sentence. For Propp, what is important in the structure, is not the characters and their identities but the actions, they perform or the functions of the folk tale. Those functions are constant regardless of how and by whom they are carried out. Propp (1968) limited the folktale functions to thirty one beside the initial situation.

A tale usually begins with some sort of initial situation. The members of a family are enumerated, or the future hero ... is simply introduced by mention of his name or indication of his status. Although this situation is not a function, it nevertheless is an important morphological element. (Propp, 1968: 25 – 26).

For Propp the functions of folktale are 31. They are categorized into: one of the members of a family absents him from home. An interdiction is violated. The villain receives information about his victim. The villain attempts to deceive his victim in order to take possession of him or of his belongings. The victim submits to deception and thereby unwittingly helps his enemy. The villain causes harm or injury to a member of a family who either lacks something or desire to have something. Misfortune or lack is made known, the hero is approached with a request or command, he is allowed to go or he is dispatched. The seeker agrees to or decides

upon counteraction. The hero leaves home. The hero is tested, interrogated, attacked, etc. which prepares the way for his receiving either a magical agent or helper. The hero reacts to the actions of the future donor.

The hero and the villain join in a direct combat. The hero is branded. The hero is defeated. The hero is defeated. The initial misfortune or lack is liquidated. The hero returns. The hero is pursued. The hero is rescued from pursuit. The hero unrecognized, arrives home or in another country, a false hero presents unfounded claims. A difficult task is proposed to the hero. The task is resolved. The hero is recognized. The false hero or villain is exposed. The hero is given a new appearance. The villain is punished. The hero is married and ascends the throne.

There are other important constituents, but they are used in the intervals between functions. An example of these elements is what Propp (1968:161-189) calls notification.

Another connective element is trebling, it may occur among individual details such as the three heads of the dragon as well as among different functions. Another element is motivation by which he means both the reasons and the aims of personages which cause them to commit various acts. "The majority of characters that act in the middle of a tale are motivated by the course of the action only villainy, as basic function of the tale, requires a certain supplementary motivation. (Propp, 1968: 75).

Propp (1968) introduces the concept of function. He defines the role of a narrative element according to its role in the course of action. He is a key figure in the formulaic literature.

Propp(1968:164) introduces the concept of function. He defines the role of a narrative element according to its role in the course of action. He is a key figure in the formulaic literature.

Propp based his work on the study of a corpus of nearly two hundred Russian folktales, and attempted to abstract common elements from these elements which he named functions. Propp's tale was ground breaking, but it focused attention to what is rather (than) on various point(s). That folktales rely very heavily on elements that recur from tale to tale formulae (Think how many fairy tales begin

with Once upon a time and end with and they lived happily ever after.
(Hawthorn, 2000: 126).

The term function has been used by Roland Barthes. He argues that, a narrative can be seen as a small narrative. He isolates basic narrative units and distinguishes between function and index, if the narrative units constitute a sequence of actions, they can be termed functions, if they perform a less structured role in the story, and they are termed indices. The narrative text, For Barthes is a network with multiple entrances and exists. He divides the story diachronically into 561 fragments called lexias, which is the minimal unit of reading, and synchronically into five codes. Each lexia says Barthes, will fall under one of five codes.

Let us sum them up in order of their appearance, without trying to put them in any order of importance. Under the hermeneutic code ... by which an enigma can be ... disclosed ... As for semes ... we allow them the instability, the dispersion, characteristic of motes of dust, flickers of meaning. Moreover ... the symbolic grouping, the symbolic grouping. The proairetic code ... the proairetic sequence is never more than the result of an artifice of reality ... Lastly, the cultural codes are referenced to a science or a body of knowledge, in drawing attention to them, we merely indicate the type of knowledge (physical, physiological, medical, psychological, literary, historical, etc.) referred to, without going so far as to contrast (or reconstruct) the cultural they express (Barthes, 1974: 19-20).

Barthes' five codes are the hermeneutic code or code of enigmas which gathers the emotive units to formulate and solve a problem. It includes identifying the enigma, scattering clues, delaying the answer and revealing the truth. The hermeneutic code, involves problems of interpretation particularly those questions and answers that are raised at the level of plot. The semic or connotative code is that of the semantic features which are connoted by text. The semic or (semantic) code is related to the textual elements that develop the reader's perception of literary characters and features of the text.

The symbolic code controls and determines the reader's construction of symbolic meaning which links events and existents to symbols or abstract universal concept. The proairetic code or code of actions organizes the actions of characters into narrative sequences. This code controls and determines the reader's construction

of symbolic meaning. It controls the manner in which the reader constructs the plot of a literary work.

The cultural code is the referential code which is made up by textual references to cultural aspects or phenomena. This code is evoked whenever the text invites the reader to use knowledge is natural and part of the reader's realistic experience which Barthes (1974:23) argues as effectively classified pictures got from printed sources. In Sarrasince Balzac alludes or states what everyone should think about human sorts, for example, ladies, Italians or artists. These suggested five codes of reading allow readers to recognize and identify elements in the literary work and to relate them to specific functions.

Elsewhere in his work Barthes uses references to a variety of other codes, Thus in the course of two pages of his Textual Analysis of Poe's "Valdemar" (1981) there are references to the meta linguistic code, the socio – ethnic code, the social code, the narrative code, the cultural code, the scientific code, the scientific deontological code and the symbolic code, Barthes usage suggests that different discourses in a culture or interpretive community are coded in such a way as to direct the reader's attention towards the right interpretive technique at the appropriate point in the reading of a literary work. (Hawthorn, 2000: 46).

In a chapter entitled "frontiers of Narrative" in Figures of Literary Discourse, Genette (1982:33-67) defines narrative as: "the representation of an event or sequence of events by means of written language, this definition is simple and self-evident yet it conceals what constitutes a problem and a difficulty by effacing the frontiers of its operation and the conditions of its existence". Narrative tells itself by putting together a set of actions in a myth, a tale, an epic or a novel. The evolution of literature and its theory in the last half century has the consequence of drawing our attention to the singular, artificial and problematic aspect of the narrative act. The falsely naïve question "why narrative?" could encourage us to seek or to recognize the negative limits of narrative and to consider the principal sets of oppositions through which narrative is defined.

Poetics, Narration and Descriptive

So many oppositions are built on the bases of the narrative including, Aristotelian, Balzacan, and the comparison between the previous two types. These kinds are classified as the following:

The first opposition is indicated briefly by Aristotle in the *Poetics*. For Aristotle, narrative or diegesis is one of the two modes of poetic imitation, the other mode is the direct representation of events by actors speaking and moving before the public. This is the classic distinction between narrative and dramatic poetry, The same distinction is suggested by Plato and Socrates, For Plato, the domain of what he calls *lexis* or way of saying as opposed to *logos* or what is said, is divided into imitation proper *mimesis* and simple narrative *diegesis*, By simple narrative Plato means whatever the poet relates in his own person, Imitation begins when the poet speaks in the person of the hero and does his best to make us think that it is not him but the hero or character that talks Narrative was represented by the ancient dithyramb, and mimetic represented by the theatre, and a mixed or alternate mode represented the epic.

Direct imitation, as it functions on the stage, consists of gestures and speech, it represents actions, but at this point it escapes from the linguistic domain into the specific activity of the poet which is practiced. In the narrative work, the role of imitation is reduced to the discourse spoken by characters. Genette (1982) says that, the only thing that language can imitate perfectly is language, or a discourse can imitate perfectly only a perfectly identical discourse, a discourse can imitate only itself.

So we are led to the conclusion, that the only mode that knows literature as representation is the narrative, the verbal equivalent of non-verbal and also of verbal events, unless it vanishes, as in the late case, before a direct quotation in which all representative function is abolished .. Literary representation, the *mimesis* of the ancients is not, therefore, narrative plus "speeches" it is narrative, and only narrative (Genette, 1982:132).

Genette (1982:122) distinguishes between two kinds of representation in the narrative, however they are closely intermingled and in variable proportions, on the one hand, those of actions and events, which constitute the narration in the strict sense and, on the other hand those of objects or characters that are the result of what

we call description "one of the major features of literary studies and reading is the distinction between narration and description. This distinction did not exist before the nineteenth century.

It is possible to have purely descriptive text to represent objects simply and solely in their spatial existence, outside any event. It is easier to think of pure description of any narrative element rather than the reverse. The elements and circumstances of a process can be regarded as the beginning of a description. Genette (1982) uses the following sentence as an example of a description which may begin a narration, "the house is white, with a slate roof and green shutters", this sentence involves no element of narration. Another sentence is "the man went over to the table and picked up a knife besides", the two actions contain description.

It may be said that, it is easier to describe without narrating than to narrate without describing, maybe because objects can exist without movement, but not movement without objects. Description might be understood independently of narration but narration cannot exist without description, in all the narrative genres such as the epic, the tale, the novella and the novel, description can exist and occupy a very large place but in never ceases to be an auxiliary of the narrative, and there is no descriptive genre.

What is the function of description as related to narration or what is the narrative function of description? Genette answers saying in the literary tradition from Homer to the end of the nineteenth century exist two relatively distinct functions. The first is decorative like the description of Achilles, shield, the second major function is exploratory and symbolic such as in Balzac and his realist successors that reveal and justify the psychology of the characters. Description becomes here a major element in the exposition which it was not in the classical period.

Thirdly, he compares the narrative to the descriptive saying that, all the differences between them are differences of content which have no sociological existence. Narrative is concerned with actions or events as pure processes, it stresses the dramatic aspects of the narrative. Both description and narration express two antithetical attitudes to the world and to existence, one more active and the other more contemplative. Finally, description aims at the representation of objects that are simultaneous and juxta-opposed in space: narrative language would appear to be distinguished by temporal coincidence with its object.

Narration and Discourse

After comparing description to narration, Genette, in the next section, deals with narration and discourse. He compares the objectivity of narrative and the subjectivity of discourse. Subjective discourse is that in which the presence of "I" is marked. The objectivity of narrative is defined by the absence of any reference to the narrator, the events are set forth chronologically as they occur, and the events narrate themselves no one speaks.

Both discourse and narrative are almost never to be found in their pure state in any text. There is always a certain proportion of narrative in discourse, a certain amount of discourse in narrative. They are generally linked to the reference by the speaker who remains present in the background that is why the purity of narrative, one might say, is more manifested than of discourse. This is characteristic of the narrative. Discourse has no purity to preserve because it is the natural mode of language.

Analyzing the narrative genre, Genette (1982:123) uses the word function in a different sense. He argues that, there is no literary object speaking, but only a literary function, function here is equivalent to system – determined set of rules. He resents these rules as oppositions between elements of the narrative work, in his book *Narrative Discourse Revisited*, Genette analyses the narrative situation. He refers to Stanzel who said that any narrative can be one of three, authorial, figural, or as it was later named, personal, and the first person. Afterwards in his more recent writings, he attempted to analyze the narrative situation according to three elementary or fundamental categories that he calls person (first or third), mode or what Genette (1988) calls distance or the dominance of the narrator, and perspective, Stanzel's chief merit lies not in these representations but in the details of his analysis. His aim was to account for the three narrative situations by the overlapping of three analytic categories, mode, person, and perspective.

For a combinative mind, the intersection of two oppositions of person by two oppositions of mode by two oppositions of mode by two oppositions of perspective ought to produce a table of eight complex situations, but Stanzel's circular representation and his diametrical overlapping lead him to a division into six basic sectors (Genette 1988, 117).

Between the three initial typical situations: mode, person and perspective, we see three intermediary forms, interior monologue, free indirect discourse and peripheral narration.

From the above scheme, it is concluded that, when perspective intersects with person, we will have first person and interior monologue. When person intersects with mode, we will have figural and free indirect discourse. When person intersect with mode, we will have figural and free indirect discourse. When mode intersects with perspective, we will have authorial and peripheral narration.

Genette raises a question: Is a homodiegetic narration with rigorous external focalization possible? Such a narrative would be taken on by the hero. The narrative would adopt toward the hero and everything, the point of view of an anonymous external observer. We would then have the hero telling about himself as seen from the outside. Such a narrative is incompatible with the logical semantic norms of narrative which is incompatible with the logical semantic norms of narrative discourse.

That is why, says Genette, Roland Barthes claimed that a sentence like "the tinkling of the ice cubes against the glass seemed to awaken in Bond a sudden inspiration" could be translated into the first person to be "the tinkling of the ice cubes against the glass seemed to awaken in me a sudden inspiration" will be called impossible or in Chomskyan terms unacceptable. At a colloquium held at Johns Hopkins in October 1966 Roland Barthes dealing with the same example "we cannot say, the tinkling of the ice seemed to give me a sudden inspiration" and, a little later"! Can't say I am dead" (Genette, 1988:125).

Mikhail Bakhtin studies discourse in the novel in *Form the Prehistory of Novelistic Discourse* "He says that in the narrative genre, the language used is never unitary. It is impossible to lay out the languages of the novel on a single plane, to stretch them out along a single line. It is a system of Intersecting planes. Therefore, there is no unitary language or style but there exists a center of language, a verbal ideological center for the novel. The author as the creator of the novel cannot be found at anyone of the novel's language levels, he exists at the center of organization where all levels are intersected.

Belinsky called Bushkin's novel an encyclopedia of Russian Life ... Here Russian life speaks in all its voices, in all the languages and styles of the era. Literary language is not represented in the novel as a unitary, completely finished off and indisputable language it is represented precisely as a living mix of varied and opposing voices ... developing and renewing itself (Lodge, 1992: 111)

The language of the author strives to overcome literariness of styles and fashionable languages: Pushkin's novel, says Bakhtin, is self-critique of the literary language of the era, a product of this language's generic every day or currently is a fashionable strata which mutually illuminate each other, he describes the novel, from a stylistic point of view, as a complex system of languages of the era, which is mixed in an unitary dialogical system while separated languages within this system are located at different distances from the unifying artistic, ideological center of the novel is the Language in the novel which is not only represented only, but itself serves as the object of representation.

Novel study and Stylistics

For Mikhail Bakhtin the language functions is involved in the novel as a literary genre lie in the dialogical interrelationships within the novel. Studying a novel is a task of stylistics, it is the study of specific images of languages and styles, the organization of these images, the combination of images of language within the novelistic discourse, it is the transfers and switching's of languages and voices, i.e. their dialogical interrelationships. To justify choosing the novel among the literary genres he says:

We speak of special novelistic discourse because it is only in the novel that discourse can reveal all its specific potential and achieve its true depth. But the novel is comparatively recent genre. Indirect discourse, however, the representation of another's word, another's language into national quotation marks, was known in the most ancient times, we encounter it in the earliest stages of verbal culture. What is more, long before the appearance of the novel we find a rich world of diverse forms that transmit, mimic and represent from various vantage points another's word, another's speech and language, including also the languages of the direct genres. These

diverse forms prepared the ground for the novel long before its actual appearance. Novelistic discourse has a lengthy prehistory, going back centuries even thousands of years (Lodge, 1992: 110).

The Various Speech Genres in the Literary Works

Bakhtin (2000: 32-45) chooses two factors which he believes are of decisive importance, one is laughter, and the other is polyglossia. The most ancient forms for representing language were organized by laughter, ridiculing another's language and another's discourse. Polyglossia is always associated with interlamination of languages. It is elevated the forms of laughter to a new artistic and ideological level which produced the genre of the novel.

The most ancient and popular genre for ridiculing is parody. In a parody of a sonnet we can recognize its specific style, its manner of seeing, and its manner of selecting from and evaluating the world view of a sonnet. A parody may ridicule and represent the distinctive features of a sonnet but what results is not a sonnet but an image of a sonnet. All these parodies on genres and generic style or language enter the diverse and great world of verbal forms that ridicule the straightforward serious word. An example of the parodic forms is the satirical play. All the tragedians: Sophocles, Euripides and Aeschylus were writers of satire plays. One of the most popular figures of satire play is the figure of the comic Odysseus and the pre-Aristophanic comedy as well as a series of minor comic epic, parodic speeches, the most popular figure of the satire play is the figure of the comic Hercules, *The madman*. Heroism and strength are retained but are combined with laughter.

In Rome, the culture of laughter was as rich and diverse as in Greece. The literary and artistic consciousness of the Romans could not imagine a serious form without its comic equivalent. Every serious work of art had to have its comic double. It was Rome that taught European culture how to laugh and ridicule. So alongside the serious and significant discourse, there was created a rich world of the most varied forms of parodic travesty discourse.

The Languages differences among the Roman, Latin and Greek Literary Forms

In some cases, a parody of the same genre existed and in other cases we find special forms of parody constituted as a genre such as plotless satire dialogues and others. In the parodic genres language is transformed from the absolute dogma and monoglossia into a working hypothesis for understanding and expressing reality. This transformation can occur only under the condition of polyglossia. Only polyglossia frees consciousness from the tyranny of its own language. Roman literary consciousness was bilingual, always functioned against the background of the Greek language, and Greek forms. On the other hand, Latin literary language in all its diversity was created in the light of Greek literary language.

In the processes of literary creation, languages interlamine each other to create a concrete style, Roman literature in its beginning was characterized by trilingualism: Greek, Oscan and Roman. The rise of Roman literature is connected in a fundamental way with this trilingual culture. Only under such conditions could Roman laughter have improved. A complex polyglossia was considered as a characteristic of Hellenism. The Orient which was the bearer of an ancient and complex polyglossia intersects with the boundary lines of ancient cultures and languages.

In "Discourse in the Novel" Bakhtin defines the novel as a diversity of social speech types or sometimes diversity of languages and a diversity of individual voices. He calls this stratification of any language into social dialects, group behavior, professional, generic languages of generations and age groups. This stratification is the indispensable requisite for the novel as a genre. In a novel, authorial speech, the speeches of narrators and of characters, exist and form the fundamental unities, each of them permitting a variety of voices, and into links and interrelationships. Rivkin argues:

These distinctive links and interrelationships between utterances and languages, this moment of the theme through different languages and speech types. This is the basic distinguishing feature of the stylistics of the novel (Rivkin, 2004: 32).

Languages are never unitary, actual social life creates within an abstractly unitary national language. Although literary language is unitary, it is stratified. This stratification succeeds by genres, material, publicistic, newspaper and journalistic

genre. But, there is a kind of interwoven with this generic stratification of language including a professional stratification of language such as, the language of the lawyer, the doctor, the businessman, the politician, the public education teacher and so on. These various types sometimes coincide with and sometimes depart from the stratification into genres. They are also existed and always are presented in the form of a social stratification which it may coincide with or depart from generic and professional stratification.

The Written Text Role

For Edward Said criticism which has the critic talking about what a text does, how it works is a functionalist criticism. In his essay, *The Text, the World, the Critic*, he compares the writer to the musician, referring to a Canadian pianist. First, he noted that the main thing is that, a written text is originally the result of some immediate contact between author and medium. It can be reproduced for the benefit of the world. Second, a written and a musical performance has style, the author's style is a phenomenon of repetition and reception, but what makes style receivable as the signature of its author's manner is a collection of features variously called idiolect, voice or individuality. Style, Said says, neutralizes if it does not conceal the worldliness of a text because it is a network of various forces and the text, being a text, is in the world, it addresses anyone who reads.

In text there is a diametric opposition between speeches or that aspects of speech which some critics describe as the situation of a discourse and the function of reference, on the one hand, and the text as a suspension of the speech's worldliness on the other side. By worldliness, he means reality, which lies in the property of speech or the speech situation. A critic may be the alchemical translator of text into circumstantial reality or worldliness. This extract epitomizes this fact:

Text have ways of existing, both theoretical and practical that are always enmeshed in circumstance, time, place, and society – in short, they are in the world, and hence are worldly. The same is doubtless true of the critic, as reader and as writer. I shall not be hammering away at these points so much as... trying to note them, to illustrate them as concretely as possible, given the very complex circumstances surrounding and involving all verbal activities (Harari 165 – 6).

Said raises the question of, how can a critic deal with a text? He refers to three Arabs' eleventh-century linguists and theoretical grammarians. They were Zahirites, Their names are derived from the world in Arabic for clear and apparent and phenomenal. They are argued for the surface meaning of words related to a particular usage. Said says that there can be no strict meaning, no control over what words say. He criticizes these linguists by saying that their effort was to restore and rationalize a system of reading a text in which the attention was focused on the words themselves, not on hidden meaning they might contain. They went very far in trying to provide a reading system placing the tightest possible control over the reader by means of a theory of the text.

A text Said (1979:161-189) says, has a specific situation, a situation that places restraints upon the interpreter and his interpretation not because the situation is hidden within the text as a mystery, but because the situation exists at the same level as the textual object. He declares that his principle task was to discuss ways by which texts impose limits upon their interpretation. He opposes the view which suggests that interpretation has no limits and that the text belongs to a textual universe and has no connection with reality. He opposes this view because texts are worldly or in the world, and they place themselves as they are in the world. It is the function of the text to place itself in the situation and their manner of doing this is to place restraints upon interpretation.

Speaker and Audience Role within the Text

An example of this type of text is exemplified by Hopkins, Wilde and Conrad. The situation of this type involves speaker and audience, the designed interplay between speech and reception, between verballity and textuality. The three authors wrote their major works between 1875 and 1915, they deal with a wide variety of subject matter. Said quotes Hopkins to give an example of a text which determines its references. Hopkins uses scenes from nature, but he is never a passive transcriber because, as it is in the text, for him this world then is a word, expression, news of God. In a sonnet he wrote, he says that every phenomenon in nature tells itself in the world as a sort of lexical unit. Elsewhere, his observation of nature is dynamic. He sees in the frost an intention to speak or mean. Its layered coats bear meaning and expression.

The writer in such text is as much a respondent as he is a describer, and similarly, the reader is a full participant in the production of meaning. For Hopkins writing is telling, nature is telling and reading is telling.

"As poetry is emphatically speech purged of dross like gold in the furnace, so it must have emphatically the essential elements of speech" so close is the identification in Hopkins' mind between world, word and the utterance, the three coming alive together as a moment of performance, that there is no need of critical intervention. It is the written text that provides the immediate circumstantial reality for the poem's "play" (the word is Hopkins).

That everything, he spoke or wrote sounded as if it were enclosed in quotation marks. This is the consequence of two things: First, Wilde has a pose or a definite attitude toward everything in life. Second, as Wilde says in his play the importance of being Earnest when Algernon answers Jack's accusation. That he always wants to argue about things, that was exactly what things were originally made for.

The Speaker and Hearer Role in the Text

Said (1979: 161-177) analyzes Conrad's writings, he noted that, his work is made of secondary reported speech. The Conradian encounter is not between a man and his destiny but between speaker and hearer. The chain of humanity which he expresses by saying that, we exist only in so far as we hang together to the transmission of actual speech. Every text that Conrad wrote whether formally or thematically, present it as unfinished and the last word of the text seems to be unsaid and shall never be said. Said refers here to what he considers as a western novelistic tradition, texts insist on their circumstantial reality, fulfill a function, a reference or a meaning in the world. The texts are organized in such a way as to be filled with other devices, readers, aids, analytical contents, speculations or commentary.

Those three writers and all the novelists generally, Said says, valorized speech. By valorization of speech he means that the interchange of hearer and speaker is sometimes, misleadingly, equalized. In this case long texts or long novels aim to occupy leisure time of a quality not available to anyone. Moreover, all texts displace or take the place of other text. Yet, there is always a first text which the reader approaches through the text before him. In any text, there are forces or conflicts between different forces. A text is a discourse, the situation of this discourse

is discursive, The different forces or interlocutors are placed above each other as a critic described discourse as to reenact the geography of the colonial city, this world, cut in two, is inhabited by different species, two forces which are never equal. Always, the texts contain what is called: a play of forces. Therefore, the role of the critic is summed as:

Scholarship, commentary, exegesis. History of ideas, rhetorical or semeological analyses, all these are modes of pertinence, of attention, to the textual matter usually presented to the critic as already at hand.

Said (1978) analyzes the essay as the traditional form of the crit. For him the central problematic of the essay is its place. By place, he means three different, although connected, ways the essay has. It involves the critic method with the text, his method with the audience that he addresses, and the dynamics of his own text. He refers to Lukacs who said that, the essay is concerned with the relations between things, with values and concepts. While poetry deals with images, the essay is the abandonment of images and the longing for conceptuality and intellectuality. Lukacs, in his analysis of the essay as a form, believes, like Wilde, that criticism in general and the essay in particular. What the critical essay does, is to begin in creating the values by which art is judged.

To conclude, Said emphasis is not on the critics' role as values creator by which art might be understood and judged. But, the critic's role is creating the processes of the present as a process by which art bears significance. Criticism is worldly as long as it opposes monocriticism which is practiced when we mistake one idea, as the only idea, instead of recognizing the idea to be one in many.

The Types of Story due to the Language Functions Classification

Gerald Prince studies language functions in stories by establishing or recording a grammar of stories. A grammar of stories is a series of statements or formulas describing the rules by which the story can be produced. This grammar is a structural description of stories. He assumes that, the basic units constituting any story are units of contact which he calls events. He defines an event as "any part of the story which can be expressed by a sentence is taken to be the transform of at least one, but less than two, discrete elementary string (prince, 1973: 17). He gives an

example of a sentence that is the transform of a single elementary string as the following: A man laughs.

A series of conjoined events can be expressed by a series of conjoined sentences. A conjunctive term, is the term which connects sentences and forms the conjunctive of a story. Every story contains at least one minimal story or stories. It has the smallest series of events connected by the minimum number of conjunctive features. The smallest number of events needed for a minimal story, is three events. So, the minimal story, is a story which consists of three connected events using two conjunctive features. The relationship between events can be chronological or casual. The storyless novel or the quasi storyless novel excludes logical bonds between events because their writers, like Sartre and Beckett, either wish to represent an absurd world or to produce the so – called pure novels.

Prince distinguishes between stative event which describes a state and active event which describes an action. He gives an example of the stative event: "John was happy" and the active event: "John ate an apple".

A minimal story consists of three conjoined events. The first and third events are stative, the second is active. Furthermore, the third event is the inverse of the first. Finally, the three events are conjoined by three conjunctive features in such a way that (a) the first event precedes the second in time and the second precedes the third, and (b) the second event causes the third. (Prince 3).

Another type of story is the kernel story. The kernel simple story is "any story the events of which are in spatio – chronological order and which contains to more than one minimal story" (Prince 39 – 40). The kernel story consists of episode, each episode consists of stative or active event or clusters of events.

Prince says that a grammar of stories can describe the structure of many stories but is incapable of describing others, because in the former case events are in a chronological order and in the latter they are not. Story order and chronological order often do not coincide, because of some devices of storytellers such as the flashback, and sometimes, it is used to reveal the future of the protagonist for the purpose of irony. In written novels, it is difficult to present events that happen simultaneously, the storyteller must explicitly say that, events that are expressed one after the other are in reality simultaneous. The technique of simultaneism has been used successfully several times in the twentieth century. The simple story contains one

minimal story while the complex story is any story containing more than one and sometimes two simple stories by the use of some combinational patterns.

Conclusion

Dealing with language functions in literature, some critics define the poetic function among other language functions. Other critics try to establish structural rules or grammar for literary works either by declaring one structure or citing a number of structural patterns which are used in all the works with a change of the names of characters. Language functions for some critics are trajectories or intersection of different aspects or features opposed to each other. Functions can lie in the intersection or diametrical opposition between literary units or fragments and literary codes. They can lie in languages and styles stratification or in conflict of different forces, maybe even be in different older text within the literary text.

Roman Jakobson studies the language function related to literary works among all the language functions involved in any verbal communication. There are: the addresser, the addressee, the message, the context, the contact and the code. These six factors require six factors besides its require to six language function: the emotive, the conative, the poetic, the referential, the phatic and the metalingual. Each of these functions, corresponds to a language feature. The function corresponding to the message is the poetic function. The sphere of the poetic function. The sphere of the poetic function cannot be reduced to poetry because, poetry cannot be confined to the poetic function. It is not the only function in the literary work but, it is the dominant, and the determining function.

Vladimir Propp and Gerald Prince study the language functions in literature by establishing structural rules or grammar for folktales and stories. What is important in the structure is not the characters but the actions or the functions of the folktales. For Propp the functions of the folktale are thirty one, they determine the development of the action. There are some other elements which do not determine the action but are used in the intervals between functions as connective elements. Examples of these elements are notification, trebling and motivation. Propp defines the role of a narrative element according to its role in the course of action.

Prince, like Propp, tries to establish a grammar of stories. The event is the constituting element of a story. Every story contains at least one minimal story which consists of three events connected by two conjunctive features. The relationship

between events can be rather chronological or casual when the writer uses devices such as the flashbacks or the flash forwards. Events can be stative or can describe a state or active which describes an action. The story whose events follow a spatio – chronological order or which contains one minimal story is a simple kernel story. The Kernel story consists of episodes, each episode consists of stative or active events or a cluster of events. The complex story consists of more than one or two simple stories.

For Barthes functions exist when the narrative units or events constitute a sequence of actions. The narrative text is a network which consists diametrically of 651 fragments called *lexias*, the minimal unit of reading, and synchronically of five codes. These five codes are hermeneutic, *semic*, which develops the reader's perception of characters, the symbolic code, the *proairetic* code or that of action, and the cultural code. Barthes, later, uses a variety of other codes such as the metalinguistic social, socio – ethnic and sociological codes.

The idea of language functions in literary works as a network or intersection or of different elements and forces of the literary work occurs in Gerard Genette's and Edward Said's writings and with little difference between them. Genette (1982) presents functions as rules represented as oppositions between situations of the narrative work, the three typical situations of a narrative work are mode, person and perspective. There are three intermediary forms between those three oppositions. These are: interior monologue, free indirect discourse and narration. This is Genette's version of Stanzel's analysis.

The language functions are represented, according to Edward Said, by a conflict between two forces in the text. These forces are not equal, they are placed above each other and there is always a first text. The critic deals with these forces in his commentary and analysis. A literary text is originally the result of an immediate contact between author and medium. They can reproduce it for the benefit of the world. Style neutralizes but never conceals the worldliness of a text. In the text, there is diametric opposition between discourses or between function of speech and references. Similar to Roland Barthes, Edward Said thinks that the text is a suspension of worldliness or reality. The critic translates the text into worldliness or circumstantial reality. By circumstantial, he means related to time, place and society. The text places itself, or puts restraints upon the interpretation of the text, Said refers to three writers: Hopkins, Wilde and Conrad who valorize speech or turn it into an interchange between speaker and hearer or writer and reader. That is why the text is,

from his point of view, is a discursive discourse. In the text, there are always other texts, one text is the first and dominant. He is against monocriticism, he believes in worldly criticism or criticism referring to various circumstantial situations.

Similarly Mikhail Bakhtin sees the language function involved in the narrative genre or the novel as to lie in the dialogical interrelationships within the novel. Studying the novel is the study of specific image of language or languages within the novel. In the process of creative literary writing languages interlamine each other to create the concrete literary style. He defines the novel as a diversity of speech types, languages and a diversity of speech types, languages and a diversity of individual voices which he calls, stratification of languages. Stratification of any language means that, language constitutes layers of social dialects, group behavior, professional, generic languages of age groups.

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Gender Differences in Language: Recommendations for Language Teachers

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Abstract

Recently, gender differences were receiving increasing attention in general. Particularly, gender differences in learning received much attention by educators. This study aims to clarify the role of gender differences in learning languages in general and foreign language in particular. It also aims to provide some recommendations for language teachers. The study adopts Tannen's view with regard to gender differences in conversation. Specifically, her dichotomy of report-talk vs. rapport-talk was explained. Based on this dichotomy, several recommendations were offered to language teachers particularly in the classrooms in terms of learning outcome, learning style and evaluation processes.

Keywords: Gender, Gender Differences, Language, Learning

Introduction

Recently, gender differences received increasing attention in general and in learning in particular. Educators were interested to find out how gender differences affect learning process. Learning languages was one of the areas of interest. Researchers in development psychology has confirmed long time ago the existence of differences between boys and girls with regard to learning foreign languages including English (Zoghi, Kazemi & Kalani, 2013). Xiyang (2010) found that Chinese girls and boys use different strategies in learning English. Other studies (eg. Kayaoglu, 2012; Viriya & Sapsirin, 2014) confirmed existing different styles and strategies in learning languages among boys and girls in Turkey and in Indonesia.

Some researchers (e.g. Santrock, 2001) argue that although studies during 1970s showed that girls have better verbal skills than boys, recent analysis suggests that there is no difference in these skills. However, more recent studies show that girls learn their mother tongue at earlier age compared to boys. Moreover, girls possess richer vocabulary reservoir compared to boys at the same age (Martin & Fabes, 2006). Furthermore, gender differences in reading comprehension appear during adolescence in favor of girls.

By the same token, linguistic studies shown that girls not only acquire language different from boys, they use language in a different manner. For instance, Newman et al (2008) found that females' language was more likely than men's to include pronouns and social words, a wide variety

of other psychological process references, and verbs. Many researchers attempted to explain these differences. While some researchers, e.g. Bell, McCarthy and McNamara (n.d.) believe in the existence of biological factor behind the gender differences in conversation, other researchers such as Tannen (1990, 1998), think that the difference between men and women are due to many factors such as culture, geography, class, sexual orientation and personality.

Report-Talk vs. Rapport Talk

Deborah Tannen, an American sociolinguistic, attempted to offer an explanation. She believed that man and women view the world differently. Tannen (1990) argue that while men views world vertically, women tend to view it horizontally. Based on this assumption, both genders view the role of language differently. For women, language is a means for cooperation and getting closer to each other. On the other hand, men see language as a subject of competition. Based on these differences, Tannen proposes a dichotomy of report-talk versus rapport-talk. She proposes that men use report-talk with women use rapport-talk. Each of this type of talk has its characteristics. For instance, Tannen thinks that the reason why asking question is easier for women than for men, is that men view asking questions as a sign of weakness. So they try to avoid it. However, women do not hesitate to ask question. They think asking questions brings people closer together.

Another example for the differences between report-talk and rapport-talk is talking in various settings. In formal settings such as in conferences and classrooms, men tend to speak more, while in informal situations, such as parties and social gatherings, women tend to talk more.

Classroom as a Formal Setting

Classroom in our schools is a formal place for learning. It has its rules and regulations. So, based on report-talk and rapport-talk dichotomy, it is expected that girls participate less than boys in answering questions and active participation. Besides, Kurdish culture does not encourage women to be talkative and outspoken. Being silent and shy is a good characteristic of “good” women, according to Kurdish culture. Thus, it is expected that female students will be more passive than boys in class participation.

As a result, the teacher might develop an idea that girls’ abilities are less than boys. Consequently, this affects teacher’s evaluation of learning outcome of the students. If teachers convey their belief, with regard to gender differences, this might negatively affect female students’ self-esteem.

From my own teaching experience in different universities in the Kurdish Region form more than ten years, I observed that when girls do not understand a certain subject, they hesitate to ask the teacher to further explain the subject to them. They rather ask their own classmates for explanation. Shyness might be one of the reasons. However, if the instructor deals with them individually, in the class, such as giving individual activities to be performed in the class, girls are more open for directing the questions to the instructor.

Working Groups

Kendall and Tannen (1997) reviewed research on how women and men interact in groups. The research, they argued, suggest that men in groups tend to get and keep the floor more often than women, talk more often and for longer, interrupt more, and make different kinds of contribution. Based on these findings, it is predictable that girls will play a passive role in group discussion and group works. Male student will dominate the group. Thus, girls are given less opportunity and chance to express their ideas and thoughts.

If this is the case in a western country such as the USA, where women had equal rights to men, it is expected that in our societies, men will certainly dominate any group works that involve women. On the other side, women in our societies will be dominated when working with males in working groups whether in academic or occupational settings.

Recommendations for Language Teachers

To researcher's knowledge, there is not a single study that addressed gender differences in using and learning languages in Kurdish society. So the following recommendations are not based on empirical field studies. They are rather built upon findings of studies conducted on other societies.

Xiyang (2010) offers three suggestions for English language teachers in dealing with gender differences in learning language. Xiyang suggests developing student's personalized learning strategy, conducting learning strategy diagnosis and implementing learning strategy training and respecting gender differences and promoting full-scale development of learning strategies.

Language teachers and in particular English language teachers should pay attention to the following issues while teaching language:

1. It is important that teachers pay attention and respect gender differences in general and in learning languages, being first of second, in particular.
2. Teachers should a wide array of teaching strategies so that both girls and boys could perform well in their learning the language.
3. Teachers should give ample opportunities to both sexes to take part in classroom activities. Since learning language relies essentially of practicing the language, it is crucial that teachers that girls and boys are given time to practice in the class. Kurdish girls are not active in the class, so they need more incentives to speak up and take part.
4. When forming groups, teachers should make sure that the groups are not dominated by male students. If forming mixed groups, the teacher could some girls to become group leaders to ensure girls are given chance to express their thoughts and ideas.
5. Teachers should deal with shy students, particularly girls, in such a way that this shyness will not prevent them from utilizing the teaching and learning sources to the maximum.

6. Many girls, though they are competent, hesitate to be active in class. They are afraid of negative comments of their classmates, especially boys. So it is very important that the teacher define certain rules and regulations in the class to ensure that every one is respected and given equal opportunity to learn and develop.
7. Since girls feel more free in informal settings, based on rapport-talk hypothesis, teachers should not try to turn the class into a military camp. Using humor, for instance, is a good technique for reducing tension in the classroom.
8. Some girls, due to shyness, might not ask questions in the class. But they come to the lecture and ask their question in one to one communication. Although we should encourage girls to ask in the class and remind them that other students will benefit from the answers, we should always have some time for individual questions from students.
9. If the teacher observed that certain students, particularly girls, suffer from low self-esteem, he or she should encourage them, highlight their strengths and boost their self-confidence. If the teacher found him or herself not able to do so, he or she could refer to educational counselor to help with this regard.
10. In evaluating students' performance, teachers should utilize various method and forms to ensure that boys and girls are given fair opportunity to perform in and outside the class. Usually boys complain that girls perform well in tests that mainly depend on memorization. Taking into consideration Bloom taxonomy, teachers should use different levels of cognitive objectives in learning.

Conclusion

Many studies suggest gender differences with regard to language. Language teachers need to be mindful about these differences during teaching process. They should use different methods that suit both boys and girls. They should also pay attention when evaluating the language learning outcome in order to avoid any misjudgment because of gender differences. The study offered some recommendations for teacher to help them avoid any pitfalls during language teaching process that might be related to gender differences in language. We need local studies to practically address gender differences in Kurdish language learning and use.

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First Introducing Foreign-Language Literature to Undergraduate Students: Building upon Familiarity

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ABSTRACT

In the light of modern techniques of the Communicative Approach in teaching, it is crucial to find better ways to introduce English literature to non-native students at university level, instead of the traditional methods that are built on giving them terminology and definitions to learn, and then names of writers, schools, movements and literary works, as well as dates, to memorise. Observably, the old methods are prone to risk students' interest in the study of literature, especially that this field of study commonly has its own difficulties and challenges even for native speakers. The present paper attempts to set a methodology, based on the author's personal experience in teaching English literature at different universities worldwide for over two decades. The proposed methodology allows students to enjoy and then participate in their own act of learning English literature. By means of this methodology, psychological links are built between students and the literature of the foreign language. The proposed methodology makes students enjoy short, uncomplicated and familiar literary works in the target language. Next, classroom discussion and activities enable students to feel at home with this field of study, and enable their instructor to feed them smoothly and gradually with new literary concepts and terminology as tools that enhance students' enjoyment and understanding of the texts at hand.

Keywords: Active learning; Communicative Approach; foreign language undergraduate learners; teaching foreign-language literature; traditional teaching methods; cultivation of interest

INTRODUCTION

It is a common method followed in the teaching of literature to non-native undergraduate students, to start by giving learners terminology and definitions to learn. In this traditional teaching method, students also have to learn names of writers, schools, movements and literary works, and have to memorise lists of characteristics and dates. Even without this burdensome task of memorisation and dry, passive learning, the study of literature naturally has its own difficulties and challenges, even for native speakers. For the non-native, those difficulties are likely to be even more diverse, and the challenges even greater. And the old methods may therefore well risk students' interest in the study of literature. However, the difficulties and challenges of literary reading and learning are not hard to deal with when the student has an amount of artistic enjoyment of the literature at hand.

Depending on their diverse aims, purposes and priorities, various methodologies have been employed in the teaching of literature. Amongst those methodologies, there are generally some

that focus on students' acquisition of specific information, some that focus on students' language development, and some others targeted at students' personal growth. According to Carter and Long (1991), these are the three basic models for the teaching of literature.

The first one of these models views literature as a source of facts or information that the teacher must convey to the students. This information-based approach is teacher-centred because of its main purpose, which gives priority to teaching knowledge about literature and the history of literature (Carter, 1988). Lazar (1993) points out that, because the focus here is on content that requires students to examine the history and characteristics of literary figures, schools and eras, with contextual information ranging from cultural to social and economic-political, a large input from the teacher is required. Yet, this approach fits within the traditional views of learning that, according to Dewey (1938), theorise that learning occurs through the transfer of information from knowledgeable sources, such as textbooks or elders, to passive recipients.

However, modern learning theories have agreed that students do not learn much by sitting back and listening to teachers, nor by memorising information. It is practically observable that students who are taught literature through this traditional method lack interest in what they study, and that it is only those of them that are more capable of memorisation who can achieve good results, although often without real understanding or enjoyment.

The second model for the teaching of literature, which is the language-based, fits more within modern theories of teaching, in the light of the comparatively more active role given to learners. Here, there is much focus on the relationship between language and literature. Instead of studying literature for the purpose of acquiring facts and information, as in the first model above, this student-centred approach helps students realise how language is used through the medium of literary texts, when these are used as resources that cater for language practice (Carter, 1988; Lazar, 1993). The problem with this approach, though, is that students, while able to improve their language skills through the active examination and analysis of literary texts, fail ultimately to develop a real sense for literature *per se*. Rather, they keep feeling detached from literature, unable to enjoy it and to handle it feelingly.

Hence, still more recent approaches of learning have been giving students a yet bigger role in the educational process, holding that students must actively discuss what they are learning, and must be able to relate it to their own experience and personal life (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). In harmony with these later approaches, the personal-growth model of literature teaching provides students with the opportunity to relate, and to personally respond to, the themes and issues that they come across in literary texts (Carter & Long, 1991). This model helps learners practice the target language while they make connections between what they study and their personal lives. It thus enables them, especially through interpretative activities, of gaining deep learning as they construct knowledge and create meaning from their surroundings. By doing so, they undergo growth in terms of language, emotions and character development.

Following the personal-growth model of literature teaching, and in line with the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT), the present study advocates the early introduction of foreign language literature (FLL) to undergraduate students through a method that allows students to feel at home with the foreign literature being studied. The method suggested makes the subject appear recognisable to students, unaggressive towards them, and intimately relatable to what they already know. This way, students are given the chance to overcome their apprehensions towards the FLL; and by having their attention diverted away from their language difficulties, towards what seems more challenging, and certainly more amusing, they can spontaneously communicate their ideas and practice active learning of the target language.

DISCUSSION

The concept of Active Learning requires teachers within any field of knowledge to cultivate learners' interest in the study they are undertaking, by making students engage in activities, such as reading, writing, discussion, or problem solving, which promote analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of class content (Centre for Research on Learning and Teaching, n.d.). An important strategy that helps in this cultivation of learner interest is motivating students to realize their familiarity with the basic concepts of the new field of knowledge. This enables them to relate what they are learning to their personal experience, and thus makes them feel comfortable with the new knowledge they are acquiring (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

The fact, however, is that when the field of knowledge that students are entering for the first time is literature of a different culture, written in a foreign language that they still have difficulties with, some teachers have traditionally been introducing students to the FLL by stuffing them with information and burdening them with definitions, names and dates. Teachers would do this, thinking that there is little or no common ground on which to build their students' sense of familiarity with the topic learned. The challenge faced by such teachers of FLL basically arises from two different reasons combined. The first is that learners often regard the very act of reading in a foreign language as "laborious, unpleasant, and ultimately unsuccessful" (Arnold, 2009: 340), and the second is that, based on their personal experience with literary texts in their mother tongue, students tend to be aware of the more demanding linguistic nature of literary style. Ice-breaking is here much needed to confront students' recoil from the FLL.

A successful way to achieve this necessary ice-breaking is by framing the pedagogic content in ways that enable students to discover the relationship of new concepts, learned in or through the FLL, to their own life experiences (Chandler & Adams, 1997). This is achieved by making students realise the intimate connections between some aspects of the FLL, on the one hand, and matters that students have prior knowledge of, as well as things with which they are familiar within the normal setup of their everyday lives, on the other. After they reach such realisation, students can get meaningful and enjoyable engagement in the discovery of the FLL, gradually overcoming the linguistic challenges along the way. Amongst things that people commonly share today, and that may serve as excellent ice-breakers for the introduction of FLL to undergraduate students, are cinema and television productions familiar to all of them, as well as iconic stories from children's literature, especially stories that are universally known.

A good start can thus be showing students a familiar story (probably something like *Cinderella*, *Aladdin*, *Sleeping Beauty*, *Beauty and the Beast*, or any other classic story with iconic characters from children's literature) in the form of a film or an animation in the target language. This start normally gives students a level of enjoyment. Khatib et al. (2011: 215) have empirically proved that motivation is especially achieved when students are exposed to what they really enjoy. During the show, students can have intervals for oral discussion, analysis, guesswork and brainstorming in the target language. They can have these intervals from the moment after they see the title of the show onwards. And they can have the same, orally or in writing, individually, in pairs or in groups, after the end of the show. Throughout this ice-breaking stage, the teacher needs to help students out with new terminology to use when they refer to elements of the video – such as setting, theme, characters, plot and narrator. This soon familiarises students with literary concepts and terminology, and gives them the confidence they need in order to find out about the

same concepts and terminology by themselves in other, simple literary works, probably, of different genres, offered to them in the target language later on. And here, further terminology may gradually be given to them – such as cast, protagonist, antagonist and point of view.

Starting an FLL course in this manner creates an atmosphere of classroom cosiness, of excitement and of productive humour. Telling students next that this classroom experience, of story and film analysis, is in fact a sample of what the study of literature is all about gives students both relief and confidence. It assures them that they need have no apprehensions concerning the literature of the language that they are still in the process of learning, simply because they all know, and have always enjoyed, literature since early childhood, with bedtime stories and lullabies, and since literature has always been a part of their daily life. Learners thus get artistic enjoyment of the FLL, and find themselves much space for self-exploration and self-expression within it. It is very important here to focus on not imposing meanings and lessons on students, to let them experience literary texts freely, and to allow them to communicate their experience in their own diverse ways (Morson, 2015). Students can go ahead with their active learning of the FLL, forgetting about the language barrier that must otherwise stand between them and the more complex shapes of linguistic usage in the target language.

To sum up, with this kind of amusing introduction, at least two significant psychological factors are gained by students, which may further hearten them and give them reassurance: one is their proud awareness of their newly gained knowledge of literature and its concepts and terminology, and the other is their conscious self-gratification with regard to their improving skills in the target language. Moreover, in agreement with what Van (2009) states, that literature promotes cultural and intercultural awareness, it is a further strong motivation for students to realise their own ability to understand and to harmonise with the foreign culture whose language they are learning.

From this point onward, the teacher can go ahead with enriching students' knowledge of more concepts and terminology through classroom discussions of further samples of literary works. General information about the genre exemplified, its main features or its history may, if desired, be given meanwhile through the method of story-telling, by asking students about their own background information, and by letting them make guesses and deductions. Students can be asked to read one or two more literary works on their own, in class or at home, and to make their own written analyses, using the newly learned terminology. Students are later directed to tell their classmates about what they have read, again by using specialised terminology. They are also given the chance to discuss their views with their classmates, to exchange opinions about the main idea, as well as about specific details. Letting them enjoy drawing inferences, by making meaning through syntactic and lexical clues, and letting them make predictions based on their own inferences, can inspire the class with much vigour.

The ultimate result of the proposed methodology is a fast and smooth learning process that can guarantee minimum losses on the level of learner interest. This method characteristically demands very little or no preparation from the fresh learners of FLL. It is very different from Maley's critical literary approach (1989), which requires students to have reasonably mastered the target language already, and to be familiar with literary conventions. The proposed methodology is also much less demanding than that which Steinberg (2013) advocates for introducing literature to university undergraduate students. For the latter methodology requires students to be very wide-read and very active, as it focuses on the examination of "Influence" in class – by examining four areas: namely, literary or other works that have influence on the literary work at hand, the work's

influence on learners' critical thinking, literature or other art that grows out of the work at hand, and learners' contribution to the course texts.

CONCLUSION

First introducing students to FLL has to deal with psychological barriers that may naturally stand between students and the teaching material, and has to challenge learning difficulties that students face in the study of more advanced texts in the target language. The learning process in the FLL is further threatened when students are given literary terminology and definitions to learn, as well as lists of names to memorise, of writers, schools, movements, dates, and literary works. Yet, building upon students' familiarity with literature, especially children's literature, besides well-known TV and cinema productions, can create an atmosphere of comfort, of enjoyment and of excitement. This kind of start is least demanding for students, and it provides them with much space for self-exploration and self-expression, and guides their steps into the field of the FLL smoothly and with extra psychological benefits that would make them practice the foreign language more actively.

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Evaluating the Effectiveness of English for Iraq 5th preparatory ‘Students Book’

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ABSTRACT

To have an effective textbook is an essential and demanding issue for any EFL class. This study is an attempt to find out the effectiveness of the Student’s Book taught at Iraqi schools to 5th preparatory students namely English for Iraq 5th preparatory Student’s Book . Four aims are set to be achieved by this study:

1. pointing out recently stated criteria of good EFL textbooks.
2. finding out to what extent the English for Iraq 5th preparatory Student’s Book has met the criteria of a good EFL textbook.
3. identifying the behavioural objectives which are intended to be achieved by the evaluated Student’s Book.
4. finding out to what extent the intended textbook is effective in achieving the identified behavioural objectives.

The objectives are supposed to be achieved by answering the following questions:

1. What are the recently stated criteria of a good EFL textbook?
2. To what extent the intended textbook has met the identified criteria of a good EFL textbook, from teachers and supervisors’ perspectives?
3. What are the behavioural objectives of the intended textbook?
4. To what extent the intended textbook is effective in achieving its behavioural objectives?

To determine the effectiveness and value of English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB two instruments, i.e. a questionnaire and an achievement test have been constructed for data collection. The questionnaire includes relevant and contextually appropriate criteria for the process of textbook evaluation whereas the test assesses students’ achievement in English. The involved sample includes 565 students and twenty seven supervisors and teachers in the city of Kirkuk who study and teach the above mentioned textbook.

The following are some of the obtained results:

1. English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB is based on acceptable standard and level of quality and it is an appropriate textbook to 5th preparatory students.
2. Despite its strengths, English for Iraq 5th preparatory Student’s Book still have few shortcomings; such as there are many lessons in each unit,

3. Handling of pronunciation skill is not adequate as few exercises are devoted to the teaching of word stress, sentence stress and intonation.
4. The accompanied CD is not available at most of schools.
5. Students' performance is below the level of success at the achievement test.

The study ended up with a number of conclusions, recommendations and suggestions.

Key words: Effectiveness, Evaluation. 5th Preparatory Student's Book

Section One: Introduction

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The importance of English as a standard form of communication cannot be understated because it is the language of globalization, international communication, technology, science, commerce and a second language in a large number of countries. Also it is taught and studied in many other countries as foreign language at all educational stages. Thus, Proficiency in English is needed for employees to advance in international companies and to cope with the rapidly changing environment of the workplace. In other words, learning English would maximize the chances of finding a better career in the global workforce, as companies seek and hire individuals with good English ability (Richards, 2002:2-3).

It is pertinent to mention that language learners' performance and ability are affected by many interrelated factors such as, learning environment, teachers' proficiency, teaching methods, language learning materials, ...etc. This means that textbooks are considered to be one of the factors that affect learners' performance because they facilitate language learning process as they are the most commonly used learning materials in passing on knowledge and skills (Cunningsworth, 1995:7). Similarly, Richards (2001:41) highlights the importance of textbooks in any learning program as they offer structure and syllabus and the program may have no impact without them.

Educationalists, specialists and teachers of English ascribed the weak performance of Iraqi preparatory students to many factors and mostly to the English textbooks. Therefore, a reform movement has started in 2008 and the Ministry of Education in Iraq has adopted Iraq Opportunities series to improve Iraqi students' proficiency in English, but this series could not promote English proficiency level of students as they lack competency in English at various instructional stages, i.e. primary, intermediate and preparatory. The major cause of this could be relevant to the designing factors of these textbooks (Akef, 2012:99).

As a result a revolutionary change in designs and approaches occurred through issuing a new series for teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL, for short) named English for Iraq for primary and secondary schools since 2013. English for Iraq is considered the first Iraqi series to be taught from first primary grade to the sixth preparatory grade.

The change in EFL curriculum through developing and producing new textbooks is an on-going process. It is important to consider the value of a new material in use, is it better than what we had before, what else might it be improved to push it to a better level? What did we learn from trying it out? Is it better than the other options we might have chosen? (Davidson, 2005:1)

On the other hand any reform or change in English curricular should attest to be fruitful otherwise it is useless. Hence; it requires constant research to demonstrate the extent to which

those new EFL textbooks are successful in achieving their goals and objectives as well as providing powerful information that reveals a mixture of strengths and areas for improvement and future adaptation.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, no study has been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of English for Iraq as a recently published series. Therefore, the current study is an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of one of these new EFL series, namely English for Iraq 5th preparatory 'Student's book' (henceforth, SB).

1.2 Value of the study

The series of English for Iraq constitutes an output of the curriculum reform process that the Ministry of Education in Iraq is going through. Thus, the value of this study stems from the importance of evaluating one of the EFL textbooks as it is considered one of the most important tools in the hands of both students and teachers which contributes to the success of English learning programme and an entire generation of Iraqi students. The value of the current study also stems from the pedagogical usefulness of its findings to:-

1. the Ministry of Education and Curriculum Designers in making decisions on selecting English textbooks and improving the quality of evaluated book, i.e. English for Iraq '5th preparatory SB'.
2. teachers and supervisors of EFL through providing them with insights into the effectiveness of the intended book and help them recognize its merits and demerits and familiarize them with its strengths and weaknesses to make appropriate adaptations to the material in their future instruction.
3. the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research as it tries to fill a gap of information in the field of evaluating instructional materials.
4. pre-service teacher -training programme that enables student teachers to be aware of the important features to look for in English textbooks and familiarizing them with the various types of instructional materials.
5. researchers in the future as it would be a good resource for their study in the field of ELT materials and textbook evaluation.

1.3. Aims of the study

This study aims at evaluating the effectiveness of English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB as follows:

1. pointing out recently stated criteria of good EFL textbooks.
2. finding out to what extent English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB has met the criteria of a good EFL textbook.
3. identifying the behavioural objectives which are intended to be achieved by the evaluated SB.
4. finding out to what extent the intended textbook is effective in achieving the identified behavioural objectives.

These objectives are supposed to be achieved through answering the following questions:-

1. What are the recently stated criteria of a good EFL textbook?
2. To what extent the intended textbook has met the identified criteria of a good EFL textbook, from supervisors and teachers' perspectives?
3. What are the behavioural objectives of the intended textbook?
4. To what extent the intended textbook is effective in achieving its behavioural objectives?

1.4 Limits of the study

The study is limited to:

1. the English textbook English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB.
2. the fifth preparatory students and EFL supervisors and teachers at preparatory and secondary schools in the city of Kirkuk, during the academic year 2015-2016.

1.5 Definitions of the Basic terms

The basic terms are defined in order to be elucidated and clarified as follows:

1.5.1 Evaluation

Evaluation is a procedure of collecting data for the purpose of decision making. It is “the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum and assess its effectiveness and efficiency as well as the participants within a context of a particular institution involved” (Brown, 1995:218)

Evaluation means specifying the value, worth or significance of different aspects of the programme such as, the teachers, teacher trainings, the students, classroom processes, curriculum or programme content, etc. (Scriven, 2003:15 and Richards, 2001:286-87).

Evaluation refers to the curriculum evaluation or materials evaluation or both .The aim of the curriculum evaluation is to determine whether the objectives of a course have been attained (Thornbury, 2006:77).

Evaluation is the process of gathering information that would help in making decisions about accepting, modifying or even eliminating the curriculum in general or an educational textbook in particular. Finally it determines to what extent an educational programme or a curriculum is successful in achieving its goals (Tavakoli, 2012:202).

-The operational definition

In the current study “evaluation” refers to the process of specifying the recently stated criteria of a good EFL textbook and to what extent the evaluated textbook has met these criteria as well as gathering all relevant and necessary information in order to determine the effectiveness of English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB in achieving its behavioural objectives.

1.5.2 Effectiveness

Effectiveness is the extent to which an organization or a programme produces particular outcomes, for instance when a programme meets its own goals, this is referred to as effectiveness which means doing the right action .Completing activities and achieving goals thus, it is goal oriented. Also, it is the ability to be successful and to produce a desired result. (Meriam-webster.com; Cambridge Dictionary.org).

Effectiveness is the degree to which goals are fulfilled, the targeted problems are solved and it refers to how useful something is .It means doing the right thing. (Businessdictionary.com)

There are many criteria needed to be identified for the effectiveness such as mastery of objectives, performance on tests and measures of acceptability of teachers and students (Richards, 2001:292-93)

Effectiveness is the ability of obtaining the desired results, for instance, a programme, project or an activity is deemed effective when it has an intended or expected result or a deep positive impression .It can be “measured by comparing the actual results with desired results”(Abdeen ,2005: 76).

-The operational definition

“Effectiveness” is the extent to which English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB has met its recently stated criteria for a good EFL textbook and achieved its behavioural objectives.

1.5.3 English for Iraq ‘5th Preparatory Student’s Book’

It is one of the new EFL textbook adopted by the Ministry of Education in Iraq to be taught at 5th preparatory stage since September, 2013 till now. This textbook is compiled by Olivia Johnston and Mark Farrell and Published by Garnet publishing Ltd.UK.

1.6 Plan of the study

The following steps are going to be adopted during the current study in order to answer its questions and achieve its aims:

1. investigating recently stated criteria of good EFL textbooks.
2. constructing a questionnaire based on recently stated criteria.
3. selecting a sample of supervisors and teachers from preparatory and secondary schools.
4. administering the questionnaire to the sample of EFL teachers and supervisors.
5. identifying the cognitive behavioural objectives which are intended to be achieved by the evaluated SB.
6. constructing an achievement test in terms of the identified cognitive behavioural objectives.
7. selecting a sample of 5th preparatory students.
8. administering the constructed test to the selected sample of students.
9. analyzing the collected data by using the appropriate statistical means.
10. discussing and interpreting the obtained result.

Section Two: Procedures

2.1 Population and sample selection

Population means a group of individuals who has the same characteristics, such as, all teachers would make the population of teachers in a city (Creswell, 2012:625). In other words, population includes all the people who share some common or observable characteristics and from which sample can be taken. A Sample is considered to be a portion of a target population in which the researcher intends to study and make generalization about the target population (L and Jr., 2005:250).

The population* of this study covers all 5th preparatory students who study this textbook **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** in the city of Kirkuk for the academic year 2015-2016. It also includes all the supervisors and teachers who teach **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** at the preparatory and secondary schools.

Those schools are allocated on both sides of Al Khasa River in Kirkuk. One side is called Sob Al Kabir and the other side is called Sob Al Saghir. The Population and sample of schools, students, teachers and supervisors, in the city of Kirkuk are illustrated in detail in Table (1).

Table (1) The Population and Sample of the Study

Gender	No. of preparatory and secondary schools	No. of schools	No. of students	No. of students	No. of teachers	No. of supervisors and teachers	No. of supervisors	No. of pilot students	No. of pilot supervisors and teachers
Male	25	8	597	199	25	9	1	12	3
Female	38	14	1098	366	38	18	1	20	4
Total	63	22	1695	565	63	27	2	32	7

There are sixty-three preparatory and secondary schools in the city of Kirkuk. Twenty-five schools for male students and thirty-eight schools for female students.

The pilot subjects of the students consists of twelve boys from Barish Secondary School and twenty girls from Al-Shirooq Secondary School in the city of Kirkuk .Whereas the pilot subjects of the questionnaire consists of seven male and female supervisors and teachers.

Thus, the sample of this study consists of 565 5th preparatory students who study **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** in the city of Kirkuk for the academic year 2015-2016 that represents 33.33% of its original population. The sample of EFL supervisors and teachers are twenty-seven that represents 41.5% of its original population.

2.2 Instruments of the study

Evaluation would be more objective and valid when it is based on reliable instruments and take advantages of information and data collection tools to assess the effectiveness of a programme besides many methods could be utilized for data collecting such as interviews, tests, questionnaire, etc. Then the collected data can be used in the process of developing objectives, developing tests, adopting, developing or adapting materials and teaching (Brown, 1995: 24).Hence, In order to collect the required data for this study an achievement test and a questionnaire have been constructed as follows:

2.2.1 Construction of the Questionnaire

Questionnaire is a method of collecting data which explore the participants' points of view, ideas, perceptions, attitudes, etc. Thus it is a multipurpose and adaptable research tool (Sharp, 2009:61-64). Richards and Schmidt (2002:438) confirm that "designing questionnaires that are valid, reliable and unambiguous is a very important issue". It is used to evaluate language teaching materials like textbooks. It allows a more cutting-edge evaluation of the textbook in reference to a set of generalizable evaluation criteria.

A questionnaire of fifty-seven items has been constructed to find out the extent that **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** has met the recently identified criteria of a good EFL textbook from supervisors and teachers' perspectives as shown in Appendix (A).

The questionnaire includes two parts; the first part is related to general information about the involved supervisors and teachers such as, their years of experience in teaching **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB**, the total years of experience as a teacher and the number of in-service training courses for teaching the new EFL textbook, if any.

The second part of the questionnaire consists of fifty-seven items presented in the form of statements to be endorsed on a five Likert scale ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Those items are distributed among seven main areas to conduct post use (macro level) material evaluation, as shown in Appendix (A).Generally speaking, the seven areas are objectives, layout and design, content: subjects, activities and tasks, methodology, language skills includes, listening, speaking, reading and writing, elements of language includes grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, finally, literature focus.

2.2.1.1 Scoring Likert scale

The items in the questionnaire can be put in a closed form or an open form. In the current study a closed –form questionnaire is used which has a set of options (alternatives) to each item from which the respondents can select one .To be more specific, a Likert Scale is used in which the respondents are requested to indicate their level of agreement with each item on the following five-point scale :

Strongly agree=5, agree=4, neutral =3, disagree =2, strongly disagree =1 (L and Jr. 2005:123).

The validity of the questionnaire has been obtained by exposing it to a jury of specialists in Linguistics and Methodology and they proved that the questionnaire areas and items are appropriate.

The Reliability of the Questionnaire has been obtained by Using Cronbach's Alpha and proved to be reliable.

2.2.1.2 Final administration of the Questionnaire

The final administration of the questionnaire to the sample of the study has been carried out from 22nd Mar to 26th Apr 2016. Before the initiation of administrating the questionnaire all respondents are informed about significance, justification and purpose of the study. Furthermore, the respondents have also been given the assurance that the constructed questionnaire is used for the purpose of a scientific study and their responses are essential for improving the quality of the evaluated textbook.

Therefore, respondents have been encouraged to take the time to read the questionnaire thoroughly and fill it out carefully and issue their opinions honestly on whether they strongly agree or strongly disagree with the given evaluative statements by putting a tick (√) in the column of their choice, in front of each statement. This will provide a greater understanding of the criteria that are incorporated or met in the current textbook.

2.2.2 Construction of the Achievement Test

In the context of teaching, tests have the purpose of measuring the language performance level of individuals (Nunan, 1992:189). As the primary role of an achievement test is to determine whether course objectives have been met and appropriate knowledge and skills have been acquired by the end of a given period of instruction. Hence, it will offer feedback about the quality of learners' performance" (Brown, 2010:9).

Baker (1989:3) confirms that "test can be used as a means of reaching to the correct and accurate decision". Therefore, to find out the level of the students' achievement in studying **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB**, an achievement test has been constructed to measure students' performance at various cognitive levels of Blooms' Revised Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The constructed test includes written section as shown in Appendix (B), and an oral section as shown in Appendix (C).

2.2.2.1 The Written Section

It is clear that the purpose of achievement test is to measure what students have learned, attained and able to do as a consequence of studying **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB**. Therefore, the content, behaviours, number of items and scores of the written test have been specified in Table (2). The written section consists of six questions.

The first question deals with reading comprehension. It includes five items, and two scores are allotted for each item. The second question deals with grammatical points which require students to distinguish between different grammatical aspects thus it includes ten grammatical items, two scores for each. Whereas, the third question deals with vocabulary and includes five items, two scores for each item. In this question students should show their ability to use the information they already know and apply it to a new situation.

The fourth question includes five items deal with language functions, in which students are required to rearrange the given words to form complete sentences. The fifth questions is related to literature focus in which the students have to identify the names of Iraqi and target culture playwrights and retrieve relevant knowledge from long-term memory. This question has five items and for each item two scores are allotted. The final question is about writing composition in which students are required to write an email about a nice trip, describe some places, invite a friend to come and stay and combine ideas, then plan new events and suggest dates for these events, etc. Students should show their knowledge about email writing procedure

such as, opening, content and closure. It includes ten items and twenty scores are allotted for this question.

Table (2) The specification of the Contents, Behaviours, Number of items and Scores of the Written Section

No. of Qs.	Contents	Subjects' Behaviours	No. of items	Scores
Q1	Reading comprehension	to understand the reading passage and conclude the general meaning (understand)	5	10
Q2	Grammar	to distinguish the use of correct grammatical form that fits (analyze)	10	20
Q3	Vocabulary	To complete the sentences by choosing the correct vocabulary that fits (Apply)	5	10
Q4	Function	To rearrange the scrambled words to form correct sentence (create)	5	10
Q5	Literature focus,	To identify the names of Iraqi and target culture playwrights and retrieve relevant knowledge from long-term memory. (Remember)	5	10
Q6	Writing an email	to assess a nice trip ,explain and combine ideas , planning new events through writing an email (create and evaluate)	10	20
Total			40	80

2.2.2.2 The Oral Section

The test tasks and the behaviours of the oral section have been specified in detail and covered through (items) as shown in Table (6) the techniques deliberately chosen and the questions are carefully designed. The oral section consists of three questions scored out of twenty, as shown in Appendix (C).

The first question deals with “listening comprehension” as the students listen to an audio recorded material about a basketball match and write down the reasons that make the girls lost the basketball match. Two of the reasons have already been written in their test sheets whereas, there are four more reasons needed to be completed by the subjects. It includes four items, where one score is allotted for each item .The allotted time for this question is four minutes.

The second question is “reading passage”, students read a passage and then they are required to respond to the questions related to what they have read. The third question is “speaking” in which students are required to look carefully at a picture and answer the related questions.

The second and third questions assess students’ oral ability in terms of four criteria namely grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency based on Speaking Assessment Scale (Harmer, 2012: 19), as shown in Appendix (D). Both questions are scored out of sixteen.

Table (3) The specifications of the Content, Students' behaviours, Number of items and Minutes

No. of Qs.	Content	Subjects' Behaviours	No. of items	Scores	minutes

Q1	Listening comprehension	Listen to an audio recording and write down the reasons that make the girls lost the basketball match.	4	4	4
Q2	Reading passage	Read two paragraphs	8	16	3
Q3	Speaking ,	Look at the given picture and answer the related questions orally.			
	Total		12	20	7

The Achievement test has been constructed in terms of the specified content and behaviours and then verified by obtaining its validity, reliability, difficulty level and discrimination power.

2.2.2.7 Scoring Scheme of the Test

It is a method of applying a numerical scale to assess students' responses. The reliability and accuracy of test scores increases as the number of items in the test increases. The scoring categories should reflect instructional objectives and plans. Therefore, scoring provides useful feedback to students' performance and diagnostic information to teachers about specific areas of performance that are satisfactory or unsatisfactory (Genesee&Upshur,1996:206-10).

A scoring scheme for both sections of the test has been developed. The written section includes six questions and scored out of eighty .Each question contains a number of items which are up to forty items entirely. The allocated score for each item is two, while the oral section contains three questions and scored out of twenty. The first question includes four items to assess students' oral ability in listening comprehension and scored out of four. The second and third questions assess students' oral ability in terms of four categories, namely, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency and scored out of sixteen. The scale of each criterion has four levels of performance which range between1-4. In which poor =1, fair=2, good=3 and excellent =4, as shown in Appendix (D).

2.2.2.8 Final administration of the Test

The final administration of test has been launched to the sample of 565 students during the second semester of the academic year (2015-2016) and specifically on the 22nd March, 2016 to 21st April, 2016.As far as the written test is concerned, each of the involved subjects is handed a copy of the test sheet and required to answer the given questions. At the end of the allocated time the test papers have been collected to be scored by the researcher, herself. As the students finish responding the written section of the test then the oral section starts. To ensure that all the students have the same opportunity concerning equal time allocation (four minutes) the students are asked to listen carefully to the recorded material and then state their responses on the given test papers. The listening comprehension is administered to whole group of students at the same time. Then their test papers are collected to be scored also by the researcher, herself.

The other questions of the oral section have been administered to the subjects individually and in collaboration with one of the EFL 5th preparatory teachers and recorded on a CD to be scored by the researcher herself. The whole responses have been assessed on the four- points scale and in terms of four criteria, i.e. grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency, as shown in Appendix (D).

Section Three: Analysis of Data and Discussion of Results

3.1 The First Question of the Study

In order to answer the first question 'What are the recently stated criteria of a good EFL textbook?' The criteria of a good EFL textbook have been identified from the related literature.Those criteria have been developed and organized into seven main criteria namely:

Objectives, Layout and design, Content, Methodology, Language skills which include (listening, speaking, reading and writing), Elements of language which include (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) and finally Literature focus. Each of these criteria is subdivided into a number of statements that reflect the main characteristics of a good EFL textbook. Thus, those criteria have been developed into a questionnaire as shown in Appendix (A).

The criteria and the statements have been validated by the jury members who are specialized in linguistics and ELT methodology at different Iraqi universities and colleges.

3.2 The Second Question of the Study

In order to answer the second question which is 'To what extent the intended textbook has met the identified criteria of a good EFL textbook, from supervisors and teachers' perspectives?', to analyze and present supervisors and teachers' points of view and to describe the whole image of how supervisors and teachers value the textbook in terms of seven main criteria the collected data have been interpreted by using percentages, means scores, standard deviations as follows:

3.2.1 Objectives

It is noted that the majority of the respondents 55% 'agree' and 34% 'strongly agree' that the textbook's objectives are clearly stated, as shown in Table (4).

Table (4) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Response on the Objectives Area

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. objectives											
1.	are clearly stated .	10	34	14	55	2	7			1	4
2.	closely correspond to the aims of EFL teaching programme .	3	11	17	63	6	22			1	4
3.	develop learners' autonomy	4	15	15	56	5	19			3	11
4.	target a wide variety of skills ,topics ,level and type of learners	9	33	15	56	2	7			1	4
5	can be achieved	10	19	12	44			4	15	1	4
6	result in desirable changes in the learners' attitudes towards learning English.	2	7	16	59	9	33				

Likewise, many respondents 63% 'agree' 11% 'strongly agree' that the textbook's objectives are closely correspond to the aims of teaching EFL in Iraq. For example, one of the textbook's objective is to develop learner's autonomy, therefore most of the respondents confirmed this point as 56% 'agree' and 15% 'strongly agree' with this statement. Results show that 89% of the respondents (33% 'strongly agree' and 56% 'agree') the textbook objectives target a wide variety of skills, topics, level and types of learners.

One of the most important points related to these objectives is that textbook's objectives are achievable according to most of the respondents that are up to 63% (44% 'agree' and 19% 'strongly agree'). The last point demonstrates that those objectives result in desirable changes in the learners' attitudes towards learning English as 66% (7% 'strongly agree' and 59% 'agree') of the respondents show their 'strongly agreement' and 'agreement' with this statement. It is

clear that the respondents agree that above mentioned points are incorporated in **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** as shown in Table (4).

3.2.2 Layout and Design

The second area is related to the layout and design of **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB**. as shown in Table (5). It is apparent that 59% ‘strongly agree’ and 33% ‘agree’ that the student’s book includes a detailed overview of the functions, structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit.

Concerning whether **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** gives each unit and lesson an appropriate title, 59% ‘strongly agree’ and 33% ‘agree’ with this statement.

To show the accuracy and quality of typing in **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB**, responses are distributed differently on the scale which show that the respondents have different points of view concerning this statement .The highest percentage is reported for ‘strongly agree’ 30%, then ‘agree’ 26% that **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** is free of mistakes .

Table (5) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers’ Responses on the Layout and Design

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
7.	includes a detailed overview of the functions ,structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit	16	59	9	33			2	7		
8.	gives each unit and lesson an appropriate title.	16	59	9	33	2	7				
9	is free of mistakes	8	30	7	26	5	19	4	15	3	11
10	contains enough pictures, diagram and tables to help students understand the printed material .	14	52	13	48						
11	is accompanied by other teaching /learning materials (CD)which is available)	8	30	14	52	1	4	4	15		

In terms of whether **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** contains enough pictures, diagrams and tables that help students understand the printed material, the reported result shows that 52% of the respondents ‘strongly agree’ and 48% ‘agree’ with it.

The final statement of this area shows that 30% of the respondents ‘strongly agree’ that the CD is accompanied with the SB and 52% ‘agree’ and only 15% confirm that they cannot get the CD because it is not available.

3.2.3 Content, Subjects, Activities and Tasks

The content, subjects, activities and tasks of **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** are measured in terms of six evaluative statements. Results indicate that 52% of the respondents ‘agree’ that the content, subjects, activities and tasks are authentic, 37% also ‘strongly agree’ with this statement.

The second evaluative statement shows that 33% of the respondents ‘strongly agree’ and 44% ‘agree’ that the textbook’s content, subject, activities and tasks encourage autonomous thinking and active learning.

The third indicator of this area shows that **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** covers different fields from both Iraqi and target culture as 48% of the respondents report their ‘strongly agreement’ with it and 44% ‘agree’ with it .Similarly 48% of the respondents strongly

agree that the content, subject, activities and tasks encourage meaningful language use and 44% agree with it.

To identify supervisors and teachers' points of view in relation to whether the content, subject, activities and tasks of 5PSB enable students talk and discuss by using English, 15% of the respondents 'strongly agree' while 48% 'agree' with it. In relation to **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** content, subjects, activities and tasks in enabling students to use English outside the classroom situation 59% 'agreed' that the textbook enables the students to use English outside the classroom situation ,11% of the respondents 'strongly' agree with it .Whereas,15% neither agree nor disagree with it.

Table (6) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Response on the Content, Subject, Activities, and Tasks.

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
3. Content ,subjects ,activities and tasks : They											
12.	are authentic and relevant to students' needs and they are interesting	10	37	14	52	2	7	1	4		
13.	encourage autonomous thinking and active learning	9	33	12	44	5	19	1	4		
14.	cover different fields from both local and target culture	13	48	12	44	2	7				
15.	encourage meaningful language use.	13	48	12	44	1	4	1	4		
16.	enable students to talk and discuss by using English.	4	15	13	48	5	19	4	15	1	4
17.	enable students to use English outside the classroom situation.	3	11	16	59	4	15	3	11	1	4

3.2.4 Methodology

The fourth area is related to methodology of the **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** and includes six indicators as shown in table (7).The first indicator states that the method used for presenting the lessons is student-centered .Therefore ,30% of respondents 'strongly agree' with it, 48% reported their agreement with it ,and only 19% of the respondents do not comment .The second criteria states that the textbook has a flexible method that can be adapted easily to suit various approaches as 22% of the respondents reported their 'strongly agreement' with it and 48% 'agree' with it. While 22% pick up 'neutral'.

Table (7) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Responses on Methodology.

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
4. Methodology											
18.	The method used for presenting the lessons is student –centered.	8	30	13	48	5	19			1	4
19.	The material can be easily adapted to suit various approaches	6	22	13	48	6	22	2	7		

20.	The textbook material is directed towards inductive approach to learning	6	22	12	44	9	33				
21.	The textbook helps teachers cater for mixed ability students and classes of different sizes	5	19	17	63	3	11			2	7
22.	The adopted method by the textbook encourage students to take some degree of responsibility for their own learning	8	30	14	52	5	19				
23.	The textbook caters for different learning styles	2	7	19	70	6	22				

To assess whether the textbook material is directed towards inductive approach to learning, 22% of the respondents show their 'strongly agreement' and 44% show their 'agreement' with it. However, 33% do not show any comment. The fourth statement is related to the ability of the textbook to help teachers to cater for mixed ability students and classes of different sizes as 19% of the respondents report their 'strongly agreement' and 63% 'agree' with this statement. The fifth item indicates that the adopted method by the textbook encourages students to take some degree of responsibility for their own learning, Therefore 30% 'strongly agree' with it, 52% 'agree' with it and only 19% do not have any comment. The last statement yields varied responses in terms of whether the method of the textbook caters for different learning styles as 7% 'strongly agree' with it and, 70% 'agree' with it. Whereas 22% of the respondents select 'neutral'.

3.2.5 Language Skills

The fifth criteria is related to the language skills and subdivided into listening, speaking, and reading and writing. Thus, results are presented in the same order.

3.2.5.1 Listening

As table (8) indicates, more than two thirds of the respondents (33% 'strongly agree' and 37% 'agree') state that listening materials and audio recordings expose students to authentic pronunciation of English native speakers and only 19% do not show any comment. Nearly 60% of the respondents (22% 'strongly agree' and 48% 'agree') state that listening materials and audio recordings are well recorded and take into consideration the student's interest, and 19% do not show any comment (neutral).

Table (8) *The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Responses on Listening Materials and Audio Recordings*

Statements 5. Skills : features of each skill are described as follows :		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
A. listening materials and audio recordings											
24.	expose the students to authentic pronunciation of English native speakers	9	33	10	37	5	19	1	4	2	7
25	are well recorded and take into consideration the students' interests	6	22	13	48	5	19	1	4	2	7

26.	are accompanied by background information ,questions and activities which help develop students' listening comprehension, i.e. have well defined goals	7	26	15	56	5	19				
27.	are available on MOE website to be downloaded	1	4	3	11	12	44	7	26	4	15

In response to whether the listening materials and audio recordings are accompanied by background information, questions and activities which help student’s listening comprehension, i.e. have well defined goals. 26% of the respondents ‘strongly agree’ and 56% ‘agree’ with it, but 19% neither agree nor disagree.

The last statement stimulates a controversial issue therefore it yields mixed responses as 15% of the respondents ‘strongly disagree’ and 26% ‘disagree’ do not support the claim that the audio recordings are available on MOE website to be downloaded. Whereas, 11% ‘agree’ and 4% ‘strongly agree’ support this point. The other 44% of the respondents select ‘neutral’.

3.2.5.2 Speaking

In terms of speaking activities, more than three quarters of the respondents (26% ‘strongly agree’ and 59% agree’) show that speaking activities help students personalize dialogues, role plays and talk about their concerns and interests confidently and only 11% do not comment neither agree nor disagree .While only 4% ‘disagree’ with this statement. Once more , more than three quarters of supervisors and teachers’ (26% ‘strongly agree’ and 59% ‘agree’) show their agreement with the statement that assesses speaking activities in terms of encouraging student-student and student-teacher communication, while the other 15% of the respondents do not show any comment (neutral), as shown in Table (9).

Table (9)The percentages of Supervisors and Teachers’ Responses on Speaking.

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
B. Speaking											
28.	speaking activities that help students personalize dialogues, role plays and talk about their concerns and interests confidently.	7	26	16	59	3	11	1	4		
29.	Speaking activities are developed to encourage student –student and student –teacher communication.	7	26	16	59	4	15				

3.2.5.3 Reading

As table (10) indicates, the majority of the respondents (59% ‘agree’ and 30% ‘strongly agree’) agree that in the textbook, there are sufficient reading materials that can engage students cognitively and effectively.

Concerning whether the length of reading materials and ability to be covered during one lesson, the results show that 26% of the respondents ‘strongly agree’ and 56% ‘agree’ with this point, while 15% respond ‘neutral’. The last 4% of the participants show their negative points of view as they ‘strongly disagree’ with this statement.

The third indicator states that the reading passages are authentic, interesting and meaningful .Results show that 22% ‘strongly agree’ and 63% of the respondents ‘agree’ and only 15% report their ‘neutral’ stance. The last indicator of reading skills is that the reading passages help students develop reading comprehension skills, the majority of the participants respond positively as 30% ‘strongly agree’ and 41% ‘agree’ with it, while, 30% of the respondents show their ‘neutral’ points of view.

Table (10) *The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers’ Responses on Reading*

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
C. Reading											
30.	There are sufficient reading materials that can engage students cognitively and effectively.	8	30	16	59	3	11				
31.	The length of each text is appropriate to be covered during one lesson	7	26	15	56	4	15			1	4
32.	The reading passages are authentic, interesting and meaningful	6	22	17	63	4	15				
33.	The reading passages help students develop reading comprehension skills	8	30	11	41	8	30				

3.2.5.4 Writing

The final sub-category of language skills is writing .As shown in Table (11); writing has four indicators .The first indicator shows that the textbook leads students from simple controlled writing activities to guided writing activities. 19% of the respondents ‘strongly agree’ and 70% of the respondents report their ‘agree’ with the related statement. However 7% of the respondents select ‘neutral’. 7% of the participants show their disapproval to this statement as they ‘strongly disagree’ with it.

Table (11) *The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers’ Responses on Writing*

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
D. Writing											
34.	The textbook leads students from simple controlled writing activities to guide writing activities.	5	19	19	70	2	7			2	7
35.	The writing activities are suitable in terms of lengths ,difficulty ,degree of accuracy ,and amount of guidance	5	19	13	48	7	26	1	4	1	4
36.	The writing tasks enhance free writing opportunities	6	22	16	59	1	4	4	15		

37	The time allocated for teaching the writing material is sufficient.	6	22	8	30	5	18	4	15	4	15
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The second indicator of writing skill is related to writing activities that are suitable in terms of length, difficulty, degree of accuracy and amount of guidance. Results show that 19% of the respondents 'strongly agree' and 48% 'agree' with this statement, whereas 26% have a 'neutral' stance.

The third indicator shows that 22% 'strongly agree' and 59% of the respondents 'agree' that writing tasks enhance free writing opportunities. However, 15% 'disagree' with it.

The final indicator results in wide-ranging points of views related to adequacy of allocated time for teaching the writing material, 22% 'strongly agree' and 30% of the respondents 'agree' with the related statement. However, 18% 'neutral', 15% of the respondents 'strongly disagree' and 15% 'disagree' with the statement.

3.2.6 Elements of Language

Elements of language include grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation and, each one of these elements has been handled individually as follows:

3.2.6.1 Grammar

Grammar category is assessed through seven evaluative statements. As far as the first statement is concerned, results show that more than three quarters of the respondents 41% 'strongly agree' and 37% 'agree' that grammar lessons are often derived from listening or reading passages, i.e. grammar is contextualized. In addition, the majority of the respondents 41% 'strongly agree' and 41% 'agree' that the grammatical examples are interesting and appropriate to the student's level. Furthermore, 48% 'agreed' and 30% 'strongly agreed' that grammatical points are designed to be taught inductively.

More than two thirds of the respondents (26% 'strongly agree' and 44% 'agree') confirm that there is a balance between form and use of the grammatical points. Whereas, only 4% show their 'strongly disagreement' to this statement. However 26% choose 'neutral' stand

As it is seen in table (12), the majority of participants (37% 'strongly agree' and 52% 'agree') assure that grammatical points are presented with brief and easy examples and explanations about it. Only 11% have 'neutral' points of view.

As it is noted in Table (12), that the statement 'the primary function of new structures is interaction and communication' yields the approval of the majority of participants as 11% 'strongly agree' 70% 'agree' with it. whereas, 19% have 'neutral' points of view.

Finally, results show that 33% of the participants 'strongly agree' and 48% 'agree' that the grammatical points are gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students in the evaluated textbook, as shown in Table (12).

Table (12) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Responses on Grammar

Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
A. Grammar										
38. The grammar lessons are often derived from the listening or reading passages i.e. grammar is contextualized	11	41	10	37	6	22				
39. The grammatical examples are interesting and appropriate to the student's level	11	41	11	41	3	11	1	4	1	4

40	The grammatical points are designed to be taught inductively	8	30	13	48	5	19			1	4
41	There is a balance between form and use of the grammatical points	7	26	12	44	7	26			1	4
42.	The grammatical points are presented with brief and easy examples and explanations	10	37	14	52	3	11				
43.	The primary function of new structures is interaction and communication	3	11	19	70	5	19				
44.	The grammatical points are gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students	9	33	13	48	5	19				

3.2.6.2 Vocabulary

In terms of vocabulary, 52% of the respondents 'strongly agree' and 30% 'agree' that there is a distribution (from simple to complex) of vocabulary load across the whole book. Likewise, 82% of the respondents (41% 'strongly agree' and 41% 'agree') confirm that the numbers of new vocabulary items in each lesson are appropriate to the linguistic level of students. In the same vein, new vocabulary items are contextualized and integrated in various context and situations, therefore, 59% of the respondents 'agree' and 26% 'strongly agree' confirm this feature in the textbook.

Most of the respondents, 37% 'strongly agree' and 48% 'agree' with the statement that new vocabulary items are repeated in subsequent lessons to reinforce their meaning and use. In addition, to learn those new vocabularies, the students are taught top-down technique in which three quarters (30% 'strongly agree' and 48% 'agree') of the respondents report their satisfaction with this statement.

Nearly all of the participants, 41% 'strongly agree' and 52% 'agree', certify that there is a vocabulary list at the end of the textbook, as shown in table (13)

Table (13) *The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Responses on Vocabulary*

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
B. Vocabulary											
45.	There is a distribution (from simple to complex) of vocabulary load across the whole book	14	52	8	30	4	15	1	4		
46.	The number of new words in each lesson is appropriate to the linguistic level of students.	11	41	11	41	3	11	2	7		
47.	The words are contextualized and integrated in various contexts and situations	7	26	16	59	3	11			1	4
48.	The new vocabulary words repeated in subsequent lessons to reinforce their meaning and use	10	37	13	48	2	7	1	4		
49.	The students are taught top-down techniques for learning new vocabulary	8	30	13	48	5	19				

3.2.6.3 Pronunciation

50.	A vocabulary list is available at the end of the textbook	11	41	14	52	2	7				
-----	---	----	----	----	----	---	---	--	--	--	--

Responses of pronunciation sub-category distributed over the points of the scale differently, as shown in Table (14). Thus, 19% of the respondents 'strongly agree' and 26% 'agree' that there is sufficient work on recognition and production of stress patterns, intonation and individual sounds, on the other hand 26% 'strongly disagree' and 15% 'disagree' with it. This reveals that there is some sort of discrepancy between supervisors and teachers points of view concerning this statement, which is at the end in favour of positive agreement of the statement.

Dissimilar to the previous statement, 33% of the respondents 'strongly agree' and 33% 'agree' confirm that pronunciation is built through other types of activities such as, listening, conversation, etc. and only 19% 'strongly disagree' with it.

Table (14) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Responses on Pronunciation

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
C. Pronunciation											
51.	There is sufficient work on recognition and production of stress patterns, intonation and individual sounds	5	19	7	26	4	15	4	15	7	26
52.	Pronunciation is built through other types of activities such as listening, conversations etc.	9	33	9	33	3	11	1	4	5	19
53.	transcriptions of the words are available to enable the students to read the words correctly.	1	4	2	7	7	26	3	11	14	52

Concerning the last statement of this sub category related to availability of phonetic transcriptions of the words to enable the students to read the words correctly, the majority of the respondents 52% 'strongly disagree' and 11% 'disagree' with it.

3.2.7 Literature Focus

Results indicate that 'literature focus' yields mixed responses for each evaluative statement which shows that respondents have discrepant opinions as 37% of the respondents 'agree' and 19% 'strongly agree' that the texts of literature focus broaden students' vision of understanding the target culture, but 33% do not show neither agreement nor disagreement with this statement. However, 4% of the respondents disagree and 7% strongly disagree with it.

Similarly 37% of the respondents 'agree' that the texts are interesting to the students and 19% 'strongly agree' to it. 15% have 'neutral' points of view, whereas 11% 'disagree' and 12% 'strongly disagree' to this statement.

Most of the respondents 48% 'agree' that the texts are approached as a cultural item, and 15% 'strongly agree' with it. 19% of the respondents show 'neutral' points of view, whereas, 7% disagree and 11% strongly disagree to this statement.

The final statement's result shows 44% of the respondents 'agree' and 15% 'strongly agree' that the texts encourage students to think autonomously. While 26% do not show any comments, neither agree nor disagree. 4% disagree and 11% strongly disagree with the above statement, as shown in Table (15).

Table (15) The Percentages of Supervisors and Teachers' Responses on Literature Focus.

Statements		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%	N.	%
7. Literature :The texts of literature focus :											
54.	broaden students vision of understanding the target culture	5	19	10	37	9	33	1	4	2	7
55	are Interesting to the students	5	19	10	37	4	15	3	11	5	19
56	approached as a cultural item.	4	15	13	48	5	19	2	7	3	11
57	encourage students to think autonomously	4	15	12	44	7	26	1	4	3	11

To conclude, the ranking order of the criteria illustrates that ‘layout and design’ takes the highest mean scores which is 4.19 whereas the lowest mean scores which is 3.41 is recorded by ‘pronunciation’, as shown in Table (16) .

Table (16) The criterion of English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB, Mean Scores, SD and their Ranking Order

	Criteria	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation	Ranking in terms of mean
1	Layout and design	4.19	0.99	1
2	Vocabulary	4.14	0.78	2
3	Grammar	4.06	0.8	3
4	Content ,subject activities and tasks	4.04	0.89	4
5	Reading	3.99	0.72	5
6	Methodology	3.93	0.8	6
7	Objectives	3.91	0.2	7
8	Writing	3.76	1.05	8
9	Speaking	3.69	0.68	9
10	Listening	3.57	1.13	10
11	Literature focus	3.44	1.2	11
12	Pronunciation	3.41	1.53	12

As the theoretical mean is 3.00 thus, **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** demonstrates a good integration of characteristics of a good EFL textbook for all the criteria. Thus, ‘Layout and Design’ record highest mean scores, whereas, ‘Pronunciation’ and ‘Literature focus’ record the lowest mean scores. Although they are slightly above the theoretical mean.

3.3 The Third Question of the Study

Concerning the third question which reads ‘What are the behavioural objectives of the intended textbook?’ In terms of the general objectives of **English for Iraq** series and Bloom’s

Revised Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives, a list of six behavioural objectives has been derived. The derived behavioural objectives of **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** should enable 5th preparatory students' (at the end of academic year) to:

1. remember, list, describe (e.g. a place), use the knowledge learnt in class in real life situation, for instance, recall information related to Shakespeare's biography or recall kinds of drama, the name of *Baghdadi Bath* playwright, etc.
2. understand, summarize an article, interpret meaning from written, oral and graphic communication. , for instance, describe Babylon Festival or discuss the main idea of a specific article, etc.
3. apply previous knowledge to determine a correct response, use the learnt words in a given situation and/or implement ideas that encourage protecting the environment ,for instance encouraging students to stop littering to maintain the environment clean and decrease pollution .
4. analyze and determine how parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose; identify reasons, causes and/or motives, order important events on a scale, differentiate between facts and opinions in an article, formal and informal email.
5. evaluate and make judgments based on criteria and standards. For instance, decide on the correct grammatical form to fill a gap based on previous grammatical knowledge and/or rank things according to priority, comment on posted materials, make decisions in protecting environment, judge the value of an idea, a candidate, a work of art, a solution to a problem.
6. Create, put elements together to form a logical construction for instance, put the words together to form a complete sentence and/or combine (healthy ingredients into an entire meal), personal planning such as, producing a class magazine and designing its cover or writing reports and articles in it.

3.4 The Fourth Question

In order to answer the fourth question which is 'To what extent the intended textbook is effective in achieving its behavioural objective? ,

Students' performance on the achievement test is obtained. Thus, subjects mean scores, standard deviations have been calculated .They are 42.62and 18.65 respectively. T. test formula for one sample has been employed .The computed t. value is 10.67 whereas, the tabulated one is 2.16 at 0.05 level of significance and (564) degree of freedom, as shown in Table (17).

Table (17) The Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and t-value of students' performance on the achievement test

No. of subjects	Mean Scores	Theoretical Mean Scores	Std. Deviations	t- value		Df	Level of Significance
				Calculated	tabulated		
565	42.62	50%	18.65	10.67	2.16	564	0.05

The obtained mean scores and standard deviations of students' performance on the achievement test are 42.62 and 18.65 respectively. Results indicate that the calculated t-value is 10.67.This means that there is a significant difference between students' mean scores and the theoretical mean scores and in favour of the latter, which indicate that the textbook is less effective as students' performance is below the average level of success.

Section Four: Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions

4.1 Summary of Findings

1. **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** is a new published textbook that has many notable and valuable characteristics as it incorporates most of the characteristics of an effective EFL textbooks, therefore most of the supervisors and teachers are satisfied with it. This means that the textbook is attractively laid out and well organized namely in a clear, coherent, logical way. It includes topic-based units with the goal of facilitating communicative competence and it manages to integrate the four language skills.
2. Despite its good characteristics , **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** still have some shortcomings, such as ,the inclusion of many activities ,tasks and exercises in each unit which make it hard to cover them all within the available English lesson.
3. Another inadequacy is related to the **English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB** handling of pronunciation skill. It is worth mentioning that EFL teachers' pay a lot of attention to the pronunciation of the lists of vowels, consonants and ignore other features of the sound system, such as word stress, sentences stress, rhythm, and intonation. Therefore one of the most evident deficiencies is the fact that few exercises are devoted to the teaching of word stress, sentence stress and intonation. Contemporary trends of teaching EFL emphasize that learners' efforts to communicate meaningfully are even more important than perfect pronunciation. Thus, being able to produce sounds in isolation is a far cry from being able to use them clearly in connected stream of sounds. (Nunan,2003:112-19). Therefore, activities that provide opportunities for learners to communicate meaningfully with each other are more interesting, enjoyable, and memorable. In the same vein, Levis(1999:53) shows that this deficiency can be overcome or "greatly lessened by thinking differently about the use of intonation and the needs and abilities of learners" in which stress and intonation should only be taught in an clear context so as to emphasize the communication value and relevance .
4. Some teachers state that they do not have access to the accompanied CD, this is in one hand and on the other hand other, teachers confirm that classroom environment is not suitable for operating the CD because they are so crowded and the power goes off constantly. Moreover time allotted for teaching English is limited and not sufficient for presenting all the required tasks and activities.
5. The textbook is not free of typing mistakes, such as on page 22 in the evaluated textbook, the order of the lesson is incorrect, therefore the following lessons' numbers also continued on the same wrong order till the end of the lessons in unit two of the evaluated textbook.
6. Although the textbook includes a glossary of words at its end, it does not include a list of proper pronunciation and phonetic transcription for those words.
7. Results show that most of the 5th preparatory (male &female) students have failed to pass the administered achievement test thus; they could not realize the assigned behavioural objectives properly.

4.2 Conclusions

In terms of the obtained results ,it is concluded that **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** has met the criteria of a good EFL textbook in terms of objectives, layout & design, methodology, skills (listening, speaking, reading writing),elements of language (grammar ,vocabulary and pronunciation) and literature focus. Hence, **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** incorporates to a great extent the characteristics of a good EFL textbook. However, it needs some improvements particularly in terms of pronunciation activities and writing tasks. This means, when the aforementioned items are considered, this textbook can be in a full agreement with all the evaluative criteria.

It is true that most of the 5th preparatory students could not pass the test properly, but this cannot be ascribed solely to the textbook because there are many other interrelated factors that affect the teaching/learning process. As the textbook and according to the results of this study approved to be to a great extent in agreement with the characteristics of a good EFL textbook except for few shortcoming that could be handled in the future.

Concerning students, language learning takes place or increases when someone strongly desires learning the language. Moreover, learning a language is not just memorizing grammatical rules and passing exams. For students, it is important to differentiate between meaningful learning and studying for marks.

It has been noticed that most class environments are not supportive for the teaching and learning process as electricity power goes off constantly, and the weather is very hot in summer, very cold in winter. Classrooms include large numbers of students.

4.3 Recommendations

On the basis of the obtained results and conclusions defined previously, a number of recommendations are listed below:

1. **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** includes too many activities, tasks and passages that are hard to cover in one or two semesters of an academic year. Therefore, there should be a committee to review the textbook for adaptation and decrease the number of lessons to enable teachers to cover the materials more effectively. In the same vein, the number of English periods per week is not enough to cover the whole English textbook so as to get best results, there should be a balance between the materials and the number of lesson periods.
2. Uploading **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** audio recordings on the Ministry of Education website to be accessible for all teachers and students as well.
3. **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** can be more effective in the hands of a qualified teacher and with the goal of facilitating communicative competence.
4. Students should be trained on active use of English, work rules for themselves and express personal opinions, in order to develop their language fluency as well as accuracy.
5. Administering more in-service training courses to familiarize novice and experience teachers with **English for Iraq 5th Preparatory SB** and the techniques for teaching it. Teachers need to be able to use new teaching techniques in teaching and using students-centered and “learning by doing” method in teaching and this could lend support to the students’ proficiency level and to the learning/teaching process in general.
6. Teachers should be trained as material developers through teacher development courses because such courses stimulate teachers to facilitate language acquisition and development, to gain self-esteem and confidence and to develop personally and professionally.
7. supply teachers with some updated journals and periodicals to help them cope with the current developments in the process of language teaching and learning techniques and strategies.
8. Arranging training courses presented by experienced native speaker teacher trainers to attain all EFL teachers’ professional development.
9. Pay more attention to the Literary Texts and present them in more enjoyable and pleasing manner to appeal to the students. For example, offering the film or the movie of those literary texts to EFL teachers to be watched by theirs students in English class.

10. Help students to improve their writing skills through using different writing techniques such as brainstorming, clustering and then a process writing cycle in which students write the first draft of a piece of writing about any topic ,then get feedback from their teacher and rewrite the same topic again and correcting their piece of writing accordingly . At the first draft stage students need to be assured that their writing is not graded and even for the other drafts. The assessment is given only on the final draft.
11. Class instructions should be mostly in English language to familiarize students with spoken English and pay more attention to speaking activities that foster better spontaneous communication instead of having students only to focus on specific piece of grammatical point, and increase the time specified for English lessons.
12. Teachers should use different teaching aids to cater for different learning styles and handle the individual differences among students
13. It is recommended that all English teachers should be able to use modern technology such as, computer, internet and websites to satisfy the changing needs of the students and using them to make the teaching/learning process more appealing to the students.

4.4 Suggestions

To follow up this study, the following topics are suggested:

1. Teachers' interviews could be adopted to elicit teachers' perspectives by including open-ended questions which foster more in depth data collecting and to explore teachers' suggestions in terms of improvement related to textbook quality.
2. It is essential to obtain students' perspectives regarding the suitability of the textbook to their own learning of English through exposing them to questionnaires, interviews and/ or class observation, etc.
3. It is necessary to conduct an evaluative study about **Teacher's Book** of 5th preparatory stage in terms of its behavioral objectives.

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Appendix (A)
The Questionnaire /The first part:

- 1) Name of your school:
- 2) Total years of experience:
- 3) Years of experience in teaching *English for Iraq* 5th preparatory:
- 4) In-service training courses for teaching *English for Iraq*:
(please encircle one) a. more than one b. one c. none

Evaluation of *English for Iraq* - 5th preparatory *Student's Book*

Statements	Strongly agree 5	Agree 4	Neutral 3	Disagree 2	Strongly disagree 1
1. objectives :					
1. are clearly stated .					
2. closely corresponded to the aims of EFL teaching programme .					
3. develop learners' autonomy					
4. target a wide variety of skills ,topics ,level and type of learners					
5. can be achieved					
6. result in desirable changes in the learners' attitudes towards learning English.					
2.Layout and design: the student's Book					
7. includes a detailed overview of the functions ,structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit					
8. gives each unit and lesson an appropriate title.					

9.	is free of mistakes					
10.	contains enough pictures, diagrams and tables to help students understand the printed materials .					
11.	is accompanied by other teaching /learning materials, (such as, CD ,flash cards ,etc. which are available).					
3. Content: subjects, activities and tasks :						
12.	are authentic and relevant to students' needs and they are interesting					
13.	encourage autonomous thinking and active learning					
14.	cover different fields from both, local and target culture					
15.	encourage meaningful language use.					
16.	enable students to talk and interact by using English language.					
17.	enable students to use English outside the classroom.					
4. Methodology						
18.	the method used for presenting the lessons is student-centered.					
19.	the material can be easily adapted to suit various approaches and classroom techniques					
20.	the textbook material is directed towards inductive approach to learning					
21.	the textbook helps teachers cater for mixed- ability students and classes of different sizes					
22.	students are encouraged to take some degree of responsibility for their own learning					
23.	the textbook caters for different learning styles					
5. Skills: the features of each skill are described as follows :						
A. listening materials: audio recordings						
24.	expose students to authentic pronunciation of English native speakers					
25.	are well recorded and take into consideration students' interests					
26.	are accompanied by background information, questions and activities, which help develop students' listening comprehension					
27.	are available on the Ministry of Education website to be downloaded					
B. Speaking						
28.	speaking activities that help students personalize dialogues, role plays and talk about their concerns and interests confidently.					
29.	speaking activities are developed to encourage student-student and student-teacher communication.					
C. Reading						
30.	reading materials engage students cognitively and effectively.					
31.	the length of each text is appropriate to be covered during one lesson.					

32.	reading passages are authentic, interesting and meaningful					
33.	reading passages help students develop reading comprehension skills.					
D. Writing						
34.	the textbook leads students from simple controlled writing activities to guide writing activities,					
35.	the writing activities are suitable in terms of, length, difficulty, degree of accuracy, and amount of guidance,					
36.	the writing tasks enhance free writing opportunities, and					
37.	the time allotted for teaching the writing material is sufficient.					
6. Elements of language						
A. Grammar						
38.	the grammar lessons are often derived from the listening or reading passages, i.e. grammar is contextualized,					
39.	the grammatical examples are interesting and appropriate to the students' levels,					
40.	the grammatical points are designed to be taught inductively,					
41.	there is a balance between form and use of the grammatical points,					
42.	the grammatical points are presented with brief and easy examples and explanations,					
43.	the primary function of new structures is interaction and communication, and					
44.	The grammatical points are gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of students.					
B. Vocabulary						
45.	there is a distribution (from simple to complex) of vocabulary load across the whole book,					
46.	the number of new vocabulary in each lesson is appropriate to the linguistic level of students,					
47.	vocabularies are contextualized and integrated in various contexts and situations,					
48.	The new vocabularies are repeated in subsequent lessons to reinforce their meaning and use,					
49.	students are taught top-down techniques for learning new vocabularies, and					
50.	a vocabulary list is available at the end of the textbook.					
C. Pronunciation						
51.	there is a sufficient work on recognition and production of stress patterns, intonation and individual sounds,					
52.	pronunciation is built through other types of activities such as, listening, conversations, etc., and					
53.	the transcriptions of the new words are available to enable the students to read the words correctly.					
7. Literature: the literary works (texts):						
54.	broaden students vision of understanding the target culture,					

55.	are interesting to the students,					
56.	approached as a cultural item, and					
57.	encourage students to think autonomously.					

Appendix B: Written Section of the Test

Q1/ Read the passage carefully. Then tick (✓) the correct answer. (10 m)

A few years ago, if a new electronic item broke down, most people took it to a repair shop. These days, if new items breaks, people simply throw it away and buy a new one .why have we become a throwaway society?

The easy answer is the price .You can buy a TV for \$99, but what if it breaks? If a major part needs to be replaced. It could cost \$60 or more .Then, when you add labor and shipping, the TV would cost more to repair than replace.

Some repair shops have a minimum **charge** (sometimes \$25 or more) just to look at a crashed computer or jammed keyboard. Are they making millions of dollars? No. A recent survey found that more and more repair shops are closing because they cannot afford to stay in business. The evidence is in the telephone book –in 1992, more than 20,000 repair shops were listed in the United States; by 2004, there were fewer than 9,000.

But the price is not the only factor. According to Andy Lewis, a repair shop owner, customer psychology has changed. “It's a disposable society ...people want the newest and hottest”. He says, “The only way to change it is to make it expensive to throw things away”. He adds, “But we will not do that until the mountains of garbage are so high we cannot breathe!”

1. A suitable title for the article is

- Electronic breakdown raises questions
- Low prices cause mountains of trash
- Repair–don't replace!

2. The article says that electronic repair shops

- Have minimum charges that are much too high.
- Often repair items for more money than the price of a new one
- Are going out of business because they charge too much money

3. in the last two decades, the number of repair shops has

- Increased
- Decreased
- Stayed the same

4. A disposable society (paragraph 4) is a society in which

- People don't worry about prices.
- People throw things away rather than repair them
- People psychological problems change quickly

5. The word " charge " in paragraph 3 means :

- The amount of money for a service.
- To put electricity in an electrical device such as a battery.

None of the above sentences is correct.

Q2/Fill in the blank with the most appropriate option (20 m)

- I cannot go for a run right now the right shoes.
a. I don't wear b. I'm not wearing c. I didn't wear
- Luckily, hevery fast, so he stopped in time
a. I didn't drive b. hasn't driven c. wasn't driving
- If you hate feeling scared,and see that film .
a. Don't going b. don't go c. mustn't go
- He bought herwatch.
a. A gold expensive b. expensive gold c. an expensive gold
-like me to carry that bag? It looks heavy.
a. do you b. would you c. will you
- If youchange your life, how would you change it?
a. can b. could c. will
- There's a bad smell in the kitchen,empty the rubbish bin.
a. you'd better b. you better c. better you
- I wish Ilots of languages .Then I could be an interpreter.
a. spoke b. speaking c. speak
- I like filmsmake me laugh.
a. when b. whose c. which
- There's a nice restaurantyou can sit outside.
a. where b. which c. that

Q3/ Complete the sentences with words from the box. (10m)

Expect , surf , traditional, tasteless, hurt , recharge , waste

- The stew is a bitCan you pass me the salt, please?
- I I will get a job with the oil company.
- Don't forget to your mobile phone-you'll need it.
- If youthe internet, you can find all kinds of information.
- Did youyourself when you fell over?

Q4/ Put the words in the right order to make sentences (10 m)

- You like wait me to would ?-
- we to come house shall your ?
- help I how you can ?
- they car old an have blue.
- dress she green not like that ugly will .

Q5 **Literature** :Fill in the blanks with information from your textbook (10m)

- Jawad Al-Assadi is one of the best-known Iraqi playwrights,and
- William Shakespeare is the most famous dramatist in B.....
- A drama is usually either a t.....or a c.....

Q6 /Write an email to an English-speaking friend (20m)

- Tell him /her about a nice trip you went on recently. Describe some of the places that you visited.
- Invite your friend to come and stay. Suggest dates and things you plan to do when he /she visits.
- Write about (150) words.
-

Appendix C / (Oral Section of the Test)

Q1/ Listen and write the other four that make the girls lost the basketball match (4 M)

Two of the reasons are mentioned below and then try to complete the other four reasons

1. Changed captain two days before match.
2. They didn't train hard enough in the week before the game.
3.
4.
5.
6.

Q2/Reading Passage:

The student reads a passage from English for Iraq 5th preparatory SB and answer the related question. (4 m)

Q3/The student looks at the photo below and the teacher asks the following questions: (12 m)

1. What is there in the river?
2. Is there any fish in this river?
3. What problems can be seen in this picture?
4. What are the harms of being in such a place?
5. Who is responsible of water pollution?
6. What is the best solution?



Appendix D / Speaking Assessment Scale

Category	Excellent 4pts	Good 3pts	Fair 2pts	Poor 1pt
Content/Accuracy/ vocabulary	A wide use of appropriate vocabulary when talking about with no problem	A wide use of vocabulary with occasional problems	A lot of vocabulary problems make it difficult to understand	So many vocabulary mistakes that it is very difficult to understand
Clarity /Grammar	Use of varied grammar with no mistakes	Use of varied grammar with a few errors	Often good grammar use but quite a few mistakes	Many and varied grammar mistakes
Pronunciation	Almost faultless with no problems for the listener	Good pronunciation with only occasional difficulties for the listener	Student's pronunciation made understanding difficult	Very poor pronunciation was incomprehensible.
Fluency	Student is able to communicate clearly, quickly, confidently and with no difficulty excellent structure with good introduction and conclusion	Student was able to answer the questions with very little hesitation. Most answers were clearly answered without pause.	Student answers rather poorly organized Requires some prompting and support.	Produces simple responses to questions. No extended discourse. Limited ability to link simple sentences. Frequent, long hesitations occur and incoherent

Maxwell Anderson's Theory of Tragedy and its Contribution in Modern American Verse Drama

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Abstract

Maxwell Anderson (1888 –1959) was one of the age group of playwrights who participated in promoting and elevating the reputation of American drama. ¹He is well-known for his bringing verse drama to the American stage, in addition to his use of historical settings to deal with contemporary themes. Anderson looked at the theater as a "religious institution" and a kind of worship not as a danger as, evangelical ministers used to think about it as a gateway to hell. Anderson began searching for a guide of principles to govern his writing. He examined the successful plays of the past and discovered a group of rules that governed serious drama (especially tragedy). Anderson was fully aware that theorists had been trying to hunt the essence of tragedy since Aristotle without entire success, yet, he suggested his own definition of tragedy. In 1939 Anderson published *The Essence of Tragedy*, the first systematic theory of tragedy by an American playwright, written originally as a paper to be read at a session of the Modern Language Association meeting in New York in January, 1938, and included in *Off Broadway*, a collection of essays about the theater. Anderson in *The Essence of Tragedy* affirms that "The theme of tragedy has always been 'victory in defeat', a man's conquest of himself in the face of annihilation. . . The message of tragedy is that men are better than they think they are. This message needs to be said over and over, lest the race lose faith in itself entirely. In his illuminating essay "The Essence of Tragedy", Anderson discusses the most important elements of tragedy and evolves his own formula of poetic tragedy consisting of three steps–'victory in defeat', 'recognition of his fault' by the tragic hero, and finally 'affirmation' of the moral values underlying existence.

Introduction : Maxwell Anderson's Theory of Tragedy

Maxwell Anderson (1888 –1959) was one of the age group of playwrights who participated in promoting and elevating the reputation of American drama. Those playwrights were Eugene O'Neill, Elmer Rice, Sidney Howard and Robert Sherwood; however, Anderson was more productive and adaptable than all of them.¹ He is well-known for his bringing verse drama to the American stage, in addition to his use of historical settings to deal with contemporary themes.

Anderson in *The Essence of Tragedy* affirms that "The theme of tragedy has always been 'victory in defeat', a man's conquest of himself in the face of annihilation. . . The message of tragedy is that men are better than they think they are. This message needs to be said over and over, lest the race lose faith in itself entirely."²

Anderson's Formula of Tragedy : poetic tragedy Anderson discusses the most important elements of tragedy and evolves his own formula of poetic tragedy consisting of three steps—'victory in defeat', 'recognition of his fault' by the tragic hero, and finally 'affirmation' of the moral values underlying existence.³ Anderson adds that he formulated his own rule which indicates that:

A play should lead up to a central crisis, and this crisis should consist of a discovery by the leading character which has an indelible effect on his thought and emotion and completely alters his course of action. The leading character let me say again, must make the discovery; it must affect him emotionally; and it must alter his direction in the play.⁴

He adds later in the essay that the playwright must "build his plot around a scene wherein his hero discovers some moral frailty or stupidity in himself and faces life armed with a new wisdom."⁵ Anderson stresses the importance of redemption through suffering that the hero should pass through. The tragic personality, according to him, must learn through suffering and suffer

death itself as a result of his fault or his attempt to correct it, but before death comes, there must be recognition of the fault, Anderson explains:

A hero must pass through an experience which opens his eyes to an error of his own. He must learn through suffering. In a tragedy, he suffers death itself as a consequence of his fault or his attempt to correct it, but before he dies, he has become a nobler person because of his recognition of his fault and the consequent alteration of his course of action.⁶

Anderson was plain, profound and moralistic in his opinion on the nature of serious drama in general and the tragedy in particular. He found no greater vehicle for his message of the human condition than poetry. In brief, the Andersonian definite principles that the dramatist should follow if he is to be successful are the following:

First, the play must deal with inner life; second the story must be a conflict between good and evil within a single person; third, the protagonist must represent the force of good and must win; fourth, the protagonist cannot be perfect, for must emerge a better man at the end of a play than he was at the beginning; Fifth, The protagonist must be an exceptional person ,or he must epitomize exceptional qualities ;sixth ,excellence on the stage is always moral excellence; and finally the moral atmosphere must be healthy.⁷

Anderson chose historical background from the past, particularly those concerning Tudor monarchs, in order to revive the old conception of tragedy, a drama of " kingly characters whose nobility in defeat and death assure the audience and readers of the worth of human personality" ⁸ The principles of Tragedy that Maxwell Anderson devised at the seminal stage of his career reaches a maturity of expression in his "history poetic plays *Elizabeth the Queen* (1930), *Mary of Scotland* (1933) and *Anne of Thousand Days* (1948).

During the time of the Reformation. Great Britain was Protestant, France was Catholic, and Scotland was torn between the two of them. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots was born into a time full of religious turmoil. The ill- fated queen has been since her execution a source of fascination for historians, literary men and readers. Many Christians, especially the Catholic, think that the queen, who suffered betrayal, torment, imprisonment and execution, died with the charity and magnitude of a martyr. On the day before her execution, she struggled to come to peace with herself as well as with her enemies, ultimately finding the solution through suffering. Mary's beauty, charm,

undoubted courage, imprisonment and her devotion to her faith during her imprisonment made her a particularly romantic figure in history. More than four centuries after her death, Mary continues to exert her fascination over each succeeding generation and in every literary medium. She is the subject of many plays by world playwrights like Vittorio Alfieri, A. C. Swinburne and Schiller as well as three poetic plays by English speakers playwrights: John Drinkwater's *Mary Stuart*, John Masefield' *End and beginning* and Maxwell Anderson's *Mary of Scotland*⁹ T. S Eliot ended "East Cocker," the second of his Four Quartets, with Mary's motto: "In my end is my beginning". The online edition of *Catholic Encyclopedia* indicates that "During the whole process of her trial and execution, Mary acted with magnificent courage worthy of her noble character and queenly rank. There can be no question that she died with the charity and magnanimity of a martyr."¹⁰ The fanatic protestant look to Mary of Scotland differently; they consider her a schemer and sensuous queen interested in love and marriages. Mrs. George Percival Hibbert, a British author of about 200 historical novels composed a book entitled *Mary Queen Of Scots: The Fair Devil Of Scotland*(1975). As America is a protestant majority, the passive opinion concerning Queen Mary may be the reason why Louis Fantasia, the famous American actor and director, refers to Schillar's *Mary of Scotland*, and argues, "it is a play rarely performed in America, to our loss."¹¹ Milton, the famous puritan poet, accuses Charles I of being a hypocrite who imitates Mary's tragic history instead of the sacred Christian text, he adds that he is " an actor playing a role he learned from manipulative and image-conscious grandmother... imitates a feminine Catholic idol."¹²

Queen Mary's life possessed all the qualities of a tragic hero. She fell from her glorious status due to circumstances that may or may not have been out of her control. Anderson is not the first one who treats Mary of Scotland so benignly since Shiller and others made her lovable martyr and Elizabeth a beast. Some critics like John Gassner indicate that Anderson's *Mary of Scotland* is affected by Schiller's play of the same title, he also links Anderson's notion of the moral function of art to Schiller's theory that drama must be responsible for accelerating the moral evolution of humanity. To strengthen his argument, Gassner refers to Schiller's words in the latter essay entitled "The Stage Considered as a moral intuition":

Theater takes all human knowledge as its province, Exhaust all situations of life, and sheds light into every corner of the human heart, because it unites all sorts and condition of people and commands the most popular road to the heart and understanding.¹³

Anderson looked at the theater as an essentially religious right whose spiritual function had not changed since the days of the ancient Greeks. In the same way Schiller looked at it as a moral enlightenment with universal effect.

The plot of Anderson's *Mary of Scotland* can be summarized in the story of the queen who, after the death of her husband Francis II, returns to rule in a predominantly Protestant Scotland. Bothwell, her loyal subject and admirer, warns her of the situation and her cousin Queen Elizabeth, who fears her claim to the English crown and conspires from England to bring about her defeat. Mary's only true allies are her chief lieutenant, the Earl of Bothwell, and her adviser, David Rizzio. Caught in the web of deceit, Mary casts aside her love for the Protestant Bothwell and marries the weak her cousin, Henry Stewart (Lord Darnley), enraging the Protestant Lords and making it impossible for her ever to become queen of Protestant England. Elizabeth's lords kill Darnley and the blame is put on Bothwell when he marries Mary. They are accused of treason, Bothwell accepts exile in exchange of Mary's saving her crown. The pledge is broken, once he leaves, and Mary is driven into exile. She flees for safety to England, where she is imprisoned by Elizabeth. In the final confrontation scene, the two queens come together. Mary comes to realize that the envious Elizabeth skillfully plots her demise. She remains fixed to her ideal and her church, to her crown and to the royal rights of her child. While Elizabeth wins the political battle, Mary considers herself a victor, she dies as a martyr. She got married unlike Elizabeth, who stayed single and her son James will rule England and Scotland.¹⁴ In *Mary of Scotland* there are a lot of sufferings and conflicts like: Mary's uncertainty over the worthiness of Bothwell's love for her, her balancing of his love over her ambition for the throne, her suffering after marrying an unworthy Colicatholic husband to promote Catholicism and her alternative of abdication or imprisonment. The outer struggle is between Elizabeth and Mary, in which evil is clearly pitted against goodness.¹⁵

Mary of Scotland is the first play in which of Anderson's theory of drama is fully applied and where Anderson's three steps formulas of drama can be found. They are:—first, 'recognition of the hero of his fault', second, 'victory in defeat', and third 'affirmation' of the moral values which underlie human existence.¹⁶ The most noticeable features of *Mary of Scotland*, unlike the plays

that came before it, is that the protagonist has a recognition scene (in Act III) and in consequences becomes a morally better person in accordance with the requirements laid down by Anderson in "The Essence of Tragedy". Anderson says "In a tragedy, he (the hero) suffers death itself as a consequence of his fault or his attempt to correct it, but before he dies, he has become a nobler person because of his recognition of his fault and the consequent alteration of his course of action...." ¹⁷

The recognition scene is the one in which Mary discovers that Elizabeth is against her this drastically alters the course of the action, for it deprives Mary of her lover, her throne, her freedom. The scene of the confrontation between the two queens: Mary and Elizabeth were purely the product of Maxwell Anderson's imagination; in real life, the two women never met. Elizabeth is old; unloved and barren. On the other hand, her rival for the crown, Mary, is just the opposite: she is young, beautiful and loved by the Earl of Bothwell. Furthermore, unlike Elizabeth, she has an heir. The problem with Mary is that she was so naïve to think that she can run a disturbed country like Scotland without having to sacrifice, as cynical Elizabeth did, her devotion to honor integrity, truth and justice. ¹⁸ "There is nothing like popular virtue to raise envy and therefore hatred in malignant souls." ¹⁹

The following conversation between the two shows Elizabeth's Envy:

ELIZABETH: Aye, with the Stuart mouth.
 And the high forehead and French ways and thoughts—Well, we
 must look to it. — Not since that Helen. We read of in dead Troy,
 has a woman's face Stirred such a confluence of air and waters.
 To beat against the bastions. I'd thought you taller, But truly, since
 that Helen, I think there's been no queen so fair to look on.

MARY: You flatter me.

ELIZABETH: It's more like envy. You see this line
 Drawn down between my brows? No wash or ointments.
 Nor wearing of straight plasters in the night
 Will take that line away. Yet I'm not much older. Than you, and
 had looks, too, once. (139-140)

Later on, Mary discovers that she was mistaken when she chose England as a refuge for she became a prisoner of Elizabeth from whom she had fully expected aid and shelter. The following

words of Mary are full of reproach and blame for Elizabeth for her selfishness as well as there is an emphasis on the idea of redemption and salvation through pain and suffering. Mary says:

And still I win.
A demon has no children, and you have none,
Will have none, can have none, perhaps. This crooked
track
you've drawn me on, cover it, let it not be believed
that a woman was a fiend. Yes, cover it deep,
And heap my infamy over it, lest men peer
And catch sight of you as you were and are. In myself
I know you to be an eater of dust.(151)

The second step of the Anderson's formula of tragedy is 'victory in defeat', he says: "The theme of tragedy has always been a victory in defeat, a man's conquest of himself in the face of annihilation, a spiritual awakening or regeneration of the hero...."²⁰ The audiences are left to conclude that Mary's tragic flaw is in believing that she can play out the game of power politics without staining her immortal soul. She could not understand that integrity cannot be compromised with Machiavellianism. She remained unstained but suffers defeat because "her political enemies, who are blind to all moral niceties, entrap her in her own virtue."²¹

Elizabeth keeps her crown and Mary becomes a victim of Elizabeth's lust for power. Mary is worthy of admiration and in the end Mary emerges as a martyr figure. As a result, Mary snatches a moral victory from defeat. Mary proclaims triumphantly that she is the sole winner. Mary considers herself a victor, she dies as a martyr. She got married unlike Elizabeth, who stayed a single and her son James will rule England and Scotland:

MARY: Still, still I win! I have been
A woman, and I have loved as a woman loves,
Lost as a woman loses. I have borne a son,
And he will rule Scotland — and England. You have
no heir!
A devil has no children. (151-2)

The tragic romantic figure of the Scottish queen "stirs the emotion not only in her native country, but in the farthest ends of the world. In that sense alone Mary's Motto 'in my end is my beginning' could not have been better chosen" ²²

The third step of Anderson's formula of tragedy is 'Affirmation'—, he says: "...The theater at its best is a religious affirmation, an age-old rite restating and reassuring man's belief in his own destiny and his ultimate hope."²³ Mary remains undaunted by Elizabeth's continual threat and by the prospect of years of imprisonment and solitude; and she rises as morally superior to her plight in the drama brilliant climax. Mary is admirable in the eyes of the audience because she is the noble victim of the conspiracy, because she does not stop to do evil just because evil is done to her, and because she does not make war on her enemies (as Bothwell advices) but rather try to win them over by fair and gentle womanly treatment.²⁴

Notes

¹ Barbra Lee Horn, *Maxwell Anderson: A Research and Production Sourcebook* (London: Greenwood Press 1996), 86.

² Maxwell Anderson, *The Essence of Tragedy and other Footnotes and Paper* (Washington: Anderson House Ltd., 1939), 58-59.

³ Arthur M. Sampley, "Theory and Practice in Maxwell Anderson's Poetic Tragedies" *College English*. 5, No. 8, (May, 1944), 412-18. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/371452>. (accessed December 29, 2016).

⁴ Anderson, 58-59.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ David Krasner, ed., *A Companion to Twentieth-Century American Drama* (New York: Blackwell Published Ltd., 2008), 200.

⁹ Jayne Lewis, *Mary Queen of Scots: Romance and Nation* (New York: Taylor and Francis library, 2005), 76.

¹⁰ John Hungerford, "Mary of Scots", in *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, (New York: Robert Appleton Co., 1910), Vol. 9.

<http://www.catholic.org/encyclopedia/view.php?id=7682>. (accessed December 29, 2016).

¹¹ Louis Fantasia, *Tragedy in the Age of Oprah: Essays on Five Great Plays* (New York: the Scarecrow Press Inc., 2013), 143.

¹² John D. Staines, *The Tragic Histories of Mary Queen of Scots, 1560-1690: Rhetoric, Passions, and Political Literature* (New York: Mpg Books Ltd., 2008), 203.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Harlan Hatcher, "Drama in Verse: Anderson, Eliot, Macleish," *The* <http://www.jstor.org/stable/804499>. (accessed December 9, 2016).

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ *The Essence of Tragedy and other Footnotes and Paper*, 58-59.

¹⁷ Staines, 84.

¹⁸ Ibid., 82

¹⁹ *The Essence of Tragedy and other Footnotes and Paper*, 58-59.

²⁰ Hatcher, 74.

²¹ James Mackay, *Mary Queen of Scots: In My End is My Beginning*. London: Mainstream Co Ltd., 2012). 11

²² *The Essence of Tragedy and other Footnotes and Paper*, 58-59.

²³ Staines, 81.

²⁴ Ibid., 82

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Mentoring program to reduce believing rumors among university students

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Abstract

Rumor is a common psychological and social phenomenon which is based on the process of communication among people. It works on reducing or raising the morale of the community members and revealing or warping facts. This is done through communication especially if they are formed carefully and if they are spread in a suitable time and with trendy styles. Rumors spread in all aspects of life starting from spontaneous everyday life ending at the highest organized and complex spheres and stages. It has become the focus of attention worldwide , both in the states war and peace. Moreover, It has become one of the important areas of psychological and social sciences. The significance of the current study lies in addressing a vital issue and an important social class represented by university students in one of the important sectors among all sectors of society which is the higher education.

The current study adopts the scale of (muhanad & duaa 2015) to measure the level of believing rumors among university students when rumors spread. The scale includes (24) items which are analyzed statistically. Then the researcher proposes a mentoring program. It includes sessions that aim at reducing the level of believing rumors among university students.

Keywords: Rumor, indicative program, university students.

1 Introduction

Rumors are part of the tactics used in psychological warfare. The one who follows the events of the world along the years can find that different psychological warfare tactics have been used broadly and on different levels. It is used in all activity sectors and human competition whether it was commercial, industrial, military or political. With the massive use of new technologies, spreading rumors become more complicated but easily used and easily spread. Therefore, there is an urgent need to know the practical methods to face this problem. Nowadays, rumor is one of the organized sciences that has specific rules and strategies which are studied before. (Allport & Lepkin 1945) is one of these studies. It deals with the use of rumors through the Second World War Successively. (Allport & Postman 1947) present several related tests and they conclude that rumor is governed by three main procedures: Settlement, prominence, acceptance. These

procedures show the level of deviation that is controlled by cognitive and psychological factors which control spreading rumors in a way that suits the individuals' psychological and emotional needs. In Allport and Postman's work " Psychology of Rumors", the researchers aim at investigating rumor and how much it affects society. They conclude that the effect of a piece of information is diminished as the number of people spreading it increases. Eventually, it becomes more limited, easier to spread and less authentic from the time it first spread. Their conclusion is based on a practical experiment. The experiment involves spreading a verbal message among several individuals. The message is transmitted from one individual to another. At last, they find out that the message had lost about 70% of its main contents through the transmission process to the fifth or sixth individual to be something totally different from the one transmitted to the first individual . (Rosnow & Foster 1980) present a study which aims at distinguishing between gossip and rumor. On the one hand, rumor is a way of communication among individuals in a society and it is based on particular assumptions of the world or it is a way to make the world seem more logical and understandable which might make us less anxious and confused. On the other hand, gossip usually goes around itself and in a form of "inner curliness". It spreads among individuals with the same background and interests. Gossip is mostly known as "small talk". Remarkably, rumor has a major role in human development, human intelligence and social life in spite of its damaging sides to the society. At Queensland University, (Difanzo & Bordia 1996) use experimental procedure to study how to control rumors, and how it is possible to add a logical sense to rumors. Through following a rumor for six days on social media platforms, it was found that the rumor takes a specific pattern whether in content or level. It seems to be a form of interaction to solve the problems that might evolve as a result of anxiety and lack of knowledge (Difanzo & Bordia, 2007). Rumors are used to test the public opinion and prepare the community for decisions made by politicians. Rumor can manipulate individuals' mentalities and it becomes more effective if it is well studied and accurately established. In Iraq, (Kelley, S.A 2004) presents a study in which he follows the procedure of content analysis to analyze (966) rumors. The rumors are collected through the time of study in Iraq. It is hypothesized that rumors increase when there is tension in the general atmosphere which enhance the level of anxiety and suspense among individuals. Therefore, it opens up a space for individuals to understand the reality and the current events.

Theoretical Interpretation of Rumors

Taking an epistemic perspective into consideration, (Festinger) argues that rumors spread as a result of disputed knowledge that happens to the individual. Individuals' reception of mysterious, incomplete or contradictory information most likely arise some sort of misperception and misunderstanding of the events which might cause some sort of confusion and chaos. Disputed knowledge results from two sources: disputed knowledge results from making a decision and disputed knowledge results from the incompatibility between direction and behavior (Festinger, L., Cartwright, D., Barber, K., Fleischl, J., Gottsdanker, J., Keyser, A., & Leavitt, G. 1948). (C Jung 1977) presents an epistemic explanation for rumor, He defines it according to the psychological factor in which he argues that spreading rumors grows from both curiosity and emotions trafficking. Significantly, (Rosnow 1991) presents four factors to explain the process of

evolving and spreading rumors. These factors are: general mystery, caring about results, personal anxiety, credulity. Besides, he argues that rumor results from the climatic interaction between confusion and anxiety. Notably, if the rumor has some authenticity, it would be easier to believe and spread because it would make the source feel more confident about the authenticity of the rumor. This kind of rumors is listed among the rumors of fear and desires because individuals tend to believe the things that s/he like to happen or s/he fears the most.

The University is considered as the basic tool for social transformation which means in addition of being an instructional and educational institute, it transforms societies from the state of passivity to the dynamic and reasonable state. Moreover, it completes the mission of the previous institutes that are responsible for educating individuals. The role of the university should not be restricted to provide educational curricula, but it should also help the staff members in the process of facing traditional ideas and views of the society. (Munro 1997) assures that mentoring is important to fulfill the individuals needs because they need direct help with their self-understanding and psychological- social agreement. Additionally, mentoring can help individuals to know the essential nature of their problems and to provide proper solutions. The effective and practical mentoring can change individuals' behavior to the best. Mentoring programs are considered as one of the basic and important programs in the instructional and educational institutes because it helps solving the problems that might face the educational procedure. Notably, mentoring program, whether it was preventive, developmental or curative, seeks to solve individuals problems according to scientific techniques which will help enhance their directions and psychological settlement. (Martin 1995) defines mentoring program as a set or series of activities or procedures that should be done to reach a specific goal. The goal of the counseling program is to arrange the relation between the goals of the plan and its projects and accomplishment (Osipow and others 1970). The importance of the current study arises from the nature of the events happening in the world in general and middle east and Iraq in particular. These events most likely lead to evolve a state of tension, anxiety and losing the sense of safety which had led to evolvments of rumors noticeably. Consequently, the researcher aims at investigating this phenomenon and to suggest a proper solution to participate in the process of restricting rumors among students because students are considered the corner stone for the variety of society sectors and a source of its qualified individuals.

Moreover, this study has a preventive purpose because it might alert University staff members to the importance of paying more attention to students and empower their abilities of confrontation. This process requires gathering efforts and all the social institutions to highlight the reasons, means, social and psychological factors which lead to worsen the problem. Hence, specialist workers can establish the basic criteria that might limit the process of spreading rumors and work on finding a proper solutions.

The Method

The community of the study is represented by the students of University of Diyala in Iraq for the years 2015-2016. The sample of the study has been chosen randomly. As for the sample used in the study, they are (300) students, 167 female students and 139 male students with the average age

of 20-24 years old. The students are chosen from several colleges in Diyala University with a total number of 13 colleges in different scientific and humanitarian specialties.

Instrument of the Study

The researcher adapted the measuring scale of (Muhanad & Duaa 2015) to measure the level of believing rumors among university students. The scale includes (24) items and it has been applied on (300) students. Table (1) involves the main items of the scale:

Table (1)

the scale of believing rumors among university students

The scale of believing rumors:

Use following key: 5= always agree

4= occasionally agree

3= hesitant

2= disagree

1= totally disagree

1-When I report a specific news, I get confused between what I understood and what really had happened.

2- I believe the news that I have a prior information about without checking again.

3- I find some news misrepresented from its original theme.

4- I believe the news reported by a closed one.

5- I find some people exaggerate in their ways of reporting news.

6- I believe the news which give me a new hope in life.

7- I find myself obliged to believe the kind of news which I do not have enough information about.

8- I want to be the first to report the important news.

9- I believe most of what happens.

10- I investigate the source of the news before reporting it.

11- The nature of the events surrounding us is pushing us to believe everything we receive.

12-When I am scared, I tend to believe everything transmitted through the media.

13-I believe the clearest part of the news.

14- I tend to believe the most interesting news.

15-I tend to believe the kind of news that satisfy a specific need inside me.

16- I forget some of the news details when I report them to others.

17- I modify the incomplete news before reporting them.

18- I doubt the authenticity of the news that I receive form a stranger.

- 19- I use the word (they say) when I report what I am not quite sure of the source.**
20- I feel self-assured when I report some news that no one knows about.
21- I have the ability to distinguish between real and fake news.
22- I try to analyze the news I receive.
23- People come to me to know details about some important news.
24- I believe entertaining and fun news.

The

statistical characteristics of the scale of believing rumors is deduced and it is illustrated in table (2) below:

Table (2)

The Statistical Characteristics of the Scale of Believing Rumors

Statistical Signals	Degree
Mean	84.53
Std .Evrrofmean	.613
Median	85.00
Mode	84
Std . Deviation	10.610
Variance	112.565
Skewness	.685
Kurtosis	.479
Range	58
Minimum	50
Maximum	108

Using the exploratory factor analysis in a form of principle components and rotation method with Kaiser Normalization(Varimax), the researcher deduces the factorial structure of the scale of believing rumors. In the first analysis, the results show that all points include three factors: critical situation, uncritical situation, transitory situation). All these factors are explained together with a percentage of (%44.932) from the total deviation. All items ,except (1,6,9), are fulfilled by the first factor with an internal root of (3.845) which explains (%25.632) from the total deviation, while items (6,9) are fulfilled by the second factor with an internal root of (1.056) which explains (7.039) from the total deviation.

Using the Varimax method, and after applying the orthogonal rotation, the results show that items (21-20-17-15-9-8-4-3-2-1) are filled with the first factor and with an internal root of (2.847) which explains (%11.861) from the total deviation. As for the items (22-16-14-13-12-11-10-6-5), they

all are filled with the second factor with an internal root (2.557) which explains (%10.653) from the total deviation. The third factor is found in items (24-23-19-18-7) with an internal root of (1.339) which explains (%8.77) from the total deviation. Table (3) illustrates the results of factorial analysis before and after the orthogonal rotation.

Table (3)
 Factorial Analysis of the Scale of Rumor's evolvement direction Before and After Rotation

Items	Factorial Analysis before rotation			Factorial Analysis after rotation		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1	0.424			0.532		
2	0.419			0.559		
3	0.512			0.552		
4	0.547			0.514		
5	0.519				0.366	
6	0.325				0.257	
7		0.467				0.548
8			0.388	0.452		
9	0.268			0.349		
10	0.357				0.508	
11	0.404				0.573	
12	0.465				0.617	
13	0.370				0.486	
14	0.520				0.489	
15	0.481			0.356		
16	0.519				0.445	
17	0.563			0.562		
18	0.391					0.427
19	0.400					0.387
20	0.526			0.334		
21	0.499			0.454		
22	0.424				0.405	
23	0.419	0.454				0.62
24	0.512	0.484				0.551
Internal Root	0.547	1.429	1.360	2.847	2.557	1.939
Deviation	0.519	6.215	5.669	11.861	10.653	8.77

The researcher deduces the external validity of the scale through presenting it to several judges in social psychology and sociology. All of the judges agree on the validity of the scale in measuring the phenomenon. The consistency of the scale is proven by two methods: Alpha Cronbach Method and the result of the consistency factor is (795), and the second method is Test-Retest Reliability in which the consistency factor reaches (68.7) .

The Procedures

The hypothetical mean of the individuals' answers on the scale of believing rumors is deduced, then the application forms are classified. There are (13) application forms with more than (%95) as hypothetical mean. It signifies that this class needs help and this is what motivates the researcher to construct mentoring program according to behavioral-epistemic therapy to lessen the level of believing rumors .The researcher designs a mentoring program which is composed of (6) sessions. Each session involves a topic related to the concept of rumors. Each session has specific time span and purposes in which it can be applied on the members of the experimental group to distinguish its effect in lessening the level of believing rumors among University students. The following tables illustrate each session plan.

Table (4)
 It illustrates the first suggested session to reduce believing rumors

Session No.	Time & Place of the session	Topic of session	Time	Purposes	Methods used	The speaker	Managing the session and its activities
First		Rumors	40-20 minutes	-Students should be acquainted to the concept of rumor . -Students should realize the purpose of spreading rumors and the reasons behind it. -Students should realize the effect of rumors on the national security. -Realizing the role of Media and Social Media in spreading rumors.	-Discussion -Argument -Modifying ideas		1. Welcoming the participants in the program and working to establish harmony and familiarity among students and the speaker. And to identify the nature of the sessions, place, and time. 2- Start with introducing the concept of rumors. 3- Clarifying and explaining the purposes of spreading rumors and the reasons behind it. 4- Realizing the effect of rumors in threatening the national security. 5- Explaining the role of Media and social media in spreading rumors.

- **Homework:**
- **Ask students to write about the procedure they follow when they hear an important news.**

Table (5)

It illustrates the second suggested session to reduce believing rumors

Session No.	Time & Place of the session	Topic of session	Time	Purposes	Methods used	The speaker	Managing the session and its activates
Second		Crises and spreading rumors	40-20 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Students should know what is meant by crises. -Students should be accustomed to the different types of crises that might face the individual and society. -Students need to realize the relation between crises and spreading rumors. -Student should be aware of the importance of facing crises to limit the level of believing and spreading rumors. . 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Discussion -Argument -Modifying ideas 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1-Defining crises and classifying its types. 2-Clarifying the relation between the crises that face the individual and society and spreading rumors at the time of crises. 3-Students should be given enough examples of the types of crises that might face the individual and society. 4- Students need to be able to face rumors at the times of crises.
Home work: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - -Students need to observe and take notes in the session. 							

Table (6)

It illustrates the third suggested session to reduce believing rumors

Session No.	Time & Place of the session	Topic of session	Time	Purposes	Methods used	The speaker	Managing the session and its activates

Third		Anxiety and believing rumors	40-20 minutes	<p>-Students should be acquainted to the concept of anxiety and the reasons behind it.</p> <p>-Students need to be aware of the role of anxiety in believing rumors.</p>	<p>-Discussion & Argument</p> <p>- Relaxation</p>		<p>1-Defining anxiety and the reasons behind it.</p> <p>2-Highlighting the importance of relaxation to reduce anxiety and tension. Providing a thorough explanation of the main steps of relaxation. Also, sharing a (CD) which shows the way of applying relaxation exercises with instructions.</p> <p>3-Focusing on the role of anxiety in believing rumors.</p>
<p>Homework:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reviewing what was presented in the previous sessions - Checking the relaxation cards and try to do it at home in proper time. 							

Table (7)
It illustrates the fourth suggested session to reduce believing rumors

Session No.	Time & Place of the session	Topic of session	Time	Purposes	Methods used	The speaker	Managing the session and its activates
fourth		Critical thinking in facing rumors	40-20 minutes	<p>-Student need to know what is meant by critical thinking and its importance.</p> <p>-Students should know the skills, steps and strategies of critical thinking.</p> <p>-Students should realize the importance of critical thinking in facing rumors.</p>	<p>-Discussion</p> <p>-Argument</p> <p>-Modifying ideas</p>		<p>1-Defining critical thinking and its importance.</p> <p>2-Explaining the skills of critical thinking and its main steps as well as the strategies that help evolving it.</p> <p>3-Explaining the role and importance of critical thinking in facing rumors.</p>
<p>Homework:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Each student can judge how the session affects his/her concepts. 							

-iving a specific problem that needs critical thinking and ask students to find a proper solution

Table (8)

It illustrates the fifth suggested session to reduce believing rumors

Session No.	Time & Place of the session	Topic of session	Time	Purposes	Methods used	The speaker	Managing the session and its activates
fifth		Individual and social responsibility in facing rumors	40-20 minutes	-Students need to know what is meant by responsibility. -Students should realize the importance of taking responsibility (individual & society) -Students need to know the role of individual and social responsibility in facing rumors.	- Discussion -Argument -Modifying ideas		1- Defining the concept of responsibility. 2- Clarifying the types of responsibility (individual & social). 3- Showing the importance of considering individual and social responsibility when reporting news to others. 4- Highlighting the role of individual and social responsibility in facing rumors.
Homework: -List the difficulties that students faced while reviewing the notes of the previous sessions.							

Table (9)

Illustrates the sixth suggested session for the scale of believing rumors

Session No.	Time & Place of the session	Topic of session	Time	Purposes	Methods used	The speaker	Managing the session and its activates

Sixth		Methods of facing rumors.	40-20 minutes	--Students need to know some methods that might be beneficial in facing rumors.	- Discussion -Argument -Modifying ideas		<p>Presenting a list of methods which participate in facing rumors. Among them:</p> <p>1-Not to pay attention to unreliable news.</p> <p>2- Check the sources of important and sensitive news and think logically when dealing with them.</p> <p>3- Direct denial of the illogical news through using evidence if available. If there is no evidence, there would be need to be patient till providing evidence.</p> <p>4- It is important to use free times to practice activities like sports , art, and other educational activities.</p>
<p>- The end of the mentoring program will be announced at the end of the session. Students will be thanked for their participation.</p> <p>- Again, the scale of believing rumors will be presented to the research sample to see the effect it has in reducing the level of believing rumors among the participants.</p>							

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Examining Seamus Heaney's Poem "A Herbal": A Corpus Stylistic Study

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at analyzing a selected poem "A Herbal" written by one of the greatest poets of the twentieth century; Seamus Heaney. The methodology is a corpus-based one. Using the tools of the computer to analyze and interpret poetry allows readers/ researchers to examine to what extent technology can bring the attention to crucial details that might be missed by human manual analysis. This does not imply that the later analysis should be neglected, but to emphasize employing both of the analyses to reach much more reliable results. In short, this study is qualitative and quantitative in nature.

This study has a great importance. There is an attempt to fill a gap in the area of analyzing poetry using corpus stylistics. As a matter of fact, few works are conducted by using corpus stylistics to examine poetry. The findings show how important to apply both quantitative and qualitative analyses to interpret and study literary texts. Relevantly, it can provide researchers with a better understanding of the themes, keywords, and the style of language. The obtained results have an objective trait. In other words, firstly, the data is examined by computational tools, here, WebCorp and Wmatrix3, then the data is scrutinized in terms of manual study. In fact, this work demonstrates the importance of interdisciplinary work, here humanities (linguistics) and computer studies.

Keywords: corpus stylistics, WebCorp, Wmatrix3, Seamus Heaney, poetry, quantitative and qualitative methodologies

1. INTRODUCTION

Integrating humanities with computer studies dates back to the early 1940s. This achievement is established by the Italian priest Rberto Busa. He introduced a way of linguistic and literary analysis by using computers (Hammond, 83-84).

It is worth mentioning, that corpus based tools help readers/researchers or anyone who has an interest in analyzing a target data (literary, non-literary) can make a great benefit from the technology in computational tools to check and examine the salient feature of the language . As long as the data is saved as a soft text on a computer.

Corpus based studies help to understand and interpret long texts in a short time and in a much efficient way in comparison to the manual qualitative human analysis. As a matter of fact, this does not imply that researchers should neglect the later type of analysis. Both modes quantitative and qualitative " they complement each other" (Jaafar, 2017).

Due to the shortage of space here in this study to replicate what is corpora and corpus stylistics, there is instead a focus on a methodology of how to analyze the chosen text by using corpus stylistics.

Related to this point, there are many significant works that discuss in a detailed style the introductory parts of corpus stylistics and corpus linguistics in general (see, for example, Semino and Short 2004; McCarthy and O'Keefe 2010; Mahlberg 2012).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

As a matter of fact, there are few studies applying corpus stylistics to analyze poetry.

McIntyre & Walker's(2010, p. 516-517) study aimed at analyzing William Blake's *Songs of Innocence and of Experience*. Their main aim was to make a comparison in terms of semantic and lexical levels. This is done by using Wmatrix software (Rayson, 2008).

Brooke et al (2013) examined T. S. Eliot's *The Waste Land* by studying clusters (group of words). This is achieved by using the tool Senti wordnet.

Lutzky (2013) worked on *Goblin Market* to understand the main themes, characters and the salient feature of the style of the poem. This information is obtained by employing WebCorp tool which is used in this study also.

3. METHODOLOGY

1-Preparing the corpus of the selected text.

2-Using WebCorp as the tool to examine n-grams (word clusters).

3-Employing Wmatrix3 software to benefit from its unique advantage of identifying semantic domains. This can be achieved firstly by changing the text into plain text.

4-Following Ursnal Lutzky steps in analyzing the poem 'Goblin Market' by using WebCorp , this work will use her work as a model to conduct the analysis.

4. CORPUS TOOLS

There are many tools available for the sake of gaining a better and quick understanding of a selected data. For instance, sketch engine, WebCorp,W matrix, Wordsmith,AntConc, etc).

4.1.WEBCORP AND WMATRIX3

WebCorp is a free web tool designed by Birmingham University for the main aim of analyzing language of text that can be found in online accessible links. This tool enables researchers to find information about a certain text by simply copying and pasting the text and in one click the results

can be analyzed by manual qualitative analyses to support and polish the results (Literary Linguistics,n.d).

Wmatrix3 is a software tool used to conduct corpus stylistic studies, developed by Paul Rayson as part of his PhD project. It is used to identify keywords, concordances, key semantic domains and other features. For more details about the usage and characteristics of this tool(see, Rayson, 2004 & Jaafar 2017).

5. THE SELECTED POEM "A Herbal"

It is one of the poems of the collection "Human Chain" written in 2010 by Seamus Heaney and got the prize for the best collection award of the mentioned year.

This poem represents an adaptation or translation of the French poet Eugene Guillevic's poem "Herbier de Bretagne".

"A Herbal" is a long poem consists of 19 short parts.

6. THE ANALYSIS

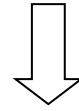
The title of the poem "A Herbal" has a missing grammatical element. The two elements the indefinite article and the word "herbal" require a noun to describe. The original title of the poem is "Herbier de Bretagne" which indicates to the herbs or plants of a specific place. Heaney shifted the idea from the definite to the indefinite. As if he wanted to refer to a herbal philosophy or theory that is not confirmed since there are many questions are posed and left with no answers.

The poem consists of 572 words, this number includes articles and prepositions that considered as functional words like (is , a ,the, on, etc).

Using WebCorp helps to exclude these high frequency words in order to give attention instead to content words (the carriers of meaning). By filtering out the function words, the total number of content words is 207 words.

The next step, it is important for readers /researchers know about semantic domains, what are the most prominent words in the chosen text and to what domain they are related. This can give a better understanding about the text. Wmatrix3 offers a great to perform this task in an objective and a mannered way. In this study, this step is done by focusing on **semantic tag cloud** and comparing the data(the poem) to **BNC Sampler Spoken**(corpora provided by Wmatrix), the following results appear:

Screenshot (1) Illustration of Key Semantic Domain



Key domain cloud



From the above screenshot readers can notice that two domains (plants, the universe) are illustrated with a large font in comparison to other domains. This is to show that these two domains are more important and special attention needs to be given to them while analyzing the text. Similarly, other domains with smaller font like (Dead, living-creatures, animals- birds, etc.) are also important and can give readers an idea about the main theme of the poem "A Herbal".

Screenshot (2) Wmatrix3 Retrieval Results Of Word Cloud "Plants".

29 occurrences.				Ext
A	Herbal	from Human chain (after Guillevi		1
Herbier de Bretagne) Everywhere	plants	Flourish among graves , Sinking t		2
ish among graves , Sinking their	roots	In all the dynasties Of the dead		3
es Of the dead . * Was graveyard	grass	In our place Any different ? Diff		4
? Different from ordinary Field	grass	? Remember how you wanted The sou		5
sh Compliant dialect No way have	plants	here Arrived at a settlement . No		6
o With the wind . * Not that the	grass	itself Ever rests in peace . It t		7
ind . Go with the flow . " * The	bracken	Is less boastful . It closes and		8
All day long . Which is why the	plants	, Even the bracken , Are sometime		9
ich is why the plants , Even the	bracken	, Are sometimes tempted Into trus		10
e hearse At walking pace Between	overgrown	verges , The dead here are borne		11
When the funeral bell tolls The	grass	is all a-tremble . But only then		12
e In the blackberries , A slatey	sap	. * Run your hand into The ditch		13
ditch back growth And youd grope	roots	, Thick and thin . But roots of w		14
ope roots , Thick and thin . But	roots	of what ? Once , one that we saw		15
why we never knew . Among them ,	Nettles	, Malignant things , letting on T		16
he vicious stings . * There were	leaves	on the trees And growth on the he		17
ngs . * There were leaves on the	trees	And growth on the headrigs You co		18
was better then Than to crush a	leaf	or a herb Between your palms Then		19
r then Than to crush a leaf or a	herb	Between your palms Then wave it s		20
Into the rat hole , Through the	vetch	and dock That mantled it . Becaus		21
On the quarry floor . * Between	heather	and marigold , Between sphagnum a		22
ry floor . * Between heather and	marigold	, Between sphagnum and buttercup		23
n heather and marigold , Between	sphagnum	and buttercup , Between dandelion		24
marigold , Between sphagnum and	buttercup	, Between dandelion and broom , B		25
sphagnum and buttercup , Between	dandelion	and broom , Between forget-me-not		26
room , Between forget-me-not and	honeysuckle	, As between clear blue and cloud		27
aystack and sunset sky , Between	oak tree	and slated roof , I had my existe		28
lf , like a nest Of crosshatched	grass	blades ?		29

The screenshot clarifies the fact that the poet employs plants including flowers to make his idea clear to the audience. In fact, the above retrieval results do not include all the names of plants.

Plants like "broom" has five occurrences in the poem and "forget-me-not"). In this way the total occurrence of name of plants is 31. These two words do not appear in the retrieval results for have other polysemous meanings.

The poet (the speaker) tries to understand to what extent plants in the graveyard are different from others in other ordinary places like gardens, fieldsthis inquiry perplexed the poet because the plants in the graveyard grow from the soil which is flourished from dead people "all the dynasties of the dead". Plants get their power and supplement. The pronoun"you" and the reference"your feet" is probably referring to the person accompanies the poet or the speaker at a certain occasion.

Moreover the poem contains a series of rhetorical questions. These questions show the philosophical ideas of the poet, for example:

- "Was graveyard grass In our place Any different?"

- "Different from ordinary Field grass?"

- "Remember how you wanted Wildtrack of your feet Through the wet
At the foot of a field?"

- "See me?" it says. "The wind Has me well rehearsed
In the ways of the world.

- " Is there sun like here,"

- "And you'd grope roots, Thick and thin. But roots of what?"

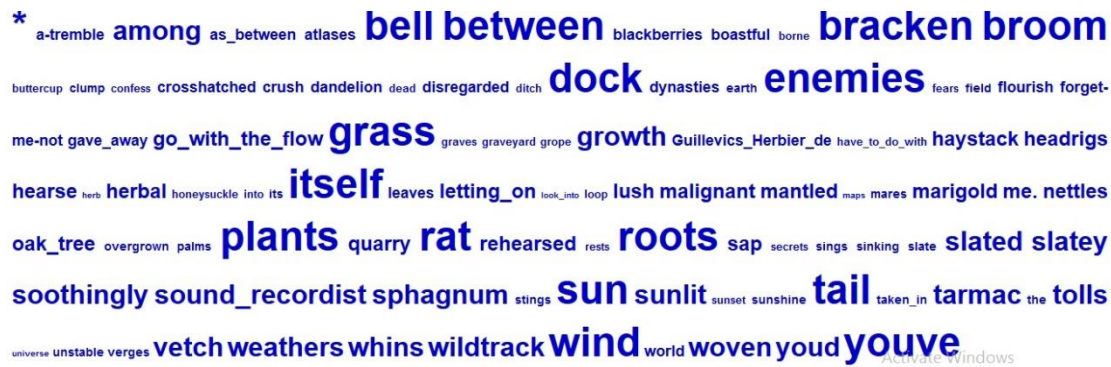
- "What was better then..... And breathe?"

- "Where can it be found again,..... Where all is woven into And of itself, like a nest Of
crosshatched grass blades?"

I had my existence. I was there.
Me in place and the place in me.

These two lines have a great philosophical and a touching significance. The poet suggests that he had his existence in the world, once he lived the life and after death, he became part of the earth (soil) "me in place". Then his body would be the nourishments of plants like (heather, marigold, sphagnum, buttercup, dandelion, broom, forget-me-not, honeysuckle and many other plants that may grow. This is confirmed that the "place in me".

Another aspect related to the analysis is **key word clouds**. This is different from key semantic words in terms of the number of occurrences of the important words in the text. The image below illustrates the fact:



Screenshot (3) Wmatrix3 Retrieval Results of Key Word Cloud

The image shows the most frequent words in the text. For instance, the word "grass" has five occurrences which are demonstrated below:

- 1-Was graveyard **grass** In our place Any different ?
- 2-Different from ordinary Field **grass**? Remember how you wanted The sound r
- 3-to do With the wind. * Not that the **grass** itself Ever rests in peace . It too
- 4-When the funeral bell tolls The **grass** is all a-tremble . But only then.Not
- 5-itself , like a nest Of crosshatched **grass** blades?

7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher in this study tried to show how to conduct a corpus stylistic analysis to study and analyze a single poem by using two tools, namely; Wmatrix3 and WebCorp to reach to an objective interpretation of the poem.

What is concluded is the quantitative results support the manual qualitative stylistic analysis in terms of accurate occurrences of words, word numbers and in finding certain aspects that might be missed by ordinary human analysis for example, to know the key semantic domains of the text. In addition to what is mentioned is to obtain the results quickly and accurately, especially when dealing with long texts.

What is recommended here is to study a collection of poems for example the whole collection of Seamus *Heany Human Chain* against a large corpora for example, the British National corpus or any other corpora.

In fact, researchers can benefit from the tools of computer to study poetry. Thus, It is important to integrate the study of stylistic analysis with computer studies to achieve objectivity and reliability of the results.

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Woman's Emotional Conflict and the Healing Power of Love in Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter*

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Abstract

In Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter*, love and hate appear as independent powers that consume their holders. In this novel, Nathaniel Hawthorne presents a picture of the Puritans which shows an important part of American history. The *Scarlet Letter* outlines the American's brief moment of theocracy and extreme social order. Hawthorne is one of the first American writers to explore the hidden motivations of his characters. The Puritans wanted to establish an ideal community in America that can act as a model of influence for what they saw as a corrupted civil and religious order in England. This sense of mission is the core of their religious and social identity. That is why they required a strict moral regulation.

The research tackles the fact that: no one is free from sins and evils, but it is man's choice to overcome this evil or to be overcome by it. The investigation is thematic in this research. The focal point is that love and hate are strong human emotions that make people depend upon each other. It shows that Love is the power of giving and healing. The pure love affair between Dimmesdale and Hester has given them the product of their affair named Pearl. *The Scarlet Letter* is a mixture of a love story, sin and punishment, but, it is a story of how love prevails after all because it is God's reflection in human beings and it is one of God's many ways to live in peace. Hawthorne in some way gives the solution for defeating one's evil and preventing it from turning into a psychological disease.

Keywords: Love, hate, vengeance, sin, purity.

Introduction

Nathaniel Hawthorne and the Puritan Society

Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804-1864) was born in Salem, Massachusetts. His father was a sea captain and descendent of John Hawthorne, one of the judges in the Salem witchcraft trials of 1692. He died when the young Nathaniel was four years old. Elizabeth Clarke Manning Hawthorne, his mother, withdraws to a life of seclusion and maintained this until her death. From

Salem the family moved to Maine, where Hawthorne was educated at the Bowdoin College (1821-24) (Nathaniel Hawthorne 1). His first novel, *Fanshawe* (1828), approved anonymously at his own expense and it was based on his college life. It did not receive much attention, but it initiated a friendship between Nathaniel Hawthorne and the publisher Samuel Goodrich. He edited in 1836 the *American Magazine of Useful and Entertaining Knowledge* in Boston.

Hawthorne's second, expanded edition of *Twice-Told Tales* (1837), was praised by Edgar Allan Poe in *Graham's Magazine*, anthologized stories "Yong Goodrich Baron" (1835), originally published in the *New-England Magazine*, "The Birthmark" (1843), published in *Pioneer*, and "Rappacini's Daughter" (1844), which first appeared in *Democratic Review* and was collected in *Mosses From An Old Manse* (1846). "Yong Goodman Brown", also included in this collection which is an allegorical tale, in which Hawthorne touches many of his favorite themes, such as hypocrisy, witchcraft, the Puritan guilt, and the sins of the fathers (Nathaniel Hawthorne 2). In 1842, Hawthorne married Sophia Peabody, an active participant in the Transcendentalist movement. First, they lived in Concord then moved to Salem. As a writer, he was not able to earn a living and in 1846 he was appointed surveyor of the port of Salem.

The *Scarlet Letter* was a critical and popular success, in which Hester Prynne, the heroin, has been seen as a pioneer feminist character in the line from Anne Hutchinson to Margaret Fuller, a classic nurturer, a sexually anonymous woman, and an American equivalent of Anna Karenina. The influence of the novel is apparent in Henry James's *The Portrait of a Lady* (1881), in Kate Chopin's *The Awakening* (1899), and in William Faulkner's *As I Lay Dying* (1930) Hawthorne's daughter Una, christened after Spenser's heroine in *The Faerie Queen*, served as the model for Pearl (Nathaniel Hawthorne 2).

Hawthorne was one of the first American writers to explore the hidden motivations of his characters. Among his allegorical stories is "The Artist of the Beautiful" (1844). The *Scarlet Letter* appeared in 1850, in which Hawthorne pictures the sin-obsessed Puritans, which has been subsequently criticized by Arthur Miller, Steven King, and many others. *The House of the Seven Gables* was published in 1851. Hawthorne died on May 19, 1864, in Plymouth, N.H. on a trip to the mountains with his friend Franklin Pierce.

In the *Scarlet Letter*, Nathaniel Hawthorne presents a picture of the Puritan Society which is an important part of the American history, it outlines America's brief moment of theocracy and extreme social order. Hawthorne depicts Boston, Massachusetts during the time of Puritanism and follows a young woman, Hester Prynne, through her trials and tribulations under her sin (Talia 1). The Puritans upheld social order and obedience to God in the highest degree. So they build prisons to maintain this order and obedience. The first thing they think of in their new world in their new Salem is the prison, located at the center of Puritan Boston. Hawthorne gave a detailed description of the prison in the very first chapter of *The Scarlet Letter*.

Hawthorne described those order holders as:

A throng of bearded men, in sand-colored garments and grey, steeple-crowned hats was assembled in front of a wooden edifice, the door of which was heavily timbered with oak, and studded with iron spikes... in accordance with this rule, it may safely be assumed that the forefathers of Boston had built the first prison house... (Hawthorne 72).

The Puritans wanted to establish an ideal community in America that could act as a model of influence for what they saw as a corrupt civil and religious order in England. This sense of mission was the core of their religious and social identity. That is why they required a strict moral regulation. They considered moral conduct important not only for their own salvation but for others as well, so if any person chooses to sin, a prison can steer him back to the right direction (Talia 2).

The Puritans appeared to be some harsh sect of people who yet feared the devil, witchcraft and anything that may threaten their beliefs. Hawthorne wrote about Mistress Hibbins, who was Governor Bellingham's sister and was suspected of practicing witchcraft. Yet no one would dare to accuse her or judge her since it was a hypocrite society and she was the Governor's sister. However, she was executed few years later as a witch (Talia 2).

Hawthorne presented in *The Scarlet Letter* an idea about how did the Puritan beliefs and actions operate during that period of time. The Puritans, with all their strict and harsh rules and life style, did not last for a long time, simply because deep inside of them they were phony people and their belief was not true. In short they were not true with themselves and with each other. That is why their period was very short in the American History and was a subject of contempt criticized by many critics through literature later on.

Hawthorne's Method of Using love to Overcome Hate in *The Scarlet Letter*

In Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* love and hate appear as independent powers that consume their holder. Hawthorne makes it clear in this novel that to love or hate, is a matter of human choice. It is man's choice to live with love or die with hate. Hawthorne also makes it clear in this novel that love is considered good and hate is considered evil.

Love and hate are strong human emotions that make people dependent upon each other. Hester Prynne endures seven years of living as an outcast after her public humiliation and disgrace as a result of her love for Reverend Arthur Dimmesdale. Chillingworth, on the other hand is dependent on Dimmesdale through hate. The revenge in Chillingworth's heart was feeding on the constant torture of the minister's soul. Chillingworth dies shortly after Dimmesdale's death, since the hatred and the pursue of revenge of his soul have nothing to consume. In this way hate and love are two emotions felt toward the same man, Dimmesdale. Hester chooses to love Dimmesdale and thus has a longer and more prosperous life than Chillingworth, who chooses to hate and to be consumed spiritually and physically by it, allowing it to control the rest of his life until his death (Love and Hate 1).

Love and hate as human emotions have intense powers on human beings. Love has a healing power; a power that heals Hester and gives her the strength to endure the crudeness of the Puritan society which has greater sins than Hester's only sin. Yet, supported with the power of love she chooses to put hatred aside and finds a way to live and secure her living through sewing. Chillingworth, on the other hand, consumed by his hatred, anger and revenge is turned to something evil. He does not choose to put hate aside, he chooses to be consumed by it and is translated into his bitter revenge from Dimmesdale.

Despite being wronged by his wife, Chillingworth loves Hester so much that he cannot hurt her or her baby. The power of hate which is evil turns him to something unhuman spiritually and physically. Although he is fairly unattractive at the beginning of the novel, with lopsided shoulders and an aged appearance, but it is the pursuit of revenge that transforms him into a more devilish figure (Pryor 3).

As a matter of fact, Chillingworth committed two major sins. His first sin is against Hester. He committed it when he married her and took away her youth; he admits: "Mine was the first wrong, when I betrayed thy budding youth into a false and unnatural relation with my decay" (Hawthorne 112). The second is more evil sin, it was basically a selfish one, this sin was based on the idea of taking his revenge by himself by digging deep into the human heart of his victim and through violating the human borders of mercy. He allowed himself to play God, by torturing his victim. Unware of the fact that he was turning in to something evil which started to emerge from his inner-most to the outward appearance (Lanlan 80): "now, there was something ugly and evil in his face, which they had not previously noticed, and which grew still the more obvious to sight, the oftener they looked upon him" (Hawthorne 190).

The motive or passion which actuates him is totally a selfish one. Instead of saving whatever left of his marriage and protecting the sanctity of their marriage relation, as typified in her, from further pollution, he focuses all his powers, knowledge and abilities to take his revenge personally. Chillingworth confesses his indifference to any but personal consideration, when he describes his disbelief in God as a fatalist: "My old faith" (Hawthorne 261), he says to Hester,

"Explains all that we do and all that we suffer. By thy first step awry thou didst plant the germ of evil; but since that moment it has all been a dark necessity. Ye that have wronged me are not sinful, save in a kind of typical illusion; neither am I fiend-like, who have snatched a fiend's office from his hands. It is our fate. Let the black flower blossom as it may!" (Hawthorne 261)

Unlike the method of punishment of the Puritan society that seeks to punish and to disgrace the sinner in public, Chillingworth considers it a merciful method of punishment since it would leave the sinner with no load of secret guilt in his heart. He believes in keeping his victim's secret. By rejecting all brutal and obvious methods of the Puritan society he gains entrance into much sensitive region of torture. He will not poison Hester's baby, because he knows that she will live to cause her mother the most poignant pangs she is capable of feeling. He will not sacrifice Hester, because "What could I do better for my object than to let thee live than to give thee medicines against all harm and peril of life so that this burning shame may still blaze upon thy bosom?" (Hawthorne 110), he will not reveal the minister's guilt. "Think not", he says:

That I shall interfere with Heaven's own method of retribution, or, to my own loss, betray him to the gripe of the human law. Neither do thou imagine that I shall contrive aught against his life, no, nor against his fame, if I judge, he be a man of fair repute. Let him live! Let him hide himself in outward honor, if he may! Not the less he shall be mine! (Hawthorne 114)

Chillingworth proudly elaborates his cunning:

He fancied himself given over to a fiend, to be tortured with frightful dreams and desperate thoughts, the sting of remorse and despair of pardon, as a foretaste of what awaits him beyond the grave. But it was the constant shadow of my presence, the closet propinquity of the man whom he had most vilely wronged, and who had grown to exist only by this perpetual poison of the direct revenge! (Hawthorne 257)

Chillingworth admits that his revenge is poisonous, it brings evil not only to himself, but to all those around him. "Evil, be thou my good!" (Hawthorne 17), Chillingworth's sin is the unpardonable sin, because he hugs it to himself as a virtue, as the virtue of virtues; and gives himself the notion that he has the right to inflict vengeance. A vengeance that is unmodified by any fear of heavenly, social or human restraints. He puts his devilish lust of vengeance in the place of God, and performs it bidding.

In chapter 10: The Leech and His Patient, Chillingworth suspects Dimmesdale is hiding something and decides to find out: "Let me dig a little further into that!" (Hawthorne 194) "A unique case." "Indeed to look into it more deeply. There exist a strong bond between his soul and his body! I must get to the bottom of it, if only out of professional curiosity" (Hawthorne 207). The golden chance for Chillingworth to achieve his digging was when Dimmesdale was so tired out of a long conversation with him out of which Chillingworth was trying to stimulate Dimmesdale to confess what troubles him spiritually and weakening him physically. Dimmesdale was sleeping in his room, when Chillingworth slinked to Dimmesdale's room and right up to the reverend's chest. Hawthorne does not give a clear description of what the leech saw on Dimmesdale's chest but, he gives a beautiful description of the thrill on Chillingworth's face:

But what a look of wonder, joy, and horror was on the doctor's face! What terrible ecstasy, too intense to be expressed by only the eye and face, burst through the whole ugliness of his body! He threw his arms up to the ceiling and stamped his foot on the floor with emphatic gestures. If someone had seen Old Roger Chillingworth at that instant of joy, they would have known what Satan looks like when a precious human soul is lost to Heaven and won for Hell instead (Hawthorne 207).

Hawthorne shows Chillingworth's sick thrill and to what extent he is psychologically ill to have the potential of sneaking to one's privacy and breaching it.

In chapter 12: The Minister's Vigil, in the scaffold scene Dimmesdale shows his fear from Chillingworth and asks for Hester's help: "Who is that man, Hester?", "The sight of him makes me shiver! Do you know who he is? I hate him, Hester!", "I tell you, the sight of him makes my soul shiver!". "Who is he? Who is he? Can't you help me? I am terribly afraid of the man!" (Hawthorne 235), and when he knows about his real identity from Hester in the woods he exclaims, "There is one worse than even the polluted priest! That old man's revenge has been blacker than my sin. He has violated, in cold blood, the sanctity of a human heart. Thou and I, Hester, never did so!" (Hawthorne 293). Yet society has no stigma to fix upon his breast (Hawthorne 18).

Dimmesdale, like Chillingworth also allowed himself to be overcome by his evil. Arthur Dimmesdale was seen as an honorable Puritan that no one can imagine him commits such a sin. He fathered a child out of wedlock and watched his beloved be humiliated and disgraced for a sin he also committed. In fact he was never politically punished, yet he received the worst of all. He allowed his guilt and deceit practically destroy him. He allowed the evil of his sin to grow up and torture him severely for the crime that he did not admit. Dimmesdale punished himself by putting a permanent scarlet letter on his chest similar to Hester's, except that it is known only by him. Instead, he tortured himself along the seven years by not eating well, not sleeping, causing him to become sick, his body tapered down and he aged for beyond his years. Eventually, this evil brought him to his early death on the scaffold (Carly Roberts 2): Dimmesdale says to the town, "Ye, that have loved me! – Ye that have deemed me holy! – behold me here, the one sinner of the world! At last-at last! – I stand upon the spot where, seven since, I should have stood; here, with this woman ... "(Hawthorn 380).

The power of love is not only healing, but also is a giving one. The pure love affair between Dimmesdale and Hester has given them the product of their affair, Pearl, who "In giving her existence, a great law had been broken.... The mother impassioned state had been the medium through which were transmitted to the unborn infant the rays of its moral life.... Above all, the warfare of Hester's spirit, at that epoch, was perpetuated in Pearl "(Hawthorn 135).

For most people, Pearl is the result of Hester's impure and sinful act of adultery. Therefore, Hawthorn uses Pearl to depict the conflict of sin versus purity. Pearl, on one hand, is the picture of innocence and purity. She is almost a part of nature, playing and finding company in the wild things of the woods. She also provides the only joy for Hester, while they live in isolation. As a child, she asks innocent questions about the world around her, concerning herself especially with the scarlet letter on her mother's bosom and her father. Pearl also plays a living reminder of Hester's adultery and sin. Hester not only pays for her sin through wearing the letter A, enduring the harsh treatment of the Puritan society, but through Pearl's company as well. She keeps asking her mother, "What does the scarlet letter mean?" (Hawthorne 271), and "Why does the minister keep his hand over his heart?" (Hawthorne 270), causing Hester much concern. Pearl identifies herself with the scarlet letter on her mother's bosom, and she feels scared and stunned when Hester removes the letter in the woods (Conflict 2).

For Hester, Pearl is not the sinful product of a sinful affair, Pearl is part of Hester and Dimmesdale. She is her only joy within the isolation of the Puritan society and even more she is the only connect and memory of her love affair with her only lover, Dimmesdale. Hawthorne illustrates that even sin can produce purity, and that purity came in the form of the sprightly Pearl (The Scarlet Letter 1).

No one is free from sins and evils, but it is man's choice to overcome this evil inside him or to be overcome by it. Hester committed the worst crime known in early Puritan society, adultery and was immediately punished by the society, by wearing the letter A across her chest for the rest of her life. She was shunned by the Puritan society as well, fighting her with whatever they got. Yet, this did not make her hate them, or give them the name of her lover or even hate him for leaving her alone in her tribulation, instead she has the ability to control her evil and preventing it from turning into a psychological one, thus saving herself. She suppressed her evil and did not

allow it to overcome her. Her ordeal did not weaken her over the seven years, but allowed her to become stronger to the point where she was able to leave the new world in the end of the book.

The scarlet letter is mixture of a love story with sin and punishment, but, it is more a story of how does love prevail after all. Hawthorne in some way gives the solution for defeating one's evil and preventing it from turning in to a psychological disease. Julian Hawthorne in his review to *The Scarlet Letter* paraphrases Hawthorne's solution to overcome evil in these words:

The poison of sin is not so much in the sin itself as in the concealment; for all men are sinners, but he who conceals his sin pretends a superhuman holiness. Acknowledge our sins before God, in the ordinary sense of the phrase, is a phrase, and no more, unproductive of absolution. But to acknowledge our sins before man is, in very truth, to acknowledge them before God; for the appeal is made to the human conscience, and the human conscience is the miraculous presence of God in human nature, and from such acknowledgement absolution is not remote. The reason is that such acknowledgement surrenders all that is most dear to the unregenerate heart, and thereby involves a humiliation or annihilation of evil pride which eradicates sinful appetite ((Hawthorne 17).

Conclusion

The scarlet letter is a story of a tragic love, of unfortunate love story that takes place in the wrong time and place. However, love as Nathaniel Hawthorn believes has a healing power, because after all, he ends up his novel peacefully, indicating that love would prevail at the end. Hester's badge of dishonor and disgrace turns through her perseverance to become the badge of honor and ability. Dimmesdale finally dies in peace after confessing his guilt, after a very long time of spiritual and physical adversity. Even Chillingworth, after Dimmesdale's death, peacefully, decides to leave all his fortune to Pearl, which is an act of love actually and dies shortly after that. Hester remains in Salem as the able woman, admired by all members of the Puritan society. After all, Hawthorne believes that, human beings are created to love not to hate and that love feeds the soul and flourishes it while hate consumes the body and soul and leads its holder to destruction.

The Scarlet Letter contains a message of peace and love confronted with the powers of sin, evil, hypocrisy and harshness of the Puritan Society, and in spite of being weak at the beginning, but love has its own ways to prevail because it is God's reflection in human beings and it is one of God's many ways to live in peace.

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Evaluating and Comparing Teacher-Made Tests and Central Tests for "General English for University Students" Course at Salahaddin University-Erbil / 2017

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at evaluating and comparing teacher-made tests (TMT) and the central tests (CT) that are prepared by the central committee of designing final tests for "General English for University Students" (GEfUS) course at Salahaddin University-Erbil in the academic years 2013 - 2014 and 2014-2015 on the bases of qualities of good testing items, accuracy (linguistics and layout), and Bloom's six levels of cognitive domain. It is hypothesised that teacher-made tests and central tests meet the requirements of the qualities of good testing items; they are free from grammar, spelling, and punctuation mistakes; and they measure the six levels of cognitive domain.

An evaluation checklist was constructed to analyze and evaluate the tests of GEfUS and was exposed to some experts as jury members to prove its face validity. The sample was 50 written achievement tests of GEfUS, 40 TMT and 10 CTs of the final exam.

The results were analyzed statistically by using SPSS programme. The study reveals the following:

- a. Both teacher-made and central tests are accurate and organized but the results of means are in favor of the central tests.
- b. Teachers use other testing types in the final exam such as translation and essay question which are not required, while cloze-test has been used rarely.
- c. In both tests, analysis and evaluation levels of cognitive domain were not used.

Key words: teacher-made tests, central test, evaluation

1. INTRODUCTION

The process of curriculum development and the policy of SU priorities the learning of a second language. English is one of the core courses of the first year. SU in collaboration with Garnet Education publishers prepared a textbook for this course called “General English for University Students” (GEfUS) in 2013. Since then, four hours a week is devoted to the teaching of this course.

In the first year of implementing this course, teachers of GEfUS designed their tests and administrated them at department level. The DCD evaluated these tests and found many shortcomings in the design and the content of such tests. Based on this evaluation, all first year teachers of English were asked to write 50 testing items using different testing techniques and send them to a committee in the University to select the testing items for the final exam, i.e. central exam.

Thus, this study tries to evaluate these tests on the bases of requirements of designing good testing items, accuracy (linguistics and layout), and Bloom`s six levels of cognitive domain. This study tries to answer the following questions:

- 1-Do teacher-made tests and central tests meet the requirements of designing good testing items?
- 2- Are they free from grammatical, spelling, and punctuation mistakes?
- 3- Does the design of TMT and CT meet the requirements of layout accuracy?
- 4- To what extent are the six levels of cognitive domain measured?

The current study aims at

1. Evaluating teacher- made tests "General English for University Students” course at Salahaddin University-Erbil in the academic years 2013 -2014 and 2014-2015 on the basis of:
 - i. requirements of designing good testing items
 - ii. accuracy (linguistics and layout),
 - iii. Bloom`s six levels of cognitive domain,

2. Evaluating the central tests prepared by the central committee of designing final tests in GEfUS in the academic years 2013 -2014 and 2014-2015 based on the criteria mentioned in the first aim.

The current study hypothesizes that:

- 1- TMT and CT meet the requirements of designing good testing items.
- 2- TMT and CT are free from grammatical, spelling, and punctuation mistakes.
- 3- The design of TMT and CT meets the requirements of layout accuracy.
- 4- TMT and CT measure the six levels of cognitive domain.

2. REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

This section reviews a number of studies which deal with evaluating test papers in general and GEfUS course specifically.

1. Al-Bajalani, Aziz and Omer's study in 2015 aims at finding out the applicability and suitability of General English for University Students (GEfUS) in the context of SU-Kurdistan Region. The results show that 33.3% of respondents report having technical problems in teaching this course such as lack of language lab, large number of students, lack of personal computers and students' low language level. This can be major dilemma in teacher preparation for teaching this new course book. The main principles required for designing a language course in a given context have not been taken into consideration. The study reveals that the goals of the course meet the students' needs in their major in the university, and it includes enough topics.

2. Abdullah's study in 2015 aims to evaluate the material of General English for University Students- (GEfUS) in terms of its vocabulary, grammar, language skills and technical criteria. The results reveal that the approaches and methods that are applied in designing GEfUS course material are appropriate with the students' level and they fulfill students' needs.

3. Mahmud's study in 2013 aims at investigating whether English Language test in the baccalaureate exam for Sunrise 12 has all qualities of a good test or not, and measuring the effectiveness of English language test format of baccalaureate exam in developing students' communicative competence and introducing a new format of baccalaureate exam for sunrise 12. The results reveal that baccalaureate exams lack qualities of a good test, and do not match with the core of sunrise 12. Thus, they cannot be used to assess students' oral performance and communicative competence.

4. Al-Azyzee's study in 2000 aims at evaluating teacher-made and central tests at the Second Intermediate Stage in Baghdad. The sample of the study is teacher made tests and central tests. The results show that there were drawbacks in both types of test papers. These drawbacks influence items validity, test reliability, question objectivity, test practicality and test accuracy.

5. Al-Bajalani study in 2002 aims to evaluate both monthly and final Test papers of the 1st year in the academic year 1998-1999 in the College of Education and all the monthly and final Test papers of the 1st and 2nd year in the academic year 1999-2000 in the College of Arts at Salahaddin University –Erbil, on the basis of the criteria of good test, i.e. validity, objectivity, reliability, accuracy, economy, and scorability. The results show the defects and shortcomings in teacher-

made tests which affected the tools of measurement, validity and other characteristics of good test. This shows lack of training course for teachers and lack of knowledge of designing good tests.

6. Majeed's study in 2007 aims at evaluating the M.A. achievement tests based on the six levels of Bloom's cognitive Domain (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation), and the six qualities of a good test: validity, objectivity, accuracy, practicality, layout, and comprehensiveness.

The study evaluates the test papers of "New Trends to Teaching EFL", subject for M.A. students in the first semester during the period 1999-2000 up to 2004-2005. papers from Baghdad University and Al-Mustansiriyah University. The results showed that: M.A. tests do not test high level of thinking; M.A. final achievement tests are unable to elicit the desired types of mental processes. i. e. studying without being able to analyze, apply, appreciate, or evaluate what students read; College faculties lack experience, technical training, and clarity of vision concerning evaluation and tests design and finally the M.A. final achievement tests have failed to satisfy any of the adopted criteria of evaluation.

7- Khidir's study in 2013 aims at detecting the strengths and weaknesses of the process of testing in Sunrise programme (grade 9) in Kurdistan schools in Erbil Governorate—in the academic year 2010-2011. It also aims at checking the extent of applicability of the criteria of a good test (reliability, validity, practicality, accuracy, objectivity and scorability) in teacher-made tests, and describing and analyzing Sunrise 9 textbook. The study displays and analyses the contents of the textbooks (Student's Book and Activity Book) both horizontally and vertically, analyses samples of testing papers of the schools based on accuracy, objectivity and scorability. The results indicate that Sunrise 9 test papers suffer from many weak points such as the training courses are not satisfactory in the field of testing; teacher-made tests have a satisfactory content validity, but do not have face validity, there is a problem of scorability, distribution of marks, and accuracy; the tests are objective to a high extent; and less attention is paid to oral tests.

3. Testing, Measurement, Assessment and Evaluation

There are two types of evaluation, formative evaluation and summative evaluation.

Formative Evaluation is the process of providing information to curriculum developers during the development of a curriculum or programme, in order to improve it. Formative evaluation is also used for syllabus design and the development of language teaching programmes and materials.

Summative Evaluation is the process of providing information to decision makers, after the programme is completed, about whether or not the programme is effective and successful. The final exam or posttest is administrated as part of the summative evaluation.

Summative evaluation often attempts to determine the extent to which the broad objectives of a programme have been achieved. It is concerned with purposes, progress and outcomes of the teaching-learning process (Henning, 1987: 3; Mousavi, 1997:139).

In this study, the summative evaluation is used.

The terms testing, measurement, assessment and evaluation are used interchangeably although they have some distinctions.

Testing measures the skills and gives scores for instance

- *He gets 50 but she gets 46 out of 100.* **Assessment** assesses student`s ability based on the result of the test (other sources too). For example, *he is average. She is below average.*

Measurement is a set of procedures used in educational tests and assessments which assign grades that could be used instead of test, for example, standard scores.

While **evaluation** recommends what students need to do based on the data obtained from the test and assessment. For example, *she failed*, so she needs to study more and try harder.

Another example is

Measurement: *He weighs 92 kilograms.*

Assessment: *He is over-weight.*

Evaluation: *He needs to go on a diet.*

This means that test and measurement are quantitative methods which assign numbers, while assessment and evaluation are qualitative methods. Many measurements can be used for evaluation. However, “not all the measures are tests, and not all the tests are evaluation, and not all the evaluations involve either measurements or tests” (Mousavi, 1997: 41).

4. TEACHER-MADE AND STANDARDISED TESTS

Harris (1969:1-3) states that to measure the extent of students’ achievement of the instructional goals, achievement tests are used to indicate group or individual progress toward the instructional objectives of a specific study or training program. Examples are progress tests and final tests.

Instruments are prepared by professional testing services to assist institutions in the selection, placement, and evaluation of students.

Both Douglas and Brown define achievement test as a means of measuring the extent to which a person has acquired certain information or mastered certain skills, usually as the result of specific instruction (Douglas, 2014:1; Brown, 1981: 208). While Coombe, Folse and Hubley state that achievement tests are regularly administered at mid and end of academic year, and achievement tests often, cover material from entire course (2010: xvii).

Language tests can be divided into two basic types: central/standardized and teacher-made tests /non-standardized.

In teacher-made tests (TMT), the test items are prepared, administered, and scored by one or a small number of teachers. This test type has some specific features which are different from standardized tests (Birjandi and Mosallanejad 2010: 47-48). According to Wiggins (1989:708), teacher-made tests are usually criterion referenced tests that are designed to assess students' mastery of a course material. Here, the material being tested is the content of a specific course-study and the objectives of a test are based on the course objectives.

The central test (standardized test) is designed to be used with thousands of subjects throughout the nation or the world, and prepared, administered, scored, and interpreted by a team of testing specialists with no personal knowledge of the examinees and no opportunity to check on the consistency of individual performances. Teachers need, at some time or other, to make use of standardized tests, know to select and evaluate such instruments and learn more about the techniques and research findings of the professional testers (Harris, 1969:1). Moreover, Birjandi and Mosallanejad state that knowing the characteristics of standardized tests helps classroom teachers sometimes design such tests to improve their own test constructions. It is important for teachers to know how to prepare, select, and evaluate test instruments in a proper way. (2010: 47). Mousavi draws a comparison between TMT and CT as shown in table (1).

Table1: Comparison between standardized & non- standardized tests

Feature	Teacher-made test (non- standardized test)	Standardized test
Sampling of content	Both content and sampling are determined by classroom teacher.	Content determined by curriculum and subject matter experts; involves extensive investigations of existing syllabi,

		textbooks and programs, sampling of content done systematically.
Administering and scoring	Usually no uniform directions are specified.	Specific instructions and standardized administration.
Interpreting Scores	Score comparisons and Interpretations.	Scores can be compared to norm group, test manual and other guides aid.
Reliability	Reliability usually unknown; can be high if carefully instructed.	Reliability is high; commonly between 0.80 and 0.96, frequent is above 0.90.
Quality of test Items	Quality of test items is unknown unless test item file is used. Quality typically lower than standardized due to limited time and skill of teacher.	General quality of item is high. Written by specialists, pretested and selected on the basis of effectiveness.
Construction	May be hurried and haphazard. Often no test blue-prints, item tryouts, item analysis or revision.	Uses careful construction procedures, includes test blueprint, item tryouts, item analysis, and item revisions.
Norms	Only local classroom norms are used.	In addition to local norms, these tests typically make available national school district and school building norms.
Purpose and use	Best suited for measuring particular objectives set by teacher and for intra-class comparison.	Best suited for measuring broad curriculum objectives and national comparison for interclass, school, etc.

Cited from (Mousavi, 2009:708)

5. THE SAMPLE

The sample of this study consists of 50 written achievement tests of "General English for University Students" _40 were TMTs and 10 were CTs from both first and second sitting exams in the academic years 2013- 2014, 2014-2015. The data was provided by the Directorate of Curriculum Development (DCD) at SU.

The total number of the questions in the (50) test papers under evaluation is (503). The TMTs include (1150) items that belong to different types of testing techniques prepared by the teachers. TMT includes multiple-choice item, matching, true- false, completion and fill in the blanks, classification, re-write the scattered words to form meaningful sentences, give definitions to the

underlined words, translation, re-ordering, do as required, answer these questions, and essay questions.

CTs include (73) Questions with (365) items prepared by the Central Committee for writing the questions of central exam of GEfUS. CTs include multiple-choice item, matching, true- false, classification, re-write the scattered words to form meaningful sentences, re-ordering, do as required, answer these questions, completion, and fill in the blanks.

It is worth mentioning that the items of “do as required” question are considered as separate question in the evaluation process of this study.

6. EVALUATION CHECKLIST

In order to achieve the aims of the study, an evaluation checklist is constructed. A checklist is considered as a scientific and reliable method to provide evaluative results when prepared carefully and accurately. (Mehrans and Lehman, 1984: 117)

The prepared evaluation checklist includes the requirements of designing good testing items, accuracy (linguistics and layout), and Bloom`s six levels of cognitive domain. The checklist is based on (Anderson & Krathwhol, 2001), (Frost, 2009), (Scrivener, 1998), and (Jacobs, 2004).

7. VALIDITY

Brown (2001: 387) states that the most complex criterion of a good test is validity; the degree to which the test actually measures what it is intended to measure. In this study, validity is what the evaluation checklist is supposed to evaluate.

Face validity means to which extent the tool meets the expectations of those involved in its use, e.g., administrators, teachers and test score users (McNamara, 2000:133).

In order to investigate the face validity of the tool, the checklist was given to a jury of specialists in teaching English, applied linguistics, and linguistics. They were asked to decide on the suitability of the criteria of the checklist. All the criteria were proved. This means that the evaluation checklist was accepted by jurors and the designed checklist is highly appropriate to start the evaluative task of this study. See appendix 1.

8. STATISTICAL MEANS

SPSS (V.21) Statistical Package for Social Science (Version 21) - (Investopedia, 2013) is used to analyse the data.

For the sake of validating the evaluation tool and analyzing the results of the study, percentage is used to find out percentage of frequency of items for each criterion.

The means mentioned in this study are the following:

Mean1 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Multiple-choice item

Mean2 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ True-false item

Mean3 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ matching item

Mean4 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Completion item and fill in blanks

Mean5 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Re-ordering/Re-arrangement/Unscramble items

Mean6 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Classification

Mean7 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Cloze test Items

Mean8 - Accuracy a-linguistic accuracy

Mean9 - Accuracy b- Layout accuracy

Mean10 - Bloom`s six Levels of cognitive domain

Alpha- Cronbach Formula is used for internal consistency, i.e. the checklist internal reliability (Investopedia, 2013).

The Standard Deviation (SD) is used to show whether the three criteria of the checklist: are concentrated around the mean, or spread far and wide. In another words, it tells how the questions are close to meeting the requirements.

9. RESULTS

The checklist of the study consists of 49 items, and the items have two options: yes, and no. Number (1) is used for “yes” and (0) is used for “no” to help the researcher’s recognize the frequency of the options.

Tables 2 and 3 show the results of the study.

Table 2: The percentages of the items of both TMT& CT

The Items	Scale	TMT		CT	
		Fr	%	Fr	%
1- It has only one possible correct answer.	0 No	9	22.5	0	0
	1 Yes	31	77.5	10	100
2- It contains three options at least.	0 No	10	25.0	0	0
	1 Yes	30	75.0	10	100
3- The order of the options is set randomly.	0 No	9	22.5	0	0
	1 Yes	31	77.5	10	100
4- It examines only one point at a time.	0 No	9	22.5	0	0
	1 Yes	31	77.5	10	100
5- The options are grammatically suitable for the stem.	0 No	10	25.0	0	0
	1 Yes	30	75.0	10	100
6- The distractors are closely related to the correct choice.	0 No	11	27.5	0	0
	1 Yes	29	72.5	10	100
7- There are no negative statements.	0 No	13	32.5	0	0
	1 Yes	27	67.5	10	100
8- The options are relevant to each other.	0 No	13	32.5	0	0
	1 Yes	27	67.5	10	100
9- Items can be classified unambiguously as either true or false.	0 No	20	50.0	3	30
	1 Yes	20	50.0	7	70
10- Statements are not taken verbatim from textbook.	0 No	27	67.5	4	40
	1 Yes	13	32.5	6	60
11- Each item includes only a single major point.	0 No	19	47.5	4	40
	1 Yes	21	52.5	6	60
12- Words like “always,” “all”, or “never” which tend to make the statement false; words like “usually,” “often,” “many” which usually make the statement true are NOT used in the statements.	0 No	20	50.0	3	30
	1 Yes	20	50.0	7	70
13- Negative statements are not used.	0 No	23	57.5	3	30
	1 Yes	17	42.5	7	70
14- Statements include all the main ideas presented in reading comprehension passage.	0 No	21	52.5	3	30
	1 Yes	19	47.5	7	70
15- Statements are written in simple language.	0 No	19	47.5	3	30
	1 Yes	21	52.5	7	70
16- True and false items are equal, or false items are slightly more than true items.	0 No	20	50.0	3	30
	1 Yes	20	50.0	7	70
17- The premises and the responses to be matched are homogeneous.	0 No	7	17.5	0	0
	1 Yes	33	82.5	10	100
18- The premises are in a numbered column at the left, and the responses are in a lettered column at the right.	0 No	23	57.5	5	50
	1 Yes	17	42.5	5	50

The Items	Scale	TMT		CT	
		Fr	%	Fr	%
19- There is only one correct response for each premise.	0 No	8	20.0	0	0
	1 Yes	32	80.0	10	100
20- The items to be matched are on the same page	0 No	14	35.0	1	10
	1 Yes	26	65.0	9	90
21- The premises are less than the responses.	0 No	36	90.0	10	100
	1 Yes	4	10.0	0	0
22- Only significant or key words are omitted from the statement	0 No	6	15.0	2	20
	1 Yes	34	85.0	8	80
23- The items have only a single correct answer.	0 No	5	12.5	1	10
	1 Yes	35	87.5	9	90
24- Blanks of the same length are used throughout the test	0 No	10	25.0	1	10
	1 Yes	30	75.0	9	90
25- The blank in an item could be in the middle or at the end of the statement.	0 No	13	32.5	2	20
	1 Yes	19	67.5	8	80
26- Grammatical clues to the correct answer are not found in the statements.	0 No	4	10.0	1	10
	1 Yes	36	90.0	9	90
27- Statements are not taken verbatim from textbook.	0 No	16	40.0	3	30
	1 Yes	24	60.0	7	70
28- A list of acceptable responses is developed (optional).	0 No	9	22.5	1	10
	1 Yes	31	77.5	9	90
29- The items test vocabulary and grammar.	0 No	5	12.5	2	20
	1 Yes	35	87.5	8	80
30- The items test factual information	0 No	7	17.5	0	0
	1 Yes	33	82.5	10	100
31- The items test grammar points and coherence.	0 No	7	17.5	0	0
	1 Yes	33	82.5	10	100
32- Statements are not taken verbatim from textbook.	0 No	11	27.5	0	0
	1 Yes	29	72.5	10	100
33- There are category columns and a list of words in the question.	0 No	18	45.0	0	0
	1 Yes	22	55.0	10	100
34- The item measures simple learning outcomes (lower order thinking).	0 No	17	42.5	0	0
	1 Yes	23	57.5	10	100
35- The categories and the given key words are included in the course material.	0 No	18	45.0	0	0
	1 Yes	22	55.0	10	100
36- A word fits only one category.	0 No	34	85.0	10	100
	1 Yes	6	15.0	0	0
37- There are more than two category columns in the question	0 No	22	55.0	0	0
	1 Yes	18	45.0	10	100
38- Vocabulary Knowledge is tested.	0 No	39	97.5	9	90
	1 Yes	1	2.5	1	10
39- The deletion rate is mechanically/systematically set.	0 No	39	97.5	10	100

The Items	Scale	TMT		CT	
		Fr	%	Fr	%
	1 Yes	1	2.5	0	0
40- Qualities of a good test Accuracy a-linguistic accuracy	0 No	2	5.0	0	0
	1 Yes	38	95.0	10	100
41- 1.Qualities of a good test Accuracy b- Layout accuracy Each test is preceded by clear instructions.	0 No	4	10.0	0	0
	1 Yes	36	90.0	10	100
42- 2.Qualities of a good test Accuracy b- Layout accuracy Typing is clear and well organized.	0 No	8	20.0	0	0
	1 Yes	32	80.0	10	100
43- 3.Qualities of a good test Accuracy b- Layout accuracy Questions are separated from one another.	0 No	7	17.5	0	0
	1 Yes	33	82.5	10	100
44- Bloom`s Taxonomy 1. REMEBER- Knowledge	0 No	0	0.0	0	0
	1 Yes	40	100.0	10	100
45- Bloom`s Taxonomy 2. UNDERSTAND – Comprehension	0 No	21	52.5	5	50
	1 Yes	19	47.5	5	50
46- Bloom`s Taxonomy 3. APPLY –Application	0 No	32	80.0	5	50
	1 Yes	8	20.0	5	50
47- Bloom`s Taxonomy 4. ANALYZE –Analysis	0 No	36	90.0	10	100
	1 Yes	4	10.0	0	0
48- Bloom`s Taxonomy 5. EVALUATE-Evaluation	0 No	35	87.5	10	100
	1 Yes	5	12.5	0	0
49- Bloom`s Taxonomy 6. SYNTHESIS –Create	0 No	16	40.0	1	10
	1 Yes	24	60.0	9	90

Table3: The Mean and Standard deviation of the three criteria of both TMT& CT

	TMT		CT	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Mean1-Requirements of designing good testing items/Multiple-choice item	0.738	0.411	1.000	0.000
Mean2 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ True-false item	0.472	0.461	0.675	0.468
Mean3 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Matching item	0.560	0.294	0.680	0.103
Mean4 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Completion item and fill in blanks	0.722	0.271	0.738	0.266

Mean5 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Re-ordering/Re-arrangement/Unscramble items	0.792	0.383	1.000	0.000
Mean6 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Classification	0.455	0.408	0.800	0.000
Mean7 -Requirements of designing good testing items/ Cloze test Items	0.025	0.158	0.050	0.158
Mean8 -Qualities of a good test Accuracy a-linguistic accuracy	0.950	0.221	1.000	0.000
Mean9 -Qualities of a good test Accuracy b- Layout accuracy	0.842	0.239	1.000	0.000
Mean10 - Bloom`s six levels of cognitive domain	0.417	0.200	0.483	0.123

10. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results of the research, some important points are concluded:

1. GEfUS final achievement tests have been of satisfactory level across the criteria of evaluation. Regarding meeting the requirements of designing good testing items, MCI is satisfactory, true-false is satisfactory except for the criterion “statements are not taken verbatim from textbook”, the RC passages in true-false item should be new whereas most of GEfUS teachers took the passages verbatim from textbook due to students’ low level in English. Matching item is satisfactory except for the criterion “the premises are less than the responses”, almost all of GEfUS teachers neglected this criterion which made the students match the last item without thinking. Completion and fill-in the blank item is satisfactory except for the criterion “the blank in an item could be in the middle or at the end of the statement”. Many of GEfUS teachers have used the blanks at the beginning. If it is necessary to be used at the beginning, it is better to use matching item instead. Re-ordering item is satisfactory, classification item is satisfactory except for the criterion “a word fits only one category”: Most of GEfUS teachers used items that require a word under three columns which needs high level of thinking whereas classification item tests low level of thinking. Cloze-item is unsatisfactory, and almost all the teachers neglected this test type since it is difficult to design and difficult for students to answer.

2. The language of both tests is simple and the tests are free from grammatical, spelling, and punctuation mistakes. This means they both meet the requirements of linguistic accuracy. Further,

both tests are preceded by clear instructions, typing is clear and well organized and questions are separated from one another. This means they both meet the requirements of layout accuracy. Thus, the first, second, and third hypotheses are verified in both TMTs and CTs which means that both TMTs and CTs meet the requirements of designing good testing items, they are free from grammatical, spelling, and punctuation mistakes and the design of both tests meets the requirements of layout accuracy.

3. Translation and essay questions which are not objective are used in TMT. Additionally, cloze-test technique has been rarely used in testing RC in both tests.
4. Both TMTs and CTs are accurate, and organized. However, in both tests high levels of cognitive domain were not used to discover the students' intellectual abilities especially apply, analyze and evaluate.
5. The fourth hypothesis is not verified in both TMTs and CTs since Bloom's six levels of cognitive domain were not tested as a whole.
6. Most of TMTs and CTs items are taken verbatim from the GEfUS book
7. GEfUS teachers study the first three themes which contain various and valuable information about writing, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and critical thinking. Because of the limited time first year students have, the fourth and fifth themes are not studied nor included in the final exam.

11. RECOMMENDATION

Based on the results and conclusions of the current study, some recommendations are made here to improve teaching, testing, and evaluation of GEfUS:

1. Every College at SU should have a committee to peer review and edit the final tests for GEfUS written by English teachers before sending them to the DCD. This helps them exchange ideas, give feedback to teachers to develop their test design.
2. GEfUS final achievement tests should involve the types of questions which elicit students' ability to analyze, apply, and evaluate what they read. The levels of cognitive domain should be given percentages based on some criteria for example, 20% for application level; 30% for comprehension level, etc. Since GEfUS course encourages critical thinking, GEfUS teachers and the central committee need to include questions of high level in their tests to ensure that the aims of DCD regarding developing students' critical thinking will

be achieved in English course the same way that other core courses of the first year do such as “academic debate and critical thinking” course.

3. University teachers should realize the principles and characteristics of designing their tests and consider the process of test design as an art which should be related to contents of the presented course. This needs more training course on testing, evaluation and measurement to be held by all departments.
4. Some conferences and seminars should be occasionally held at Kurdistan Universities to discuss and exchange the various points of views about test design. This will keep College teachers in regular contact with current innovations and issues of journals concerning tests and tests design.
5. CC needs to prepare a table of test specification before writing the final CT. A test specification should include test structure (what sections will be tested), number of items in total and in various sections, number of passages and number of items associated with each passage, channel (paper and pencil, tape, face to face, etc.), time (for each and entire test), techniques (what techniques will be used: subjective or objective?) and level of students.
 6. GEfUS teachers should train their students on how to perform well on different types of tests that measure their abilities, skills, and performance during their daily activities. This will help the students allocate their time for the whole test and for each question.
7. Cloze- test type should be included in both TMTs and CTs in testing RC since it is an ideal integrated testing technique used to find out a testee’s overall knowledge and can test grammar, collocation, fixed phrases, reading comprehension, etc.
8. Teachers need to be familiar with learning outcomes and objectives of each testing technique to plan well for their tests.
9. Although the CT does not include writing, it is recommended that this type of test which is integrated be included in the CT. The committee can consider the different levels of students in different colleges by giving more options. CC needs to prepare a test rubric which consists of instructions, time allocation and organization (layout and format). The instruction should be explicit, easy and brief to understand because performance of the students relies greatly on the extent they comprehend the requirements. It is better to

present them in the native language. This rubric reduces teachers' personal judgment in scoring writing.

12. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- 1- A study may be carried out to evaluate the achievement test papers of teachers who graduated from Kurdistan Region Universities and those who graduated from international Universities.
- 2- A study can be conducted to evaluate the achievement test papers for the M.A and Ph.D students in English Departments.
- 3- A study can be conducted on evaluating all means of assessment of GEFUS teachers including assignments, task activity, monthly exams, etc.
- 4- A study can be conducted to evaluate the training courses on testing for GEFUS teachers.

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Appendix1: The evaluation checklist

A- Requirements of designing good testing items		Yes	No
Multiple-choice item	1-It has only one possible correct answer.		
	2- It contains three options at least.		
	3-The order of the options is set randomly.		
	4- It examines only one point at a time.		
	5-The options are grammatically suitable for the stem.		
	6-The distractors are closely related to the correct choice.		
	7- There are no negative statements.		
	8- The options are relevant to each other.		
True-false item	1-Items can be classified unambiguously as either true or false.		
	2- Statements are not taken verbatim from textbook.		
	3- Each item includes only a single major point.		
	4- Words like “always,” “all”, or “never” which tend to make the statement false; words like “usually,” “often,” “many” which usually make the statement true are NOT used in the statements.		
	5-Negative statements are not used.		
	6- Statements include all the main ideas presented in reading comprehension passage.		

	7-Statements are written in simple language.		
	8- True and false items are equal, or false items are slightly more than true items.		
Matching item	1-The premises and the responses to be matched are homogeneous.		
	2- The premises are in a numbered column at the left, and the responses are in a lettered column at the right.		
	3. There is only one correct response for each premise.		
	4. The items to be matched are on the same page		
	5. The premises are less than the responses.		
Completion item and fill in blanks	1. Only significant or key words are omitted from the statement		
	2. The items have only a single correct answer.		
	3. Blanks of the same length are used throughout the test		
	4. The blank in an item could be in the middle or at the end of the statement.		
	5. Grammatical clues to the correct answer are not found in the statements.		
	6. Statements are not taken verbatim from textbook.		
	7. A list of acceptable responses is developed (optional).		
	8. The items test vocabulary and grammar.		
Re-ordering/ Re-arrangement/Unscramble items	1- The items test factual information		
	2-The items test grammar points and coherence.		

	3- Statements are not taken verbatim from textbook.		
Classification	1. There are category columns and a list of words in the question.		
	2. The item measures simple learning outcomes (lower order thinking).		
	3. The categories and the given key words are included in the course material.		
	4. A word fits only one category.		
	5. There are more than two category columns in the question		
Cloze test Items	1. Vocabulary Knowledge is tested.		
	2. The deletion rate is mechanically/systematically set.		
B-Qualities of a good test Accuracy	Sub-qualities		
a-linguistic accuracy	A test is free from any mistakes of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar • Spelling • Punctuation 		
b- Layout accuracy	1- Each test is preceded by clear instructions.		
	2-Typing is clear and well organized.		
	3-Questions are separated from one another.		
C- Bloom`s six Levels of cognitive domain	Key Question / Verb Examples		
1. REMEBER- Knowledge Retrieving, recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory.	Can the student recall or remember the information? arrange, define, label, list, match, memorize, name, order, recall, recognize, repeat, reproduce, restate, state		

<p>Remembering previously learned material</p> <p>The learner is able to recall, restate and remember learned information, and master subject matter.</p>			
<p>2.UNDERSTAND - Comprehension</p> <p>Constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic messages.</p> <p>Understanding, grasping the meaning of information by translating what has been learned into new context.</p>	<p>Can the student explain ideas or concepts?</p> <p>classify, compare, describe, discuss, explain, express, give examples, give main idea, infer, interpret, paraphrase, report, review, select, summarize, translate</p>		
<p>3. APPLY -Application</p> <p>Carrying out or using a procedure.</p> <p>Using pre-learned methods and principles in situations.</p> <p>Student makes use of information in a context different from the one in which it was learned.</p> <p>Ability of applying knowledge to actual situations (new and concrete).</p> <p>Use information, use methods, concepts, theories in new situations, and solve problems.</p>	<p>Can the student use the information in a new way?</p> <p>apply, choose, demonstrate, dramatize, execute, illustrate, implement, interpret, outline, point out, role play, show, sketch, solve, use</p>		

<p>4. ANALYZE -Analysis</p> <p>Breaking material into constituent parts, determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose.</p> <p>Breaks apart or down into its elements.</p> <p>Student breaks learned information into its parts to best understand that information.</p> <p>Analysis to break down into parts, or forms. Make a relation to the assumptions, classify and distinguishes.</p>	<p>Can the student distinguish between the different parts?</p> <p>analyze, appraise, attribute, break down, calculate, categorize, compare, contrast, differentiate, , discriminate, dissect, distinguish, examine, organize, question, test</p>		
<p>5. EVALUATE-Evaluation</p> <p>Making judgments based on criteria and standards. Student creates new ideas and information using what previously has been learned. The ability to judge the value of material for a given purpose; the judgments are to be based on definite internal and/or external criteria. Discriminate the value using definite criteria and appraise learning objective definition. Compare and discriminate between ideas, verify value of evidence, recognize subjectivity.</p>	<p>Can the student justify a stand or decision?</p> <p>argue, appraise, assess critique, check, conclude, compare, criticize, defend, estimate, evaluate, judge, justify, predict, rate, select, support, value</p>		
<p>6. SYNTHESIS -Create (highest level)</p> <p>Putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganizing elements into a new pattern. The ability to put parts together to form a new whole; this</p>	<p>Can the student create a new product or point of view?</p> <p>assemble, combine, compile, compose, create, construct, design, develop, devise, formulate, generate, invent, organize, plan, prepare, produce, propose, reconstruct, revise, rewrite, write</p>		

<p>may involve the production of a unique communication (thesis or speech), a plan of operations (research proposal), or a set of abstract relations (scheme for classifying information).</p> <p>Student creates new ideas and information using what previously has been learned. Use old ideas to create new ones, generalize from given facts, relate knowledge from several areas, predict, and draw conclusions.</p>			
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Bloom Taxonomy criteria is cited from Alan Bloom's classic 1956 learning taxonomy which was revised and refined by Lorin Anderson and David Krathwohl in 2000-2001.

How Does Students' Sense of Self-Worth Influence Their Goal Orientation in Mathematics Achievement?

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ABSTRACT

In learning mathematics, students are naturally motivated to protect their self-worth by maintaining a belief that they are competent in this area. However, there is an important question which educators have to answer: "Why do students often confuse ability with worth?" The most important reason is that in our society students are widely considered to be worthy according to their ability to achieve in the given tasks in mathematics. Irrespective the contributions of the Multiple Intelligence Theory of intelligence in education, unfortunately, mathematics is still regarded as predicting students' overall ability to learn. Educators should realize that the need in order to protect self-worth arises primarily from fear of failure. Therefore, if this fear of failure is strong, some students will not try and gradually they will produce failure-avoiding strategies to avoid certain tasks in order not to look bad or receive negative assessments from others to protect his/her self-worth. It is important to make sure that the performance goals do not promote failure-avoidance (performance-avoidance-oriented) behavior, such as avoiding unfavorable judgments of capabilities and looking incompetent when the student encounters greater challenges. The main purpose of this qualitative study, therefore, is to explore students' achievement goal motivation, their self-worth and how these motivational factors impact their learning goals in mathematics. This study hypothesize that self-worth protection in math has also been considered from a performance-avoidance goal viewpoint. This study emphasize for educators, who consider true self-worth as the student's inherent value, should avoid comparing their students' ability, capability relative to others as well as students' academic performance and outcomes with others in class context.

Key Words: Mastery Goal, Performance Approach Goal, Performance Avoidance Goal, Students' Sense of Self-Worth.

Introduction

According to self-worth theory, as stated by Martin Covington (2000), students naturally have the tendency to establish and maintain a positive self-image, sense of self-worth, or an appraisal of their own value as an individual. Its fundamental premise is that “one’s sense of worth depends heavily on one’s accomplishments” (Covington, 1984, p. 8). Therefore, it more specifically links ability-related and value-related constructs to arouse and drive students’ behaviors in academic achievement. Self-worth theory focuses on the relation of expectancies and the belief that they are competent to achieve a certain goal.

In terms of success in learning mathematics, students are naturally motivated to protect their self-worth by maintaining a belief that they are competent in mathematics. The most important reason is that in our society students are widely considered to be worthy according to their ability to achieve in the given tasks in mathematics. Irrespective the contributions of the Multiple Intelligence Theory of intelligence in education, unfortunately, mathematics is still regarded as predicting students’ overall ability to learn. In the achievement context, schools value and assess competencies as being able, competent, smart, and accomplished. Students’ self-perceptions of competency become dominant and contribute to their self-worth (Covington, 1984). So it is understandable why students often confuse ability with worth. Because of that tendency many students come to believe that they are only as worthy as their accomplishment is, and that failure makes them unworthy of the approval of others (Covington, 1984; Covington & Mueller, 2001). From this point of view, the self-worth theory defines the goals adopted by students, whether performance-avoidant or performance-oriented, as the life-spanning endeavor to develop and maintain a sense of self-worth in a society that values competency and doing well (Covington, 1992). However, self-worth should be less about measuring oneself based on one’s ability relative to others and more about valuing one’s inherent worth as an individual. Therefore, “school achievement is the best understood in terms of maintaining a positive self-image of one’s ability, particularly when risking competitive failure” (Covington, 1998, p. 78). It has to be taken into consideration that the self-worth model emphasizes the feelings of worthlessness that arise from ‘the disclosure of incompetency’ (Covington, 1984, p. 8). Teachers should especially consider this point of view in their day-to-day class activities.

It is understandable from Covington's interrelation of human value and accomplishment that we gain a point of view that consists of two factors, *achievement* and *ability*. These factors constitute a strong value in the minds of many school children, and moreover this view is likely seen in adulthood (Covington, 1984).

As it is mentioned before Self-worth theory allows to understand the how much each student is driven to 'approach success' and to 'avoid failure' (Covington & Beery, 1976; Covington, 2000). The distinction of between 'approaching success' and 'avoiding failure' is central in understanding students' motivation in self-worth theory.

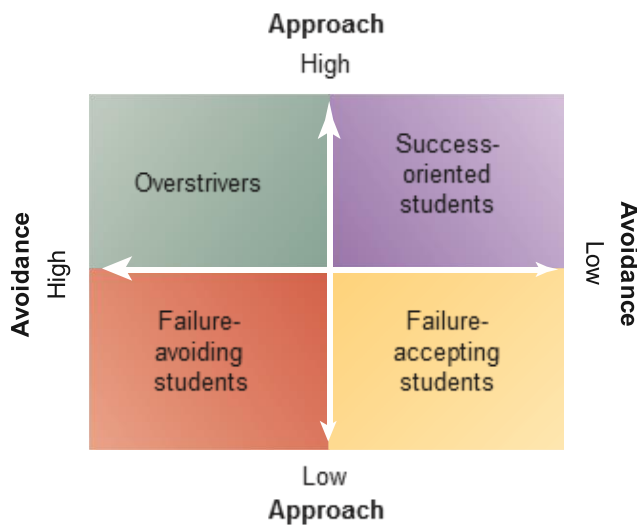


Figure: Students' Four Types of Motivation, According to Self-Worth Theory (Source: Covington & Mueller, 2001, p.168)

Covington and Mueller (2001) explain the types students have as follows:

1. Success-oriented (mastery goal) students: According to self-worth theory, success-oriented students are highly intrinsically motivated. Students with these goals view success as acquiring new skills and knowledge, improving intellectually and developing competence with the possibility of failure, closely balanced against the chances of success (Atkinson, 1957). Regardless of the achievements of others, success-oriented (mastery-oriented) students value ability as a tool to achieve mastery on personally meaningful goals and they tend to believe that failure despite trying hard does not necessarily imply incompetence. It may simply mean using wrong strategies.

Students in the other three categories are called performance-oriented and they define success (and their resulting self-worth) as outperforming others. Their main concern in learning is proving their ability and not looking less competent than their peers (Covington & Mueller, 2001). So they are highly motivated to avoid failure or to avoid appearing to lack ability. In this case, performance-oriented students develop strategies such as procrastination, making excuses, avoiding challenging tasks, and, perhaps most important, not trying (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Consequently all these external factors may let students become extrinsically motivated, and their intrinsic motivation to learn becomes compromised.

2. Overstrivers: Like success-oriented students, **overstrivers (performance-approach goal)** students are driven by high desire for success, but, unlike success-oriented students, they have high fear of failure (Beery, 1975). In order to prove their ability by performing better than others, they use several strategies to guarantee overstrivers' success as they see it (Covington, 1984, 1998). Success-guaranteeing strategies for overstrivers listed by Covington are as follows:

1. Consider challenging tasks as threats that are to be avoided. From self-worth perspective, students approach difficult tasks as threats to be avoided rather than as challenges to be mastered. So they are attempting only very easy tasks in order to guarantee their success.
2. Have low aspirations to the goals they choose. A student might hope simply to pass and state that he is not well prepared for a test.
3. Rote learning or memorization. In order to minimize any possible errors, an elementary school student might rehearse a part of text that he/she expects to read aloud (instead of getting ready for reading the whole text). In a similar manner a student in a high school mathematics class might practice the answer to a certain question before being called upon without caring about having an ability to answer any question.
4. Excessive attention to detail. According to self-worth theory, overstrivers (performance-approach goal-oriented students) are not sure of their actual abilities and attribute success to excessive effort, such as being over-prepared (Covington, 1984; Beery, 1975). For instance, a middle or high school student might ask the teacher for clarification while working on an individual study.

5. Cheating: According to the self-worth view, overstrivers (performance-approach-oriented students) are motivated to demonstrate or prove their competence. Their main desire is to do better than others for the ego satisfaction which is greatly influenced by their points. The desire to get high points, however, increases the temptation to cheat in order to achieve these goals.

3. Failure-avoiding students: Failure-avoiding students do not expect to succeed, they just want to avoid failing situations, especially in the presence of an audience. Therefore, these students' fear of failure is greater than their hope for success. They might believe that he or she has no adequate ability to succeed in mathematics or that repeated failure experiences might diminish their belief during the lesson activities in mathematics. Their main concern is '*What if I put a lot of effort, but still fail?*' As the fear of failure is directly linked to students' self-worth (Covington, 1984), they try to protect their self-worth. Because of that reason they can be called self-worth-protective students, too (Covington, 1992). Hence, the ability to achieve in mathematics is critical to maintain their self-worth; their main goal is not to be seen incompetent and avoid possible failing situations, which implies low ability and, hence, low worth. As a result, Covington found that students can produce some failure-avoiding strategies. Especially students', adopting competitive, grade-focused activities self-worth is at risk, because they have doubts in about their ability and whether it is possible to do the tasks, as the rules of competition dictate that only a few can succeed. As a result, the more competitive situation in the teaching-learning process, the more excuses and avoidance strategies are used by those students. Self-worth-protective students, to avoid looking less competent or incompetent, produce several actions that can be seen as strategies in the struggle to protect the sense of self-worth. These – in reality self-handicapping - strategies can prevent any real learning (Covington, 1984; Covington & Beery, 1976). Such strategies are:

1. Do not participate in practices consciously (sit at the back of the class, out of the teacher's view, miss the exam day), because failure without effort does not imply student's low ability, so it enables him/her to experience less shame (Covington & Beery, 1976).
2. Make excuses in order to preserve one's self-worth (for unfulfilled homework).
3. Procrastinate (postpone the study till the last moment - study the night before the exam).
4. Set unattainable or very difficult goals.

4. Failure-accepting students: Failure-accepting students accept failure and give up the struggle to demonstrate their ability and maintain their self-worth (Covington & Omelich, 1979). In essence, they neither approach success, nor avoid failure. Students attribute the cause of failure outcomes to their lack of ability (an internal and stable factor = entity view) and blame themselves (because of low ability) for failure. They also attribute the cause of success outcomes to external, uncontrollable factors. It means that effort is just a waste of time.

Therefore, failure-accepting students show similarity to students with learned helplessness, those who probably are capable of academic success, but think their efforts are useless. They are not motivated to study, because they believe that past failures are due to their lack of ability. Motivating these students is very hard because positive reinforcement for successes does not work with them, and to persuade them that they could succeed in the future occasions is difficult (Covington & Omelich, 1985).

Empirical support for these views is given by the study at the University of Michigan. A series of self-esteem studies has been conducted on more than 600 college freshman students three times during the year by the psychologist Jennifer Crocker (2002). Crocker made this study in order to prove that the dependence of self-worth on external factors is actually harmful to one's mental health. She was also arguing in her study that one's self esteem is an internal sense of worth and without self-worth self-esteem does not work. Overall, the students in her research indicated to have a high level of self-esteem. The question was about what they base their self-worth on. Their responses and distribution was as follows:

- More than 80% - academic competence,
- 77% - their family's support,
- 66% - doing better than others,
- 65 -70% - their appearance (women's response)

The findings of Crocker's (2002) study were interesting according to the responses of college students:

- Students who base their self-worth on academic performance, appearance and approval from others (all external reasons) reported more tension, anger, academic problems and relationship conflicts because of higher levels of alcohol and drug use.

- As they have serious problems in their personal and social life, they also have problems in academic performance.
- They did not reach academic success, despite being highly motivated and studying more than enough each week, compared to the students who did not rate academic performance as important to their self-worth.
- College students, who based their self-worth on academic outcomes, also report conflicts with professors and greater tension.
- Conversely, college students, who based their self-worth on internal sources, not only felt better, but also received academic success and were less likely to use drugs and alcohol.
- These students have higher motivation to be successful academically, but their self-worth does not depend on their academic performance and outcomes.
- She also argued that college students, who base their self-worth on academic outcomes, might be overwhelmed by the feelings of failure, and their anxiety might interfere with their motivation and then learning.

Conclusion

As Covington (1992) indicated, the best way to maintain one's self-worth for a student is to protect one's sense of academic competence. Even high-achieving students can be failure-avoidant because of the question that they ask themselves: *What if I try my best and then fail?* Rather than responding to a challenging task with a greater effort, these students may try to avoid the task in order to maintain both their own sense of competence, and others' conclusions regarding their competence. Focusing on the demonstration of competence may cause avoiding strategies. Thus, developing competence is the best choice in goal adaptation. Besides the pedagogical (clear presentation, effective activities) and managerial (effective planning, student engagement, pair and small group work) ways to support students' learning and positive views on it, the psychological ways (positive atmosphere in the class, explanation of the role of mathematics, of students' ability to perform the tasks, of teacher's belief in their abilities) are also very important.

Educators, especially teachers, in their class context have to realize the value of true self-worth. They need to answer these questions:

- Are their students proud of themselves for who they are, regardless of what they stand for or what actions they take?
- Are they valuable or worthy as persons in their eyes?

Teachers also have to realize that there are many psychologically beneficial ways for a person to value him/herself and assess his/her worth as a human being. Therefore, teacher's important role is to find out how to build this type of self-worth in their students and give the answer why so many students lack a feeling of worthiness in mathematics. All educators, who consider true self-worth as the student's inherent value, have to stop comparing their students' ability, capability relative to others as well as students' academic performance and outcomes with others in class context. Mathematics teachers has to support the student's self-worth, whatever the student's achievement in mathematics is. The students should be treated respectfully and not humiliated in front of other peers. However, privately, a teacher can recommend a student to change the majors for the one which is not based on the knowledge of mathematics.

To sum up the analysis in the sub-chapter, the researcher made up Table 2.4.

Table: Bases of self-worth and mathematics learning goal types

Bases	Learning goals
Competence (due to involvement)	Mastery goals
Support (teacher, family, others)	Mastery goals
Comparison to others	Performance-approach goals or performance avoidance goals, according to comparison results

(Designed by the researcher)

It is important for educators to inspire mastery goal-oriented behavior, therefore, they need to identify students with failure-avoiding or failure-accepting orientations.

Based on the theoretical findings, it is evident that teachers, in order to help students pose adequate goals and acquire knowledge and skills, should:

- not compare students to each other or let them make such comparisons, especially conclusions, who of them is gifted in mathematics and who is not (here the story about Isaac Newton's low grades in mathematics at school is helpful);

- explain that competence depends on efficient (with right cognitive strategies) work, not on genetic inclinations or gender only (here the story about Sophia Kovalevskays is useful);
- explain effective cognitive strategies;
- work with parents who should not put wrong and harmful ideas in their children's brains;
- provide sufficient doable practice, with difficulty level increasing step by step.

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Improving the use of OSCE as an Assessment Tool in Tikrit University College Of Medicine (TUCOM)

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Abstract

Background: Challenge Model is a sequences of steps that helps leaders/managers work with their teams to deal with one challenge at a time to overcome obstacles in order to achieve results. One of the problems in medical student's clinical assessment is rater variation. **Objective:** To overcome rater variation in clinical assessment of medical students. **Methods:** We used challenge model, whichl is a sequences of steps that helps leaders/managers work with their teams to deal with one challenge at a time to overcome obstacles in order to achieve results. Steps of challenge model are creating a shared vision and define one measurable result; assess the current situation and identify opportunities and obstacles;define your challenge and select priority actions; develop an action plan;and implement your plan and monitor and evaluate progress toward achieving your desired result. **Results:** Increase the use of OSCE as method for years 4, 5 and 6 students assessment in TUCOM by 60% to the end of 2013''CURRENT SITUATION* OSCE is used by 30% for assessment at the end of their clinical clerkship [6th year students only.] There is no suitable and comfortable place for using OSCE method in students assessment. Only around 40% of faculty members are interested in development and implementation of OSCE. **Conclusion:** The Challenge Model provides a systematic approach for working together –as a team- to identify and face one challenge at a time and achieve results. The model leads us through a process of forming commitment to a shared vision that contributes to realizing our organization's mission, defining and owing a challenge, prioritizing actions for implementation, and carrying out the work plan to achieve results .

Key words: assessment, medical college, OSCE.

INTRODUCTION:

Challenge Model is a sequences of steps that helps leaders/managers work with their teams to deal with one challenge at a time to overcome obstacles in order to achieve results. [1] the aim of this study is to overcome rater variation in clinical assessment of medical students.

Methods:

The Challenge Model include the following steps:

- create a shared vision and define one measurable result;
- assess the current situation and identify opportunities and obstacles;
- define your challenge and select priority actions;
- develop an action plan;
- implement your plan and monitor and evaluate progress toward achieving your desired result. [1]

Results:

Step 1. Review your organizational mission and strategic priorities.

TUCOM mission and strategic priorities were reviewed by our team.

Step 2. Create a shared vision

The created shared vision of the future for TUCOM is “

‘TUCOM founded on the advancement of knowledge through research and education. In which the common goal of improved health guides patient care, education, and research, thereby fostering the collective pursuit of knowledge and its translation, through education and application, to bettering the human condition.’”

This shared vision serves to inspire the team to face each new challenge.

Step 3. Agree on one measurable result

Thus the one measurable the team agreed on is “ Increase the use of OSCE as method for years 4,5 and 6 students assessment in pediatrics in TUCOM by 60% to the end of 2012”

Step 4. Assess the current situation

Current situation is:

- OSCE is used by 30% for assessment of TUCOM students at the end of their clinical clerkship [6th year students only].
 - There is no suitable and comfortable place for using OSCE method in students assessment.
 - Only around 40% of faculty members are interested in development and implementation of OSCE.

Step 5. Identify the obstacles and their root causes

Obstacles identified using SWOT analysis. Obstacles root causes were identified by using the Five Whys ? And Fishbone approaches.[1]

The obstacles are:

5.1. Some faculty members and students don't know what is OSCE, its validity and reliability.

- 5.2. Some staff are not adequately trained how to develop and implement OSCE.
- 5.3. The budget cut down affect the availability of OSCE resources.
- 5.4. The bad electrical supply after 2003, do affect the feasibility of OSCE uses.
- 5.5. The college administration not provided support for development and implementation of OSCE .
- 5.6. Many more faculty members and students need OSCE assessment method, but either are afraid to seek the services or do not well trained.

Step 6. Define your key challenge and select priority actions

The Challenge is:

How will we increase the use of OSCE when faculty members and students who need these services do not know how to use it?

Priority actions to address the challenge.

The Priority Matrix [Table 1] was used to rank actions based on the time it takes to complete them, cost, potential for improving quality, and availability of resources. [1] This tool can be used for prioritizing strategies and actions as part of developing an action plan [1].

- A. Train staff in providing high-quality OSCE.
- B. Get budget for providing resources of OSCE.
- C. Educating students about OSCE.

According to form described by Galler et al [1], all the above steps collected together and presented in Box 1.

Step 7. Develop an action plan

The action plan is presented in Table 2.

Step 8. Implement your plan and monitor and evaluate your progress

During implementation, the ideas to make improvements and bring about change often come to a halt [1]. Thus leadership and management are critical at this step. Leader can't always use the same old systems and processes when he is approaching his challenges in new ways [1].

Implementing your action plan

Planning and implementing are the two of the four key managing practices; however, the other six leading and managing practices will help us stay on course: [1]

1. Continuously scanning during implementation is needed so that we can anticipate potential problems or changes in the environment that could impact our work;
2. Focusing on specific challenges and set new priorities as needed;

3. Aligning of our team members to work together to deal with problems as they arise, mobilize new resources, and align new stakeholders as needed;
4. Organization of people to do the work in the most efficient and effective way, and re-assign duties or redistribute work or resources as needed;
5. Monitoring of progress along the way and make sure we have a feasible evaluation plan;
6. We should Inspire and motivate people to stay engaged.

However, during implementation, priorities that we have set may compete with urgent work arises during implementation.[1] The leader and his team may be diverted by the newly competing priorities and this newly emerged priorities my be not important. Thus the must consider these newly emerged priorities on scientific analysis.

To stay on the track and to achieve our results, we used the “**Putting First Things First: The Important and Urgent Matrix**” .

Monitoring and evaluating your progress

The monitoring and evaluation of the implemented process or program is of vital importance. By monitoring we are able to detect the deviation of the plan from the standards. Our results are to be formulated using the SMART rule and established clear baseline data, this will let our team to be able to monitor and evaluate our progress toward achieving the result. [Table 2]

The monitoring and evaluation of our model implementation progress will depend on the following mechanisms:

- a. **The level at which we are working,**
- b. **The complexity of our stated result, and**
- c. **The resources available.**

We focus on a particular activity and the data collected routinely, followed by analysis, which is either monthly or quarterly. Data collected at any point in implementation should be compared to the baseline data. We always use the challenge model to strengthen my leadership capabilities.

Supporting your team

During implementing of a new a new action plan, particularly when it involves changing , the team should expect the facing of obstacles. In addition, sometimes people outside the team (and maybe even some of your team members) may need explanations to understand the reasons for doing things differently and encouragement to try the new way [1,2]. Furthermore, we may need to work harder on aligning outside stakeholders around the challenge so we can get their cooperation. When you run into a sizable issue, it can lead to a breakdown.

Leading your team through breakdowns. One of the differences between a group of individuals and a high-performing team is that, in a team approach, difficulties and breakdowns are expected and embraced, and the team addresses the breakdowns together [1] the team used breakdown as catalysts for learning [1].

A breakdown is any situation that: [1]

- a. threatens progress toward a commitment*
- b. violates an explicit agreement*
- c. presents uncertainty or difficulty*
- d. stops effective action*
- e. presents obstacles to fulfilling your commitments*

It is very important to handle breakdown effectively in order to prevent minimizing or ignoring problems, blaming each other, or eroding teamwork, trust, and effectiveness. [1]. Breakdown well handling can be a major source of breakthroughs or finding new ways to approach our work and achieve results. During handling of breakdown, the team must remember that:

1. All large commitments will have breakdowns;
2. The greater your commitment, the more and greater the breakdowns will be;
3. when there is no commitment, there will be no breakdowns.

It is the leader job to help his team's members understand how to respond to breakdowns and to work with them to approach problems together and find a way through that will result in new and better ways of doing things. [1]

Acknowledging the team

To keep the members of the team inspired and motivated, the leader should point out and celebrate incremental results, and link those results to specific actions they have

taken. Above all, the leader should acknowledge and praise both individuals and the team on a regular basis, and be there to support them. **ge people's efforts**

Thus the team leader should: [1]

- a. show appreciation regularly to individuals and the team for their work;*
- b. acknowledge the challenges they are facing;*
- c. praise them whenever their work is well done, even if it is not at a major milestone;*
- d. thank them for their commitment and their daily efforts;*
- e. recognize them for their accomplishments and show how their work has made a difference.*

"Challenges and change are two constants in life. They are part of nature and part of our work life. By applying the Challenge Model and working with our team to follow the process, one step at a time, I will give my team direct experience in applying the leading and managing practices and see the results. At the same time, the members of the group will gain the confidence to tackle problems in the future, the skills

to inspire mutual commitment, experience in practicing effective teamwork, and above all, an opportunity to see how they can make a difference in people's lives" [1].

Challenge, feedback, and support.

When the teams implement their action plans they achieve measurable results, which, in turn, motivate them to take on a new challenge. Managers in the organization serve as facilitators and coaches to provide support and feedback during planning and implementation. In addition to providing an effective way to improve organizational performance and health outcomes, the program enables shared learning of best practices across units and regions [1,3].

Sustained improvements. The program requires an organization's commitment over time and is intended to become part of an organization's ongoing management and supervision system. The Leadership Development Program builds confidence in the organization's abilities to make continuous and sustained improvements in education and training programs [1,4]

Conclusions:

The Challenge Model provides a systematic approach for working together –as a team- to identify and face one challenge at a time and achieve results.

The model leads us through a process of forming commitment to a shared vision that contributes to realizing our organization's mission, defining and owning a challenge, prioritizing actions for implementation, and carrying out the work plan to achieve results. Many educational problems in TUCOM may be solved by application of Logic Model

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Table 1. Priority Matrix

Criteria Rank from 1 to 3	Priority actions		
	Training of Faculty Members	Budget	Educating the students about OSCE
Time to implement 1= the most time 3= the least time	3	1	2
Cost to implement 1= the highest cost 3= the lowest cost	3	3	3
Potential for improving quality in the long term 1= the least potential 3= the most potential	3	3	3
Availability of resources 1= the least available 3= the most available	3	1	2
Total	12	8	10

Box 1 Putting the steps all together.

VISION:

TUCOM founded on the advancement of knowledge through research and education. In which the common goal of improved health guides patient care, education, and research, thereby fostering the collective pursuit of knowledge and its translation, through education and application, to bettering the human condition.

MEASURABLE RESULT

Increase the use of OSCE as method for years 4,5 and 6 students assessment in pediatrics in TUCOM by 60% to the end of 2012''

CURRENT SITUATION

* OSCE is used by 30% for assessment at the end of their clinical clerkship [6th year students only.]

- There is no suitable and comfortable place for using OSCE method in students assessment.
- Only around 40% of faculty members are interested in development and implementation of OSCE.

OBSTACLES AND ROOT CAUSES

1. Some faculty members and students don't know what is OSCE, its validity and reliability.
2. Some staff are not adequately trained how to develop and implement OSCE.
3. The budget cut down affect the availability of OSCE resources.
4. The bad electrical supply after 2003, do affect the feasibility of OSCE uses.
6. The college administration not provided support for development and implementation of OSCE .
7. Many more faculty members and students need OSCE assessment method, but either are afraid to seek the services or do not well trained.

CHALLENGE

How will we increase the use of OSCE when faculty members and students who need these services do not know how to use it?

PRIORITY ACTION TO ADDRESS THE CHALLENGE

- Train staff in providing high-quality OSCE.
- Get budget for providing resources of OSCE.
- Educating students about OSCE.

Table 2: PREPARING MONITORING AND EVALUATION PLANS

Challenge:	Desired measurable result:
How will we increase the use of OSCE when faculty members and students who need these services do not know how to use it?	Increase the use of OSCE as method for years 4,5 and 6 students assessment in pediatrics in TUCOM by 60% to the end of 2012''
What are the indicators linked to your desired result?	Number of faculty members who join the training programs annually
From where will you get the data for these indicators?	College administration
How will you collect the data?	In a prospective study design, we follow up the HRD records
What is the frequency of data collection?	Every 6 months
What is the period covered by the baseline?	One year
When will the follow-up measure be taken	December 2012

PROPOSED MODEL FOR IMPROVING FIELD TEACHING IN IRAQI MEDICAL COLLEGES THROUGH COMMUNITY- UNIVERSITY PARTNERSHIP: TIKRIT UNIVERSITY EXPERIENCE : PROPOSED CBE PROGRAM

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Abstract

Background: Medical education in many countries includes periods that students spend in the community. In many countries, including the EMRO region, a move towards more community-oriented teaching has increased the need for rural community-based education (CBE) for medical students during recent years. At the same time, new policies and social changes have created difficulties for community-based education. The CBE concept represents important trends in current methods of education as a whole. It involves the integration of education and productive work within the learning process and the participation of all those involved in the actual work. The distribution of CBLA throughout the duration of the curriculum is an essential characteristic of a CBE program. **Objective:** Enhance the capacity of the 23 Iraqi medical schools in community-oriented curriculum development and to implement and improve the quality of the teaching. **METHODOLOGY:** To be systematic, the program commenced with identifying the knowledge, attitude and skills [outcomes] that a general medical doctor graduating from any medical schools in Iraq should have From the agreed KAS came curriculum renovation, teaching/learning material development, then updating teaching/learning methods and student assessment tools to fit with the identified community-oriented KAS. One important aspect was to improve field teaching so that it would contribute more to the training of community-oriented doctors, who would then have a better understanding of the rural community's health needs, and better skills to meet those needs. The research method used in this study is case study evaluation. **Results:** The results and lessons were summarized, screened for frequently occurring or repeated terms and concepts as well as associations, then presented and compared in diagrams and matrices. Data from different sources and obtained by different methods were used to triangulate, in combination with participant observation and data from feedback surveys, to maximize the validity of the results. **Conclusion:** supervising and assessing students with all of these inputs, a model for community– university partnership was developed and adopted for intervention at all Iraqi medical schools.

Key words: community, Iraq, medical, teaching.

Introduction:

Medical education in many countries includes periods that students spend in the community.[1] In many countries, including the EMRO region, a move towards more community-oriented teaching has increased the need for rural community-based education (CBE) for medical students during recent years.[2,3] At the same time, new policies and social changes have created difficulties for community-based education. The CBE

concept represents important trends in current methods of education as a whole [4]. It involves the integration of education and productive work within the learning process and the participation of all those involved in the actual work. The distribution of CBLA throughout the duration of the curriculum is an essential characteristic of a CBE program [4]. **WHO [1987]** identified four main types of student learning activity in community settings. CBME aim is to produce graduates who are responsive to the health needs of their community [1]. CBME is a powerful teaching and learning strategy that allows students to study the source, nature and magnitude of health and related problems [2]. CBE has been found to have several benefits [4] and CBE to be an effective program must fulfil certain conditions and conform to certain guiding principles, such as: the students activities should relate to planned educational goals and objectives, the activities should be introduced very early in the program, they must be continue throughout the educational program, student must be active in the education and learning process, and there is a full exposure of students and faculty to the community [4].

GUIDELINES FOR CBE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT.

The guidelines for curriculum development include the followings [5].

1. Goals and brief overview of the curriculum.
2. Key educational features of community based curriculum.
3. Nature of experience for each academic year.
4. Main learning objectives.
5. Curriculum committee (composition, meetings, main tasks)
 - 5.1. Develop goals, strategies and objectives.
 - 5.2. Identify resources needed.
 - 5.3. Develop student assessment and course evaluation tools.
 - 5.4. Agree on student's recruitment, selection, orientation methods.
 - 5.5. Identify and/or communicates with communities.
6. Curriculum coordination.
7. Campus faculty, health centre faculty: roles, orientation and development.
8. Community: selection, preparation, orientation.
9. Students: recruitment, selection, orientation.
10. Curriculum documents.
11. Fields attachment: logistics, activity, learning contracts.
12. Tutor roles and responsibilities.
13. Summaries of student project activities.

TITLE OF THE CURRICULUM: Community –based education program for undergraduate medical students in Iraqi Medical schools.

Context: Summary of key features and objectives of M B Ch B degree.

This is a competency –based medical curriculum. It is also a community-oriented, community-based incorporating problem-based learning and integrated across disciplines, and student centred. This type of curriculum was recommended by WHO at the Alma-Ata Declaration in 1978, and the Abuja Declaration in 1989.

By graduation, student expected to be able to:

- Understand the structure and organization of a community, its functions, resources, and interrelationships of the various components.
- Identify and explain factors that affect the health of the Iraqi community.
- Plan, implement and evaluate measures that promote and improve health.
- Demonstrate an understanding of PHC and participate in its implementation.

- Understand government health policies and the organization of health care delivery service in Iraq.
- Deliver effective, safe and ethical preventive and curative health care services.

GOALS AND OVERVIEW OF THE PROGRAM:

CBE curriculum activities are a major component of six year Iraqi medical schools program. It constitutes around 23% of the total learning period. The goal of the CBE program is to train medical students who will be able to work in the community while placing emphasis on promotive and preventive health care. The program distributed over 6 years of the medical study period and consisted of:

- a. Rural and urban PHC attachment.[phase I,II, and III]
- b. Community research project [Phase I,II, and III]
- c. Hospital-based activities [Elective]
- d. Family health care attachment [phase II and III]
- e. Occupational health unit attachment [Phase III]
- f. Rural community project of the university [Phase I,II,III]

Overall aims of CBE program.

- a. Enable students to acquire understanding of health problems of various Iraqi communities.
- b. Prepare students to learn in the context of their future professional practice.
- c. Implement an interdisciplinary approach to medical education that integrates the participation of all departments.
- d. Participate in improving health of the community through rendering services and carrying out research.
The study years objectives are shown in Appendix A below.

AIM OF THE PROJECT:

Enhance the capacity of the 23 Iraqi medical schools in community-oriented curriculum development and to implement and improve the quality of the teaching.

METHODOLOGY:

To be systematic, the program commenced with identifying the knowledge, attitude and skills [outcomes] that a general medical doctor graduating from any medical schools in Iraq should have [6]. The outcomes were first identified by teachers from the 23 colleges, and then checked with newly practicing doctors and final year students about to graduate from the Iraqi medical schools. From the agreed KAS came curriculum renovation, teaching/learning material development, then updating teaching/learning methods and student assessment tools to fit with the identified community-oriented KAS. One important aspect was to improve field teaching so that it would contribute more to the training of community-oriented doctors, who would then have a better understanding of the rural community's health needs, and better skills to meet those needs.

The method of curriculum evaluation designed by Coles and Grant [7] includes three phases: first the written plan, then the actual teaching process and last the results, checking the latter two against the first. This approach has also been used to evaluate a community-based period in the medical curriculum by Kristina, et al. [8, 9]. In the present project a similar approach was used, but an additional phase was added to the preparation: a trial phase in which we explored the building of a community– university partnership model to identify appropriate ways to involve the community in field teaching. Finally, feedback from

local health staff, communities and the students who participated in field teaching were collected to evaluate the program. Looking at the inputs and outputs through these phases, the Iraqi medical schools could clearly recognize the benefits of involving all stakeholders actively and of working on the basis of commitment to an approach of mutual benefit. The factors affecting participation by all stakeholders are discussed here, based on theories of motivation. [3, 10]. This approach produced more appropriate and effective field training programs in the context of the change in Iraq.

The four steps in the intervention are outlined (**Fig1**). The baseline data were obtained during the first inter-school field teaching workshop in 2001 (before the intervention), from the pilot intervention and from experience as the project was implemented. Before the first workshop, a representative team from each school prepared a report on their existing situation, challenges and plans for field teaching. The reports also served for comparison among the schools. Stakeholder

analysis identified the roles and needs of each stakeholder in each location, which lead to a plan to improve the field teaching programs in the 23 medical schools. One large challenge was to involve the local health staff and rural community effectively and in a way that motivated and

satisfied them. Therefore, a pilot intervention was performed by TUCOM at three communes in a

rural district to explore a model of community–university partnership. At the same time, experiences from projects on CBE in TUCOM and other projects on field teaching in Mosul, Basrah and Almustansyria Medical Schools were also taken into consideration in completing the community– university partnership model. The interventions were decided to be carried out in all Iraqi medical schools from 2003 to 2006.

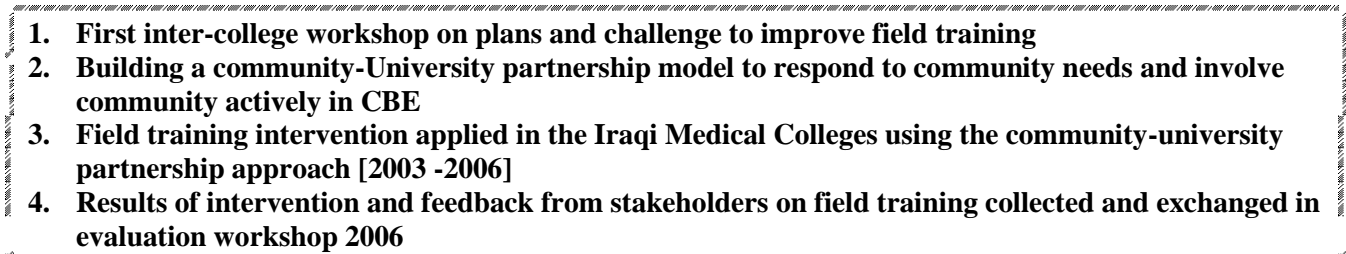
- 
- 1. First inter-college workshop on plans and challenge to improve field training**
 - 2. Building a community-University partnership model to respond to community needs and involve community actively in CBE**
 - 3. Field training intervention applied in the Iraqi Medical Colleges using the community-university partnership approach [2003 -2006]**
 - 4. Results of intervention and feedback from stakeholders on field training collected and exchanged in evaluation workshop 2006**

Fig. 1. Steps for improving field training of community –based education program for Iraqi Medical Colleges.

One large challenge was to involve the local health staff and rural community effectively and in way that motivated and satisfied them. [11,12] Therefore, a pilot intervention was performed by TUCOM at three communes in a rural district to explore a model of community–university partnership. At the same time, experiences from a project on CBE in TUCOM and another project on field training in Mosul, Basrah and Almustansyria medical colleges were also taken into consideration in completing the community–university partnership model. The interventions is planned to be implemented in all Iraqi Medical Colleges from 2002 to 2006.

To check the achievements and lessons learnt from the field training intervention, in 2006 the Iraqi schools to collaborate in a multi-centre survey. They should interview a rural health staff

involved in their field training programs as preceptors as well as community members. They also plan to conduct 46 focus group discussions among local authorities at rural field training sites to obtain their opinions. Additional information came from a feedback survey performed by the TUCOM team using a

structured questionnaire among students who had just returned from their field training period in rural districts of nearby provinces.

RESULTS:

The research method used in this study is **case study evaluation**, in which data were collected from different sources (participatory stakeholder workshops, surveys, pilot interventions, project documents and reports) using different methods (semi-structured questionnaires, informal interviews, structured interviews using checklists, focus group discussions and participant observation), before and after interventions with experimental steps. The results and lessons were summarized, screened for frequently occurring or repeated terms and concepts as well as associations, then presented and compared in diagrams and matrices. The Herzberg motivation theory [13] was also applied to identify factors that would motivate stakeholders' effective involvement in the field training program. Data from different sources and obtained by different methods were used to triangulate, in combination with participant observation and data from

feedback surveys, to maximize the validity of the results.

Challenges to field teaching before the intervention

Since market mechanisms were introduced in 1992 and the private sector started to develop, budget allocation to medical schools became more decentralized, and teachers started to set up private practices and so were less willing to take the time to go with students for field training. Rural residents at the field training sites were also influenced by the market mechanism, having greater access to medical care on the one hand, and paying more attention to other kinds of benefits on the other. These changes made field training more difficult to organize.

At the same time, the Ministry of Health (MOH) requested that the schools provide doctors with a more community-oriented background to prepare them better for service in the community.

At the first inter-school workshop in 2002, a number of key challenges and barriers were identified for all stakeholders (**Fig 2**). For schools, field training was complicated and costly to organize because schools had to identify and prepare the rural field training sites, pay for transport, accommodation and mission allowances for teaching staff and organizers, and supervise students more carefully than in the university environment.

These difficulties had considerable influence on the practice of field training in Iraq's medical schools. The quality of field training no longer met the needs and requirements of the MOH policy or of society (**Fig3**). During the first workshop it became clear that improving partnerships among the stakeholders, respecting each one's need for benefits and motivating they would be the main approach to improve field training in the eight schools. The community–university partnership was especially targeted for improvement. Because most of the teachers in the medical schools were still inexperienced in ensuring that communities were actively involved in CBE, a pilot intervention was planned to test an approach that could motivate and involve local health staff and communities.

For schools: Field training was complicated and costly to organize because schools had to identify and prepare the rural field training sites, pay for transport, accommodation and mission allowances for teaching staff and organizers,

and supervise students more carefully than in the university environment.

2. **For teaching staff:** Because of their low salaries from the university, most teachers needed additional jobs or a practice in private clinics to earn sufficient money. If they joined the field training at rural sites, they would lose that extra income. Also, many were still inexperienced in teaching students in the field.

3. **For students:** Because the quality of field training was not high and not easy to assess, some schools did not assign marks or credits for the field periods, which did not encourage students to take them seriously as a learning experience. The attitudes of the doctors supervising them may have strengthened this perception.

4. **For the community and local health staff:** The field training programs were designed mainly for the learning needs of students and availability of expertise and resources of the schools, but did not pay enough attention to needs and benefits of other stakeholders, such as teachers accompanying the students, the local health staff and services or the people in the rural communities where the field training took place. At the same time, due to the introduction of the market economy, the people in the community were often busy with activities to earn money, and had come to expect to receive some benefit for any service provided, so they were not always as willing to have students to stay and study in their community as they had been previously.

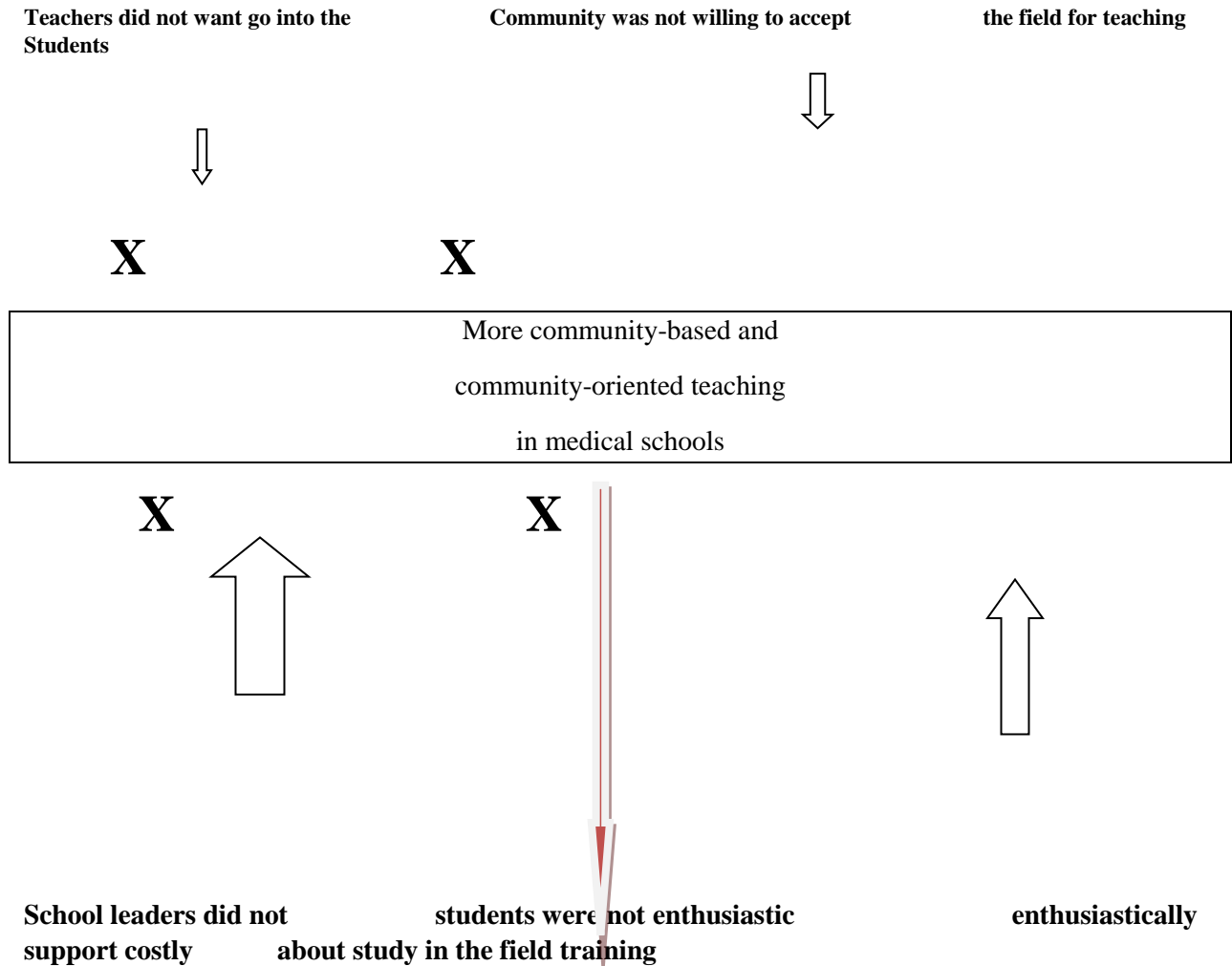
5. **For policy-makers:** Policies related to field training were formulated by education experts and did not encourage teachers to go to the field. For example, 4 hours' teaching in the field were weighted as equivalent to one hour's teaching in the classroom or 2 hours' practical teaching in hospitals or laboratories, while other incentives for teachers to go into the field did not compensate for this discrepancy.

6. **For all:** All eight schools had different periods and timing for field training, and the objectives not only varied but were often not clearly formulated. The approaches to involving local health workers and the communities also varied greatly, including them being given very little attention at all.

Figure 2: Barriers to field teaching in medical schools before 2002: results of stakeholder analysis.

Needs of policy and society:
Doctors should be trained to be more
community oriented





- ❖ Field teaching was mostly done by teachers in the faculty in the department of public health, because many schools considered ‘community’ to be the business of public health teachers → missed opportunities for community-oriented clinical practice.
- ❖ Topics for field training were mostly in public health and preventive medicine and were selected on the basis of ease of organization, rather than the learning needs of students working in the field → missed opportunities for learning about clinical and basic medicine in the community.
- ❖ Local health staff were involved only as guides, and did not have the chance to share their medical experience with students. They were not involved in supervising or assessing students, but schools did not have enough teachers in the field → students lacked support and supervision → student behavior in learning and working with community was often inappropriate → low quality of field training and low level of partnership with community.
- ❖ Because field training quality was low, several schools did not assign marks to these sessions → students were not very motivated to learn field training

FIG.3. Barriers to field teaching and their effects on community-oriented learning before 2002

Building a community–university partnership model

Senior and junior teaching staff of TUCOM worked with three communes [Alhijaj, Awinat, and Almazraa villages] in a densely-populated, urbanizing rural area near Tikrit to build a model that supported health staff and volunteers at community level in solving local health problems using an evidence-based planning approach. First, the TUCOM and MOH staff visited the district and the three communes to discuss with them what they needed and what the university could provide. They agreed that the local people needed to be better able to analyze their own problems and find solutions for them, using the skills of action research. That was something the university could provide. A pool of trainers was established, including TUCOM staff and staff from the all IMCs, MOH, and a few experienced staff at provincial and district levels. The pool included both experienced and junior staff, to provide opportunities for learning and sharing experiences and to ensure supervision during action research and implementation of interventions. Together, the staff trained and supervised six staff of the PHCC and the village health workers in three communes. The participants learned to identify problems and to collect data (existing and new) to describe and prioritize the problems and then look for solutions. They learned by participating in a series of training courses alternating with practice periods, as presented (**Fig 4**). The participants selected three topics for action research and intervention: malnutrition in children under five; pesticide abuse by farmers; and traffic accidents in an urbanizing area. By participating in all project activities, staff from TUCOM learned how to work with community health workers and others in a participatory way. They also learned how to teach evidence-based planning and management for health workers at grassroots level. A pilot model for a community–university partnership was established that respected the needs of, and ensured benefits for, all partners.

At the same time, experience from the other projects supporting community-based teaching in other medical schools was reviewed. In the TUCOM, for example, students were assigned to follow at least 10 households in their catchment area during their 6 years in the medical school; they helped the families improve their health, both in preventive and curative aspects. That project also shared the experience of how to guide learning for students at district hospitals and commune health centers, and how to ensure that local health staff had clear roles in the field training. Experience from the Rural Health project and another project focused on CBE contributed ideas about how to recruit, assess, train and reward district health staff for participation in training, supervising and assessing students. With all of these inputs, a model for community–university partnership was developed and adopted for intervention at all Iraqi medical schools

Conclusion:

1. Achievements of intervention.

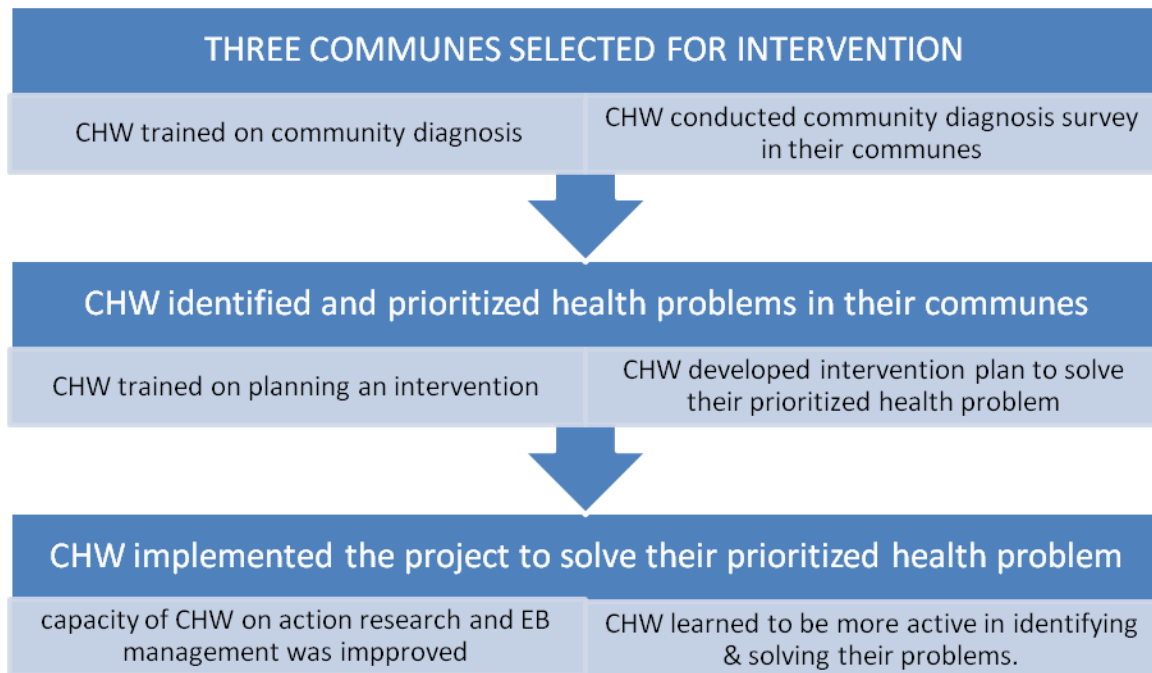
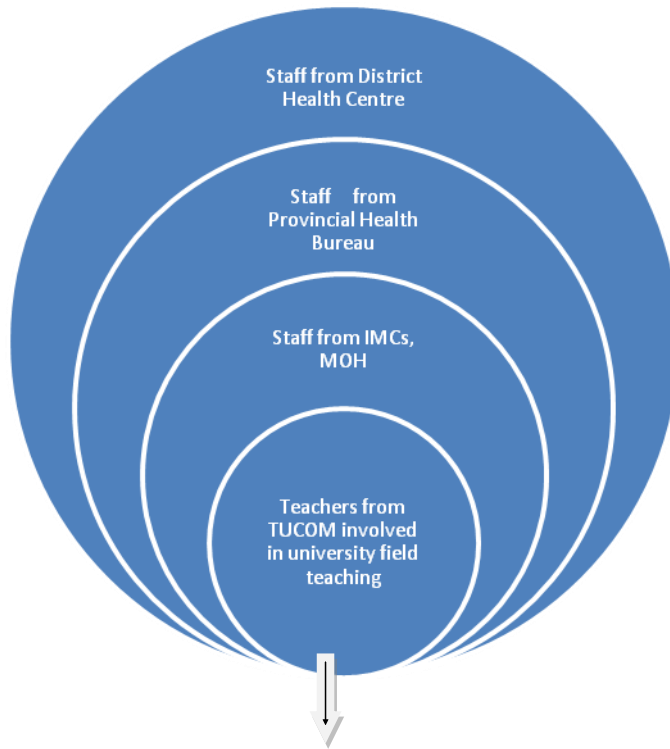
The results and achievements of the intervention are to be summarized in Form A, comparing columns according to the situation before and Conclusion: after intervention.

2. Evaluation of the intervention by different stakeholders.

To evaluate the improvements in CBE and achievements of community-university partnership approach, surveys to be performed among the three important field teaching stakeholders:

1. Local health staff who become preceptors for field teaching;
2. Community members and local authorities at the field training sites; and

3. The students.



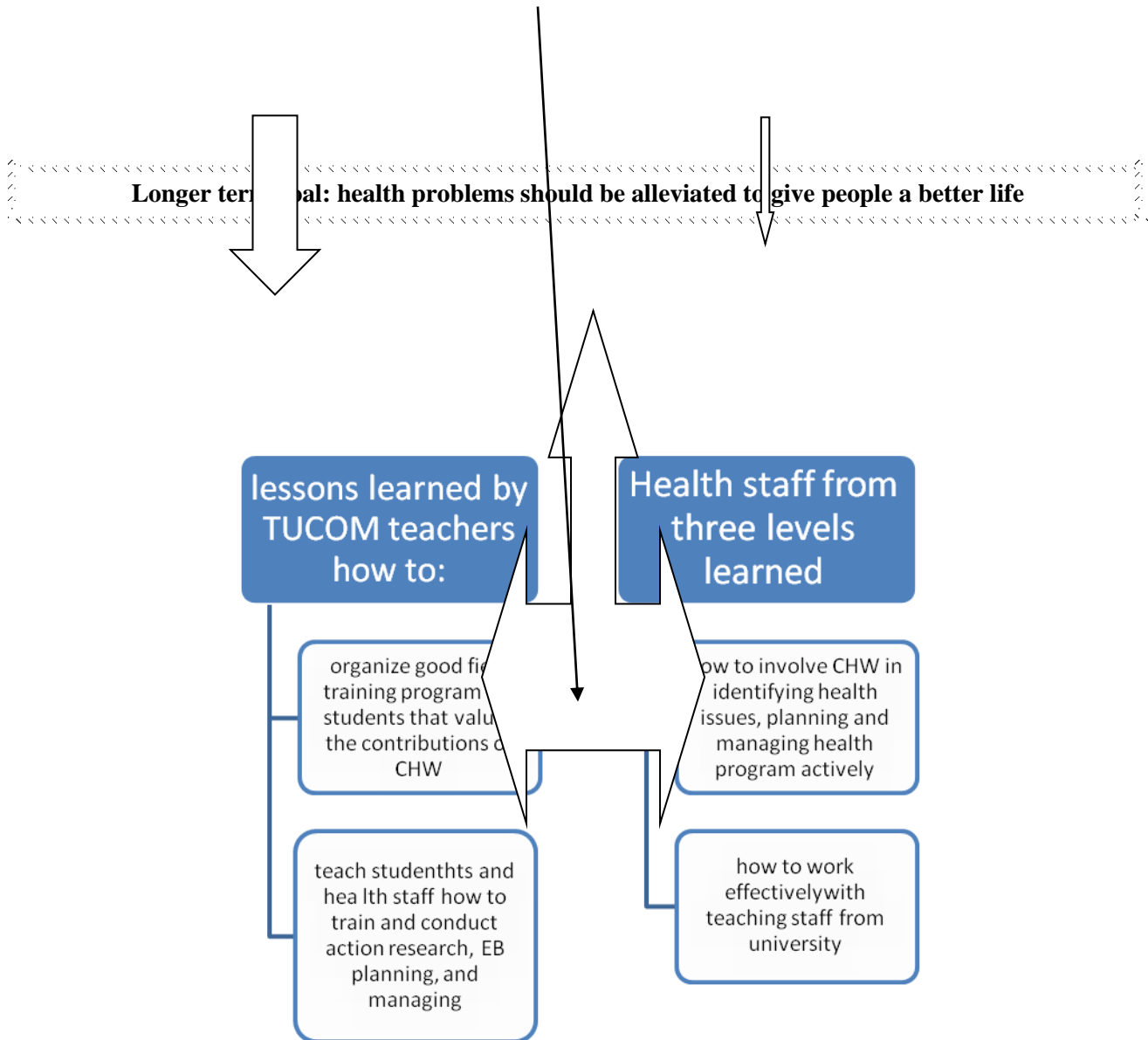


Fig 4. Process of evidence-based planning and project management and its achievements. CHW: community health workers

Form A: Achievements of field training after the intervention

Intervention areas	Before intervention	After intervention
Agreement among eight medical schools on FT	Each school had their own objectives and plan for FT; the quantity and quality	

	of FT varied greatly	
Objectives of the field learning for students	Not clear and not the same in every school, depended on the teachers involved, characteristics of the field sites, availability of resources and feasibility to organize	
Departments involved in FT	Only a few teachers in public health departments involved in organizing and implementing FT	
Involvement of local health staff	Mostly as local organizers and guides, not as teachers; had no influence on students	
Year of study and duration of FT	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Varied among schools, mostly third year and fifth year joined FT <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Duration from 4 to 6 weeks during 6 years	
Preparation of students for FT	❖ Students often prepared only logistics, not learning contents and experiences <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Many schools taught theory topics related to FT at the field sites instead of real practice	
Topics taught in the field	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Topics were mainly from departments of public health, such as health education, health organization, nutrition, environment and immunization <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Topics were easy to organize (not based on needs of stakeholders)	
FT sites	Each school had 1–2 field sites, often commune health centers that were upgraded to be models for students _ not representative of work places for students after graduation	
Field teaching, learning materials	Produced by a few teachers in public health departments who were assigned to organize FT	

Assessment of students in FT	Students had to write a report to show what they did and learned in the field but, due to lack of supervision, this was not awarded marks towards their study progress	
Support of schools for FT	FT had become a relatively unimportant activity; the focus was on hospital-based teaching	
Community– university partnership in FT	FT was conducted based on the needs of students only_ teachers, local authority, local health staff and community people were not satisfied	

Form B. Feedback from stakeholders

Issue	Local health staff	Community members	Students
Study population			
Study sites			
Sample size and methods			
Main finding			
Commitment, comments and suggestions			

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Culture, Society and Civilizational Changes. A sociolinguistics study.

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Abstract

Today the world see a bunch of develop meets and change these change are new and one of most obvious changes are cultures and civilization changes, these changes now a days see them in different fields, civil, Social, economic , political, media. It's obvious on this stage that it's still growing, and acts intrinsic roles in building societies and also in building new civilizations, because culture has an essential role in changing society to a modern one, when culture plays an important role like the way we talked about so the society will grow in every aspect s.

This study that we talked about consists of three chapters and each chapter consists of two researches, the first chapter called the general frame for studies, marking the first research equals the researcher in that research. The second research makes the terminologies and the scientific concepts, the second chapter called the role of culture in social changes. The first research in this chapter has stages or steps of braking down the society and the second research has the great changes in the society, the third chapter called the explained theories for cultured poetry. The first one civilization consists of the theory of changing civilization and the second research of this third chapter the causes of this civilization changes and finally the important results which the researcher hoped to find out.

Introduction

The world is witnessing a series of developments and changes that is unprecedented, and perhaps the most important phenomenon of discord and shifts of civilization, which we are feeling the effects in various aspects of cultural, social, economic and political life, the media, and this stage leads significant roles in the cultural building of the community even though it is still in the formative stage, when the culture leads its role as a civilization and social phenomena , it aimed at the development and modernization of all social spheres. This study consists of three chapters, each chapter of the two sections, the first chapter: falls under the title: (general framework for the study and identification of concepts), and the researcher sheds lights in the first section on the study of the general framework and in the second section on identifying scientific concepts and terminology, However; the second chapter is entitled (the role of culture in social transformations), and the researcher in the first part highlights the evolution of societies, while in the second topic deals with the Great social transformations, and the third chapter entitled: (Explained theories of cultural and social changes), and the researcher in the first section sheds light on the theories of, cultural and social changes, while the second section has dealt with the factors causing cultural and social changes and finally, the researcher browse the most important findings .

Chapter One

General framework for study and identify concepts

First topic: the general framework of the study

(1) The Problem of the Study

Culture is the cornerstone of the community and it is made up social fabric, and anything that affects the culture negatively affects directly and in any way on the community, and is the cultural core of the system in all societies, whether the small or large, the major rule in establishing peoples excavator and build its laurels and that any defect occurs in the cultural system of a society, is a harbinger of a threat to his being civilized social system, hence the study highlights a problem in the fact that culture and society concepts overlap and independent at the same time, we can't find a society without a culture, and at the same time it is independent with it because culture is its production and industry . It is hard to imagine the existence of a society free of cultural product. .

(2)The importance of the study

The importance of this study being analytical study for the installation of the society and the changes in it, whether that was in the cultural side, or in the social aspect, especially the role of culture independent factor in this study, as well as The study concentrated on the study of the nature of the changes taking place in society, which influenced to a large extent on the nature of contemporary society and the lifestyle of individuals prevailing, and the importance of this study lies also in ideas concerning changes expected to occur and how to handle it as well as compared to the past. .

(3)The objectives of the study

(1) This study aims at identifying the extent of culture compounds relationship patterns of different communities present in our world today as a product of culture and social group. .

(2) Identifying the changes and transformations of civilization that come as a result of the interaction of culture with the community. .

(3) This study aims to identify that the culture of the community and cultural change magnets that two factors go hand in hand, and cannot be separated from each other.

(4) The methodology of the study

The curriculum; the way that leads to truth in science by a number of methodological general rules that going by mental processes, to reach a result of information, so the researcher chose the descriptive and analytical method in this study, as well as that this kind of approach (descriptive and analytical) is rigor and breadth of its content and scope, and encompassing all the dimensions of the study.

The second topic

Identify concepts

(1) Culture and Society

Are among the most obvious concepts that we rely on to understand the social being, it is difficult to imagine life without them, and the researcher will shed light on the subject of culture.

The concept of culture is so broad that it includes all the things that appear on our behavior and our dealings daily different facets. The sociologists divide culture section of two types: material culture that embraces all that is made by man in his life and everything produced by human labor of tangible objects, as well as all get it rights through the use of technical arts to achieve its objectives and compatibility with the environment as tools and various machinery used in the solution and fix the live problems in all its forms, while culture that is not material is the physical manifestation include behavior that represents the customs, traditions and ideals,

ideas, values and beliefs that represent the social and physical world. If the material culture includes all the material things in a certain format and reflect on the physical level of the culture, they do not differ from the intellectual and culture that is not material, which represents the second level of the culture, because the basis of culture exists in the human mind, and the value of material things if there is no wise and knowledge we can use.

In spite of everything we know it is part of our culture, but the community is a group of people with a common culture occupies spatially part is checked every humanitarian groups staying in places and regions recognizable and these groups are well represented and obey central authority (Abu Zeid, 1975, p. 176) The researcher doesn't agree with those few who used the terms culture and society widely used interactively. In contrast, the researcher believes that the term culture as a way of life may have evolved and produced thanks to human, therefore longer culture overall social heritage of mankind, a tool that adapts to the individual with the environment and his method optimal for the survival compatibility or adjustment carried out by the man toward conditions that are constantly changing, as it always devise ways to adapt to the different requirements of life, and over time accumulate knowledge and experiences and thus becomes more human ability to shape the emerging world of social integration with nature. In spite of the different communities, but that both of them face similar problems every communities suffer at times of exposure to the problems of unsatisfactory, which requires finding a solution one way or another to this pathological problems, we find that some communities rely on complex institutions and sophisticated techniques to deal with this problem, whereas other communities are dealing with this problem in a primitive way that may reach to resort magic and sorcery. Communities should face the questions that bother the origin and the presence of the spirits own humanity, such

as: Where do we come from? And where are we going? And what after death? These questions are characterized by being general in different cultures. Both communities have myths and beliefs, legends, religions that can answer such questions. (Labib,199, p 101.)

(2) Values and Standards

Every society has a pattern of values and its own standards, values are trade-offs in which the people involved about what is good and what is wretched, and what is health and what is wrong? As part of the culture values affect behavior and emotions and thinking For example, people who appreciate the science and knowledge and they give supreme value we find them strongly protesting what their views and suggestions were not taken into account in the society of any kind and the type of system in it. A lot of sociologists unanimously agreed that different cultures emphasize individual ambition and hard work, equality, democracy and social justice and traditional family, love, honor, honesty and generosity values ... and those values cherished by the majority of parents in the education of their children, that the values espoused by people originating culture and community experiences that occur on them. (Jabber, 1988, p34-35). In spite of some frequent and present values of the broad base of people but this does not mean they exist when all or more of these values are subject to change. For example, the concept of democracy before the proclamation of the People's Authority and the issuance of the first chapter of the Green Book were not mean what we mean today, and longer values directed years of human behavior, and occupies a central position within the personal configuration and layout of knowledge for individuals (Halabi, 1996, p. 128). And reflect the standards specific to how human behavior toward a specific position expectations, they provide us hold knowledge to the trends of behavior that we can use it in specific social situations, that we actually do not know what are the specific

criteria that can lead us to a sense of anxiety and tension (Alsaati, 1995 , p. 97). The new student of the university, for example, feel fear because he does not know exactly what is required of him in the classroom, for that, several questions come to mind such as: What should I say? What should I do?, what is the appropriate clothing? , But when he knew the right answers to these and other questions will disappear anxiety and tension that had been suffering from it. The standards vary in their importance those that address the needs unimportant relatively such as those affecting the way of thinking or feeling. For example usual when we meet one of our friends to take a salute saying: Peace be upon you at the meeting, and (with safety) when you leave, as well as expect others Initiative apologize when committing inappropriate behavior toward us, all those expectations are the norms of, that breach produce moral punishments such as disgust or blame or simple comments are not devoid of kindness that, in contrast, there is taboo that is religiously and customary punishable by the degree of punishment that may reach execution.

(3) Language and symbols

Although we usually think that communicating with others is through words, whether written or spoken. However, there is a tremendous amount of communication is through the icons under all circumstances, it is clear and true that most of the things that can be described by using symbols. Laughter symbolizes happiness and frown to anger. Some icons may represent a valuable its cultural and political significance of all the symbols used in the communication and its meaning is the language of the strongest and most complex, language consists of words symbolize the ideas and themes and rules for the Coordination of words to become more prolonged and complex, composed as well as from the lexicon of words and rules, although some animals used some of the aspects of the language but the

language of human beings without doubt is at a high degree of complexity and transparency. It is not surprising that we find most people are devoting a large part of their time in life to learn the proper use of language? Language is part of the cultural heritage and which is expressed at the same time. It is very important in social cognition, thinking and knowledge with others, and so it is necessary for social existence. (Alsaati, 1995, p. 114). Language is a strong and coherent symbols that contribute to build and refine our perception of the world around us, hence, we have no choice but to deal with the world around us through words and rules in our mother language. The current lack of a number of balance languages, it is the thousands of languages used, but the number seems a little than before left, and is now used by a relatively large number of people so as to ensure continuity in the foreseeable future, many of the languages of the people of the world had ceased to exist when the institution cultures for those languages disappeared. The Arabic language as the language of science, civilization and commerce , there is no fear that it will face denaturation, but that does not mean that it cannot be the case in the disappearance of disappearance ripe conditions. The world is today, thanks to the presence of modern communication technologies more like a small village, which has become his people speak a few languages and what calls for fear the most is: When languages die out and disappear, the cumulative different cultural expertise that produced that language will disappear as well. (Ghay, 1988, p. 107).

(4) Intolerance and cultural relativism

Not surprising to find some people consider their culture is better among all cultures i, they look to other cultures with a mixture of suspicion and aversion, and these feelings is one of the foundations of cultural intolerance, the trend toward measuring other cultures and judged by our own culture produces simply belief that our culture is the best among the other cultures, and in light of current international

variables admitted sociologists that cultural intolerance has become a hallmark of thinking, as this thinking has become a form of originality and preservation of identity in contrast, excessive intolerance is itself a problem and especially when this pride translates into the fields of economics and politics.

To avoid the resulting sense of cultural superiority to think about the impact we must accept other cultures with an open mind and a sufficient amount of enthusiasm to accept the best of them. And the idea of multiculturalism and the cultural relativity close relationship, but the two ideas have different roots, cultural pluralism began basic interest in them during the sixties of the twentieth century have not received their share, but in the last twenty years. And the fact that human innovative culture, made us believe in the existence of it in all communities. there are the people of the whole world techniques will help them to glean from what it takes to preserve the life and follow-up activity The elements of culture differ from one society to another, but we find vary within the same country, so is every culture outcome of experiences past and present of a people, and that one cannot understand the culture, but in view of its past and the use of historical documents and archaeological discoveries. (Belize and Hwaijer, 1986, p. 56). The goal of teaching multiculturalism was to attempt to integrate the views and themes of other cultures in the curriculum as well as it is important to give the student an integrated picture of the society in which they taught their culture with full respect for cultural differences within the community, and cultural relativism giving began with the first beginnings of social Anthropology at the beginning of the twentieth century, which means that man does not come to understand or assess social phenomena without looking at the phenomenon in question and without reference to the role played by the cultural and social pattern, the judgment and evaluation of a particular culture habits do not come to us only through the associated values and their relationship to

the ethical rules and expectations, relativity cultural means that we must rule on each element of behavior through relation to place cultural construction distinctive culture and society classify important concepts at the basis of our understanding of the communities of humanity, if we look at the community as a representative of a group of individuals, the culture, their way of life and if it is designated a set of social relationships, the culture is the content of this their mutual relations, it means the cumulative all physical forms and other material that people gains and use them and transform them among themselves, which also regulate the actions and necessary as a catalyst for the mind, as well as It provides us with the tools and understanding necessary for social life, while the community provides us with landmarks of social construction, which regulates our relationships with others. (Halabi, 1996, p. 103).

Communities differ from each other in many ways, but they often face similar problems in the heart of every society there are cultural values and standards. Values are what people involved in the preference and standards translate these values and serve as a guide for our behavior in selected topics. People interact with each other through their use of codes that the most important of which is language which is one of the units of the strong culture that transmits information to others and regulate our sense and our sense of the world around us, considering that our culture is different from other communities, our language, which may make us feel superiority and intolerance in our assessment of the other cultures and, as previously noted by the researcher that this problem needs to develop its own cultural relativism, which is each individual and valid culture trend.

Civilization Changes

The civilization Omar began to establish and passed the stage of maturity of civilization and then entered the aging stage as weakness, like human life appeared

in, but they differ from human free of transitions, they are a set of attitudes, and notes here that civilization lived and renewed generations successive carrying civilization in her mind physical the accumulation of knowledge and carry potential and energies, and this feature is that you earn civilization, its ability to continue and imbue character's historic league and cultural retreat to climb cultural change and succession and across stages coming generations expressive of her time is not time of her death (Abdul Hakim, 2007, Issue: 10385). The change of civilization, then, is to develop and change the structured beliefs, values and principles and all human activities in various thought and science, literature and arts fields, and is generated from that of tendencies and tastes formulate a pattern of behavior and a way of life and a method of thinking (Alhwaijera, 2005, p. 3). And cultural change as well: images, shapes modern civilization, which includes the intellectual and physical aspects of society and change the scope of people's lives and their customs and traditions from one form to another for the better (Alhmala, 1986, p. 16).

Chapter II

The Role of Culture in Social Transformation

First Topic: The Evolution of Societies

Society is defined as: a group of people, occupies a regional part, and share a distinct culture, enjoying a sense of unity, as well as it looks at itself as an entity distinct Therefore, we find that it is clearly not to find together identical completely, because we find them different in geographical location, natural and technical resources available and so many other respects, these and other differences are that contribute to the refinement of the culture of the community and determine the existence and how it is obtained on the basic resources that enhance their presence, the position of being perhaps the most fundamental qualities of the community followed by economics and social institutions as well as political structure and

pattern of life and these things are from the basics upon which social scientists in understanding and divide communities. (Ghazzawi et al., 1992, p. 18.).

First topic: The Evolution of Societies

Fishing Communities and Collecting Food

Communities, characterized by its small size, and maintains its presence through hunting and gathering seeds and roots, other that can be eaten, these communities are linked bonds of kinship and division simple to operate, and has depended on age, sex the older ones go out fishing while the kids stay on the camp residence or headquarters, married women are preparing food and reap the rewards while little care for newborns, despite the simplicity of life in these communities, they sometimes deviate towards the difficulty, but in return they live a decent life, they spend a short time at work and spend more time in the fun, as it is the most of any kind Last societies. It is also a permanent movement and is not stable, according to the circumstances of life. And through different historical eras of man, these communities were able to impose their way of life. Moreover, it is still yet exist in a part of Australia and some parts of deserts in South Africa, but they are few to the extent predicted disappearance completely during the twenty-first century. (Badawi, 1986, p. 60).

While simple farming communities (gardening) agricultural activity is simple to provide to their residents most of the basics that they need from food, depends residents to cultivate small areas like gardens Hence derived gardening, and with respect to the oldest of those human societies that discovered agriculture, the view of many scientists that the region Southeast Asia and the Middle East of Iraq, Iran and Syria represent the oldest discovered agriculture centers, which account for about eight thousand years ago, it was invented by the inhabitants of those

communities as an instrument, and tippers hand of the soil, which they facilitated the process of planting and harvest, but the life in those communities do not help stability in one place for a long of time, so that the orchards lose fertility was not the means of restoration of soil fertility by then-fertilizer available, as a result of the evolution of the basic requirements of life of those communities where the number of clusters population has grown and settled fairly, often members of the communities associated with each linked to the format year ancestors in the form of clans representing the turn and clans that are united strongly able to cope with problems. Often mechanism of government these communities provide food than the population needs to achieve equality and maintain them on the wealth and the security of the population and social stability by encouraging residents on fixed residence in one place and develop their culture. (For Zbej and Robert, 1957, p. 16).

Farming Communities (2)

The invention of the plow Was a significant impact in encouraging farmers to plow the land and exploited extensively, taking advantage of the animals as a driving force for it, as well as for irrigation and fertilizer that resulted from the intensity of the production and expansion of the cultivated area, which in turn provided food for a large number of the population and encourage them to stability systems , so cities discoveries and the village has become a political powers enabling it to subdue the semi-agricultural and less powerful communities located within its scope. Often farming communities made up of a group of interconnected cities through political parties as a result of the abundance of possibilities in the agricultural communities has enabled it to finance the government administration and a lot of non-agricultural specialists. In some cases farming communities grow to a grown population of millions, it may seem complicated or scalable, and concentrated power in the hands of rich ones and social classes where clearly

observed, rich, famous and Squires are owned land in these communities, so we find them in control of the peasant production, which makes them jumping on the pyramid of power (Wasfi, 1971, p. 226). Religion is an integral part of the community, and participate clerics to own strength with nobility, we see them enjoy a central authority (since they were few in number), because farming communities produce much (saying) of the wealth of its development economist who contributed to the process of trade which has become with the money and means to deal in buying and selling, rather than the exchange of goods and services, and the clearest examples of those societies in the modern era are the (Vietnam), which operates a large number of the population in the rice and other agricultural crops cultivation. (Zaki, 1981, p. 7.).

Industrial Communities (3)

Industrial societies rely on techniques and machinery as a major source of income and livelihood other than farming communities of agricultural and semi-dependent on agriculture alone, and if industrial societies compared to communities before the industry, we find that (industrial) has organized a special inventions (industry) in research institutions to develop industrial production, While private investment research and education used by government institutions to create and promote trade, modern Intrusive facilitated contacts between people, which is a faster pace of economic growth. Some industrialized societies and maintains a large military facility, which requires huge investments for defensive techniques may be converting these techniques sometimes to a civilian facility for the purpose of its production, which will result in a clear change, that industrialized societies have the format values encourages invention and the change in the areas of all aspects of life. (Hirszowicz, 1987, p 34).

The industrial society like any other society in terms of its contribution to achieving the kind of outstanding spending on a set of values, if it is the people who occupy the original functional prominent in the validity of fundamental change and the need, which takes the form of economic progress as a basis for economic development belief and concomitant belief in the need to work organizer, as well as individual responsibility for the completion of specific duties of work, and in industrialized societies and the tradition and prestige based on family, class, religion and sex are unacceptable, and that this kind of societies requires a system is linked functionally skills and careers compatible with the technology, but serves the education interests of the industrial society should produce training opportunities a specialist on labor and the increasing level of public education to provide flexibility in the labor force and to achieve the requirements of the citizen. The movement and transformation are basis on which changes could happen in the professional building, whether if this movement is professionally or geographically. (Al-Husseini, 1986, p.83).

(4) Post-industrial Societies

In the mid-seventies of the twentieth century Sociologists began to recognize the emergence of a kind of communities known as the (post-industrial communities) while industrial societies adopted on the basis of the industry, we find that the communities beyond the industry relied on the transmit and exchange and transfer of information and services, The lawyers and university professors, for example, depend their lives on what they know more than their dependence on using of muscular effort, and these actions can be counted job service, and the doctor (for example) he offers a private knowledge to the patient, but he offers the service also, and for this, we find that the sociologists and economists know the communities beyond Industry according to the size of the contribution of the service sector in the

economy.(Curryj, 1996, P 34). It seems to the researcher that sociologists did not know why societies from industrial societies have changed to a post-industrial societies? , But it is clear that education was important in these communities. Many businesses and jobs need to be university graduates to fill them, and with regard to information example: we find that the professors of dentistry teach their students the knowledge and manual skills needed dental care, and we find as well as professional and technical different specialties rely on their skills and knowledge to get income provides subsistence needs. It is believed that some people that service workers are the labor unproductive because they do not produce, do not make anything, so they are insignificant compared to those who produce material goods, and this is true, if the production of the material things such as the production of goods, but it's different production is also meant to develop knowledge, skills, inventions and services of various kinds that are of such importance that we cannot sometimes without them produce goods, and from this point of view teachers and researchers are the most productive groups in the societies of the post-industrial.

(5)Community Transition

Most communities in the world we cannot say it identical with any of the communities that the researcher discussed previously, we find most of them in fact communities transition are between agriculture and industry and has a manifestation of both. For example, China is an agricultural country to a large degree, because 80% of the population depend on agriculture for their lives, and at the same time we find that China's major industrial countries and able to produce aircraft and intercontinental ballistic missiles manufactured along with its nuclear capability and many other industrial products, which makes us call it (industrial society), and also contains the world's largest cities characterized by the same standards in other countries of the world, India is one of the clearest examples of transitional societies

in which they reside as well as in South America, Africa and Asia, but we find in fact that a large proportion of the earth's population live in transitional societies. Curryj , 1996, P37).

The vast majority of the population of the communities work in agriculture and farming, heavily dependent on their efforts in the production of crops, they are poor, to some extent, and are situated between the jaws (pincer) that prevent them from getting wealth, they do not own the land they farm, and they borrow it from the rich's landlords they cannot buy land of their own, that is why they are forced to migrate to the city in order to get any work to improve their income, and this migration led to problems related to services and housing crisis new to them, and what is worth pointing out that these services are provided to the student of human society and social organized by chance to study the comparison.

The second topic

The Great Social Transformations

Lifestyle is different in industrialized societies, by the prevailing lifestyle in agricultural and semi-agricultural communities, or other types of communities. Through the efforts of scientists for analysis of the classification of human societies and lay the foundation for this category is evident in spite of the base differences that each of them is based on a mechanism to determine human societies and their characteristics patterns, but they all agree in bilateral Rating (Shata, 1995, p. 45). The noticeable on the foundations in place and document them in the classification, what are in fact only distinctive characteristics of patterns of traditional and modern society, that the researcher in this field using the terms traditional and modern societies, which he calls to be addressed in some detail later. Through surveying the history, we find that a lot of communities have changed from the simplicity of the

social relations to those that emphasize the compound, institutional and complex relationships, which is what we call (the major social transformations), which came into existence by several factors including: industrial and urban and bureaucratic world finally. It should be noted that the traditional and modern societies ,simple and compound is not perfect to the point where we can say: This is quite simple societies, communities or compound completely.

(1) Traditional Societies

Traditional communities are often small in size, thus resulting in their organizations and small narrow range, such as family and kinship groups, so that the reaction occurs through a network of specific relations of individuals who deal very familiarity. The kinship in the traditional society of absolute importance for the individual, and through the Layout of relativeness receive a large number of personal and economic needs, as well as describe the source of the sense of security, the duties of kinship that they are bound thereby documenting the community and its ties relations, rather than being a traditional society agriculturally not industrially and one cannot find accuracy in the division of labor in it. The division of work is based on dividing them for men, women and children, and largely due to the limitations of the work itself, but this is limited division of labor in traditional society has not led to the emergence of the need for skills and ideas, as general in this type of community knowledge is, and standards used to judge things fixed and generally accepted, which resulted in uniting the individual and community goals, it is culturally homogeneous society, making it more cohesive and interactive their individuals are alike in acts and ways of thinking, so we find that the interaction between them is close and deep. (Ralph cyoizler, 1977, p275-280).

(2)Modern Societies

Modern societies are relatively large, we find their organizations and a wide area, especially the bureaucratic regulations, which govern the actions of the people in accordance with the principles and criteria is personal and individuals it deems necessary to interact with others who do not know them personal knowledge. Kinship groups has lost its luster and a lot of functions in modern societies and weakened its importance to the point marked, leading to a contradiction of the individual kinship obligations largely stallion modern society replace the small traditional society. And the division of labor in modern society has complicated, because the technical qualities of the increasing growth creating a high degree of differences that require multiple skills, which expanded its areas of specialization. Having grown up modern societies dissolved bundled market place of shops, for example, they stayed traditions of communities, but it has lost its authority and luster. People no longer respect in these societies as past paved the way of the future because they are free to run experiments in the realm of modern life beliefs. (Kholi, 1986, p. 143).

The establishment of the industrial system in any society needs a number of specialists since it is complex, but in turn generates huge treasure and it is distributed unevenly. (liberal democracy) in these societies marked by partisan conflict over power, and the pseudo-elections and freedom of the press and the market economy, either in other societies have accompanied the dictatorship and authoritarianism lot of their systems. In modern society mass system appeared which is based on a system of direct democracy, and are distributed in this system manifestations of power equally among its members in the Basic People's Congresses, it was decided that the People's Committees and stepping up the implementation of these decisions. (Altair, 1982, p. 21).

Through previous offer of traditional and modern societies, we can say that the traditional society a small community and secluded relatively live on simple folk traditions common to all its members, and this is reflected on the similarities in the actions and beliefs of its members, and the depth of their social relations and the stability of their cultural life and their confrontations which help to create a strong sense of common for affiliation In contrast, the community is characterized by talk that social organization modern and complex, social differentiation which is very clear, and social classes are many and varied relationships impersonal, and, in general, we find that modern societies models vary according to the planning and manufacturing the levels and nature of the organization and education levels as well as the social organization as a whole, it depends differ also on the availability of properties used in features.

(3) Technological Societies

Technology played an important role in the development and progress of society, knowledge of information technology have led to revolutionize the process of social research so that this revolution has led to a change massive flow of information from different communities and on a variety of phenomena, and what has been achieved this as a result of the evolution of technology and techniques of social research is able to benefit of this technology to update and change society. Scientific and technological revolution has had a profound impact in a number of sectors, particularly the social and economic ones, as well as its superiority on the nature of social life, it affects it severly(Abdul Malik, 1985, p. 71).

The technological revolution means all inventions based on human thought, for the purpose of satisfying different needs, inventing any way of multi-media saturation or discoveries has a significant impact on social change, and the

technological advances led to the migration of some social phenomena and the transition from one society to another on the impact of offering various media, including with regard to languages, political or economic, social or intellectual different systems, was an impact in many changes in human societies. (Abdul Hadi, 1984, p.71).

Technological revolution constitute an important dimension of the challenges faced by all societies, as human now pass juncture cybernetic push human civilization towards new goals and many dimensions at the same time, as a result of today's enormous knowledge revolution and the concomitant amazing technological developments, and if mankind had witnessed during the last ten years of the last century, rapid and successive changes in all aspects of life, it is slated to witness the next few years fiercer changes thanks to exciting new discoveries in all fields on the one hand, on the other hand revolution technology represents another challenge no less virulent for today's societies , has invaded the scientific research and technological applications all areas of human life, science and Technology are basis to essential large and rapid development in the contemporary world, and if science is a comprehensive system of provisions and visions general laws issued by the reality of evidence methodology either work to achieve a balance in life.technology field is applied to this progress, which has led to the rapid succession of scientific theories due to the boom human capacity in the field of applied science (Salman, 1996, p. 5). This has had a scientific mating technological role in the emergence of what is known as post-industrial or third wave, which is built on the science and the man who increased scientific and practical abilities, which in turn led to a social and cultural modernization of societies occurs. Scientific and technological revolution is a prominent feature of the era of the moment and the system of economic and cultural new social, have become in the last two decades, it

represents an impetus to the currents of globalization and the consequent re-establishment of social modernization, Investing, technology and the most important factors that have helped the spread of globalization and modernization, and information and communication revolution, which allowed the use of computers in world web wide (internet), this easy process of modernization and development of the social aspect, and easy to trade in goods, and accelerated movement of capital in economic terms movement (qabl, 2003, p. 32). Globalization of scientific and technological revolutions indicate all developments that will connect the world and unification, and the ability to bypass the dimensions of space and time, globalization and modernization and scientific information a revolution include the ability to communicate necessary information and services to all parts of the world and the speed of light. (Abdullah, 1998, p. 52). And it became the technological revolution, particularly its part informational pivotal role in the new global economic system representation, so is the technological revolution of the most important turning points that led to the renovation civilized and social societies (Fawzi, 1994, p. 22).

Chapter III

Explanatory Theories of Social and Cultural Change

First topic: The Theories of Change

First: The Circular Theory

Some early theories that dealt with social change and development of the study and interpretation, were rejected by sociologists and modernists, but remained firm and stuck to some extent in the public mind, and this applies to the circular theory and see: the conduct of the direction of movement of change in the direction of taking the character of session as several courses in a sequential manner. Arnold Thornba has introduced his theory of "A Study of History" ten volumes, London 1943 m -

1935 syphilis, the basic tint of this theory is in the concept of the growth of civilizations and their inertia and decay, he felt that the communities are going in sequential steps from birth to the patio, societies grow by overcoming the various information , but during this process is divided on himself to opposing groups each with a spirit of hostility toward the other and which result in the disintegration of society. What is noteworthy here is that the author Arnold Thornba characterized by huge crowd of historical method of claim wisdom and predict the effect clearly in the analysis of changing historical process in spite of the large number of comments described the many special social transformations, this made them resemble a return to the philosophy of history rather than theory explained the change (Adaxs, 1987, p. 343).

Second: The Theory of Social Evolution

The theory of Charles Darwin's evolutionary theory confirms that societies are organized and taken into account by the forces of social development. The proponents of this theory believe that intense competition and the struggle for survival are the ones who secures who is best to remain; this happens in social competition too, as societies are given the right to survive. Life itself begins as simple and develops into complexity. Social evolutionists believed that social development was the same in all societies, if it followed a single path of development from simplicity to complexity as well as their belief that social development was a form of progress that ended with the survival of the stronger and healthier society, What is worth noting here is that these beliefs are no longer accepted by modern sociologists because of the excessive fanaticism that has caused ambiguity and misunderstanding in the beliefs of individuals and those interested in their approach to sociology that this rejection has left a large void gradually filled structure of analysis (Bonnomore, 1981, pp. 342-345). The theory of social development served,

in one way or another, European interests and contributed to colonial imperial expansion, during the 19th century, Germany, Belgium, Britain, France, and other colonial countries stripped the colonies and exploited them for themselves, using evolutionary theory as a justification for their belief that Western civilization and white sex were the mainstay of colonialism. African societies are primitive, Asia is decadent and underdeveloped, and South America is a mixture of both. According to this thinking, Western imperialist countries have the responsibility to bring these societies out of underdevelopment, which has created enough justification for their governments to change their cultural patterns take their abilities.

Third: the Theory of Functional and Social Development

The term sociology function is used to refer to what a particular unit of components of the design is doing to maintain its construction and continuity, and to the interrelationships between these parts. Sociologists use them in their studies of growth and social structures, along with many other social phenomena. Some sociologists use the concept of function as a specific pattern, and as a basis for the theoretical association between certain conditions of existence and survival in a particular situation for a society or social context, the functional direction tackles the issue of social change in a contextual and structural context, its stop for a certain period, focusing on the change within social patterns to see its internal changes, which may help to identify general causes of homogeneous forms of structure, the function provides the basis for fundamental generalizations on human societies. However, this approach contains an evolutionary idea as long as the basic case of the job reveals that many social patterns have failed to survive because they lack some kind of functionality. (Abu Zaid and Alaa, 2006, pp. 49-52). Talcott Barstor is a leading innovator of functional direction. He views the concept of function with interest because it reflects the conditions that contribute to the survival of the pattern

or its growth or cause imbalance that reduces its ability to interact and act. Barstör has developed his theory of social change on the basis of the relationship between functions, social structure and processes in which the components of the pattern are confused. He confirmed that social change occurs in some parts as well as changes in the whole society, and goes on to say: The evolutionary process in fact supports the qualitative capacity of society, and it stems from the process of cultural proliferation, the main components in the theory of Barstör is the process of integration and variation within the format. The conceptual framework of the act depends on the determination of the unity of the act which includes an actor, an end and a stop consisting of elements that the actor is doomed through a normative direction of action. In the context of his interest in analyzing the manifestations of change, Barstör has consistently formulated the conceptual model of the pattern variables of emotion versus emotional neutrality and self-direction versus collective orientation and self-interest versus public interest and performance versus quality and allocation versus proliferation, as well as its predecessors of evolutionists. From the simplicity to the complexity, which made the task of theorists based on how these transformations occur, so Barstör sees that human societies have changed through history by a group of evolutionary universes that have been effective in the transition of human societies in four stages:

1. Separation of the human level from other levels?
- 2 - The primitive stage, the emergence of culture and society.
- 3 - The collapse of primitive and the transition to the modern society.
- 4 – The modern society, its nature, and its evolutionary generalities. Each stage has its evolutionary generalities, which work within the framework of the function to move the stage from the developmental stage to the next stage, and then become

evolutionary factors for this next stage, making it an evolutionary requirements when discussing changes in the social pattern, we find that each section depends on professional conditions, If these circumstances changed, the pattern changes, the change in reality in response to the circumstances of some change in relations with others, because the relations were in a satisfactory state of balance between individuals and groups, was a particular trend of these mutual relations, and whenever the change of direction changed the image of balance changed too.

Innovations in social and cultural life will affect the existing social order of disorder (the imbalance that makes any system incapable of performing its social functions), so this imbalance will lead to a series of harmonic changes resulting from social interaction between individuals and groups that explain the process of change Social development. Modern evolutionists believe that evolution takes place in different ways in societies. What is worth mentioning here is that their evolution does not mean progress in any way. Industrial societies are not optimal in comparison with traditional societies. Contemporary theorists and modernists believe: Communities may remain stable for long periods of time Functional theory gives us, in conjunction with evolutionary theory, a broad perspective that emphasizes the role of social structures in balancing these patterns. The convergence of these views does not mean that they must be achieved. It is difficult to achieve the balance theory in modern society. From automatic solidarity to communities dominated by institutional autonomy, specialization and division of labor.

From the above we conclude that Barstor emphasizes that change is often caused by external factors, mainly in the cultural context through continuous renewal, which is based mainly on the permanent influence of practical and technical factors. In dealing with the issue of change, the concept of format is taken into account in a limited analytical sense by describing the changes that emerge from the personalities

of the members of the social system. This is the change in the transformation of the social construction systems which includes the science and technology and the individual changes, but the changes do not all occur as easily and quickly. Often receiving stiff resistance, sometimes delaying or inhibiting its production (Timachif, 1970, pp. 325-334).

Fourth: the Theory of Modernization

When we use modernity to explain social change, we mean a limited theory and not the common daily use of this term for this theory. Traditional societies will gradually take on the characteristics and qualities of industrial societies, so that the industry in its various forms and activities related to the basic meaning of its existence, together with the various types of work, will be more individualized and divided. Urban areas will increase as people move closer to their new businesses, resulting in the growth of private and public institutions, whether in scope or in size and more formalized. It is noticeable that despite the wealth enjoyed by the industrial societies, under the capitalist economic system, it is not distributed equally. The differences between the rich and the poor and the different categories of society are widened with the accumulation of wealth in the hands of the exploited class. Industrial societies, unlike conventional ones, which are used in the industry thanks to the specialization, the spread of education and the appropriate work force for technical progress, and provided valuable opportunities for investments in all fields and other factors. "(Al-Husseini, 1986, 43-44). This theory assumes that the prefabricated industry makes us benefit from the disadvantages that accompanied it at the beginning and the end. Traditional societies should adopt the method of importing ready-made molds for modernity. This is strange. How do we explain the work of the thinkers such as Emile Dur Kem and Max When we hypothesized that the history of traditional societies would be like the history of western industrial

societies, this is not easy to transform into a traditional society with an agricultural or even semi-industrial economy that needs to be Enormous potentials and capabilities on the material and human levels to become a developed country such as Japan (Zaid, 1986, pp. 19-20).

Fifth: the Theory of Conflict and Development

Scientists believe that this change has its feature of the generality and continuity of the universe. Most of them believe that power in all its manifestations is one of the most important things in the structure of the social life we live in because they see it as the building of social relations during the past two decades. These beliefs were integrated into their general interpretation of change, development and evolution with the theory of global systems and systems. (wallcrstein.T, 1989, p217). This theory believes that all the countries of the world are part of the system. They are composed of countries that enjoy a high degree of economic and social political power. They are surrounded by dependent countries and have strong and good relations with them. Obtained by the dependent States (Jamea, 1972, 398-400).

The researcher believes that this system may have been more than two hundred years ago, when Western countries were struggling to colonize Africa, Asia and South America. The aim of this is to open up new markets for their products and to obtain new resources for raw materials as well as labor (cheap), as the researcher pointed out earlier. The philosophy of social development provided the colonial West with justifications where they found their way. The military force has imposed this system, but this does not mean that economic power has not been used. Colonialism has tightened its grip on these countries in all areas, especially in the political and military spheres. Despite the continuation of this control, Colonial countries no longer care about the military and political domination of their former

colonies as much as they are interested in controlling the markets and low-cost production sites and the places of cheap raw materials and their sources. This is what we call today the new form of colonialism, and the new colonialism in the modern system. Western imperialist countries, along with the United States, control their countries for the following reasons: Global companies play a major role in the economic development of the dependent countries. We find many of their headquarters in Western Europe, Japan, the United States and others. Although the affiliated countries welcome these companies because they provide job opportunities for their citizens, the biggest profit will return to those companies belonging to nationalities. The colonial countries have changed the economic system of their colonies. For example, agricultural production has been directed to be specialized in crops that colonial countries need in other cases, and the worst is that local economies were found only to be a source of raw materials. These changes resulted in the local population turning from producers in favor of themselves in their traditional environment to workers in Western and unfamiliar urban environments, resulting in the destruction of cultural patterns and the loss of their components. In general, the capacities and components of the different countries that are the problem of the inhabitants of the land have varied, resulting in unequal participation in the resources of land and wealth. Rich countries are richer than those on which they rely. This imbalance will not be corrected if the dependent countries cannot properly control their capabilities. It is noticeable that Western imperialism and the United States, in particular, control day by day control of the world in the economic sphere, using all means, and the Gulf War the second and Balkan are only an example of the use of means that promote economic control.

The second topic

Factors That Cause Social Change

There are many reasons and factors that contribute to the change in different societies as a social phenomenon of multiple causes, effects and results, it is distinct from this aspect of other phenomena that occur as a result of one factor or one reason, and so we can address the factors that cause social change summarized As follows:

(1) The human factor: In dealing with the sources and causes of social change, the first thing that comes to man's mind, there is no change in anything without his existence. Scientists of psychologists, sociology, economics, politics and history all gave an important dimension to the characteristics of leaders and rulers in bringing about important social changes, Such as the emergence of charismatic characters in various eras, especially the modern era as Gandhi's personality, and those who had a role in bringing about changes in their societies, especially the world community in general. German sociologist Tal Kott Parswater called for attention to study the leadership of religious, political, economic and intellectual patterns that led to social change, especially the religious leaderships of the prophets, messengers and political and social charisma, which made many changes in the lives of societies. (Al-Jawhari et al., 1995, p. 124).

2 - Revolutions and Wars :Revolution and wars are also important factors in social change, because they have the potential to bring about profound changes. For example, the Fatih revolution of September 1969 Afrangi in Libya has brought about important and radical changes that have taken place in all areas of intellectual, economic, political and social life. There may be wide political changes, new governments and states may emerge and disappear because of war, after World War II, several governments changed. New countries emerged, such as the two Koreas.

The Second World War accelerated the development of electronic accounts and various engines because of the diverse needs of their use (Ali, 1999, p. 44).

3. Geographical factor : This is an important factor in social change, as the Arab scientist Ibn Khaldun emphasized on when he identified the relationship between environmental, geographical and social factors and changes in Western and Eastern societies. The geographical factor is a large part of the analysis of social change theory scientists because it plays an important role in the formation of the social, economic and cultural lifestyles of peoples and their communities, the availability of natural resources in a particular region would cause some form of social change. There are many examples of the influence of the geographical factor in the emergence of societies and other disappearances, such as the Suez Canal, Panama and others. , And it will also reveal the social and economic impacts or changes that occur in the region itself. Today we are suffering from climatic problems and atrophy in the ozone layer and desertification, leading to a complete change in the demographic structure and patterns of different societies. (Dulaimi, 2002, pp. 45-46).

4- Technical factor: Many scholars have given great importance to the role of the technical factor in the process of development and change in modern societies. They have also studied the technical elements of machines, tools and material and non-physical means that change the components of social construction in modern societies. Inventions of technical machinery have led to changes in the methods of work and production as previously noted by the researcher, as well as the length of components and forms of social life. (Aldhaba, 2009, p. 82).

5- Cultural processes : It is also possible to change through the cultural processes of invention and proliferation. The invention involves the process of organizing known

cultural elements, such as narrative organization, as well as for the production of a new product. Despite our constant tendency to think that inventions are often highly complex, Computer or laser disks, however, we find many powerful inventions in human history, to a certain extent, as simple as the researcher pointed out. The invention of the ax paved the way to the stage of cultivation of horticulture, while the invention of the plow paved the possibility of agriculture and its ease, because the inventions were found and manifested by organizing existing and existing cultural elements. The proportion of inventions depends on the size of the cultural heritage and the rich knowledge and technical tools that the society possesses or acquires; there is a high probability that some elements will be rearranged into a new product. Therefore, we note that the culture of traditional societies seems to be uncomplicated. Fishing societies can invent stocks and spears, but they cannot invent the jet engine simply because their cultural heritage and stocks are too small to allow so. Due to the importance of inventions in the industrial societies, it required the existence of a legal system that protects the patent rights of inventions, and granted them licenses to enjoy full rights in developing their inventions and marketing them for their benefit. The deployment also leads to social change and means proliferation: the transfer of a cultural component from one group or community to another group or community. This may be a physical component such as any tool or social as a habit or belief and thought, some anthropologists believe that cultural propagation is one of the most important sources in the process of bringing about social change (Abdel Rahman, 1998, p. 367).

The Main Findings of the Researcher

1- The study of social change in society is characterized as one of the studies that it is difficult for one of the specializations to pay attention to the study thoroughly

without reference to the efforts made in this field in general, and must be used until the researcher reaches clear results.

2 - The researcher concluded that culture as an independent factor plays an active and prominent role in changing the cultural patterns of society. Culture and change have become mutually reinforcing.

3 - The researcher concluded that: No cultural and social change can occur only in the presence of a range of factors are updated: human factors and geographical factors and technical factors and geographical factors in addition to revolutions and wars and cultural processes.

4- The results of this study confirm that the social transformations, especially those related to traditionalism, modernity, modernization and cultural change, are associated with all societies, but different from one another. This is due to the nature of cultural friction with the civilizational and social construction of other societies. That is to be slow. 5 - The results of the study confirmed that the negative effects associated with cultural changes on social and cultural values cannot be ignored, which led to the emergence of several rejectionist movements of these cultural changes, as an unplanned, mundane, material and individual trend.

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Hardy as a Poet of Nature in Far From *The Madding Crowd* (1874), *Tess of the D'Urbervilles* (1891), and *The Well-Beloved* (1897)

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Abstract

Thomas Hardy (1840- 1928) loved his birthplace, Known as the village of higher Bock Hampton, Dorset, near the ancient west Saxon kingdom which he called Wessex in his novels. It was a rural and beautiful place that came under the merciless attack of the Industrial Revolution. The trees and fields were about to become a heart- breaking memory, a thing of the past.

Hardy, the man, was unable to put an end to the deforestation, disfigurement, and the demise of natural beauty. But, Thomas Hardy, the artist, was able to immortalize the former grace and glamour of Mother Nature in his novels. The novels chosen for the analysis in this paper all celebrate Nature's by gone purity and innocence, revealing the irresponsible and unkind ways in which mankind dealt with the environment. *Far from the Madding Crowd* deals with a stage when the environment was still hanging in balance. But, the other texts show how Hardy depicts the defeat of the environment and the victory of the ugliness. Hardy was certainly ringing the alarm bell so that humanity would take action to protect the environment.

The paper will focus on selections of images, scenes, metaphors, and lexical items that serve as a clue that this novelist was among the earliest authors who were environment- conscious. Above all, Hardy's unbiased juxtaposition of the repulsive against the attractive is one of the means to drive his environment- centered message home as a man who fell in love, all his life, with the former rural bloom, as a sad and helpless witness to its disappearance.

Key Words: environment, nature deforestation, nature disfigurement, images, lexical items.

The Analysis

Thomas Hardy (1840- 1928) has a strong presence in his novels as the voice of nature. His visible influence is defined by his ability to get his message across to the reader without being forwardly articulate about it. This quality of Hardy's pertains to his attitude towards creative language, to the environment and human nature, and his guided imagination, which is governed by what actually knew from life in his native village, i.e., Higher Bockhampton, Dorset, near the ancient West Saxon Kingdom.

Hardy is inspired by his background to make his novels oblique and indirect in expression but clear in indicating that the novelistic poetry of nature is able to converse with human soul, despite the limitations of the human language. Virginia Wolf (1882- 1941) wrote about this phenomenon on Hardy in her *Second Common Reader*:

The novels ... are ... inexpressive; but they are never arid; there is always about them ... that halo of freshness and margin of the unexpressed which often produce the most profound sense of satisfaction. (Wright, p. 174)

Hardy expressed similar views in his *Preface to the Fifth Edition of Tess*: "a novel is an impression, not argument". In other words, the narrative discourse ought to be appreciated for what it implies rather than for what it pretends to be saying explicitly. Hardy's statement, coupled with Virginia Woolf's evaluation, can suggest two ideas, or two narrative practices. First, the novel is what is communicated through connotation rather than denotation. Second, denotations as explicit statements are less reliable as the means to convey the novelist's vision. This utterance in *Far from the Madding Crowd* works for language and what it implies to be eloquent with regard to the environment:

It is different for a woman to define her feelings in language which is chiefly made by men to express theirs.

(Chapter 51, p. 367)

The same applies to the environment, which is unable to express itself eloquently at all in the language invented by the enemies of nature, to express their own. Moreover in *Tess*, we come

by this utterance which illustrates woman's helplessness, as an embodiment of the violated purity of nature, to gasp the meaning of language addressed to her:

The fling elaborate sarcasms at Tess, however, was much like flinging them at a dog or a cat.

(Chapter 35, p. 300)

As Hans Reiss says in a comparable context: "it is mistaken to believe that [...] skepticism concerning language is grounded in social criticism. (Reiss, p. 53).

As Hardy knows the limitation of language, he makes up this by restoring to the natural environment. Nature provides analogies. The choice of his diction is made in such a way as to expose the limits of language on the one hand and the wealth of natural environment, on the other. Nature is revealed to be threatened by humans. Hardy writes in his *Life* that nature has its own logic that is free from hypocrisy, and that the environment is intelligent but silent: "I sometimes look upon all things in inanimate **nature as pensive mutes**" (Hardy, p. 1140) (Emphasis added).

When man is in unity with the natural environment, he can enjoy harmony as the fruit of joy. *Far From the Madding House* embodies this vision of Hardy's. But, *Tess* represents the frustration of the same vision. These two works are the illustration of two modes of existence in conflict with each other. These are the urban, industrialized city- life against the natural environment of the agrarian settlement, the far- off country side.

The central figure in *Far From the Madding House* is Gabriel Oak. He represents the rural culture at variance with the urbanized life style. He is Hardy's voice and persona to call for an honest pattern of continuance, of survival, of self- fulfilment that renounces the sparkle, glitter, and glamour of urban hubs:

His is the environment

His are the trees

His is the fresh air

His are the flock and cattle

His is the stream

He is, therefore, voluntarily detached from the sordid, the material, and the polluted world. The book is an elaborated and lengthy discourse on the intelligent side of the natural environment, the woods, and the forests. In the forest, there rules a kind of rational faculty that is very different from the spirits mundi of the cities. In the forest, this is how the environment seems to be in its ideal manifestation:

The instinctive act of human kind was to stand and listen, and learn how the trees on the right and the trees on the left wailed or chanted to each other in the regular antiphonies of a Cathedral choirs; how hedger and other shapes to leeward then caught the note, lowering it to the tenderest sob; and how the hurrying gust then plunged into the south be heard no more.

(Chapter II)

The environmental elements are metaphorically equalized to a holy doctrine that is adhered to in nature, but is rejected and unheard of in the city, in the south of England, where the capital city of the kingdom is located. The trees can speak in Hardy's *Dorchester*. The trees can stand and listen. The real human in this book is Gabriel Oak: a combination of the innocent angel (meaning, Garbrid) and pure nature (the oak tree):

Suddenly an unexpected series of sounds began to be heard in this place ... they were the notes of Farmer Oak's flute.

(Chapter II, p. 48)

The farmer is united with nature, the environment, and music. Verbally, he is inexpressive with people from the big cities. But, he is articulate in the language of the natural environment. Oak is a farmer and a shepherd. He speaks the pastoral language. He is shown to be of the same environmental family as the creatures in the chain- of- being:

Oak sighed a deep honest sigh- nonetheless so in that, being like the sigh of a pine plantation it was rather noticeable as a disturbance of the atmosphere.

(Chapter IV, o. 67)

Pines, plantations, the atmosphere, mean the environment to which Gabriel is connected. He is more like a dog (in a good sense) for his communication delivery:

His dog waited for his meals in a way like that in which waited for the girl's presence.

(Chapter Four, p. 71)

Also,

Gabriel, like his dog, was ... trustworthy

(Chapter six, p. 76)

And his own words:

Sometimes, I say I should be as glad as a bird ...

(Chapter twenty- nine, p. 224)

He is more than just a man. He is more than a human being. He is more like a microcosm:

Gabriel is like a capsulated chain- of- being. He is far from being regarded as sub- human. He is more like a being in harmony with the environment. It seems that Thomas Hardy wants to say that the human beings can be in harmony with the environment, if they pay attention to it like Gabriel Oak.

Gabriel Oak wins over wins over the forces that aims at the subordination of nature of nature and the environment. In such an attempt, man collides with the social forces and economic pressure. It is also implicit that when there is a conflict between the city and the rural environment, the latter may crumble down or collapse because of Nature's ruler ability to industry. In nature, there are beautiful images. But, as *Tess* proves to us, in reality, nature is victimized and sinned against.

The central theme in *Tess* is humanity's loss of contact with the environment. Humanity is out of touch with harmony and the truth. There is a clash between the beauty of the environment and the reality of the repulsive city; the ideal and the real (as in Phase the First, II, p. 12):

This ideal is only 'within four hours' journey from London

(p. 11)

The natural environment is under siege and assault: it is no longer the source, because of its inner tension:

She [Tess] had learnt that the serpent hisses where the sweet birds sing ...

(Phase the Second, XII, p. 98)

As Hans Reiss believes: “sophisticated modern man thus finds himself in a position quite different from that which any could have experienced in earlier times” (Reiss, p. 53).

The decline and fall of nature are also the decline and fall of purity and innocence. Nature is no longer the abode of the sweet songs of the chirping birds, but the nets of the cobra. Hardy intended to illustrate the other side of the human contact with nature. *Tess* is nature in a state of defeat, unlike Gabriel Oak, who is more like the masculine side of it. *Tess*’s eyes are:

Like those of a wild animal.

(VII, p. 65)

The stir of generation ... audible in the buds, move [s] her, as it move [s] the wild animals ...

(XV, P. 123)

She is:

Like a fly on a billiard- table.

(XVI, p. 225)

She has the:

Appetite for joy

which pervades

All creation

(XX, p. 246)

Creature of moods

(XXI, p. 253)

She has:

Been caught in her days of immaturity like a bird in a springe

(XXI, p. 254)

She and Marian Crawl:

Like flies

(XLIII, p. 366)

She is like:

Like a bird caught in a clap- net

(XLIII, p. 373)

She has:

The helpless defiance of a sparrow's gaze before its captor twists its neck

(XLVII, p. 427)

She feels:

As weak as a bled calf

(XLVII, p. 432)

Her breathing now [has] become quick and small, like that of a lesser creature than a woman

(LVIII, p. 514)

She is the daughter of a soil

(XIX, p. 164)

And she is the:

The child of soil

(LIII, p. 477)

Tess according to the descriptions and utterances above, is nature herself personify. To personalize and personify nature is a useful way to embody and to illustrate how the environment can be destroyed by man. Very simply, her friend and relative Aleck D'Urberivilles, as well as her husband Angel Clare, destroys her. They both destroy nature. Aleck the clergyman, the urban youth, and Angel the intellectual who seeks peace in the country side; both destroy *Tess*, i. e. Nature and the environment. Man is unable to appreciate the gifts and talents at hand.

Aleck is a symbol of fire, or the satanic hell, as implied by referring to himself as the devil:

I have been driving like the deuce to overtake you

(XII, p. 98)

But, *Tess* is spoken of as the "stream" (XX, p. 164) "out of the frying-pan to fire" (X, p. 85). Meaning she is out of Aleck's grasp to fall into Angel's. Aleck is the sinful clergyman. But, Angel is the real culprit. He is the intellectual who should have known better how to protect "the stream", *Tess*. As such, *Far from the Madding Crowd* comes to its painful conclusion in *Tess*.

The Well Beloved (1897) occupies a special place in Hardy's career. It was really written in 1888 but published in book form from 1897. The main character, the sculptor *Jocelyn Pierston* is in search of a woman who is the incarnation of natural beauty as well as the archetype portrait of the family face. Natural beauty, the environment, and heredity are at play in this book. *Michael Ryon*, in *One Name and Many Faces: The Well-Beloved* states that the book is a combination of the platonic ideal of love, the classical humanity course/ curse of looking for other half, and the concept of natural heredity (Kraner, p. 173). To *Jocelyn Pierston*, the artist who looks at nature and the environment for inspiration, the beauty of nature has been compressed in one creature only: a woman. All his life, he is in pursuit of a well-beloved woman, because it may seem easier to have a woman than have all nature in his possession. He is in search of the ideal. Nature to him is epitomized in the Roman goddess Juno, the Queen of the Roman goddess. To him, the woman he seeks is Aphrodite, the most beautiful goddess in Greek myths. He is bewitched by nature and the beauty of its manifestations. However, he is deluded. *Jocelyn*, like modern man, is out of touch with nature. He fails to get hold of nature, the environment, and love.

Results

In conclusion, the analysis above can show that humankind have lost their contact with nature and the environment. Even the well-meaning characters like *Tess*, *Angel Clare*, and *Jocelyn* are unable to return to the golden past, the time when people were like *Gabriel Oak*, able to be in touch with the heavenly angels, as well as with the pure, innocent natural environment of the forests, trees, and the pastoral ways of life. Nature is in danger. When the environment is in danger, all humanity is threatened. Thus, Hardy's novels ring the bell. It is up to humanity to hear and respond.

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The Function of the Beginnings and Endings in English Fiction

A Research by

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Abstract

In teaching the English novel to the uninitiated undergraduates, the question that strongly suggests itself is: why do many important novels in English prefer to use “the open- experience”, or “open- ended experience”, or “open- ended device”? In *The Turn of the Novel: The Tradition to Modern Fiction* (1999). Alan Friedman uses these terms: meaning, “the open- experience” and “the open- ended device”, to denote the potential continuity of the action in the internal universe of the fictional continuity of the action in the internal universe of the fictional text, even after the end of the last page in the written narrative.

This paper intends to examine and investigate this interesting phenomenon in English fiction and how it can be used as benefit, an advantage in the process of teaching the English novel, coming as a reward or as a blessing in disguise. The inconclusiveness of the plot in some important novels in the syllabus can be a real gain in cultural, stylistic, intellectual and academic terms. The texts to be discussed include *The Man in the Moon*, *Rasselas*, *The Mayor of Caster Bridge*, *Killers*, and *Ulysses*. Most of these works are narratives of catastrophes. The connotations denoting the probability of the catastrophic recurrence after the indecisive conclusions of these books mean that the readers’ (in this case, the students’) critical sense of the themes such as love and loss would be intensified and sharpened to good academic as well as moral purposes.

The endings refer the students, as conscious readers, to the beginnings once again, unceasingly and in each new reading session, which denotes a greater degree of the sense of tragic impact.

Key Words: Teaching Literature Functions of the beginning, Functions of the endings, English Fiction, Narratives of catastrophes.

Introduction

“The conclusion, in which nothing is concluded” (Dr. Johnson, *Rasselas*, Chapter 49). One of the major points that this paper addresses is that the action in a number of novels is characterized with circularity of movements. Each of the novels to be discussed in this paper concludes with the same type of tensions it had commenced with. The endings are closures only in the technical sense that the finish line of the book is reached. The inconclusive conclusions, obviously, point out that there are additional catastrophes after the finish line. The circular movement of the action can be sensed at two levels, at least.

The first is that the major character, ends in the same manner he/ she had begun, this human being returns to the same obscure position from which he had risen in renown and power. The second level is the parallelism in the major figure’s traits, attributes, aspirations, and fortunes, on the other hand, to those of other protagonists than himself, on the other hand. This gives the impression that the parallel characters would be repeated versions of the original archetype. Thus, the conclusion is scarcely conclusive. This point strongly recalls E. M. Forester’s *Aspects of the Novel*: “Expansion. This is the idea that the novelist must cling to. Not completion. Not completion. Not rounding off but opening” (Forester, p. 149).

The Analysis

This notion of circularity is far from being modern. It may be traced back to the classical model of tragedy. *Oedipus* emerges first as a shepherd, attains power by becoming the king of Thebes, then declines into obscurity once again as a blind and damnable outcast. Thus in *The Man in the Moon* (1638), *Domingo Gonsales* concludes his narrative in the same way he starts it: the hope to go home. He starts the narrative by travelling overseas to improve his status at home. He

ends the narrative by travelling homewards after having failed to improve his status anywhere. The action here is circular. Likewise, in *Rasselas* (1759) the prince of Abyssinia starts the narrative by travelling overseas in search of happiness. He ends the narrative by travelling homewards after having failed to find happiness anywhere.

Equally, the same applies to Thomas Hardy's *The Mayor of Casterbridge* (1886), *Jude the Obscure* (1896), Hemingway's *Killers* (1927), and Joyce's *Finnegans Wake* (1939). These works are an example of a special species of creativity, for their presentation of a world in which there are numerous potentials for repeated catastrophes. *Jude the Obscure*, may be an example standing for all the titles above. Michael Millgate states that the sentence with which this novel closes is Hardy's paraphrase of Sophocles in *Oedipus Rex*, which was Hardy's favorite drama: "Call no man happy ere he shall have crossed the boundary of life, the sufferer of nought painful" (Millgate, p. 324). Each of these novels ends with an action that recalls the action it starts with. For instance; travel, marriage, loss, disorientation, and so on. In themselves, these lexical items stand for motifs or themes. They are free from being catastrophic in themselves. But, they function in the novel as a source of tension, or as an indication to recurrent agony. The internal universe of the narratives is unwilling to Part Company with disaster.

In terms of structure, the persistent use of such lexemes as reiterated motifs can draw the readers' attention (including the students' attention, even though their experience is limited as undergraduates doing the novel in a foreign language) to what the authors need to say implicitly by such devices. Due to the length of the narrative text, the reader's memory can only retain the least forgettable parts: i. e., the beginning and the end. Thus these two parts have to use the recurrent symbols and motives to draw attention to the fact that the same river still flows on and on. This is how James Joyce's *Finnegans Wake* (1939) concludes: "Finn, again! Take. Bussof thee, me me more me! Till thousands thee. Lps. The keys to. Given! A way a lone a last a loved a long the" (P. 628). This is how it takes us back to the first paragraph: "river run, past Eve and Adam's, from swerve of shore to bend of Bay, brings us by a commodious vicus of recirculation bank to Howth castle and Environs" (*Finnegans Wake*, p. 3)

The inconclusiveness of the last chapters in a given novel is a method to sculpt and structure time. Time is the start and the end. In this context, Frank Kormode writes in *The Sense of an Ending Studies in the Theory of Fiction*: "We have our vital interest in the structure of time, in the

concordances books arrange between beginnings, middle, and end” (P. 178). In this respect, the key words which are found in the beginning and ending can also be inserted in the middle to arrive at a coherent chronological and cosmological. The use of travel, marriage, loss, disorientation in these novels is to effect that action is circular rather than linear, the personal experience therein is expansive rather than exclusive, and that the overall human suffering is open and shared rather than closed and sealed. Hence, the structural pattern of the novels in question will be identified with a “circular process which conceives that experience in life is open” (Friedman, pp. 21- 22).

These novels are literary pieces in which the most interesting parts happen to be the beginnings and the endings, owing to the openness of the trials and tribulation therein, becoming truer to life than the closed structural pattern *The Killers* (1927) concludes in this way:

I can't stand to think about him waiting in the room and knowing he's going to get it. It's too damned awful.

“Well”, said George, “You better not think about it”.

(Killer, p. 43)

This is the exposition to the story:

The door of Henry's lunchroom opened and two men came in. They sat down at the counter.

(Killer, p. 24)

These dubious men were after Ole Anderson the Swede to hit him. Yet, when Nick visits him to express his concerns that the Swede's safety may be in jeopardy, thin dialogue ensues:

Nick: “Couldn't you get out of town?”

Ole: “No” Ole Anderson said. “I'm through with all that running around”. He looked at the wall. “There ain't anything to do now”

(P.40)

This story ends by Nick, rather than Ole Anderson, willing to get away from the town that turns out to be a gangster town called Summit in Illinois. So, the story starts with one person being

targeted, but ends up by someone else willing to run for his life. As such, the inclusive quality of the conclusion in the narrative has to strike a more realistic note:

The design of life in that open form is presented as an endlessly expanding process, a design in which protagonists are forced by the organization of the events to attempt to resolve experiences which cannot finally be revolved. But the protagonists' disturbance becomes the reader's ... as they [the readers] turn to the last page, 'The end' turns out to be only another opening. (Friedman, p. 182)

The Mayor of Casterbridge presents marriage as a catastrophic event in lines of the partners involved: Michael Henchard, Susan Henchard, and Elizabeth- Jane. Throughout this novel, marriage is associated with wrong- doing. Michael Henchard sells his wife Susan to a Canadian sailor, Captain Richard Newson. This sale defines Henchard's crime and punishment. This crime generates more wrong- doing: the original Elizabeth- Jane dies in Canada. The new Elizabeth- Jane is the fruit of the illegal bond of Susan to Richard when Michael sold the latter his wife for five guineas. He, later on, falls in love with Lucetta, who gets married to Donald Farface and dies depressed giving birth to a still- born child. So, when the novel concludes with the marriage of Elizabeth- Jane and Donald Farfrae, we expect it to be another start for a new string of depression, despair, and discomfort. The novel concludes with these words after the marriage:

Elizabeth- Jane learned that " ... happiness was but the occasional episode in a general drama of pain.

(Chapter XLV. P. 359)

This much confirms what Mr. Buzzford, the merchandise dealer in Casterbridge, reflects upon in his West Saxon dialect:

Casterbridge is an old, hoary place o'wickedness, by all account. 'Tis recorded in history that we rebelled against the king one or two hundred years ago, in the time of the Romans, and a lot of us was hanged on Gallows Hill, and quartered, and our different jint's sent about the country like butcher's meat; and for my part I can well believe it.

(Chapter VIII, p. 83)

This is how the novel opens: a neutral exposition that can be printed at the ending of the novel without changing the general status:

One evening of late summer, before the nineteenth century had reached one-third of its span, a young man and woman, the latter caring a child, were approaching the large village of Weydon-priors, in Upper Wessex, on foot.

(Chapter I, p. 48)

The world of this novel is, in brief, a place for repeated performances of a general drama of pain. To prove this incessant recurrence of the pain at the start and at the finish, chapter XI tells us:

It was impossible to dig more than a foot or two deep about the town without coming upon some tall soldier or other of the Empire, who had lain there in his silent unobtrusive rest

(Chapter XI, p. 100)

The parallelism of incidents, or the circularity of the action, means that there have been disasters prior to those of Michael Henchard- as suggested by the chronology and the past in Casterbridge, and that there will be additional ones afterwards. Besides, the book is entitled *The Mayor of Casterbridge* rather than “The Rise and Fall of Michael Henchard”. This implies that the outsider Micheal who came to be the mayor of Casterbridge is reincarnated in Donald Farfrae the outsider who came from the highlands of Scotland to become the mayor in Western England. The end of Donald is the start of Michael, and the circular movement carries on.

In *Jude the Obscure*, the repeated failure touches upon being unsuccessful in the academic as well as the married life. To highlight the points related to the disappointment in both areas, the novel traces parallel events in several characters’ lives. Jude starts with an Epigraph from the Apocrypha, in *Esdras 4:26*:

Yea, many there be that have run out of their wits for women, and become servants for their sakes. Many also have perished, have erred, and sinned for women. ... O ye men, how can it be but women should be strong, seeing they do this?

The novel shows us exactly that: Jude will err, sin, and perish for women. It shows that the conflict between desire and restraint continues. The quote from *Edras* suggests that the normal order of things is the repetitive pattern of men's lives.

The last paragraph in the book confirms the same note:

She [Sue] may swear that on her knees to the holy cross upon her necklace till she's hoarse, but it won't be true! Said Arabella. She's never found peace since she left his [Jude's] arms, and never will again till she's as he is now!

(Part six, XI, p. 423)

In between these two utterances quoted, there are others found in the novel, which serve as a confirmation for the parallelism and repetitive action:

Jude realizes his unimportance and his insignificance compared to the universe in part first.

(Chapter II, p. 37)

[he] went out ... feeling more than ever his existence to be an undemanded one. He knows himself to be the sort of man who was born to ache a good deal before the fall of the curtain upon his unnecessary life should signify that all was well with him again.

(Part First, II, p. 36)

He sees purposes and cross- purposes in patterns being repeated between people and creatures:

What is good for God's bird is bad for God's garden

(p.36)

Repeatedly, life reproduces and duplicates the same pains from the start to the finish line. Life, the social system, the unchangeable essence of the cosmos, destroy man, symbolized by Jude Fawley, who remains obscure, to stand for the retold story of recurrent catastrophes:

I tried ... and I failed. But I don't admit that my failure proved my view to be a wrong one, or that my success would have made it a right one; though that's how we appraise attempts nowadays- I

*mean, not by their accidental outcomes ... **having ended no better than I began** thy say: see what a fool that fellow was in following a freak of his fancy!*

(Part Six, I, p. 345) (Emphasis added)

From experience as teachers of fiction, such chunks as the ones quoted above may stimulate the intellectual side of the bright and brilliant students, who may use this unending, reiterated phenomenon as the starting point for their own intelligent enquiry. The study of fiction in this fashion will surely call for attention the serious quality of such writing, of such books that have their particular function for the beginnings and the endings. Only in such a context can the reader see that Jude Fawley is the repetition of Richard Phillotson, and that Little Father Time is the repetition of Jude Fawley; the child being a pre- mature version of his father, just as the father was a pre- mature version of Phillotson; but, the chain goes on uninterrupted by the death of some characters or the termination of the final section in the text.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the potentials which the narrative texts make available are numerous. The function of repetition in the texts discussed, can be said to serve aesthetic, philosophical, and educational ends. As a sign for the presence of a wealthy content in the novel, it can be exploited for good ends in the process for teaching the English novel.

The repeated items in the beginnings and endings communicate a message: cultural, artistic, and educational message, which will be ready for the students to use for a good purpose.

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The African American Traumatic Image of Self in Nella Larsen's Novels *Quicksand* (1928) and *Passing* (1929)

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ABSTRACT

The African American people have suffered continuously from racial discrimination. Writers started to reflect such discrimination in their works. Nella Larsen (1891-1964), Harlem Renaissance writer uses such traumatic image of tormented self in both of her novels *Quicksand* and *Passing*. The female heroines Helga and Irene are portrayed as exotic selves who suffer to achieve self determination. Larsen's main characters Helga Crane, Clare Kendry and Irene Redfield, share in the same racial discrepancies, but with different identity. This study examines such agonistic situations these heroines suffer from as Mulatto and analyses the causes and effects they daily face. Views of critics and other specialists in this field are necessary for emphasizing and suggesting suitable solutions by theorists and psychologists to get rid of traumatic moments and help the heroines to have unified selves. The study is of two sections and an Introduction. The first section examines notions about trauma and the views of theorists and specialists in psychology about traumatic selves. It also discusses Nella Larsen's innovative achievement in her novels. The second section sheds lights particularly on both novels and pinpoints samples that present traumatic situations the heroines find themselves in. The last part is concerned with a conclusion and a list of references.

KeyWords: African American, Discrimination, Nella Larsen,, *Passing*, *Quicksand* .

1- INTRODUCTION:

In modern scholarship, Larsen is recognized as one of the central figures in the African American, feminist and modernist canons, a reputation that is based on her two novels (*Passing* and *Quicksand*) and some short stories.¹ As of 2007, *Passing* is the subject of more than 200 scholarly articles and more than 50 dissertations,² which offer a range of critical interpretations. It has been hailed as a text helping to "create a modernist psychological interiority ... challenging marriage and middle-class domesticity, complexly interrogating gender, race, and sexual identity, and for redeploying traditional tropes—such as that of the tragic mulatta—with a contemporary and critical twist." Clara Kaplan (2007) However, literary critic Cheryl wall (1986) summarizes the critical response to *Passing* as less favorable than to Larsen's first novel *Quicksand*.³ On one hand, the significance of sexual jealousy in the story has been seen to detract from the topic of

racial passing; conversely, even if racial passing is accurately treated in the novel, it is considered a historically specific practice and so *Passing* appears dated and trivial.

Thadious M. Davis (1986) claims that during the 1920s, when Harlem was black America's culture capital and the "New Negro" was in vogue, Nella Larsen grappled with the complexity of being a modern black female. Born in Chicago during its headlong rush into modern development, she was the first of the twentieth-century black women writers whose sensibility was completely urban and whose understanding of fiction was thoroughly modern. She was born in the 1890s, when Chicago propelled itself by means of the Columbian Exposition in (1893) into an unparalleled acceptance of urban modernity. Her arrival in the New York of the 1910s anchored a fascination with urban existence that both characterized and stabilized her adulthood (qtd in Scott 209). Andrew W. Davis (2006: 59-60) believes that the issues Larsen's novels address lead Deborah E. McDowell (1986:xxxii) to argue that "[Larsen] has to be regarded as something of a pioneer, a trail blazer in the Afro American female literary tradition [. . .] [her novels] represent the desire, the expectation, the preparation of eroticism that contemporary black women's novels are attempting to bring to franker and fuller expression". McDowell's praise of Larsen among current African American female writers helped reintroduce Larsen's novels into the literary canon. Juda Bennett (2001: 206) argues that McDowell's introduction "was instrumental in securing Larsen new readers as well as sparking critical interest" in Larsen's novels.

Larsen became acquainted with modernist authors through her training at the Library School of the New York Public Library (1922-1923) and her job at the 135th Street branch library, where "New negro" writers of the older generation (James Weldon Johnson, Jessie Fauset, W.E.B. Du Bois and the younger (Gwendolyn Bennett, Countee Cullen, Langston Hughes) gathered for readings.⁴ An additional influence was her friendship with white novelist and critic Carl van Vechten, who in the 1920s was often in the forefront of "new" tastes and directions, such as "Negro Harlem," Walt Whitman, and Gertrude Stein (Scott 1990: 210). Davis (2006) also believes that despite her identification with what Alain Locke (1925:47), godfather of the Harlem Renaissance, termed "the talented few", those who were in Du Bois's formulation "the talented tenth" of the race, Larsen recognized that neither class privilege nor caste position could protect women from the external and internal circumstances that impede their development, circumvent their ambition, and fragment their personalities. Her two published novels, *Quicksand* (1928) and *passing* (1929), have at their centre the same issues that feminists today explore: gender identity, racial oppression, sexuality and desire, work and aspiration, marriage and ambition, reproduction and motherhood, family and autonomy, class and social mobility. Her intricate explorations of the personal consciousness and psychology of women transcend the limits of a single fictive character because on a subsurface level they address the condition of, and ambivalence toward, women in an emergent modern society. Both novels are marked by discourses on female desire and allegories of repression (Scott 1990: 210-211).

Section One

1.1. Loss and Melancholic Selves

In his famous essay "Mourning and Melancholia" (1917), Sigmund Freud writes that the loss of an object normally provokes a reaction known as mourning. The mourner knows whom or what he/she lost and is aware that suffering is part of a normal process at the end of which a new life

begins. Yet, Freud adds that in some people the same event produces melancholia instead of mourning. In many cases one cannot see clearly what it is that has been lost. This situation is common in psychoanalysis, even when the patient is aware of the loss which has given rise to his/her melancholia, but only in the sense that he/she knows *whom* he/she has lost, but not *what* he/she has lost in him/her. Freud suggests therefore that melancholia is in some way related to an object lost which is withdrawn from consciousness. The most striking characteristic of the melancholic personality is extreme diminution in self-regard: somehow the loss of an object has triggered an impoverishment of the self. As Freud puts it: "In mourning it is the world which has become poor and empty; in melancholia it is the ego itself" (Freud, 1989: 585). In other words, while it would seem as though the loss suffered is that of an object, what the melancholic has actually experienced is a loss of self (qtd in Mroziak 1-2).

According to Julia Kristeva (1989: 13-14), the author of *Black Sun. Depression and Melancholia*, the melancholic suffers not from the Object but the Thing (French *Chose*) lost, which is "an unnamable, supreme good, something unrepresentable, that [...] no word could signify. [...] The Thing is inscribed within us without memory, the buried accomplice of our unspeakable anguishes". Kristeva identifies the Thing with the Mother, by which she understands the pre-Oedipal Mother – the one strongly bonded to the child and then prohibited in the Name of the Father. The mother is the child's first love which has to be abandoned in order to enable him or her to become the subject, which in Lacanian terms means to enter the language. Kristeva emphasizes that even though the process of losing the maternal (semantic) in order to become part of the paternal (symbolic) is common to both the male and the female child, it is the girl who suffers more from the matricide. While the boy, entering the paternal sphere, identifies with the father and replaces the mother with another object of the opposite sex, the girl has to return to the abandoned mother to identify with her in order to make herself an object of the opposite-sex desire. According to Kristeva, this is "an unbelievable symbolic effort," as for the girl the act of killing the mother is, in fact, the act of killing herself. "In the midst of its lethal ocean, the melancholy woman is the dead one that has always been abandoned within herself and can never kill outside herself" (30). For Kristeva, as well as for Luce Irigaray (1993), the only possible way to solve the problem of the melancholic and to halt his/her self-destructive drive is to "reveal the sexual (homosexual) secret of the depressive course of action that causes the melancholy person to *live with death* [...]." The separation henceforth appears no longer as a threat of disintegration but as a *stepping stone* toward some other – conflictive, bearing Eros and Thanatos, open to both meaning and non meaning" (Kristeva, 83). Though recovery of the lost object (the maternal Thing) as an erotic object (the Object of desire) insures continuity in a metonymy of pleasure, for women, it means the necessity of being faced with "the dilemma of homosexual drive."⁵ And what, for Kristeva and especially for Irigaray, is expected to be an unquestionable value or at least an unavoidable consequence of the economy of desire (since lesbianism is understood as a re-creation or repetition of the primary mother-daughter (homosexual) attachment),⁶ for Judith Butler (1999:82), it is not necessarily such a great feast of the mother-daughter reunion. According to Butler, who in *Gender Trouble* juxtaposes Freud's "Mourning and Melancholia" with his later work, *The Ego and the Id* (1923), "the taboo against homosexuality must *precede* the heterosexual incest taboo; the taboo against homosexuality in effect creates the heterosexual 'dispositions' by which the Oedipal conflict becomes possible" (Butler, 1999: 82). Butler's comparative reading of Freud's essays proves that he has separated identification (desire to be) from desire to have (desire for); for him these have been "two psychologically distinct ties:" "For Freud, desire for one sex is always secured through identification with the other sex; to desire and to identify with the same

person at the same time is, in this model, a theoretical impossibility" (Catherine Rottenberg 2003). Butler notices that in heterosexual order a complicated process of gender identification and desire directed at the opposite sex, which is, at the same time, the process of one's dealing. These views of the theorists and psychiatrists clarify how and why Larsen's heroines behave in such odd way which is clear in the following section.

Section Two:

2.1.The Concept of Mulatto in relation to Traumatic incidents of Nella's heroines

Many writers tackle this subject in their works. Jeffrey Gray(2012) discusses it in his article entitled as Essence and the Mulatto Traveler: Europe as Embodiment in Nella Larsen's *Quicksand* .The situation of a person who is half white and half black is a difficult one and the person is torn between two worlds. One means of avoiding the choice of "uplift" vs. "primitivism" and yet incorporating that binary opposition into "the psychological struggle of the heroine" was to make the heroine a mulatto, as Larsen did in both *Quicksand* and her second novel *Passing*, and to place the question of racial indeterminacy at the heart of both novels.' Another means was to transport the action, midway through *Quicksand*, to Europe, where Helga's (and Larsen's) heritage partly lay. "mulatto" is still read as "black" in the white cultures of both the United States and Europe; 7) racism is merely replaced, as Helga discovers in Denmark, by exoticism; and 8) the move itself from the United States to Europe reinscribes, in Helga's and other Americans' thinking, the "primitive" vs. "uplift" binarism-that is, Helga herself sees going to Europe as a move away from "primitive" forces in America. Nevertheless, it is these two conditions-of travel and the mulatto heroine-which establish *Quicksand* as a novel is about the African-American's construction and self-construction as art object abroad. Helga's status as mulatto is further differentiated from the mulatto figure traditionally realized in fiction, when we note that she is not the mulatto represented in *Quicksand*'s epigraph:

My old man died in a fine big house.

My ma died in a shack.

I wonder where I'm gonna die,

Being neither white nor black?

Hortense E. Thornton has suggested that the epigraph-from Langston Hughes' poem "Cross"-is inappropriate because Helga Crane's plight does not arise there is another powerful reason why the epigraph is inappropriate: it represents the wrong kind of mulatto. Helga's is not the plantation case of the white master's seduction/rape of the black woman slave. Frantz Fanon, writing of the Martiniquaise novelist Mayotte Capécia, explains that a white mother is rarer than a white father for a mulatto. "The white man can allow himself the luxury of sleeping with many women.... But when a white woman accepts a black man there is automatically a romantic aspect.... It is an honor to be the daughter of a white woman. That proves one was not 'made in the bushes'" (Fanon 1986: 46). Nella Larsen herself was born to a Danish mother and a West Indian father. Her father died-unlike Helga's who deserted-and her mother remarried a white man, with whom she had other children, but by whom Larsen was not well-treated. Larsen, like Helga, spent time in Chicago, where she was born, in New York, and in Copenhagen, where she attended university classes. Except for the death of the father in Larsen's case, the parallels are clear-cut, and certainly the estrangement which the author felt in her life is one we can trace in her heroine. But whether or not we wish to allow the biographical text into the literary text, we have at least to see that Helga's indeterminate position as mulatto is additionally problematized, in that she was brought up with

whites and has no black family. Her going to Europe, therefore, is not only in order to seek a happy future in Copenhagen, where there were no Negroes, no problems, no prejudice(Quicksand 123),but to join the only blood relatives who will accept her. (Ironically, her journey is facilitated by the blood relative who will not accept her, Peter Nillsen, who gives her \$5,000 and god speed.)What Fanon goes on to say in his discussion of mulatto fiction is especially Germane to Quicksand": only one course is left for the heroines :to go away" (47).Thus, the two questions of racial indeterminacy and of geographical "place" are not only equally paramount but finally become a single question. The mulatto is a traveler, moving back and forth between black and white communities, or, in Helga's and other contemporary cases, between continents. As with most journeys, Helga's is a quest for Self and for Self-location. But her shuttling geographical movement also corresponds to the binarism in which the African- American novel of the time found itself trapped: primitive vs. uplift, where the United States represents the primitive of the repressed Self, and Europe the idealized (and aestheticized) Other. This shuttling movement is the controlling figure of Quicksand.Larsen's female characters feel alone because of such traumatic moments they pass:

. . . For I am lonely, so lonely . . .cannot help longing to be with you again, as I have never longed for anything before; and I have wanted many things in my life. . . . You can't know how in this pale life of mine I am all the time seeing the bright pictures of that other that I once thought I was glad to be free of. . . . It's like an ache, a pain that never ceases. . . ." Sheets upon thin sheets of it. And ending finally with, "and it's your fault, 'Rene dear. At least partly. For I wouldn't now, perhaps, have this terrible, this wild desire if I hadn't seen you that time in Chicago.

. . . (Passing 8).

Another traumatic moment is the issue of color which is endless. Always they feel agonic towards the people when looked at:

Very slowly she looked around, and into the dark eyes of the woman In the green frock at the next table. But she evidently failed to realize that such intense interest as she was showing might be embarrassing, and continued to stare (Passing 17).

In *Passing* , women recognize each other by smile, the tone of voice, and at last by the look. For Irene, Clare's eyes are not only "dark, almost black," but most of all "magnificent," "always luminous," "arresting, slow and mesmeric," and, interestingly, "mysterious and concealing." Irene sees that there is "something withdrawn and secret about them" (Larsen, 1995: 161) and both at the Drayton hotel and later at Clare's place she attempts to reveal the friend's secret. (qtd in Mrozik 4)

Clare handed her husband his tea and laid her hand on his arm with an affectionate little gesture. Speaking with confidence as well as with amusement, she said: "My goodness, Jack! What difference would it make if, after all these years, you were to find out that I was one or two per cent coloured?"
(68 passing)

Eye contact is very important in the Irene-Clare relationship. Women "look at each other," "stare," "gaze," "glance" and "watch," but from the beginning they have problems with giving each other a recognition. While Irene's eyes are described as "unseeing" (149),Clare's are "peculiar, dark and deep and unfathomable;" "the eyes of some creature utterly strange and apart"

(172). Cheryl A. Wall considers that “in ironic contrast to her name, Clare is an opaque character, impossible to ‘read’” (1995: 122).⁵ (qtd in Mrozik 5)

What if Clare was not dead? She felt nauseated, as much at the idea of the glorious body mutilated as from fear. How she managed to make the rest of the journey without fainting she never knew. But at last she was down. Just at the bottom she came on the others, surrounded by a little circle of strangers. They were all speaking in whispers, or in the awed, discreetly lowered tones adapted to the presence of disaster. In the first instant she wanted to turn and rush back up the way she had come. Then a calm desperation came over her. She braced herself, physically and mentally. "Here's Irene now," Dave Freeland announced, and told her that, having only just missed her, they had concluded that she had fainted or something like that, and were on the way to find out about her (passing 213).

According to Catherine Rottenberg (2003), Irene's main problem, which she is not able to deal with successfully, is her racial identity, or, to be more precise, her being torn between her identification with Blackness and desire to be white. Since “white racist regimes create a distinct bifurcation between identification and ‘desire-to-be,’ [...] certain subjects are encouraged to privilege and thus desire attributes associated with whiteness, but currently these same objects are forced to identify as black”. As whiteness circulates as an ideal, Irene desires it and aspires to be white, though never admits it openly (qtd in Morzik 11-12). Later, still disturbed by the experience, she reflects that her friends had all along divined the presence of that something, undisclosed to her who feels herself "inside" it:

some characteristic, different from any that they themselves possessed. Else why had they decked her out as they had? And they hadn't despised it. No, they had admired it.... Why? (184)

The sound of the tom-tom also echoes the earlier scene in the Harlem jazz club where Helga, after surrendering to the music, feels ashamed and longs all the more to flee to Europe. The problem of the Negroes is how to hide themselves from the Americans. They wanted to feel free, speak freely and behave normally away from America. Helga travels to find peace but unfortunately was not happy. She has been received in her uncle's home. Axel Olsun painted her but she did not like her face and body drawn by Axel. She felt herself as disgusting, sexual and was really sad for having such feeling. The scene is a pivotal one: the Harlem nightclub where, after being "drugged, lifted, sustained ... blown out, ripped out, beaten out, by the joyous, wild, murky orchestra" (130), Helga comes to herself with a sense of shame at having succumbed; she looks on the other dancers with disgust; watching them, she sees a "moving mosaic":

There was sooty black, shiny black, taupe, mahogany, bronze, copper, gold, orange, yellow, peach, ivory, pinky white, pastry white. There was yellow hair, brown hair, black hair; straight hair, straightened hair, curly hair, crinkly hair, woolly hair. She saw black eyes in white faces, brown eyes in yellow faces, gray eyes in brown faces, blue eyes in tan faces. Africa, Europe, perhaps with a pinch of Asia, in a fantastic motley of ugliness and beauty, semibarbaric, sophisticated, exotic, were here. But she was blind to its charm.... (130-31)

Velina Manolova (2008) Claims that Larsen's two novels, *Quicksand* and *Passing*, both address the predicament of women who embody social ambiguity by transgressing the color line, the public/private split, bourgeois sexual mores, and hetero normative sexual scripts. Helga's characterization as a hysteric, as they lead up to the hysterical episode that sends her to Chicago. The narrator's remark that Helga “could neither conform, nor be happy in her unconformity” (11) and question “But just what did she want?” (14) both point to a fundamental inability or refusal to be satisfied central to the psychoanalytic definition of a hysteric.⁹ Her hysterical fit in Naxos, like

her subsequent fits, combines sexual confusion, a violent reaction to an interpellation, and flight. When the school principal, Robert Anderson, first pronounces her name as she sits in his office, “she was aware of inward confusion. For her the situation seemed charged, unaccountably, with strangeness and something very like hysteria” (21-22).

Helga’s intuitive response to Anderson foreshadows his role as an agent of her hystericization and sexual confusion throughout the novel. Anderson’s charisma almost keeps Helga in Naxos. Listening to Anderson, Helga feels “a mystifying yearning which sang and throbbed in her. She felt again that urge for service, not now for her people, but for this man who was now talking so earnestly of his work, his plans, his hopes.... It was not sacrifice she felt now, but actual desire to stay, and to come back next year” (23). But Anderson makes the mistake of ending a flowery speech about “service,” “aiming high” and Naxos’s need for “people with a sense of values” with interpellating Helga into a specific class positionality and posing her class identity as something inherent and outside the social realm.

“You’re a lady,” Anderson insists. “You have dignity and breeding” (24). The class interpellation causes “turmoil [to rise] again in Helga Crane.” “Trembling,” she informs the principal:

“If you’re speaking of family, Dr. Anderson, why, I haven’t any. I was born in a Chicago slum.(qtd in manolova 20)

The man chose his words, carefully, he thought. “That doesn’t at all matter, Miss Crane. Financial, economic circumstances can’t destroy tendencies inherited from good stock. You yourself prove that!” Concerned with her own angry thoughts, which scurried here and there like trapped rats, Helga missed the import of his words. Her own words, her answer, fell like drops of hail. “The joke is on you, Dr. Anderson. My father was a gambler who deserted my mother, a white immigrant. It is even uncertain that they were married. As I said first, I don’t belong here. I shall be leaving at once. This afternoon. Good-morning.” (24)

Helga’s construction of her racial identity runs congruent to her struggles as a woman and with her sexuality. As Helga’s biracial heritage prevents her from fully fitting into either African American or white communities, similarly, each community somehow hinders Helga’s exploration of her sexuality by either repressing or exploiting it. The novel links the construction and performance of race to the expression of female sexuality, specifically African American female heterosexuality in the context of race conscious and racist societies. Just as the novel underscores limiting modes of defining race— as either African American or as white-- the novel conveys the restrictive modes of representing female sexuality—as either chaste or promiscuous. As Helga struggles to define her racial identity she also tries to maintain her sexual autonomy. Through Helga’s journey, the novel defines and refutes the stereotypes that objectify literary representations of African American women. In her introduction to the novels, McDowell outlines the historical and literary traditions that created the two dichotomous modes of representing African American female sexuality (McDowell xii-xiii). One such representation is the figure of the exotic and promiscuous African woman who is prevalent throughout the literature and cultural myths of early American society (Rennie Simson 1983: 230). Such archetypes influenced much of the writing of the Harlem Renaissance, which exploited African American women as “primitive exotic sex objects” (McDowell xv qtd in Davis 2006 4-5).

The “quicksand” finally is the body into which her subjectivity is sinking, and within which the more she struggles (travels and questions), the farther down she sinks. The body is, at the end of the novel, represented in its least artificial, most biological, most “given” terms. Once aware that

she is sinking, Helga begins to dream again of her former life, of "things," of change and (re)construction, but it is too late. Before her surrender to the "physical" and the dream of pastoral-"Pleasant Green" and Alabama-Helga has choices, personal, marital, and geographical. It is these choices that distinguish Quicksand-as one feels Larsen must have desired to distinguish it-from the "tragic mulatto" tradition. Helga's failure is not, as Lillie Howard (1987: 226) argues, that "she cannot reconcile herself to the reality of her race," or that her "materialism" "masks the essence of herself," or that she "lacks the basic capacity to accept herself as she is" . *Quicksand* offers the much more profound (and, to many, no doubt distressing) idea that there is no essence, black, white, or mulatto, that arrival at essence is always deferred; and that in our awareness of ourselves as difference, everyone is a mulatto, born of and self-located between two differences. The racially indeterminate and travelling mulatto figure serves to open up possibilities, to heighten our awareness of that absence of determined essence, and of the reality that the construction of the Self goes on, home and abroad, subject to forces that crowd the body with contradictory representations-pleasant and disturbing, limiting and enabling. Helga returns to the United States out of the same restlessness that motivated her departure: she is not satisfied. There was a painful incident in which she was accused, apparently unjustly, of plagiarism ;and there was an equally painful divorce. But Larsen evidently wrote no more ;she had been working as a nurse at a Brooklyn hospital when she died in 1963.¹⁰ (qtd in Gray 268).Most of Larsen's works concentrate on this sensitive point which is to avoid underestimating human beings no matter what color or cultural background they possess.

Conclusion

Helga Crane suffers a lot psychologically to fulfill her own desire which is to have a unified self determination in Larsen's *Quicksand*. Helga tries to coop with her own American people. Being Black ,she runs from social discrimination imposed on her in her society thinking that she can fled from her tormented, melancholic self. Her Journey to Denmark , Copenhagen then her marriage from a Black American preacher in the village Alabama did not free her disturbing ties . She becomes a mother of four children and expecting the fifth had changed her body which made her psychological state worse. She faces terrible transformation from a strong , independent teacher to a rural woman with no identity at all. Helga's choice indicates a radical effect to get rid of a repressed feeling .The novels' endings not only critique the conventional endings which depict idealized African American communities, but also suggest that there is no place for autonomous, non-stereotypical representations of African American women in such societies. All three protagonists are unable to obtain complete agency and lose their identity under the weight of their oppressive societies. the fates of Larsen's characters do not negate either novel's position against the stereotypical representations of African American women in American literary tradition. The characters' failure to succeed in their society does not reflect upon the novels' failure in creating characters that resist objectification or submission to dominant ideology. Helga's awareness of her repression and exploitation elevate her above the objectified figure of the African American female the novel critiques. The novel clearly does not endorse Helga's fate; the final pages narrating Helga's inner monolog give voice to the marginalized figures victimized by dominant white male culture.

NOTES

- 1-Kaplan (2007),p. ix.
- 2-Kaplan (2007), pp. 539-46.
- 3-Wall, (1986), p. 105.

- 4- Jacquelyn Y. McLendon (1995). *The politics of Color in the Fiction of Jessie Fauset and Nella Larsen*. University of Virginia Press. pp. 71–93. ISBN 978-0-8139-1553-1
- 5- Kristeva writes that the lost object may be recovered as erotic object (and this is the case of male heterosexuality or female homosexuality); transposed onto the other (sex) now eroticized (in case of heterosexual woman); or constructed into “sublime” erotic object (in social bonds, intellectual and aesthetic productions etc.). (28).
- 6- This is what Irigaray concludes in her essay “Body against Body: In Relation to the Mother” (1993).
- 7 -Two of Larsen's critics-Hortense E. Thornton and Deborah E. McDowell-have specifically addressed this epigraph; virtually all of the critics who have examined Quicksand in the last two decades have argued that there is a danger in letting the issue of race displace that of gender. Hortense Thornton may be the earliest to take this view (in 1973); others are Cheryl A. Wall and Anne E. Hostetler.
- 8 - Constance Webb does not attribute most of the remarks she quotes or paraphrases, explaining that they come from personal conversations with Wright or from his diaries.
- 9- See, for instance, Freud, Lacan, Gallop, Findlay, and Leeks. Findlay makes the case for the hysterical refusal to be satisfied as a distinctly queer sensibility.
- 10 -For this and other biographical information, see M.H. Washington, "Nella Larsen," *M s.* (December 1 1980) 4 4-50.

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Silence and Suffering in Jean Rhys *Wide Sargasso Sea* (1966) and *Good Morning , Midnight* (1967)

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ABSTRACT

Jean Rhys(1890-1979) is a modern writer who expresses her sufferings through her female heroines' silence's after every disappointment they face . In her novels *Wide Sargasso Sea* and *Good Morning , Midnight*, her female characters are portrayed as intellectual and interesting but also as victims of terror due to their dependence on men. There is the sense of dispossession in Rhys's works which normally leads to repression. Due to Rhys's cultural background as a Caribbean author and a Creole, her characters are depicted as having unstable identities which is clear in Rhys's use of Irony. This irony is used as a keyword for Rhys as a colonial writer and as a result of the character's unstable selves. There is also, the existence of the element of superstition in her texts though she neither supports nor denies it in her novels. Instead, truth for Rhys is really important in her works for it keeps the work from being dated. Rhys is not a feminist but a defender of women's rights , she warns people from maltreatment of women which sometimes leads to madness. Views of some critics are important in this study specifically Elain Savory who presents a comprehensive view about Rhys's novels *Good Morning , Midnight* and *Wide Sargasso Sea*.

Keywords: Colony, Creole, *GM,M*¹, Jean Rhys, Silence, Suffering *WSS*².

¹ *GM,M* is an abbreviation of *Good Morning Midnight*.

² *WSS* is an abbreviation of *Wide Sargasso Sea*.

INTRODUCTION:

Rhys, as a white woman from Dominica living in England and Europe was a modernist expatriate-exile figure. Her Caribbean background provides the dimension in which to ground her sense of dispossession and unbelonging. Her short stories and novels are for the most part urban European fictions that repress her Caribbean inheritance, though their fragmented form and pervasive sense of rootlessness figure an irreplaceable absence. Moran (2007:4) believes that Rhys' passages on female subjectivity frequently feature passages in which her protagonists turn to mirrors to confirm their sense of self, yet the image that is returned to them typically registers a profound sense of disconnect, for the image in the mirror repudiates rather than confirms existence. Frequently, her protagonists endorse the creation of a static and artificial surface that deflects the hostility they detect in other people, especially other women. Rhys's fiction is not explicitly

feminist. Instead, she writes about women as victims of their own and male romantic fantasies, with a focus on female silence and suffering. Her protagonists are all women alone in Paris or London, working as mannequins, artists' models, or prostitutes, or not working at all but still reliant on men for economic survival. Rhys records these women's jagged moments of insight into dependent condition, their resentments and their silent crisis of rage, just as she shows their emotional withdrawal into secret places within themselves (Howells qtd in Scott 372). Maslen (2009) in her *Ferocious Things: Jean Rhys and the Politics of Women's Melancholia* claims that in reading and thinking about the works of Jean Rhys, it is surely impossible to overlook the theme of melancholia. Since the publication of *Wide Sargasso Sea* in 1966 and Rhys return to literary prominence after decades of obscurity, a large body of critical and academic writing on her works has accumulated, and it would be difficult to locate among these many interpretations a reading in which the melancholy of Rhys protagonists was not at least mentioned (1). This close connection between personal experience and writing/text, the inscription of female subjectivity into the text, and the profession of a woman writer necessarily lead to a form of autobiographical writing in which life and text become one and in which self-affirmation as a woman and as a woman poet is equally sought for. In the following, every kind of autobiographical writing seems to be gendered, one term used for women's autobiographical writing is and clearly defined identity category upon which discussions of identity politics can be based. This idea is rejected by Butler in favor of a dynamic understanding of identity (Birkle, 1996: 6). It is clear from Jean Rhys letters that she was not a feminist but really concerned with women issues and problems. She was ambivalent about the "woman writer," whom she considered particularly hated in literary circles. Her difficulties with women writers are evident in her letters (from now on L) (L:29, 32–33). Her male characters (most especially the unnamed husband in *Wide Sargasso Sea*) often comment on her female protagonists in ways that help balance her fiction and protect it against gender bias. Rhys herself appreciated men. She was anxious in a letter to her friend Peggy Kirkaldy that she might have given the impression that her husband Max was "a bit of a pansy," when, "Au contraire. He is a very male creature . . ." (L:75); but she also thought that he was "heart-rendingly naive," an example of which was that "he hates my writing" (L:75), which had to have been an issue. As in her complex assessment of Max, Rhys does not flatten her fictional characters into a good versus bad script, and though her sense of gender inequalities is acute in her writing, she portrays the victim as often complicit in her exploitation. The longest narrative in her most famous novel, *Wide Sargasso Sea*, is a man's (Savory, 2009:19). Feminist criticism contributed a great deal to Rhys's recognition as an important writer. For such critics, Rhys's work represents the power of gender norms in culture (in Paris and Britain in the first half of the twentieth century, and then in the colonial Caribbean). Nancy Harrison (1988), in *Jean Rhys and the Novel as Women's Text*, a feminist approach to Rhys's work, suggests that reviewers and critics claiming objectivity (often men) subject women writers to "an especially rigorous examination of their credentials" (44). Truth for Rhys is necessary in one of her interviews in 1968 she has written if you try to write the truth, "then it remains the truth for all time," which is the way to avoid the work becoming dated (Carter, 1968: 5). She mined her complex self for many characters, none of which was entirely Jean Rhys, but all of which express a convincing experiential "truth," or honesty. She is a writer who teaches us how to use the personal life for fiction without getting sunk into the mire of subjectivity, and how to avoid the merely ephemeral and local without losing a sense of the location of the stories she tells (Savory, 2009: 24).

Section One: 1.1. The Impact of Colonization on her novels in relation to her silence in 1940 and 1950.

Rhys career can be seen as framed by the emergence of two writers, one product of imperialism and its promulgator through fiction, and the other making a direct engagement with such colonial distortion. Joyce Cary's *Mister Johnson* appeared in 1939, the same year as *Good Morning, Midnight*, a time when British imperial power was still at its height. His career as a British colonial administrator in Nigeria was over before he started to write. Rhys long silence during the 1940s and 1950s occurred during this shift from colonial to postcolonial writing. In the mid-twentieth century Anglophone Caribbean literature became a significant new canon. Major texts appearing in the 1950s included Samuel Selvon's novel *A Brighter Sun* (1952), George Lamming's novel *In the Castle of My Skin* (1953) and V. S. Naipaul's collection of stories, *Miguel Street* (1959). All three of these writers had migrated to Britain hoping to find publishers and markets for their work. But Rhys remained silent throughout the 1950s. So by the time *Wide Sargasso Sea* appeared (1966), critics and scholars had begun to recognize Caribbean literature as an emerging literature of great excellence. But just as the reader needs to be careful in reading Rhys through the lens of gender, so it is necessary to be attentive to the complexities of Rhys as either Caribbean or postcolonial writer. During the completion of *Wide Sargasso Sea*, to help her get inside the character of Antoinette's English husband, "Rochester," Rhys wrote a poem, "Obeah Nights," in his voice (L:264–6). Obeah, the belief system in the Caribbean, was created during and after slavery, and is usually understood to be the result of syncretism of multiple West African systems of consultation with spiritual practitioners (and is therefore a one on one consultation, not a religious community like a congregation) It was regarded by the British as evil and primitive, and they suppressed obeah practitioners, though Bell, Administrator of Dominica, interestingly wrote that he felt the "witchpots" of Devon and Dorset in England were another influence on obeah, as well as old Irish "superstitions" (22).

Jennifer Gilchrist (2012) in her *women Slavery, and the Problem of Freedom in Wide Sargasso Sea* claims that Jean Rhys presentation of the post-Emancipation Jamaican setting of *Wide Sargasso Sea* as one of despair subverts a conventional, progressive conception of history: that the end of slavery marked a triumph of goodwill over vicious greed and a spiritual and ethical advance for mankind. In the novel, the locus of despondency is Antoinette, for whom the Abolition of Slavery Act means the deaths of her immediate family members. As the Imperial Abolition of Slavery changes the political status of the West Indies from British protectorates to colonies, Antoinette suffers a childhood without protection and an adulthood of cultural and gender oppression. From Antoinette's perspective, the liberation the New English bring both rips away safety and imposes new, repressive social controls. While laying out the psychic costs for Antoinette, Rhys wages a broader, anti-Enlightenment critique of European, masculinist rationalism, objectivism, and liberalism. Rhys experiments to forge a new discourse to accommodate this relationship are fierce. The resulting troubled and troubling narrative world challenges readers to accept truly disturbing and widely offensive extended metaphors of femininity and *Twentieth*-European women as bonded slaves is one of the most pivotal of these metaphors. Protesting not a lack of women's rights but a set of European expectations for Creoles, Rhys ironically borrows the Enlightenment analogy of women's subjugation and chattel slavery. In its revision of *Jane Eyre*, *Wide Sargasso Sea* highlights Charlotte Bronte's use of the eighteenth century, bourgeois, feminist, woman/slave analogy that Mary

Wollstonecraft made famous. As Wollstonecraft (1988) frames the comparison, women "may be convenient slaves, but slavery will have its constant effect,

degrading the master and the abject dependent” (5). In contrast to Bronte’s

heroine, Jane, Rhys Antoinette is “slave-like” for the very reasons Wollstonecraft

isolates: vanity, sexual proclivity, uncultivated reason, inadequate education, and undeveloped virtue. Wollstonecraft opines, “An immoderate fondness for dress, for pleasure, for sway, are the passions of savages; the passions that occupy those uncivilized beings who have not yet extended the dominion of the mind, or even learned to think with the energy necessary to concatenate that abstract train of thought which produces principles” (187). In her unbridled sexuality, propensity for gazing in the mirror, disregard for facts and abstract principles, and fetishization of her red dress, Antoinette is virtually a composite of the women Wollstonecraft

warns against and against whom Bronte created her plain, independent, morally-virtuous heroine. Rhys changes none of the terms of Bronte’s madwoman. She remains beautiful, “intemperate and unchaste” (Bronte 334, Rhys 110), and homicidal-suicidal. *Wide Sargasso Sea* posits gender and cultural difference as giving the lie to legalistic conceptions of social quality. Rhys complex identity and experience informed her sense of the world so strongly that she resisted writing only one side of any story. She is both colonial and postcolonial, white but Creole, and she expressed views and made remarks that demonstrate these contradictions. (Evelyn O’Callaghan (2004:4), in her *Women Writing the West Indies, 1804–1939*, “A Hot Place Belonging to Us”, argues that it is important to read pro-colonial white women writers, even if not born in the Caribbean, to see what kind of agency their writing had in dispersing their beliefs. She was often wry about the woman writer. John J. Su (Rhys explored the victimisation of women within a patriarchal and capitalist system, one that placed racialised Others in situations of particular vulnerability. Yet her writings also demonstrate a fascination with the various currents of existentialism that were circulating in Paris while she was living there. She experimented with modernist literary forms, but her deep interest in the relationships among patriarchy, capitalism, racialisation and existentialism separated her from many of the more canonical modernist authors (Su , 2003:171-172). Rhy’s major characters often have a contradictory and hardly stable sense of self. She often used irony, a key tool of the postcolonial writer, which permits the apparently accommodating public address to power to be undermined by the subversive underlying meaning.

1.2. The Story of *Wide Sargasso Sea*

In Part I, Antoinette Cosway is a young girl living with her mother and brother at Coulibri, her family's estate near Spanish Town, Jamaica. With the passage of the Emancipation Act and the death of her father, the family is financially ruined. Moreover, they are oppressed by both the black and white communities on the island. The black community despises them for being former slaveholders, and the white community looks down on them because they are poor, Creole, and, in her mother's case, French. Among the only servants who remain is Christophine, a Martinique woman who is rumored to practice obeah. Motivated in part by her family's desperate situation, Annette, Antoinette's mother, marries Mr. Mason, a wealthy planter. This marriage, however, only seems to aggravate racial tensions in their neighborhood. One night, trouble makers burn the house down. The entire family narrowly escapes, all except Antoinette's brother Pierre, who, due to his exposure to the smoke, either dies very soon after. Pierre's death devastates Annette, who goes mad with grief. Mr. Mason sends Annette off to an isolated house to be cared for by a couple of

color. Antoinette is sent to live with her aunt Cora in Spanish Town. For a year and a half, Antoinette attends a convent school there. Part I ends with Mr. Mason back in Antoinette's life, insinuating that plans for arranging her marriage are already under way. After only a month of courtship, Rochester married Antoinette. Antoinette and Rochester grow to trust each other and consummate their marriage. But the honeymoon is short-lived, as Rochester receives a malicious letter from a man who claims to be Daniel Cosway, Antoinette's stepbrother. The letter alleges that there is a history of sexual degeneracy and mental illness in Antoinette's family, and Antoinette had previously been engaged to a relative of color, Sandi Cosway. After receiving the letter, Rochester spurns Antoinette. Using an obeah potion obtained from Christophine, Antoinette drugs and seduces Rochester. On waking, Rochester realizes that he has been drugged, and sleeps with Antoinette's maid in revenge. Betrayed, Antoinette seems to go mad herself. The second part ends with their departure from Granbois to Spanish Town, where Rochester plans to have Antoinette declared insane and confined. Part III opens with Antoinette already confined in Thornfield Hall (in England), guarded by Grace Poole. Antoinette seems to have little sense of who or where she is at this point. Her stepbrother Richard Mason visits her, and she attacks him after he refuses to help her out of her marriage. Finally, she dreams that she escapes from her room and sets fire to the entire house. At the end of the dream, she flees to the top of the battlements, then jumps off. Antoinette wakes up, and the novel ends as she escapes from her room, with a candle lighting her way down a dark hallway. Kadhm (2011) in her research paper entitled as *Double Exile : Jean Rhys's WSS* claims that Rhys links the exotic quality of the landscape to Antoinette's sexual awakening. Antoinette's sexuality proves too much for Rochester in contrast to his European "civilized" world (599). This is another element of her character that Rochester sees as non-English. He shows this in a conversation with Christophine: Do you think that I don't know? She thirsts for anyone-not for me. She'll loosen her black hair, and laugh and coax and flatter (a mad girl-she'll not care who she's loving). She'll moan and cry and give herself as no sane woman would-or could. Or could. (WSS, 135-36) .Gilchrist claims that Jean Rhys's presentation of the post-Emancipation Jamaican setting of *Wide Sargasso Sea* as one of despair subverts a conventional, progressive conception of history: that the end of slavery marked a triumph of goodwill over vicious greed and a spiritual and ethical advance for mankind .The challenge Rhys faced was how to find a voice for her madwoman that would still facilitate a coherent story. She managed this well. Antoinette's two narratives are both lucid, and connected by her memory of her three dreams (two remembered in the first narrative and the third the one that propels her to fire the house). We therefore assume this is one narrative, interrupted by "Rochester"'s story. Though the reader comprehends her, Antoinette is perceived as insane and violent in her English confinement, and she tells even the first of her narratives out of that place. Rhys's experience in Holloway prison, being evaluated as to her sanity, might have given her a way into imagining that condition (Angier, 1990: 446-7).

1.3. Drinking Alcohol as a factor in Jean Rhys *Good Morning , Midnight*

Savory (2009) claims that This novel is her masterpiece, mordantly funny and at times highly satirical, very stylized and brilliantly observed, but it has generally been far less noticed and definitely far less loved than her two novels of tragic love for young women, *Voyage in the Dark* and *Wide Sargasso Sea*. This is not a story with immediate appeal: *Good Morning, Midnight* is about a woman falling into self-destructive middle age, and abandoning even the will to survive. The ending is emotionally heightened the heroine Sasha is always drunk to forget the traumatic

agonies of the loss of her husband and her child (66). Drinking Alcohol is sometimes used in fictions either as a means for characterizing the type of a role player or as a means for getting rid of a chronic problem or a shock. Rhys so often makes alcohol a crucial factor in her novels: it is part violation of the normative codes of expectation for women, part a way to express the repressed inner core of her characters' emotional lives, liberated if distorted by the drug, and part story of the prevalence of drink in the cultural spaces Rhys wrote about, as well as in her own life(70). *Good Morning, Midnight* is about a life sinking deeper and deeper into bitterness, self-destructiveness and the embrace of nothingness. Even a chance of affection is lost because of emotional damage. Sasha meets René on a night when her hair is newly done and she has a new hat and she treats herself to an expensive bar after dinner: he preys on solitary older women who seem to have the means to take care of their looks and therefore might be assumed to be willing to pay for a bit of sexual interest. But she has lost too many important emotional connections: her parents and family, Enno and her baby. Two tiny details give away that she once had the capacity for affection: she felt love for One of her women characters, Sasha Jansen, laments in her novel *Good Morning, Midnight* (1939): "I have no pride-no pride, no name, no face, no country. I don't belong anywhere" (WSS xv). Francis Wyndham (1984) provides a reading of Rhys's dilemma: "She [Rhys] had been cursed by... a feeling of belonging nowhere, of being ill at ease and out of place in her surroundings... a stranger in an indifferent, even hostile world" (Gregg, 1995: 7). Enno when he looked anxious one day (*GMM*:129), and she called God "a devil" because of the loss of the baby(*GMM*:140). As the novel progresses, she loses the last chance of affection with René, who seems to care for her genuinely, and in a quasi-paternal protective way. Because Sasha is so inept at manipulating men for money, it is a huge irony that she begins a connection to René, who successfully gets women to pay him for sex. He boasts that he will do well in England, because it is not a woman's country: "Unhappy as a dog in Turkey or a woman in London." There, he says, it's a case of "(a)t least fifty per cent of the men homosexual and the others not liking it so much as all that. And the poor Englishwomen just gasping for it, oh boy!" (*GMM*:157). Sasha thinks he is a fool to imagine he can work London successfully, "he'll find out he will be up against racial, not sexual, characteristics. Love is a stern virtue in England," and a "matter of hygiene" (*GMM*:157). René is curious about her sexuality (perhaps because she resists him). He has tried boys "in Morocco" but "it was no use. I like women" (*GMM*:160). Sasha is bitterly ironical about that: "Then you ought to be worth your weight in gold" (in England, where by implication, there are few straight men ;*GMM*:160). He asks her if she has ever been interested in women and she confesses that she once saw a girl she could have loved, "in a bordel" (*GMM*:160). But of course she never pursued it. Part Four brilliantly intertwines threads established earlier in the novel, and culminates in a stream of consciousness (Rhys did something similar in *Voyage in the Dark*). This novel has again three important male characters, this time Enno, René, and the commis, a sinister man who stays in the room next to Sasha. Enno, who is important in Part Three, vanishes from Part Four, a sign that Sasha's hopeful youth has entirely gone. It is René and the commis who are important in this last section. The commis appears one day in the corridor of the rooming house where Sasha is staying, in an "immaculately white" dressing gown, looking "like a priest . . . of some obscene, half understood religion" (*GMM*:35). He has two dressing gowns, the white one and a blue one, and he is "like the ghost of the landing," almost like a zombi, a living-dead person. He is furious to find that René visits Sasha in her hotel room. Rhys exploits the ironies of gender conventions when she has Sasha notice the gigolo's beautiful teeth (so reminiscent of evaluating people as chattels, and of Walter's appraisal of Anna in *Voyage in the Dark*). The last interactions

of Sasha and Rene´ are directed by Sasha’s terror of intimacy. Rene can’t quite work out why she is so afraid, and wonders if she might fear he will harm her. Her suppressed emotion is evident when her throat hurts and she cannot speak, and, when she does regain speech, she is violently angry, but expresses fear of people. Clearly there is some trauma underneath all this, which seems indicated by a sudden memory of “a misery of utter darkness.” It takes her away from the present moment, so that, when she returns to consciousness of Rene´, he is “looking sad.” Perhaps because he wants to let her know he too has his scars from the past, he shows her a literal one, across his throat. Rhys captures the emotional chaos in Sasha by a series of small details: her feeling she has “screamed, shouted, cursed, cried” (*GMM*:174), her image of “the little grimacing devil in myhead” (*GMM*:175), who wears a top hat reminiscent of the “little black boy” mentioned earlier. She also recalls a sadomasochistic fantasy of being forced to serve a man and other women, and of being ill-treated and betrayed by the man. This seems a version of the Mr. Howard material in Rhys’s *Black Exercise Book*: here it is a very effective way of indicating how deep Sasha’s sexual and emotional damage goes, so that even when Rene´ makes her feel young and happy it cannot last. Of course she uses alcohol, and relies on a cynical humor, “I bet nobody’s ever thought of that way of bridging the gap before” (*GMM*:178); she tells Rene´ to go to hell when he tries to stop her drinking. He keeps trying to find a way to get close to her, telling her she loves playing a comedy and he wants to see it, but the more he tries, the more she is afraid (that he will laugh at her, see her as old). Then he becomes irritable and frustrated and they struggle on the bed, with him trying to physically break into her, and trying to shock her with a story about how in Morocco you can have a woman easily by getting “four comrades to help you . . . They each take their turn” (*GMM*:182). Though Sasha feels she is dead, she does eventually feel something and cries, though everything hurts, as a numb limb might hurt coming back to life. But then she finally realizes the way to have him go: offer him money and reduce their relationship to a transaction. Rhys writes Sasha’s extreme drunkenness effectively so that it adds a terribly tragic dimension to the whole scene. She hears voices, one laughing, one crying, and knows that the laughing one isn’t her. The gigolo has not taken her money, for which she is grateful. She remembers earlier experiences out of context: the “Russian’s face” and talk about “Madame Venus,” a flashback to a scene earlier in the novel (*GMM*:186). Rhys used such flashbacks in the stream of consciousness she gave Anna in *Voyage in the Dark*. She knows she believes in nothing, not Venus, Apollo or even Jesus. All “that is left is an enormous machine made of white steel,” with arms and eyes at the end of them, “stiff with mascara” (*GMM*:187). She is delusional, believing Rene´ can be reached by her will and made to come back, so she opens the door and takes off her clothes and gets into bed. We discover it is not Rene´ by the conceit of the dressing gown: Sasha asks which one it is. The commis looks down at her meanly. She looks into his eyes and thinks she will “despise a poor devil of a human being for the last time,” and she puts her arms around him and pulls him down onto the bed, at the last moment of the novel, saying “Yes–yes–yes,” which, as Howells (1991) points out, is an ironical echo of the words of Molly Bloom at the end of Joyce’s *Ulysses* and that Rhys is writing back to both *Ulysses* and *The Waste Land* (99). This is a deeply disturbing conclusion, but very powerful: a surrender to the end of love, a female wasteland.

Conclusion

Jean Rhys through tackling topics of race, gender in relation to women, tries to present the theme of fate which plays a vital role in deciding and changing the life of her women heroines. For example, People are often beyond the control of the fate of their own, especially for a woman who was born in the declined slave-owning family. Society, family and individual factors, all these totally determine Antoinette's tragic fate ,the heroine of *WSS*. She is a tragic figure. She gets no love from her family at the young age. Being the daughter of a slaveholder, she is cursed and hated by the blacks. She has no friends to communicate with. She is lonely. When she has grown up, marriage is the only way to change her life condition, so she has great expectation of her husband. Unfortunately, she marries a man who does not love her. Her husband is an English man. At that time, they are very different in all aspects. They have racial and gender inequality. Their marriage is doomed to be a tragedy. After Antoinette finds that Rochester has an affair with her servant, she is then locked up in an attic all day and her mentality is breakdown completely. Thus, abandoned by her husband is the direct cause that makes Antoinette fall into despair and set the fire to end the life. Even Sasha, the heroine of the second novel *Good morning , midnight* ,was ill fated, alone and terribly sad. All these miseries are due to her feeling of unbelonging and melancholia . Jean Rhys at the end has a didactic message for all of those who oppress women and underestimate them and warns men that hurting women may lead to dangerous results and sometimes to madness so it is time to have a voice and ask for a change.

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Function and Position of Noun phrases in English and Kurdish

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ABSTRACT

Nouns are open class items. They have different positions and functions in both languages English and Kurdish. Learners of English have **problems** with regard to nouns, their classes, and their phrase patterns. It may seem very easy that a Kurdish learner of English know what a noun is. But when the time comes to build on that

knowledge to construct noun forms such as noun phrases and their role in the sentence, it becomes clear that the foundation to build on may be shaky and learners may have problems. These problems have been ever since areas of challenge in teaching them. So these problems involve teachers as well. Amongst the factors of these difficulties is the mother tongue interference. The present study attempts to make clear the role of noun phrases in the two languages. This research **aims** to answer the questions: What are the functions and positions of noun phrases in the two languages? and; Are there similarities and differences as far as nouns and their functions and positions are concerned in both languages? This research has pedagogical significance since it helps linguists and teachers of both languages know the points of similarities and differences of noun phrases in different positions and functions in the two languages.

Key Words: Function, Position, Noun Phrase, Difference, Similarity

1. INTRODUCTION

Nouns, from the traditional perspective, are said to have the semantic property that they denote entities. Thus *bottle* is the type of object used to contain liquids. According to Murcia and Freeman (2002: 15) even in identifying standard parts of speech, one may face difficulty for example a noun is "the name of a person, place or thing". This definition works for the nouns *Kevin*, *Cincinnati*, and *book*, but it becomes problematic when we think about a word such as *force*. Nouns, semantically defined, are the names of a person, place or thing. Some linguists account for abstract nouns and define them as names of idea such as *freedom*, *life* and *happiness*, or names of activities like *swimming*, *reading*, *smoking... etc.* (Ibid)

A simple noun is a minimal unit that is unbreakable into smaller units for example, a simple noun like *pen* is unbreakable because it is one morpheme. On the other hand, the same noun may have

two morphemes like *pens*. So there are two morphemes to mark simple countable nouns; *pen* and *s*. Another inflectional morpheme is possessive 's which can be added to a noun. Sometimes nouns can be formed by attaching the derivational morphemes to adjectives like *sadness* and they acquire all the properties of a noun. (Ibid)

Nouns are divided into classes. They can be divided into: common or proper, concrete or abstract, collective, individual and mass. Sometimes a noun like *Richard* is called a proper noun, while a noun like *hospital* is called a common noun. Another classification of nouns is count and non-count nouns. A noun like *book* is a count noun whereas *bread* is non-count. (Quirk, R. et. al.1987: 720)

A noun phrase is a group of words with a noun as its main part or head. Information about the noun can be before or after the noun. (Cullen &Hopkins, 2007:99)

Linear Sequence of Main Sentence Elements in English and Kurdish Sentences:

All languages have the three main elements: subject (S), verb (V) and object (O). So languages can have the following possible word orders:

- I. SOV
- II. SVO
- III. OSV
- IV. VOS
- V. OVS
- VI. VSO

Modern English is an analytical language. It is an example of SVO word order. The grammatical principle, in English, enforces the linear sequence subject (S), verb (V), object (O), complement (C), and adverbial (A). Thus English sentences observe the grammatical principle without violating the linearity principle.(Chamonikolasova, Volume 35,No.2.2009).

The basic sentence elements contain a subject which is immediately followed by a verb and the other sentence elements occur after the verb. Elements like adverbials when they are not obligatory can precede the subject. (Quirk, et.al, 1987:720-21) The following patterns are the possible linear sequences of English simple sentences:

- I. SV
- II. SVO
- III. SVC
- IV. SVA
- V. SVOO
- VI. SVOC
- VII. SVOA

On the other hand, Kurdish language is one of the languages that yield to SOV word order. From the syntactic perspective, if a sentence is regarded as the biggest unit, and analyze its components according to their functions, a Kurdish sentence can have the following five possible patterns: (Fattah, M.M, 1997: 246)

- I. SV
- II. SOV
- III. SCV
- IV. SOVC
- V. SOCV

Nouns and noun phrases:

Sequences of words that can function as constituents in the structure of sentences are called PHRASES.” (Burton-Roberts, 1997, p. 14). On the other hand, to understand the structure of a sentence needs not only knowing its constituents, but also involves knowing the category and the function of the categories. A phrase consists of one or more words that do not contain the subject-verb pair needed to form a clause. Phrases can be too short or rather long. (Simmons: 2014) A noun phrase is the phrase that the entire word group is governed by a noun. In other words, a noun phrase is the phrase that its head is a noun. Obvious noun phrase modifiers are determiners, quantifiers, adjectives and adjective phrases and clauses, nouns and noun phrases, and adpositions. (Miller and Brown, 1999 :260)

*the **baby***

*the lovely **baby***

*the lovely smart **baby***

*the lovely smart green-eyed **baby***

*the lovely smart green-eyed **baby** who is crawling towards us*

The above examples show that a phrase can be expanded into a very long phrase, even longer than this, but the most important part of it is the noun **baby** which is called the **head**. A noun phrase can be substituted by a pronoun, for example, the above noun phrases can be substituted by **he/ she** or **it** if they act as subjects, but if they have the function of an object, they can be substituted by **him/ her** or **it**.

***The lovely smart green-eyed baby who is crawling towards us** is my nephew.*

This sentence is equal to:

***He/ She / It** is my nephew.*

*Do you know **the lovely smart green-eyed baby who is crawling towards us**?*

*Do you know **him/ her/it**?*

The possible pattern of any English and Kurdish noun phrase is:

(pre modifier(s) (optional)) (Noun (obligatory)) ((post modifier(s))

both my brilliant students (English)
(*pre modifiers*) (*head N*)

hardû qutabia bahramandakanm (Kurdish)
(*pre modifier*) (*head N*) (*post modifiers*)

In Kurdish, as in the above example, adjectives most commonly occur as post modifier of the noun head. The definite and indefinite articles in Kurdish are not free morphemes. They are bound morphemes and attached to the end of the noun.

In English, however, adjectives are not very common in post-head complementation as in pre-head modification. Post modification of indefinite pronouns, however, like (*somebody, everybody...*) is more usual. An example of post complementation is *useful*, for example, in *something useful*. It comes as post modifier of the indefinite pronoun *something*. Other exceptions are *present, proper* and some adjectives ending in *-able* and *-ible* have different connotations when used predicatively, as in “*the present members*” compared with “*the members present*”. Likewise, some (a-adjectives) like (*available, ablaze, afloat, absent, etc.*) as well as *concerned* and *involved* do not usually occur attributively (pre-head modification). (Quirk, et.al, 1987:721)

To understand the structure of any sentence syntactically, one should know the structure of the phrases and the function of these phrases:

(*This pill*) (*will take away*)(*the pain*) (*temporarily*).
NP VP NP AdvP
S V Od A

The symbols NP indicate noun phrase, VP stands for verb phrase and AdvP represents adverb phrase. On the other hand, these phrases have syntactic names, for example S is subject, V is the verb, Od is direct object and A is adverb, here adverb of manner.

Function and position of Noun Phrases within a Sentence:

Noun phrases function as arguments of the predicates. Hence, noun phrase arguments are classified according to their semantic and syntactic functions. Semantically, noun phrases are named according to their semantic roles such as; agent, theme, goal, experience ...etc. These semantic terms are based due to the syntactic role of these noun phrases in addition to the type of the verb. Syntactic functions are often known as *grammatical relations*. (Tallerman, 1998: 39-40)There are ten syntactic functions that an NP may have in all sentences:

1. Subject
2. Subject complement
3. Direct object
4. Indirect object
5. Object complement
6. Prepositional complement

7. Noun phrase modifier
8. Determinative
9. Appositive
10. Adverbial

1. Subject:

In English, subjects precede verbs and it is one of the ways to talk about subjects in this language. (Tallerman, 1998: 41). In some languages like English as well as Kurdish they are preverbal NP. In Kurdish, on the other hand, the subject of the intransitive verbs is the only NP that comes before verbs. The NP, in both languages, is the subject participant of the intransitive verb such as:

The birds flew. (*the birds* is an NP and it is subject) (English)

Bâlindakân frîn. (*Bâlindakân* is an NP and it is subject) (Kurdish)

The subject, in English as well as Kurdish, controls subject/verb agreement. This is one of the properties of subjects. They determine whether the verb must be singular or plural. This confirms that they are defined by their syntactic properties and not by their semantic properties. The subject of a passive sentence is a syntactic subject, but semantically it is an object. Still it determines the plurality and singularity of the verb.

The girl sells flowers. (*the girl* is a singular NP and its verb *sells* is singular) (active)

Flowers are sold by the girl. (*flowers* is syntactic subject and it is plural and still it controls the verb to be plural) (passive)

Kichaka gulakân dafroshēt. (*kichaka* is a singular NP and its verb *dafroshet* is singular) (active)

Gûlakân dafroshrēn. (*Gûlakân* is a plural NP and its verb *dafroshrēn* is plural) (passive)

In Kurdish, in a sentence there may be two NPs as subject:

Ĕma, dastmân ŝka. (*Ĕma, dustman* are two NPs as subject)

Awân xoyân hâtin. (*Awân, xoyân* are two NPs as subject)

Ĉirâka xoy dâgirsâ. (*Ĉirâka, xoy* are two NPs as subject)

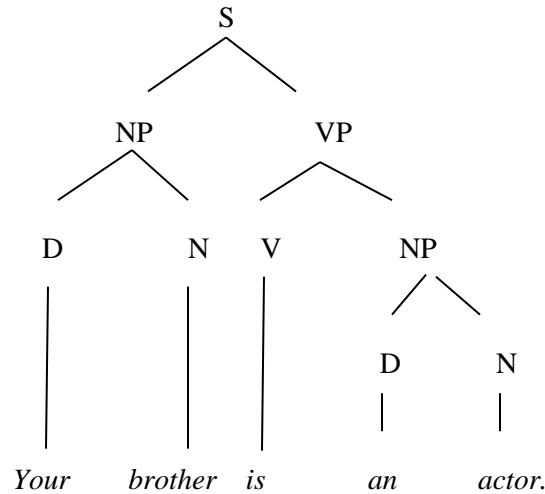
2. Subject Complement:

The complement of an intensive verb functions as predicative. In English, the complement can take the form of an adjective phrase, noun phrase, and prepositional phrase. Verb to *be* is an intensive verb, which in syntactical category is called *copula*. (Burton- Roberts, N., 1997: 85-86)

Your brother is rather extravagant. (*rather extravagant* is an AP)

Your brother is an actor. (*an actor* is an NP)

Your brother is in the studio. (*in the studio* is a PP)



In English, *be* is the most frequent verb that has more distinct forms with respect to person, number, and tense than any other verb. Verbs like; *become, seem, sound, appear, remain, look, taste, feel, smell,* and *turn* take the predicative as complement, just like *be*. These verbs are called linking verbs. Most of these copular verbs can be followed by an AP only except for those copulas which denote a change-of-state *become, turn*. When an NP is a predicative of these verbs, they are called *Subject Complement*: ((Celce-Murcia, M. and Larsen-Freeman, D., 1999)(54-55)

Your brother is an actor. (*an actor* is an NP which is a Subject complement)

Your brother became an actor. (*an actor* is an NP which is a Subject complement)

The crew turned traitor. (*traitor* is an NP which is a subject complement)

In Kurdish, verb to *be* is *bû* (*for past*) or (with the aid of personal pronoun \emptyset + *-a* *for present* which , when it is the main verb or copula, needs an NP or AP as predicative complements:

Pîawaka âzâya..(*âzâya* is AP as subject complement)

Pîawaka pëshmargaya.. (*pëshmargaya* is NP as subject complement)

The morpheme *-a* is the present tense marker. (Abdullah, Rožân Noori, 2007:102). It is too weak to appear; only it is possible to appear with third person singular.

The noun in the NP as complement should be used as a general noun when it refers to job or profession: (Wilia,Hatim, 2013: 216)

Nâzdar qutabia. (*qutabi.* is NP as subject complement)

Kiçakam mâmostaya . (*mâmosta* is NP as subject complement)

Aw hâwrêyânâk kûrdn. (*kûrd* is NP as subject complement)

In Kurdish the verb that corresponds the meaning of *became* or *turned* has the form of (*bû*+ *personal pronoun suffix*+ *-a*). However, the present form is *da*+ *b*(*stem of bûn*)+*personal pronoun suffix*+*-a*:

Kiçakam bû ba mâmosta. (*mâmosta* is NP as subject complement for the verb *bû ba* -past.)

Kiçakam dabêta mâmosta..(*mâmosta*.is NP as subject complement for the verb *dabêta* for present and future).

When the main verb is verb to *be* in Kurdish (*habûn*), its stem disappears and becomes \emptyset morpheme for present tenses in imperative, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences. Personal pronoun suffixes appear to agree with the subject in person and number. (Rasoul,Abdullah,2015:443)

Min mâmostam. (*-m* is a personal pronoun and agrees with *min*)

To mâmostait. (*-it* is a personal pronoun refers to *you* (singular))

Aw mâmostaya. (*-ya* is a personal pronoun refers to *He/ She*)

Ûma mâmostayn. (*-yn* is a personal pronoun refers to *us*)

Ûwa mâmostan. (*-n* is a personal pronoun refers to *you* (plural))

Awân mâmostan. (*-n* is a personal pronoun refers to *them*)

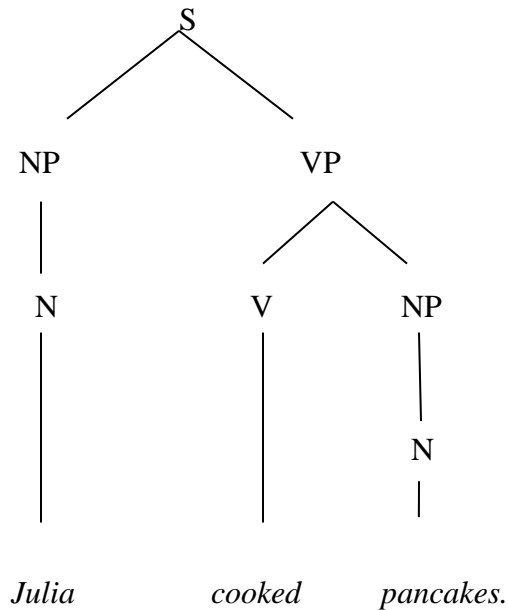
3. Direct object:

A direct object is that part of sentence which completes the action of the verb. (Dykes, Barbera, 2007:97) A noun phrase can have the function of a direct object of the transitive verbs, mono and ditransitive. Direct object semantically has three names: resultant, cognate and affected as well as locative, instrumental, and eventive. (Quirk, et.al,1987:749). In English, which is an SVO language, direct object comes after the verb, if the verb is monotransitive:

Julia cooked pancakes. (*pancakes* is an NP has the function of direct object)

The maid has fed the chicks. (*the chicks* is an NP has the function of direct object)

The government had reconstructed the old stadium.(*the old stadium* is an NP has the function of direct object)



The difference between direct and indirect object is clearer in terms of order. Usually, in English, a direct object follows the indirect object whenever there is no preposition.

I have sent you the e-mail. (the e-mail is direct object which follows you)

When the indirect object, semantically recipient tells *to whom, for whom, and of whom*, the indirect object comes after these prepositions.

I have sent the e-mail. (for you, to you, of you)

Direct objects don't necessarily agree with the subject in number, person and gender only when the direct object is reflexive pronoun. As Shwanî (2008: 99) states that Kurdish language is an SOV language, so the verb comes at the end of the sentence and direct object precedes the verb. Direct objects come only with the transitive verbs, whereas indirect objects come with transitive and intransitive verbs also.

In English, when a sentence is made passive, the subject is obligatorily omitted and the verb changes its form to *be+ pp* and the direct object is moved to the subject position. In passive sentences, the direct object, in syntactic terminology, is called grammatical or syntactical subject. There is no specified passive form of the verb in English. It can only be detected by the passive construction *be+ p.p.* (Tallerman, Maggie,1998: 180)

Someone has stolen my contact-lenses.(*my contact-lenses* is an NP as direct object- active)

My contact -lenses have been stolen. (*My contact -lenses* is an NP as grammatical or syntactic subject-passive.)

In Kurdish, direct objects come after subjects and sometimes sentences come without subjects at the beginning but it is understood by the personal pronoun suffix that comes with the direct object:

Min čěštakam lěná.

Čěštakam lěná. (agentless sentence)(*Čěštaka* is an NP as direct object)

In Kurdish, there are verbs that are not simple and the noun that precedes them can be regarded as the subject and not direct object because they have an idiomatic meaning. (Fattah, M., 2010: 254-255)

Zimân drěz maka. (The noun *Zimân* is the subject)

Čâwyan pëi kawt. (The noun *Čâwyan* is the subject)

Gwëi šor kird. (The noun *Gwëi* is the subject)

dîi pís bú. (The noun *dîi* is the subject)

Other verbs that are not simple are preceded by nouns, which are expected to be direct objects, but actually they are subjects.(Ibid)

Šûšaka drzî bird.(the noun *Šûšaka* comes before the verb and is subject and not direct object)

Čîrâka dâgirsâ.. (the noun *Čîrâka* comes before the verb and is subject and not direct object)

As cited in (Faraj, MA thesis, 2009:60) passive construction is described in morphological terms. It is only obtained through transitive verbs. When a sentence is made passive, the passive element *-r* is added with the aid of tense markers *-â* for past and *-ë* for present. So *râ* is for past passive and *rë* is for present passive:

Pîawaka dârankanî sûtand. (active -*dârankan* is an NP as direct object)

Dârankân sûtënrân (passive- *Dârankân* is an NP and is a grammatical subject and logical object, *râ* is past passive marker)

Azâd šîrakay hëná.

Šîraka hënrâ. (passive- *Šîraka* is grammatical subject and logical object, *râ* is past passive marker)

Galâwëž mâfûr dačëñët.

Mâfûraka dačënrët. (*Mâfûraka* is grammatical subject and logical object, *rë* is present passive marker)

When the subject is mentioned, in English, the subject occurs after the preposition *by*. In Kurdish, on the other hand, the subject is preceded by *la;ayan* , *ba dasti*:

In English as well as Kurdish, when the direct object is a reflexive pronoun, passive is not allowed:

The men defended themselves. (active)

*Themselves are defended. (passive)

Piawakân xoyan pârst.(active)

*Xoyân pârzrân. (passive)

4. Indirect object:

Indirect object was traditionally defined as the second noun object that tells us *to whom, for whom* or *of whom* the action is expressed. It occurs when there is a direct object. (Celce-Murcia, M. and Larsen-Freeman, D., 1999) In English, indirect object occurs with ditransitive verbs. The indirect object is possible with the recipient NP in immediate post verbal position as well as after prepositions (*to, for, of*):

Anna gave Kate a present. (Kate is indirect object)

Anna made Kate a present. (Kate is indirect object)

Anna asked Kate a question. (Kate is indirect object)

Anna gave a present to Kate. (Kate is indirect object)

Anna made a present for Kate. (Kate is indirect object)

Anna asked a question of Kate. (Kate is indirect object)

In Kurdish, however, the structure which contains prepositionless indirect object may cause difficulties since indirect object comes always after the prepositions *ba, bo* or (*ya* or *-y*). It comes with the transitive and intransitive verbs and it can occur in more than one position: (Faraj, MA.thesis: 2009: 3)

*Mn dyârîak-m ba to dâ. (*I a present to you gave) (to is indirect object)*

*Mn ba to dyârîak-m dâ. (*I to you a present gave.) (to is indirect object)*

*Mn dyârîak-m dâ ba to. (*I a present gave to you.) (to is indirect object)*

*Mn dyârîak-m dâ-ya- to. (*I a present gave you.) (to is indirect object)*

*Ba to mn dyârîak-m dâ. (*to you I a present gave.) (to is indirect object)*

*Mn dyârîak-m dâ-ytê. (*I a present gave you.) (-yt is indirect object refers to you)*

There are some sentences in Kurdish where an indirect object can occur with an intransitive verb and comes after the preposition. Such sentences have passive interpretation:

Kitêbaka bo to dêt. (The book for you will arrive) (to is indirect object)*

Namayakm bo hat. (a letter to me came.) (-m is indirect object)*

Zangi nâma bo Kârwan hât. (a message ring to Karwan came)(Karwan is indirect object)*

5. Object Complement:

A noun phrase is an object complement when the verb is complex transitive. These verbs take either two NPs or an NP and AP as direct object and object complement. It is characterized to attribute a property to the direct object, not the subject. (Burton-Roberts, 1997)

He found his jokes extremely funny. (*extremely funny* AP as object complement)

He found his jokes funny ones. (*funny ones* NP as object complement)

In English, verbs like *find*, *regard*, *consider*, *elect*, *name*, and *make* are those verbs that need a direct object and an object complement. Complements typically have the role of attribute. They attribute an identification or characterization to the direct object. (Greenbaum, and Nelson, 2002:36)

They made my brother their assistant. (*their assistant* is NP as object complement)

I consider my book a good friend. (*a good friend* is NP as object complement)

Object complements agree with the object in person and number and the noun in the NP is general and not specified.

In Kurdish, object complements usually occur with complex verbs like *lê qalam dâ*, *ba ...dânâ*, *ba.... nâsi*, *ba.... hažmâr+* stem of *kirdn*. Thus, these verbs always need prepositions *la*, *ba*

Xalki gûndaka kûrakayân ba šêt la qalam dâ. (*šêt* is AP as object complement)

Xalki gûndaka kûrakayân ba mâmostâ la qalam dâ. (*mâmostâ* is NP as object complement)

Object complement can have different positions in a sentence:

Xalki gûndaka kûrakayân ba mâmostâ la qalam dâ. (S+ O+ Prep.Co +V)

Xalki gûndaka ba mâmostâ kûrakayân la qalam dâ. (S +Prep.Co+ O+V)

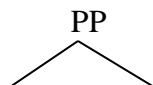
Ba mâmostâ xalki gûndaka kûrakayân la qalam dâ. (Prep.Co+ S+O+V)

6. Prepositional complement:

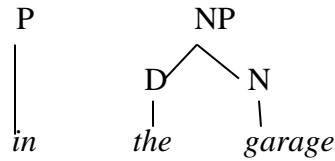
A prepositional complement is the complement that consists of a noun phrase and a preposition in a prepositional phrase. Noun phrases that come after a preposition can be an object of preposition, adverbial of time and place.

In English, etymologically and practically the term *preposition* is restricted to a lexical item which comes before its object noun phrase. Prepositions are a closed class of items: (Trask,1993:215)

in the garage

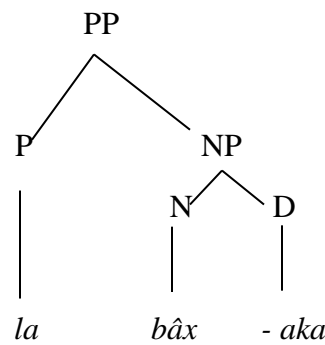


with his friends
to their parents
on the sea shore



In Kurdish as well, prepositions precede their NPs. As it is clear from this tree diagram that definite and even indefinite markers are bound morphemes (*-aka* –*akan*) for definite, (*-ak* or *-ek*) for indefinite and they are attached to the end of the noun.

la baxaka
lagal xanawadakay
bo bazaar
ba se roze



7. Noun phrase modifier:

In English as well as Kurdish nouns can occur as modifiers of the noun heads of noun phrases. They precede the noun heads and give them a description.

- the kitchen curtain* (*kitchen* is a noun that modifies the noun head *curtain*)
- the computer screen* (*computer* is a noun that modifies the noun head *screen*)
- my school bag* (*school* is a noun that modifies the noun head *bag*)
- these supermarket trolleys* (*supermarket* is a noun that modifies the noun head *trolleys*)
- three goose eggs* (*goose* is a noun that modifies the noun head *eggs*)

In Kurdish, a noun doesn't modify a noun head without the help of the morpheme *-y*. When a noun occurs with another noun it would rather be regarded as a compound noun and there is the morpheme *-a* between them (Xoşnaw, Nareemân Abdullah 2010:120)

dâr sew
dâr mew
dâr hanar

gula hêro

gula ganim

8. Determinatives

A determinative means a noun or a noun phrase with the possessive clitic (-'s for singular and -s' for plural) that indicates possession of or some other relationship to another noun or noun phrase. Determinatives don't have determiners *the, a* because the genitive phrase is itself in determinative position. (Lyons,1985:124)

Mr. Garry's daughter

Emma's notebook

My teacher's cell phone

In English, the preposition *of* is used for attribution. It corresponds the genitive 's. it comes with abstraction as well as quantity and fractions: (Quirk and Greenbaum,1973: 161)

a man of religion

a moment of confession

University of California

the statue of liberty

a kilo of rice

three bundles of pencil

a large amount of money

So these kinds of noun phrases occur with the preposition *of*, but in Kurdish it is different. In Kurdish however, the preposition that corresponds *of* is a bound morpheme *-y* which is derived from the possessive pronoun *hi* for possession(Mahmud,2002:15), or \emptyset morpheme with quantities:

Zânkoy Salahadin

parky nâw šar

logoy kanâlaka

čwar kilo sâwâr

nîw pârča nân

9. Appositive:

It is a noun phrase which describes another noun phrase with the same referent. It is similar to non-restrictive relative clause. Appositives are separated by two commas. (Trask,1993:19)

Dr. Brown, the Dean, has just arrived. (the Dean is an NP as appositive)

Johnny, the little baby, is very cute. (the little baby is an NP as appositive)

Lily, Mr. Richard's nephew, loves cartoon films. (Mr. Richard's nephew is an NP as appositive)

Face book, the social page, is widespread nowadays. (the social page is an NP as appositive)

In Kurdish likewise noun phrases can act as appositive.

Kak Azad, jirânakamân, dwênê tâzyay habû. (jirânakaân is an NP as appositive)

Sâzgâr, kiçî pûrim, qutabi kolêzî yasâya. (kiçî pûrim is an NP as appositive)

Halgurd, lutkay çyay Hasarost, barztrin lutkaya la Iraq. (lutkay çyay Hasarost is an NP as appositive)

10. Adverbial:

Noun phrases can have the function of an adverb of time and of place. In both languages there are some noun phrases that are adverbials.

Our guests arrived yesterday. (yesterday is an NP as adverbial of time)

She went home.(home is an NP as adverbial of place)

This afternoon we are going to the shops. (This afternoon is an NP as adverbial of time)

Qutabiakân garânawa mâlawa. (mâlawa is an NP as adverbial of place)

Am êwâraya hamumân kodabinawa. (Am ewaraya is an NP as adverbial of time)

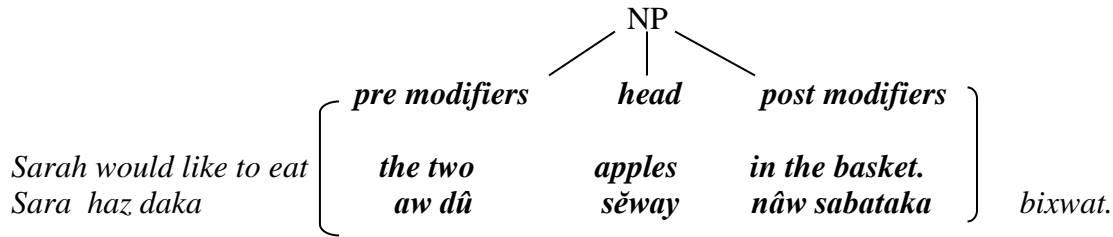
Haftay râburdû pişwi Nawroz bû. (Haftay raburdû is an NP as adverbial of time)

Conclusion

Noun phrases may consist of only a noun which is the head and the obligatory part that cannot be omitted. It has a very important role in a sentence. Few types of sentences can bear the absence of nouns and noun phrases. Each language has its own word order and this is true about English and Kurdish. Noun phrases have different syntactic roles which meanwhile determine their positions.

This research is an attempt which has been accomplished in search of finding out a great deal of issues concerning function and position of noun phrases. It has concluded with some worth mentioning points:

Nouns work as noun phrases with different patterns in sentences. The basic pattern of a noun phrase is:



Within the noun phrase, in English articles *a, an, the* which are regarded as determiners D come before noun heads as free morphemes. In Kurdish, a noun is definite or indefinite when it is attached to the suffixes *-aka, -akan, -êk*.

Another difference is that attributive adjectives come before noun heads in English while they post modify noun head in Kurdish.

According to word order, English is SVO and Kurdish is SOV. Therefore, their sentence patterns differ and the linear sequence of their syntactic units differ and their distinctions have been detected in this research.

Noun phrases have the function of a subject. In English as well as Kurdish the subject is a noun phrase and it precedes the verb. The subject controls the verb. There should be agreement in person and number between the subject and the verb even in passive sentences when objects occupy subject position.

In Kurdish, with some complex verbs that are intransitive direct objects act as subjects like *Qâpaka dirzî bird.* and *Âgiraka dagirsâ*

Some of these sentences have metaphorical interpretation: *Zimânî drêž kird.*

In some Kurdish sentences there are two subjects: *Ëma dastmân şika.*

The second function is subject complement. Noun phrases are subject complements if they are arguments of intensive verbs like *be, seem, look..* etc. Among English copular verbs *become* and *turn* accept an NP as their predicative while others would rather set AP as their complement. Correspondence to *become* and *turn*, there are (*bû+ personal pronoun suffix+ -a*) and the present form is *da+ b(stem of bûn)+personal pronoun suffix+ -a*. In English, the subject complement follows the verb while in Kurdish when the verb corresponds *be* the subject complement precedes the verb, but when the verb means *become* the subject complement follows the verb.

A noun phrase is a direct object when the verb is transitive and it follows the verb in English, but Kurdish allows the direct object to precede the verb and in agentless sentences the direct object occurs at the beginning of the sentence. In both languages passive is not possible when the direct object is a reflexive or reciprocal pronoun.

Indirect object is another function of noun phrases. In English indirect objects come with ditransitive verbs either immediately after the direct objects or after prepositions; *to, for,* and *of*. So there are two passives of sentences that have two objects. In Kurdish indirect objects come with transitive and intransitive verbs and they come only after prepositions and they come in more than one position.

Another function of noun phrases is they are object complements. Complex transitive verbs take two noun phrases, one as direct object and the other as object complement.

English object complements come directly after direct object as their complements. Object complements agree with the direct object in number, person and gender. Complex transitive verbs in English are *consider, regard, elect, name, call...etc.*

In Kurdish, object complements come always after the preposition *ba*. it comes in different positions and the verbs are complex like; *la qalam dân , nâw hênân, danân...etc.*

Prepositional complement is another function of noun phrases in the two languages. Noun phrases are complements of prepositions in the prepositional phrase PP which comes as indirect objects, adverbial of place and adverbial of time. In the two languages the PP occur in different positions without affecting the meaning and structure of the sentence, especially when they are adverbials of time and place. The noun phrase is always post modifier of the head preposition.

In English, it is possible that a noun phrase modifies another noun. This is not possible in Kurdish. In Kurdish the noun that comes before the head noun comes with the genitive *-y*. nouns as modifiers are possible only with fractions. Other forms are likely to be regarded as compound nouns.

Determinatives are noun phrases. There are two ways to express genitive in English, either by *of +noun phrase* or *-s, -s'*, while in Kurdish, there is only *-y* which stands for both.

Noun phrases have the function of appositives. In both languages noun phrases act as appositives that are put between two commas. They come immediately after the nouns they modify similarly to non-restrictive relative clauses.

The tenth function is that noun phrases are adverbials of time and place. English and Kurdish have nouns that indicate time and place.

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Persuasion Strategies Used in Kurdish and English Religious Speeches

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ABSTRACT

Oratory is an art of delivering speech; it is "the rationale and practice of persuasion public address" (Baird,1974: 641). As a form of spoken speech or oral communication, it is immediate in its audience relationships and reactions. An oration is the delivered speeches; a type of oration common to Kurdish and English is the sermons delivered on Fridays and Sundays in mosques and churches respectively. This paper examines the persuasive strategies used in Kurdish and English religious speeches. Therefore, it investigates the persuasive side of language in speeches delivered in the field of religious oratory. It investigates the techniques mulla/priest follow to apply the persuasion strategies in their sermons (Fridays and Sundays) respectively. It also investigates whether the same techniques are used to present the strategies in both languages. This is done from an Aristotelian point of view, meaning that it focuses on how religious men utilize Aristotle's three means of persuasion: Ethos, Pathos, and Logos. The analysis is basically performed through personal observations guided by previous studies within the frame of Aristotelian's rhetoric. The results indicate that Mulas and Priests try to move audience mostly by: firstly; arousing the emotion of people fear mongering, evoking anger using repetitions and metaphor, secondly; showing himself a credible person by appealing to authority, and thirdly; bringing logical reasons and proofs (evidences). In short, repetition and rhetorical questions have a great role in collaborating ethos, pathos, and logos in their remarks.

Keywords: Ethos, Logos, Pathos, Persuasion, and Rhetoric.

1. INTRODUCTION

Oratory, in general, is "the art of making speech and delivering it," (Abbey, 1973: 213). It is an art cultivated for itself; it serves many fields like politics, law courts, and religion. A religious oration, generally, (a Friday/Sunday sermon in particular) expresses the fears, hopes, and attitudes of people who attractively hear or listen to it. It helps men to understand the content of their faith and how to live according to its instructions. A Friday sermon is concerned with importing knowledge to the congregation concerning religion in worship places on a fixed weekly worship day. The objective of any sermon is to meet some need of people and to present the religious point of view in connection with some current social and political affairs. The religious orator delivers his sermon with the greatest fidelity to that objective. When he comes to deliver his speech, he must be aware of the people's needs and problems. Taking all these points into consideration, the

paper aims at exploring the three persuasive strategies proposed by Aristotle to know the extent in which these strategies are applied and observed through analyzing their speech: mula and priest.

To achieve the aim various strategies are used by the orators. Despite of the linguistic and social differences between the Kurds and the English, it is believed that the requirements of persuading human beings are similar in both languages. Moreover, in spite of the differences between Islam and Christianity, the similarity of the occasion and of the atmosphere in the mosque and the church in addition to the purpose of the orator, whether mula or priest is to influence the thought and behavior of people. This will bring certain strategies which can point to the existence of language universals in the field of religious oratory.

Here it is worth to mention that the paper is limited to studying and analyzing Fridays and Sundays sermons only not other forms of religious orations like Eid sermons in Islam, and Easter sermons in Christianity. Furthermore, the paper limits itself, in the analysis, to the three Aristotle's persuading strategies: Ethos, Pathos, and Logos in Kurdish and English religious sermons.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this paper, there is a focus on the persuading function of religious discourse and the kind of persuading strategies employed by orators in their speech in both Kurdish and English languages. The theoretical framework for the analysis is the Aristotelian approach. The Greek philosopher, Aristotle, divided the means of persuasion into three categories: Ethos, Pathos, and Logos. Here, a revision of the theoretical function and the definition of the key words that make the analytic component of the paper will be made.

2.1 PERSUASION

The study of rhetoric is important in all fields of life, a part of it is religious speech. Rhetoric is defined as "an ability in each [particular] case, to see the available means of persuasion" (Aristotle, trans. 2007: 37). It teaches people how to speak well, present ideas in a persuasive discourse and communicate their thoughts and impressions effectively. Accordingly, "Aristotle's Rhetoric points out that we all employ rhetoric, the persuasive use of language, generally in trying to demonstrate the rightness of what we want the other person to accept" (Joseph, 2006:110). This means that the power of rhetoric is using persuasive discourse to convince an audience about what is said or to draw attention to a particular part of the message.

Lakoff (1982) defines persuasion as the non-reciprocal attempt or intension of one party to change the behavior, feelings, intentions, or viewpoints of another by communicative means. Advertising, propaganda, political rhetoric, court language and religious sermons are clear examples of persuasive discourse, however, persuasion may also occur in conversation.

Similarly, Charteris- Black (2005) notes that rhetoric is the art of persuading others, therefore rhetoric and persuasion are inseparable since any definition of rhetoric necessarily includes the idea of persuasion. The essential difference between the two is that rhetoric refers to the act of communication from the hearer's perspective while persuasion refers both to speaker's intentions and to successful outcomes. Hearers are only persuaded when the speaker's rhetoric is

successful. In brief, persuasion is a very important part of influence. It is ultimately all about a result which is otherwise known as getting your audience to do what you want them to do.

2.2 ARISTOTELIAN RHETORIC

The study of rhetoric dates back through history. In Europe, as shown by Bloor and Bloor, the first description of rhetorical devices attributed to classical Greece in which there were schools of rhetoric and students were taught the art of persuasion and argument, particularly with respect to public speaking (2007). In this paper, the focus is on Aristotelian's rhetoric, though he was not the first of the Greek rhetorician but can be regarded as the most important one as it is still applicable to modern communication. He opened his own school, the Lyceum, in Athens in the year of Isocrat's death (338 B.C). For Aristotle, rhetoric should not be a discipline simply aimed at training speakers in verbal skills; nor should rhetoric permit falsehood or distortion (Richardson, 2007:156). In its wide sense, 'rhetoric may be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion'(1355b: 27-28) cited in (Richardson, 2007: 156).

Bloor and Bloor explain that the importance of Aristotle was not only in his interest in teaching public speaking but in two other concerns: the first was to consider rhetoric as an intellectual field of study in its own right, not just as a part of a general skill of oratory and he saw it as a branch of philosophy. The second was to see rhetoric as a component of communication. This means that he was not interested in the productive aspect of rhetoric but also the receptive: the way audiences interpret discourse and the extent to which they are persuaded by stylistic devices (2007). Thus, the rhetoric described by Aristotle still seems to have great significance in the world of persuasion in the way that many people still refer to Aristotelian rhetoric when discussing and analyzing the subject of persuasion (Beard, 2000). Here, the orator has to then consider the style and arrangement of his speech. Therefore, the messenger needs enough rhetorical knowledge to be able to convince and catch the attention of the audience. The basic frame for Aristotle's view on the persuasion process is set in his three means of persuasion: ethos, pathos, and logos that will be explained below.

2.2.1 ETHOS

Ethos is the first mode of persuasion. It is the ethical appeal which depends on the character credibility or writer's reliability. The word 'ethos' is a Greek one originally meaning 'accustomed place', 'custom, habit' equivalent to Latin mores. Ethos "forms the root of ethikos, meaning "moral, showing moral character". To the Greeks, ancient and modern, the meaning is simply "the state of being", the inner source, the soul, the mind" (Mountainman, 2017:2). Thus, it depends on how well the speaker convinces the audience that (s)he is qualified and knowledgeable while speaking about a specific subject.

In other words, it involves making the speaker seem credible because by doing so, it puts the speakers in a position where they can more easily persuade the audience about their case. Here, the speaker speaks to appear as a credible person by displaying a practical intelligence and a virtuous character as well. These points make the speaker to have credible suggestions. Therefore, ethos is to persuade your audience through personality and stance (Beard, 2000). For example: Commercials that try to sell a product using famous actors and models as their spoken people.

Porter (2014) states that Aristotle regarded ‘ethos’ as the most important mode of persuasion. He presented three points that contribute to ‘ethos’ as: good sense, good moral character and good will.

2.2.2 PATHOS

This is the second mode of persuasion which strongly focuses on the role that emotions play in the persuasive process. Lumen (2017) explains that ‘pathos’ draws on the emotions, sympathies, and prejudices of the audience to appeal to their non-rational side. It can be described briefly as the process of creating positive emotions and connotations by the speaker to effect on the mind of listeners (audience) (Halmari, 2004). When an orator employs this strategy, the listeners/ audience are more easily persuaded, ready to accept, believe and act upon the given information. Moreover, (Mountainman, 2017:3) adds that emotional appeal can be accomplished in several ways like: metaphor, simile, storytelling, a general passion in the delivery or using emotional items in his speech. For example: telling the story of a single child who has been abused may make for a more persuasive argument than simply the number of children abused each year because it would give a human face to the numbers.

Therefore, Porter describes pathos as a way to persuade the audience by appealing to their emotions seeking to excite them or otherwise arouse their interest. For this, Aristotle suggested seven emotions and their opposites that can be used by the speaker including: anger and calmness, friendship and enmity, fear and confidence, shame and shamelessness, kindness and unkindness, pity and indignation, envy and emulation (2014). For example: advertisements that try to sell a product by increasing feelings of happiness, anger, fear ...etc.

2.2.3 LOGOS

It is the third mode of persuasion which mainly concerns with the logical appeal, or ‘the appeal to reason’. The term ‘logic’ is derived from it. This mode is usually used to describe facts and figures that support the speaker’s topic (Mountainman, 2017:3). In other words, it depends on arguments that appear to be reasonable or logical. For example: advertisements that try to sell a product by offering evidence of its quality. According to Aristotle, persuasion is mainly achieved through logical argumentation since the appeal to logic is the most effective way of persuading, and because if an argument appears to be logical, it would be illogical to oppose it (Beard, 2000).

Here, an orator can persuade his/her audience by using logical and rational explanation as well as demonstrable evidence. For this, Brett and McKay(2010) state that Aristotle believed logos to be the superior persuasive appeal and that all arguments and speeches should be won or lost on reason alone. On the other hand, he clarifies that at times an audience would not be sophisticated enough to follow arguments based solely on scientific and logical principles and so the other appeals needed to be used as well.

3. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The data for the analysis, in the paper, is based on the text of religious speeches of orators. The Kurdish speech was entitled “Teacher’s Role and Duty in the Society” and was delivered by Mala Tahir Ahmad Bamoki at Omer Kuri Xatab’s Mosque in Halabja Province- Iraqi Kurdistan on September 13th, 2013. While the English speech was entitled “Christ is our Unity”

and was delivered by Rev. Doug Martindale at Young United Church, Winnipeg, MB in Canada on June 8th, 2013.

3.1 EHOS APPLIED

Ethos is the first mode of persuasion. When the religious man takes the stage, he will either have ethos or need to earn it. Therefore, when a speaker wishes to persuade he needs to establish credibility and authority with his audience. A man may have the most logical and well-thought-out argument but if his audience does not think that he is trustworthy or even worth listening to, all his reasoning will be for naught.

It can be said that the selected speeches are delivered with confidence, persistence, clarity and logical reasons as they are regarded as the main features which make the speeches more persuasive. In addition to the speaker's credibility and reputation among the audience (as it can be indicated through the number of the audience that they have during the Friday and Sunday sermons). The more reputable the source of the speech, the more persuasive the argument will be. And the reputable feature is found in the speakers of both languages as they are religious men and have their own reputation among the audience. This shows that the strategy of ethos is available as it refers to character of the speaker generally, and different from other strategies as they can be applied on specific quotations said by them.

3.2 PATHOS APPLIED

This strategy is applied when the speaker tries to persuade the audience by making them not only listen but also take the next step and act in the world they live in. Pathos is applied in the selected Kurdish speech through the following techniques:

A: Repetition

1. "ماموستا جينشين ومير انطرى نبيغمة بئرانة" (Teacher is the heir of the prophets)
2. "ماموستا ئايوى يهكة م لههتريم وله عيراق وله عالمةم" (The teacher is the first person in the region, Iraq and the world)
3. "كئس نية لهماموستا طهورة تربيت نئرئيس نهوة زير نه دكتور"

(The greatest figure in the world is the teacher, no one is greater than him, neither president nor minister or doctor.)

4. "نئبى ماموستا بزاني نهو ريسالنه و نه يامته كئثيئته تة كليفى لى كراوة ض قيمه تىكى هتية بئرامبئر كؤمة لطاكته".

(The teacher should know how valuable his message is and what is he asked to do in his society).

In the above three quotations, the speaker repeats what has already been said about the teachers and their duty in the society not only to make the audience remember but also to clarify his message and focus on it. This may encourage the acceptance of the idea.

B: Figurative Language

1- " ماموستا ئەو كەسە كەتە كەتە مۆم ئەسوتتەت وەك ضرائەتەت دەور و بقرەكە ى روناك ئەكاتەتە بە توانەتە ى خۇى."

(Teacher is the one who is burning just like a candle to lighten the surrounding by melting himself.)

2- "كەس نىە لە مەلم بەرز تەببەت كەس نىە لە مەلم طەورە تەببەت. مەطەر خۇى رىزى خۇى نەطرى خۇى سوكتەتەبى باببەت."

(There is one greater, or higher in position than a teacher, unless he himself doesn't respect himself or so light that can be transferred by wind).

In the above quotations, the figurative language is used. The first example is simile as he compares a teacher with a candle, how it is burning and melting itself to lighten the surrounding. Teacher is the same as a candle who tires himself a lot for others sake. And the second one is metaphor as he talks about the real weight of the teacher but his personality and reputation among people.

C: Story Telling

1- " ماموستا ئەكەتە تى لەرۇدەكە زستان دا سارد بوبە قەرىكى زور بارىبو. حوكمەت اعلانى كردەبەئىنى دەوام نىە تى قوتاببەكە هاتبونا زانم طوى ى لە اعلانەكەتەبەبو , بىنەم كەتەناوبە قەردەكەدا كەوتتووە هەنەم بۇدورەكە ى خۇم و طەرمم كردەتو دواى دەستەم طرت و بەردمەتە بۇمالى خۇى. ئەو قوتاببە لەكولەبەئى تەزىشكى و قەطەرا ئەسەتە نامەم بۇئەنەرتەت كە بووە بە دكتور "

(The main idea of this story is that once a student came to school and it was holiday and a snowing day. The student felt cold and the teacher took him home and made him felt worm and returned him to his home. Now that student is a doctor and sends me messages full of sense and love.)

2- "كەسەكەم لەدووى ابەبەئى بولە سەبەدەق رۇدەكە ماموستا ئەكەتە نازانم ضى كردەبەتەتە بۇ مەلەتە دەستە كرد بەطەريان تى باوكە توخوا ماموستا فلانم جى هەلا حەتەف نىە بەهەم و كەسە ئەلەتە ماموستا. ئەى وتم ضى بوە تى باوكە ئەمرو طویم لىبووە ماموستا ئەكەتە قەسە ى وى ئەتەت بە قوتاببەكە لە هەقراخ خانە ولەمەزاد خانە قەسە ى و ابەخەكە نوتەرتەت."

(My daughter was in the second class of primary stage, once she returned and was crying. I told her why; she said one of our teachers says bad words to the students that cannot be used anywhere.)

3- "زەمانى حوكمەت سالى 83 ماموستا ئەكەتە بەتەلەبەئەكە ى وت دانىشە ئەتەتە تورەبوو و تى واللە ئەكەتە تار بىجەتە ئەتەتە تى بۇهەتەبو رەبەتەم."

(in 1983 at the time of regime a teacher told a student 'sit' but the student got angry and said to the teacher 'I would shoot you'.)

In these quotations the speaker narrates stories so as to take the audience on a journey, leaving them feeling inspired and motivated so as to pay attention to the speech because stories

lead the audience follow every single word till they get the result. Stories also strengthen the speech as they support what you have said.

D: Appeal to Authority

1- "نقبي ثلثي ماموستا بقرز كةينةوة بةمعاشي، بقرار دنة دةرةوةوي، بةخوش طوزةراني، بقريز ليپرتن وتةشجيع كردن، هةرودةها اعلان نقبي ناوي ماموستا بقرز رابطري".

(Teachers should be given a high rank and position by sending them abroad and giving the best salary and media should keep the name of teacher high.)

2- "دقر كرنى ياسا بو ماموستا كة ثبي نةلين (حصانةوي دبلوماسي) ماموستا خةنجرى لى نقريرت ماموستا سقرى نةشكينرى ماموستا نةلامارى نقررى".

(There should be diplomatic immunity rule for teachers, they should not be injured and attacked.)

Here, the speaker appeals to authority as he asks for the rights of teachers and the authority has to do for the teachers as providing diplomatic immunity.

E: Salutation

"ان الحمد لله، نحمده ونستغفره ونستعينه ونستهديه ونعوذ بالله من شرور أنفسنا ومن سيئات أعمالنا، من يهده الله فلا مضل له ومن يضلل بلغ وأشهد أن لا إله إلا الله وحده لا شريك له وأشهد أن محمداً عبده ورسوله بعثه الله رحمة للعالمين هادياً ومبشراً ونذيراً، فلا هادي له، الرسالة وأدى الأمانة ونصح الأمة وجاهد في الله حتى اتاه اليقين، فجزاه الله خيراً ما جزى نبياً من أنبيائه، صلوات الله وسلامه عليه وعلى أمين. " جميع الأنبياء والمرسلين، وعلى صحابته وآل بيته الطاهرين، وعلى من أحبهم إلى يوم الدين.

This is a starting point and greeting in the Friday sermon through the use of some Qur'anic verses or prays with showing respect to the prophet and the audience also. This is general and used by all the Mulas to affect on the emotion of the audience and attract their attention to the speech.

F: Closing Statement

""أقول قولي هذا واستغفر الله لي ولكم ولسائر المسلمين، رَبَّنَا آتِنَا مِن لَّدُنكَ رَحْمَةً وَهَيِّئْ لَنَا مِنْ أَمْرِنَا رَشَدًا _ آمين.

This is the closing statements in a form of pray where the speaker asks God mercy, forgiveness, and a haven in the other world for himself and all Muslims all over the world.

In the English speech, 'pathos' is applied through the following techniques:

A: Rhetorical Question

1- "So what does the CCC do anyway?"

2- "How do we, as a Christian community, understand and respond to the issues of genetic technologies? When Faith is Genetics Meet is a curriculum that considers the opportunities and risks of genetic sciences."

3- "Why would we do this? Because Canadian churches are long time advocates for human rights and peace building and play a leading role in the resettlement of refugees in Canada."

In the above quotations, the speaker uses rhetorical questions, questions that are asked without expecting an answer, it might be the one that does not have an answer or have an obvious answer,

they are asked as persuasive devices to make a point to persuade the audience and to appeal their emotion.

B: Repetition

1-“We cooperate because "there is one Lord, one faith, one baptism; there is one God and Father of all mankind, who is Lord of all, works through all, and is in all".

It is the repetition of what is said to describe that there is one Lord, one Faith, and one God. Here the purpose is to emphasize on the significance of how Great and Faithful God is to arouse the audiences' emotion and make them follow what he is going to say.

C: Appeal to Authority

1-“We have some homeless people on our streets because the federal and provincial governments are not doing enough to combat homelessness or poverty. The federal government has no national housing strategy and the provincial government has provided only minimal increases in rent of allowances for people on welfare since taking office in 1999. There is also a lack of supports of people with mental health problems, which affects the majority of people who are homeless.”

2- “If we changed our priorities as a nation and diverted money from defense procurement into productive uses, we could put a lot of people into social housing and provide supports for them.”

These are two examples of appealing to authority. Since a religious person has the position in the society to criticize and suggest solutions for the problems that arouse, as he does for the homeless people like putting a lot of people into social housing and providing supports for them.

D: Figurative Language

1. “Walls that divide have been broken down, because Christ is our unity. "the truth we seek" as the CCC "unites us in a common quest for self and world made new". Walls that divide have been broken down, because "Christ is our unity". Amen.

The speaker clarifies how the walls broken down. Here, the figurative language is used as he symbolizes ‘Christ’ as a symbol of ‘Unity’ and ‘walls’ to indicate difficulties and separation.

E: Salutation

1. “There is one Lord, one faith, one baptism; there is one God and Father of all mankind, who is Lord of all, works through all, and is in all”.

This is the starting points where the speaker begins the speech.

3.3 LOGOS APPLIED

This strategy is applied in different ways to describe facts and figures that support the speaker's topic.

The techniques used in the Kurdish selected speech are:

A: Qur’anic Verses

1. "وقل ربى زدنى علما" (And say oh my Lord, increase my knowledge.)

2. "وعلّمك ما لم تكن تعلم" (And teach you unless you learn)
3. "علمة شديد القوى" (His knowledge is very strong)
4. "انما يخشى الله من عبادة العلماء" (but God fears His servants scientists)

B: Prophetic Hadith

"كلكم راع وكلكم مسؤول عن رعيته"

(You are all a shepherd and you are all responsible for your flock.)

C: Poem

"قم للمعلم وفه التبجيلا كاد المعلم أن يكون رسولا"

(Stand up for teacher and show him your respect and the teacher was almost a messenger)

In the above examples, the speaker uses Qur'anic verses, prophetic hadith and poems which are all concrete and reasonable examples. Here, the speaker deals with the mind and cognition of the audience through the use of such factual evidences to persuade them. And arguments from reason (logical arguments) make the speaker look prepared and knowledgeable to the audience.

The strategy of Logos in the selected English speech is applied through using the **Factual Description** as in the following quotations:

1. "Let me suggest three reasons: 1- because your mission and service contributions support the work of the CCC. 2- because what the CCC does is connected to your outreach ministry, West Broadway Community Ministry. 3- because the CCC is making a difference for peace and justice in the world, as well as fostering positive ecumenical relationships."
2. "Let me tell you about several wonderful publications that the CCC has produced which, having read them, I can highly recommend. One is called when Christian Faith and Genetics Meet: a practical Group Resource."
3. "Another wonderful resource is called "The Bruised Reed": A Christian Reflection and on Suffering and Hope. There are personal stories and theological reflection on topics that affect all of us, such as: "Aging, Suffering, and Hope"
4. "The Canadian Council of Churches is addressing this in two ways. Project Ploughshares, an ecumenical coalition which is part of the CCC, does research, works with NGO's and governments to advance policies and actions that prevent war and armed violence and build peace."
5. "Recently, all the church leaders in Canada signed a letter to the Prime Minister about the civil war in Syria, and urged Canada to respond generously to the refugee crises."
6. "Our concluding hymn today is "though Ancient Walls ", written by United church minister Walter Farquharson. We can rejoice that some of the walls that stood when he wrote this hymn in 1974 have come tumbling down. A good example is that the Canadian Conference of Catholic Bishops joined the Canadian Council of Churches in 1997."

The speaker uses factual description in the quotations mentioned above as he talks about the Canadian Council of Churches (CCC) and brings reasonable examples about how it works on the problems that people have. Logos is applied as he talks about the reasons that the CCC does with the government. He also brings resources like "When Christian Faith Genetics Meet" which a

practical Group Resource, “the Bruised Reed” a Christian Reflection on suffering and hope, and the last one “Though Ancient walls” which was written by united Church Minister. All these reasonable and logical examples will increase the degree of persuasion of the audience which is the main aim of the orator in the sermon.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Through the analysis of the selected Kurdish and English speech, it is noticed that there are certain similarities and differences in the use of the techniques in applying the persuasion strategies in both languages as it is shown below:

1- Ethos

Since this strategy depends on the character and credibility of the speaker, they are similar in delivering the speeches. The analysis has shown that both of them establish common ground with their audience. This is mostly done by acknowledging values and beliefs shared by them on both sides.

2- Pathos

As far as using pathos, the speakers of both languages use the techniques of repetition, appeal to authority, figurative language, in addition to salutation. But they are different in some techniques as the use of rhetorical questions by English orator only, and storytelling by the Kurdish religious man.

3- Logos

As logos relies on making a logical argument, backed with reason or evidence to persuade the audience, the religious orators of both languages resort to the use of different factual descriptions through using different sources as Qur’anic verses, prophetic hadith, as well as poems by the Mula. While the priest has used different on ground cases and situations that are concerned with the current issues in the society as providing aids for the Syrian refugees, and the Canadian Council Churches’ attempts to help poor people.

4- CONCLUSION

Depending on the results of the paper, the following points are concluded:

1- The Aristotle’s strategies, ethos, pathos, and logos, are interdependent. The most persuasive speakers will combine these strategies to varying degrees based on their specific purpose and audience.

2- The results of the analysis have provided the evidence of the existence of features common to both Kurdish and English in the field of religious oratory.

3- Both speakers use the strategies to affect the emotion of the audience and bring rational and concrete examples to support what they deliver in their speech.

4- The similarity extends to include stylistic devices to make their messages effective as repetition.

5- The Kurdish speaker uses technical devices as the use of Quranic verses, prophetic hadith and poems.

6-The rhetorical question is used by the English priest while the Kurdish speaker (Mula) used story telling as a technical device to persuade their audience.

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The Image of Woman in T. S. Eliot's *The Waste Land*

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ABSTRACT

Much has been written about Eliot's innovative technical and intellectual achievements, but not enough has been done on the role of woman in his poetry. The image of woman is part of the moral structure of T. S. Eliot's *The Waste Land*. Living in an age of spiritual bankruptcy, Eliot dedicates *The Waste Land* to portray a falling world in which the image of woman is part of the disintegration of civilization. Eliot sketches the woman of *The Waste Land* as trivial, faithless, lustful, sterile and hysterical. She sets the atmosphere of the poem as one of betrayal and disappointment. The image of woman in *The Waste Land* becomes Eliot's tool to attack futile modernity.

Key Words: Woman, Culture, Myth, Waste Land, Sterility

The Waste Land is regarded as the culmination of modern world's apathy; it is about land and dwellers gone waste as a result of a perfidious civilization. The world of the poem "with its heaps of broken images and its shocked and passive and neurasthenic persons, is a paradigm of war's effects, and of a world emptied of order and meaning, like a battlefield after the battle" (Childs 74). *The Waste Land* is set against a background of the Holy Grail legend and has its impotent king ruling the barren land. The setting is one "in which not only have the crops ceased to grow and the animals to reproduce, but the very human inhabitants have become incapable of having children" (Wilson 117). The poem is permeated by decayed and ruined human values once were regarded as human culture.

The epigraph of the poem is from Petronius Arbiter's *Satyricon*, and refers to the Cumaean Sybil who took a handful of sand and asked Apollo to grant her as many years of life as the atoms of sand in her

hand, foolishly forgetting to ask for a lasting youth. Sybil continued aging till she finally dwindled to an extent that she was “hung in a bottle and could only say ‘I want to die’” (Mundra 52). This foreshadows the atmosphere of the poem as one of decline and decess. The wastelanders, unlike Sybil, “are too afraid to want to die, but like her they are in a condition of unwanted life” (Williams 33).

This theme is evident in the “Burial of the dead”, which title suggests life’s continual process “of dust thrown and of souls reborn” (Kenner 135). A woman’s voice first emerges in the section, whose name is Marie. She begins by asserting that “April is the cruelest month, breeding / Lilacs out of the dead land” (lines 1-2). The lines reminds the reader of Attis, the god who dies and resurrects again in spring, and whose resurrection is depicted by “the lilac-colored blossoms at the very beginning of spring” (Vickery 249). Both April’s rain and the lilac herald a metamorphosis to occur, thus comes Marie’s description of the month as “the cruelest”, since she is too inert to accept any kind of change.

Later, both the protagonist of *The Waste Land* and Marie are surprised by summer’s ‘shower of rain’, since summer is “unlike both spring and winter, neither painful nor devoid of awareness” (Gish 48). Though the rain symbolizes natural growth, the wastelanders’ lack of vitality make them avoid it by protecting themselves in the colonnade. Marie, who talks with the protagonist for an hour in a public park, carefully asserts her nationality as German and not Russian. This indicates “the ethnological confusions of the new Europe, the subservience of patria to whim of statesmen, the interplay of immutable national pride” (Kenner 136):

Summer surprised us, coming over the Stranbergersee

With a shower of rain; we stopped in the colonnade,

And went on in sunlight, into Hofgarten,

And drank coffee, and talked for an hour

Bin gar keine Russin, stamm’aus Litauen, echt deutsch . . . (Lines 8-12)

Marie remembers defeating her childhood fears when she once went downhill on a sled. The incident gave her a feeling of freedom which she has never experienced thereafter:

And when we were children, staying at the arch-duke's

My cousin's, he took me out on a sled,

And I was frightened. He said, Marie,

Marie, hold on tight. And down we went

In the mountains, there you feel free. (Lines 13-17)

When Marie grows older, she spends her time reading "much of the night" and going "south in the winter" (Line 18), which is the counterpart of "the 'little life' of 'dull roots' and 'dried tubers'". By going south in the cold season, Marie is seeking physical comfort rather than any kind of spiritual warmth (Vickery 249). Marie's words reflect a consciousness which is wearied, dried up of warm emotions and clinging to "a deception of liberty, contradicting her dull present life" (Kenner 136). Marie's name reappears at the end of "The Burial of the Dead", when the city's crowd "flowed up the hill and down King William Street, / To where Saint Mary Woolnoth kept the hours / With a dead sound on the final stroke of ten" (Lines 66-68). This implies that even time heralds death for those already dead wastelanders.

Against this desolate background comes the complaining voice of a deserted girl, in the Hyacinth passage, expressing to her lover the quality of her affection: "'You gave me Hyacinths first a year ago; / They called me the hyacinth girl'" (Lines 35-36), indicating that her love affair is vital in her life. Yet the man she is addressing, actually the protagonist of the poem, fails her and she cannot achieve any integral relation with him. Here comes the significance of the incident as a memory from the past in which a chance is given to decide "between engaging in life or holding back" (Gish 52), and it is the second choice that the protagonist makes:

-Yet when we came back, late, from the hyacinth garden,

Your arms full, and your hair wet, I could not

Speak, and my eyes failed, I was neither

Living nor dead, and I knew nothing,

Looking into the heart of light, the silence. (Lines 37-41)

The unfulfilled love affair is made evident from the lines quoted from Richard Wagner's *Tristan und Isolde* which depicts "the wide, empty sea, which brings no sign of Isolde to dying Tristan" (Williams 31).

The other female character who appears in "Burial of the Dead" is the fortune-teller Madame Sosostris. Eliot depicts her as a comic character, having an absurd Egyptian name and suffering from a bad cold. She practices her job by the symbols of the Tarot Pack which she uses for commercial ends. Ironically, the Tarot Pack was used in ancient times to foretell the rising of the Nile, indicating the fertility season; with Madame Sosostris they turn to be "one item in a generally vulgar civilization" (Williams 53):

Madame Sosostris, famous clairvoyante,

Had a bad cold, nevertheless

Is known to be the wisest woman in Europe,

With a wicked pack of cards. (Lines 43-46)

During her divination, Madame Sosostris refers to Belladonna who is a "bedecked woman of luxury", mentioned in the bible as "arrayed in a purple and scarlet colour and decked with gold and precious stones" (Williams 53): "Here is Belladonna, the lady of the Rocks, / The lady of situations" (Lines 49-50). Nancy K. Gish believes that 'the lady of situations' suggests seduction, and the 'Lady of the Rocks' could be a hint to the "mermaids who lure men to their death" (53-54). All of which suggest that womanhood in *The Waste Land* is linked to themes of adornment, seduction, and fatality. It is significant that Madame

Sosostris does not see “The Hanged Man” who is associated with Christ and the ‘Hanged God’ of Frazer: “the god who sacrifices himself only to be ultimately reborn” (Kenney 39), bringing fertility to the land. She is unable to comprehend religion or to grasp the possibility of “a life-in-death or life-through-death, as well as a death-in-life” (Kenney 38).

In his notes to *The Waste Land*, Eliot wrote that the title “A Game of Chess” is taken from Thomas Middleton’s *Women beware Women*. The play presents the rape of a woman while her mother-in-law is playing a game of chess. The allusion to the play is to create a mood of deception, lust, and violence. Moreover, in the original manuscript of *The Waste Land*, there was the following line: “The ivory men make company between us” (Gish 61), which indicates that the purpose of the game in the poem is “to create an illusion of connection or relationship. If one plays a game, one need no talk” (Gish 61), for talking is either insignificant or revealing unbearable realities to the wastelanders. According to Hugh Kenner, the game of chess “is played with Queens and Pawns: the set of pieces mimics a social hierarchy, running from ‘The chair she sat in, like a burnished throne,’ to ‘Goodnight Bill. Goodnight Lou. Goodnight May. Goodnight’” (131). This is the manner “A Game of Chess” is arranged, presenting those of higher and lower classes, while exhibiting their lives which are linked to that of the king who is already an impotent one, spreading sterility and desolation throughout his land.

The opening lines of “A Game of Chess” inspire the mood of Cleopatra’s room, in its “rhythm and . . . lavish diction” (Gish 62): “The chair she sat in, like a burnished throne, / Glowed on the marble” (Lines 77-78). The lady who inhabits the room is the opposite to Cleopatra who lives and dies for love. The lady of *The Waste Land* leads an empty, loveless, and passive life, indicated by “the very changes, barge to chair, burned to glow and water to marble” (Williams 54). Besides, Cleopatra has “pretty dimpled boys ‘like smiling Cupids’” (Williams 54), while the lady of *The Waste Land* has her Cupids as unnatural and unanimated ones, used for ornamentation (Williams 54). The atmosphere of the lady’s room is that of extraneous tomb. As Helen Williams writes, “she may be . . . related to the corpse lying under a great golden candlestick which the Grail knight finds in the Chapel Perilous. The seven-branched candelabra . .

. the ‘staring forms, leaned out, leaning . . .’ have something of the ghost quality associated with the Chapel” (35).

The nature of the lady’s unreal personality is suggested from the very artificiality of her room which is crowded with her cosmetics and ‘synthetic’ perfumes:

In vials of ivory and coloured glass
Unstoppered, lurked her strange synthetic perfumes,
Unguent, powdered, or liquid-troubled, confused
And drowned the sense in odours . . . (Lines 86-89)

Those details concerning the lady’s room remind us of Alexander Pope’s *The Rape of the Lock* in which Belinda has on her dressing table the Bible placed among her cosmetics. Eliot has done much the same by his “ironic trick of confusing dressing-table with altar to suggest the excess of vanity” (Williams 54). The lady is also juxtaposed with Lamia the serpent- enchantress in Keats “Lamia”. Lamia’s magnificent Corinthian banquet-chamber is to be compared with the lady’s room which is of “the same heavily charged mingling of the senses rendered in the description of mixed light and perfumes” (Williams 55). All of which are “stirred by the air / That freshened from the window, these ascended / In fattening the prolonged candle-flames” (Lines 89-91). Another comparison is made between the lady and Dido, the African queen, who dies by burning herself on a funeral pyre after the departure of her lover, Aeneas. This is juxtaposed with the lady’s domestic fire, which is designed to enrich her room’s ornamentation, reflecting a loveless and empty life. The lady’s private room is decorated by a painting which depicts the rape of Philomel: “Above the antique mantle was displayed / As though a window gave upon the sylvan scene / The change of Philomel, by the barbarous king” (Lines 97-99). Philomel’s episode suggests lust as being a direct cause for wasting land and life, and this may reflect part of the lady’s dilemma. Philomel’s rape and her suffering transforms her into a nightingale with an “inviolable voice”. The lady of “A Game of Chess” is unable to

comprehend, and consequently to undergo such metamorphosis to a meaningful and graceful sort of existence.

At the end of Philomel's episode, Eliot changes the tense, bringing his readers to their contemporary world: "And still she cried, and still the world pursues, / 'Jug Jug' to dirty ears" (Lines 102-103). As Edmund Wilson says "the song of birds was represented in old English popular poetry by such outlandish syllables as 'Jug Jug' – so Philomel's cry sound to the vulgar" (93). In this sense, the "hint of evil comes in the way art is here rivalling, distorting, not merely enhancing Nature" (Williams 37).

The lady's peevish mood is indicated from the very description of her hair: "Under the firelight, under the brush, her hair / Spreads out in fiery points" (Lines 108-109). This quality of the lady's hair makes her no more a representative of "a fertility figure" (Williamson 35). She is placed in a glaring contrast to the hyacinth girl who has her hair wet with rain, symbolising life and productivity, while the lady represents "a siren queen, temptress delaying her quester, and a suffering victim in love herself, lonely and betrayed" (Williams 53). Her loneliness is evident from the following lines in which she addresses a heedless man-companion, or the protagonist of *The Waste Land*:

My nerves are bad to-night. Yes, bad. Stay with me

Speak to me. Why do you never speak? Speak.

What are you thinking of? What thinking? What?

I never know what you are thinking. Think. (Lines 111-114)

Those neglected questions of the lady, reveal part of the wastelanders dilemma: a pervading sense of alienation, estrangement and lack of a true understanding of the other:

What is that noise?

.....

What is that noise now? What is the wind doing?

.....

Do

You know nothing? Do you see nothing? Do you remember

Nothing?

.....

Are you alive, or not? Is there nothing in your head? (Lines 117-126)

In an attempt to attract the attention of her companion, the lady threatens to rush out and walk the street in an appearance like that of a harlot: “What shall I do now? What shall I do? / I shall rush out as I am, and walk the street / With my hair down, so.” (Lines 131-133). These words reveal a life which is neither significant nor purposeful. A life provoking boredom, weariness, and fear.

The fruitlessness of the lady’s life is made more evident since the rain, as a symbol of life and fertility, is avoided by the lady and her man-companion while reiterating their “stale routine” (Williams 23): “The hot water at ten / And if it rains, a closed car at four” (Lines 35-36). The lady’s acceptance of such a shallow life is from a belief that “worse may ensue from an attempt to probe too deep” (Maxwell 13). In this respect, she is may be compared with Prufrock who never dares to declare his “overwhelming question”. The lady’s episode also reminds us of the hyacinth girl, since both women ask for love which is denied them by the protagonist.

By moving into the life of those of the lower class, Eliot continues presenting a sham world, much like that of the lady. A life equally obsessed with the denial of nature, artificial teeth, [and] chemically

procured abortions” (Kenner 134). In this world, Eliot depicts a conversation between two women of the lower class while sitting in a bar and considering an artificial appearance in preparation to Albert’s, Lil’s husband, demobilization: “He’ll want to know what you done with that money he gave you / To get yourself some teeth [. . .] / He said, I swear, I can’t bear to look at you” (Lines 143-146). The conversation between the two women continues in a manner which represents “the brutal abstractions of a chess-game” (Kenner 134):

He’s been in the army four years, he wants a good time,

And if you don’t give it him, there’s others will, I said.

Oh is there, she said. Something o’that, I said.

Then I’ll know who to thank, she said, an give me a straight look (Lines 148-151)

Lil has done a violent abuse to the course of nature by her abortion pills that have affected her health and given her an old appearance:

You ought to be ashamed, I said, to look so antique.

(And her only thirty-one.)

I can’t help it, she said, pulling a long face,

It’s them pill’s I took, to bring it off, she said.

(She’s had five already, and nearly died of young George.)

The chemist said it would be all right, but I’ve never been

The same. (Lines 55-61)

The dialogue between the two women comes to a conclusion in the crucial question: “What you get married for if you don’t want children?” (Line 64). This question “puts ‘a good time’ against a background of the

frustration of life, and modulates the death theme to this level” (Williamson, “The Structure of the Waste Land” 35). Lil ends her role in the poem by her farewell words “Good night, ladies, good night, sweet ladies, good night, / good night” (Line 172), which call to mind Ophelia’s farewell words in *Hamlet*. Eliot makes it clear that Lil, like Ophelia, has a fragile mood and needs to satisfy men. However, Ophelia died for romantic love for prince Hamlet; while Lil maintains a lustful, loveless and an unproductive life. The persistent reference to the passage of time by the barman, “Hurry up Please Its Time”, is for the two women in the bar and the lady of the upper class, warning them to redeem their lives. It indicates that time flows; sweeping away all that comes within it and hardly offering a second chance to restore what has already been ruined.

The following section of *The Waste Land*, “The Fire Sermon”, addresses the aftermath Europe through the city of London: “It was in 1915 the old world ended. In the winter 1915-16 the spirit of old London collapsed; the city, in some way, perished from being the heart of the world, and became a vortex of broken passions, lusts, hopes, fears and horrors” (Childs 73). Indifference is the main characteristic of women in this section, instead of the terror and uneasiness which haunted them in the previous sections. “The Fire Sermon” has its women leading a life of mechanical lust, while the section aims at presenting this kind of twisted and sinful love affairs as the source of all the consequent social and spiritual maladies.

The section opens with a reference to Edmund Spenser’s “Prothalamion”: “The nymphs are departed. / Sweet Thames run softly, till I end my song” (Lines 175-176), suggesting a pastoral atmosphere, yet the lines that follow are ironical: “The river bears no empty bottles, sandwich papers, / Silk handkerchiefs, cardboard boxes, cigarette ends / Or other testimony of summer nights” (Lines 177-179). These lines are an indirect description of the modern unromantic Thames. The nymphs in their second appearance are real women of the twentieth century, which are deserted by their lovers: “The nymphs are departed / And their friends, the loitering heirs of City directors; / Departed, have left no address” (Lines 179-181). However, the ideal notion of Spenser’s Elizabethan age is presented with a suggestion that the past and present are much alike. As F.O. Matthiessen says, “the idealized Elizabethan

young men and women who appear as attendants in Spenser's marriage song begin to be seen with new eyes. They cannot be wholly unlike the present idle young men about town and their nymphs" (Matthiessen 39).

Sweeney, whose appearance is associated with illicit love affairs, appears in "The Fire sermon" in a highly suggestive manner, his companion this time is Mrs. Porter, another fallen woman: "The sound of horns and motors, which shall bring / Sweeney to Mrs. Porter in the Spring" (Lines 197-198). The lines refer to Andrew Marvell's "To his Coy Mistress" in which the sounds are those of "Time's winged chariot". In the modern city there is only the sounds of greed and lustfulness associated with Sweeney. Nancy K. Gish believes that the affair between Sweeney and Mrs. Porter recalls that of Actaeon and Diana. Actaeon the huntsman, was metamorphosed into a stag and doomed to death by hounds after seeing the goddess of chastity, Diana, bathing naked (50). The Diana of the modern age is Mrs. Porter who is bathing in "sode water" which suits a corrupted woman: "O the moon shone bright on Mrs. Porter / And on her daughter / They wash their feet in soda water" (Lines 199-201). The water in the passage has lost its healing power, it brings no purification.

Eliot relates the sterility of his age to the empty and dried up passions that envelop the most sacred human relations, converting them into mere animal desires. This is the topic of the typist passage, which is set against a background of automatic yielding. The moment is that of "the violet hour", suggesting that the typist's mind is fluttering between awareness and oblivion while she maintains her mechanical movements which well suits the modern-city's routine: "At the violet hour, when the eyes and back / Turn upward from the desk, when the human engine waits / Like a taxi throbbing waiting" (Lines 220-222). It is not out of context that the typist has her food in cans: "The typist home at teatime, clears her breakfast, lights / Her stove, and lays out food in tins" (Lines 222-223). Her "pathetic list of garments suggests shapes which fragment or distort the natural one of the body" (Draper 14):

Out of the window perilously spread
Her drying combinations touched by the sun's last rays,
On the divan are piled (at night her bed)
Stockings, slippers, camisoles, and stays. (Lines 224-227)

The typist has her meal with "the young man carbuncular" (Line 231), who is "a small house agent's clerk" (Line 232). After the meal is over and the typist is "bored and tired" (Line 236), the man,

Endeavours to engage her in caresses
Which still are unreproved, if undesired.
Flushed and decided, he assaults at once;
Exploring hands encounter no defence;
His vanity requires no response,
And makes a welcome of indifference. (Lines 237-242)

The man's attempts to satisfy his lustful ends are neither encouraged nor rejected by the typist. His mean endeavours are depicted in a mock-heroic manner to make clear the degradation the modern man and woman have come to. After the event, the typist reveals her total unconcern to what has happened, as if were an insignificant dream:

She turns and looks a moment in the glass,
Hardly aware of her departed lover
Her brain allows one half-formed thought to pass
'Well now that's done: and I'm glad it's over' (Lines 249-252)

The line which immediately follows, “when lovely woman stoops to folly”, is quoted from Oliver Goldsmith’s *The Vicar of Wakefield*, in which Goldsmith dooms the adulterous woman to death. In Eliot’s poem, the woman is dead in life and this is presented through her mechanical response to life:

When lovely woman stoops to folly and
Paces about her room again, alone,
She smooths her hair with automatic hands
And puts a record on the gramophone. (Lines 253-256)

In this regard, R. P. Draper writes: “The change of voice in Eliot’s poetry is an implied comment on a cultural change which explores modern sexual behaviour to a damaging comparison with traditional moral attitudes” (14). Another episode follows and that is of Elizabeth I, introduced by the lines “Weialala leia / Wallala leialala” (Lines 277-278), echoing Richard Wagner’s *Gotterdammerung*. The lines refer to “the song of the Rhine maidens who [. . .] weep because the river’s gold has been stolen” (Gish 80). This sorrowful song comes after a bleak description of the modern age, when the scene shifts suddenly to the river at the age of Elizabethan I in which the surroundings are glorious and the words are chosen to evoke a sense of adornment, luxury, and perfection:

Elizabeth and Leicester
Beating oars
The stern was formed
A gilded shell
Red and gold . . . (Lines 279-283)

Nevertheless, the relationship between the Queen and her lover is an illicit one. Elizabeth and Leicester’s gilded shell fails to veil their vain and sterile passions “with which they drift ‘past the Isle of Dogs,’

ironically enough towards ‘The peal of bells / White towers’ suggestive of sanctity from which they are excluded” (Williams 61). The episode ends by a second reference to the Rhine maidens’ song, in which they lament the loss of the river’s beauty.

“The Fire Sermon” ends with the Thames-daughters whose song “sets up a background of loss and despair against which their voices become individualized examples of general sorrow” (Gish 80). The first of the Thames-daughters gives the name of her birth place and that of her seduction. She only describes how she was seduced:

‘Trams and dusty trees.
Highburg bore me. Richmond and Kew
Undid me. By Richmond I raised my knees
Supine on the floor of a narrow canoe’. (Lines 292-295)

The second of the Thames-daughters mentions that her seduction happened at Moorgate and that her seducer wept after their encounter. Yet she was passive and indifferent:

‘My feet are at Moorgate, and my heart
Under my feet. After the event
He wept. He promised “a new start.”
I made no comment. What should I resent?’ (Lines 296-299)

The third of the Thames-daughters is at Margate and she “focus[es] on ‘nothing,’ a word invoked in both the Hyacinth garden episode and the conversation with the nervous, demanding woman” (Gish 81). The emphasis is on the notions of alienation and estrangement which characterises the lives of women in the twentieth century:

‘On Margate Sands

I can connect

Nothing with nothing.

The broken fingernails of dirty hands

My people humble people who expect

Nothing.’

la la . . . (Lines 300-306)

The passage ending with “la la”, echoes the Rhine maidens’ mourning song which Eliot purposely “cut[s] off [. . .] as an emblem of their emotional debility” (Gish 81). “The Fire Sermon”, “which opens by Thames water, closes with a burning that images the restless lusts of the nymphs [. . .] the typist and [. . .] the Thames-daughters. They are unaware that they burn. ‘I made no comment. What should I resent?’” (Kenner 148).

“What the Thunder Said” continues pursuing a frightening dreamy journey, where the “murmur of maternal lamentation” is heard “high in the air” (Lines 366-367). To enhance the sense of horror, an ambiguous and sinister woman appears: “A woman drew her long black hair out tight / And fiddled whisper music on those strings” (Lines 377-378). She could be the same nervous lady in “A Game of Chess”, yet her “golden Cupidon” is contorted into “bats with baby faces in the violet light / Whistled, and beat their wings / And crawled head downward down a blackened wall” (Lines 379-381). This final nightmarish image of woman is in agreement with her corrupted and irresponsible role throughout the poem.

In *The Waste Land*, woman has her role shaped to suit a world plunged into the darkness of anarchy, inertia, physical and spiritual barrenness and emptiness mainly caused by the lack of traditional

and religious values. Eliot, who believes that no peaceful and congruous society is ever attainable without a tuneful relationship between man and woman, perceives twentieth century woman of the shabby metropolises as sterile, debased, pretentious, wearied, and superstitious; hence, failing to establish a wholesome relation with her man companion. She is presented as being responsible for family and social disintegration in an intentional disintegrated style.

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Investigating Writing Strategies Used by EFL College Students

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Abstract

This study is intended to investigate EFL college students' use of writing strategies. The researchers have adapted a questionnaire from Maarof and Murat (2013:52-53) and applied it on 60 fourth- year- college students at the Department of English/ College of Education for Women. The five- point questionnaire consists of 22 items that are distributed according to the three writing phases or stages: pre-writing, while –writing and drafting. To ensure face validity, the questionnaire was exposed to a jury of experts, who agreed upon its validity and suitability. Twenty students are randomly chosen as a sample of pilot study. It revealed that the time needed to complete the questionnaire items was 30 minutes. As for the clarity of the items, it was noticed that most of the items were clear and the students found no difficulty in answering them. Fisher's formula was used to establish the weighted mean score for each item. It is clearly noticed that participants use most of writing strategies but with different weights; however, two of the revising strategies are proved to be weak or unused by them. At the end, recommendations, and suggestions for further studies are put forward.

Keywords: writing, writing strategies and writing stages.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

According to Richard et al. (1992:290) the process approach to writing is “an approach in teaching composition which emphasizes the composing processes writers make use of in writing (such as planning, revising and drafting) and which

seeks to improve students' writing skills through developing their use of effective composing processes”.

Seow(2002:315) state that writing comprises three main stages: planning(prewriting), drafting (writing), revising (drafting). Villalon and Calvo (2011:17) states that “writing academic essays is challenging. It requires much more than good surface writing skills such as producing grammatically correct sentences”. “Writing can be difficult and time consuming for many students, but like any complex job, writing is easier if you have the right tools. Writing strategies are the tools writers use to do their work” (Writing strategies, 2017:online).

Phothongsunan (2006:32) states that the learners' use of English learning strategies and how they use such strategies to improve their English skills has gained its importance especially for those learners who want to have a degree in English at university level.

After examining many samples of college students' writing assignment ,checking students' marks in writing and asking many teachers who teach writing at the first and second stages and essay writing at third stage about their students' level in writing, it is found out that there is weakness in this skill. Thus, the researchers are willing to investigate writing strategies used by college students' to diagnose the weakness students' have in this skill.

1.2 The Objective of the Study

The present study objective is to investigate writing strategies used by college students.

1.3 Limits of the Study

This study is limited to third year college female students at the Department of English/ college of Education for women / Baghdad University, during the academic year 2016-2017.

1.4 Definition of basic terms:

Writing can be defined as the “complex process of discovery which involves brainstorming, multiple drafting, feedback practices, revision, and final editing” (Maarof and Murat ,2013:48).

Writing Strategies

Riduan and Lim(2009) assumed that “the key to producing good writing or essays relies on the types and amount of strategies used, and on the regulation of the strategies for generating ideas or for revising what has been written” (ibid, p.47).

Writing Stages

There are three important stages of the writing process named planning (prewriting); drafting (writing); revising (drafting). Each stage can influence and be influenced by the other stages in the process (Stages of the Writing Process, 2017: online).

Section Two: Procedures

2.1 Population and Sample

The population of the present study is fourth-year students from the department of English/ college of education for women, during the academic year (2016-2017). There were 136 students distributed alphabetically into five sections. The sample has been chosen randomly from the population mentioned above. The total number of the sample was 60 students.

2.2 Main Instrument

The questionnaire is the most appropriate tool to achieve the aim of the study. According to Henderson (1978: 60 as cited in Al-Garaghooly, 2004:20), the use of the questionnaire is usually recommended by educators and psychologists especially in the area of research. The researchers have adapted a questionnaire from Maarof and Murat (2013:52-53) and applied it on 60 fourth- year- college students at the Department of English/ College of Education for Women. The five- point questionnaire consists of 22 items that are distributed according to the three writing phases or stages: pre-writing, while –writing and drafting. Then, it was applied on 60 students on 18/1/2017.

2.3 Description of the questionnaire

The questionnaire includes 22 items which are classified according to pre-writing, while writing and revising strategies. The five point scale (always, often, sometimes, rarely, never) is used. The frequencies for each item are calculated by assigning 1 point to the fifth (lowest) level ' never', 2 points for the fourth level

'rarely', 3 points for the third level 'sometimes', 4 points for the second level 'often', and finally 5 points for the first (highest) level 'always' (see Appendix 1).

2.4 Pilot administration of the questionnaire

Twenty students are chosen randomly for the pilot study. After applying the pilot study, it is revealed that the time needed to complete answering the questionnaire items was 30 minutes. As for the clarity of the items, it was noticed that most of the items were clear and the students found no difficulty in answering them.

2.5 Questionnaire Validity

In order to ensure the face validity, the questionnaire was exposed to a jury of experts¹ in language teaching and linguistics who agreed upon its validity and suitability.

2.6 Questionnaire Reliability

In order to find out the questionnaire reliability, the items were divided into two halves (odd and even). Using the Pearson correlation formula, it is found out that the questionnaire reliability is 0.81. After applying the Spearman Brown formula, it was found out the questionnaire reliability is 0.89. This shows that the questionnaire is quite reliable and acceptable.

2.7 Statistical manipulation

The average weighted means score of the questionnaire items is 3. Using the Fisher's formula to establish the mean score for each item, the item which obtains a weighted mean score of more than 3 is considered a strong item and the item which scores less than 3 is considered as a weak one.

2.8 Statistical Tools

¹the jury members are:

1. Prof. Shatha Al-Saadi (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).
2. Asst. Prof. Jinan Ahmed (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).
3. Instr. Dr. Rana Al-Bahrani (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).
4. Instr. Dr. Hanan Dahi (College of Education for Women, Baghdad University).

The main statistical tools of the present study are:

1. Pearson's Formula(as cited in Mousavi,2012:174).

$$R_{xy} = \frac{n(\varepsilon xy) - (\varepsilon x)(\varepsilon y)}{\sqrt{(n(\varepsilon x^2) - (\varepsilon x)^2) (n(\varepsilon y^2) - (\varepsilon y)^2)}}$$

Where: εxy = *sum of the xy*,

εx = *the sum of the students answers on the odd items*,

εy = *the sum of the students answers on the even items*, N= number of students,

X= students answers at the odd items, Y= students answers at the even items

(Mousavi, 2012:174).

2. Spearman Brown's Formula

$$R = \frac{2 \times R_{xy}}{1 + R_{xy}}$$

(Ibid, 680).

3. Fisher's Formula (as cited in Fisher, 1956:327)

Weighted mean score of an item

$$= \frac{F_1 \times 5 + F_2 \times 4 + F_3 \times 3 + F_2 \times 2 + F_1 \times 1}{\text{Total Frequency}}$$

Where F_1 = frequency of the first level (always)

F_2 = frequency of the second level (often)

Etc...

Section three

3.1 Presentation of the Results

Table 1 reveals that the participants use most of writing strategies but with different weights. However, two of the revising strategies are proved to be weak or unused by them (items 14 and 16).

Table 1

The Weighted Mean Scores for the Items of Writing Strategies Questionnaire

Item rank	Item no	Items	Weighted mean scores	category
1.	1	Think and Plan in mind	4.622	Pre-writing strategies
2.	7	Start with introduction	4.521	While writing strategies
3.	13	Read what is written after finished all	4.283	Revising strategies
4.	22	Check mistakes after feedback from teacher	4.083	Revising strategies
5.	11	Give full attention to grammar and vocabulary	4.050	While writing strategies
6.	10	Reread what is written to get idea to continue	3.934	While writing strategies
7.	2	Write outline in English	3.825	Pre-writing strategies
8.	5	Discuss content with classmates	3.721	Pre-writing strategies
9.	12	Simplify what to write	3.593	While writing strategies
10.	8	Stop to read after each sentence	3.532	While writing strategies
11.	15	Make changes in vocabulary	3.298	Revising strategies

12.	9	Stop after few sentences covering an idea.	3.521	While writing strategies
13.	4	Look at essay models	3.461	Pre-writing strategies
14.	21	Compare papers with friends	3.345	Revising strategies
15.	6	Use WH questions to work on content	3.344	Pre-writing strategies
16.	20	Show text to somebody for opinion	3.259	Revising strategies
17.	18	Make changes in the content of ideas	3.229	Revising strategies
18.	19	Drop first draft and write again	3.222	Revising strategies
19.	17	Make changes in structure of essay	3.037	Revising strategies
20.	3	Start writing without written or mental plan	3.017	Pre-writing strategies
21.	16	Make changes in sentence structure	2.984	Revising strategies
22.	14	Hand in written paper without reading	2.793	Revising strategies

This means that there are students who tend to use certain strategies while other strategies seem to be less frequently used; below are **the top five strategies** used by the sample of the study:

3.1.1 Item no 1 which states “Think and Plan in mind”

This pre-writing strategy has ranked first and gained 4.622. It is very regular to use this strategy at the beginning of writing a composing or an essay, because, as many writers, like Horwitz(2008:141) believes that brainstorming and outlining-

the other terms of thinking and planning- are necessary to help students generate ideas, organize and sequence their thoughts.

3.1.2 Item no 7 which states “Start with Introduction”

This while writing strategy has ranked second and gained 4.521. Starting with the introduction seemed to be one of the most frequently used strategies as it gained the second rank. This is supported by Leeds (2016: online) who stated that every writer must start his/her own writing with clear conscious introduction because it stimulates the reader’s interest and provide pertinent background information which is of great help to understand the rest of the writing.

3.1.3 Item no. 13 which states “Read what is written after finished all”

This revising strategy has ranked third and gained 4.283. Every writer should read what is written carefully to check the contents (what is said), organization (the ideas) and style (the way words are used) (Cadle et.al, 2013:17). According to writing process this strategy belongs to the third phase in writing- the revising stage. And, according to the usual sequence of writing process, it should be at the end, i.e. after the prewriting and while writing stages.

3.1.4 Item no.22 which states “Check mistakes after feedback from teacher”.

This revising strategy has ranked fourth and gained 4.083. According to Nunan (2003:93), it is very important that the teacher offers summary comments on students’ papers and instruct them to look for their problems and correct them. For example, **“there are several verbs that are missing an-s at the end. Try to locate and correct these verbs in the next version of this paper”**. It seems students need the teachers’ opinion and this means they are ready to improve their writing skill.

3.1.5 Item no. 11 which states” Give full attention to grammar and vocabulary”

This while writing strategy ranked fifth and gained 4. According to Hyland (1996: 5), students need to understand how words, sentences, and larger discourse structures can shape and express the meanings they want to convey. This means students will be able to know how to write and apply correct grammar for particular purpose and contexts (ibid: 6). Giving full attention to grammar and vocabulary seems to be one of the students’ priorities and this is required to improve their writing skill; however, there are other fundamental strategies, like looking for composition

model or writing an outline which take part in writing a good composition or an essay.

Here are the **bottom three strategies** used by the sample of the study:

3.2.1 Item no. 3 which states “Start writing without written or mental plan”

This prewriting strategy gained 3.017. According to Indra (2004 as cited in Maarof and Murat, 2013: 54) study finding students who use outlines or visually represent their ideas are better writers. However, this strategy is weakly used by the sample of the present study.

3.2.2 Item no. 16 which states “Make changes in sentence structure”.

This revising strategy gained 2.984 .From the researchers’ experience, the changing the structure of the sentences is problematic for students; this because students have already problems in grammar; like, subject verb agreement, passive voice, pronouns, and modifiers...etc. and consider it as the teacher’s responsibility. Also, from the researchers’ experience, the students either use too many short or long sentences, both ways are not acceptable in writing, because using too many short sentences is monotonous and using too long sentences is tiring.

3.2.3 Item no. 14 which states “Hand in written paper without reading”.

This revising strategy has gained 2.79. This is due to two reasons: either because classroom time is limited or because the students leave this part on the teacher as they believe s/he is the only one who is responsible for reading and correcting the composition or the essay.

Section Four: Conclusion, Suggestions and Recommendation

4.1 Conclusion

A. It is proved that certain strategies like:

1. think and plan in mind(pre-writing strategy);
2. start with introduction (while writing strategy) ;
3. read what is written after finished all(revising strategy);
4. check mistakes after feedback from teacher(revising strategy);;and finally

5. give full attention to grammar and vocabulary(while writing strategy).

The students don't use the writing strategies in a systematic way. For example, they use one of the pre writing strategies at the begging but they move to use some of the while using strategies and revising strategies, whereas they must engage in more pre-writing strategies at the beginning, because the pre-writing stage encourages students to write, stimulates their thoughts for getting started and moves them away from facing a blank page to generating ideas and collecting information for writing (Seow, 2002:315).

B. Seemed to be the most widely used strategies. While those strategies which are less frequently used and which gained less than 3 are:

1. Make changes in sentence structure
2. Hand in written paper without reading

This can be attributed to the students' inability to reformulate the structure of sentences, because they tend to use simple language that may not impress the teacher's attention. And the second point could be attributed to the idea that reading the final draft is-according to students' opinions- is the teacher's responsibility not theirs.

4.2 Recommendations

It is recommended to:

1. Extra class hours should be allotted to teach writing as a skill.
2. Specific sessions to teach writing strategies should be allotted at the beginning of each writing course.
3. Courses about how to teach writing should be given to writing teachers.

4.3 Suggestions for Further Research

In the light of the results obtained, the following suggestions are put forward:

1. Investigating the effect of writing strategies on EFL college students.
2. Investigating the most useful writing strategies used by EFL learners.
3. Investigating strategies used in learning other areas like: grammar, pronunciation, spelling, etc.

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Appendix 1 (Writing Strategies Questionnaire)

	Strategies	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
	Pre-Writing Strategies					
1.	Think and Plan in mind					
2.	Write outline in English					
3.	Start writing without written or mental plan					
4.	Look at essay models					
5.	Discuss content with classmates					
6.	Use WH questions to work on content					
		While- Writing Strategies				
7.	Start with introduction					
8.	Stop to read after each sentence					
9.	Stop after few sentences covering an idea.					
10.	Reread what is written to get idea to continue					
11.	Give full attention to grammar and vocabulary					
12.	Simplify what to write					
		Revising Strategies				
13.	Read what is written after finished all					

14.	Hand in written paper without reading					
15.	Make changes in vocabulary					
16.	Make changes in sentence structure					
17.	Make changes in structure of essay					
18.	Make changes in the content of ideas					
19.	Drop first draft and write again					
20.	Show text to somebody for opinion					
21.	Compare papers with friends					
22.	Check mistakes after feedback from teacher					

The Archetypal Shadow of the Teacher in Ionesco's *The Lesson* and Mamet's *Oleanna*

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ABSTRACT

The present paper is concerned with the concept of the teacher as an archetypal shadow in the dramatic plays by Eugene Ionesco's *The Lesson* (1951) and David Mamet's *Oleanna* (1992). The shadow represents the negative tendencies and the animal aspects that are rejected by the persona (the public image) and they are supposed to be permanently hidden and dominated by several factors like ethics and social standards. Losing the control over one's shadow will definitely lead to reveal and expose unaccepted behavioural features. This is obviously noticed in these selected plays. The mythical image of a teacher as being a philosopher, a prophet, or a priest has been totally demolished when the dark side of the teacher character has governed him, i.e. when his shadow finds a way to be out of the unconscious that leashes it. Needless to mention that literature is a significant vehicle for delivering social messages; so, it is a vital to understand the shadow side of teachers, and examines significantly the dramatists' portrayal of the teacher as well as the pedagogical and cultural messages that these plays might imply about teacher's social and moral relationship with their students. By utilizing the psychological approach of C G Jung and his concepts of the Shadow and the Archetype, this paper discerns that the teachers in these plays have failed to recognize their shadow and consequently their self-conscious is controlled by it, incorporating in losing their mental integrity and moral principles.

Keywords: Archetype, David Mamet, Eugene Ionesco, Jung theory, *The Lesson*, *Oleanna*, Shadow

1.1 INTRODUCTION:

There is no doubt that a teacher and teaching process play a vital role in the personality and the future of the students. The teacher is always looked at as a supreme model, a reformer, a priest, a protector, a person of motherly and fatherly concern. To build a strong and developed society, a special and significant value is supposed to be given to education, educational system and the character of teacher. However, the representation of teacher in the literature, films and popular culture of the twentieth century have lately received some attention. In his emphasis on the fact that culture has created idealistic expectations of "teaching as a divine vocation", [Carter \(2009, cited in Cummins, 2011\)](#) states that educational system needs "to expose and critique the saint-teacher metaphor" that mutually idealizes or despises teachers (p, 83). Dalton (2008), Burnaford (2007), and [Muzzillo \(2010\)](#) have also observed that the portrayal of teachers in films and fiction is unrealistic. Most of the fictional teachers who violate anticipations of adequate demeanor or belief are fired from their jobs or they just leave their schools at the end of the story, sometimes reluctantly. In his essay, "The teacher as an archetype of spirit" Clifford Mayes (2010) argues that

the images of teacher and teaching in literature obviously reflect Jung's archetypes, particularly, that of philosopher, prophet, Zen master, and priest, claiming that such view would provide a way to understand and appreciate teachers and their profession.

Nevertheless, the current paper presents a different view by looking at the teacher beyond his known mythical images. The paper critically examines teacher's complex and animal dark side that shapes him, depicting him as a human being with moments of weaknesses, and with internal and external conflicts that greatly impact him personally, as well as affect his relationship with his students. In the two plays under discussion, the mythical images of the teacher have been totally demolished when the dark side of the teacher has governed him, i.e. when his shadow finds a way to be out of the unconscious that leashes it. The teacher in these two plays by Ionesco and Mamet represents a negative portrait of the archetypal image of the teacher, consequently, reflecting an urgent call for reformation of teaching incompetency and re-evaluating teacher's image which might be a cause of the corruption in education, if we have taken into consideration his supposed leading role in society. Critically, the recent studies highlight the similarities between the two plays in their dramatization of the teacher-student relationships where Mamet's *Oleanna* is seen as a parallel with Eugene Ionesco's *The Lesson*. Verna Foster (1995) in her article entitled "Sex, Power, and Pedagogy in Mamet's *Oleanna* and Ionesco's *The Lesson*" argues that both plays can be considered as accusation of an educational culture in which "power-role and power-games played by both professors and students make teaching destructive and learning impossible.

1.2 THE NOTIONS OF ARCHETYPAL AND SHADOW PART OF THE SELF

The word "archetype" originates from a Greek word "archetupon". Archetype is of the two parts where 'arche' stands for "root" and "origin" while 'typos' "pattern" or "model". The archetype is originally discussed by Plato who tackled archetype in the sense of imperfect copy of the ideal world of Idea. However, the major influence on mythological and archetypal criticism is attributed to Carl Jung's theory of archetype. Moreover, Jung expanded Freud's theories of the 'personal unconscious,' emphasizing that this 'personal unconscious' is watered by a primal 'collective unconscious' that contains archetypes which connected modern man with his primitive roots. Jung signifies that the mythologies are the means by which archetypes, essentially unconscious forms, become obvious to the conscious mind, and they appear in the individuals' dreams. Jung notices that what constitutes modern man's search for his identity and soul is his sense of possessing a primeval image, and having archetypal patterns that allow the artist to transfer experiences of the "inner world" to the "outer world". Accordingly, Jung said that it is only logical that the artist "will resort to mythology in order to give his experience its most fitting expression" (Jung, 1933, p164).

However, the idea of archetypes is considered as a C. G. Jung's most important discovery in the early decades of the 20th century. A great deal of books and studies have placed a high value on Jung's concept of 'archetype'. In this regard, Anthony Stevens (1995, p.130) asserted the significance of Jung's theory of archetype, saying

What Jung was proposing was no less than a fundamental concept on which the whole science of psychology could be built. Potentially, it is of comparable importance of quantum theory in physics. Just as the physicist investigates particles and waves, and the biologist genes, so Jung held it to be the business of

the psychologist to investigate the collective unconscious and the functional unites of which it is composed-the archetypes, as eventually called them.

Jung's archetypal images are related to the part of the human mind that contains all of the knowledge, experiences, and images of the entire human race. According to Jung, people from different cultures share certain myths or stories, not because everyone knows the same story but because deep inside their "collective unconscious" lies the past of human memory. In its simplest sense, an archetype is an original model or pattern from which copies can be made. "In literary criticism", M.H. Abrams and Geoffrey Harpham (2015, p.18) say, "the term archetype denotes recurrent narrative designs, patterns of action, character-types, themes and images which are identifiable in a wide variety of works of literature, as well as in myths, dreams, and even social rituals". Thus, in literary criticism, the archetype is captured with the recurrences of certain characters, narrative patterns, themes, images and motifs which are "identifiable in a wide variety of works of literature, as well as in myths, dreams and even social rituals" (Jung, 1996, p115) . Hence, the power and significance of the literary works are explicated.

1.3 THE SHADOW

Jung calls the dark unconscious that is ruled by primal desires as the shadow. The Shadow is an archetype; so, typically everyone has a Shadow. Though difficult, understanding and integrating with the Shadow is crucial for self-awareness. In this regard, Jung states his belief that "everyone carries a shadow, and the less it is embodied in the individual's conscious life, the blacker and denser it is. At all counts, it forms an unconscious snag, thwarting our most well-meant intentions." The Shadow is an essential part of the human psyche that most people try to turn away from or deny; yet, it is showing itself up directly or indirectly. As part of the human unconscious mind, the Shadow is in an indefinite and often distasteful, but also intimate. The Shadow may represent the core of the original self that has been kept hidden, since child's early growth period, underneath the rationality and sociality of the accepted conscious mind. It is regarded as the storage mental mechanism that contains all repressed personal memories of individual's self, as well as those parts of a nation or groups that when brought to consciousness, an individual finds troubling, contradictory to his own values and sort of encounter to his intentionality.

Characteristically, the Shadow functions on a rather unconscious and irrational level not only on the troubling aspects of individual's personality, but also, in the 'collective unconscious' level. In general, The Shadow has been well developed in almost every mythology around the world. It is worth to notice that the 'collective unconscious' divulges itself in entirely different ways in different cultures. The Shadow indicates the darkness or hidden evil, suggesting that a character (Hero) is not only in an encounter with the evil outside; rather, his shadow might take the shape of an inner conflict or struggle with temptation and with his own weaknesses.

Discussing the features of the Shadow, the psychologist Von Franz (1980, p.123) pinpoints that the shadow which "consists largely of laziness, greed, envy, jealous, and the desire for prestige, aggressiveness and similar "tormenting spirits" ", has a connection with our self-esteem and our social images. Inevitably, any quality that does not fit that image is shoved into the deep darkness of the unconscious. One of the most important points Jung has dealt with is his belief that the Shadow underlines a moral problem that poisons the individual's personal life along with as his communal life and relationships to other people. For Jung, sexuality is one of an infinite number of "the primordial images of the collective unconscious" that incarnate all what an individual rebuffs to admit about himself, saying that the "woman always stands just where the man's shadow

falls, so that he is only too liable to confuse the two” (Jung, 1978, p.109). Accordingly, woman and shadow might be seen as two faces for the same coin. They might be regarded as entirely obscured from consciousness as they tend to consist mostly of the primitive, taboo, socially or religiously disparaged human incompatible tendencies, emotions and whims like sexual lust, power strivings, inferior traits, self-interest, gluttony, jealousy, anger or rage. As will be analyzed, the murder of a student by a professor in Eugene Ionesco’s *The Lesson* (1951) and the sexual lust and harassment of a professor with his student in David Mamet’s *Oleanna* (1992), illuminate the perennial shadowy problem of human evil, the irrational and hostile inner forces and the destructive power of extreme unconsciousness.

2.1 TEACHER AS A VAMPIRE IN EUGENE IONESCO’S *THE LESSON*

Eugene Ionesco (1909-1994) was one of the famous playwrights of the Absurd Theatre. His play *The Lesson*, written in 1951, is a one-act play with three characters, the Professor, Pupil, and the Professor’s maid. From the very beginning of the play, Ionesco presents an ‘archetypal triangle’ of one male and two female characters: the Professor is a male in his fifties; his maid, a woman between forties and fifties, who plays a role of double- function as a mother and wife; and an eager female Pupil who is a “well-brought-up girl, polite, but lively, gay dynamic [with] a fresh smile.” (p.45)

When the Professor starts teaching Pupil Arithmetic, the maid shows a kind of bothersome expression, and urges him to “remain calm”, warning him of the bad consequences of teaching arithmetic exercises, as they are “tiring, exhausting” (p.51) which Professor defensively replies in a way as if she is questioning his potency, saying to his maid “I will not stand for your insinuations. I know perfectly well how to comport myself. I am old enough for that.” (p.51) Apparently, this intercession, on one hand, reveals a secret involvement between the dominant male marauder and the maid as a mother-figure who takes care not of the possible victim’s safety, but of the aggressive-teacher’s interests. On the other hand, the Professor’s answer obviously reflects his unawareness of the other dimension of his shadow self that grips his personality as powerful as that of the public self.

As the play unfolds, we see a deteriorated educational world where lust and murder are rising up in its wrecks. The Professor, who is portrayed as a caricature of an academic and a poignant representation of male sex desire, shows an excessive timidity and nervous entrance; yet, he displays an irritating body language by a continuous and nervous rubbing of his hands and “occasionally a lewd gleam comes into his eyes and quickly repressed” (p.46). With the course of the drama, the Professor becomes “ becomes more and more sure of himself, more and more nervous, aggressive, dominating, until he is able to do as he pleases with the Pupil, who has become, in his hands, a pitiful creature ” (p.56). Such manifestations and changes in his behaviour might set the first steps of the seduction towards his Pupil. Moreover, his exaggerated complimentary remarks about her intelligence and good memory, accompanied by the numerous subconscious messages set up the sexual implications between the Professor and Pupil.

It is clear from the very beginning that the Professor tries to get Pupil’s approval indirectly by alluding to her sexual maturity, saying “Ah, you’re so far advanced, even perhaps too advanced for your age.” (p.48) And later the Professor says: “Excuse me, Miss, I was just going to say so...but as you will learn, one must be ready for anything”, (p.48) where Pupil replies, “Yes,

Professor, I am at your disposal” (p.50). With a provocative shimmer into his eyes and with erotic suggestions, he says “Oh, Miss, it is I who am at your disposal. I am only your humble servant” (p.50). The stage directions signify that the Pupil looks “lively, gay, dynamic; a fresh smile is on her lips” (p.45). But as the play progresses, the Pupil's general bearing and movements "gradually lose their animation" and she slowly changes "from being happy and cheerful to being downcast and morose", becoming "more and more tired and sleepy", in "a state of nervous depression", until at the end "she is nothing more than an object, limp and inert, lifeless... in the hands of the Professor" (p.47)

This buzzard power structure, where the male asserts his subjugation will dramatically disclose a drastic change in the rest of the play when this “humble servant” becomes a pitiless marauder. With a knife, the Professor kills his female Pupil who falls, "flopping in an immodest position onto a chair which, as though by chance, is near the window " (p.75). Then, he appears waiting for another Pupil -victim, suggesting that this vampire tendency and the brutal sexual behaviour are unstoppable as declared later by his maid, saying that this Pupil is number 40. Thus, as Martin Esslin (1988) so aptly argues, the central proposition of *The Lesson* "hinges on the sexual nature of all power and the relationship between language and power as the basis of all human ties"(p.147)

From a Jungian perspective, the shadow overwhelms the Professor's actions, making him forget the real function of the teacher; his conscious mind is confused and paralyzed by the fact that he is possessed by his own shadow that makes him fall into a level contrary to social standards and ideals and below the assumed role as an archetypal image of the teacher. The maid, who warns him not repeating the atrocities that he used to do, symbolizes what Jung refers to as “anima” which is the feminine features inside man that arouses panic. Jung always refers to ‘anima’ as ‘she’ that appears to man either as a real woman or as an imagined women in dream. (Wehr, 1987).

Moreover, the maid, portrayed as ‘anima’, primarily, in Jungian concept, seems to be an entirely detach personality, presuming an unintegrated connection between his conscious and unconscious. Accordingly, the Professor's shadow is possessed by his ‘anima,’ which “is always afraid [he] shall tire [himself]. She's worried about his health” (p.51). Similarly, the Pupil observes that the maid\ the Professor's anima looks a “very devoted. She loves you very much.” (p.51) However, the image of the teacher as a vampire, who intensifies his strength by diminishing the power of his female Pupils, shows aspects of the shadow archetype by which the Pupil is gradually being conquered by the Professor while her toothache increases.

The Pupil: Oh, Sir, I've got toothache.

PROFESSOR: Don't interrupt! And don't make me angry! For "if I lose control of myself... As I was saying, then (...) I repeat: if you prefer, for I notice that you are no longer paying attention...

PUPIL: I've got the toothache. (p.62)

The Professor totally strips his Pupil from strength symbolically by a sudden suffering from unbearable toothache and by chocking her with his dominated language and physical power that hides his animal instincts. The Professor forces the Pupil to repeat the word ‘knife’ several times until he finally thrusts her to fatality in “an act of orgasmic violence” (*Walker, 1997,July*):

PROFESSOR: Ah! (...) It will be enough if you will pronounce the word "knife" in all the languages, while looking at the object, very closely, fixedly, and imagining that it is in the language that you are speaking.(p.73)

Pupil's powerlessness to comprehend subtractions designates her subconscious and innate effort to self-preservation, and her denial of disintegration that the Professor philosophically proclaimed: "It's not enough to integrate, you must also disintegrate. That's the way life is. That's philosophy. That's science. That's progress, civilization" (p.55). The Professor takes hold an imaginary knife from the drawer as a collective symbol of all forms of dictatorship and of "the spirit of domination [that] always present in teacher-pupil relationships, and that the professor kills the girl because her toothache enables her to escape from having to listen to his instruction" (Esslin, 1988, p.147):

PROFESSOR: Seven and one?

PUPIL: Eight again.

PROFESSOR: Excellent. Perfect.

PROFESSOR: Magnificent. You are magnificent. You are exquisite. I congratulate you warmly, miss. There's scarcely any point in going on. At addition you are a past master. Now, let's look at subtraction. Tell me, if you are not exhausted, how many are four minus three?

PUPIL: Four minus three? . . . Four minus three?

PROFESSOR: Yes. I mean to say: subtract three from four.

PUPIL: That makes ... seven?

PROFESSOR: I am sorry but I'm obliged to contradict you. Four minus three does not make seven. You are confused: four plus three makes seven, four minus three does not make seven. This is not addition anymore; we must sub- tract now.

PUPIL [trying to understand]: Yes ... yes ...

PROFESSOR: Four minus three makes . . . How many? How many?

PUPIL: Four?

PROFESSOR: Oh, certainly not, miss. It's not a matter of guessing, you've got to think it out. Let's try to deduce it together. Would you like to count? (p.52)

Insensibly, the psychological evolution of the teacher and the student undergoes a reversal, in the sense that the shyness of the teacher is transformed into aggressiveness and despotism, while the temerity of the pupil is changed into submission. This reversal which occurs during the linguistic lesson triggers in the professor a sort of intoxication of the word that leads him into an unconscious state. He seeks to reduce the pupil to the state of object and malleable mechanism. His need to explain everything, an obsession of clarity due to the irrational refusal of his troubled, timid being, causes him to destroy all that is obscure in his pupil. He shows a great deal of domination over his female pupil; yet, he is ultimately dominated and enslaved by and his shadow. After killing the pupil, the Professor pleads innocence, declaring that he had not understood the Maid's warning. "Liar," she replies, "an intellectual like you is not going to make a mistake in the meanings of words" (p.77). His pleading for innocence recalls what Rollo May discusses about the relation between the shadow and evil, saying "our capacity for evil hinges on breaking through our pseudoinnocence. So long as we preserve our one-dimensional thinking, we can cover up deeds by pleading innocent" (Rollo, 1991, p. 175).

His pride has led him to disregard his shadow, and prevents him accept others. He seems to be the prey of uncontrollable hidden desires that pushes him to pour on his victim a frightening logorrhea. From a Jungian view, the Professor's vampire image could be understood as an expression of his "shadow," of those aspects of the self that contain suppressed wishes, anti-social desires, morally

suspicious motives, childish fantasies of an egoistic nature, and other traits that might be considered shameful ones.

3.1 THE PROJECTION OF THE SHADOW IN DAVID MAMET'S *OLEANNA*

Mamet's play *Oleanna* has received numerous scholarly studies where the main focus was on topics like, sexual harassment, gender difference, pedagogical environment, and power dynamics. Harry J. Elam (1997, p. 160) aptly observes that "Mamet's approach in *Oleanna*...is not one of balance. Rather, Mamet decidedly loads the conflict in favour of his male protagonist, John, the professor." On the same vein, Badenhausen (1998) suggests that Mamet's play *Oleanna* comments ominously on "education in America and more particularly functions as a dire warning both to and about those doing the educating"

In *Oleanna*, the audience is confronted by only two characters; John, who is a forty-year-old university professor, father, husband, and breadwinner, and his twenty-year-old female student, Carol. The student comes to her teacher's office, asking his help understand some academic issues to improve her grade. He shows a tendency to devalue her mentality and that makes her believe that he accusing her of being a stupid student. Their conversation that is continuously interrupted by several phone calls leads to some disputes, especially when he involves his personal compartments to offer Carol an "A" in his class. Putting his hand on her shoulder, his order that she has to meet him privately in his office a few times during the semester to solve her problems and his psychical and bodily approach towards her are interpreted as a sexual harassment, rape and a manipulation of power. John declares that he is doing this because he "likes" Carol, thinking that they might be "similar." When she complains, John tells her to "[f]orget about the paper," for "[w]hat is The Class but you and me?" (Mamet 1993, p.21). Describing John's character, the critic, Caryn James considers him as "a bad teacher and an egotist, guilty of poor judgment. Yet by the end... a villain" (p. 22). John seems has no self-esteem that teacher is expected to abide. Throughout the play, he conveys many personal facts about himself as a person and as a teacher, stating that he was brought up to believe that he is stupid (Mamet, p. 15-16). As the conversation goes on, audience discovers more negative characteristics about Professor John. He reveals that when he was a student, he had difficult time understanding even "The simplest problem was beyond [him]" (p. 16). Right after this, John discloses another secret about his academic life. He describes himself as an "incompetent" teacher, saying that "I become, I feel 'unworthy,' and 'unprepared' . . ." (p. 17). Later in Act 1, John punctuates his lesson on theories of higher education with an inappropriate analogy, contending that education is 'hazing' and artificial. He also mentions his detestation of schools and teachers; "I came late to teaching. And I found it artificial . . . I told you. I hated school, I hated teachers . . . I knew I was going to fail. Because I was a fuck up. I was just not goddamned good. (p. 22). Strangely, He confesses to Carol that people think that he is a stupid:

Carol: People said that you were stupid...?

John: Yes.

Carol: When?

John: I'll tell you when.

Through my life. In my childhood; and, perhaps, they stopped. But I heard them continue.

Carol: And what did they say?

John: They said I was incompetent. Do you see? And when I'm tested the, the, the feelings of my youth about the very subject of learning come up. And I ... I become, I feel "unworthy", and "unprepared", (Act I, p. 17)

Furthermore, John believes that university tests "are designed . . . for idiots. By idiots" (p. 23). Hence, it is not surprising that Carol continues to acknowledge a lack of understanding for the subject that John teaches.

Archetypically speaking, John knows well that as a teacher, he is supposed to have a fatherly concern and he should talk to Carol as "[he is] talking to ... [his] son". Nevertheless, he could not achieve this harmonious relationship because he is not able to recognize his shadowy side. He is facing different opposites that are resulted from the tension between personal and the collective unconscious archetypes such as: teacher's fatherly concern and the sexual attraction, 'authority' and 'intellectual immaturity' and his past and his present:

Carol: I did what you told me. I did, I did everything that, I read your book, you told me buy your book and read it. Everything you say I... (She gestures to her notebook. The phone rings.) I do...Ev...

John:... Look:

Carol:... everything I'm told...

John: Look. Look. I'm not your father.

Carol: What?

John: I'm.

Carol: Did you say you were my father?

John: ... no...

Carol: why did you say that...?

John: I... (p.9-10)

Later, he declares to Carol that "I'm talking to you as I'd talk to my son. Because that's what I'd like him to have that I never had". This allusion to fatherhood is invested with a host of codes, which suggest the authority of John and the immaturity—in this case an intellectual immaturity—of his student. In Act 2 & 3, John appears metaphorically naked, losing his authority over his student, and losing his reputation as university professor after Carol's accusation of him as being molester and her intention to complain him to Tenure Committee. While talking about this tenure committee, John is sure that this committee "will find an index" of his "badness" (p. 24), begging her to drop the accusation. Yet, John interestingly does not defend or refute Carol's accusations. He does not that "deny that these things happened" (p. 48). When Carol makes her claim, John says, "Well, all right" and he moves to read the report passed to him by the tenure committee (p. 47).

Carol describes the struggle with her teacher as "pornographic". Carol also talks about the sexual attack again toward the end of Act 3, saying "You think I am frightened, repressed, confused, I don't know, abandoned young thing of some doubtful sexuality . . ." (p. 68). Later, she asserts; "[John] tried to rape [her]. [She] was leaving the office; [he] 'pressed' [himself] into [her]. [He] pressed [his] body into [her]" (p. 78). Thus, Professor John's sexuality and desire come to his

personality surface. Mamet's Professor John is condemned relentlessly by many critics who deal with John's negative professorship as a serious matter since this professor might reflect real professors who did harass their female student in reality. In her article, "The Politics of Gender, Language and Hierarchy in Mamet's *Oleanna*," Christine MacLeod (1995) visualizes her negative feelings towards both the student and the professor; as a student, she feels bad, inferior and repressed one, and she is no longer trust the image of professor in educational system. On the other hand, this theatrical negative professorship portrayed in this play is seen as an indication of the corruption in American education.

Therefore, the play "ultimately explores the peril of inferior teaching and the subsequent misreading that necessarily follow in a pedagogical environment that tacitly reinforces hierarchical differences amongst its participants" (Badenhausen, 1998, p. 2). In act of extreme violence toward the very end of the play, John attacks his student, beating her severely and calling her with names a "bitch" and a "cunt". All these facts about John's character challenge his professorship. Therefore, academically speaking, Professor John's character has no even the least amount features of good professorship. Richard Hornby (1993, p.194) argues that the Professor's inadequacy in teaching and his inappropriateness for the "'tenure position' is so incompetent that we cannot really show any sympathy for him. I could only feel that anyone lacking in intellectual skills or moral fiber never deserves tenure in the first place".

Although, sexuality, desire, violence and related subjects grow to be prominent observable facts in all walks of life, it is rather not acceptable or admirable traits of a professor's character to consider this phenomenon as a prevalent or as a dominant side in this relationship with his student. However, with the traces of Jungian archetypal shadow in *Oleanna*, it is found that John's character is fragmented not integrated; so that causes some tensions and lack of self-realization from which he suffers. The interrupted phone calls throughout his conversation might reflect and increase the fragmented nature of his character. Accordingly, the Shadow of Professor John manifests itself and exposes its power over his relation with his student through different impulses that bring out throughout the play. These impulses include his slips of the tongue (when he destroyed his self-image), cynical remarks (accusing her as being a stupid student), and outbursts of anger and irritability (his sudden fits of rage and violence towards Carol), his, or negative behavior or attitudes toward others (his negative view to the academic institution and educational system).

Moreover, Professor John faces great difficulty in keeping his shadow hidden and repulsed inside because it abruptly intrudes and continuously sabotages his conscious life. Obviously, his hidden antagonism comes literally to the surface in his conception of his job and his relation with his student, Carol. In the following passage, he describes to Carol the nature of his professorship and the strategy he employs in higher education:

John: ...that's my *job*, don't you know.

Carol: What is?

John: To provoke you.

Carol: No.

John: Oh. Yes, though.

Carol: To provoke me?

JOHN: That's right.

CAROL: To make me mad?

JOHN: That's right. To force you...(p.32)

Confronting the shadow is an extremely big challenge because it is uneasy to admit or even discover that we embrace shortcomings or we nature dim side. Jung proposes that the Shadow is largely intended to be our connate tendency to move towards our demerits and our shortcomings. John's ultimate conflict is not the conflict of external evil but rather the evil that lies within and which can never be avoided. John's innate darkness manifests in an exterior form. Moreover, what makes the image worse is that if individual does not realize his own dark side, he projects this negative side on others, expressing his hatred and harshly blaming the innocents. Carol notices this, saying to Professor John

Why do you hate me? Because you think me wrong? No, Because I have, you think, power over you. Listen to me. Listen to me, Professor. [Pause] It is the power that you hate. So deeply that, that any atmosphere of free discussion is impossible. It's not "unlikely." It's impossible. Isn't it? ... Now. The thing which you find so cruel is the selfsame process of selection I, and my group, go through every day of our lives. In admittance to school. In our tests, in our class rankings (p.68-9)

Professor John's darker side of his unconscious self may denote an alienation from his moral principles, articulating the pervasiveness of the political *and moral issues* in diversified American society (). Holding beliefs, ideologies and values to look at others as morally inferior, John's most conflicts on moral issues appear in his violent action towards Carol at the close of the play when he attempts to kill or seriously hurt her "lowers the chair... moves to his desk and arranges the papers on it" (Act III, p.86); this action summons John's shadowy side of nature that is still unilluminated and unknown. Seemingly, he could not succeed to make balance between his inner and outer world. His lost of genuine teaching and personal ethics causes oddities in his psyche.

CONCLUSION

When Jung's archetypal theory is applied to the dramatic character of teacher in Ionesco's *The lesson* and Mamet's *Oleanna*, it is found that both teachers have torn between their conscious and unconscious as there is an eternal struggle between good and evil. Ostensibly, because they are taken over by their shadow and are unable to recognize this dark side that consists of the most irritating and disgusted qualities, teachers are portrayed as having devilish personality (where the devil is a form of the shadow), losing their reason, their morals and his soul. In Jungian view, breaking down of the persona (the public image) has paved the way to their archetypal shadow to over control their conscious, and social behaviour. Moreover, these plays show that there are teachers who are more concerned about themselves and their own impulses than their pupils, and may be more imbued with knowledge than with pedagogy, more anxious to train learners in their scientific gibberish than to recognise the living person in face of them, which may include hurting the teeth or the head, committing a sexual harassment or even rape. Despite the physical evil, the pupil endures the unbearable language and behavior of his\her teacher, reflecting the idea that those in the teacher-student relationship might reflects the havoc and tensions that underline how "the culture as a whole, the pedagogical relationship [are] standing as a model of the exchange of cultural principles among individuals and social groups". However, the murder in *The Lesson* is taken a spiritual and symbolic form as the Pupil is exterminated by main means of ideology and

science,(i.e. language) that robs her of an autonomous life; whereas, the murder in *Oleanna* seems so real, calling the attention to the sever and critical level of deterioration in the academic life.

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The Use of Audio-Visual Aids in English Language Assessment at the Basic Stage in Iraqi Kurdistan Schools

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ABSTRACT

Assessment is considered a natural step in teaching and learning processes. It is an important area in applied linguistics. Since audio-visual (henceforth A/V) aids are used in teaching a language, they should be used in assessment. The teachers should assess students according to the teaching objectives; otherwise, the assessment will lose validity and there will be a mismatch between teaching and assessment. This study has been conducted with the participation of teachers. The study aims at finding the extent of using A/V aids at the basic stage in Kurdistan schools. The evidence has been obtained from the participants of this study through responding a questionnaire. So, most of the findings are the English language teachers' point of view. It has been concluded that too much emphasis is given to certain areas at the expense of others. Some teachers minimize assessing oral skills. They seldom or never test or measure the ability to speak. It can be concluded that students need intensive practice in listening to English spoken language. Supervision has not been successful in the field of using A/V aids in English language tests. There is too little guidance for teachers in this area. Besides, some teachers complain that they have not been provided with A/V aids.

Keywords: Audio-Visual aids, Language Assessment, Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing.

1. INTRODUCTION

Assessment is a tool by which we measure a person's ability, knowledge or performance in a given domain. It has a great role in teaching and learning processes. The teacher attempts to evaluate the students' learning progress. A/V aids are teaching materials that supplement the process of teaching for the purpose of enhancing and facilitating learning.

A/V aids are of two forms: nontechnical and technical. Nontechnical materials include pictures, charts, maps, photographs, illustrations, flashcards, boards, realia, etc. Technical materials include videos, audios, overhead projector, computer-based aids, etc. Another classification for A/V materials depends on its source whether they are institutionally- prepared or teacher-made.

There may be some arguments against using A/V aids in language assessment, especially concerning practicality, but they have undeniable merits. Using A/V aids in language assessment means providing real life situations. This is authenticity (or semi authenticity) which is a feature of a good test. Additionally, A/V aids play a great role in Language input and language output.

The use of A/V aids makes teachers avoid translation. This is very important in case teaching is in accordance with the Communicative Approach. A/V aids help students to improve their face-to-face interaction and master their paralinguistic devices.

Audios and visuals can be used at the same time (simultaneously). For instance, students listen while looking at a picture (or pictures). Also, this is the case in a video tape. Brinton affirms that the use of A/V aids varies relying on the methodology conducted. For example, magazine pictures, maps and charts are widely used in Natural Approach; while in Communicative Language Teaching, for the purpose of authenticity, the emphasis is on the real objects (p. 459). Also A/V aids should be appropriate for the levels of the students. For example, too childish pictures or plastic fruit should not be used for adult learners. Some audios are very simple, such as how to understand instructions and commands (go to the board, close your eyes, etc.), these are used especially with beginners.

In modern foreign language programs, as with Sunrise, instruction begins with the teaching of the sound system. This is called a 'phonic method'. For example, when teaching the letter (b), it is taught by sound /b/ not by name /bi: /. So, audio aids are necessary to be used in teaching and assessing.

Paralinguistic features of language are better taught and assessed by using A/V aids. These features are of two types: those that involve the voice (intonation, stress) are called vocal paralinguistic features, and those that involve the body (facial expression, gesture) are called physical paralinguistic features. These aspects are used to test both listening and speaking. The following are good examples of intonation:

-
- Would you like soup or salad? (yes, please)
 - Would you like soup or salad? (Soup, please) : from Madsen (p. 65)

2. THEORY

No skill should take priority comparing to other skills in assessment as well as in teaching. Evaluating students' language achievement is not complete without evaluating their listening and speaking skills. In case any skill is neglected in the process of assessment, the backwash effect will not be beneficial, or even may be harmful. Teachers should use CD players or some pictures and ask students to answer some relevant questions; otherwise, listening and speaking are not assessed adequately. In case there is no listening or speaking test, how can we test the students' language use for communication which is the chief goal of this new program? Madsen (1983) states that "in a communicative stage, the emphasis is on evaluating language use rather than language form" (p. 6).

A/V aids can be used in teaching and assessing all the four skills. They are suitable tools to assess students' oral skills (listening and speaking). Listening is receptive while speaking is productive. The shape of a triangle is a good example as follows:

- a- listening: (students listen "This is a triangle" (True or False)

- b- Speaking (and also reading): Teacher “What’s this?”. Students “it is a triangle”.
- c- Reading: This is a ____ shape. (square, circle, triangle, rectangle)
- d- Writing: “This shape is a _____”

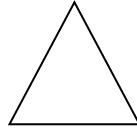


FIGURE 1: a triangle

The following is a brief explanation for using A/V aids in assessing each skill:

2.1. LISTENING

To test listening, the teacher provides students with some pictures, and students listen to a CD player (or a teacher). They look at the pictures and hear some sentences about one picture. They can be asked to choose the correct picture (multiple-choice item) (Douglas, p: 127). With low level students, you can provide just one picture, and read multiple True-False sentences. Students’ answer will be Yes/No or True/False. Also, students can listen to pair words to discriminate between distinctive sounds (such as pack / back). Dictation is another technique while assessing listening. Students listen to a word (or a sentence), they write down what they hear.

2.2. SPEAKING

Picture-cued technique can also be used for oral production. Students are provided with pictures, and are asked to label them (or to describe them). For example, the teacher shows his/her students a picture of an apple, and asks “what’s this?”. Another example is showing students a flashcard of a cigarette with crossing lines on it, and the students are asked “what does this mean?” One more example may be providing students with a picture, and asking them to describe. The examples vary according to the level of students.

Relia is a good technique while assessing speaking. Pointing to the objects available in the classroom (such as desks, books, board, fan, etc.), and asking them to label is a brilliant example. Or simply, the teacher asks some questions like: How many desks are there in this room? To give another example, the teacher asks two, a short and a tall, students to stand up. The students are asked to make a comparison between them (e.g. Student A is taller than student B).

2.3 READIND

Pictures can be used to assess reading. In initial stages, students can be provided with some pictures and some words, and then they are asked to point to the picture he/she reads (or matches words with their pictures). To give an example in intermediate stage, the teacher can put five books on a table, and the following techniques may be used:

- There are six books on the table. (True/ False)
- There are five ____ on the table. (books, pens, chairs, erasers). (Multiple-Choice)

It is to be mentioned that pictures are provided in National Examination- grade nine, but those pictures test only reading. In addition, the pictures are not very clear.

2.4. WRITING

If the purpose of an assessment is writing, no cues are given. Diagram –labeling task is very interesting to assess this skill. For instance, the teacher provides the students with a human body, and the students write down the required body parts. Some picture-cued tasks ask just for one-word response, others for simple sentences, and so on. For example, students are provided with a man who is sitting on a chair, and they are asked “What’s he doing?” As mentioned earlier, they vary according to the students’ level. In a higher stage, students can be asked to describe a picture (or pictures). This, according to Heaton (1990, p. 142), stimulates the students’ imaginative powers.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. The PROCEDURE AND THE HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

The following procedure is adapted throughout this study. A questionnaire is given to the teachers who teach basic stages. The answers are statistically analyzed by using percentage. It is hypothesized that some teachers do not use A/V aids in English language assessment.

3.2. THE AIM AND THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study aims at finding out if A/V aids are used by English language teachers at Basic schools in assessment. The Scope of the study is Shaqlawa District, this is because of practicality. The Study is limited to English language teachers who teach basic stage students in the academic year 2015-2016. The findings of the study are limited to the analysis of what the teachers state in their response to the questionnaire items.

3.3. THE POPULATION AND SAMPLING

After defining the number of schools to be included in this study, a sample of forty teachers has been chosen by simple random sampling.

3.4. Data Collection

The questionnaire comprises thirteen items. The questions were set to elicit the respondent's information and views concerning using A/V aids in the process of assessment in Sunrise program-basic grades. The items are of closed- ended type, this is because of practicality. They have five options. Most of the questions were constructed in the light of reading the available sources dealing with language testing and teaching English as a second or foreign language, and some of them were constructed consulting English language specialist supervisors. The rest of the questions were designed depending on the researcher’s experience (teaching English for nineteen years).

The items have been classified into three areas according to the importance of A/V aids, their extent of use, the obstacles behind neglecting them.

4. RESULTS

As displaced in table 1, tem number one shows that the majority of the respondents agree that the use of A/V aids encourages students to listen, only ten percent of them do not agree to this idea. So, the teachers should use these aids in both teaching and assessing.

In the answer to item number two, fifty five percent of the teachers state that the use of A/V aids encourages students to speak, and thirty five percent of them show that the use of A/V aids sometimes encourages students to speak, while only ten percent do not believe in this idea.

In the answer to item number three, a great number of the respondents indicate that it is important to use A/V aids in the process of assessment since it entertains the students, but a small portion of them are against this belief. Twenty two point five percent of the teachers are in-between. This shows that the teachers know the importance of A/V aids while assessing students.

Table 1 : The importance of using A/V aids

Item	Result	always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
1-The use of A/V aids encourages students to listen.	No. of Resp.	24	6	6	1	3	40
	%	60	15	15	2.5	7.5	100
2-The use of A/V aids encourages students to speak .	No. of Resp.	16	6	14	3	1	40
	%	40	15	35	7.5	2.5	100
3- The use of A/V aids is important in the assessment process since it entertains students.	No. of Resp.	18	6	9	0	7	40
	%	45	15	22.5	0	17.5	100

Table number two shows the extent of use of A/V aids by teachers. In the answer to item number four, nearly thirty eight percent of the teachers reveal that they use CDs in the process of assessment, while fifty eight percent of them do not use CDs. The remaining portion, which is only five percent, sometimes uses CDs in the process of assessment.

In the answer to item number five, it has been stated that forty five percent of the teachers use, forty percent of them sometimes use, and only fifty percent of them do not use pictures in the process of assessment.

In the answer to item number eight, only six percent of the teachers point out that they use videos, and also the same portion state that they sometimes use videos, , but ninety percent of them admit that they do not use videos in the process of assessment.

The following result has been obtained in the answer to item number seven. Sixty percent of the teachers show that they use realia, and thirty five percent of them sometimes use realia, and only five percent do not use realia in the process of assessment.

Item number eight is designed to know the extent of using flashcards in the process of assessment. Forty percent of the respondents state that they use flashcards, and nearly thirty eight of them sometimes use flashcards, but twenty two point five of them do not use flashcards in the process of assessment.

Item number nine is constructed to investigate whether overhead projector is used in the process of assessment. Ninety five percent of the teachers admit that they do not use this aid, while only five percent of them sometimes use it.

In the answer to item number ten, Ninety five percent of the teachers admit that they do not use computer-based aids, while only five percent of them sometimes use it.

Table 2: The extent of using A/V aids in the assessment process

Item	Result	always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
4- I use CDs in the assessment process.	No. of Resp.	6	9	2	11	12	40
	%	15	22.5	5	27.5	30	100
5- I use pictures in the assessment process..	No. of Resp.	9	9	21	0	1	40
	%	22.5	22.5	52.5	0	2.5	100
6- I use video tapes in the assessment process	No. of Resp.	0	2	2	9	27	40
	%	0	5	5	22.5	67.5	100
7- I use realia (real objects such as desks, students' clothes, etc.) in the assessment process.	No. of Resp.	15	9	14	0	2	40
	%	37.5	22.5	35	0	5	100
8- I use flashcards in the assessment process..	No. of Resp.	6	8	15	0	11	40
	%	15	20	37.5	0	27.5	100
9- I use overhead projector in the assessment process.	No. of Resp.	0	0	2	3	35	40
	%	0	0	5	7.5	87.5	100

10 I use computer-based aids in the assessment process..	No. of Resp.	0	0	2	8	30	40
	%	0	0	5	20	75	100

In the answer to item number eleven, eleven percent of the teachers declare that no one has recommended them to use the aids in the process of assessment, but only thirty two point five percent of them state that they have been recommended to do so. The remaining portion, which is seven point five, is in-between. Unfortunately, this can be regarded as the supervisors' drawback.

Item number twelve is intended to know whether the teachers have been provided with A/V aids. A large number of the respondents (which is fifty percent) complain that they have not been provided with the aids, and only nearly twenty three percent have been provided with the aids. The remaining portion has sometimes been provided with the aids.

In the answer to item number thirteen, thirty five percent of the teachers state that they do not have enough time to use A/V aids, the same portion reveals that they sometimes have time to use the aids, and thirty percent of them show that they have enough time to use A/V aids in the process of assessment.

Table 3: The obstacles that make teachers not use A/V in the assessment process

Item	Result	always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
11- I have been recommended to use A/V aids in the assessment process.	No. of Resp.	3	10	3	15	9	40
	%	7.5	25	7.5	37.5	22.5	100
12- I have been provided with A/V aids in the assessment process.	No. of Resp.	5	4	11	9	11	40
	%	12.5	10	27.5	22.5	27.5	100
13- I do not have enough time to A/V aids in the assessment process.	No. of Resp.	6	8	14	3	9	40
	%	15	20	35	7.5	22.5	100

5. DISCUSSION

Neglecting A/V aids in assessing students may imply that teachers seldom use A/V aids in teaching. Yet, leaving A/V aids means neglecting listening and speaking skills. These skills are oral. It is obvious that language is used much more in oral form than in written form. Assessing these skills, like changing any program, should start from Basic stages. This is to acquaint them from the earlier stage. They then will not face difficulties in the coming stages.

Teachers have their own justifications as they do not make adequate use of A/V aids in English language assessment. Some of them complain that they do not have adequate time, they should be aware that A/V aids are not something additional to teaching. Some others point out that adequate aids are not available in the schools, and some others blame the supervisors for poor and inadequate recommendation. Some supervisors' visiting records have been viewed, but unfortunately no (or little) guidance was given in this field. Teachers themselves should know that it is necessary for them to use the aids though they have not been recommended. Also, at the university they should have been informed that whatever they teach, they must assess for the purpose of validity. As mentioned earlier, some aids are very simple, so the teachers had better themselves make, or even borrow, some aids.

Among the aids, realia, flashcards, and pictures are widely used. This is probably due to the practicality since real objects are accessible in the classroom and pictures are available in the textbooks. Also, flashcards can be made by teachers themselves. Picture-cued can be used as a stimulus task to test all language skills. The most important thing is that pictures should be visible. Overhead projector and computer-based aids are only to a little extent used in the process of assessment. This may be attributed to the fact that most of the schools have not been provided with overhead projector and also electricity power is not helpful in this field.

6. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that too much emphasis is given to certain areas at the expense of others. Some teachers minimize assessing the oral skills. They seldom or never test or measure the ability to listen and speak. Heaton asserts that "oral tests have an excellent backwash effect on the teaching that takes place prior to the test" (1990, p. 82). So, since the use of A/V aids improves students' to listening and speaking, they should be used in tests. Jijji states that "being able to communicate in the foreign language means that the learners should be able to understand the language being spoken not only written (p. 92). Another conclusion point is that students have not been familiarized with using A/V aids in the assessment process. It is worth to be noted that supervision has not been successful in the field of using A/V aids in English language tests. There is too little guidance for teachers in that area.

7. RECOMMENDATION

- The teacher is a constant learner, so the task is not ended when the college days are over.
- English language teachers are in need of training courses in the field of testing to improve their skills in constructing and administering classroom tests at the basic school levels. They should also practice self-education.
- Also it is necessary for the supervisors to attend training courses.
- Schools should be provided with adequate aids.
- Students need intensive practice in listening to English spoken language. Then their oral skills can be assessed efficiently.

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A Sociocultural Window into Iraqi Wedding Invitation Written Genre

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Abstract

The present study examined the genre of Iraqi wedding invitation cards (WICs) in terms of its textual and visual components, and the impact of the social norms and assumptions on the articulation of these components. Drawing upon three analytic tools, namely, genre analysis proposed by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (2004), semiotic analysis suggested by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001), and critical discourse analysis advocated by Fairclough (2010), a sample of 250 WICs was selected to be considered for analysis. Corpus analysis showed that Iraqi WICs varied in terms of their non-linguistic features like printed forms, colors, layouts, calligraphy, graphics, and paper materials. On the other hand, the underlying schematic organization of Iraqi WICs was built around seven component moves. Moreover, Islamic religious beliefs and Iraqi socio-cultural system were clearly encoded in these wedding invitation texts affecting their organization structure.

Key words: Wedding invitation cards, genre analysis, semiotic analysis, socio-cultural practices.

Introduction

Invitation is ‘a commemorative social action having the function of informing and requesting the presence or participation of a person(s) kindly and courteously to some place, gathering, entertainment, etc., or to do something’ (Al-Ali, 2006, p. 961). A wedding invitation is of relative significance for wedding as it is the starting step for the wedding ceremony that guests will notice before the commencement of wedding. The genre of wedding invitation cards belongs to a text typology commonly known as ‘homely discourses’ along with other ceremonial texts like birth announcements, thank-you notes and death notices (Miller, 1984). Such kind of printed invitation cards shares common generic patterns and properties, and communicates a lot of the socio-cultural conventions and practices of the speech community wherein these texts are written.

Wedding is one of the most memorable and happiest moments in human life. It is ‘a day when two individuals embark on a life-long journey of togetherness’ (Hill, 2015). A wedding invitation text is the first public manifestation of a young couple's

co-constructed matrimonial discourse and marks the beginning of their marriage, as one of their 'rites of passage' (Leeds-Hurwitz, 2002). It is typically a formal written letter requesting the attendance and participation of guests in a wedding ceremony, and generally sent to relatives, friends and neighbors before the marriage ceremony. It typically contains information about the names of the host and the newly-wed couples, and the arrangements of the wedding ceremony.

As ceremonial texts existing in almost every society, wedding invitation cards (WICs) are a ubiquitous genre that many people around the world are well acquainted with. In Arabic, this kind of homely genre has received little investigative attention compared to research on a variety of academic and professional genres such as book reviews, research abstracts, introductions, etc. A motivating reason for considering WICs is its 'highly conventionalized content and clearly demarked structure' (Clynes and Henry, 2004, p.226). The present research is intended to analyze a corpus of Iraqi wedding invitation cards to identify their textual and visual component patterns. In addition, it attempts to determine the influence of social, cultural and religious aspects on the textual and visual organization of the genre of Iraqi WICs. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous published research seems to examine the genre of Iraqi WICs. Hence, the present research is the first of its type that dedicates itself to close a lacuna in applied linguistics research.

2. Wedding invitation genre: Related literature

The written genre of WICs belongs to a colony of homely discourses which are such socially constructed texts of everyday life including, among many, thank-you notes, congratulations, obituaries (Johns, 1997). WICs can be best described as an exemplary amalgam of language-culture chemistry. These cards serve the communicative function of informing people that a wedding ceremony will be held in a particular place and time, and guests' attendance to the ceremony will be pleasantly requested. There is a paucity of research on the homely genre of WICs, and the available studies are not many. In this respect, Mirzaei and Eslami (2013) confirm that despite the prevalence and importance of wedding invitation discourse, it has surprisingly received little attention. This means that there is a dearth of related studies that form the background of this study.

One of the earliest influential studies is Al-Ali's (2006) who examined a corpus of 200 Jordanian WICs collected by 45 undergraduates at Jordan University with an aim of identifying their discourse generic component patterns and the role played by the socio-cultural norms and values in shaping these texts. A detailed genre analysis specified eight obligatory and non-obligatory generic moves that generally appeared in Jordanian WICs. The result of critical discourse analysis, on the other hand,

reveals that religious affiliation and masculine kinship authority play an important role in constructing the text component moves and coloring the lexical choices and naming practices.

Mirzaei and Eslami (2013) investigated the genre of Iranian WICs. It probed into the discourse and social variability evident in wedding invitation texts collected from 150 couples. The findings showed that, besides religion, other socioculturally emerging factors such as education, feminism, socioeconomic status, profession, and age had massively impacted the young couples' preference for a certain type of still prefabricated though modern discourse. More important, modern couples had created various discursive practices to serve their own interests largely inspired by the newly emerging societal influences or agendas. The findings of this study shed light on the sociocultural aspects that influenced the communicative behavior of Iranian youth and provided insights into innovative wedding invitation texts in Iran as shaped by sociocultural beliefs and values.

Faramarzi et al., (2015) analyzed the genre of WICs in Iran to find out the generic components, linguistic features used as well as the communicative functions expressed by the generic components. A corpus of 200 Iranian WICS was randomly selected. The results showed that the Iranian invitation genre was built around eight moves out of which one was optional. On the other hand, the wedding invitation card pockets were constructed of five moves out of which three were optional. Besides, the lexico-grammatical features and schematic structure reflected the influence of Iranian socio-cultural values.

To conclude, this study is different from the research reviewed above in that it examines a discourse community not examined before (Iraqi context) from multidisciplinary perspectives. This study makes a significant contribution as it investigates textual and visual aspects of the discourse of Iraqi wedding invitations. Here, it is necessarily believed that not only verbal features, visual ones as well can contribute a lot to achieving the communicative goals of the genre of WICs. Moreover, this study integrates a critical discourse analytical framework investigating how the textual and verbal components of WICs are interwoven with the socio-cultural practices.

In other words, the present study draws on a multimodal analysis which takes a combination of textual and visual modes of meaning-making into account. Specifically, it probes into the analysis of the typical verbal and non-verbal features of the wedding invitation discourse, and the sociocultural norms embedded in this type of discourse. The results of this study can be promising for raising socio-cultural awareness of how the genre of Iraqi WICs is articulated to serve its communicative purpose.

3. Theoretical framework

The present study adopts a multidisciplinary framework. It draws upon three analytic tools, namely, genre analysis proposed by Swale (1990) and Bhatia (2004), semiotic analysis suggested by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001), and critical discourse analysis advocated by Fairclough (2010).

The term "genre" is a concept generally employed to mean the classification of texts or discourses according to their content, formal properties, and function. Genres are 'highly structured and conventionalized constructs that can be identified on the basis of conventionalized features they continually develop' (Bhatia, 2004, p. 23). This means that a given genre consists of a set of functional component moves serving its overall communicative purpose. Genre is a type of discourse that occurs in a particular setting having distinctive and recognizable patterns and structures, and can perform a particular communicative function. For Bhatia (2004), 'genres are recognizable communicative events, characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by members of the social, professional or academic community in which they regularly occur' (p.22). According to Swales (1990), a genre is a class of communicative events, the members of which share some sets of communicative purposes. It is a social action, goal-oriented and cultural activity consisting of a sequence of moves. Each move has a minor function in the global communicative goal embedded in the genre. These moves are merely the realization of a particular social interaction.

Genre analysis 'explores discourse features in the broad context of the communicative event, and attempts to provide the rationale of the discourse features in terms of authors' publicly retrievable intentions and institutional conventions' (Allison and Ruiying, 2004, p.265). For some scholars, genre is considered to be a social and cultural construct, and cannot be devoid of the socio-cultural context in which it is articulated. According to Bhatia (2004), genre analysis goes beyond the textual product to incorporate context in a broader sense in order to find out how the text is constructed, interpreted, and exploited in specific social or professional contexts to achieve specific communicative goals. This means that the schematic and rhetorical organization of a given genre is the result of the influence of social norms and practices. With the same view, Devitt, et al. (2004) stress that 'genre is a reciprocal dynamic within which individuals' actions construct and are constructed by recurring context of situation, context of culture, and context of genres' (p. 31).

In recent years, some scholars call for a blend of semiotics and genre analysis. They advocate the considerable relevance of semiotics into the analysis and interpretation of a given genre or text (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 1996, 2001; O'Halloran 2004). Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001) suggests a social semiotics-based model which considers the meaning-making of a given text as a social practice, and

investigates interactional practices in specific sociocultural contexts through the integration of verbal and nonverbal modes. In this regard, they contend that textual analysis should not consider linguistic resources as the only meaning-making devices, semiotic dynamics, like printed forms, colors, layouts, typography, size, etc., are worth considering. Similarly, Sadri (2014) maintains that visual resources such as the style, typography, format, size, etc. make the homely genre of WICs communicate meanings more prominently than verbal texts do. These devices are ‘the real indices that remain in the minds and put across lots of messages in a much more straightforward and effective way than the words inside it can’ (p.93).

A closely related aspect to genre analysis is critical discourse analysis (CDA). Some scholars working within the framework of genre analysis draw an increasing attention to the significant role of text-external resources of genre, context, interdiscursivity, and text-internal properties (Bhatia, 2010). CDA uncovers and deconstructs the socio-cultural practices and beliefs that underlie and shape the construction of a given genre, and goes beyond the surface identification of move components of that genre. Al-Ali (2006) confirms that ‘a particular generic text indexes the current social performances of the participants and the relationship between them as well as the wider social and cultural issues that give rise to these practices’ (p.696).

According to Fairclough (2010), CDA seeks to make visible and criticize the reciprocity between textual properties and social processes and ideology or power relations. This reciprocity is generally opaque to people who produce or interpret the texts, and the effectiveness of the text relies on this opacity. As an analytic tool, CDA probes systematically into relations between social practices and language. Fairclough's (2010) model conceptualizes the analysis of a given discourse as having three interrelated levels. These three analytic levels are (i) linguistic description of a given text, (ii) interpretation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the text, and (iii) explanation of the relationship between discursive processes and social processes. The explanatory power of using CDA ‘helps go beyond merely identifying and describing textual features to deconstruct the social practices, values, and ideologies that have transformed the patterns and choices made in constructing the wedding invitation genre’ (Mirzaei and Eslami, 2013, p. 105).

Here, the multidisciplinary methodology adopted is implemented to identify and describe the linguistic and non-linguistic features or resources of wedding invitation genre first, and then to establish relations between those features and socio-cultural practices and values. Specifically, the framework proposed explores the building block components employed for articulating the structure of this genre, and the role played by the socio-cultural context in the interpretation of discursal organization.

It is only through the use of multidisciplinary tools, a thorough description of the genre of wedding invitations can be maintained.

4. Method

4.1 Corpus collection procedures

A total of 400 written WICs were randomly collected. The entire total was checked and examined to find out if there was any difference in the schematic structure of the genre of Iraqi WICs. In conclusion, there was relative similarity with regard to the overall generic organization of these written texts. And, the WICs chosen were relatively similar in terms of text size. A sample of only 250 WICs was selected to be considered for analysis. The selected sample came from different sources. Some were accumulated from within the known circle of the researcher's undergraduate students of English major at Baghdad University, colleagues, relatives and friends; others were collected from some local printing houses in Baghdad.

As for the corpus collected from the researcher's known circle, the researcher ensured variability in terms of region, socioeconomic status, occupation, education level, and so forth to obtain a representative and clear picture of the genre of WICs in Iraqi society; though this was not applicable to the rest of study corpus. The WICs are printed in Modern Standard Arabic, the native tongue of the Arabic-speaking region in Iraq, covering the time period (1995-2015). It is noteworthy that all WICs considered for analysis were exclusively for Muslim newly-wed couples reflecting the demographic distribution of Muslims compared to other minorities in Iraq. For ethical reasons, names and any other information that might reveal the identity of hosts and guests were removed.

4.2 Corpus analysis procedures

As far as the analysis of the present corpus is concerned, a multidisciplinary analytic framework was adopted. Three analytic tools were used for analyzing the corpus of Iraqi wedding invitations. For the analysis of underlying schematic structure of WICs including communicative goals, rhetorical component moves, and lexico-grammatical features, Swales' (1990) and Bhatia's (2004) theoretical frameworks were employed. Following Al-Ali's (2006) procedures, the move analysis starts with 'scanning the texts to identify text units expressing particular functions. Assigning a function to each text unit is guided by the proposition that each individual unit communicates a particular rhetorical function which is different from that of the following contiguous text unit. Each of these text component portions has a particular function in relation to the overall communicative purpose of the wedding invitation genre' (p. 698). Iraqi WICs, thus, were analyzed in terms

of their recurring component moves to determine how the Iraqi wedding hosts accomplish the communicative purpose of this genre as a socio-cultural activity or practice. Due to the difficulty of establishing the reliability of component move analysis, and to validate the corpus analysis, the researcher's analysis was double-checked by a university professor working as an inter-coder. The inter-coding reliability confirms that there was an 86 percent agreement on the present corpus analysis since the move boundaries of this genre were clearly delineated.

As to the analysis of non-linguistic features associated with WICs, Kress and Van Leeuwen's (2001) social semiotic multi-model of textual analysis was used. Dynamics like printed forms, colors, layouts, calligraphy, graphics, and paper materials were analyzed by means of this analytic paradigm. Then, Fairclough's (2010) model of CDA was followed to investigate how social, cultural and religious representations were encoded in the discourse of wedding invitations. Where possible both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to analyze the selected corpus. To cross-check the credibility of corpus analysis, some Iraqi people were surveyed and interviewed to give their opinions of the generic, semiotic and socio-cultural features identified in the present corpus.

5. Results and discussion

5.1 Non-linguistic features of wedding invitations

It has been observed that there are certain non-verbal features which are pertinent to the genre of WICs serving its unique communicative function. In general, Iraqi WICs vary in terms of their printed forms, colors, layouts, calligraphy, graphics, and paper materials. All these visual features are optional in the present corpus.

Iraqi WICs are customarily printed in rectangular and square shapes. They are printed in an array of bright and shiny colors such as pink, red, purple, white, golden, beige, silver and cream ranging from ready-designed cards to custom-designed ones. The use of such colors and designs helps achieve the communicative function of this genre. By and large, it has been noted that Iraqi higher class families tend to design their own cards rather than to choose ready-made ones as these cards cost more money and are relatively expensive. Also, the selection of certain colors and designs seem to display the socio-economic status and education of the wed-couples in that Iraqi higher class families show a general tendency toward the use of elegant but simple designs and cold colors like beige, white and cream, whereas other families strata tend to use these colors in addition to other ones.

The cards size often varies depending relatively on the socio-economic status of the wed-couples as they cost more money (the larger the invitation cards the higher the socio-economic rank), but may also reflect the attitude of the card writers or the hosts' personal touch. With the same argument, Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) report

that the card size relies on either the inviter's taste or the financial situation. The size is an optional feature of Iraqi WICs.

In the present corpus, the use of images and pictures like doves, roses, wedding rings, fictitious portraits of bride and groom, hearts, bells, bouquets of mixed flowers, and persons play a significant role in communicating a lot of the meaning-making of this genre. Though not frequent, the unique use of persons' images stands out in Iraqi WICs wherein the groom's and/or the groom's father's image are printed. The same tendency does not apply to the bride and the bride's family. This can entail a cultural implication of gender inequality and unequal distribution of power in relationships. Such use of images is often noted with families coming from rural areas and villages. Other images and symbols are neutralized in terms of region, socio-economic status, education, etc. This means that these symbols appear across the entire corpus. It has been observed that only Iraqi WICs employ persons' images as a component portion of this homely genre compared to different regional and international contexts (Clynes and Henry, 2004; Al-Ali, 2006; Faramarzi et al., 2015). The use of people's images is important in negotiating the public domain of these printed WICs in the Iraqi context.

Iraqi WICs are often printed in special types of paper ranging from low to high quality. Sometimes other materials like plastic or wood are mainly used by families coming from higher socio-economic class. In the present corpus, it has been noted that the card materiality and print quality is largely affected by the socio-economic status of the future wed-couples. In general, the materiality options of cards and prints can carry an ideological implication that weddings have an elevated status in Iraqi society as in other world contexts (Fei, 2004).

Also, Iraqi WICs are often printed with the beautiful art of Arabic calligraphy. The different component moves of WICs are printed in fancy decorative fonts with varying sizes and types to draw the guests' attention. The choice of the font size and type varies significantly according to the celebrating families' interests. Another nonlinguistic feature that attracts attention in Iraqi WICs is the use of diversified embellishments such as fanciful ribbons, colored beads, flowers of different types and sizes, and the like. Different ink colors are used in the cards print such as blue, black, golden, etc., and different sorts of envelopes are carefully selected to go with the invitation design.

5.2 Linguistic features of wedding invitations

The analysis of the present corpus at hand revealed that the schematic structure of Iraqi WICs is built around seven component moves which generally come in the following sequential order, and some of them are optional. Table 1 presents the identified rhetorical moves of Iraqi WICs;

Table 1: Distribution of the generic component moves of Iraqi WICs.

Component moves	Communicative functions	No. & %
M1. Opening	Initiating the wedding invitations by using Quranic verses, Prophetic prayers and literary quotations.	250 100%
M2. Inviting the guests	A conventionalized expression or phrase requesting the honor of the guests' presence and participation.	250 100%
M3. Identifying the hosting families	Naming the celebrating guardians who have issued the wedding invitations.	250 100%
M4. Identifying the wed couples	Naming the future wed couples.	250 100%
M5. Identifying the marriage arrangements	Details about the time and place of wedding occasion.	250 100%
M6. Closing	A conventionalized expression or phrase concluding the wedding invitation.	250 100%
M7. Notification	Further information about the wedding occasion.	20 8%

The opening move is an introductory component which is obligatory and comes first in Iraqi WICs. Its distribution constitutes (100%) of the entire corpus. It appears in the central top position of the wedding cards printed in different Arabic calligraphies with a variety of font type and size. This opening element has the main communicative function of announcing the invitation. It is often realized by conventionalized and formulaic clichés cited from Quranic verses, Prophetic prayers and blessings, or extracts of Arabic verse or prose. The formulaic openings are mainly restricted in their use to wedding invitations serving the publicization of the wedding significance. Al-Ali (2004) and Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) report the use of some of these clichés in their research. All these clichés are functional in enhancing the marriage promotion. The general tendency in Iraqi WICs is the use of one of these opening quotations, but sometimes, two opening types are used as well such as Quranic verses along with prayers. The frequent use of Quranic verses in the corpus analyzed can be interpreted as ‘a sign of adherence to Islamic teachings resulting in achieving solidarity among the members of Muslim community. According to Islamic teachings and prescriptions, starting wedding invitations cards with God's words brings bounty and security to the wed-couples. So it is a blessing to start marriage with God's words’ (Momani and Al-Refaei, 2010, p. 67). Similarly, Davidson (2015) remarks that the use of Quranic verses is meant to ‘bestow blessings on the bride and groom for the journey ahead of them’. The following opening Quranic verse is frequently cited in the present corpus:

"ومن آياته ان خلق لكم من انفسكم ازواجا لتسكنوا اليها وجعل بينكم مودة ورحمة"

1. (And of His signs is that He created for you wives from among yourselves, that you may dwell in tranquility with them. And He has put love and mercy between your (hearts): verily in that are signs for those who reflect).

(Al Rum, verse 21)

The openings based on prophetic prayers and blessings take the following form in the present corpus:

"اللهم بارك لهما وبارك عليهما واجمع بينهما بالخير"

2. (My Allah bless them and bring His blessings upon them and bind them with harmony and goodness).

The formulaic use of such prophetic prayers and invocations 'has its roots in Prophet Mohammed's sayings which asked Allah's blessing, unity, harmony and love for the newly married couple' (Al-Ali, 2006, p. 699) . Another variety of opening clichés is the use of some lines quoted from either Arabic verse or prose. The following are some literary opening examples from the present corpus:

للفرح ندعو خيار الناس قاطبة يوم السرور اجتماع الصاحب في النسب
دامت عليكم رياح السعد عابقة بالطيب والورد أشكالا من الذهب

3. (O, we request the attendance of all good fellow people, it is our heyday when we gather in our joyful wedding day. May linger your happiness wind blooming with its pleasant fragrance and golden flowers of various kinds).

في ليله من ليالي ألف ليله وليله وفي نفس الميعاد أقبلت كعاداتها شهرزاد لتحكي لشهريار أجمل مالديها من حكايات وأرق
الكلمات.....

بلغني أيها الملك السعيد نو الرأي الرشيد أن الشاطر (فلان)
(خطفت قلبه الموعود ست الحسن (فلانة)

فذهب لوالديها الكريمان وقال لهما بكل امتنان.. قلبي يريد الإطمئنان...وفي يد ابنتكم الأمان

4. (In one night of Arabian Nights, Scheherazade came to narrate one of her most charming and enchanting stories ever heard with her sweetest and tenderly words to Shahryār. Said she I had been told O my contended and prudent king that the heart of an adroit young man (the groom's name) has been robbed by an alluring young girl ever seen (the bride's name). He has gone to the bride's guardians, graciously saying that my heart needs to be secured, and it is only your daughter is capable of securing me).

The aesthetic tone of literary language, whether verse or prose, in Iraqi WICs strengthens or makes the words used more compelling and effective on the part of guests. The literary language used adds a personalized flavor and touch to WICs resulting in making the wedding event memorable. Newly-wed couples often resort to citing from famous Arabic verse and prose to rejoice every moment of this special occasion. Table 2 presents the distribution of the different types of opening quotations;

Table 2: Distribution of the different types of opening quotations.

Component Moves	Frequency	Percentage
Quranic verses	200	80%
Prophetic invocations	25	10%
Arabic verse	15	6%
Arabic prose	10	4%

The second component identified is the move of inviting the guests occurring in all the texts analyzed with a 100 percent. This obligatory component constitutes the backbone of the wedding invitation genre since the principal purpose of any wedding invitation is to request the presence of guests to attend and participate in the wedding ceremonies. With this move, the inviting guardians ask courteously and cordially the honor of guests' presence to share the joy with them. This move is typically realized by a conventionalized phrase form requesting the honor of the guests' presence and participation. Typically, the present Arabic verbal form "يتشرف" (request the honor of your presence) is the key lexical item used to tag this move. It is normally printed with a large font size in the midst of the WICs. Consider the following example from the present corpus:

يتشرف بدعوتكم لحضور حفل زفاف

5. (The guardians request the honor of your attendance and participation in the wedding party).

The third move found in the present corpus identifies who is hosting the wedding ceremony. In this component, the names of people issuing the wedding invitation are identified. It constitutes 100% of the entire corpus establishing its obligatory status. Invitations are generally issued by the bride and groom's fathers without necessarily referring to the mothers of either, or in some cases, the groom's father only. The name of the groom's father is printed first on the right-hand side before that of bride's father in the entire corpus. This prevailing tendency has a sort of socio-religious basis. It can show the paternal dominance and authority. Also, it stresses the crucial role of male guardians in wedding ceremonies stemming from Islamic laws saying that 'There can be no marriage without a guardian [wali] and two honest witnesses' (Nasir, 1990, p. 54). Also, stating the name of groom's father only reflects the unequal distribution of power in this social context.

It is worth noting that in Iraqi culture, though the fathers of both the bride and groom are stated in the invitations, it is the sole responsibility of the groom's father

paying for the event to issue the invitation, and not the bride's father. Accordingly, there is a minimal reference to the names of bride's father as 20 percent of the present corpus does not include their names compared to those of groom's father constituting 100 percent of the present corpus. This accentuates the unequal distribution of power in this ceremonial context. Unlike in some Western English-speaking countries (like UK and USA) where the persons hosting the wedding event can issue the invitation and thus their names are stated (Monger, 2004). Also, all Iraqi WICs are compulsorily issued by the guardians or parents of the bride and groom, a choice which is optional in the American or British WICs where this issue can be negotiated between the bride and the groom and their families (Johns, 1997). Thus, one can find it is the bride and groom who issue their wedding invitations without referring to their families in an English context. Again this cultural preference highlights the collectivistic nature of Iraqi society where familial interdependence and authority are emphasized in comparison with the individualistic nature of most English-speaking countries where autonomy and independence of individuals are highly sought. Names along with titles are normally printed with a large and bold font face. Table 3 displays the frequency of names of celebrating families;

Table 3: Distribution of the names of celebrating families.

Component names	Frequency	Percentage
The groom father's name	250	100%
The bride's father's name	50	20%
The groom's mother's name	25	10%
The bride's mother's name	25	10%

This component is full of titles of different kinds. Social, professional and religious titles are annexed before the inviting hosts. Religious titles (such as *Hajj* and *Said*), professional titles (such as *doctor*, *lawyer*, *engineer*, etc.), and social titles (such as *Mr*, *Sheik*, *the father of someone*, etc.) are frequently annexed before the hosting fathers. Iraqis like most Arabs show their unconscious concern of social status. Al-Omari (2008) confirms that most Arabs are ‘non-egalitarian where position and status can dictate a mode of conduct that varies according to the individual being addressed’ (p.35). Through titles, the inviting guardians ‘exhibit a sense of self-promotion as these titles reflect their social status’ (Al-Ali, 2006, p.701). Table 4 presents the frequency of titles in this component move;

Table 4: The distribution of title types used in the third move.

Component titles	Frequency	Percentage
Social titles	230	51%
Professional titles	142	31%

Religious titles	78	18%
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It has been observed, in the present corpus, that the inviting fathers frequently use familial and tribal titles at end of their given names. This cultural entailment finds its root in the collectivistic nature of Iraqi society. Collectivistic societies, like the most Arabic-speaking countries, are driven more by familial and tribal submission than to individualistic identity (Hofstede, 1997). The same finding has been reported in Al-Ali's (2006) and Momani and Al-Refaei's (2010) research in which such a tribal affiliation is seen as an inherent property of the Arabian society on social occasions and events. In a few instances of the present corpus, when the father of either the bride or groom is dead, the grandfather, the eldest brother or the eldest uncle takes the initiative to issue the wedding invitation. This highlights that Iraqis are a kinship-based society where interdependence and support among nuclear and extended family members are preserved, and old people are greatly revered and age is highly appreciated.

As to the fourth move of identifying the wed couples, it occurs in all the invitation texts analyzed with a 100 percent. This component typically identifies the groom and bride's names, usually their first given names. Their names are printed with a large font size but not larger than the names of their guardians reflecting the ideology of paternal authority and dominance. The corpus analysis reveals that the name of groom is typically printed before that of the bride on the same line. This preference can have its origin in the socio-religious standing of Iraqi society. According to Muslims' belief, men are protectors and maintainers of women because Allah has given men more strength than women, and men support them from their means. That is to say 'a man is thought to be the guardian of a woman and remains the instrument of social control after she marries' (Al-Ali, 2006, p.702). Also, it can show the men's power status in Iraqi society. Contrary to other cultures, in British or American context, for instance, the name of bride typically comes before that of the groom (Tol, 2005, p. 165).

Though it is customarily expected to find the names of both bride and groom, there is minimal use of the bride's name, unlike groom's name typically identified in the corpus analyzed. It is as if the bride's name is a taboo, thus the bride's given names are euphemized and substituted by honorific expressions such as *kariimatuh* (his venerated daughter), or *shaqiiqatuh almassoon* (his honorable sister). In 30% percent of the present corpus, no reference is made to identify the bride's name; that is, the bride's name is totally omitted whereas the groom is explicitly named. This textual attitude has been rooted in the Iraqi societal system where the names of females are preferably kept to be unstated in public, and be only used in inner social groupings. Some Iraqi conservative families prefer not to print their brides' names

in the WICs. For those who are outsiders of the Iraqi society, this can be interpreted as a loss of identity for women in this future relationship. Nevertheless, there is a recent tendency to state the names of the brides in WICs, and this can be attributed to women's more awareness of their equal civil rights. Table 5 below displays the distribution of brides and grooms' names;

Table 5: Distribution of the names of the wed-couples.

Component names	Frequency	Percentage
The bride and groom's names	80	32%
The groom's name	60	24%
The bride's euphemized name	60	24%
The bride's omitted name	50	20%

As with the third move, this move is noted for the frequent use of social and professional titles annexed before the names of grooms and brides, such as *Miss, doctor, engineer, professor, etc.* The use of certain professional titles generally indicates the socio-educational status of the newly-wed couples emphasizing, in turn, the hierarchical organization of Iraqi society. In fact, titles such as *doctor* or *engineer* are highly prestigious and respected among Iraqi families. Explicit reference to such professional titles can be interpreted as a sense of self-promotion since these titles reflect social status (Al-Ali 2006).

The fifth move of identifying the marriage arrangements identifies where and when the wedding ceremonies will be held. It makes explicit reference to the date and location variants of the wedding arrangements to help the invited people attend the occasion. It is an integral part of the wedding invitations as it constitutes 100% of the present corpus assuming its obligatory status.

As to place variant, the corpus analysis reveals that Iraqi wedding ceremonies are held in the residence of the groom's parents (65%), wedding halls (30%), or hotels' reception halls (5%). The dominance of holding wedding ceremonies in the groom's parental domicile can be interpreted as a sign of either the socio-economic position or the conservative standing of the groom's family. Some Iraqi families are relatively concerned about celebrating their weddings in big festival halls or hotels' halls stemming from their religious or regional backgrounds. Other place variants are relatively preferred by upper-middle and high rank families. With this place variant, guests are often provided with a full address including the neighborhood's name, the street's name and/or any other specific landmarks.

The 'time' variant specifies the exact date and timing of wedding celebrations. It has been noted that Thursday and Friday are often selected for the wedding ceremonies in the present corpus. Thursdays and Fridays are encoded with religious

connotations. These two days are considered to be blessed days for most Muslims due to the fact that Friday is a holiday for all Muslims where they assemble together to share their common public prayers. Al-Ali (2006) confirms that Friday is 'a traditional day to get married, according to Islamic tradition' (p. 703). According to Prophetic Traditions, Thursdays are blessed days wherein Allah has created Heaven. Besides, Iraqi people generally have less working hours on Thursdays; so its evening is the best time to have fun and party all night long and to take rest the next off day. In the time variant, days are more specified by adding months and years plus the exact timing of the wedding ceremonies. The following example is extracted from the present corpus:

وذلك يوم الخميس الموافق 8-1-2015 الساعة الرابعة عصرا في داره الواقعة في حي العامل -قرب محطة تعبئة الوقود محلة
×- زقاق ×- دار ×

6. (This will take place on Thursday 8-1-2015 at four pm at the groom's permanent residence in Hayalaamil Neighborhood near the Gas Station, Avenue No. x, Section No. x , House No. x).

The sixth move is that of closing which occurs in all the texts analyzed with a 100 percent. The WICS are generally closed off by a set of conventionalized culturally-based expressions taking the plea form by means of which the hosts heartedly appeal to their guests' attendance and their participation that makes the celebration more glamorous and pleasant. The following closings are the most frequent ones in the present corpus:

7. (Your attendance will embellish our celebration with glamor and splendor).
وبحضوركم يزدان الفرح رونقا وبهاءا
8. (Your attendance will accomplish our joy and happiness)
وبحضوركم يتم الفرح والسرور
9. (We have invited all our loving guests)
ولكل محب وجهنا دعوتنا

Notification is the last component move as it constitutes 8 percent of the present corpus. Some supplementary information is optionally provided and printed in small font size on either the left or right hand side of the invitation cards. It includes information or notes which should be observed by the guests. These notifications can take the form of overt appeals for not bringing children or cameras to the wedding celebration, and delimiting the number of attendants to the party. The following are some examples from the present corpus:

10. (Please, do not bring children)
الرجاء عدم اصطحاب الاطفال

ادارة النادي تمنع اصطحاب الاطفال والتصوير خلال الحفل

11. (The wedding hall's staff do not permit accompanying children and taking pictures)
عدد الحضور ثلاثة اشخاص فقط
12. (The number of attendants should not exceed three persons)

These notes serve the organization of the wedding reception. The notes of not bringing cameras and delimiting the number of people attending are loaded with cultural implications in that some Iraqi conservative families do not show tolerance towards taking photos for their female daughters, sisters, and wives on such occasions in order not to be publicized for unknown male people. This partly stems from the traditional Islamic prescriptions and Arab conventions. Such a conservative view is closely related to the maintenance of family honor which is one of the highest values in the Arab society. In this respect, Nydell (2006) maintains that 'women interact freely only with other women and close male relatives. Guarding a woman's image is neither a personal nor a family choice; it is imposed by the Arab culture' (p. 45). Also, this cultural practice is derived from the Quranic verse saying:

(قُلْ لِلْمُؤْمِنِينَ يَغُضُّوا مِنْ أَبْصَارِهِمْ وَيَحْفَظُوا فُرُوجَهُمْ ذَلِكَ أَزْكَى لَهُمْ إِنَّ اللَّهَ خَبِيرٌ بِمَا يَصْنَعُونَ (30) وَقُلْ لِلْمُؤْمِنَاتِ يَغْضُضْنَ مِنْ أَبْصَارِهِنَّ وَيَحْفَظْنَ فُرُوجَهُنَّ وَلَا يُبْدِينَ زِينَتَهُنَّ إِلَّا مَا ظَهَرَ مِنْهَا وَلْيَضْرِبْنَ بِخُمُرِهِنَّ عَلَى جُيُوبِهِنَّ وَلَا يُبْدِينَ زِينَتَهُنَّ إِلَّا لِبُعُولَتِهِنَّ أَوْ آبَائِهِنَّ أَوْ أَبَائِ بُعُولَتِهِنَّ أَوْ إِتْنَانِهِنَّ)

13. (Say to the believing men that they should lower their gaze and guard their modesty.... And say to the believing women that they should lower their gaze and guard their modesty; that they should not display their beauty and ornaments except what must appear thereof; that they should draw their veils over their bosoms and not display their beauty except to their husbands, their fathers...(it goes on to list male relatives, small children, etc.)

(Al-Noor, verses 30-31)

The other note of delimiting the number of attendants to the wedding celebrations can possibly act as a cultural sign of the large size of the Iraqi family. Though family structure may vary from one family to another, families in the Arab world are generally large in number, and the number of family members may reach ten or more sometimes (Al-Omari, 2008). Most Iraqi families tend to be of a lot of individual members including sons, daughters, siblings and grandmothers and grandfathers, and since wedding celebrations can only hold for limited attendants, thus, hosts sometimes attempt to restrict the number of people attended.

Also, it has been observed that some detailed information regarding directions to the wedding ceremony is given through printing small maps on the back of WICs showing the directions to the wedding halls or houses. Table 6 displays the distribution of the different types of notification;

Table 6: Distribution of different types of notification.

Types of notification	Frequency	Percentage
Not bringing cameras	7	2.8 %
Not bringing children	7	2.8 %
Delimiting the number of attendants	4	1.6 %
Maps	2	0.8 %

5.3 Socio-cultural features of wedding invitations

After examining the linguistic and non-linguistic features of Iraqi WICs, it is now the time for scrutinizing the socio-cultural aspects which are well-knitted within the discourse of these wedding texts. The Islamic religious beliefs and Iraqi socio-cultural system were clearly depicted in these texts affecting their organization structure.

So far, it has been evident that genre analysis is capable of identifying the building components of the discourse of WICs as a communicative practice. CDA, on the other hand, does not only ‘mirror and reflect what goes on in society, it also attempts to interpret relationships between participants and explain how [social] variables are enacted and legitimized by a particular dominant entity’ (Al-Ali, 2006, p. 705). It investigates how sociocultural elements are encoded in the wedding event, and which elements are more influential within the genre of WICs. This asserts that ideologies are typically expressed and reproduced in and through the language. Likewise, Van Dijk (1998) remarks that ‘if we want to know what ideologies actually look like, how they work, and how they are created, changed and reproduced, we need to look closely at their discursive manifestations’ (p.6).

Generally, the most influential elements affecting the discursive organization of Iraqi wedding invitation texts are Islamic ideology and familial affiliation. Thus, religious affiliation and socio-cultural system of Iraqi society exercise control over the visual and textual organization and patterning of WICs. Islamic ideology is greatly profiled in Iraqi WICs as religion affects significantly every aspect of Iraqi social life. Al-Omari (2008) confirms that ‘Islam is often referred to as a way of life due to the fact that it tackles every aspect of everyday life from worship to honesty, from hygiene to hypocrisy, from money to contracts,’(p.150). Thus, religious affiliation or belonging is essential for every person living in any Arab society in general and Iraqi society in particular. An important aspect of the social life of every Muslim is the marriage issue. Marriage is, though not mandatory, highly recommended in Islamic teachings and prescriptions to successfully accomplish one's religion. This is very clearly illustrated in the following Prophetic saying:

"النكاح من سنتي، فمن لم يعمل بسنتي فليس مني، وتزوجوا فإني مكاثر بكم الأمم ومن كان ذا طول فليتكح ومن لم يجد فعليه بالصيام، فإن الصوم له وجاء"

14. (Marriage is part of my Sunnah, and whoever does not follow my Sunnah has nothing to do with me. Get married, for I will boast of your great numbers before the nations. Whoever has the means, let him get married, and whoever does not, then he should fast for it will diminish the desire).

(Sunan Ibn Maja, the Chapters on Marriage)

As for the present corpus, the language of Iraqi WICs is constrained to a certain extent by the Islamic flavor. Religious touches are evidently realized in the opening move wherein Quranic verses and Prophetic invocations and prayers have frequently initiated Iraqi WICs. Such an opening seems to reflect the supremacy and dominance of Islamic religion over Iraqi social life as religion has occupied the first position in the majority of the wedding texts analyzed. The frequent use of certain religious titles introducing the hosting families such as *Hajj* and *Said* in the third component of the present corpus was noticed. These titles indicate the religious standing or status of the hosts, and can be considered as 'prestigious and important titles that all Muslims long to have. It is given to a person who has performed pilgrimage or a higher religious ranking, and it connotes commitment, reverence, wisdom, and integrity' (Momani and Al-Refaei, 2010, p. 76). And, the frequent use of executing wedding ceremonies on Thursdays and Fridays in the sixth component can be interpreted as connoting religious associations as these two days are greatly blessed in Islam.

As to the gender parameter, it is widely circulated that women in the Middle East are underrepresented and discriminated with regard to their freedom and rights. Though some of these practices are in part derived from religious beliefs, many others are cultural in nature. In most Arabic-speaking countries, and Iraq is but one, men are more involved than women in different life activities such as social, political, economic, etc. The examined corpus revealed the patriarchal standing and dominance of Iraqi society. This was evident in the third and fourth component moves of identifying the hosting families and of wed-couples respectively. In these components, relatively minimal reference, and sometimes no reference was made at all to the bride and groom's mothers' names and the bride's given name. Very few instances of the bride and groom's mothers' names were found in the present corpus, noting that not their overt given names but only covert names such as */aqilatuh/* (his wife) are used when referring to the mother of either. Also, there was variation in the use of the bride's name in WICs as very few instances were found. Instead, expressions like */kareematuhu/* (his venerated daughter) were commonly used. However, the word */kareematuhu/* is still widely used in Iraqi society reflecting respect for women; it can be an indication of how the general attitudes towards women's standing look like in Iraq. More surprisingly, the omission of bride's name

and her parents' names was proportionally found in Iraqi WICs. References to the bride and groom's mother as such, the brides as their daughter, and the omission of the bride's name while naming the grooms can portrait the view of women in Iraqi society stressing the loss of identity for women in this social practice (Devitt, et al., 2004).

According to Al-Ali (2006), the omission of the female names in Arabic WICs is due to either religious or personal preferences on the part of the groom and bride's families. This tendency can be noticed among rural and conservative urban families. In the Iraqi context, there is a general practice of not calling a woman by her first name in public and in front of strangers. Women are preferred to be called by the name of either her eldest son (the mother of someone) or her husband (the wife of someone). This might lead to the conclusion that Iraqi women are not autonomous and independent entities having an independent authority; but they are identified and designated in reference to masculine individuals, though this convention is not part of the Islamic heritage.

Embedded in the textual patternings of the wedding invitation genre is the unequal distribution of masculine power and dominance compared to that of feminine. This was clearly realized through the precedence of groom's name over that of bride in the entire corpus. More precisely, the groom's name is typically printed before the bride's name. Also, the groom's parents' names are typically printed before the bride's parents' names. This artifact can reinforce gender bias and unequal distribution of power in this future relationship. Other instances of gender bias and inequality in the analyzed corpus were those wherein only male guardians are in a position of issuing the wedding invitations but not female guardians. Moreover, the use of the groom's image and/or the groom's father's, but not the bride's image and her family, printed on the back of WICs implicates a cultural assumption of gender and power discrimination. One can detect that WICs are loaded with the cultural assumptions that Iraqi society is not a matriarchal-based system, and women generally look like objects or properties to be handed over from male guardians to male spouses. In the same vein, Nydell (2006) propounds that 'Middle East gender roles have traditionally been governed by a patriarchal kinship system that had already existed in the regions to which Islam spread' (p.52).

In the third component move, the age axis was clearly interwoven within the discursual organization of Iraqi WICs. The analyzed texts showed that elderly guardians, in case of deceased fathers, like elder brothers or elder fatherly uncles have a higher authoritative standing in issuing the wedding invitation cards. In Iraqi society, old people are highly revered and age is highly appreciated.

Closely connected to the socio-cultural aspects of Iraqi society are paternal dominance and authority. Paternal masculine authority over the newly wed-couples

was widely found in the entire corpus when issuing the wedding invitations where no wedding invitation can be issued without a male guardian like fathers, elderly brothers and uncles. Moreover, the tribe and family names were significantly attached to the given names of the inviting families and the newly wed-couples reflecting the tribal or familial affiliation and belonging. This highlights the structural organization of Iraqi family in the textual patterning of this social ceremony. This attitude is a cultural clue for the interdependence of an individual on his/her nuclear and extended family. It confirms the key characteristic of the collectivistic nature of Iraqi Arabic culture and society. To support this argument, Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) assert the importance of the nuclear and extended family in the person's life. In most Arabic-speaking countries, not only the nuclear family, the extended family is also a very basic cultural unit supplemented by the tribal system (p.77).

Iraqi WICs were found to be restricted by the social status variable. This cultural attitude was manifested in the excessive use of different kinds of religious, social and professional titles annexed before the names of celebrating families and newly-wed couples. Not only textual features were found to be constrained by this variable, visual features were as well. Factors such as educational background and socio-economic were found to exercise an influential role in the visual organization of the present corpus. Certain designs, colors, sizes, and materiality of WICs were found to be restricted by socio-cultural constraints. The Iraqi Arab society, like most Arab societies, is best described as a vertically organized system where social status is highly appreciated. Social status is derived from the person's origin, professional standing, education level, or income. With the same argument, Nydell (2006) maintains that social class and family background are the major determining factors of personal status which is deeply rooted and highly influential in the societal structure of most Arab countries.

Until now, parameters of Islamic religious affiliation, paternal masculine power and gender inequality were inspected by resorting to the linguistic (lexico-grammatical features) and non-linguistic resources of the corpus analyzed. The discourse organization and arrangements can also be adopted to explore these socio-religious effects. A closer vertical look at the textual arrangements of Iraqi WICs (see Figure 1 below), one can see that most WICs are generally opened with either Quranic verses or Prophetic sayings. Religion takes the first component position dominating all other below components. The third component is normally occupied by the groom and bride's families' names divided horizontally into two sub-components starting first with the groom's father's name followed by his mother's name (if mentioned) then the bride's father's name followed by her mother's name (if mentioned) comes. Then the fourth component is occupied by the names of the

newly-wed couples divided horizontally into two sub-components starting with groom's name first then the bride's name (if mentioned) follows.

The hierarchical textual organization of the first, third and fourth components of the present corpus can be socio-culturally read as since religion occupies the highest significant position in Iraqi society, it takes the first component position in Iraqi WICs dominating the familial system, generally considered as the second important building block of Iraqi society after religion. More specifically, dominated by religion, the family paternal authority comes second which in turn dominates that of the young wed couples on the next component. As for gender and age, they are unequally distributed in the present corpus as elderly males like fathers, elderly brothers or elderly uncles have a higher form of authority or dominance than that of females (mothers) as males' names come before females'. Likewise, the groom's names appear before the bride's. At the same time the groom and bride's names are printed below their parents' names (Al-Ali, 2006). Figure 1 summarizes the overall textual organization of Iraqi WICs with illustrative examples from the present corpus.

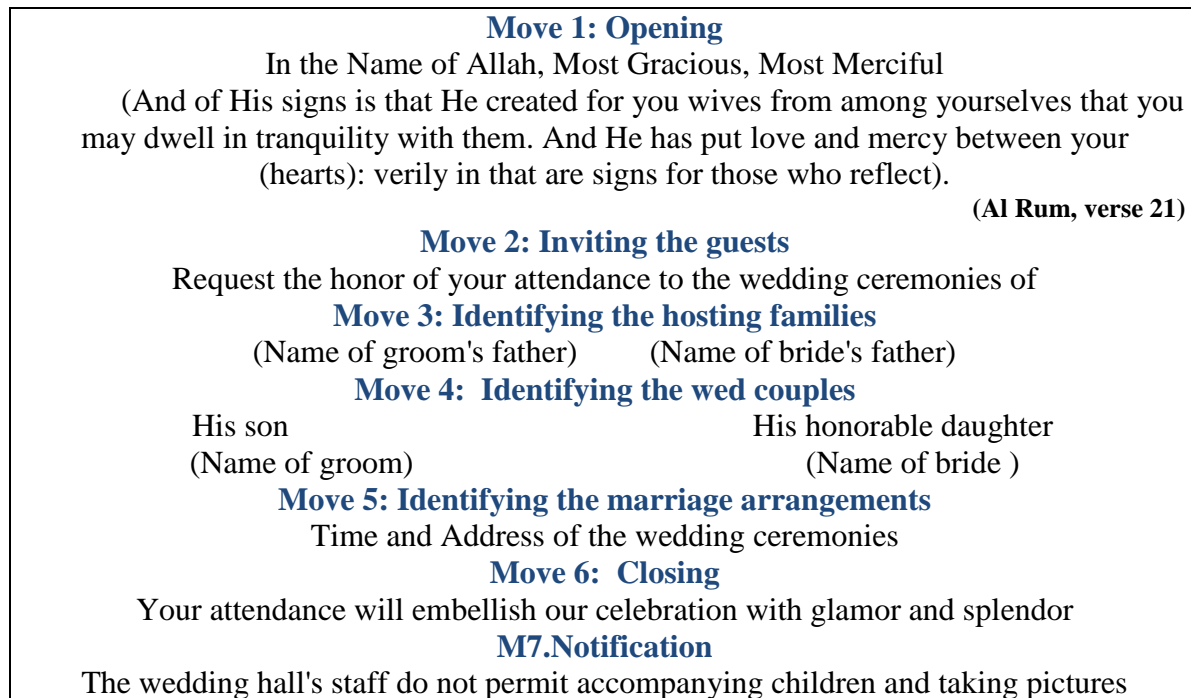


Figure 1: The schematic textual organization of Iraqi wedding invitation cards.

6. Conclusions and implications

The present study examined how the genre of Iraqi WICs is organized and constructed to accomplish the communicative function of the wedding ceremony as a social event. More precisely, it examined how Iraqi sociocultural practices and religious beliefs are embedded in the textual and visual organization of the discourse of wedding invitations, and to understand how and why these texts were articulated in such a ritualistic artifact. The mediation between textual and visual organization of Iraqi WICs is constrained by the assumptions and beliefs of the discourse community which produces it.

This study was based on multi-analytic frameworks, namely, a genre analysis, a semiotic analysis, and a critical discourse analysis. The developed framework was able to describe the linguistic and nonlinguistic components. The nonlinguistic components included the printed form, size, layout, graphics, color, design, and paper of the cards. The linguistic components, on the other hand, involved the wording of the WICs which provided the guests with information about what to expect at the ceremony. The genre of WICs was greatly loaded with the sociocultural and religious assumptions and conventions of Iraqi society, which had, in turn, a fundamental effect on the organizational details of this communicative event or practice. That is, Islamic ideology and sociocultural assumptions such as patriarchal dominance, paternal authority, socio-economic standing, and age were deeply depicted in the visual verbal organization of wedding invitation texts. The analysis of WICs showed the unequal distribution of power in this future relationship in that the dominance of the patriarchal authority was very evident, and marriage seemed to be patriarchal rituals through which the masculine power over the bride is transferred from the father before the marriage to her future husband after the marriage (cf. Al-Ali, 2006). This might portrait the Iraqi marriage as a ritual wherein the bride is treated as an object exchanged between the bride's father and the bride's future husband.

The research on such homely genres, like wedding invitation cards, for instance, can highlight this common widespread socialization process from which one can learn 'the rules and practices of social groups' (Worsley, 1970). Such research is believed to be significant for those who are interested in becoming familiar with the social behavior of members from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Moreover, such studies of speech behavior patterns in a variety of languages and cultures would provide interesting contributions to cross-cultural communication.

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The use of e-learning by students in Iraqi universities: Potential and challenges

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the potential and challenges associated with the use of e-learning in Iraqi higher education universities from the perspective of Iraqi university students. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed to students in Salahaddin University in Iraq. 181 completed questionnaires were collected. The questionnaires included open-ended questions in which students were asked to provide their opinions on the importance and advantages of e-learning and how it can be successfully implemented in Iraq. In addition, they were asked to identify the challenges facing the use of e-learning systems in Iraqi universities. The results revealed that students are aware of the importance and benefits of e-learning for their studies. However, major challenges associated with the general infrastructure and the support provided by universities and policy making in Iraq in relation to e-learning exist. The results also revealed that Iraqi students prefer the hybrid approach of learning, using mobile phones rather than relying solely on online learning using computers.

Keywords: Avicenna Virtual Project, E-learning, Salahaddin University

1. INTRODUCTION

The advancement of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) and the Internet contributed to the improvement of teaching and learning by moving from the traditional ways of teaching to new methods in which technology is integrated within the teaching and learning process. The term e-learning was defined by Mikic and Anido (2006) as the “*Use of internet technology for the creation, management, making available, security, selection and use of*

educational content to store information about those who learn and to monitor those who learn, and to make communication and cooperation possible". E-learning systems have been used successfully in universities in developed countries and some Arab countries for example Jordan and UAE. However, the use of e-learning in Iraqi universities is behind in comparison to other Arab countries.

Previous studies investigated the use, implementation, benefits and challenges of e-learning in Iraq in general from the perspectives of experts and lecturers (Elameer and Idrus, 2010; Anter *et al.*, 2014; Fahad *et al.*, 2015; Thabit and Harjan, 2015). However, none of these studies investigated the potential and challenges of using e-learning systems in Iraqi universities based on students' opinions. Although the opinions of experts in the field are important and can certainly provide important views, students are the end users of the system. Therefore, understanding students' views and opinions is crucial. There is a lack of research on how university students in Iraq view e-learning to understand their opinions on the benefits, potential, importance and the use of e-learning in universities and the challenges facing its successful implementation. There are several factors that can affect students' intentions towards the use of e-learning (Li *et al.*, 2012). Previous studies found that the key factor for the successful implementation of e-learning systems is the presence of a supportive culture for e-learning among students (Kwofie and Henton, 2011; Almarabeh and Mohammad, 2013). Since the successful implementation of an e-learning system is highly dependent on students' perceptions towards it, understanding what they think of their use of the e-learning system at their university and what can contribute to its successful implementation is important. Therefore, the main aim of this research is to investigate the potential of and challenges facing the successful use of e-learning systems in Iraqi universities from the students' perspective. The results of this research can help universities, governments and policy makers to enhance the use of e-learning in Iraq by understanding the students' (end users of the system) views on this subject. This research is also important because the area of e-learning in Iraq is under researched. The main objectives of this research are:

1. To identify the advantages that e-learning can bring to higher education in Iraq from the students' perspectives.
2. To understand the perceptions of Iraqi university students on how the use of e-learning systems can be successful in Iraq.
3. To identify the challenges facing the use of e-learning systems in Iraqi universities from the students' perspectives.

2. THE STATUS OF E-LEARNING IN IRAQ

In comparison to other Arab countries, launching e-learning systems in Iraq came at a late stage. Although universities in Iraq are interested in online learning, they have only started using it recently. Previous studies showed that universities are aware of the importance of e-learning

(Fahad *et al.*, 2015; Ameen and Willis, 2016). In 2010, a new project, the Avicenna Virtual campus, was launched in Iraq to integrate e-learning systems in higher education (Ameen and Willis, 2016). The project was based on an agreement between the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the Ministry of Higher Education in Iraq, to be implemented in three Iraqi universities namely Baghdad, Basrah and Salahaddin universities. The e-learning system was introduced in these universities in 2015. The project will allow Iraq to join 14 other countries that have the same project with the UNESCO (Su.edu.krd, 2016). Thabit and Harjan (2015) evaluated the e-learning system at Avicenna Centre in Erbil with reference to Khan's eight dimensional e-learning framework. The data were collected from staff members and academics. The results showed that there are some gaps mostly in terms of the ethical dimension, the evaluation dimension and the management dimension.

Recent studies in Iraq showed that Iraqi universities are interested in integrating e-learning systems as part of their programme (Fahad *et al.*, 2015). However, there is a lack of experience and effective planning of e-learning systems in most Iraqi universities (Elameer and Idrus, 2010). Elameer and Idrus (2010) highlighted the main benefits e-learning can bring for Iraqi universities. E-learning can fill many gaps that exist in Iraqi universities such as; overcoming the incapability of some of the universities' staff members to create online materials for the purpose of complementing the students' in-class learning, enhancing a more student-centred education and addressing the lack of up-to-date materials and advance the students' learning experience using the latest ICTs in order for Iraqi students to be considered well-educated in comparison to students in other parts of the world (Elameer and Idrus, 2011).

3. THE IMPORTANCE OF E-LEARNING

Bhuasiri *et al.*, (2012) identified the main advantages of the use of e-learning systems. The authors stated "*Advantages of e-learning for learners include an increased accessibility to information, better content delivery, personalized instruction, content standardization, accountability, on demand availability, self-pacing, interactivity, confidence, and increased convenience*" (Bhuasiri *et al.*, 2012). Perhaps one of the most important advantages of the use of e-learning is that it enables students to become independent thinkers since the reliance on their tutors is kept to the minimum when learning online. The integration of e-learning in higher education proved to be crucial in terms of increasing both flexibility and accessibility (Ameen and Willis, 2016). Students can learn at their own time and availability (Kwofie and Henten, 2011). Students can access the e-learning platform at any time and any place (Almarabeh and Mohammad, 2013; Ameen and Willis, 2016). The integration of e-learning in higher education is even more significant in developing countries than the developed countries. Since this study is concerned with the development and use of e-learning systems in Iraq- a developing country from the higher education institutions perspective, it can be argued that the two major advantages of incorporating e-learning systems into teaching can be the improved quality of education and the decreased cost. The use of e-learning to complement the traditional methods (face-to-face) of teaching allows students to access online

books, up-to-date journals and articles, lecture slides and use videos and other online materials. The fact that students learn online and they are not required to be physically present at their university campus does not mean that they will be isolated from their lecturers and other students. E-learning platforms allow the use of online tutorials and blogs where students can comment on different topics or ask and answer questions online, meaning that communication can change to be online (Unwin, 2008).

4. CHALLENGES OF E-LEARNING IMPLEMENTATION

The difference in culture between Western and Eastern countries is a major challenge facing e-learning adoption that was acknowledged in previous studies (Andersson and [Grönlund](#), 2009). The reason behind this can be that e-learning systems are usually developed in countries with advanced capabilities in terms of Information and Communication Systems (ICTs) where students are highly exposed to technology. When these systems are implemented in less advanced countries where students are less exposed to technology, new challenges are introduced.

Based on their extensive literature review, Andersson and [Grönlund](#) (2009) categorised the challenges facing e-learning use into four main categories namely; course challenges, challenges related to characteristics of the individual (student or teacher), technological challenges and contextual challenges (organisational, cultural and societal challenges). We conducted an analysis of the most recent studies on the use of e-learning systems in developing countries in which barriers facing the use of e-learning systems were identified. Some areas are considered as major barriers to the successful implementation of e-learning systems in Arab countries in general and in Iraq. These challenges are namely infrastructure, the culture of teaching and learning, the design and support of the system and students' readiness.

4.1 INFRASTRUCTURE

The lack of electricity, computers and the Internet is a major challenge facing the successful implementation of e-learning in developing countries (Rajesh, 2003; Eke, 2011). In fact, these issues are present in Iraq. The unstable political and economic situation that Iraq has been through had a significant impact on the infrastructure as a whole in terms of the essential services that should be available to Iraqis and the technological infrastructure of the country. The country has suffered from the lack of electricity for years and the problem still exists (Al-Khatteeb and Istepanian, 2015). Furthermore, only 12% of the total population has a personal computer (UNDP, 2015). On the other hand, 78% of the total population use mobile phones (UNDP, 2015). Previous studies found that mobile learning can be used successfully in education (e.g. Ozdamli and Uzunboylu, 2015). This means that it may be possible that using mobile learning would be more successful than using e-learning on its own since the younger generation owns more mobile phones than computers.

4.2 THE CULTURE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

Culture has an influence on the acceptance and use of e-learning systems (Tarhini et al., 2015). The culture of teaching and learning in developing countries is certainly different from the culture in developed countries. This is due to differences in the characteristics of the culture in different countries (Hofstede, 2001). In general, the culture in Iraq is high in power distance (Greet-Hofstede, 2016). Within this culture, students view lecturers as the main source of information for their learning and they rely heavily on them in their learning progress (Andersson and [Grönlund](#), 2009). This situation offers both challenges and advantages. When students have high reliance on lectures, they may not prefer to move away from the traditional ways of teaching (i.e. face-to-face). However, in high power distance and collectivistic societies such as the society in Iraq (Greet Hofstede, 2016), younger people (i.e. students) tend to respect and listen to the elderly (i.e. lecturers) and follow their advice and guidance. Consequently, social influence can be strong in such a culture so when lecturers advise students on the use of the available e-learning platforms at their university, students may very well start using them.

4.3 THE DESIGN AND SUPPORT OF THE SYSTEM

The majority of developing countries lack the presence of expertise in the planning and implementation of the most up-to-date technologies (Qureshi *et al.*, 2012). This has an effect on the design of the system, its interface and usability. In fact, the challenges can adversely affect the interface (design of the system) and the quality of the content provided to students via the online platform (Kwofie and Henten, 2011). Studying online means that students will not be able to ask the questions they normally ask when they learn during their physical presence in class. Therefore, the inclusion of the right content at the right time is crucial.

The presence of an efficient system design and interface that can motivate students becomes even more important when students have no or little experience in using technology in general and specifically using technology for education (Picciano and Seaman, 2007; Al Obisat *et al.*, 2013). The difficulties in using the system can be reduced with the presence of a technical support team that works efficiently and understands that students have no or little experience in using the system.

4.4 STUDENTS' READINESS

Since students are the end-users of the e-learning system, they are the core element in the process of its adoption and efficient use (Andersson and [Grönlund](#), 2009; Chanchary and Islam, 2011). Students' motivation to use a new system is an important factor. Also, the familiarity of students

with technology and the use of computers is lacking among students in Iraq. The lack of computer skills due to the low use of computers (Heshmati *et al.*, 2013) especially for educational purposes is a factor that can affect students' confidence towards system's use (Kwofie and Henten, 2011).

5. METHODOLOGY

The sample included students from different faculties in Salahaddin University in Erbil/Iraq. Salahaddin University is a leading university in Iraq. It was the first university in Kurdistan region (the northern part of Iraq) to adopt e-learning systems as part of a project between the UNESCO and the Iraqi ministry of higher education. Data were collected from students via the distribution of 300 questionnaires using convenience sampling.

The first section of the questionnaire included questions on the students' demographic information including age, gender and their faculty. The second section included closed-ended questions to ask students whether they think that they are using the current e-learning system effectively, and whether it is easier for them to access the electronic portal using their mobile phones or a computer. Also, they were asked whether they have a computer at home that can be used to access the portal. They were also asked about their preferred method of learning. The third section included open-ended questions to investigate students' perceptions on the importance and advantages of the e-learning system. Also, this section included questions on how they think the use of e-learning can be successful and their opinions on the main challenges facing the use of e-learning systems in universities in Iraq.

The answers to the closed-ended questions were analysed using descriptive statistics in SPSS. The answers to the open-ended questions included qualitative data but they were analysed quantitatively by categorising and coding them. The coding of the responses to the open-ended questions was carried out manually then SPSS was used.

6. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The total number of completed questionnaires was 181 questionnaires. (43%) of the respondents were males and (57%) were females. The participants were between the ages of 18 to 37 years old. Most of the participants were undergraduates (89.5%). The remaining were postgraduates (10.5%). The majority of the students were in the faculty of business (64%), followed by the faculty of law (30%) and the faculty of computing science and engineering (6%).

(43%) of the respondents thought that they were using the e-learning system effectively while (47%) of them thought that they were not use it effectively. (70%) of the students thought that mobile phones are easier to access the electronic portal while only (30%) of them thought that it is easier to access it using their computers. With regards to their preferred method of learning, (13%) preferred face-to-face learning, (6%) only preferred online learning and (81%) preferred the hybrid approach to learning. (90%) of the students had computers at home and (10%) did not have any.

The results showed that the participants were aware of the importance of e-learning for their studies. Most of the participants think of e-learning as a modern way of learning (98%). (94%) of the participants thought that it is important because it is good for saving time and offering more flexibility. Most of them (97%) also indicated that it is important for obtaining information. Participants were also asked to state the advantages e-learning can offer them. (92%) of them stated that it provides more information in relation to their studies than the traditional method of learning. (71%) of them stated that it helps to obtain up-to-date information. A small percentage of them (14%) stated that it helps in learning through online courses provided abroad which students can study while they are in Iraq. On the other hand, a high percentage of them (95%) stated that it is a less costly and a more convenient way of learning. When students were asked about the successful implementation of e-learning, (88%) of them stated that there is a need for preparing the right facilities and computers to accommodate e-learning while (96%) of them stated that e-learning can be successful by providing a constant supply of electricity, improving the speed of the Internet (94%) and providing good guidance and instructions on how to use the electronic portal (42%). The majority of the participants (99%) stated that the implementation of online learning can be successful when online courses become officially certified and recognised by the Ministry of Higher Education in Iraq.

Many challenges were listed by the participants. Most of the participants (99%) stated that the major challenge facing the use of e-learning is that the qualifications obtained from studying online courses cannot be certified by the Ministry of Higher Education. This was followed by the lack of electricity (96%), the slow speed of the Internet connection (94%), lack of access to the Internet (91%), lack of facilities provided by the university (90%), high cost of the Internet (90%), lack of culture that promotes the use of technology for learning (86%) and a small number of them (22%) stated that the lack of knowledge on how to use the system is also an issue.

Table 1: Results of descriptive statistics

Importance	Frequency	Percentage
• It is a modern way of learning	178	98%
• It is good for saving time and more flexible	171	94%
• It is important for obtaining information	176	97%
Advantages	Frequency	Percentage
• It provides more information than the traditional way of learning	167	92%
• It helps in obtaining up-to-date information	130	71%
• It helps in learning through online courses provided by institutions in other countries while students are based in Iraq	25	14%
• Costs reduction and convenience	172	95%
Successful implementation of e-learning	Frequency	Percentage
• By preparing the right facilities and computers to accommodate e-learning	160	88%
• By providing electricity constantly	173	96%
• By improving Internet speed	171	94%
• By providing good guidance and instructions on how to use the electronic portal	76	42%
• When the qualifications obtained through online courses become officially certified and recognised by the Ministry of Higher Education.	180	99%
Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
• Bad Internet connection and slow speed	170	94%
• Lack of facilities provided by the university	161	90%
• Lack of electricity	173	96%
• Lack of a culture that promotes the use of technology for learning	155	86%
• High cost of Internet	162	90%
• Lack of access to the Internet	165	91%
• Lack of knowledge on how to use the system	40	22%
• Qualifications obtained through online courses are not certified by the Ministry of Higher Education in Iraq	179	99%

7. DISCUSSION

The main aim of this research was to identify the importance, benefits and challenges facing a successful implementation of e-learning in Iraq based on the opinions of university students. The findings of this research extended the findings of previous studies concerned with e-learning in Iraq namely Elameer and Idrus (2010), Elameer and Idrus (2011), Anter et al., (2014) and Fahad et al., (2015).

The majority of students seem to understand the importance of e-learning for their studies as a modern way of learning that can complement the traditional methods of learning but not rely solely on online learning. The reason behind this could be that more than half of them think that they are not using the online learning system effectively which does not encourage the full reliance on e-learning. Most of the students think that online learning is important as it saves time and it is more flexible. This confirms the findings of previous studies (Almarabeh and Mohammad, 2013; Ameen and Willis, 2016). Most of the students also found that it is important for obtaining information which may not be easy to obtain otherwise which was stated in Bhuasiri et al's (2012) study.

Students find that one of the main advantages of e-learning is cost reduction in terms of travelling to university and the convenience provided which was also identified by Kwofie and Henten (2011) and Bhuasiri et al., (2012). This was also followed by the ability to obtain more information which is up-to-date through e-learning and the Internet which was also identified in Bhuasiri et al's (2012) study. A small number of students thought that learning online helps to study with institutions based abroad while still being able to live in their country which is also related to convenience in a way.

The majority of the students think that online learning can only be successful in Iraq when the Ministry of Higher Education starts to recognise and certify the qualifications obtained through these courses. This is a major issue highlighted by most students. This was followed by the need of constant electricity supply and the slow Internet speed which was also highlighted in Rajesh (2003) and Eke's (2011) studies as major issues facing a successful implementation of e-learning. In addition, students stated that the successful implementation of e-learning needs the preparation of the right facilities and computers by universities to accommodate e-learning. This possibly justifies students' preference of the use of mobile phones in learning instead of computers.

The students identified eight main challenges facing the use of e-learning in higher education in Iraq. The majority of students think that the inability to certify qualifications obtained from online courses by the Ministry of Higher Education in Iraq is a major challenge facing the use of e-learning. This was followed by the lack of electricity, bad Internet connection, lack of access to the Internet, lack of facilities provided by universities, high cost of the Internet, lack of a supportive culture that promotes the use of e-learning and the lack of knowledge on how to use the system. Many of the challenges stated by the students are strictly related to the general infrastructure in Iraq namely the lack of electricity, bad Internet connection, lack of access to the Internet and high cost of the Internet. These issues are related to the use of ICTs in general but they also adversely affect the use of e-learning in higher education in Iraq. The remaining challenges are related to the support provided by universities and policy makers in the Ministry of Higher Education.

The main implications of this research for practice and policy are summarised below;

- The Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education should recognise and certify qualifications obtained from online courses.
- The required infrastructure should be in place including electricity supply and a strong Internet connection as well as ensuring that the Internet is provided at a reasonable cost to students.
- Universities should provide the right facilities and computers to students.
- There is a need for a culture that can support and promote the use of e-learning among students.
- A team of experts should be available to students when they need assistance.
- Mobile learning should be supported in universities.

8. CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated Iraqi students' opinions on the potential and challenges related to the use of e-learning systems in Iraq, a country in which the concept of e-learning is still new. This was based on students' views and opinions as they are the end users of the system. The research provided important insights to universities and policy makers which must be taken into consideration in order for e-learning to be successfully used in by university students in Iraq.

The data in this research were collected from students in one university in Iraq only. The inclusion of students from other Iraqi universities that are using the e-learning system would have increased the validity of the results of this research. In addition, the final sample size (180 students) is considered low. Future studies can collect data from more universities in Iraq, using a higher sample size. In addition, future studies should be conducted by gathering information from policy makers in the Ministry of Higher Education to investigate the reasons behind the lack of recognition of qualifications obtained through online courses in Iraq and find solutions to this problem. Furthermore, future studies should investigate the reasons behind the low Internet speed which was identified by students as a major barrier to online learning and propose solutions to this problem.

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THE IMPACT OF TEACHING LANGUAGE TESTING BASICS OF DEVELOPING EL TRAINEES' TESTING ABILITIES

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Abstract

English language departments in all the colleges of education present Testing and Evaluation of English Language subject as one of the core subjects that should be presented to EL students at the fourth grade. So they acquire the knowledge about English language testing basics and get benefits of these testing techniques during the training period for teaching English language which lasts 40 days in intermediate and secondary schools. This paper aims to find out the effects of teaching language testing basics on creating and improving the trainees' testing abilities so as their experiences can be increased in testing and assessment field. The selected sample is from the undergraduate fourth grade students in English Language department of College of Education at Salahaddin University. The researcher has adopted a questionnaire and Pre - Post tests for the students to be the best means for gathering data. Certain conclusions are presented in the light of the achieved results through the statistical analysis of the data.

Key words: Language Testing, Testing Basics, Validity, Reliability

Introduction

The field of English language learner assessment is changing. This changing can be indicated through the techniques and the formats that are used. Even the use of the results of any assessment process has been varied. This change creates many

challenges for the work of English language teachers since they are required to present the update basic formats for assessing the English language main skills. Also they are in need to apply the suitable approach that facilitates the comprehension of assessing techniques and being able to construct the good test for the learners, tests that have validity and reliability to accepted degrees. The new attitudes require English language teachers to deal with student assessment through different concepts particularly the results of the assessment that decide the success of the applied teaching methods and the usefulness of the target course. The results of the assessment are no longer indicate the individual differences among the students or decide their levels but they can be used to decide the success or failure of the whole learning programme.

1. Theoretical Background

1.2 English Language Teaching and Testing

Fulcher (2013:3) defines the term English language testing as “like all educational assessment is a complex social phenomenon. It has evolved to fulfill a number of functions in the classroom and society at large. The practice of language testing has an important role to contribute to all disciplines within applied linguistics. Tests also can be considered as important instruments for training framework. They do not measure the levels of achievement only but also its’ results can provide assurance that the learner has met the required standards or not. Even the classroom practice can be affected by the tests if they are well-constructed. They promote effective learning, assist the teacher to identify learning needs and select of best method and techniques of teaching.(Schellekens. 2011:1). The fundamental function of the language testing is all about building better tests, researching how to select the best testing format and certainly better understanding the levels and skills of the learners

that we construct the test for them (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007: xix). Attitudes towards language testing have been too limited for long but recently language testing has been viewed in its proper role as a potentially powerful and progressive force in teaching. Indeed the whole subject of testing language opens the door not only to a closer analysis of the testing and teaching methods that are adopted but also to a better appreciation of the nature of the language being taught. Testing and teaching are so closely interrelated. It is impossible to work in either field without being constantly concerned with the other. Tests may be constructed primarily as devices to reinforce learning and to motivate the students or as a means of assessing the student's performance in the language. There are other specific reasons for testing such as:-

1. To measure the candidate's actual performance in the language.
2. To reinforce learning and motivate the students.
3. To enable the teacher to increase his own effectiveness by making adjustments in his teaching to enable the students to get benefit more.
4. A good classroom test also will help to locate the precise (accurate) areas of difficulty encountered by the class or by the individual student so the teacher can prepare the remedial work and additional practices.
- 5- The teacher can evaluate the effectiveness of the syllabus as well as the methods and the teaching materials which are applied in the classroom.
- 6- A well -constructed classroom test will provide the students with an opportunity to show his ability to recognize and produce correct forms of the language (Heaton, 1990: 6).

1.3 Purpose and Context of Language Testing

Different elements in the classroom can create the suitable context of teaching such as the tasks and activities, the relationship and the interaction between the learners and teacher. Over periods of time through the social situation that is created in the classroom, the teachers have the opportunity to monitor and guide the learners' participation in different activities and tasks so as to improve their communication abilities. While the language testing context refers to the environment in which the test takes place such as invigilators, the decoration or the temperature that affect the performance of the learners. Both contexts of language teaching and testing should be constructed in the right way so as to facilitate both teaching and testing process (Fulcher & Davison, 2007:25).

Language tests differ according to their purposes. The tester can use the same form of the test to achieve different purposes. In some cases even the purpose can affect the form of the test that can be used. The most familiar purposes of tests are achievement and proficiency tests. Achievement tests are conducted at the end or in the middle of courses or as portfolio assessment or through monitoring procedures for recording development on the basis of learners' activities and participation in the classroom. This kind of tests can supply the teacher with the evidence about whether and where the development has been made in terms of the purposes and goals of the course. While proficiency tests measures the end aims of the language learning (Macnamara, 2000:6).

1.4 Fundamental consideration in language Testing Design Process

There are some fundamental factors that should be taken into consideration at the start of language test construction but these factors may vary according to the context of the test so the tester should be able to recognize the situation which the test takes

place and determines the uses of the test. The nature of the language abilities and the purposes behind the assessment process are factors that considered as the basic foundation for different types of testing including diagnostic, achievement or language aptitude testing. All these factors overlap with the characteristics of the language abilities that are tested and they affect the performance on the language test. The teachers need to develop a framework includes the characteristics of the target language abilities and the adopted methods for assessing these abilities in a valid and reliable means (Bachman, 2003:3)

1.5 Understanding Language Testing

Developing a critical understanding of the principles and practices of language testing is very necessary for certain reasons especially by the people who are actually responsible for developing language tests or who want to increase their experiences in English language testing field. Language tests play an important role in different fields of life whether in education, in employment or even immigration to another country. Language tests can be considered as devices for institutional control over individuals; therefore it is clearly important to be understood and subjected to critical observation particularly by people who work in testing fields as teachers or administrators or rely on the data that is gathered by tests for making decisions. (Macnamara, 2000:4). The effect of testing on teaching and learning processes is known as backwash and can be positive or negative depending on the objectives of the test that dominate all the activities in the classroom. If the aims of the course have a disparity with the content and testing techniques in this condition the backwash is considered harmful or negative which needs to prepare a treatment plan for all the negative points that apparent in the course (Hughes, 2003:1)

1.6 Communicative Language Testing

Teaching and learning English is necessary for communicative purposes since English language is the dominated language in local and global contexts and the needs for speakers using the language effectively is required in everywhere (Khamkhien ,2010:184). A communicative language testing system aims to assess not only learners' competence or the knowledge about the language that he owns but also to what ranges learners are able to perform their knowledge in meaningful communicative situations. In order to achieve these aims there are certain principles should be taken into consideration. The first principle requires the test makers to determine clearly the performance expectations in a particular context and finding scales and criteria to ensure the validity of the test. The second principle is about the importance of the suitability of the content of the test and the related tasks. They should be suitable to the test takers' ages, proficiency levels, their needs and attitudes. Also there are other certain features that make the test to be communicative such as including meaningful communication happens in an authentic situation with integrated language skills that lead to inventive language output (Nguyen & Le,2016:858).

2. The Procedures

2.1 The Sample Selection

The sample that is selected for this study is the students of the fourth stage in English Language department. The sample includes 60 students divided between 30 male and 30 female students. Each group represents 50% of the whole sample. Table (1) shows the distribution of Gender in the sample

Table (1) The distribution of Gender in the sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Female	30	%50	%50
Male	30	%50	%50
Total	60	%100.0	%100

2.2 The application of the instruments

The researcher has applied two instruments to gather the necessary data for the research. These instruments are:

2.3 The questionnaire

The questionnaire is applied to the students of the fourth stage in English Language department so as to find out if teaching them English language testing basics has improved their abilities in using the appropriate testing techniques and selecting the suitable testing formats.

2.4 The Pre -Post Test

It is believed that these tests are very necessary so as to decide the progress that appears in their testing abilities after they have been presented the different formats and techniques that are used for measuring the language abilities. The results of the two tests are compared to show whether teaching the language testing basics, how to construct the standardized tests and different types of language tests can affect improving the testing abilities of the trainees in the fourth grade of the English department.

3. Discussion of the Results

Through the application of SPSS statistical programme the following results are achieved:

3.1 The Results of the Questionnaire

The students' responses to the items of the questionnaire have scored different ranges according to Likret Scale. This score can be described as: strongly disagree scheme scored 1-1.175, Disagree scored 1.76- 2.80, neutral scored from 2.81 -3.45, Agree scored 3.46-4.20 while Strongly agree scored 4.21-5. See table (2)

Range	Level (Rating)
From 1 To 1.75	Strongly disagree
From 1.76 To 2.80	Disagree
From 2.81 To 3.45	Neutral
From 3.46 To 4.20	Agree
From 4.21 To 5	Strongly agree

Pearson's correlation coefficient between teaching the basics of language testing and the improvement of the trainees' testing abilities scored 522** at the level 0.01 which means that there is a significant indication between these two processes. Which means through applying the suitable method of teaching the learners have managed to acquire the testing abilities. See table (3)

Table (3) Pearson's correlation

	Language Testing Basics	Testing Abilities
--	-------------------------	-------------------

Language Testing Basics	Pearson Correlation Sig. (1-tailed)	1	.522** .009
	N	20	20
Testing Abilities	Pearson Correlation Sig. (1-tailed)	.522** .009	1
	N	20	20

Most of the students have selected the scheme (Agree) to the opinions that call for using the communicative methods that help the students to comprehend the basic principles for construction a good English test and exercise different techniques that facilitate for them managing this process. Also they agree to the opinions about the importance of being able to construct the tests that are valid, reliable and presents a backwash for whole teaching-learning processes positively or negatively. The students are not sure only about two opinions of the questionnaire. The first opinion is about the different aspects that should be considered in conducting formal or informal assessment and testing. The second opinion is about how the testing process helps the teacher to decide the learners' needs and being able to find the suitable teaching techniques to accommodate these needs.

Through the statistical analysis of the students questionnaire. The two important aspects that the study is based on them have the following scores: language testing basics scored 3.7233 while trainees' testing abilities scored 3.4524 which means that both aspects are connected with each other which means the continuous presentation of the language testing basics certainly increases and develops the testing abilities of the fourth stage EL students. The relationship between these two aspects is

positive relationship since it scored 0.280 comparing with factor deviate correlation which is 0.526. See table no (4)

Table (4) The connection between Language Testing Basics and Trainees' Abilities

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.526 ^a	0.280	0.280	0.38261

Table (5) The connection between Learning and Knowledge by ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.006	1	1.006	6.869	.017 ^b
	Residual	2.635	18	.146		
	Total	3.641	19			

The connection between learning process and knowledge is 0.05 which is less than 0.017 which indicates the strength of this relationship. See table (5)

Figure (1)

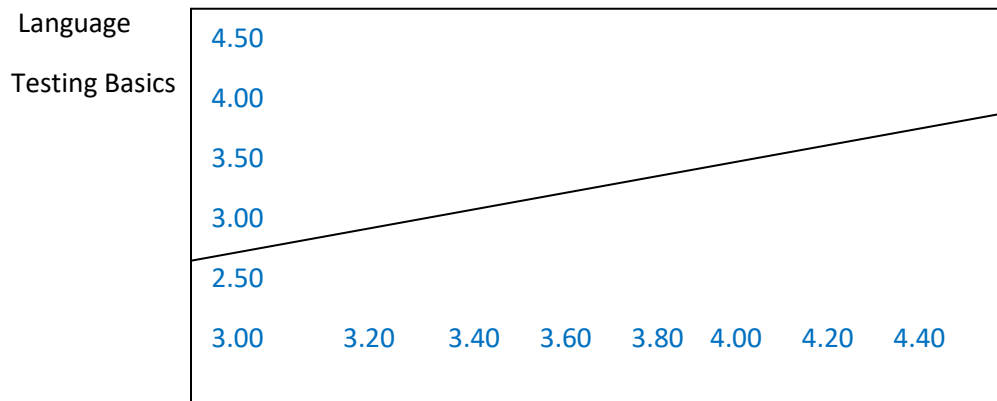


Figure 1

3.2 The Results of the Pre-Post Test

The results of these tests indicate that the trainees' language testing abilities have been developed significantly. In the Pre-Test they faced many problems concerning

their abilities to decide which testing formats can be selected so as to assess language main skills which are reading, writing, listening and speaking. 80% of the trainees did not recognize that each area of English language such as grammar, vocabulary and phonology requires different techniques for testing it and these four skills are strongly connected with each other but this does not mean that assessing one of them can be a perfect alternative to another skill. Another problem was indicated in the Pre-Test that 76% did not use multi-testing methods and multi-question formats so as to construct standardized tests with good features like valid and reliable. In the Post –Test it was obvious that the trainees have acquired some experiences to construct language tests that can be considered to certain degrees accepted. 88% of them are able to decide the best methods that are suitable to test certain areas of language and specific language skill. In Pre-Test they needed 70 minutes to construct four questions assessing the students' abilities in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation while in the Post-Test they needed 45 minutes to construct the same kind of question using different formats such as Multiple-choice Items, True or False, Short-answer questions and others.

4. Conclusions

In the light of the results, the following conclusions have been achieved:

1. The teacher should have the experience to construct the different types of language testing. Tests that have the characteristics of validity which is scientifically accepted and reflects what the teacher wants his learners to learn. While reliability of the test indicates to which range the test is accurate and constructed properly.
2. The test should have the feature of discrimination which means it reflects the individual differences that appear during the performances of the learners.

3. The most important aim of construction of any test is to make the learners learn from their weaknesses and the teacher can discover the most difficult areas of the course that the learners face problems to comprehend them so that he /she can decide the corrective procedures that enable the learners to overcome these difficulties. Through the results of the test the teacher can evaluate the adequacy of the syllabus and the usefulness of the applied teaching methods and the teaching materials.

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Extensive Reading in Kurdistan High Schools

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ABSTRACT

The paper aims to prove whether current literary readers in Kurdistan high schools are based on extensive or intensive policies and whether it is necessary to apply extensive reading in high schools. For this reason, the paper relies on comparing the principles of extensive reading with the results of the questionnaire carried out among seventy high school students include grades 10, 11, and 12 students in Shaqlawa Educational Compound. The paper also mentions difficulties and problems for using the real extensive reading, such as time accountability and supportive environment. The study ends with conclusions and recommendations. The study finds out that the current literary reader is not based on the main principles of extensive reading and students are generally not interested in reading it, therefore, there should be a real reconsideration of setting up reading materials in the curriculum in Kurdistan high schools.

Keywords: Difficulties, Extensive Reading, Literary Reader, Pleasure, Principles.

1. INTRODUCTION

The goal of this paper is to focus on self selected reading or extensive reading rather than intensive reading or exact translation of the text. What is important here is the pleasure of reading. In this approach students are engaged in reading many books which are suitable for them. The main aim is reading in order to get information and enjoy reading books. There are lots of books provided which students are free to select the titles based on their interests, choice, and purpose. (Bamford, Julian and Richard, 2004, p. 1). The students are neither asked questions nor required to do exercises, and check the meanings of unknown words since it is a type of reading which educators always do (Krashen, 2004, p. 1).

Currently, in Kurdistan, there have been many criticisms about our students' lack of autonomous reading at the primary, secondary and even university levels. It appears that students have not made advance in terms of the practice of reading. This is called 'a literacy crisis' by Steven Krashen and his only suggestion to cure it, is a reading activity (Krashen, 2004, p. 1). According to Bamford teachers should create a habit and love of reading among students since if students are not given this chance to practice reading for pleasure and to get away from the exposure of difficult texts, it will be very hard to make them have positive opinions towards reading (Bamford, Julian and Richard, 2004, p. 1). Based on this program, reading material is intentionally selected to be simple for students as a result students are offered larger amounts of text to read and students have

chances to enjoy reading or read for pleasure and this increases their trust and encouragement for further reading. And this is the only method to make them fluent readers.

Extensive reading is a method for language teaching, in this approach the learners are required to read large amounts of reading for pleasure or for universal understanding (Bamford, Julian and Richard, 2004, p. 1). The students read independently and individually and without being asked to do any tasks. Moreover, they are free to stop reading whenever they think the text is difficult and boring. Extensive reading can be offered to any learning class the only condition is that they should have basic knowledge and be qualified for foreign language learning (Bamford, Julian and Richard, 2004, p. 1). Extensive reading refers to Free Voluntary Reading methods that have the general idea of independent, voluntary reading. Other models of FVR are Sustained Silent Reading or Self-Selected Reading (Krashen, 2004, p. 2).

Furthermore, Guthrie and Anderson (1999 p. 17) state that motivations and social interactions are as equally and basically important as the cognitions for reading foundation. They believe that reading engages students to gain not only reading skills but also using them purposely in contexts. As encouragement rises, students want to spend more time on reading. For that reason, motivation has a double role. It is part of both process and product of engagement because engagement is very important in the reading process. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to find ways to increase engagement. Student self-selection of literature can be one way to help teachers in this context. Besides, nurturing essential motivation, and letting students make choices are also building stones for further reading. When actual world readers select a text, they are reading to learn and to enjoy. They do these tasks by choosing a text that fulfills their needs. Choosing a text is a key to be a reader (Ollman, 1993, pp. 648-653).

According to Olsen's theory of child development (as cited in Kragler, 2000) children are "self-seeking, self-selecting, and self-pacing organisms" (p. 2). As such, Olsen thinks that children will hunt for and choose skills that are consistent with their developmental level. As a result, many students' reading choices go back and forth between harder and easier materials relying on their developmental purpose. While this difference in reading levels may seem unsuitable, teachers must admit that respecting children's choices allows them to develop and find out to value their own management (Ohlhausen & Jepson, 1992, pp. 31-46).

1.1. The Scope

The study has taken into account students' reading of Sunrise 10, 11, 12 Literary readers as examples to compare them with the principles of extensive reading with the purpose of finding the reality of teaching the book and taking some conclusions and recommendations into consideration. The results of comparison based on the questionnaire on high school students in Shaqlawa Typical Preparatory school in Shaqlawa Educational Compound.

1.2. The Problem

There are many problems in front of the use of self selected reading or extensive reading policy such as the existence of suitable environment, good allocated time, having good resources for different levels, and local libraries.

1.3. The Study and Data

The study is basically based on the questionnaire achieved among 70 high school students including grade 10, 11, 12 in Shaqlawa Educational Compound to compare the use of Sunrise 12 Literary Reader in Kurdistan schools with the principles of extensive reading and self selected reading.

2. Difficulties

Time is one the first challenges that students face during their engagement in extensive reading method; therefore they should be given some time for independent reading (Fisher, 1994, pp. 55-65). Independent reading time increases reading achievement and engagement since it supports student's enjoyment and experiences and gives them the context to practice skills and vocabularies (Anderson, Higgins & Wurster, 1985, pp. 326-330).

Providing a suitable physical environment is another challenge because students need good classroom environment to be motivated towards individual and independent reading of literature. It is up to the teachers to find out quiet, safe area, and comfortable zone (Reutzel & Cooter, Jr., 1992). Classrooms should have very good libraries to transform children as readers. On the contrary, when there are no libraries or poor libraries students are not motivated and don't achieve well, Regie Routman (2003, p. 81).

The students can also benefit each other through exchanging their ideas, for example buddy reading is an activity which enhances group readers and motivation (Fresch, 1995, pp. 220-227). Despite that, teachers should get to know with two key measures which are literature and students. Teachers need time, in order to get to know about the right types of literature. The best way to be familiar with a good quality of literature is to seek for the books that have received honors and awards. Teachers must know the needs of the students, they must watch, observe, assess, and evaluate their abilities. According to Nations and Alonso (2001) if you know what the students achieve, you can discover means to advance them forward in their learning process. "(p. 46).

3-Extensive Reading

Extensive reading refers to the method of teaching foreign language reading, it was first introduced by Harold Palmer and Michael West after piloting a project of extensive reading in India. The term is different from intensive reading in that the latter refers to a careful reading or translation of shorter and more difficult texts with the aim of full and inclusive understanding (Bamford and Welsh, 2007, P. 1). On the contrary, the former basically depends on reading easy materials for general understanding where the students select their own texts. The students are free to stop reading whenever they feel the text is boring and not interesting, besides there are no tasks after reading the materials. Extensive reading follows the language which contains elements of purpose and pleasure (Bamford and Welsh, 2007, P. 1). In extensive reading the main goal is to read large amounts of texts to obtain overall idea of the text rather than the meaning of individual words or sentences (Bamford and Welch, 2007, P. 1). According to (Bamford and Day, 2007, P. 1), self selected reading and extensive reading increases students' pleasure to make them more enthusiastic to be more fluent readers. However, extensive reading is not the only answer to teach

reading since there are some students who need special help and support, in this case intensive reading is a good support for learners. Therefore, it said that the balance between these two approaches is an appropriate way in learning reading because on the one hand, intensive reading helps quicker vocabulary learning, and learning some language rules and constructions, and on the other hand, extensive reading teaches skills of reading (Bamford and Day, 2007, P. 1).

4-Principle of Extensive Reading and Literary Readers in Kurdistan Schools

According to (Macmillan, 2011, p. 126) the purpose of literary readers is to prop up students extensive reading skills and promote reading for pleasure. This reading can lead to the intellectual and moral development of individuals. In addition, the aim of extensive reading in English increases the amount of time students spend practicing and processing the language in order that learning and consolidation can happen subconsciously. Furthermore (Macmillan, 2011, p.126) shows that through literary reader students possibly obtain a sense of possession, self-government and development as they expand good study habits at a time, place and pace of their own decision.

While most of the literary reader texts in Kurdistan are set without ever considering social and cultural backgrounds. They are set into the curriculum without regarding students' and teachers' consents and interests. The texts are sometimes beyond students levels. A study reveals the contrary of the above mentioned purposes of literary reader. Because according to the study on Robert Louis Stevenson's Treasure Island for Sunrise 12 Literary Reader, by (Khidhir, 2015, p.331), "Most of the students do not read the text for pleasure, but they study it to pass the exams. The text is not of general interest. Students do not have the ability to read and process a text in English. The language used in the text is difficult and the text is not appropriate for their level. The text is long and time consuming to both teachers and students. The vocabularies used are difficult and not helpful to participate in social interaction. The atmosphere is dreadful and awful as we see crimes and murders during the events of the story. Students cannot read with ease and confidence".

The basic principles of Extensive Reading by (Julian Bamford and Richard R. Day, 1997) are as follows:

1. The reading material is easy. The materials are easy in the sense that the students face few or no unknown words and vocabulary because the students would not succeed in reading extensively if they face the difficulties of the materials.
2. A variety of material on a wide range of topics is available. Students should have access to variety of topics depending on different ability levels.
3. Learners choose what they want to read. In extensive reading, students can enjoy choosing what they like to read and they are also allowed to stop reading when they are not interested in.
4. Learners read as much as possible. One of the benefits of extensive reading is the quantity of reading.
5. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower. Since the materials, students read in extensive reading are easy for understanding; the process of reading is faster. Students are discouraged from using dictionaries because it interrupts reading and they students are not busy with using dictionaries to check the meanings of vocabularies.
6. The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding. The purpose of extensive reading is pleasure and information. It doesn't require detailed comprehension of the text.
7. Reading is individual and silent. Students read individually and silently.

8. Reading is its own reward. The goal of extensive reading is providing an environment for the students where they can get pleasure without doing any sort of exercises, though sometimes teachers may ask students to do follow-up activities after reading.

9. The teacher orients and guides the students. Teachers can usually guide students before starting reading. Students are familiarized with the text, its purpose, its benefits, and how to do reading process so that the students can get the most benefit.

10. The teacher is a role model of a reader. The teacher should be a model for students. The teacher should be familiarized with the books which the students read. He/she reads the book silently with students so as to share experience, the value and pleasure together.

5-Discussions and Results

Students are not able to read and understand a text in English. The language used in the text is difficult and the text is not suitable for their level because when students asked in question number one "Is reading Sunrise 10,11, 12 literary reader easy?", 47% students answered positively and 53% of them answered negatively.

Table 1. Is reading Sunrise 10, 11, and 12 literary reader easy?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	33	47
No	37	53

Table 2. Are you interested in reading Sunrise 10, 11, and 12?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	27	39
No	43	61

When students are asked question 2 "Are you interested in reading Sunrise 10, 11, and 12?" 43 students (61%) replied that they are not interested in reading Sunrise Literary Reader. Their answers lead us to think that they are not reading it to get pleasure and information, and this is not in accordance with the principles of extensive reading. See the details in Table 2.

Table 3. Does your teacher ask questions and comprehension questions in every assigned chapter of literary reader?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	50	71
No	20	29

Table 4. Does your teacher ask questions in the exam?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	60	86
No	10	14

Referring to what (Bamford and Welsh 1) mention in extensive reading, there are no tasks after reading the materials, whereas in answering question 3 "Does your teacher ask questions and comprehension questions in every assigned chapter of literary reader?", and question 4 "Does your teacher ask questions in the exam?" 50 students (71%) answered, yes, in question 3, and 60 students (86%) answered positively in question 4. These results are in contradiction to the principles of extensive reading.

According to one of the principles of extensive reading students can select what they like to read. In extensive reading, learners can enjoy selecting what they want to read and they are also allowed to give up reading when they are not interested in. However, when learners asked "Have you selected the text and the literary reader by your own?" 65 students (93%) replied negatively. This answer gives us evidence that the students do not have the freedom of choosing to read what they liked, and they are also in need of using real extensive reading. For more details see table 5.

Table 5. Have you selected the text and the literary reader by your own?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	7
No	65	93

In question number 6 when students asked "Are the students free to stop reading whenever they feel the text is boring and not interesting?" 62 students (89%) replied that they are not free to give up reading when they are not interested in. See the details in table 6.

Table 6. Are the students free to stop reading whenever they feel the text is boring and not interesting?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	8	11
No	62	89

Based on one of the principle of the extensive reading, it doesn't require detailed comprehension of the text and the goal of extensive reading is providing an environment for the students where they can get pleasure without doing any sort of exercises, though sometimes teachers may ask students to do follow-up activities after reading. On the contrary, when students asked "Are there tasks after reading the materials?" 43 students (61%) confirmed that there are tasks after reading the materials. See more details in table7.

Table 7. Are there tasks after reading the materials?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	43	61
No	27	39

The aim of reading is usually associated to pleasure, information and general understanding, but this cannot be obtained in reading literary readers, since when students are asked "Do you read it for pleasure? 50 students (71%) replied negatively. For more details see table 8.

Table 8. Do you read it for pleasure?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	20	29
No	50	71

In extensive reading students are discouraged from using dictionaries since it disrupts reading and they are not busy with using dictionaries to check the meanings of vocabularies. But in teaching literary readers, students are asked meanings of individual words. Refer to table 9 for more information.

Table 9. Are you asked meanings of individual words?

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	57	81
No	13	19

According to one of the principles of the extensive reading, reading materials are easy while based on the study by (Khidhir, 2015, p.331) students in Kurdistan high schools are not able to read and process a text in English as the language of the text is difficult and not suitable for the students.

On the one hand, the aim of extensive reading is offering pleasure, information, and general understanding. It does not require detailed comprehension of the text. On the other hand, Khidhir (2015, p. 331) concludes that students who study in Kurdistan high schools do not read the text for pleasure; their only aim is to pass the exams. Moreover, the vocabularies used are difficult and not helpful to make them take part in social interaction. The students cannot get pleasure from the text since the atmosphere of the story is dreadful and awful as there are crimes and murders during the events of the story. Students have only access to one literary reader for each year, and this is contrary to other principles such as a variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available, learners choose what they want to read, and learners read as much as possible. "Most of the students do not read the text for pleasure, but they study it to pass the exams. The text is not of general interest. Students do not have the ability to read and process a text in English. The language used in the text is difficult and the text is not appropriate for their level. The text is long and time consuming to both teachers and students. The vocabularies used are difficult and not helpful to participate in social interaction. The atmosphere is dreadful and awful as we see crimes and murder

during the events of the story. Students cannot read with ease and confidence" Khidhir (2015 p. 331).

Nuttall (1982, pp. 172-3) mentions four basic criteria for selecting materials:

a- Appealing: The books must appeal to readers; the topics should be interesting and suitable for the students. b- Easy: Reading material should be easy in order to be read extensively. c- Short: With lower intermediate students the books should be fairly short so that the students do not feel intimidated by the length of the book and do not feel strained or get bored. d- Varied: Students should be offered a variety of genres and topics to suit their needs.

It is also advisable for teachers to prepare for teaching extensive reading, for example the teacher can familiarize himself/herself with extensive reading, and the teacher should get himself /herself acquainted with levels offered by different publishers and make a list of titles that she/he wants to buy (Hill, 2007, P. 2).

6-Conclusions and Recommendations

We come to conclude that though the literary readers of Sunrise 10, 11, and 12 are based on extensive reading but when it comes to teaching them in the class, they do not match to the basic principles of extensive reading. Therefore, it is necessary to recommend that the students are in dire need of enjoying and practicing through basic principles of extensive reading. Students need to practice extensive reading to learn more reading skills and to be more fluent readers as (Nuttall, 1982, P. 168) states "The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it".

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FRENCH AND GERMAN LOANWORDS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE DURING ONE DECADE

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ABSTRACT

English language like any other language in the world is not free of loan words from other various languages, which have had cultural relations with English speakers. Thousands of foreign words took place in English language that has a considerable effect on English language vocabulary. One decade selected in OED *Oxford Online English Dictionary* for investigating loanwords in this study. And the analytical tool that used for analyzing and calculating French and German loanwords as a data is Software Microsoft Excel 2007. Parts of speech particularly in English language counted for each year of the decade through utilizing the same analytical system. The French and German languages were counted as two powerful languages, which have huge numbers of words in English language, because the integration between English as a target language was stronger with French and Germanic languages more than other tongues. This research underline the ratio of borrowing new terms from French and German language that poured into English language through the decade 1930-1940. Also, this paper highlights the origin of transferred word from French and German language in English language. The aim of this study is emphasizing the functions of English borrowed words after transferring process. Finally, the results showed that less French loanwords had been poured to English language in 1930s as compared to German loanwords and most of loanwords were nouns. The Second World War, culture and trade are the most attractive factors for availability of French and German loanwords in English Language.

Keywords: English language, French language, German loanwords, loanwords, meaning and relationship, decade, vocabulary.

Section One:-

1.1. Introduction

When words have adopted from foreign language by speakers and partially or completely naturalized, these words are known as loanwords. English language like any other languages in the world is not free of new words from other various languages such as French, German, Spanish, Italian and many other languages, which have had cultural relations with English

speakers. Trask (1994: 12) has asserted that borrowing new terms from any other foreign language to English language caused many changes; however these changes are in grammar, spelling, pronunciations and meanings. There are many thousands of foreign words had found in English language as a global language that had considerable effects on English vocabulary. French and German language were counted as two powerful languages which have huge numbers of words in English language, because the integration between English as target language was stronger with French and Germanic languages more than other tongues. Skeat (1917: 8) claims that most borrowed words in English language are mainly in modern times, although this action is directly or indirectly affected English vocabulary.

The decade (1930-1940) was selected for investigating French and German loanwords in the English language because of several reasons. Firstly, many vital events happened during these years between these three nations, such as Hitler declared himself as leader of German country in 1934 and tried to establish a great empire, so political factors made a great change in the English. Secondly, the first supplement of OED *Oxford English Dictionary* was published in 1933, which covered approximately all of the borrowed words from each language to English. Another important reason is the start of the Second World War in 1939, when France and Germany were main members in that war. There were huge numbers of foreign immigrants entered English nations and cultural word transmissions events had took place. Each borrowed word from French and German language poured in English language in different years and for different purposes. Sometimes when English utterers have deal with French or German loanwords they used those words with the same structure, sound and meaning because English speakers used nouns as noun in their language. However, root changes can be identified with loanwords in English language because each language has their own alphabet for producing terms or expressions.

This study will examine the way that new terms has borrowed from French and German language to English language to during the decade 1930-1940, and what are those reasons which causes word transmissions between English culture with German and French culture. Another point is how these borrowed words were achieved in English language after transferring, and demonstrating changes that had happened to these borrowed terms based on word structure, sounds and meanings. Finally, numerical investigation of loanwords from both French and German language has been pointed out in this paper.

1.2. Background of the study

English language has been affected by these words, which were borrowed from French as compared to other great languages in the world. The interest in this connection is that the English language as a global language is still open to borrow words from other various tongues. So French during this decade 1930-1940 provided new words and expressions for English language some of these words were retained during this specific period of time and after this decade no longer used by narrators (Foster: 1968: 72). In addition many years ago French was one of the donor languages to English because of history events. French words contributed to the English vocabulary caused a considerable change in native English terms as well as the writings. (Julia: 2012). French loanwords were used in religious sectors such as churches, one of the fields of law sections as courts, in trade like vital business relations, in schools as a part of education space, and numbers of marriage became frequent in that time. As a consequence of transferring these words between these two groups language happened in a quick way (Dean and Wilson: 1963: 130). There were many

reasons behind this phenomenon that cause English change. Probably when the Second World War began in 1930 and ended in 1945 had a great influence on the connection between these two languages linguistically because the war had centered the Europe at that time. Both of these two regions France and England were ruled by Romanise therefore these two different languages interacted with each other linguistically rather than other felids that become familiar between these two nations like cultural features of each particular society. (Julia: 2012).

Cultural interactions normally could be counted as another factor for the loan words process because the reaction between two cultures are undoubtedly makes root change in the language that affected by the other language. For instance the word *ballet bouffe* is a kind of toy army uniform in artistic dance form achieved with special music, which was used in French language in 1857 as a noun; also this word had come to English language in 1934 with the same meaning and function (foster: 1968:74). Similarly, Ullmann (1964: 199) argues that the society and culture are one of the reasons that make the words borrowed from one language to another, when a term passed from ordinary communication language to specialized culture this action caused fundamental change in the language that used loan words. The terms for trade or craft are passed from a group of language like French in to English language and become common in use; however there are some changes happen to these words that behave in opposite direction after borrowing. There are words were restricted in meaning and use from the society is known specialization for example the verb *ponder* in French means ‘place to lay eggs’ but after this word *ponder* was borrowed to English language the meaning become more restricted which means ‘to be productive’, whereas some of verbs which comes from other tongue they were widened in meaning such as the word *apricot* is an adjective which means ‘apricot-coloured’ but when this word used by English utters the word become more general in meaning that means ‘apricot-coloured and ‘one who wears a blond lace pelerine’.

Foster (1968: 74) asserts that media had a great impact on transferring words form other group of languages to English, the foreign film sub-titles has had influence on using French word in English language because when these kinds of word used for introducing foreign-language films made receiver mental change to use new words in their native language. A good illustration for that the word *photogenic* which means ‘worthy of being photograph’ this term has marked in dictionary for a long time, after that used in common language it was also a quite household term in French language. By the same time French phrases had been borrowed rather than simple words to English. These objects were used in cinema field perhaps when these terms serve the connection between the foreign films and the audience emotionally had great impact on individuals feelings, because after translating these films and using such a words which is new for English language speaker and they would become used in common language. Newspapers as another branch of media also had a power to made transformation between two great different languages as French and English language.

It is worth mentioning that there are some changes which happened to these French borrowed words in structure, pronunciation and meaning when new French terms had comes to English language during the decade 1930-1940. This process can be defined as reproduction method; this was because of the difference between these two languages alphabetically. While the English language as the receiver source would accept the words from French and did not make more change in the patterns of borrowed terms and used for the same purpose. Another reason for this acceptance was having a great relationship between these two countries during the Second World War time when agreeable integration could be found in the most of linguistic features. These kinds of substitution which accrued would be clearer by providing examples of French loanwords in English language (Haugen: 1950: 213). The word *abricotine* as an adjective which came from French and served this tongue in 1896 or earlier, the original structure of the term was *abricoté* English in 1930 there is no root change happened to the word structure but after using by English utters the letter *b* was changed to *p* sound that pronounced it as /abriko'ti:n/ and suffix *-ine* used in French language in order to change from noun to adjective. However in English language the suffix *-in* used with this term.

Also there is no great change can be seen with the same word semantically, the original term means 'apricot-flavoured' which was near to the transformation meaning of the word which was 'apricot-coloured'.

Skeat (1892: 311) highlighted the point that these words were substituted by French terms in English language they accepted with the original spelling that they had in French, especially when such kinds of French words serve English language for particular purposes. At the same time there is a great connection phonologically between these two languages. For example the words that ended with –e sound was formerly pronounced in French language but now it is silent in French. When English speakers has reacted with these kinds of words after borrowing the same feature found in English which was equivalent to French language in pronouncing. A good illustration for that the word *Gitane* which was invented in 1095 by French speakers and this word used for indicating 'gipsy woman' but after period of time the same name was used for naming a special type of French cigarette. French utters pronounced *Gitane* with silent bounded –e, this rule goes with the phonetic system in English language which was /ʒitan/ as it was adapted in French phonological system. Correspondingly, the meaning was equivalent to French language which was referred to 'a cigarette of a proprietary French brand'. This name had also found in English language nation in 1933 which was borrowed from French language.

It is necessary to discuss and demonstrate more examples for these kinds of features when words borrowed from French to English. Another common term that has been used all over the world from the invention time of this word till now is the term *mobile* which was taken place in French language in 1931 after about one year English used this term with the parallel meaning as well in 1932. The structure of the word as compared to the original of the term naturally is somewhat near to each other because in British English spelled *mobile* with the same feature which has had in French. Phonologically this term pronounced as /'məʊbaɪl/ in English, also this term had correspondent sound in French language. There is no semantic shift could be seen after consuming this word by English speakers because it was used by French artist Marcel Duchamp in 1887 for dealing with moving abstract from one place to another, so after designing cell phones the this term *mobile* was used to introduce it and fallen out completely by the end of twentieth century.

In spite of the great contribution of French loanwords to the English terms, German words were another language which had an agreeable influence on English as well during (1930-1940). Skeat (1917: 8) has expressed that German loanwords transferred to English language rather than the foreign words such as Russian, Turkish and Hungarian. Similarly, Shipley (1983: 17) has argued that these words has entered English language directly or indirectly as a loanwords during different period of time, however some of these terms died out after specific period of time and the other has continued even till recent years. There is no doubt about the changes that had happened to these German loanwords because there was a considerable difference between English and Germanic alphabet.

In the same way, Dean and Wilson (1963: 116) asserts that the interaction between German and United Kingdom population had cause many changes in English language in variety of linguistic aspects it could be clear from others numerous points of view. The integration between these two great languages, which had happened makes the meaning of the terms goes to another complicated direction. Karl (1942: 163) has underlined the point that naturally languages become richer terminologically by borrowing new words, phrase and expressions from other languages because languages are more active and not like humans who cannot do anything with their enemy. Therefore, the exchange of terms between German and English language was quicker and easier during a specific period of time like the last years of the decade (1930-1940) because the German nation had fallen in war with English nation. Most German loanwords were not deriving from one specific field in life some of borrowed terms are geological terms, political, social as well as medical. These variations had taken place in Germanic loanwords because of several reasons, which had happened to the relation between Germanic and English utters.

Pyles (1964: 332) suggested that geological interaction between English and Germanic tongue became more popular and has a huge impact on word transmission, while these words were noun, verb, adjective and adverbs. A good example which is available from the *OED* online dictionary, the noun *auxin* etymologically this word was from German language and refers to 'a growth hormone' which was used in 1931 and it adapted to English language with the same meaning in 1932. Foster (1986: 89) has mentioned that politics was a significant feature in borrowing political German terms to English language because in 1939 the Britain and Roman announced war to German and each of different languages had affected by each other through that strong war, for instance the noun *Oflag* which was regarded by *OED* online dictionary that refers to 'a prison camp for captured enemy officers' and comes to English language in 1940 with the same structure and pronunciation. There is no doubt about that generally if the war happens between two great regions the immigration rate will rise up and there are numbers of refugees will be part of both societies, meanwhile the German immigrants had enormous ratio in the United Kingdom population. Perhaps the individual contacts were one of the other reasons for transferring words between two different countries like German and Great Britain. Another crucial contributed factor was teaching Germanic language as a foreign language in English educational institutions. Therefore idioms, words, phrases and expressions could be seen in English written usage by teachers as well as learners. The *OED* online dictionary supplement provides variety samples of German loanwords in English language during the decade (1930-1940).

It is obvious that scholarly borrowing words was another type of Germanic borrowing words feature because there were some particular terms had used for some medical treatments which was invented by German scientists. Therefore scholarship was had a great effect on using numbers of innovative terms in English language, however these terms were suitable for medical treatments, chemical, geology or any other scientific fields. For instance the word *letovicite* works as a noun that refers to 'a certain type of mineral of acid ammonium sulphate, $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{H}(\text{SO}_4)_2$ ' which was found by German chemists in 1932, through that year the word had transferred to English language for the same purpose. Also there was geological borrowed words had used in English language as well, such as the noun *pluton* invented by German expert Cloos in 1928 that indicates 'a large body of intrusive igneous rock' and now it is one of the nine planets in the space. Another German loanword *Wehrmacht* which was served Germanic military terms before and during the second world war 1921-1945, means 'German armed forces' this was a specific army in German was used for defending Germanic nations. The medical name *dominigene* that means 'Any gene that modifies the dominance of another gene' has proposed in 1938 and used by Germanic medicine specialist Goldschmidt, this term had passed through German to English language in the same year of invention (Henry: 1943: 505).

Ullmann (1964: 199) asserts that culture is one of the extremely important factors for borrowing foreign words from outside English language because normally the relationship between cultures causes many changes happen to both of group people from each of different regions. Consequently, the German loanwords could be seen in English language through the strong interactions between German and English culture, because there are numbers of historical events had taken place. For example the *wordschmooze* was used as a noun in Germanic tongue and transferred to English language in 1939 which was referred to 'a long and intimate conversation' which is available in *OED* online dictionary, so this term continued in using till recent years because it was used by generations one after each other. The name of one type of Germanic traditional food was *klops* means 'A type of meat-ball or meat-loaf' which was cooked special way and this word with the same meaning used by English utters as well in 1939. So the cultural connection had a reasonable influence on using German terms in English language.

Skeat (1892: 83) argues that German language has become standing part of English language through working with these Germanic loanwords in this specific period of time (1930-1940). Substantial changes had happened to these borrowed words after behaving in English language as a global language. Probably these changes had taken place in spelling, pronunciations and meanings. Although, sometimes the spelling may remain unchanged and used with the same structure whenever it became one of the English

vocabularies. The *OED* online dictionary provides variety of Germanic loan terms with explanations; the word *panzer* was used as a noun and pronounced as /'pantse/ by German people but the sound of this word has changed to /'panzə/ when it was used by British speakers. There was not change happen to the part of the speech of the word because in both nations used as a noun and had the same meaning which was 'A German tank or a German armoured unit'. In 1934 this term was invented but during the First World War this word was available but combined with the other term *Panzerkraftwagen*, English people borrowed it in 1938 and treated it as Germanic term.

In contrast, some terms had alternative spelling; pronunciations but had approximately the same meaning as compared to English sense. For instance the word *motza*, which was derived from German in 1936, etymologically the original spelling was *matse*, so it was different when used by English utters. By the way this term pronounced differently between these two languages Dutch speakers, /matzah/ was used in German and pronounced as /'mɒtsə/ in British English, but semantically both nations had treat with this term with the same meaning which was referred to 'A fortune, great deal of money'. Furthermore, *schwung* is another word has been borrowed from Germanic language to English in 1930 and referred to 'energy' in both of language, but somehow they pronounced it differently because when this term arrived to English the spelling has been changed to *swing* and pronounced as /swɪŋ/, but normally the original sound is /ʃvʊŋ/.

1.3. Hypothesis of the study

It is quite clear that large numbers of previous authors and researchers had underlined various types of English loanwords that transferred form other languages. French and German languages are counted as two of those languages in the world. It is assumed that the availability of French and German loanwords have affect on English language communicators.

1.4. The scope of the study

This paper in mainly aimed to deal with French and German loanwords in English language in only one decade, which is between 1930-1940. Also, the reasons behind transferring words to English language for each individual year in the decade can be labeled as another aim of this research.

1.5. The purpose of the study

The major purpose of the study is to investigate loanwords form two different languages to English language, which are French and German language during one decade. Parts of a speech in English language are particularly highlighted for examining loanwords.

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- Are there any French and German loanwords have taken place in English language during the decade 1930s?
- 2- What are the main factors that have a great effect on contribution of German loanwords in English language?
- 3- Are German loanwords overweight French loanwords in English language during the decade 1930s? And those loanwords are categorized to which parts of speech in English language?

1.7. The significance of the study

In this field of study, researchers tried to observe different types of loanwords in English language that hopefully served linguistic field. However, the transmission of French and German loanwords in English language has not been conducted before. In this study, the parts of speech in English language are investigated for each individual year of the selected decade.

Section two: -

2.1. Analysis, results and discussion

It is interesting to look at both French and German loanwords particularly in parts of speech of English language and the years of borrowed words quantitatively, depends on each year in the decade (1930-1940). The table below has mentioned how many words have come to English language from each language separately in each year: -

	Decade											Total
Years	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Numbers of French loanwords	21	19	12	17	16	16	21	12	13	12	9	168

Table (1) French loanwords in each year of the decade

As it has showed in the table (1) various numbers of French loanwords could be observed in each year of the decade (1930-1940) in English language. The huge quantity of borrowed terms has realized at the beginning of the years (1930, 1931, 1933, 1934, 1935 and 1936) in the decade. However, less French loanwords had taken place in English language in years (1932, 1937, 1938, 1939 and 1940). Consequently, it become clearer from the table that the larger amounts of borrowed words were at the beginning of the

decade it means that the relationship between English language and French language as a second language was stronger. And the French language had a greater impact on English at those times.

	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Total
Numbers	141	-	27	168

Table (2) French loanwords in English language during the decade (1930-1940)

Parts of speech is an important part in every languages, table (2) explain numbers of French loanwords, which works as a noun, verbs and adjectives in English language. It can be said that most of the loanwords during the decade (1930-1940) were nouns because it became to 141 nouns; however there is no any borrowed words used as verb in English tongue. Finally, adjectives have recorded lowest amount as compared to nouns after transformation.

Years	Decade											Total
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	
Numbers of German loanwords	22	22	21	19	33	19	17	24	24	23	19	243

Table (3) German loanwords in English language during (1930-1940)

It is clear from table (3) numbers of Germanic terms in 1934 was more than the other years of the decade that met (33) loanwords. A political situation had a great effect on raising the number of Germanic loanwords in that year. Hitler had become the leader of Germany and tried to create a great empire. However, the total of German loanwords in other years was (19-24) and it was lower proportion than loanwords in 1934.

	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Total
Numbers	222	4	17	243

Table (4) German loanwords in English language during the decade (1930-1940)

Table (4) describes how many German loanwords, which have been used in English language as a noun, verbs and adjectives. Certainly, nouns have a great value in the total of all German terms that reach (222) nouns. In contrast the numbers of verbs mostly have lower rate, just four verbs and there are 17 loanwords used as adjective in English language.

As a result, it is interesting to mention that German and French language as a foreign language had a reasonable influence on English as target language in decade (1930-1940). Through historical English background English language was open for receiving many terms from many other languages and treated these morphemes as an English language vocabulary. The integration between German and English language through this period of time was more comprehensive than the relationship with the French nation because as it is shown from OED there are 243 German loanwords in English language, on the other hand there are just 168 terms borrowed from French language. There were many changes happen to these terms when they were serve English language, mostly they changed in pronunciation and spelling because each language have their own alphabet. Most of German and French loanwords used as a noun in English language as compared to the other types of parts of speech in target language. Furthermore, culture and the

Second World War were the two crucial reasons behind transferring new words from German and French language to English language in (1930-1940).

Section Three: -

3.1. Conclusion

To sum up, English language probably has been hospitable to other words from different languages in the world such as French and German. During the decade (1930-1940) English language had borrowed many terms from French language as a foreign tongue. Perhaps this event made many changes happen to English language, because it could be seen clearly in English utters as well as dictionaries. There is no doubt about that there are many reasons behind borrowing new terms from French language. Certainly the Second World War in 1939 was one of the reasons that cause word transformations between these two fundamental languages because great interactions had happened between France and England. Cultural French terms were another type of loanwords in English vocabularies; due to integrations between individuals from each culture many new terms and expressions could be found in English language as a target language. Normally cultures are one of the most attractive factors, which have a great effect on exchanging terms between nations. Moreover, trade was another reason for transferring French trade terms to English language particularly during that decade because through importing or exporting equipment between France and England had produced a special relationship between the two various speakers. Media has realized as another factor that made borrowing words from non-native sources. French films and programs with subtitles made French words used by English utters because presenting foreign films were very popular.

Sometimes these new French terms naturalized and behaved as original in spelling, pronouncing as well as meaning because most of the borrowed words were nouns and treated as a noun in second language. On the other hand some words had completely changed after transforming and become one of English terms.

Beside French language German language had an agreeable influence on English language by using German terms in English community during (190-1940). Many linguistic experts introduced German language as a sister to English because there were strong relationship between these those two global languages in the history. As it has been mentioned before the contribution of German loanwords had taken place due to several reasons. Political and geological reasons had made words transferred from German religion to English language in 1930s, because in 1934 Hitler declared himself as a leader of German country and wanted to establish a great empire through the entire world. Many changes had occurred to German loanwords in structure and sounds of German loanwords chiefly because of differentiation between Germanic and English alphabets. *OED* online dictionary has provided many loanwords related to science and education, through new discoveries by German scientists and passed to English with the same spelling, pronunciations and meanings.

Depending on *OED* online dictionary less French loanwords had been poured to English language in 1930s as compared to German loanwords and most of loanwords were nouns.

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WHY AND WHERE DO BILINGUALS CODE-SWITCH AND WHAT ARE THE FUNCTIONS OF DOING THIS?

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ABSTRACT

Many individuals can speak more than one language for different purposes, such as having a conversation with speakers of dissimilar languages. Bilinguals defined as a person who can speak two languages. The objective of this study is trying to recognize if bilinguals from different ages do code switch and the reasons behind doing this code shifting. The second aim is to realize the reasons for utilizing code switch during their conversations and identifying the functions of doing it. The hypothesis of this study is that bilinguals in the most of bilingual's communication groups are commonly practice code switching and they hardly ever exclude this process in their speech. The methodology in this study is purely theoretical. Code switching is a fundamental function in bilingualism because bilinguals change between languages in the same conversation group in order to produce cultural relationships easily. Undoubtedly, alternating during conversation can be an important technique for producing relationships between individuals and can be beneficial for representing group identity. Moreover, borrowing words from a particular language supports bilinguals in achieving code-switching depending on the situations. Certainly, code switching often takes place in bilingual families because the family is the first educational environment in which children can start learning expressions or simple words for communicating process. This study focuses on why bilinguals do code-switch and where it takes place in their negotiations. Also, this paper highlights the main functions of doing code switch. The result showed that bilinguals code-switch when they are in a communication group and try to utilize code switching to create continuous discussion groups. It is not only words or phrases, which are includes in code switching; sentences are also used by bilinguals in the process of switching.

Keywords: bilinguals, code switching, communication, second language, society and vocabulary.

1.1. Introduction

Most people in the world communicate by using a particular language depending on the region in which they live. Many individuals can speak by using more than one language for different purposes, such as having a conversation with speakers of dissimilar languages. The human ability to speak two languages can be defined as bilingualism; moreover, a person who is able to speak two languages fluently is known as a bilingual. Code-switching is a

fundamental function in bilingualism because bilinguals change between languages in the same conversation group in order to make other members understand easily. Grosjean (1982: 145) has underlined the point that code-switching refers to the alternate use of two languages by bilinguals in the same conversation. The code-switching process includes not only words but also phrases and sentences. Therefore, alternating between languages is an extremely common feature in bilinguals and is one of the crucial aspects of bilingualism. Hoffmann (1991: 113) explained that there are many reasons for bilinguals to switch languages, for example when a person cannot work with two languages accurately and successfully. Immigrants are counted as a group who normally code-switch because they are not fully familiar with the second language that they use after immigration.

Undoubtedly, alternating during conversation can be an important technique for producing relationships between individuals and can be beneficial for representing group identity. Moreover, borrowing words from a particular language supports bilinguals in achieving code-switching in situations in which switching is required. In schools, as in any other common institution, language is used as a vital tool to establish a strong connection between teachers and students as well as to give learners knowledge. Young children are not like older children with regards to code-switching because each level of student has a different ability to do more or less alternating in their conversation. Although code-switching is absent in most formal places, it is more common in informal relationships.

Certainly, code-switching often takes place in bilingual families because the family is the first environment in which children start learning how to produce expressions or simple words for speaking. Also, the parents in the family have a significant effect by code-switching during conversations with their children. The use of two languages in the same conversation by bilingual children is problematic because they are not familiar with the correct grammatical structure of the second language they are obtaining. Naturally, the most common place where code-switching has a great effect and works frequently is in educational institutions. This essay focuses on why bilingual speakers code-switch and in what places bilinguals do it. Also, this paper highlights the main functions of code-switching.

1.2. Background of the study

Crowcroft (2012: 787) has argued that globalization has had a reasonable impact on most languages in societies. Bilingualism, as an important aspect of language, has also been affected by globalization. Through the connections between individual bilinguals, cultural relationships have improved because language is an effective feature that can produce strong connections between nations. Certainly, technology can also be selected as a key factor in improving languages because technological improvements have been provided by globalization. Gollan et al (2009: 92) has made the point that the natural mental systems in human mind support human ability to react with one particular language or two languages in speaking. It is difficult for human to access languages easily without getting instructions from their minds. Therefore, bilinguals minds have a great effect on representing two languages separately or alternating between the two during speaking. In addition, it is not simple for bilinguals to come across all the phonological rules of the second language that they use during conversation because they are not fully familiar with all the phonological systems of the other language. However, bilingual children have a distinctive ability

to learn new languages and switch between them after growing up as compared to bilingual adults because they developed strong mental systems in accessing two languages as bilingual children. Moreover, Freedman (2008: 506) has argued that working with more than one language at the same time using correct grammar is more likely to indicate better performance. When bilingual speakers can store linguistic information in their brain completely it leads to them being able to manage language variations in conversation successfully. Thus, the power of individual language proficiency could demonstrate human productivity in language use. While speakers have a lack of language proficiency, they cannot solve the main problems in utilizing the second language words or expressions in order to express their speech. Language experts have realized that using more than one or two languages to express ideas among communicators is vital because it leads to acceptance of different thoughts.

Hoffmann (1991: 109) has asserted that code-switching, as one of the potential features of bilingual utterance, has a reasonable effect on reactions between two or more bilingual speakers. When bilinguals cannot speak each language properly or keep both languages apart, code-switching can clearly be found in their communication. Similarly, Heredia and Altarriba (2001: 165) highlighted the point that proficiency in the second language is crucial for bilingual speakers; if bilingual speakers lack this ability they will try to utilize the word in the other language that they are more familiar with, like Spanish and English speakers when they do not have formal knowledge about a particular language. Also, Hoffmann (1991: 109) has argued that the groups who mainly change the style of language they use are immigrant groups in various countries in the world. Certainly, refugees are not fully familiar with the first language of the nations that they settle in after immigration, which is why code-switching can be identified in the immigrant individuals speech; for instance, in a group of Hispanic individuals in the United States of America who have come from outside and lived in the USA as refugees. In the same way, Sridhar (1996: 48) has noticed that migration is one of the factors that have had a great impact on establishing bilingual societies. Bilinguals naturally do code-switch in their speech when they communicate with other bilingual speakers or one of their fellow native speakers, and code-switching has become an acceptable phenomenon in society.

Furthermore, Erwin-Billonos (2012: 31) has argued that bilinguals using more than one language in a conversation or a piece of writing in a multicultural area count as a great communicative technique as it preserves the relationships between cultures as well as identities. Through the connection between two or more individuals from different cultures, code switching simply takes place in their speech and makes individuals understand each other more easily. Probably, when speakers in different cultures perform the new language they used to behave with it as the second language.

Heredia and Altarriba (2001: 164) explained that bilinguals find it difficult to organize two languages in their memory, which causes them to mix the two languages in the communicative process. Sometimes substitution of phrases happens, rather than single words, when bilinguals communicate with other native or non-native speakers. For example, the Spanish sentence “Dame unahamburguesa sin LETTUCE porfavor” in English means “Give me a hamburger without LETTUCE please” – the English word ‘lettuce’ may be used by a Spanish bilingual instead of the original Spanish term. This substitution between these two various sentences represent the integration between Spanish and English language linguistically. However, working with these kinds of sentence that contain foreign words or phrases take readers more time compared to

sentences that are free from non-native words. When these words are substituted with other foreign words, the grammatical structure of the sentences favors the second language's grammar rules. Hence, the receiver could not understand the exact meaning of the sentence. For instance, when there is a sentence with words from both the French and English languages, the speaker code-switching with French words in the English sentence probably utilizes the French grammatical structure in the sentence. Heller (1992: 124) mentioned that alternating languages in communication is one of the crucial devices used by bilinguals for interacting and speaking, although not commonly used in society. Code switching is a clear phenomenon among bilingual speakers in Malaysian society; it takes place in both formal and informal written texts and communications. Wardraugh (1998: 103) has described that bilinguals practice code switching subconsciously when they try to deal with particular subjects that are ambiguous and difficult to explain to other individuals.

Furthermore, Wei (1998: 156) has claimed that code switching is an unconscious action that is used by most bilinguals because they feel that alternating languages is the best way to achieve their aim in speaking. Moreover, Shin (2002: 337) has argued that borrowing words from a particular language supports speakers in expressing their feelings, needs and ideas as they wish. Perhaps there is no language in the world that is free from foreign words; a possible reason for this is the code switching of bilinguals, which utilizes foreign elements in their speech. A good illustration for that is the use of the word 'democracy' by a Kurdish politician in Kurdistan (north of Iraq) when discussing a political issue. The word 'democracy' is originally a French word and in this case it was borrowed by the Kurdish language. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005: 235) argued that code-switching in schools has a reasonable effect on teaching in various classrooms because learners as members of the community have two different languages, which are their mother tongue and the second language used in the school by instructors. Therefore, code switching can be defined as a powerful strategy for teaching and developing the knowledge of receivers. Breadsmore (1982: 44) has explained that many words or bilinguals use expressions that have foreign origins; these transferred words are more integrated with bilinguals speech. This integration simply reflects in bilingual utterances because they feel more confident when speaking in a conversational group.

In addition, Reyes (2004: 79) has asserted that younger children use more lexical items in their speech compared to older children at school. The reason behind that is that younger bilingual children code-switch when they are not familiar with most of the lexical items in the second language. In contrast, older children utilize fewer foreign words in learning with or reacting to other learners, depending on the situational demands. For example, in some special schools in the Kurdistan region in which English is the main teaching language, young students use Kurdish words more than older learners in order to manage their study properly. It is clear that learners who are older in age do less code-switching in their speech than younger learners because there are some specific words in the second language that are difficult for them to understand. Hoffmann (1991: 113) has claimed that code-switching frequently occurs in informal communication between two or more speakers who are close friends or educational classmates. In contrast, in formal situations, like schools, bilinguals commonly avoid code-switching and try to keep up standard language use because of the prestige that is available in formal institutions.

Moodley and Kamwangamalu (2010: 187) mentioned that teachers could use code-switching as a powerful technique to fulfill the main goals of teaching English literature; in fact, instructors are

likely to already do code-switching orally or in written contexts. Through code switching, students can more easily engage with the complexities of characters and emotions. Also, the alternate parts in speaking language help learners to think creatively and critically and to make evaluations in simple way.

In addition, Nicoladis (2000: 4) has explained that bilingual children code-switch in early development when they communicate with other bilinguals by selecting the appropriate vocabulary from the second language. Certainly, parents have a great role in their children's code switching by modeling the most preferred and appropriate choice of language. However, sometimes parents persuade their children to avoid language mixing or do it only in some situations. For instance, in a family with a French-German bilingual son, the son tried to avoid code switching because his father avoided frequent code switching and directed his son to also reduce the rate of his use of foreign vocabulary in his speech.

In contrast, if parents show their understanding of all lexis that their children utilize, this acceptance will encourage children to improve in code switching. For example, most Kurdish parents who have sent their children to international schools where the English language is chiefly practiced, some parents support their children when they code-switch outside classes; however, some students are restricted by their parent's language choice at home. Furthermore, Harris (1995: 462) has argued that the environment and society have significant effects on bilingual children code-switching. When the language used by immigrant parents is different from the language used in the society, the children normally learn the local language as their main language so as to communicate with their peers. Perhaps when bilingual children use their family language to talk to other individuals in the society they cannot be understood properly. For example, most Kurdish families emigrate from Kurdistan to Europe countries for different reasons; Kurdish children usually use the foreign language that is used in the new societies in order to communicate with other students at school.

Similarly, Harding and Riley (1986: 57) asserted that children could express their emotions and feelings at a very early age in an understandable way within their families. Code-switching has become a very common phenomenon in bilingual families because when bilingual children cannot find the correct expression or word in the language they are speaking in they find another word from the other language in order to continue speaking. Moreover, sometimes it is difficult for younger bilinguals to remember all the words in one language.

Meisel (1994: 413) has claimed that, despite code-switching being a common phenomenon in societies, a number of problems have appeared with bilingual children because sometimes children are not familiar with certain grammatical developments within code-switching. Therefore, most children cannot code-switch successfully and adequately and may change the meaning of speech to the opposite of what they intend. For instance, when a three-year-old bilingual child mixes languages he or she may utilize the wrong foreign word in communication, leading to misunderstanding by listeners.

It is interesting to mention that bilinguals may also code-switch in a group discussions so as to include or exclude other speakers from the conversation group. The reason behind this alternation may be to hide an important issue from the others or sometimes bilinguals wish to create confusion in other participants. Yasin (2011: 2) has proved that phenomenon by asking sixteen different questions to students aged 14–16 from two private schools in Amman. Consequently, the

investigator found that students code-switch for different purposes; one of the main reasons is to involve or exclude other participants in their conversation.

As a consequence, it can be said that bilinguals do code-switch when they cannot keep two together in conversations at the same time. Immigrant groups code-switch because they are not fully engaged with the new local language. Schools are the most popular places that code-switching takes place in learners and teachers communications. The main reason behind that is that through code-switching students can learn much better, especially in primary schools in which young bilingual children have a lack of language proficiency. Moreover, bilingual families normally do code-switch inside and outside the home because they change their language in speaking unconsciously. By the way, parents have a great impact on the use of code-switching by their children from a young age.

1.3. Hypothesis of the study

It is quite clear that large numbers of previous authors and researchers had underlined the bilingual's ability to do code switch without difficulties. Also, bilinguals can hardly ever exclude code switching in their communicational groups.

1.4. The scope of the study

This paper is mainly aimed to deal with bilingual's ability to do code switch in multicultural communicative group. The place and reasons behind code switching process with bilingual speakers are other ranges of this study.

1.5. The purpose of the study

The major purpose of the study is to examine the most effective functions of doing code switch with bilinguals. And indicating those effective factors that have a great effect on this process of code switching in multicultural societies.

2. 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- Do bilinguals code switch?
- 2- What are the functions of doing code switch?
- 3- Where do bilinguals code switch?
- 4- Is code switching counted as a common feature with bilingual communicative groups?

2.1. The significance of the study

In this field of study, researchers tried to observe bilingual's aim to do different types of code switching that hopefully served sociolinguistic field. However, reasons behind doing code switch and situations have not been counted before by any researchers. In this study, the functions of doing code switch are investigated which are performed by bilingual speakers.

3. Evaluating, results and discussion

English language probably has been hospitable to other words from different languages in the world such as French and German. During the decade (1930-1940) English language had borrowed many terms from French language as a foreign tongue. Perhaps this event made many changes happen to English language, because it could be seen clearly in English utters as well as dictionaries. There is no doubt about that there are many reasons behind borrowing new terms from French language. Certainly the Second World War in 1939 was one of the reasons that cause word transformations between these two fundamental languages because great interactions had happened between France and England. Cultural French terms were another type of loanwords in English vocabularies; due to integrations between individuals from each culture many new terms and expressions could be found in English language as a target language. Normally cultures are one of the most attractive factors, which have a great effect on exchanging terms between nations. Moreover, trade was another reason for transferring French trade terms to English language particularly during that decade because through importing or exporting equipment between France and England had produced a special relationship between the two various speakers. Media has realized as another factor that made borrowing words from non-native sources. French films and programs with subtitles made French words used by English utters because presenting foreign films were very popular.

Sometimes these new French terms naturalized and behaved as original in spelling, pronouncing as well as meaning because most of the borrowed words were nouns and treated as a noun in second language. On the other hand some words had completely changed after transforming and become one of English terms.

Beside French language German language had an agreeable influence on English language by using German terms in English community during (190-1940). Many linguistic experts introduced German language as a sister to English because there were strong relationship between these those two global languages in the history. As it has been mentioned before the contribution of German loanwords had taken place due to several reasons. Political and geological reasons had made words transferred from German religion to English language in

1930s, because in 1934 Hitler declared himself as a leader of German country and wanted to establish a great empire through the entire world. Many changes had occurred to German loanwords in structure and sounds of German loanwords chiefly because of differentiation between Germanic and English alphabets. *OED* online dictionary has provided many loanwords related to science and education, through new discoveries by German scientists and passed to English with the same spelling, pronunciations and meanings.

Depending on *OED* online dictionary less French loanwords had been poured to English language in 1930s as compared to German loanwords and most of loanwords were nouns.

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Discourse of Inciting Iraqis on Suicide Bombings in Osama bin Laden's Speech on 11 February 2003: A Critical Discourse Analysis

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the persuasive discourse of the former leader of al-Qaeda, Osama bin Laden which encourages Iraqis to willingly commit terrorism in its form of suicide bombings. Osama bin Laden delivered a speech on 11 February 2003 to the Iraqi people consisting of a sixteen minute-long audiotape and broadcast by al-Jazeera channel. In 2003, it became apparent that the United States of America seconded by Britain were preparing to invade Iraq and overthrow the Ba'ath regime. The researcher focuses on the examination of macro- and micro- semantic structures of bin Laden's selected speech and his ideology. The researcher adopts van Dijk's (1980; 1998) theories of Semantic Macrostructures and Ideological Square respectively. These theories operate at two levels of analysis: linguistic and ideological. The themes in the selected speech are analysed at the macro-level of analysis. Meanwhile, at the micro-level of analysis, syntax, lexicon, rhetoric, presupposition, implicature, and speech acts are examined. These phases of analysis reveal the ideological dichotomy of in-group and out-group in his discourse. The findings at the macro level of bin Laden's speech uncover the Semantic Macrostructure which could be structured as "inciting Iraqis to defeat the Western power and its allies and defend their country by using suicide bombing". Therefore, the Semantic Macrostructure has the same overall theme that is inciting his followers to commit suicide bombings. At the micro level of analysis, bin Laden used syntactic structures, lexical structures, rhetorical structures, presuppositions, implicatures and speech acts that are consistent with the concluded global theme which stands for the Super Semantic Macrostructure. This is confirmed by the use of negative and positive lexicons, war and military words which in turn can motivate his followers to commit terrorist acts. Therefore, the use of the negative and positive lexicons enhances the ideological representations of bin Laden to positively represent the in-group as victims and defenders and to negatively represent the out-group as assailants and oppressors.

Key words: Critical discourse analysis, ideology, Osama bin Laden, semantic macrostructures, suicide bombings

1. Introduction

On 11 September 2001, a series of devastating suicidal attacks were targeted at World Trade Towers and the Pentagon in the United States of America. These attacks were well coordinated through transforming a simple aircraft filled with fuel into a weapon of mass destruction combining a

hijacking with a suicide bomb (Desai, 2007; Holloway, 2008). After these attacks, the suspicion fell on al-Qaeda and its leader, Osama bin Laden. Since then, the United States declared a war against Islamic terrorist groups; this vindicates a new era of struggle between the United State of America and al-Qaeda. Blanchard (2007) surmised that, through al-Qaeda's released speeches, the vision and scope of self-declared conflict with the United States was expanded to include the killing of American civilians and military worldwide. Having a jihadist thought and ideology, al-Qaeda was known as the main jihadist terror group which has been committing violent acts. Thus, al-Qaeda leaders' religious exegesis in their speeches was possibly the true source for motivating and instructing Muslims to trigger the conflict against the United States and its allies (Ibrahim, 2007). Due to the fact that the Muslims believe that they will be rewarded in the Hereafter, the religious speech of the al-Qaeda leaders has almost a significant effect on the Muslim communities. An example of using religious terms is bin Laden's description of the Americans and the Europeans as infidels and Islam's enemies. Accordingly, bin Laden described al-Qaeda's actions against the West as jihad (Holy War) and called every Muslim to take part in this war. This, according to Blanchard (2007), encourages future terrorist operations such as "martyrdom operations", or suicide attacks which are regarded as the most substantial impediment for the United States' actions.

The use of peculiar violence was upheld by composing a discourse that vindicates its violent tactics used and more importantly promotes beliefs, attitudes, myths and ideologies which produced an overwhelming persuasion of the adherents' groups of the terrorism in terms of *Self* and *Other* (Schmid, 2014). With the continuous spate of terrorist attacks in the globe, researchers have shown great interest in the study of political discourses particularly discourse of terrorism (Chukwu, Okeke & Chinedu-Okon, 2014). This research aims at providing macro and micro analyses along with the ideological analysis. However, the researcher observes that scholars did not pay much attention to the persuasive discourse of Osama bin Laden as an important factor in determining the power of violence in its form of terrorism and inciting his recruiters to engage in violent acts. Thus, the critical discourse analysis (CDA) of bin Laden's speech is conducted by the researcher in order to provide a linguistic analysis of the speech with an interdisciplinary approach.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Al-Qaeda and Suicide Bombings

Bin Laden's death does not necessarily assure the death of his violent ideology. It may still be used to harness individuals more effectively and instigate extra terrorist attacks. Thus, this may make al-Qaeda ideology survive longer (Beutel & Ahmed, 2011). Therefore, al-Qaeda's leaders believe that the violence is the main way in its Jihad to establish Islamic governments that operate independently of infidels and Western hegemony. Thus, it was dubbed a terrorist organisation by most of the international community because it outwardly rejects peaceable solutions to the conflict (Gunaratna, 2005). In order to deem a terrorist organisation as a threat, it must be considered to have the ability to 1) kill via an attack; 2) deliberately kill foreign persons; 3) target guarded objectives; and 4) synchronise numerous attacks (Cragin & Daly, 2004, p.14-18). Applying this framework to many terrorist groups, they concluded that al-Qaeda represented the most serious threat on the West.

According to Jackson (2005a), the imbalance of power between the terrorist groups and the armies they fight is an important motive for committing suicide attacks. As an example of his assumption, Jackson said: "In Iraq, suicide attacks are most often the only real option for insurgents

fighting against the world's most powerful military" (p.8). Jackson neglected that most of the suicide attacks that took place in Iraq has been targeting Iraqi innocent people, not the American armed troops.

Some suicide attacks, according to Jackson (2005a), are motivated by a desire for revenge. This was illustrated by Osama bin Laden, who mentioned reasons beside the religious hatred, for killing civilian people. In a letter to the American people in November 2002, bin Laden said:

The American people are the ones who fund the attacks against us, and they are the ones who oversee the expenditure of these monies in the way they wish, through their elected candidates. Also the American army is part of the American people. It is this very same people who are shamelessly helping the Jews fight against us. The American people are the ones who employ both their men and their women in the American forces which attack us....Allah, the Almighty, legislated the permission and the option to take revenge. ... And whoever has killed our civilians, and then we have the right to kill theirs.

Bin Laden's claim could have had some credibility if al-Qaeda's terrorist actions have restricted to the American territories and people, but targeting civilian people provides clear evidence that al-Qaeda is a terrorist network seeking to spread terror among people. Thus, al-Qaeda cannot claim that the civilians who were killed in its terrorist operations in Morocco, Algeria, Iraq, Pakistan, Indonesia and many other countries have funded western attacks against Muslim peoples or territories. This was also supported by al-Shaibani (2011), who provided lots of evidence that al-Qaeda in Iraq is almost responsible for the death of many civilians in Iraq. He stated that al-Qaeda in Iraq does not only target civilians, but also intends to ignite a civil war. In the case of post – 2003, as Weinberg and Pedahzur (2010) contended, al-Qaeda in Mesopotamia targeted people in sacred sites and worshippers. This can apparently be explained in reference to the suicide attack in 2005 on a marketplace in Musayyib, a town 40 miles south of Baghdad. The Musayyib bombing caused the death of 60 persons at least and 80 injuring and also destroying many of buildings including a mosque where people were at their way out after their evening prayers. Subsequently, even Abu Musab al-Zarqawi's (the former leader of al-Qaeda in Iraq) spiritual advisor (Maqdesi) declined the use of suicide terrorism and criticised al-Zarqawi because the attack killed more Iraqi civilians than American and Coalition soldiers (Kapel & Millelli, 2008).

Al-Qaeda called such suicide attacks 'martyr attacks', and the death of the individual that commits such attacks 'martyrdom' *istishhad* (self-sacrifice). This is due to the fact that suicide is definitively forbidden in Islam. The forbiddance is based on the Quranic verse (2: 195): "Make not your own hands contribute to (your) destruction". The verse (2: 207) of the same chapter, however, states that "And there is the type of man who gives his life to earn the pleasure of Allah". This type of man is that who commits suicide attack for Allah's cause (Calawy, 2009). The term to be used to describe such a person who sacrifices himself for the sake of Allah is *shahid* (martyr) in Arabic.

Schweitzer (2010) stated that the construction of al-Qaeda's organisational ethos was based on the voluntary self-sacrifice which translated into practice through suicide bombings to entrench the concept of *istishhad* among its followers and recruiters. As such, bin Laden encouraged the members of the organisation through offering provocative messages which aim to follow this path because the suicide attacks are effective in instilling fear in the enemy "to be diligent in performing suicide missions: these missions, thank God, have become a great source of enemy terror and fear [...]. These are the most important actions" (bin Laden, as quoted in Blanchard, 2007, p.10). Referring to himself, bin Laden said: "I do not fear death. On the contrary, I desire the death of a martyr. My martyrdom would lead to the birth of thousands of Osamas". Bin Laden's underlying message of the glorification of self – sacrifice was considered as a motto of *ishtishhadists*: "We love death more than our enemies

love life". Thus, bin Laden succeeded in inscribing the *ishtishhad* ethos in many members of al-Qaeda and convincing them to take an action and losing physical life on this earth in favor of the pure everlasting afterlife (Schweitzer & Ferber, 2005; Schweitzer, 2010). Thus, according to bin Laden, death as a martyr is highly elevated impetus to carve the caliphate of Islam and to influence the others to follow. Osama bin Laden reached out to young Islamic persons by encouraging them via *istishhad* to represent Allah's way. In Saudi Arabia, in May 2003, an attacker of the al-Qaeda terrorist group reiterated the passage which assured the gratification of the Garden of Eden. The promised rewards that bin Laden echoed in one of his speeches were the recurrent themes which play an important role in attracting many young people to self-sacrifice (Cook & Allison, 2007). Thus, the beginnings of indoctrination towards sacrificing life for the sake of Islam take the form of emotional-religious persuasion by charismatic, greatly influential leaders such as bin Laden, al-Zawahri, and al-Zarqawi and the other allies in the worldwide. In doing so, al-Qaeda's leaders used modern communication media to disseminate its concepts and among them is the concept of *istishhad* in the path of Allah and to gain its strategic goals (Schweitzer & Ferber, 2005).

2.2 Discourse

Brown and Yule (1983), Fairclough (1989; 1995a), and van Dijk (1997) viewed discourse as a form of *language in use*. This indicates, as Mcenery and Hardie (2012) urged that discourse is not merely a group of sentences, a text or a class of texts, but a *practice*: "a characteristic type of language use found in a group of texts or at large in the language of a community" (p.133). Likewise, Simpson and Mayr (2010) mentioned that discourse refers to the operation of the forms of language including grammar and meaning in a wider social and culture arenas. Van Dijk (1997) extended such a common-sense definition to include functional aspect that is of the communicative event. As such, the term discourse is primarily interpreted as a verbal product of a communicative act. Thus, people use language to communicate beliefs and ideas, to express emotions, and to interact. Fairclough (1995a; 2003) contended that discourse – language use in text and talk – is a form of *social practice*. In this regard, Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) viewed discourse as socially constructed knowledge of reality. They argued that different discourses contain different perspectives of the world, and associated with different relations people have with the world.

Discourse, as a socially consequential practice, can also bring about important issues of power. Power is a social phenomenon and continuously needs to be legitimated; language is the milieu of legitimation (Jackson, 2005b). This was confirmed by Hodges and Nilep (2007) who argued that language is used "to create meanings; and the process of meaning making is inherently political in that it is imbued with relations of power that come together to manoeuvre, contest and negotiate the meanings at stake" (p.2). Therefore, scholars such as Fairclough (1992), van Dijk (1997; 2001), and Wodak (2001) contended that discourse is not only a social practice, but also a political practice. Discourse, as a political practice, can establish and change power relations in any community or group. Therefore, discourse in this sense is a pillar in power struggle in which the discursive practice draws upon conventions that govern the adoption of particular power relations and ideologies which hence represent the essence of power (Fairclough, 1992). To conclude, discourse can be studied as a social practice with particular emphasis on larger units such as paragraphs, utterances, whole texts or genres. This practice does not only represent the world, but also constitute and construct the world in meaning (Hodges & Nilep, 2007).

2.3 Previous Studies on Al-Qaeda Leaders' Speeches

In this section, the researcher undertakes a review of the literature pertaining to bin Laden's speeches to underpin the current research. These studies have reviewed some of the linguistic and ideological features of al-Qaeda and LTTE discourses to obtain a better understanding of the main points catalysed by their leaders. Chilton (2004), for example, employed a three-dimensional analytical model to analyse of two speeches, the first delivered by Bush II and the second by bin Laden. This model encapsulates Chilton's hypotheses on language use by politicians and is focused primarily on linguistic deixis with particular emphasis on the contextual implications of time, place and mode. Chilton concluded that political language and religious beliefs are intertwined. This conclusion, then, led him to investigate the process of persuasion in the same texts in terms of the presuppositions implied in particular speech acts and the role that these two actors used to represent a divided world. He examined discourse from a cognitive perspective as it focused on the presuppositions of specific speech acts and the implications exacerbated by the use of specific analogies and metaphors. He noted that bin Laden used a religious language in defending suicide bombers who, as he believed, will be granted Paradise, and that attacking his enemies by asking God to mete the hypocrites. Likewise, George Bush asked God to bless those who died and thanked God for promising the Hereafter. In this regard, Chilton pointed out that both speakers assumed clerical authority: while bin Laden assumed he is the delegate of God, Bush II assumed a priestly role. Thus, in this way both speakers have approximately the same belief systems.

These religious references utilised in bin Laden's speeches can represent the ideological dichotomy of *Us* versus *Them*. This ideological representation has been studied using Membership Categorisation Analysis (MCA), notably by Leudar, Marsland and Nekvapil (2004) in their analysis of the speeches of bin Laden, Bush II, and Blair after 11 September 2001 attacks. They showed that each speaker distinguishes *Us* from *Them* and formulates this dichotomic representation to pave the way for justifying the violent attacks in the future. Therefore, they concluded that these polarised categorisations may contain more sub-categories made in the communicative acts of these leaders. They also concluded that Bush II and Blair both distinguish *Us* from *Them* in terms of political, social and moral aspects: whereas bin Laden emphasised this kind of dichotomic representation through utilising specific religious expressions.

In the same vein, Garbelman (2007) analysed the war on terrorism discourse delivered by Bush II and bin Laden to construct the existence of in-group and out-group. This study sought to examine the use of language by these leaders to express meaning and define powerful symbols to attain certain goals and justify their actions. Therefore, this implicitly meets the organisational strategies used to take an action on behalf of their goals to structure and maintain their communities. This was done through adopting Carspecken's Critical Ethnographic method as well as Habermas's theory of communicative action to analyse some communicative acts such as anger, violence, manipulation, and struggles for power.

Using an integrated model including the discourse-historical approach, metaphor analysis, and membership categorisation analysis, Bhatia (2007) analysed the discourse of illusion in selected speeches delivered by Bush II and bin Laden. Bhatia's purpose was to scrutinise the manipulation of the rhetorical and linguistic devices utilised by these two actors to influence their in-group members whereby they depict their individual representations of reality as true and objective. Bhatia's study gave some insights into the persuasive rhetorical and linguistic devices used by both speakers. Bhatia's conclusion seemed consistent with Chilton (2004) and Leudar, Marsland and Nekvapil's (2004) findings that religion and politics are interrelated representing in-group vs. out-group dichotomy. In

examining aspects of religion and ideology put forth in the speeches of Ayman al-Zawahiri, the new leader of al-Qaeda, Rowland and Theye (2008) undertook a rhetorical analysis of discourse. Al-Qaeda asserted its war on the democracies of the Western world and advocated aggressive jihad, using particular modes of communication. Acts of violence, including the killing of innocents, can be justified through the application of this mythic pattern.

Kilmes (2010) employed Kenneth Burke's dramatisitic approach in a further illustration of how ideological discourse can influence the rhetoric of war. In her examination of speeches on terrorism from three key leaders – bin Laden, Bush II, and Bhutto– Kilmes showed how Kenneth Burke's approach works to expose the theoretical framework within which the discourse occurs. She further attempted to effectively reveal the motives of the speakers that are concealed behind the text. Kilmes found that bin Laden had a way of using language within this format to influence the view of social reality formed by his listeners. Bin Laden additionally employed binary terminology in his War on Terror rhetoric, using opposing terms such as Us and Them to provide his followers with a clearly defined counter-position.

The use of strategically violent and radical discourse to rally and organise Muslim youths susceptible to the idea of implementing acts of extreme violence towards the west and its apostate allies, was examined by Cheong and Halverson (2010). They studied key texts written between 1 January 1996 and 5 August 2009 by al-Qaeda's leaders. The texts numbered approximately two hundred and ninety. They accorded specific attention to a rhetorical study of references made to the youths in these writings, in response to concerns over the representations of young people in violent extremist dialogues. Cheong and Halverson used the Membership Categorical Analysis (MCA) in their studies of the texts. This method provides a set of tools designed to examine the selection of social categories employed in discourse and to analyse the conditions and the resultant effects of this selection. The study concluded that performance of violent actions such as martyrdom was influenced by manipulating discourse in favour of the group's goals.

He concluded that the violence vocabularies such as *mortar fire, wounded, killed, went off, bombs, blasts, attacks, operation, explosion, detonated, blown-up, targeted, and injured* are prominent in the corpus because al-Qaeda began its own campaign of violence in Iraq against the new regime and its Iraqi supporters in the immediate aftermath of a declaration from the US that the war in Iraq was over in May 2003. In addition, the BBC texts reflected a new group of ideology formed around positive in-group actions designed to protect the new political and social freedoms in Iraq, and resistance to negative out-group actions against the Iraqi people in the form of violent acts such as suicide attacks.

Muqit (2012) analysed bin Laden's speech *The Wind of Faith* delivered on October 7, 2001 focusing on the ideology and power relations. He examined the discursive practice in which ideology and power relations are embedded including the use of pronouns. To do so, he employed Fairclough's (1989) three dimensional approach with Halliday's Systematic Functional Linguistics to explore the ideology and power relations within the social practice. These relations, Muqit concluded, have been denoted by various usages. Bin Laden attributed the good things to himself and his group through the use of pronouns *I, we, and our*, meanwhile, pronouns *them, they, their, its* and *it* were ascribed to the United States and its people. In this regard, bin Laden's ideology is of two types: divinity and political. Alongside this, bin Laden's three different power relations are connected with God, United States, and other Muslims. On the other hand, Schmid (2014) studied the ideology of al-Qaeda which is communicated narratively. The ideology provides an all-encompassing structure of clarifications and reasons which enables its followers to identify a fulfilling depiction of the world together with their role within it. Thus, it seeks to promote the notion of self and provides significance to life. A

fundamental aspect to the al-Qaeda ideology is to encourage and inspire young Muslims to join its cause. The notion of a global jihad is based and pursued upon injustice, the dream of a good community, martyrdom, takfir and opposition between different cultures and people. As a result, the unselective violence used by al-Qaeda is based upon the narrative of its ideology which promotes its tactics, validates its violence, furthers its concepts and acquires new followers.

In her analysis of the discursive techniques employed by bin Laden, Taylor (2013) focused on three keynote speeches made by bin Laden on 7 October 2001, 30 October 2004 and 19 January 2006 positioning them in a chronological order to characterise the particular modes of persuasion they exhibited. In her conclusion, Taylor noted that bin Laden's language and style were not overtly hostile or aggressive in nature, despite the inclusion of numerous threats aimed directly at the US. It appeared that the reinforcement of the justification for war was the primary objective of bin Laden's rhetoric in his messages directed to US audience, and he utilised different discursive techniques to facilitate the transmission of these messages.

2.4 Background to Critical Discourse Analysis

In 1979 a critical approach to the study of language so called Critical Linguistics (henceforth CL) was developed by a group of linguists and literary theorists such as Gunther Kress, Robert Hodge, Roger Fowler, and Tony Trew in their work *Language and Control* (al-Shaibani, 2011). This approach is chiefly reliant on using concepts and methods associated with the theory of Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) developed by Halliday. The Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a linguistic theory associated with analytical methods, and profoundly concerned with the relationship between language and aspects of social life (Fairclough, 2003). Consequently, CL sought to show how language and grammar can be utilised as ideological instruments for the categorisation and classification of the world (Machin & Mayr, 2012).

Critical linguistics has been criticised because it lacks the link between language, power and ideology (Fairclough, 1992). That is, practitioners of CL attempted to synthesise language studies and social theory without discussing social theory and the concepts of ideology and power. Thus, this link could be better captured by the critical discourse analysts who sought to develop methods and approaches to describe the practices and conventions in texts that uncover political and ideological speculation (Machin & Mayr, 2012). Hence, the theory of critical discourse analysis (henceforth CDA) emerged in the early 1990s. CDA is seen as an approach that contains different methods and perspectives for studying the connection between discourse and social context (Weiss & Wodak, 2003). This indicates that there are different approaches and methods such as Fairclough's dialectical-relational approach, van Dijk's socio-cognitive approach, and Wodak's discourse-historical approach. They represent instances of theoretically and analytically miscellaneous approaches in the analysis of discourse (van Dijk, 2001). However, CDA does not have a unitary theoretical framework (Reisigl & Wodak, 2009). Thus, CDA has evolved as an interdisciplinary branch of linguistics, composed of a range of approaches with the basic ideological assumptions and orientation that constitutes social relations.

CDA is a critical approach because it is based on the ideas of the theories of Western Marxism and especially of the social and political thoughts of different scholars as Althusser, Gramsci and Frankfurt which take into account the historical contexts of discursive interactions and link the linguistic and social structures (Titscher, Wodak, Meyer & Vetter, 2000). In this regard, Wodak (2001) mentioned that the notion of 'critical' inherent in CDA should be understood as an extension from the analysis of texts to the social and political contexts in which the texts emerge. Another clarification

was provided by Fairclough (1992) who argued that ‘critical’ implies the hidden connections and causes within a text. Therefore, CDA mainly deals with the analysis of the opaque and evident structural relationships of dominance and power as exhibited in language (Fairclough, 1989; Wodak & Meyer, 2001; 2009). Thus, CDA is a critical approach focusing on the multidimensional role of language in the production as well as the challenging of power relations and ideologies (Tolson & Ekstrom, 2014).

Ultimately, CDA is not only concerned with language and linguistic structure, but also with the relationship between language use and the social contexts it is situated in (Machin & Mayr, 2012). Accordingly, language is a social practice, that is, language shapes society and it is also shaped by society (Fairclough, 1995). Moreover, critical discourse analysis attempts to relate language to social and political contexts (van Dijk, 1995a; 2001). This is so because the aim of CDA is explicitly political (Johnstone, 2002). Thus, CDA draws particular attention to the discursive relationship in text and talk and the wider socio-political contexts and changes in society (Wodak, 2001; 2009). This is also stated by van Dijk (2001) who defined CDA as “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (p.352). In the same vein, Wodak and Richardson (2013) contended that critical discourse analysis takes into account detailed analysis of the social, political and cultural factors as well as the significance of ideas and arguments. In addition to the study of these factors, it is also necessary to recognise what the discourse relates to in the past (Titscher et al., 2000). Therefore, CDA analysts also viewed discourse as historical. Thus, CDA aims not only to facilitate a better understanding of social life and socio – political and historical issues, but also to investigate these issues from a critical perspective (Fairclough, 1992; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

From the discussion above, it is concluded that critical discourse analysis is a distinct approach because of the nature of the problems that it deals with which are known to be different in principle from those studies. More importantly, CDA investigates power and the ideological relationships hidden in the texts. However, the main reason behind choosing CDA as a method of analysis in this research is its commitment to the implementation of social change in society. Such a social change is needed and can be assisted by providing a better understanding of terrorist’s groups leading figures’ speeches, and some awareness of what lies beneath these speeches and the real message behind. Thus, social change is what differentiates CDA from other analytic methods and highlights its importance in this context.

2.5 Ideology

The term ideology was derived from *ideologues* of post-Revolutionary France and it was quickly acquired a negative sense, as the *ideologues* were accused by Napoleon of perpetrating doctrines which were responsible for the country’s misfortune. The negative connotation of the term ideology was preserved by the Germanic philosophers and socialists such as Marx and Engels (Thompson, 1984). In the Marxist view, ideology is associated with dominance and power of the ruling elites. This power and dominance that the elites possess enable them to decide what is true and acceptable in the society (van Dijk, 1998a). This Marxist view of power dominance has an influence on scholars from different disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, and social and political sciences (Thompson, 1984). For example, Kress and Hodge (1979) contended that ideology involves “a systematically organised presentation of reality” (p.6). While Lakoff (1987) believed that ideologies can help to identify the right from wrong because they are embraced by the conceptual moral system, there are still conscious and unconscious aspects of the term. The hidden and unconscious side of ideology is

the most interesting thing from Lakoff's point of view. Following the Marxist definition that ideologies are beliefs and ideas derived from a materialistic view, Fairclough (1989) defined ideology as "any social policy which is in part or whole derived from social theory in a conscious way" (p.94).

Thompson (1984) argued that the study of ideology necessitates the study of the ways in which meanings and structures can sustain the relations of domination. According to Eagleton (1991), this is probably the most widely accepted definition. Thus, the definition of ideology is connected to both power and dominance. Eagleton (1991) suggested that thoughts and values are depicted within ideology in order to promote the interests of the presiding or dominant group through the use of deformation or dissimulation. This indicates that ideology, as Hall (1996) contended, represents "the mental frameworks, the languages, concepts, categories, imagery of thoughts and systems of representation" (p.26) which people use to stabilise power and dominance. Van Dijk (1998a) agreed with Hall's (1996) definition of ideology as a mental framework of beliefs which has the cognitive and social functions to regularise social practices. However, the manner in which the mental framework informs the way individuals within various social groupings communicate and interact are elegantly explained in the ideological theory of van Dijk's (1998a). This distinguishes van Dijk's view of ideology from other views discussed above.

However, van Dijk provided extensive studies on language and ideology in relation to social cognition and political discourse. He argued that ideologies can be operated in relation to different systems of ideas with a particular emphasis on social, political or religious ideas shared by a social group (van Dijk, 2000). This view confirms that the term ideology reflects the belief of a community which has an impact on the individuals of this community. In this regard, Lemke (1995), contended that "ideology *supports* [researcher's emphasis] violence and is critically shaped by and in a context of violence in social relationships" (p.12). Ideology is a shared belief of society that has been deposited among people. Because of this, van Dijk (2000; 2006b) asserted that ideologies are formed of founding beliefs which represent a group and its people and form the foundation of its discourse and social practices. Van Dijk also believed that ideologies serve to regulate and manage not only sociocultural awareness but also collective social beliefs. Terrorists are adept at employing ideologies to promote their beliefs, to the extent that their followers are inspired to commit acts of violence, and those with racist ideologies may use discourse to influence ideas on immigration. Social ideologies can dramatically affect the way society views the role of the state, and a feminist ideology may seek to control attitudes to abortion and gender equality.

Consequently, the notion of ideology is widely used in politics and it can be embedded in language (van Dijk, 2000). In other words, language is influenced and shaped by some factors such as ideology, political beliefs and socio-cultural practices (Simpson & Mayer, 2010). Accordingly, language has a number of structures to emphasize and de-emphasize information to control opinions about in-groups and out-groups (van Dijk, 2012). Thus, the overall strategy of most ideological political discourse can be investigated through the notion of *ideological Square* which can be employed to analyse lexical, syntactic, pragmatic and rhetorical structures of political discourse (van Dijk, 1998a).

3. Theories of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

In this research, van Dijk's (1980, 1998) Semantic Macrostructures and Ideological Square are respectively employed. Therefore, the researcher provides an in-depth explanation of the basic tenets of each approach concentrating on the most relevant aspects to examine bin Laden's speeches. This

study incorporates two interrelated analytical levels, all of which are pivotal to any critical research: the textual level and the ideological level as discussed below.

3.1 Van Dijk's (1980) Semantic Macrostructures Theory

Van Dijk's theory recognises political discourse as a socio-cultural, cognitive, and linguistic phenomenon. This theory is important because it can illuminate cognition involved in political discourse offering an examination of how it is understood and analysed at the structural and textual levels (van Dijk, 1988a). Hence, van Dijk's theory provides an extensive analysis of the political discourse at various linguistic and textual levels along with the discussion and analysis at the production and comprehension levels.

Van Dijk's analysis is of twofold: macro-and micro-level analyses. On the macro-level analysis, thematic structures are examined. The thematic analysis explains the most essential themes contained in a text and is defined by van Dijk (1988b, p.72) as the "hierarchical organisation of themes or topics of a text". On the micro-level analysis, syntactic structures, lexical structures, rhetorical structures, presupposition, implicature, and speech acts are examined. These linguistic devices are dealt with in this study because they are pertinent to the research topic. Thus, the main focus is on these macro and micro structures as well as ideological representation.

3.1.1 Macro-Level Analysis

The thematic structure refers to the overall organisation of global topics of a text or talk. The thematic structures are the representation of the global content of a text or dialogue, and therefore characterise part of the meaning of a text. Thus, to understand the thematic structures, the concepts of macrostructure, proposition and macroproposition require an adequate and in-depth discussion (van Dijk, 1997).

Macrostructure is the theoretical notion used to systematise and make explicit the notion of themes (topics) of a discourse. Such themes exemplify the gist or essential information of a discourse, i.e. the global meaning of a discourse. This implies that macrostructures in discourse are semantic objects. Accordingly, these semantic structures defining texts, action, and cognition are given in terms of propositions which are defined as the conceptual meaning structure in a clause (van Dijk, 1980; Brown & Yule, 1983). Therefore, propositions as van Dijk (1988a) defined are "the smallest independent meanings constructs of language and thought.... typically expressed by single sentences or clauses" (p.31). This definition indicates that proposition cannot be isolated words to denote a concept but integrate into other propositions expressed by clauses and sentences. For example, a single concept expressed by a lexical word such as *terrorist* is not a proposition because it necessitates reference to the meaning of the sentence in which it occurs. There is a difference between the proposition *He is a terrorist* and its denial *He is not a terrorist* although they both consist of the concept of terrorist, and thus both can be considered as expressions of opinions (van Dijk, 1998b).

3.1.2 Micro-Level Analysis

Within the microstructure level, there are different structures to be discussed in detail such as syntactic, lexical, rhetorical, presupposition, implicature and speech act. These structures are chosen due to their relevance and importance in the political discourse analysis.

3.2 Van Dijk's (1998a) Theory of Ideological Square

In this section, the researcher explains van Dijk's (1998a) theory of ideology which revolves around the notion of *ideological Square*. The word Square refers to four dimensions that can elucidate and validate the existence of societal inequality and polarisation. The ideological Square includes:

- 1 Express/emphasize information that is positive about Us.
- 2 Express/emphasize information that is negative about Them.
- 3 Suppress/de-emphasize information that is positive about Them.
- 4 Suppress/de-emphasize information that is negative about Us.

These moves constitute the *ideological Square* which plays a particular role in the contextual strategy reflecting a crucial property of ideology and focusing on participants as social groups (van Dijk, 1997). In terms of political discourse, van Dijk (1998a) contended that this polarisation offers straightforward and helpful clarifications. The conflicting groups, for example, typically identify themselves in terms of a "polarisation schema defined by the opposition between Us and Them" (p.69). This is so because the use of polarisation in political discourse necessitates evaluations. Therefore, politically and ideologically based opinions and attitudes can be used to describe politicians, organisations and public figures (van Dijk, 1997). Thus, the researcher probes to what extent the ideological Square is relevant for political discourse with relation to various discourse structure levels, for example, topics, local meanings (lexicalisation), rhetoric, and speech acts. These structures aimed at revealing a speaker's specific ideology specified by positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation.

4. Data Analysis

In this section, the researcher analyses the selected speech which is entitled "To the People of Iraq". From the autumn of 2002 onwards, it became apparent that the United States of America seconded by Britain were preparing to invade Iraq and overthrow the Ba'ath regime. Five weeks before the assault was launched, bin Laden's speech on 11 February 2003 to the Iraqi people consisting of a sixteen minute-long audiotape was broadcast by al-Jazeera. Bin Laden condemned in advance the invasion of Iraq and predicted that the assault will be combined with massive air strikes and a non-stop propaganda campaign. Therefore, he encouraged the Iraqis to resist by recounting in detail the defensive tactics that enabled him and his fellow-fighters to survive the saturation bombing of their redoubts in the Tora Bora Mountains in December 2001 in Afghanistan. In addition, he stressed and called on Iraqis to carry out the martyrdom operations which have the capacity to inflict unprecedented harm on the enemy.

4.1 Macro- Level Analysis

In this speech, there are many macropropositions which can be inferred from the text and summarised to Higher-level macropropositions as shown in the following table:

Table 1. Higher-level Macropropositions

No.	Higher-level Macropropositions	Macrorules application
HM1	The US and its allies are preparing for war to occupy Iraq and to install a stooge government to follow its masters in Washington and Tel Aviv.	The main topic (A): The preparations of and its allies to invade Iraq
HM2	Unqualified war happened in Afghanistan to kill al-Qaeda's fighters by the US and its global allies.	The topic (B): Unjust war
HM3	Bin Laden attempted to transfer his experience in the battle of Tora Bora to Muslims in Iraq.	The topic (C): Trench warfare
HM4	The disguised trenches are necessary as a defensive means to neutralise the US's air force.	
HM5	The use of urban and street warfare by Muslims in Iraq will cause many human losses among the US troops.	
HM6	Bin Laden emphasised the use of martyrdom operations to inflict harm on America troops.	The topic (D): Martyrdom operations
HM7	True Muslims must motivate and mobilise the Ummah to liberate themselves from their enslavement to these oppressive ruling regimes who are supported by America.	The topic (E): Mobilising the 'Islamic nation'
HM8	Muslims in general and in Iraq in particular must prepare themselves for jihad against this unjust campaign.	
HM9	There is no harm to cooperate the socialists and al-Qaeda's troops in Iraq although the socialists are infidels.	
HM10	Bin Laden commanded Muslims to be patient in the jihad, because victory requires patience.	The topic (F): High morale
HM11	Muslims have to be steadfast and they must not be affected by the enemy's false rumors which lead to discouragement.	

The main subject includes the US preparation for war to occupy Iraq which is taken from HM1. In (HM2-HM5), bin Laden attempted to transfer his experience in Afghanistan and al-Qaeda's war with the US forces to guide Iraqis to combat the enemy in an urban and street warfare where the enemy's bombs have no specific targets. Therefore, the martyrdom operations (suicide bombings) have been emphasised as an effective means to inflict unprecedented casualties on the enemy as shown in (HM.6). The macropropositions (HM7-HM9) concern with mobilisation of Muslims in general and Iraqis in particular which would most likely lead to the adoption of jihad and the cooperation with the socialists and al-Qaeda's troops in Iraq. To do so, the macropropositions (HM10-HM11) demonstrate how Muslims are constant and patients in the path of jihad and they should not be affected by the enemy's propaganda and psychological war to the discouragement of high morale. To sum up, this process is made by reducing the irrelevant details (deletion) and constructing an overall macroproposition (construction). Therefore, the semantic macrostructure can be formulated from the final eleven higher-level macropropositions (HM1-HM11) as shown below.

Table 2. Derivation of Semantic Macrostructure

Macroproposition No.	Semantic Macrostructure	Macrorules application
HM1-HM11	The US and its allies prepared to invade Iraq, therefore, Iraq is must cooperate with socialists and follow the same path that al-Qaeda fighters adopted in Afghanistan through the use of martyrdom operations to inflict unprecedented casualties on the alliance forces.	Derive from the eleven higher-level macropropositions

As seen from the Table 2, the overall macroproposition which is the semantic macrostructure is derived from the topics covered in the speech. The semantic macrostructure ‘*The US and its allies prepared to invade Iraq, therefore, Iraqis must cooperate with socialists and follow the same path that al-Qaeda fighters adopted in Afghanistan through the use of martyrdom operations to inflict unprecedented casualties on the alliance forces*’ is comprehensive and informative as it provides a sufficient summary of the speech which might be important to the target readership. Moreover, the constructed semantic macrostructure is semantically intricate as it includes a number of complex propositions due to the complexity of the political situation in Iraq.

4.1.1 Macro analysis and Ideological Square

Ideologically, the semantic macrostructure ‘*The US and its allies prepared to invade Iraq; therefore, Iraqis must cooperate with socialists and follow the same path that al-Qaeda fighters adopted in Afghanistan through the use of martyrdom operations to inflict unprecedented casualties on the alliance forces*’ consists of threefold. As for the main event, bin Laden has severely castigated America and its allies for their intervention in Iraq’s politics particularly the American pretext to depose the Ba’ath party. On one hand, he depicted America as an invader which committed bad deeds against Iraqis. On the other hand, the semantic macrostructure refers to bin Laden as an active actor who has the power to call on jihad to defend Muslims in Iraq. Therefore, the ideological dichotomy of positive and negative representations is apparent in bin Laden’s speech. The in-group is represented by the Iraqis as defenders and guardians, thus associating with the positive features whereas the out-group is described negatively. However, through the criticism of US’s plans to invade Iraq, bin Laden has expressed his support to the resistance of the rebels maintaining the actions that the in-group should take. He justified the use of martyrdom operations (suicide attacks) due to their activity in the confrontation of al-Qaeda’s fighters against the US war on Afghanistan; therefore they are a legitimised means. Consequently, this could be a step further to join and support al-Qaeda’s political goal of massive killing to establish its caliphate. This is manifested through the use of the phrase *to inflict unprecedented casualties* which implies that the suicide attacks are active weapons to achieve goals. This places the Iraqis in a situation where they have to face the challenges of the new invasion of Iraq.

4.2 Micro-Level Analysis

4.2.1 Syntactic Structures

Example (1): Actors’ Role of In-Group and Out-Group

The in-group actors are the personal pronouns (*we* and *I*), *the forces of faith* and *Muslims in general and in Iraq in particular*. Bin Laden used the inclusive *we* as it is the most frequently occurring actor in this speech to refer to the in-group actors. It is evident in Bin Laden’s speech that the emphasis on the personal pronoun *we* implies an attempt to speak on the behalf of his audience. Thus, Bin Laden spoke not only exclusively for al-Qaeda but inclusively for his addressees. The mutual knowledge of the speaker and the interpreter of the particular context can help to distinguish between inclusive and exclusive *we*. In his address, bin Laden used the inclusive *we* to refer to himself and the Muslims much more than exclusive *we* and thus encouraging solidarity. This is bin Laden’s strategy to get commitment, share responsibility, and to create a sense of closeness and intimacy with his listeners. In addition, he shifted to use the pronoun *I* to express his personal views and opinions. Bin Laden used *I* to show his passion as a fighter and leader, in a way suggesting that he was the one who defended the Muslims’ lands although he left Afghanistan when the American troops launched the attacks on al-Qaeda’s caches. He enumerated the events happened in the battle of Tora Bora and how Muslims triumph over the American forces as if he mentioned his personal involvement in the battle. Clearly that is not the case; the mujahideen are the ones that physically defend the country’s security. However, the way of narrating the event is only a way to convey the message of being a strong and powerful leader.

The actors of out-group – animate and inanimate – are *these troops, they* (the US troops and the American defense ministry command room, with all its allies), *the American command, the bombing, the American defense ministry command room with all its allies, the planes, the American forces, bombers like the B-52, modified C-130 planes, the battle, all the forces of global evil, these (America about its power, and about its smart or laser-guided bombs) and the socialists*. The main out-group actor in bin Laden’s speech is the American forces and their allies which attempted to depose the socialist party led by Saddam Hussein under the pretext of liberating the Iraqi people from suppression. Therefore, *they* refers to the US troops and the American defense ministry command room, with all its allies and describes them in a negative way. To create the same atmosphere of invasion and war, bin Laden recalled the American war on Afghanistan with planes to shell the fighters in Tora Bora. Therefore, bin Laden used inanimate actors such as *the planes, the American forces, bombers like the B-52, modified C-130 planes and the battle* to indicate the military operations waged by the American forces against Muslims. In this way, the difference between the *Self* from *Other* was demonstrated and he put *Self* in a mostly positive image and *Other* in a negative image.

4.2.2 Lexical Structures

Example (2): Military and war lexicons

Bin Laden used military and war vocabularies to describe the situation in Afghanistan as shown in the Table 3.

Table 3. Military and war words

No.	Military and war lexicons
1.	Crusaders’ preparations for war, unjust war, American enemy, these troops, fight, Crusader enemy’s air force, battle of Tora Bora, the forces of faith, triumphed, the evil forces of materialism, trenches, we dug one hundred trenches, the bombing, intensive bombardment, warplanes flying, the American defense ministry command room, blowing

up and destroying this small area, the planes poured down their fire on us, standard missions, the American forces, barraged us, smart bombs, bombs weighing a thousand pounds, cluster bombs, bunker busters, bombers like the B-52, dropping twenty to thirty bombs, Modified C-130 planes, attacked us, modern firepower, daily attacks, defeat, carrying their dead and injured, we suffered only about 6 per cent casualties, we lost only about 2 per cent, the forces of global evil, smart or laser-guided bombs, the enemy's ammunition and resources, enemy's bomb, camouflaged defense, urban and street warfare heavy and costly human losses, martyrdom operations, inflicted unprecedented harm on America and Israel, murder of Muslims in Iraq
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As observed in the table 3, the use of military and war lexicons from the conflict between al-Qaeda's fighters and the US forces to frame current issues is demonstrated in the employment of the phrase "Crusaders' preparations for war to invade Iraq". This type of lexical words and expressions first appeared when the battle of Tora Bora was being reported and then these lexicons have been used to denote behaviour or conclusions that are considered to be dubious. Bin Laden simultaneously asserted that al-Qaeda was a defiant force that threatened the US through its provocative behaviour and also distorted and belittled the image of the US. This helped him to suggest to his audience that US forces had been defeated and that the al-Qaeda should adopt the jihad as its defensive strategy which could be aided by naive Muslims. This is most noticeable from the reference to "trench" or "urban and street warfare" which simultaneously symbolises safety and threat as well as giving a sense of direct involvement. Such a contextual imagery helps bin Laden to relate his experiences in Afghanistan to his listeners.

Although bin Laden was aware of the technological superiority of the United States which was apparently shown in the description of war in this speech, he underestimated the difficulty of fighting the United States in Iraq as did in Afghanistan. This is possibly due to the two countries' vastly different terrains, as Iraq does not have the mountains and caverns that characterise Afghanistan. He argued that it was this that unsettled the power equilibrium between the al-Qaeda and its opponents, which led to the use of martyrdom operations that caused unparalleled losses. The use of military lexicons to describe the US conflict against the al-Qaeda in Afghanistan makes the differentiation between the in-group and the out-group extremely evident. There is a tendency to describe the Muslim forces as being more skilful and adroit in contrast to the depiction of the US forces as being mindless and brutal. This image of supremacy helps bin Laden and his supporters to justify the implementation of jihad in Muslim countries.

4.2.3 Rhetorical Structures

Rhetorical strategies are used to stress the preciseness and the truthfulness of the text. The examples below examine a number of rhetorical devices used by bin Laden such as quotations, repetition and parallelism, numbers and metonymy.

Example (3): Quotations

- (A) "You who believe, be mindful of God, as is His due, and make sure you devote yourselves to Him, to your dying moment."
- (B) "God is enough for us; He is the best protector."
- (C) God Almighty said: "The believers fight for God's cause, while those who reject faith fight for an unjust cause. Fight the allies of Satan: Satan's strategies are truly weak."

- (D) God Almighty said: "You who believe! If you help God, He will help you and make you stand firm."
- (E) As God's Prophet said: "Avoid the seven deadly sins: associating others with God, sorcery, killing others, which God has forbidden unless it is just, usury, taking money from orphans, desertion, defaming innocent women believers,"
- (F) Abu al-Darda said: "Do a good deed before battle, for you fight with your deeds."
- (G) "Use the ground as a shield."
- (H) "You who believe, do not take the Jews and the Christians as allies: they are allies only to each other. Anyone who takes them as an ally becomes one of them—God does not guide such wrongdoers."
- (I) God Almighty said: "[Let them be] on their guard and armed with their weapons: the disbelievers would dearly like you to be heedless of your weapons and baggage, so that they can take you in a single assault."
- (J) As the Prophet, said: "Only he whose aim in fighting is to keep God's word supreme fights in God's cause."
- (K) God's Prophet, said: "Bring good news and do not discourage others."
- (L) He also said: "Abu Talha's voice in the army is better than a thousand men."
- (M) At the battle of Yarmuk, a man said to Khaled ibn Walid: "How many the Byzantines are, and how few the Muslims."
- (N) Khaled, may God be pleased with him, replied: "Nonsense. Armies do not triumph by having large numbers. They are only conquered by their own defeatism,"
- (O) May the words of God Almighty stay in your mind: "A prophet should not take prisoners until he has ensured his dominance in the land."
- (P) "When you meet the disbelievers in battle, strike them in the necks."
- (Q) the poet said: "All there is between you and me is the piercing of kidneys and smiting of necks."
- (R) God Almighty said: "Believers, when you meet a force in battle, stand firm and keep God firmly in mind, so that you may prosper."
- (S) "Our Lord, give us good in this world and in the Hereafter, and protect us from the torment of the Fire."

The justification on acts of terrorism performed by al-Qaeda and its followers and the generation of Muslim support depend on the manipulation of decontextualised citations from religious Islamic texts including the Quran and the Prophetic Hadith. These help to support bin Laden's ideological structure and create a religious context so that his ideals and military jihad campaign are intertwined with religious virtues that cannot be questioned. Bin Laden's speech follows an initial reading from a religious text to exaggerate this supposed connection. As such, the citations from the Quran that are used in militant Islamic propaganda provide an easily managed dataset allowing for comparisons and the search for similarities to be conducted more easily. Not all the texts that are cited are used to justify violence; nevertheless, the majority tends to be included to validate its type or magnitude. Bin Laden has used the same principles to give grounds for the terrorist acts conducted by al-Qaeda.

There are instances where the Quran has been replaced with the Hadith or informal reports that venerate Muslim martyrs to motivate the continuation of the religious conflict. These are also used to emphasise alleged victimisation in the pursuit of further support and volunteers from the "Ummah". In contrast to quotations from the Quran, such materials are usually disseminated by way of audio-visual means. Key sources that were used to give the pro-jihadist movement foundations in religious

doctrine include works by Abdullah Azzam, Ibn Nuhaas and Ibn Tamiyyah. These have been used to advocate to Muslims that one of their holy obligations is to repel the US forces from their hold land. For example, bin Laden used quotations from Tammiyah's work to promote the tolerance of internal conflict to coalesce and eject a greater invading threat from their homeland.

Example (4): Repetition and Parallelism

- (A) In conclusion, I enjoin us all to fear God both covertly and overtly, and to be patient in the jihad, for victory requires patience. I enjoin us all to pray and to repeat God's name.
- (B) 1. Oh God, revealer of the book, director of the clouds, defeater of factions, defeat them and give us victory over them.
2. Oh God, revealer of the book, director of the clouds, defeater of factions, defeat them and give us victory over them.
3. Oh God, revealer of the book, director of the clouds, defeater of factions, defeat them and give us victory over them.

In (A), bin Laden used a repeated and parallel structure using the phrase *I enjoin us all* to make the utterance more acceptable and accessible. It is obvious that this sort of repetition can serve to strengthen, underline or amplify almost the particular message that bin Laden wanted to convey. Repetition is combined with three-part structures to give emphasis and strength to the point at issue. Three-part lists as in (B) are a common and readily observable method of emphasising a point and generating response. In this sense, bin Laden repeated the prayer to defeat the enemy with insistence in a hope that Allah may accept it. Thus, the use of repetition is commonly utilised to reinforce and fortify a claim or particular stance on a subject. The repeated structure is an attempt to not only capture interest but to also develop a connection with Allah so as to indicate to an audience that they are devotees and that Allah will support them as his followers.

Example (5): Numbers

- (A) Our number was something approaching *three hundred mujahidin*.
(B) We suffered only about *6 per cent casualties* in the battle
(C) As for those in the trenches, we lost only about *2 per cent*,

In this speech, the numbers rhetoric operates in several ways. In (A), *three hundred mujahidin* may be mentioned to show that bin Laden was more specific about the number, if it is correct, and is more impressive in this case. Thus, he attempted to convey objectivity and precision, and hence to emphasise the truth about fighters of al-Qaeda. In (B) and (C), bin laden accentuated the number of causalities happened in war through the use of percentages which their credibility may be suspected. This is so because bin Laden cannot use high number of causalities about his in-group members as he needed a support for his policy and in legitimising jihad.

Example (6): Metonymy

There are a number of metonymical terms used by bin Laden. They are tabulated below.

Table 4. The metonymical terms of in-group and out-group

The in-group	The out-group
Abu al-Darda	Washington
Tora Bora	Tel Aviv
Al-Qaeda	Arab governments
Ayman al-Zawahiri	Great Israel
Brother mujahidin in Iraq	America
Caliph Umar	White house
Byzantium	Bush
Battle of Yarmuk	The American defence ministry command room
Khaled ibn Walid	Hypocrites in Iraq
The socialist party or Saddam	Arab rulers
Martyrdom operations	Apostate ruling regimes

As seen in the table 4, the in-group is referred to by many names and parties from the Islamic community, and the out-group is referred to by some referents to America and its allies. Bin Laden predicted that the US will invade Iraq to “loot Muslim riches” and “install a stooge government to follow its masters in Washington and Tel Aviv” and “to pave the way for the establishment of a greater Israel”. Bin Laden recalled the battle of Tora Bora which is mainly led by America against al-Qaeda in order to catch bin Laden who transferred his laird to another place leaving instead his assistant Ayman al-Zawahiri. Therefore, he urged Iraqis to use the same defensive tactic of making trenches against aerial bombardment that al-Qaeda has experienced in Afghanistan alongside the urban and street warfare. In addition, the capacity of “martyrdom operations” is also emphasised to inflict “unprecedented harm” on the enemy. This is aided with the deceptive use of religion and Quran; bin Laden used the metonymical terms of Islamic figures and battle such as Caliph Umar, Byzantium, battle of Yarmuk and Khaled ibn Walid referring to in-group to legitimise the use of violence.

Bin Laden also sought to remove the local Arab rulers that had assisted the US forces whilst condemning them as heretics that had distanced themselves from Islam, calling for righteous Muslims to revolt and usurp such betrayers. In turn, he also labelled those countries that were in the greatest need of emancipation which included the Saudi Arabia, Morocco, Jordan, Yemen, Nigeria and Pakistan, though it is not known why Egypt and the sheikdoms of the Gulf were omitted. In Iraq, both Muslim and Ba’athist fighters are able to fight together, despite the latter being infidels in bin Laden’s view, against the same enemy and since the socialist rulers no longer exist. This unlikely symbiosis was compared to that of the Muslim and the Persian forces that collaborated to oppose the Byzantine nation, justifying the overcoming of cultural differences to face a perceived ‘greater good.’ This has had an adverse impact on al-Qaeda’s reputation in Iraq.

4.2.4 Presuppositions and Implicatures

Example (5): Presupposition Analysis

Table 5. Presupposition cues and presupposition topic

No.	Sentences	Presupposition Cues	Presupposition Topic
(A)	There is no harm in such circumstances if	<i>if condition</i>	

	the Muslims' interests coincide with those of the socialists in fighting the Crusaders, despite our firm conviction that they are infidels.		Muslim nation at war
(B)	we remind you (Iraqis) that victory comes only with God. All we need to do is to prepare and motivate for jihad.	<i>remind</i>	
(C)	In general, we must always be quick to obey God, and remember especially to repeat His name when joining battle.	<i>to obey God to repeat</i>	
(D)	These troops are utterly convinced of their government's tyranny and lies, and they know the cause they are defending is not just. They merely fight for capitalists, takers of usury, and arms and oil merchants, including the criminal gang in the White House. Add to that Bush Senior's personal grudges and Crusader hatred.	<i>These troops are utterly convinced, fight</i>	

In (A), it is presupposed that there is cooperation between al-Qaeda and dissolved Socialist Ba'ath party and this shown through the use of the linguistic cue of if-condition. In (B), bin Laden's argument denotes the need for jihad which will be a positive action to expel America. This is linguistically done through the use of the verb *remind*. In (C), it is implied that the path of jihad is preferable to defend Islam and Allah acknowledges such an action by utilisation of infinitives such as *to obey God and to repeat*. The extract in (D) presupposes that Americans are supporting Bush II policy of attacking Iraq although of their belief that this war is not just. This presupposes that this war is convinced and promoted by the dissuasive policy of Bush and this is shown with reference to the verb *convinced* as a linguistic cue to explain such a presupposition. Consequently, it is presupposed that there is no equality in the waging war on Iraq. Moreover, it is presupposed that the cause for waging war is not to liberate Iraqis from the dictator but to steal and loot the wealth of Iraq. Overall, the cause reason presupposed here that of the religious hatred to Islam. Therefore, this necessitates the adoption of jihad. Bin Laden has woven an ideological image that encourages a presupposition that jihad is not only his own purpose; rather it is centered on a perpetual struggle that all Muslims must endure to protect their faith system. To bolster this image, bin Laden regularly refers to the contemporary Muslim generation using the possessive pronoun 'our' to represent their part that they must play to bring about change and triumph.

4.2.5 Speech Acts

It is apparent that in Bin Laden's speech, that various verbs, particularly performative verbs are tactically employed so as to communicate a variety of speech acts. When used correctly, such verbs can help to achieve a convincing objective. There is a marked use of directive speech acts. Bin Laden used a speech act of asking requesting God (Allah) to accept those who killed as martyrs because they defended Islam. He directed his speech to the mujahideen and prohibited them to afraid from the propaganda and the technological equipments of the American forces which used the smart and laser bombs. He used the negative imperative sentence consisting of the auxiliary *do* plus *no* in the form of passive voice to show the importance of the prohibition which reflects the powerful role played by bin Laden as a supreme leader.

Assertive speech acts carry a reported assertion of adopting the martyrdom operations (suicide attacks). The supporters of American presence in Pakistan and those who fight against Muslims are

sentence to death. This is shown through bin Laden's use of the speech act of warning which is expressed by the modal auxiliary in the phrase of *shall be aware*. This denotes that bin Laden will commit to some future action. In this way, bin Laden committed himself to sanctioning "those in positions of responsibility for not doing their jobs properly" and gave a message to the Arab rulers who aided America by threatening them either by killing them or taking their money.

5. Concluding Remarks

Bin Laden's speech about the American preparation to invade Iraq and the incitement for jihad is thematically structured in a rather intricate and complicated way through higher level macropropositions (HM1-HM11) concluded at the global level of analysis by formulating the overall theme that is the Semantic Macrostructure. Thus, the semantic macrostructure "*The US and its allies prepared to invade Iraq, therefore, Iraqis must cooperate with socialists and follow the same path that al-Qaeda fighters adopted in Afghanistan through the use of martyrdom operations to inflict unprecedented casualties on the alliance forces*" has an ideological implication. It depicts the in-group represented by the Iraqis as defenders who can adopt the martyrdom operation and describes the out-group represented by US- led coalition as invaders.

At the syntactic level of analysis, both the animate and inanimate actors played an important role in the speech. The in-group actors are represented by the use of the inclusive *we* to indicate the unity with the audience. Then, bin Laden's switch to the use of pronoun *I* is significant because he accentuated his personal involvement and the practice of power. The out-group actors are represented by the animate and inanimate. The most important animate actors are American and its supporters from Arab Gulf rulers who paved the way to invade Iraq. America's planes in their attacks on Iraqis which threw smart and laser bombs causing death and destruction are considered inanimate actors. Ideologically, the in-group members are depicted as victims who suffered from the out-group's aggression.

Moreover, the military and war vocabularies are evident in bin Laden's speech through the use of (fight, battle, warplanes flying, daily attack and so on). The lexical analysis reveals that bin Laden utilised military and war vocabularies that derive from the conflict between al-Qaeda's fighter and American forces. This implies that a military means might be the best solution for political problems in Iraq. Thus, bin Laden used this type of vocabularies in order to gain a deeper insight into his motives as a speaker and his political ideology. Ideologically, he gave a positive image of the in-group and a negative image of the out-group. Many of the rhetorical devices described in bin Laden's speech such as quotations, metaphor, metonymy, and repetition have been analysed and discussed. Bin Laden utilised the-mentioned devices to give his speech persuasive effect and to give special prominence to certain parts of his discourse. This persuasiveness was acquired with the use of these devices which yield optimal results in creating a solid image of the leader with very clear ideological convictions and political goals.

Bin Laden's use of presupposition and implicature was clearly demonstrated in the speech through invoking the concept of religious hatred. He presupposed that the unjust war waging on Iraq by American forces and their allies was supported by American people and this feeds this hatred. This sort of presumption sustains bin Laden in motivating Muslims to cooperate even with Socialists to expel the invaded forces thus adopting jihad. Moreover, the use of speech acts such as directives, assertives and expressive that serve bin Laden's persuasive goals: to make people change their opinions, stop the demonstrations, and accept all the suggestions that he is making in his speech in return for the promise of a better future.

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Studying English Literature. The Pedagogical Aims.

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ABSTRACT

Learning English as a foreign language needs hard work. It also requires serious efforts to master its rules and linguistic skills and have certain linguistic competencies. Studying literature is essential for the learners in the process of learning the language. In fact, literature represents language itself since it is the written record of language use. The present paper handles the aspects, factors, aims, and criteria of learning English through its literature.

A questionnaire of 20 items is given to 20 third year students at Tikrit University. It shows the role that studying literature plays to enhance the students' skills and abilities in learning the target language. The Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education provides the students with authentic literary texts which is advisable for a proper learning. The present study assures the use of such texts. Moreover, it sheds the light upon the importance of following certain ways and methods in studying literature to get the ultimate benefits intended from studying English literature as a means to learn English in both useful and joyful way.

Literature: Record of Experiences

Literature is the written document and record of the language and culture of people. It contains between its folds life's experiences, morals, teachings, and essence. Literature can be defined simply as "any written or spoken material, but the term most often refers to creative works" (Galens: 369). It includes poetry, drama, novel, and the short story. Some critics say that it includes fiction and nonfiction works like essays and movies.

In *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms*, literature is defined from many points of view. But, it is agreed that literature in the modern age includes more genres:

“Until the mid-20th. century, many kinds of non-fictional writing—in philosophy, history, biography, criticism, topography, science, and politics—were counted as literature; implicit in this broader usage is a definition of literature as that body of works which—for whatever reason—deserves to be preserved as part of the current reproduction of meanings within a given culture (unlike yesterday's newspaper, which belongs in the disposable category of ephemera). This sense seems more tenable than the later attempts to divide literature—as creative, imaginative, fictional, or non-practical—from factual writings or practically effective works of propaganda, rhetoric, or didactic writing”.

(Baldick:140-1).

In fact, every art has a tool used to convey the work as it is seen from the artist's point of view. Language is used as a tool in creating literature. However, to understand literature readers need to read and use their imagination. It feeds the mind with creative ideas, morals, judgments, senses, and above all it helps the conscience to relieve itself from the strains of laziness: literary works enflame the soul with energy to start a new life every time one reads a new book.

There are many purposes behind any science or art. But, the purposes behind creating a literary work are as many as the themes and morals it reveals. Literature is not intended only to interest the readers. It is a means for learning. Presenting the goal of reading literature, Anne Tibble suggests that “learning begins in interest, but must pass beyond the pleasure principle” (Tibble:12).

According to Fletcher “one of the most necessary elements in the higher forms of literature is imagination, the faculty of making what is absent or unreal seem present and real, and revealing the hidden or more subtle forces of life” (Fletcher: 3). Imagination plays an important role in presenting works of highly fantastic settings, characters, and forms. These works are incomparable. They are genuine products of the clever human mind. In fact, reality cannot match the level of excellence of such works.

Literature plays an important role in the English programmes of many non-English speaking countries. But there are certain problems may encounter the teachers. There are not enough pedagogically-designed appropriate materials which make the teachers’ tasks in teaching language through literature easier. Also, there is a lack of preparation in the area of literature teaching in TESL/TEFL programmes. Moreover, there is absence of clear aims defining the role of literature in ESL /EFL. Many instructors who teach literature lack the background and training in that field. Moreover, the literary materials must be suitable for the students taking into account age, degree of study, and appeal. The teacher can make questionnaires and interviews to know the students’ problems in studying and understanding literature (Hişmanoğlu: 65).

Moumou makes different questionnaires to show the points of strength and weaknesses of Literature Study Programme in the junior secondary classes of Seychelles (an African republic). He studies the students attitudes, skills, and knowledge. The results he gets show that literature is a valuable material for learning English. Nonetheless, through his study he discovers many undesirable methods in teaching literature which hinder the students’ progress. He concludes that students are deprived of the full range of literary texts. One of the points of weakness faced by teachers and students is using functional texts (songs, notes, and analytical

pamphlets) rather than full texts like poems, plays, novels, and short stories. Also, they are not analysed as products in their own right but rather as reading comprehension aids.

Hence, students are not gaining adequate exposure to literature in order to increase their experiences. “This hinders their creative writing skills. They do not have enough practice in giving sustained attention to texts and hence do not develop positive reading habits”. (Moumou: 36). Then, studying literature needs certain strategies to be followed by learners. Non-native learners have to determine adequate programmes through studying the original literary texts.

Irene suggests that literature in classroom provides a chance for the learners to comment, suggest, communicate, and use the foreign language. She explains:

“Literary texts are a rich source of classroom activities and can surely prove to be very motivating for learners. No wonder the use of literary pieces play a significant role in English Language Teaching. Literature opens a new world to the students. It cultivates the critical abilities of the students. It encompasses every human dilemma, conflict and yearning unravelling the plot of a short story is more than an automatic exercise.”

(Irene: 74).

However, People who think that literature is only intended for entertainment have to change their minds. It is a world of knowledge expands to contain the human experiences and sciences from the very beginning of man’s existence on earth.

1. Aims and Criteria

The major reasons of studying literature can be explained in the points presented by Dr. Steven Lynn, Dean of the Honors College at the University of South Carolina. He addresses the folly of reducing our students' exposure to literature:

1. Imagination: Reading literature cultivates and enriches imagination. Everybody who reads literary texts will float in the realms of the literary product. Thus, the mind is enriched with the materials presented in the work like the ideas, techniques, persons, and settings.

2. Communication: Writing and talking about literature helps prepare students to write and talk about any subject matter. Working with words helps students to understand how people think and react.

3. Analysis: Literary works challenge readers to make connections, to weigh evidence, to question, to notice details, and to make sense out of a rich experience. These analytical abilities usually are fundamental life skills.

4. Empathy: Since literature gives the students a chance to inhabit different perspectives in different times and places in the literary work, they learn to think about how other people see the world.

5. Understanding: People in real life think in terms of stories. They always talk about events and actions happen continuously. The stories we live through our lifetime enrich our experiences. Experience is the best teacher. In fact, literature is the best vehicle for enlarging man's experience because it is taken from real life.

6. Flexibility: literature often forces people to think in a complex way to find out the ideas behind it. This enables them to be flexible in their thinking and opinions.

7. Meaningfulness: Literary works often challenge the readers to think about man's place in the world and about the significance of people's actions. "Literary study encourages an examined life—a richer life". It provides us with an unlimited number of test cases, allowing us to think about the motivations, values, and ideas of various persons embodied in characters and their interaction.

8. Enriched life: Literature allows readers to visit places and times and encounter cultures that would otherwise never experience. Such literary travel can profoundly reinforce life with the knowledge taken from visiting these places and times tackled in the literary works.

9. Inspiration: Writers use words in ways that move us. Readers throughout all generations live and have special life style through literature.

10. Fun: Students who read literary materials appropriate for their age and class enjoy their time and intensely have fun. Lynn suggests that "when students do discover the fun of literature, they will read more and more, advancing forward in verbal skills and reasoning abilities, and becoming better readers and writers of other kinds of texts". (<https://caffeinatedthoughts.com>)

Actually, every time students read literary works, they learn more vocabularies. Moreover, they will know synonyms and opposites. It is important to study literature if people decides to learn a foreign language. It will enhance their

linguistic abilities and urges them to master the language. Above all, it will develop the four skills: comprehending ,reading, speaking, and writing.

Critics assert that studying literature and its theories develop students critical thinking skills: “disciplined thinking that is clear, rational, open-minded, and informed by evidence” (Dictionary.com). Nowadays, motivating critical thinking is central in education. To explain how literature motivate students to develop critical thinking, it must be admitted that the world is complex. In fact, we need to know some literature to participate in and contribute to it fully. The same also goes for science, math, history , political theory and so on. People need some of each, if they can get them (wordpress.com).

A fundamental point must be clarified. Even speaking English people need teachers to lead them in studying literary works. Reading great literary works is difficult, because it is hard to understand fully by oneself its elements, techniques, and implied themes. Understanding history or reading great works of literature from past centuries requires students to put in a lot of work building up their vocabulary of cultural and linguistic information before they can really get into the work. Moreover, stuffing the brain with facts is boring (Ibid.) Therefore, studying literature needs teachers, guides, and careful interpretations of the major elements of the work. The critical studies help students to delve deep inside the work to deduce the characters motives and the themes.

An academically challenging and balanced programme of education that develop open minded young people who are well prepared for the challenges of life and able to contribute in creating a better, more peaceful world. Such programmes must contain courses for learning foreign languages. The aims of the language course is to present literature course to the students, encouraging them to appreciate

literature and understand the literary criticism techniques. enable students to develop expression powers in oral and written communication, and provide chances of practicing and developing the linguistic skills.

In fact, such programmes represent vital guides which enhance the students' abilities in learning English as a foreign language. Moreover, it is clear that without systematic study of literature, it is not possible to develop the students four skills. Learning without a guide is misleading. It is noticeable that the other branches of teaching language like grammar or phonetics present abstract ideas and somehow short easily arranged sentences based on readymade rules, while literary works are written in contextualised well-made texts.

Hişmanoğlu concludes studying literature equips the students with real knowledge of meanings, syntax, a variety of the possible structures of the sentence, and the different ways of connecting sentences and ideas. It encourages students to use the language (Hişmanoğlu: 55). Mehmet Galip Zorba, a Turkish researcher, presents a study about the benefits of English literature to students. He suggests that teaching literature offers authentic sources for learners because they contain cultural backgrounds and motivations. He says that "Depending on the fact that the use of literature provides language learners various benefits, literature-oriented courses play significant role in the English Language Teaching Departments" (Zorba: 1912). Zobra explains that "through the literature-oriented courses, it is intended that prospective teachers learn necessary literary background and critical thinking ability, and essential approaches about how to use and manipulate literary goals" (Ibid.). Hişmanoğlu agrees that in reading literature as authentic sources of the target language, "students have to cope with language intended for native speakers, they become familiar with many

different linguistic forms, communicative functions, and meanings” (Hişmanoğlu: 54). He adds literature is a complement to other materials needed to learn a foreign language. It enhance the learners’ realisation of the culture and society of the intended language since the elements of the literary genres provide “colourful created world” (Ibid.). Student will know the codes, habits and doctrines of the society of the language they learn.

Irene Pieper says that literature is regarded as an authentic medium for introducing students to the target language and culture. She affirms the necessity of presenting what she calls “sensible text choices”. These choices “offer opportunities for personal response, an approach which has been strengthened, so that the proportion of authentic literature within the language lesson has increased over the last 20 years.” (Pieper: 12).

According to Al-Khader if students are given the freedom to express themselves urging their competency and not be totally controlled by specific textbooks in interpreting and appreciating literature, they will gain an inner interest in exploring literature. He argues that improves students' self-confidence, stimulates their curiosity for learning, and consequently improves their language skills(Al-Khader: 5). However, learners cannot do without reading original texts. These texts are the real records of the native language. They are peoples’ souls which present new words and idioms every time authors create new works .

In fact, literary texts used in teaching English must meet certain criteria. They should be related to real life situations. Difficulty of the language also should be taken in consideration to facilitate perceiving the literary text. In fact, this is not the most crucial criterion. The most important characteristics of the selected work are authenticity, interest, and suspense. Furthermore, it is advisable to choose works

which tackle the readers and concern their thoughts and feelings. What is more pleasant is noticing those same thoughts, feelings, emotions, or situations presented by a completely new perspectives. In fact, these criteria motivate learners to cope with the linguistic obstacles that might be considered too great in less involving material (Hişmanoğlu: 57).

3. Students Attitudes towards Literature

In order to make the study more reliable and valid, it was important to collect data from the students themselves to know their attitudes towards literature. A questionnaire was presented to the third year students\ Tikrit University, College of Education for Human Sciences during the academic year 2016-2017 . Before applying the questionnaire to the students, it was presented to jury members at College of Education for Human sciences in English Department. The jury members are the chairman Instructor Ayden Adnan Rafiq (Ph.D.), Prof. Naheda Taha Majeed (Ph.D), Assist. Prof. Amra I. Sultan (ph.D.), Assist. Prof. Manal O. Mousa (Ph.D.), Inst. Dunia Tahir (Ph.D.), Instructor Muhammed Barjes (Ph.D.), and Instructor Marwa Sami. They agree that the items are well arranged and the questions are suitable for the subject matter. The jury members judged that all the items of the questionnaire are valid.

Data collected from the students responses are re-tested for the reliability of the questionnaire. This method is intended to show that studying literature is useful for acquiring linguistic competency and develop skills in the course of learning English as a foreign language. Therefore, the items are divided into those which examine the students opinions of literature as a means to develop their four skills

(understanding, reading, speaking, and writing). The other items examine the role of literature in enhancing the students' competency.

Table 1. The Role of Studying Literature in the Development of Students' Linguistic Skills:

Items	Always	Sometimes	Never
1.Studying literature makes you fluent	45%	55%	0%
2. Studying literature teaches you new vocabularies	75%	15%	10%
3-Having difficulties in understanding literary texts	15%	65%	20%
4-Reading literature enhance your ability to infer the meaning of new words	55%	40%	5%
5-Studying literature develops the four skills	65%	35%	0%
6-Studying literature urges you to write texts in your own words	35%	55%	10%
7-Reading literature develops your ability to communicate	55%	40%	5%
8-Studying literature lessen your errors in spelling and punctuation	50%	40%	10%
9-Literature enables you to participate in conversation	60%	30%	10%
10-Studying literature hasten your understanding of the subject matter of a talk	70%	30%	0%
11-Studying literature teaches you the correct pronunciation of words	45%	50%	5%

As it is shown in table 1, 45% of the students say that literature always develops their fluency. 55% of the students agree that studying literature sometimes makes them fluent. There are no students who disagree with this item. Studying literature teaches learners new vocabularies, 75% of the students affirm this item. Only 10% disagree with this item. 65% of the students state that they sometimes have difficulty in understanding literature, but 15% say they do not find difficulty in studying literature. 20% state that they find difficulty in studying literature. More than half the students state that studying literature enhances the linguistic four skills, enables them to participate in conversation, teaches them to write literary texts using their own words, and it helps them to lessen their errors in spelling and punctuation.

Table 2. The Role of Studying Literature in Developing Competency.

Items	Always	Sometimes	Never
1-Studying literature enriches your ability to analyse texts	65%	35%	0%
2-Learning new clauses through literature	40%	50%	10%
3-Encouter new idioms through literature more than the other fields	45%	50%	5%
4-Studying literature enables you to recognise the literal and metaphorical meanings of a word	65%	45%	0%
5-Literature enables you to infer the substantial ideas in a text	65%	35%	0%
6-Literature makes you understand genres like newspapers, articles, and journals easily	60%	40%	0%

7-Literature enhance your linguistic competence	45%	45%	10%
8-Literature persuades your curiosity to know more facts and information	60%	40%	0%
9-Reading literature makes learning linguistic facts more enjoyable	70%	20%	10%

Table 2 shows the majority of students agree that studying literature enriches their linguistic competence, enables them to infer the substantial ideas of a literary text, and teaches them new idioms. Moreover, almost all of the students who answered the questionnaire agree that literature helps them to understand articles and journals easily. Also, 60% of the students stated that reading literature always persuades them to know more facts and information. 40% of them affirmed that this item sometimes affect them. However, 90% of the students find learning the linguistic facts are more enjoyable through the study of literature.

4. Discussion of the Results

Students believe that their linguistic skills and competence are developed through the study of literature. However, as foreign language learners, they find some difficulties in understanding some literary texts. Almost, all learners find it difficult to study literature without sensible guides and well informed teachers. Therefore, to make the learning process successful, there are certain factors and elements needed. Nonetheless, literature enhances the students' linguistic skills. Moreover, it develops their intellectual competence.

Self -reliance is an important aim almost all teachers aspire to be achieved by their students. There are ways that strengthen the student's self-reliance through

studying literature. Reading literature in an intensive and extensive ways contribute to develop students' language skills and self-confidence. If a piece of literature is required as an assigned work from students, they must read it attentively. To understand it, the learner may read about the author himself\herself: life, works, and analyses of the work by critics in order to delve inside and understand the work. In this way they will be able to know the deep message intended from the work. When students acquire the habit of being familiar with reading and recognizing its importance, the ultimate teachers' and the educational process is reached. Students should not restrict themselves insisting on reading only the assigned pieces in their curriculum. Exposing to these limitations and restrictions are subjects for frustration. Learners can be exposed to a failure of understanding and abandon the idea of being self-reliant (Al-Khader: 6).

Reading literature must satisfy two major goals: learning the target language and live a lifetime entertainment. Some students may be persuaded to write their own literary works if they have the talent. This can be done through extensive study of authentic original works. Learners should use the knowledge they get from literature in developing their cultural background. Since literature is the product of society, then it mirrors its codes and morals. It sheds the light upon man's problems, interests, and hopes. Learners can find in literature the laughs and tears, hopes and disappointments, expectations and failures of many generations passed or will come to continue life.

CONCLUSION

Learning a foreign language enriches the student's personality. Students attitudes towards learning English through literature are varied. From the results of

the questionnaire, the majority of the students state that studying literature always develops most of the activities they need to learn the target language.

Sometimes, literature motivates their abilities to be fluent more than any other field of knowledge. It stimulates their minds to think about the messages sent through its lines. Though reading some of the literary texts is somehow difficult for the non-native speakers because of certain techniques and new words, it still the most enjoyable task.

Every literary genre has its specific benefits. The novel, along literary form in prose, present many settings, characters, themes, and techniques which fascinate the readers and stir their imagination. Also, the short stories which take the readers to real or imaginative realms in one setting. Poetry records man's experiences in a rhythmic metrical way. Drama presents human actions and deeds on the stage of life through wonderful plots. However, all these genres serve as means for the learners of English as a foreign language to study all the linguistic skills in an entertaining way. Moreover, when the students indulge more and more in reading these different genres, they will find themselves masters of the language, especially the everyday speech.

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Teaching Language and Teaching Culture

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ABSTRACT

Language is used both as a means of communication and a carrier of culture. In the English language teaching (henceforth, ELT) field, there are two widely spread and opposing viewpoints concerning the relationship between ELT and culture. The first view states that language and culture are inextricably linked, and the second view is that ELT should be carried out separately from cultural contexts (i.e. they are not linked). In the light of this controversial debate, this study aims at whether language and culture are linked or not. In other words, teaching language inevitably involves teaching culture or not. This starts by giving a definition of culture in the ELT field. Then, it reveals the relationship between language and culture. In the next section, which is a practical part, the paper examines the link between language and culture by examining some empirical research and discusses a theoretical frame based on experts' insights and opinions. This paper uses a theoretical method about the language and culture; and presents different opinions for and against teaching language and culture. Finally, the paper ends with some findings and conclusions with the list of references for further investigation.

Keywords: Culture, English language Teaching, Teaching Language and Culture

SECTION ONE:

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Generally, language is used both as a means of communication and a carrier of culture. Several scholars believe that language and culture are related in one way or another. In the ELT field, there are two opposing viewpoints concerning the relationship between ELT and culture. The first view states that language and culture are inextricably linked (Byram & Grundy, 2003; Gao, 2006; Jiang, 2000; Mahmoud, 2015; Tang, 2009; Xu, 2009; inter alia). However, the second view is that ELT should be studied individually from cultural contexts (Sárdi, 2002). In the light of this notorious debate, this study looks at whether language and culture are linked or not. This study is divided into four sections: this first part starts with introduction. Then the second part the concept of culture in English language teaching field is explained which also includes the

definition of culture in the ELT field. Section three, reveals the relationship and link between language and culture. In the next section, which is a practical part, the paper examines the link between language and culture by examining some empirical research and discusses a theoretical frame based on experts' insights and opinions. Finally, in section four, the paper ends with some findings and conclusions with the list of references for further investigation.

SECTION TWO:

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF CULTURE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING FIELD

Culture is closely related to one's feelings and activity. It is bounded up with social, national, and issues of identity. Culture has become the object of many studies in numerous fields such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, and linguistics (Murphy, 1988). Moreover, the concept of culture in L2/FL education has been much debated, especially in the last two or three decades. Thus, culture has become difficult to define (Bayyurt, 2006), or is seen as being not stable but shifting and changing over time (Corbett, 2003).

Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1954, as cited in Lessard-Clouston, 1996) compiled a list of 300 definitions of culture, but for the purpose of this study we only take Spencer-Oatey's (2000) definition. She defines culture as:

'a fuzzy set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioural conventions, and basic assumptions and values that are shared by a group of people, and that influence each member's behaviour and each member's interpretations of 'meaning[s]' of other people's behaviour' (p.4).

Thus students and teachers need to be aware of their target culture (henceforth, TC) within learning the language. Learning without culture is incredible; a particular language is a mirror of a particular culture (Farnia & Sulaiman, n.d: 242). To put in another way, language and culture are strongly intertwined (Brody, 2003: 40; Jiang, 2000: 238). When it comes to the domain of learning and teaching, as Gao (2006: 59) states, the autonomy of language learning and culture learning is evident that 'language learning is culture learning'. Conversely, 'language teaching is culture teaching'. Gao further claims that foreign language teachers must be aware of the importance of cultural studies in L2/FL classrooms and try to increase learners' cultural awareness and enhance their 'communicative competence'.

SECTION THREE:

3.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Language learning is a complex process involving not only the alphabet, vocabulary, and grammar. Learning the content of language, such as behaviour, and cultural norms are necessary. For instance, when students want to learn Turkish, they are not merely incorporating the linguistics of the language, but everything which relates to Turkish and Turkey. Therefore, by speaking the language they might automatically immerse themselves with the culture of that target language, that is, the power and essence of mutuality between language and culture. This is why Gao (2006), Tang (2009) and Xu (2009) are strongly agreed that 'language is culture' and these two terms are

firmly linked. Others such as Brock & Nagasaka (2005) argue that ‘intercultural’ or ‘pragmatic’ competence must be considered at all stages of learning a language. This category refers to the social skills which put the target language learners in a comfort zone, since learners would be able to achieve communicate competence successfully.

3.2 THE LINK BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

There appears to be an agreement in culture teaching in L2/FL learning. Shemshadsara (2012: 96) supports the idea that teaching culture plays a significant role in most L2 education. Before these views, Murphy (1988) pointed out four different approaches of learning culture in FL curriculum. For the purpose of this study only two methods will be illustrated here. The first is the theory that ‘cultural studies’ are independent from the language. This view is supported by Murphy herself. The second method is called ‘integrated’; this view looks at culture as a part of language learning and it says that teaching target language is impossible without teaching TC or they will be learned or taught in tandem. The latter viewpoint has been supported by numerous writers and researchers in the last few decades (e.g.s. Brooks, 1986, Byram, 1986; Byram & Grandy, 2003; Cortés, 2007; Jiang, 2000; Mahmoud, 2015; Stern, 1992; inter alia).

According to Stern (1992), teaching culture predominantly includes a ‘cognitive component’, an ‘affective component’ and a ‘behavioural component’. The cognitive component relates to knowledge of TC in general, such as geographical knowledge, different values and attitudes. The affective component relates to target language learners’ curiosity and inclination towards TC. The behavioural component relates learners’ behaviour to the way they encounter culture appropriately.

Much has been written about the role of culture in L2/FL teaching. The most recent debate about not placing culture at the core of the language curriculum and L2/FL instruction by educators is presented by Bennett *et al.* (2003). These writers listed several erroneous beliefs for excluding culture from language teaching. Firstly, they say that language syllabuses are already overloaded. Therefore, there is no space (in both time and place) to put culture in the language curriculum. Secondly, for many teachers, culture seems to be more difficult to teach than languages *per se*. Teachers usually feel unprepared to teach either culture or ‘intercultural competence’, this is because they have not been taught ‘intercultural competence’ themselves. They do not have a model to adapt or to imitate in their teaching method. In other words, teachers may have had little or hardly any hands-on experience of the TC. Even if they had experience, the culture keeps changing and shifting as Corbett (2003) stated previously. Thirdly, some institutes will turn away from teaching culture and teachers might feel responsibility to focus on other sub-skills but not culture, such as preparing students to achieve high-scores on universal or national tests. It is to be noted that the above beliefs are based on anecdotal evidence which are said to be reported by other teachers and practitioners not Bennett *et al.*.

The counter-argument of what these writers described would be the integration of culture into L2/FL classrooms. These problems will arise if students are not taught aspects of FL lessons. Cortés (2007) states more on the problems which students are likely to face if they do not practice cultural aspects in the classroom. As is natural, students go back to their L1 if they do not know how to express something in the target language. Here linguistic transfer will occur. The same issue is connected to culture learning. This means, learners will transfer cultural differences (between one or more countries) according to their L1.

Cortés gives us a more convincing argument that learners might have to face ‘culture shock’ or culture clashes in the classroom if classes lack the integration of culture in the L1/FL environment. They may find many culture differences and they may not know how to deal with them. Therefore, the definite consequence of this matter is that learners may not learn the language properly and they may become what Bennett *et al.* (2003) refer to as a ‘fluent fool’. That is, a student is fluent in L2/FL but might not understand the social and philosophical norms of that language. Confirming this issue, Mahmoud (2015) stressed that language is the symbolic representation of people because it entails cultural historical background as well as an approach to ways of living and thinking. For these reasons which are mentioned previously, linguists are in agreement when they say language and culture cannot be learned (or taught) independently.

As stated earlier, target language cannot be separated from TC (Byram & Grundy, 2003; Jiang, 2000). Another good argument for linking language and its culture together for teaching purposes relates to students’ degree of ‘motivation’ (Sárdi, 2002; Tang, 2009; Xu, 2009). All of these writers/papers refer to Gardner & Lambert’s (1972) ‘integrative motivation’ and ‘instrumental motivation’. These writers claim that learners can be more successful in language learning if they integrate their motives to their L2/FL situations, that is to say, immersing themselves into the entire culture of the target language. Moreover, some other studies (e.g. Genc & Badr, 2005; Jabeen & Shah, 2011; Sárdi, 2002) still question the general assumptions that successful language learners are ones who have a positive attitude towards the TC.

Furthermore, it seems to be a problem in teaching language and culture together (Sárdi, 2002). She states that English represents many cultures or countries (America, Canada, Australia, and so forth). Most citizens’ L1 of these countries is English. However, this does not mean that they have the same culture. From this reason teaching English does not need to emphasise the TC. Nevertheless, Gray (2000) claims that some ELT course books are focusing on the TC which may alienate learners from their own culture. This leads to demotivation and, as a result, learners give up language learning. Therefore, for some researchers, the reason why culture must be learned/taught in L2/FL classes is not very clear. However, Brooks (1986) points out ‘[a]s language teachers we must be interested in the study of culture...not because we necessarily *want* to teach the culture of the other country but because we *have* to teach it’ (p.123, italics in original).

3.3 RESEARCH INTO TEACHING CULTURE

A survey was conducted by Sárdi (2002) on Hungarian learners about the attitudes towards cultural content in their EFL courses. A questionnaire was completed by fifty students at Kodolányi János University College in Hungary. In general, the results showed that 55% of the students were satisfied with the attention given to the TC contexts, and over 60% were also happy with the attention given to familiarise pragmatic aspects of language that students are satisfied the most. These results indicate that students strongly link English with their native language and do not feel that EFL courses should focus on TC completely.

More recently, Genc & Bada (2007) justify the debate about how experts prefer culture classes in language learning and teaching. The participants in this study were thirty-eight learners (10 males and 28 females, aged between 21-25), third-year student-teachers of English studying at ELT department at Çukurova University in Turkey. One of the objectives of the culture class was to raise participants’ awareness of TC. The results indicated that 70% of the ELT students felt such awareness. Moreover, 75% of the participants had a positive attitude towards TC. This

confirms the entailment of culture in language learning. Therefore, Genc & Bada are totally agreed with a previous academic's (Thanasoulas, 2001) viewpoints when they state 'it should be reiterated that language teaching is culture teaching' and someone studying language is also studying culture simultaneously.

While not having the space here to give full descriptions of other recent research, one can draw the conclusion from research as follows: teachers should teach culture at the cost of language, since culture is always at the background along side of teaching the four macro-skills. In addition, besides the four macro language skills_ listening, speaking, reading, and writing_ Kramersch (as cited in Mahmoud, 2015: 68) considered culture as the fifth skill to master. Thus, teaching culture will become an integral part of L2/FL instruction.

We need to refer or integrate culture in language teaching, because showing every single bit of language may entail culture. So, opportunity should be given to learners to share their own culture especially in heterogonous classes. Generally, the more input of cultural concepts they will receive the more they will be aware of the language. Personally, one is convinced by Hobbs' (2012) lectures, when she gave two successive lessons on that topic. She concluded with the answer 'yes' there is a strong link between language and culture, ignoring it might result in problems. Then she goes on to say 'it is impossible to avoid teaching culture' because teaching language entails teaching culture.

4. CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, the findings of this paper are clear-cut. Language and culture are interrelated and cannot be separate from each other because language itself is a culture. Language teaching automatically entails teaching culture. Culture teaching allows learners to increase their knowledge of the TC in terms of people's way of life, attitudes, beliefs and values. Evidence suggests that learners can be more successful in language learning if teachers integrate culture into a language classroom, that is, learners will immerse themselves into the entire culture of the target language.

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Analyzing Structural Metaphors in Political texts

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ABSTRACT

This research tackles the analysis of structural metaphors, particularly in political texts. It aims at:

- 1- Shedding light on the concept of the structural metaphor, especially the state as a person metaphor in political texts.
- 2- Illuminating the effect of these metaphors on the audience to accept or reject certain opinions or strategies.

The research has come out with a result that the structural metaphor, a "state as a person" are used by politicians to increase the effect on the public opinion and persuade them to accept or reject whatever they want.

This has been illustrated twice during the gulf wars. The first use of this kind of metaphors was by the Republicans who saw the state as a "Strong Person", which consequently led to spark bloody wars in Iraq in 1991 and 2003; while the second use was by the Democrats who see the state as a dialogist who talks to resolve problems, instead of fighting.

On the basis of these findings, a number of recommendations and suggestions are made.

Keywords: Barak Obama, conceptual metaphor, Political text, Structural metaphor, Way Forward in Iraq

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The problem

The structural metaphor is a metaphorical system where one concept (usually abstract) is understood in terms of another concept (usually physical).

According to Lakoff and Johnson, the conceptual metaphor theory (which the structural metaphor is one type) rejects the idea that metaphor is a decorative device or peripheral to language and thought, rather, it is central to thought and thus to language.

An important part of our experience, behavior and interaction is metaphorical in the nature. Therefore, metaphors are used naturally by the speakers when they talk about such concepts as arguments, social organizations, love, life...etc.

Consequently, these metaphors are used largely in the political speeches, because they interact with all the experiences that are related to the person.

1.2 Aims of the Research

1. The research aims at analyzing the structural metaphors in a political text in the light of Lakoff and Johnson's theory of conceptual metaphors identified in their book (*Metaphors We Live By*) (1980)
2. Showing the deep impact of such metaphors on audience to accept or reject certain policies.

1.3 The procedure of the Research

The research is divided into two parts, the first part is the theoretical background, while the second part is the practical one: the analysis of the text.

Some texts have been extracted from the speech of the American president Barak Obama "Way Forward in Iraq" Chicago council on Global Affairs- in November 20/2006" to analyze some of the structural metaphors used by the president to through light on his opinion towards wars against Iraq and gives an idea of how the political systems work through metaphors.

1.4 Value of the Research

The research has a two-fold value: theoretical and practical.

On the theoretical part, it presents a detailed survey of the conceptual metaphor and the structural metaphor which it is one of its types.

On the practical side, the research illuminates the great effect of such metaphors on orienting the emotions and opinions of the audience. Hence the research is thought to be valuable to the teachers of English linguistics, textbook writers, analysts, and translators.

2. STRUCTURAL METAPHOR

2.1 What is a metaphor?

In its general sense, metaphor is one type of figurative language that uses words and expressions with a meaning that is different from the literal interpretation. It uses figures of speech such as simile, personification, Paradox, synecdoche... etc. to convey not the literal meaning of sentence uttered but, rather, some different meaning, one that is related in some conventional way to the literal meaning. (Fraser, 1993: 331).

In metaphor, there is a hidden simile, i.e., there is an implicit comparison where we omit the words "as" and "like" and set two unlike things; that actually have something in common, side by side to see the likeness between them (Fraser, 1993 : 334).

Unlike the old traditional view of metaphor which regarded it as merely a decorative additive to language, the modern theories see metaphor a central part to thought and hence to language. (Nordquist, 2017).

It gives the hearer (reader) the impression of the liveliness and the new idea it contains. It is not a matter of shifting and displacement of words only, rather, it is a mingle of thoughts and transaction between contexts. (Richards, 1936: 94-5).

Structural metaphor, in this sense, is a type of metaphor that gives an evidence of how metaphors are widely used in our life even unconsciously.

It is one of three overlapping categories of conceptual metaphors identified by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson in their book (*Metaphors We Live By*) (1980). The other categories are: orientational metaphors and ontological metaphors (Nordquist, 2017). According to Lakoff and

Johnson, the structural metaphor is a metaphorical system in which one complex concept (typically abstract) is presented in terms of some other concept (usually more concrete) (Ibid).

They observed that metaphor is interwoven in everyday life, not only in language but in thought and action. Every day, we encounter many abstract or complex concepts, like time, states, love, war, changes... etc. which are mentally represented, understood and constituted by metaphor. It is basically a kind of mental mapping and neural condition from which certain patterns of conventional and novel metaphorical language arise influences the way people think, reason, and imagine in everyday life (Tendahl, 2009: 114)

Let us consider the following metaphors:

- 1- Argument is war: I **defended** my arguments.
- 2- Love is a journey: we'll just have to go **our separate ways**.
- 3- Theories are buildings: We have to **construct** a new theory.
- 4- Ideas are Food: I can't **digest** all these facts.
- 5- Social organizations are plants: The Company **is growing fast**.
- 6- Life is a journey: He had **a head starts** in life.

These examples show us the reality that such metaphors as those are used naturally and effortlessly by the speakers for their normal, everyday purpose when they talk about such concepts as arguments, love, social organizations, life... etc. (Kovecses, 2002 : 30).

This view can be explained simply and briefly as follows:

CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN (A) IS CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN (B), which is called a **conceptual metaphor**. A conceptual metaphor consists of two conceptual domains, in which one domain is understood in terms of another.

A conceptual domain is any coherent organization of experience. Thus, for example, when we talk and think about life we do so in terms of journeys, arguments in terms of war, love also in terms of journeys, theories in terms of buildings, ideas in terms of food, social organizations in terms of plants, and so many others (Ibid: 4). Accordingly, metaphors are tools to conceptualize one's mental domain in terms of another.

This theory, the Conceptual Theory of Metaphor, was first established by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) who claimed that our conceptual system, by which we think and act, depends largely on metaphors and that it plays a central role in our everyday life. According to this theory, metaphors enable us to conceptualize life experience, emotions, qualities, problems, and thought itself (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 3).

Their first example of structural metaphor "Argument Is War" allows establishing a concept of mental argument by using something that we can understand in an easy way, which is the physical struggle (war).

The scientists observed that the animals fight to get their preys, properties, power ... etc., because other animals want to get the same things and try to prevent other animals from getting them. The same thing is applicable to human beings, but because we are "rational animals", our fights and struggles, including war are institutional in various ways. However, this institutional behavior, in deep, is similar to that of animals which is stable and doesn't change.

The scientists observed that when the animals fight they behave in certain ways as: challenging to frighten the enemy and take its place, defending its own territory, attacking, escaping, and surrendering.

The human fight includes all this, but, as "rational animals", we get what we want by arguing not by using real physical clashes, though sometimes we do.

We continuously argue to achieve our goals using verbal struggles in the same way of physical fights.

When a man quarrels with his wife, for instance, both of them try to reach their goals by forcing the other to adopt his/her opinion to solve a certain problem. Both of them believe that there is something to win or to lose, and there is an 'area' to be attacked or defended.

When arguing, we attack, defend, surrender, escape by using all the possible verbal expressions: challenge, cursing, obsession, haggling, compliment... etc.

Consider the following:

- 1- *Because I'm stronger than you. (Challenge)*
2. *If you won't do this, I will... (threatening)*
3. *Because I'm the boss, (obsession)*
4. *Because you're stupid, (cursing)*
5. *Because you're usually behaving badly, (underestimation)*
6. *I have the right to do that just like you, (Challenging the obsession)*
7. *Because I love you, (evading)*

The previous examples show the commonest arguments that we use in our culture, but since they're interwoven in our life, we could hardly notice them. (المطيري، 2006) ⁽¹⁾

2.2 Structural metaphors in political text

Actually, politicians often use metaphors in their speeches to conceptualize their slogans and forms of arguments. They use metaphors to make a message more vivid and to increase its retention.

Rhetorical devices, especially metaphors, are very important in persuading the public in political speeches. It is one of the persuasive linguistic techniques in the language of politics at word and phrase levels, such as "*Axis of evil*", "*Beacons of excellence*", and "*Cascade of change*" (Woods, 2006: 48)

The great effect of metaphors in politics is deeply explained by Lakoff in his book (Metaphors can kill), where he says that the American government didn't enter the war against Iraq by using weapons only, it used (a huge metaphorical arsenal).

The political speeches in this war used the features of the fabulous tale (the hero and the evil, the victim and the savior, defeat and victory ...) where Saddam Hussein was considered as the evil, Kuwait as the victim, and America as the savior.

Another metaphor largely used in the gulf war: ((the state as a person)) which regarded Iraq as "Saddam Hussein", the evil, who should be defeated. (شريف، 2006)

Thus, Lakoff considers metaphors as means to make changes in the map of the world; they create a positive psychological state for the American army to accept the war and invasion (Ibid). This was the Republicans' view and strategy presented by George W. Bush.

On the other hand, the new policy of the new American president Barak Obama concentrates on eliminating the causes of the problems in the area which results in reducing the atrocity) of Bush's administration.

In his speech "*way Forward in Iraq*" - Chicago council on Global Affairs- in November 20, 2006, the American president Obama tries to convince the public of the failure of Bush's decision to

⁽¹⁾ The information that has been taken from Arabic references has been translated to English by the researchers.

attack Iraq, and hence, the failure of his war. The structural metaphors used in this speech illuminate Obama's objectives, which are:

- 1 - The opposition to Bush's strategy and war against Iraq,
- 2- Reducing the U.S military forces in Iraq,
- 3- Agreement between Iraqi factions, and
- 4- Stopping the stretching of terrorism,

In this research I have extracted some texts from this long previously mentioned speech to analyze the structural metaphors in them hoping to give a deep understanding of how the political systems work through metaphors.

3. ANALYZING STRUCTURAL METAPHORS

"It was true for those who built democracy's arsenal to vanquish Fascism, and who then built a series of alliances and a world order that would ultimately defeat communism".

In this text, we can find a structural metaphor:

(series of alliances) and (world order) as buildings.

In structural metaphor, as we noticed, we use something concrete that we experience directly, so we use this physical concept (building) to structure an abstract concept, in this case (alliances and world order).

Making big coalitions to establish a world order needs a great effort as that needed in building any construction. Such image gives a clear idea about the big (labor), including the costs and labor force, exerted by the world nations to make a strong national system that is capable of spreading democracy all over the world and defeat ill systems, as communism, or (the former regime in Iraq).

"A State as a person" is the major structural metaphor used in this speech:

a state is conceptualized as a person engaging in social relations within a world community.

It lives in a neighborhood and has neighbors, friends and enemies; they can be useful or aggressive, responsible or irresponsible, industrious or lazy. (Lakoff, 1991).

Let's consider the following texts:

"... A report by our own intelligence agencies has concluded that al Qaeda is successfully using the war in Iraq to recruit a new generation of terrorist for its war on America".

The structural metaphor in this text identifies al Qaeda and America as two enemies. For America, al Qaeda is the heart of terrorism that generates and trains terrorists to attack the (world order) founder, America.

"... I am hopeful that the Iraq study group emerges next month with a series of proposals around which we can begin to build a bipartisan consensus. I am committed to working with this White House and any of my colleagues in the months to come to craft such a consensus."

"The institution as a person" is the structural metaphor in this text. The Iraq study Group, the new emergent (the child) is in need of the help of the White House, the wise adult, to facilitate a general agreement between the Iraqi parties.

"our troops can help suppress the violence, but they cannot solve its root causes. And all the troops in the world won't be able to force Shia, Sunni, and Kurd to sit down at a table, resolve their differences, and forge a lasting peace."

The Shia, Sunni, and Kurd are viewed as persons who should sit together and talk to solve their problems, because only in talking problems can be solved not by fighting.

In this respect, we read also:

"For only through this phased redeployment can we send a clear message to the Iraqi factions that the U.S. is not going to hold together this country indefinitely...."

We see the Iraqi factions and U.S. are arguing people; the U.S. sends a message telling the Iraqi factions about its decision in reducing the military troops and that the Iraqi factions should understand this message clearly; they must solve their problems, because the U.S. army is not going to stay in Iraq forever.

"By redeploying from Iraq to Afghanistan, we will answer NATO's call for more troops and provide a much-needed boost to this critical fight against terrorism."

In this context, the NATO is also considered as a person who demands more troops from Iraq to vanquish terrorism in Afghanistan.

Similarly, we read:

"...we have to realize that the entire Middle East has an enormous stake in the outcome of Iraq, and we must engage neighboring countries in finding a solution."

"This includes opening a dialogue with both Syria and Iran..."

In the same way, the structural metaphor:

The state, or the institution, is applicable to the Middle East which is waiting for the results of the new strategies implemented in Iraq.

But gaining the outcome of the efforts of such strategies needs the help of the neighboring countries, such as Syria and Iran, by opening a dialogue with them, as people talk and argue with each other to find adequate solutions. And since the state lives within a world community, the dialogues and arguments should take place with the world nations, not only with the neighboring countries, which should cooperate to reach appropriate settlements, defeat terrorism, and stop the stretching of the mass destruction weapons.

In this context, Obama says:

"... the prevention of these terrorist organizations from obtaining weapons of mass destruction ... will require the cooperation of many nations."

In fact, these metaphors determine the new policy of the United States adopted by the president Barak Obama who sees the countries and nations as people, actually as dialogists and debating people, who talk and argue to reach a settlement. This policy opposes the republicans who raised a controversial slogan exemplified by the metaphor: (the State as a strong person), a metaphor that gave a justification to trespass all the means of communications and gave the excuse to wage a war against Iraq. (المطيري 2006).

4. CONCLUSION

The research has arrived at the following conclusions:

1- The metaphor, including the structural metaphor, is fundamental in our daily life, we use physical concepts to understand and express abstract concepts.

2- In political texts, metaphors are used to control the emotions of the people, because they create vivid images that increase the effect on the public opinion and persuade them to buy whatever it is that they are selling.

3- The structural metaphor, state as a person, is used twice, once by the republicans during the gulf wars (1991, 2003) who adopted the concept of "the state is a strong person". According to this view, the strong state has the right to control the world and wage wars against the countries that threat its interests.

The second use of this metaphor is by the democrats, represented mainly by the president Obama who sees the state as a dialogist that argues and talks with other nations to achieve settlement and solve problems such as that in Iraq and Middle East. He is convinced that the war does nothing but destruction and threatening U.S. Security and interests all over the world.

5. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the light of this research, the researcher suggests the following:

1- A study is needed to make a comparison between two political texts: a text by the Republicans and Democrats in the course of the gulf wars, to study the points of similarities and dissimilarities between them.

2- Another study can be made on structural metaphors in other texts, as social, scientific, literary...etc.

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Creating an Inclusive and Multicultural Classroom by Differentiated Instruction

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Abstract

There is no doubt that today's learners vary in many ways such as, experience, socioeconomic status, culture, ethnicity, learning styles and in cognitive areas. These diverse learners bring their own learning and personal character to the classroom, that influence the classroom atmosphere, time management, content to be taught and the ways that teachers teach. Different types of instructional methods should be applied so that the natural diversity prevailing in the classroom does not prevent any learner from achieving the instructional goals. Adapting different instructional methods to different learners allows the teacher to build up an inclusive classroom environment. One approach to build up an inclusive classroom is differentiated instruction. Within this perspective, an action research was conducted with fifth grade students in Private Ronaki Hawler Primary School, Erbil, Iraq to find out how differentiated instruction build a positive environment in the classroom. The results of the research significantly showed that if the students are provided with differentiated instruction, which meet their needs, they can reach the tipping point of their level. Moreover, it always helps the teacher to establish a positive learning environment.

***Keywords:** comprehensive, differentiated instruction, diversity, inclusive, interest, positive climate*

1. Introduction

It is known that teaching is not simply the transmission of knowledge from the sources of knowledge to students through teachers, but rather it is the interaction of teachers with learners. However, there are challenges and contradictions in today's classrooms in regards to teaching and learning process. For example some students, in the same classroom, get poor grades and others good, even when the teacher is skilled at transmitting the content of the day's lesson. While some students want to learn, others do not even want to come to school; some students want to do extra work but others do not even touch the homework; some students actively engaged in the learning process while others do not. These typical challenges occur because of the individual differences that exist in every classroom and that absolutely influence the outcomes of the teaching, regardless of how adept a teacher may be at transmitting the contents of the day's lesson.

1.1 Differentiated Instruction

If it is thought to create positive and inclusive classrooms in the education field, the teachers should be aware of the diversity of the learners. According to Groundwater-Smith, (2009) diversity is '...the range of differences that encompass such cultural factors as ethnicity, language, ability and special needs' (p.54). But there are also many more things included as well. It is not easy to say that students fall into only one category or another and may demonstrate characteristics from several categories (Tomlinson, 2014). The students vary in different ways such as; cognitive, affective and physical area; differences due to the gender, ethnicity, learning style, language, or creative potential; differences due to exceptionalities, and at-risk characteristics; and others.. Thus, an effective teacher should be aware of all these factors to ensure that they are trying to be as inclusive as possible in the classroom. So an awareness of student diversity immediately presupposes an awareness of how each learner learns. As not all the learners alike to each other, their learning preferences are different as well (Tomlinson, 1999; Tomlinson C. A., 2003). This diversity should be taken into consideration while trying to engage those students to the lesson, which is one of the most challenging aspects of teaching. This diversity also can be a positive resource in the classroom and something to be embraced which indeed very important (Davies, 2006). Having participated all these different students to the classes makes the classroom an inclusive learning atmosphere where all learners take parts and join the lesson.

An inclusive education is described (Allen & Cowdery, 2011) as a concept where everybody has a place and they are participating. In inclusive classrooms everybody is constantly learning because it is a positive social learning environment where learners have a place and have roles to learn. So in that positive community students learn not only the academic requirements and the learner outcomes but they also learn how to get along with each other (Salend, 2010). They also learn how to manage conflict bills, they learn a whole variety of citizenship skills and knowledge related to learning, and how to work and live together. According to Terrell & Lindsey, (2008) one of the greatest features of inclusive education is that it brings a unique personality to the schools and classrooms, thus people think pay of attention to and be responsive to what's going on in the classrooms. The learning atmosphere in inclusive classrooms is very positive and there are very strong ties of being a community and family. In order to build a climate like that, a variety of lesson plans, which include the outcomes for all the learners, should be prepared.

Alexander et al (Alexander, Johnson, Leibham, & Kelley, 2008) describe the term inclusive has come to mean including children with disabilities and regular classrooms for children without disabilities. Here inclusive means including all children who are left out or excluded from school, for example children who don't speak the language of the classroom or who belong to a different religion and children who may be at risk of dropping out because they are sick may be hungry or not achieving well or they are at the low level thinking order. It also means girls who are pregnant, children affected by certain diseases, and girls and boys who be in school but are not, especially those who work elsewhere to help their families to survive.

1.1.1 Create a supportive, Caring Environment

Inclusive means seeking all available support from school authorities, the community, the family, educational institutions, health services and of course the community leaders to respond to the diverse needs of students. The inclusion also ensures the quality education regardless of the students with or without learning disabilities through appropriate curricula and organizational arrangements. The teachers inside the inclusive classrooms should use different teaching strategies, resources and partnership with their communities.

One of the definitions of an inclusive school is one that honors and supports all students (Burden & Byrd, 2007). Inclusive education is about creating a supportive community around all of our students. It's really about having all learners have the opportunity to work with each other regardless of their disability, race, ethnicity, sexuality and ability (Bennett, 2001).

1.1.2 Celebrating diversity

In inclusive classrooms there is no discrimination between the students who are with disabilities and without disabilities. Each student contributes to the rich variety of ideas and actions in the classroom. Those students should be welcomed and appreciated and also it should be valued the diversity that is reflected in the students in the classrooms. In turns the students will feel appreciated, rather than feeling different which will make them feel more comfortable. This feature is the nature of an inclusive classroom. The curriculum and the assessment of the programs are designed to meet the students' needs and to lead those students to achieve the learning outcomes and goals of the lesson.

1.1.3 Respond to all students enthusiastically

When Anderson (2007) defines the teachers' job he indicates that the teacher isn't to figure out if a student should be participating, their job is to figure out how they should participate. When teachers are including students they are thinking about how do they make their schools responsive to every learner that walks in the door, how do they really appreciate identify and honor the individuality and uniqueness that their learners bring and how do they provide an appropriately challenging education to all (Huang, 2002). That's because they're trying to align everything that they're doing for the vision that is out there about truly being and integrated socially. All the learners have a right to be in those classrooms to be given opportunities to show who they are and what their strengths are and to build on those as human beings. All the learners deserve that chance more than anything else.

So far, many frameworks have been designed in order to create an inclusive learning atmosphere for the diverse learners and also to help them to identify their learning styles. Differentiated instruction is one of those frameworks in which the teacher constantly changes the *content* (the curriculum and materials and approaches used to teach the content), *process* (the instructional activities or approaches used to help students to learn curriculum) and *product* (the assessment tools through which students demonstrate what they have learnt) according to the students' levels and needs.

1.2 Differentiated Instruction

However, understanding the source of diversity is not enough to teach effectively. This information should be used as the basis of many classroom decisions when building a positive and caring learning environment, selecting a responsive curriculum, determining instructional strategies and providing assistance. All these factors can be combined within the differentiated instruction, in other words teachers can differentiate their teaching ways when planning, grouping the students, using instructional activities and materials, identifying assignments and determining the assessment to use (Borich, 2008). Differentiated instruction can be effective in responding the whole class or group of learners in the same classroom who may differ on the academic success. 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 (Tomlinson C. , 2000). In order to differentiate the instruction, the teacher should know the their learners' learning history, background, prior knowledge, readiness to learn, interests, and acquired skilled set. Based on these differences, teachers tailor their instructional strategies for a small group or an individual learner to speed academic success, which might be slowed if only large group instruction is available. Patterson, Connolly, & Ritter, (2009) identify the goal of differentiated instruction as to maximize each student's personal growth and academic success by meeting each student at his or her to the next step on the learning ladder.

Differentiated instruction is a word that is used all the time in education today. Teaching is like bowling, tries to roll a ball down the middle and get most of the students. In general, this is a very traditional idea of what teaching is. But it is certainly not differentiation, with differentiated instruction the teacher is not just serving with students in the middle but he needs to serve all of the students those in the middle and those on both end of the learning spectrum (Watts- Taffe et al, 2012).

Tomlison (2004) demonstrates three elements of the curriculum- content, process and products- that can be differentiated to make instruction more responsive to the individual needs of learners. According to Tomlison (2004), differentiation happens with teachers when they vary the *content* of their instruction *the process* that students take *the products* that are created and finally the *classroom environment*.

Although students may not be one type of learner, presenting information in a variety of ways ensures that more students have the opportunity to comprehend what the teacher teaches them. When the teachers vary the environment in the classroom they can change both the physical things or the habits and routines of what's happening in the classroom. Teachers can change the environment by using strategies such as flexible seating to allow students to work where they're most comfortable. Teachers can establish a growth mindset to help students understand learning as a series of goals to be accomplished instead of grades that they'll achieve. Students can develop risk-taking skills independent thinking and collaboration skills as they co-construct their learning with the assistance of their classroom community to vary the process.

It begins with focusing on allowing the students to choose how they will complete the set of criteria by giving them options and choice and giving them ownership in their own learning. They're not simply just receiving the instruction but they're actively participating in the construction of their learning. Some call this approach the inquiry-based learning (White, Shimoda, & Frederiksen, 1999; Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003).

Differentiated learning tasks take into account the learning preferences interest and readiness of the students. Teachers need to ensure that these features of differentiation trickle down through their teaching and learning cycles and impact their planning instruction and assessment. *Learning happens best when a learning experience pushes the learner beyond his or her independence level* (Tomlinson C. A., 2001, p. 8) is a wonderful quote by the understanding that student readiness is important for differentiation. Differentiated instruction must be working in students' zone of proximal development and the teacher must understand where those students are currently and where they need to go and what steps they will need to take. Therefore, differentiated instruction is ideally suited for a heterogeneous classroom (Brophy, 1998), in which learning histories, learning styles, learner interests, and skills as well as disabilities representing special populations may impair learning.

To get their assessment done frequently will help the teachers to determine where they are and what they need. What essential beliefs do the teachers need to have is to create an environment of real differentiation. First off, a culture of high expectations for all students needs to be set. Understanding that every student can achieve regardless of some of the barriers or challenges that they may encounter ensuring that students are receiving the same opportunities for higher order thinking. It can't be just gifted and talented learners that are capable. This, it is needed to ensure that all students have the opportunity to show higher order thinking skills even though teachers need to figure out a way to allow this to happen. That may be less than traditional art, music, and physical literacy are great to have news for students to explore in untraditional ways. These allow students to build on some of their less than traditional strengths and show their thinking.

Table 1. Overview and Key Concepts for Differentiated Instruction	
<i>Areas</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Content: the knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to the subject and the materials and mechanism through which learning is accomplished	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using texts or novels at more than one reading level • Instructions through both whole-to part and part-to whole • Using types of educational technologies as a way of conveying key concepts to varied learners • Focusing on the principles and the key concepts, rather than the details

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide different tasks to different level learners • Use varied text and materials
<p>Process: instructional activities or approaches used to help students to learn the curriculum</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide options at differing levels of difficulty • Provide options based on differing students interests • Varying from whole class, to collaborative groups, to small groups or to individuals • Providing incentives to learn based on a student’s individual interests • Develop different activities that seek multiple perspectives on topics and issues. • Tiered assignments
<p>Product: are the vehicles through which students demonstrate what they have learned</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modeling respect • Providing teachers a menu of choices such as oral responses, interviews, demonstrations and formal tests • Keeping each learner at his or her level • Giving students opportunities that may express themselves such as writing a story, drawing a picture or telling about a real –life experience
<p>Learning Environment: classroom functions and feeling</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rearrange furniture to allow for individual or small group discussions • Availability of supplies and materials.

This article describes how the secondary school English Language Teacher in fifth grade used differentiated instruction to create an inclusive classroom in which all the students’ needs were met. The teacher used differentiated instructions to engage diverse learners to her English courses and the methods she used allowed her to provide opportunity to students for their learning in a manner compatible with his or her own learning strengths and preferences. The curriculum was defied in terms of what a student will be able to demonstrate (Anderson, 2007; Tomlinson, 2001, 2004).

The researcher has a self-esteem that she knows the student-centered education and has tried to engage all her students to the lessons without leaving anyone behind. She taught English as a foreign language in the fifth grade in primary school. Her classroom was a unique one in regards to diverse learners. She tried a lot to engage all her students in order to improve the inclusiveness and develop her students' cognitive skills.

The researcher has been an English Language teacher for 5 years and she has faced many problems in regards to students' participation in the lesson and to create a positive learning environment by providing an inclusive classroom. The teacher tried to find out the root causes of these problems and consequently to evaluate and correct her decisions by taking required actions.

The students in the classroom were not in the high-order thinking level in English Language. They used to come to the school with a neutral mood and usually tried to destroy the classroom-learning atmosphere. When they do not disturb the class they were either very tired or fell asleep and they were not interested in the lesson. For those students it was almost impossible to continue with the curriculum or studying. The background knowledge of the classroom was almost the same as in the previous year and many of them were at risk to fail in all subjects. Many of those students were seen as "lost cause" and seemed not motivated. Consequently, their English level and skills were very poor.

Although the number of the students in that action research classroom were not too many, the desired development of the students was not very satisfactory. The learning outcomes of the courses weren't being achieved; consequently the classroom management problems were arousing. The disciplinary cases were at its peak point. There might be many reasons for this ruin, but the reality was the needs of students weren't being met.

2. Methodology

2.1 Description of the subjects

The subjects described in this article took place in an inclusion class at Private Ronaki Primary school, a school serving approximately 600 students in grades one through six. Nearly 75% of the students at the school were Kurds, 10% were Arabs 5% were Turkish, 5% were Turkmens and the others were from different ethnics.

The action research took place with 26 students in a 5th grade English Language classroom for 3 months where the distribution of the students was the same as the distribution of the school. That classroom was a prototype of the whole school. There were Kurdish, Arab, Turkmen, Turkish and Yezidi students whose background information, culture, SES, and cognitive area were different from each other.

2.2 Purpose of the research

The teacher focused on engaging all the students to English Language classes and provides them opportunities to reach their peak point based on their level. By providing differentiated instruction,

it was believed that the students' needs will be met and as a result they will be more motivated. Also she aimed that the classroom management problems will be decreased at the minimum level. So, at the end of the action research an inclusive classroom is to be created in which all the students were expected to participate the courses eagerly. All 26 students took part and the inclusion class run by their English Language teacher.

2.3 Research questions

How differentiated instruction helps the teacher to engage all the students to create an inclusive classroom where there is always a learning atmosphere?

Sub questions

1. How does the teacher change her teaching to facilitate more meaningful participation in her English Language classroom?
2. Will including all students into the lesson let students to learn the content at a higher level?
3. Will creating an inclusive classroom help teachers to minimize the classroom management problems?
4. Will creating an inclusive classroom help students to internalize and apply the knowledge in the world around them?

2.4 Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected from different sources such as student observation checklist, student questionnaires, students' examinations, and interviews. Also, parents were asked their ideas whether they recognize any change in their students' learning behaviors. To analyze these data literature through teacher journal was read and a statistical analysis of the data obtained through these tools was held.

Chart 1
Triangulation of Data

	Data Collection Instruments				
Research Question	1	2	3	4	5
How differentiated instruction helps the teacher to engage all the students to create an inclusive classroom where there is always a	Teacher Journal	Students Observation	Student Examinations	Student Interviews	Student Questionnaires

learning
 atmosphere?

Will including all students into the lesson allow students to learn the content at a higher level?

Students Observation	Students Questionnaires	Students Examinations	Students Interviews
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Will creating an inclusive classroom help teachers to minimize the classroom management problems

Students
Observation

Will creating an inclusive classroom help students to internalize and apply the knowledge in the world around them?

Parents Interview	Students Questionnaires	Students Observations	Students Interviews
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2.4.1 The Journal

While trying to find out the root causes of why the students did not join the classes, the teacher read some journal entries, which could help her to make the classroom as a learning atmosphere where all the learners could participate by meeting their needs. Reading journals helped her to create an inclusive classroom by using differentiated instruction a couple of months after she started her action research.

2.4.2 The Students Questionnaire

In order to identify the problem of students' not engaged to the classes and the ways of engaging them to the lessons, the teacher conducted the same questionnaires before and after the action research. The questionnaire was made up by the teacher and tailored by the author, based on the literature review. The greatest benefit of the pre questionnaire was that the students let the teacher to know that engaging the classes can occur by group work, different ways of teaching and easy

content as well as the easy and attractive assessments; not only with quizzes and examinations. Some of the hard working students preferred to study with a group and from different sources. More than half of the students thought that differentiated instruction would be more motivating and they thought that they would be more secure in an inclusive classroom. Nearly, all the students complained about the ongoing teaching materials and techniques and they indicated that they were very bored in the classroom.

The post questionnaire showed that constant changes in regards to content, process and assessment made the students very active and more motivated. Small group work, pair works, different contents and different types of assessments gave the students more confidence and they increased their grades. At the end of the action research period, the teacher witnessed that using differentiated instruction resulted in creating an inclusive classroom where all the students engage and participate at their levels.

2.4.3 Students Observation

The students' observation served as a useful tool for looking into the situation in class as the research was conducted. Generally, the observation made not only during the classroom time, but also in students' free time as well. The teacher kept a diary to record to compare the students' behavioral changes as the time being.

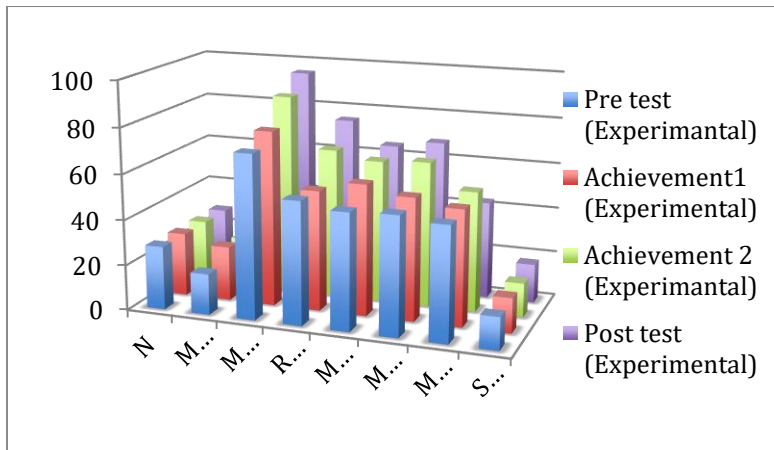
After the teacher start to the differentiated instruction in which she used different contents, different techniques and assessment which met the students' needs, their motivation aroused and they were much more eager to participate in the lessons.

2.4.4 Student Examinations

At the beginning of the study a proficiency pre-test and post- test were administrated to measure their progress at the end of the research by conducting the same test. In order to be sure about their progress the students mid term and final exams and quizzes were taken into consideration.

Those examinations enabled the teacher to see how differentiated instruction teaching activities affected the students' progress in English Language courses. From an inspection of all those examinations of the English Language courses, there seemed to be significant differences arising.

Chart 2: Students' Examinations results



2.4.5 Students Interviews

After finishing the study, the teacher had an interview with the volunteer students in the experimental group. 9 boys and 7 girls voluntarily had the interview in their native language (to avoid the language level impact on the obtained results). The main reason for having an interview is that it allowed the teacher to speak directly to the students and requested their answers on the questionnaire and on some other questions. By interviewing, the researcher aimed to explore whether differentiated instruction engage all the students to create an inclusive classroom where there is always a learning atmosphere. Also the teacher found that the students were very eager to participate and consequently, their grades improved and the classroom management problems decreased. Most of the students, who were interviewed, expressed a liking for active participation, change, self-correction or self-reflection, which are all integrated into lessons through the use of plenty of tasks in a differentiated classroom.

2.4.6 Parents Interview

In order to measure the differences and progress, the teacher made an interview with some of the parents of the students. She asked the parents time to time if there has been any behavioral change in their students' manner. Those parents told that their students started to read, search and talk English in daily lives. They also indicated that the students became more eager to go to the school and did their assignments on time. One thing that the parents emphasized is that their children tried to speak, read and listen to the English in the real world like in market, bazaar or where it is needed. They started to help their friends and siblings in their English homework. The interview with the parents demonstrated that the students could use their English in the authentic environment if they could continue to participate in the lessons.

2.5 Changing the way of teaching: Differentiating the Instruction

After a couple of weeks of seeing very little progress with the students, teachers realized that the problem might have been the instructional strategies that they used, not the student. The English Teacher evaluated her practices in the classroom and decided that she has been teaching in a very traditional way. She started to teach in differentiated ways such as:

- Kept the focus on concept, emphasizing understanding and sense making, not retention and not regurgitation of fragmented facts.
- Used ongoing assessments of readiness and interests, and pre-assess to find students needing more support and those who can leap forward. She did not assume all students need a certain task.
- Made grouping flexible. She let her students to work alone sometimes and also in groups based on readiness, interests or learning styles. She used whole –group instruction for introducing ideas, planning, or sharing results.
- She saw herself as a guide. She helped students to set goals based on readiness, interests and learning profiles-and assessed based on growth and goal attainment.

- She constantly helped the students one by one in the classroom; have them focus on the task, take notes and provided help when they needed.
- Used texts or novels at more than one reading level.
- Presented instruction through both whole-to-part and part-to-whole approaches.
- Used texts, computer programs, videos, and other media as a way of conveying key concepts to varied learners.
- Focused on teaching the concepts and principles, rather than on all the minute facts about the issues.
- Had advanced students' work on special, in-depth projects, while the other students work on the general lessons.
- Used varied text and resource materials.
- When re teaching was necessary, altered the content and delivery based on student readiness, interests, or learning profile.
- Provided various types of support for learning, such as using study buddies, note taking organizers, or highlighted printed materials.
- Gave students choices about how they express what they have learned in a project (e.g., create a newspaper article report, display key issues in some type of graphic organizer).
- Allowed students to help design products around essential learning goals.
- Provided product assignments of varying degrees of difficulty to match student readiness.
- Used a wide variety of assessments.
- Worked with students to develop rubrics that allow for demonstration of both whole- class and individual goals.
- Provided or encourage the use of varied types of resources in preparing products. (Burden & Byrd, 2007)

3. Results

At the end of this action research the teacher reached many positive results, which helped her to create a positive learning atmosphere by differentiating her lesson. The results that emerged with the collected data is as follows:

3.1 How differentiated instruction helps the teacher to engage all the students to create an inclusive classroom where there is always a learning atmosphere?

At the very beginning of the school days the teacher was suffering from different types of learners whose learning needs and interests were totally different each other. The teacher found difficulties in engaging those different learners to the course and as a result classroom management problems were emerged. The first thing that the teacher engages these students to the lessons was to identify the sources of diversity. Later on according to those students needs, interests, cognitive area and background information the teacher tried to use different types of teaching methods that resulted as differentiated instructions. Students who were interviewed told her that they all liked the ways of teaching.

With the differentiated instruction the students had chances to learn the same content differently. The teacher used multiple effective ways to get the same results. In her teaching she demonstrated

flexibility for going of the need to control what path the students take and focus. What's more, on supporting them on their own path in order to achieve certain learning goals, then students automatically had individual tailored learning using the gradual release of responsibility helped her to understand that students are ready for independent tasks at different periods. Allowing students to use manipulative or visuals or organizers in order to have successfully completed tasks was also another way to differentiate instruction that she did. Finishing a learning objective at their own reasonable pace was an important skill for the students, by doing this differentiating the product became one of the easiest things. Changing the content, process and product provided multiple entry opportunities for students to access the same task in different ways. Being responsive to student needs at the beginning made the students eager to attend and participate the lessons. Consequently, the classroom became an inclusive learning environment in which all the students joined and engaged.

3.2 Will including all students into the lesson allow students to learn the content at a higher level?

The teacher observed that differentiated instruction provided the opportunity for her to consider multiple characteristics of the learner simultaneously in choosing an instructional strategy for a particular learner and learning objectives. In their examinations, it can be seen easily that there was always a constant increase and this increasing motivated the students. After the students tasted that studying collaboratively brings the success, they became more participant. Also the differentiated instruction gave learners alternate paths with which to learn. Students working below grade level were given resources that retrace major objectives that have already been taught, on the other hand learners above grade level were asked to produce work that requires more complex and advanced thinking. By varying teaching techniques and strategies, the teacher made sure that each student had the opportunity to learn in a manner compatible with his or her own learning strengths and preferences. This made the students to learn the content at a high cognitive level. Also, the students demonstrated in their interviews that they identified their interests and uniqueness. They also stated that different types of content and process aroused their interests and motivation.

3.3 Will creating an inclusive classroom help teachers to minimize the classroom management problems?

An inclusive classroom resulted by differentiation instruction took the form of varying the modalities in which students gained access to important learning. The teacher needed to present the instruction at different levels by offering learners a choice in the complexity of content with which they would begin a learning task that matches their current level of understanding and form, which every learner could experience; academic success, presenting students with different learning styles, such as, presenting content in incremental steps, like rungs on a ladder, resulting in a continuum of skill-building task; and all students benefited from presenting information in a variety of ways, for example by listening, reading, and doing. As a result of such kind of participation decreased the classroom management problems.

3.4 Will creating an inclusive classroom help students to internalize and apply the knowledge in the world around them?

From the questionnaire and parents interview, many of the students felt that talking English socially was a significant issue which helped them to become more social. From the students interview the teacher discovered that it was through different types of instructions that the students were able to talk with self-esteem publicly. That classroom environment was a competitive and subsidiary, which helped the students to, interested in the topics of lesson. From the interview, students agreed that it was a good idea to use that English Language class content in the authentic situations and it supported to them to learn better.

4. Discussion

Generally teachers have been suffering by facing such kinds of difficulties in their classrooms since the days of one-room schoolhouse. One way of preventing the students' low level performance in the classroom is to be aware of the learner diversity. Teachers can adjust their expectations and adjust the content and activities according to students' differences. This is not a disservice to the students when they are given meaningful and up to level content and develop gradually their knowledge. It is important to hold high expectations for all students and to believe that all students can achieve. However, the content should be changed accordingly if the students are wished to participate to create an inclusive environment. Students appreciate, feel relaxed and participate more if the content is up to their level and find the classroom more stimulating and worthwhile as compared to classroom with high-level content.

Tomlinson (Tomlinson C. A., 2001) proposes differentiation instruction as one of the solutions to overcome those obstacles and to create a positive learning-atmosphere or an inclusive classroom. In order to create a true differentiation instruction, the students' diversity should be realized in the area of their readiness, cognitive domain, interests and learning styles. Jumping off from this mentality, teachers can set up an inclusive classroom where everybody works toward essential understandings and skills, but uses different content, processes, and products to get there. Differentiation is an option but not a punitive by over loading additional work for more able.

In regards to students' engagement and commitment to the courses, differentiation calls on us a big leaps in the way of we think about the inclusion. It also gives an enthusiasm to the teachers who are more of a facilitator than a strict one.

Teachers can make decisions to ensure that the curriculum is inclusive, relevant and free of bias. Teachers can select appropriate instructional content to demonstrate that their students are valued as people and that they offer a challenging, culturally relevant curriculum. The content may involve integrating subject areas from diverse traditions, and the content may even arise out of students' own questions so that they can construct their own meaning. Also they may change the learning activity packages for example, making groups according to their intelligence types. Altering the length, difficulty and time span of the assignment can provide alternative and differentiated instructions. Enrichment activities also helped the teachers to create inclusive classrooms.

Differentiated instruction-teaching format for covering the curriculum and for creating an inclusive environment worked in that 5th grade classroom in English Language classroom. The teacher allowed the students more flexibility, provided tasks and content relevant to their personal interests and created finished products that reflect their abilities. All this resulted in increased motivation, creativity, pride in the job completed and a whole classroom engagement.

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Reading Comprehension Strategies

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ABSTRACT

The academic success of the university students greatly depends on the mastery of an academic reading skill. However, students as well as teachers, take the learning of this skill for granted, as they tend to presuppose that reading skill is acquired as a part of their secondary education. As a result, most first-year students employ non university strategies to read academic texts, which leads to a surface approach to reading and prevents students from a better understanding of the material. This paper will discuss the strategies that involve students in taking a deep approach to reading academic texts.

Key words: reading skill, academic reading strategies, reading for academic purposes

INTRODUCTION

Reading plays an important role in any educational system, so improvement of reading skills is vital, which is possible with the help of effective reading strategies. Reading strategies are defined in different ways. For McNamara (2012) "A reading comprehension strategy is a cognitive or behavioral action that is enacted under particular contextual conditions, with the goal of improving some aspect of comprehension"(p.6). Edge (2002) defines reading comprehension strategies as "strategies that encourage your students to use prior knowledge, experiences, careful thought, and evaluation to help them decide how to practically apply what they know to all reading situations"(p. 4).

Basically reading comprehension strategies may be defined as "a complex process involving interactions between the reader and the text, using multiple skills" (Medina, 2007, p. 4), because among the variety of known strategies "some strategies work for some students, and other

strategies work for other students, just as some strategies work best with certain types of reading material, other strategies work best with other types of reading material" (Medina, 2007, p. 6). It is important to understand that improving students' reading comprehension teachers should take into consideration students' skill level, group, dynamic, age, gender, cultural background, as well as the type of the text they deal with, to determine the approach to take.

Researches show that reading comprehensibility directly depends on the strategies readers use (McNamara, 2012; Bachman & Palmer, 2009; Bachman, 1990; Connolly, 2007; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008; Roe et al., 2011). Strategies are especially necessary to those students who are struggling most (students with less domain knowledge and low reading skills). Using strategies for developing and construction of meaning before, during and after reading allow readers to connect the information they are reading about now with what they have learnt in the past (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008).

OVERVIEW OF READING STRATEGIES

According to Babbitt (2002), the use of reading strategies improves the reading abilities of most students, improves their interaction with the text, and finally students not only understand the text but also remember every part of the story they have read. For successful use of strategies, teachers need to develop a scaffold for their students carefully according to their needs, abilities and the type of print they work with.

Babbitt(2002) suggests eight reading strategies:

- Comprehension monitoring (involves pre-reading, reading, and post-reading activities)
- Cooperative learning (students work in small groups)
- Graphic organizers(involves comparison/contrast, hierarchy diagram, and matrix diagram)
- Story structure
- Question answering
- Question generating

- Summarization
- Multiple Strategy

The purposes of reading may vary and, accordingly, the strategies applied to comprehension must be different. McNamara (2012) introduces three reading comprehension strategies for the proficient reader:

1. Dictionary Artifact Strategy.

This strategy is used to understand context-sensitive texts, where the meaning of the words is important to understand the text. It also can be used for vocabulary enrichment, but the problem is the use of a dictionary may be overdone, as a result, the text as a whole may be misunderstood or not understood at all.

2. Contextual Word Definition Strategy.

It is an alternative strategy to the previously mentioned one. Readers infer the meaning from the context activating their cognitive actions of eye movements. This strategy is important for those students who prepare for examinations requiring high reading skills (TOFL², IELTS³, ALES⁴, etc.), as well as for students working with academic written materials.

3. Character Motive Strategy.

Readers are required to explain the meaning of the text by analyzing causes of events, explanation of characters' behaviors, and other moments that identify why the events in the text take place and why the author mentions something.

For less successful readers McNamara (2009) suggests six reading comprehension strategies:

1. Comprehension monitoring.

²Test of English as a Foreign Language
³ International English Language Testing System
⁴Akademik Personel ve Lisans Eğitimi Giriş Sınavı - Academic Personnel and Undergraduate Education Entrance Exam (Turkey)

It is the process of students' reading and analyzing the level of understanding, as the awareness of low understanding may require the use of other strategies to increase understanding of the text and their comprehensibility.

2. Paraphrasing.

Students restate the text in different words/own words, that help less skilled readers to improve the basic understanding of the information contained in the words/sentences/paragraphs and the whole text.

3. Elaboration.

It is the process of making inferences/questions that involves the linking of the meaning of the word/sentence/text to existing related knowledge.

4. Logic or common sense.

This strategy helps students to understand the text using logic or general knowledge because very often they do not have enough domain knowledge or directly related knowledge of the information presented in the text without knowing a lot about the topic.

5. Predictions.

This strategy involves students' thinking about what may appear next in the text. This strategy is pretty uncommon when reading scientific texts, but for narrative texts may be pretty effective.

6. Bridging.

It is the strategy that develops students' ability to link ideas and understanding the relation between sentences/paragraphs/chapters in the text. Making inferences is critical to understanding and to successfully comprehend the text because the reader must make inferences to build a coherent mental model of the information presented in the text.

The six strategies mentioned encourage the readers to use a set of strategies, which lead to better understanding and improvement of readers' ability to explain the text.

In higher education most second language learners consciously or unconsciously already have some reading comprehension strategies in their first language, however, not all students have effective strategies. The subject of matter is also whether they are able to use them working with

texts of academic nature. Brown (2001) recommends a more detailed list of strategies to apply to classroom techniques, that provide students with the techniques to read the text critically. Some of them are related to bottom-up procedures, and others involve top-bottom procedures. All together construct a mixed strategies approach to reading comprehension.

1. Establish the aim of reading.

Purposeful reading gives students an idea about what they are looking for, helps them to weed out potential distracting information, and increases the speed of reading.

2. Use the graphical rules and laws to help in ascending decoding.

For beginner language learners it is usually difficult to make a correspondence between written and spoken language. In this case, they may need an explanation of certain orthographic rules and peculiarities.

3. Use effective methods of silent reading for a relatively quick understanding.

Students try to read the words without pronouncing them, try to visually perceive more than one word at a time, and skip unknown words trying to infer their meaning from the context. This strategy may not work beginner readers, but for an intermediate and advanced level may be quite efficient.

4. Skimming for main ideas.

It is one of the most important strategies for any language learner. Skimming is reading the text quickly moving their eyes across the text for its gist. With the help of this strategy students have an advantage of being able to predict the purpose of the text, the main idea, and supporting ideas.

5. Scanning text for specific information.

It is the other valuable strategy a language learner needs to acquire. Scanning is a quick search for some particular information in a text, such as dates, names, places, definitions of main points, etc. The major role of scanning is finding the necessary information in the text without reading through the whole text. This strategy is essential for dealing with the texts like manuals, schedules, forms, instructions, etc.

6. Semantic mapping and clustering.

The strategy of semantic mapping/clustering helps students to organize the ideas/information from the text into order/groups to understand the relation between the pieces of data and to see the whole picture (Mozayan, Fazilatfar, Khosravi, & Askari, 2012).

7. Guessing.

This strategy involves a quite broad range of procedures. Students may need to be able to make guesses about different aspects of the text:

- meaning of a word
- grammatical link
- discourse rapport
- hidden meaning
- cultural links
- semantic content

Using this strategy reading becomes a kind of "guessing game"(Goodman, 2003), and "as sooner learners understand this game, the better off they are"(Brown, 2001). To be more successful and accurate in guesses students need a lot of appropriate practice.

8. Vocabulary analysis.

Guessing/recognition the meaning of unknown words refers to readers' knowledge of word structure and its peculiarities. It is necessary for students to be aware of the meaning of key information transmitted through prefixes, suffixes, roots, grammatical and semantic contexts.

9. Understanding the difference between the literal and implied meanings.

This strategy may cause some difficulties, so students may need an appropriate explanation and practice to master their ability in distinguishing differences in meaning. Students are required to acquire/apply sophisticated top-down processing skills. Proficient readers in L1 have an advantage over the less literate readers.

10. Benefit from discourse markers to understand relationships.

There are numerous discourse markers, which signal the relationships between phrases, sentences, paragraphs, ideas, etc. in the English language. Knowledge of discourse markers gives readers an

opportunity to understand how the idea is developed in the text and can greatly improve students' reading efficiency.

Reading strategies are "plans for solving problems encountered in constructing meaning" (Duffy, 1993, p. 232). Among the wide range of techniques, it is the readers' own decision (if necessary with teacher assistance) to choose the most appropriate set of strategies for better comprehension of the written material. It is clear that "the strategy use is different in more proficient and less proficient readers"(Janzen, 2002, p. 287). Generally "... strategies are essential, not only to successful comprehension but to overcoming reading problems and becoming a better reader and comprehender" (McNamara, 2009, p. 36).

CONCLUSION

There are a lot of learners of foreign language students for whom reading is the most important goal. They want to be able to read for pleasure, for their education, or for a career. In fact, whether learners do it consciously or unconsciously, the most English language learners for academic purposes primarily want to acquire is the ability to read effectively. In any academic institution, reading is what students mostly do from the beginning to the end of the program. It is not possible to imagine a scientific research without reading and all required strategies applied to understand, analyze, or synthesize of written material.

Today the major emphasize is put on the importance of reading strategies implemented in English language learning classroom. Developing learners' reading abilities and strategies they use in dealing with the written text, give them information and help them understand not only *whats* and *hows* but also *whys* delivered in written text. Teachers/students choose the most appropriate strategies according to their needs, purposes, type of written text, and the choice may vary from one reader/situation/time/circumstance to another.

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The Alignment of Teaching Methodology and Learning Outcomes: the Effect of Students' Presentations on the Development of English Language Proficiency of Adult Learners

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of using students' presentations on improving English language skills of adult learners and assess its potency to reach the expected learning outcomes. The research was conducted in the Continuing Education Center, Ishik University, Erbil, KRG, Iraq. The target population consisted of 23 English language learners (university graduates, and currently working in the sphere of Education). This study consisted of three major phases: first, explanation, preparation, presentation of the students' works on the topic of interest and observation of students' performance, second, teacher-student and student-student discussion of the video-recorded presentations. The last step was the application of the survey, which was designed to measure the participants' attitude toward the mini-projects they presented in the class. The data were analyzed by the means of frequency and percentage, as well as a summarization of the discussions. The main findings show that students' attitude toward oral presentations, prepared on the topic of their own interest, have a positive attitude on students' motivation toward learning English and help the adult learners to improve their language in general, and the productive skills in particular.

***Keywords:* Learning Outcomes, Adult Learners, Student's Presentations, Project Work,**

INTRODUCTION

The current tendency in language teaching methodology seems to be more focused on young rather than on adult learners. However, the necessity of acquiring a foreign language has been felt more seriously as a result of globalization process as well as the need of lingua franca in all spheres of human life, such as politics, international relations, trade, medicine, media, science, and education.

Many researchers have been done to find different approaches to teaching a foreign language to find the most beneficial methods and techniques to apply in language programs. The adult learners, in contrast to young learners, usually have clear stated learning outcomes (statements of what they want to know and able to do at the end of a language program) and limited time to achieve these goals. That is why the content of the language course should be developed and applied according to the needs of a particular group of students. This can be done by selecting only the material that will help learners to meet their expectations, accompanied with the tasks and activities that will promote the development of the desired skills on the appropriate level.

We noticed that the most of the tasks and the activities provided in the textbook usually do not only leave students frustrated and bored but also do not support the development of the desired learning outcomes. In other words, the course content in many cases is not pertinent to what the adult learners want to know and able to do. At this point, we decided to turn to students' presentations as a technique to support students to meet their expectations of the language course.

Student's presentation is considered as a form of project-based learning and can be described as "a teaching method based on the communicative approach, a language acquisition theory that supports the use of natural communication and real-world activities in the classroom" (Yamak, 2008).

CONFIGURATIONS OF PROJECT WORK

There are many ways project work might be applied in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms. The format, type, degree, etc. to be chosen for the project depends on a variety of factors, including curricular objectives, course expectations, students' level of language proficiency, students' interests, time scheduled for the project, availability of materials, etc. (Stoller, 2002).

Project work may differ according to the degree to which teacher and students decide on the nature and the set of activities related to the project. Henry (2012) proposes three types of projects according to the degree of teacher involvement into project work on different stages:

1. **Structured projects** (teacher is the leader who decides on topic, material, methodology, students' roles/responsibilities, the form of presentation, etc.)

2. **Unstructured projects** (students define the project in terms of topic, material, sources, roles, final product, etc.)

3. **Semi-structured projects** (teacher and students together define and organize the whole work, so some are decided by teacher, some by students)

Project work might be linked to real-world concerns or simulating real-world issues, or the mixture of both. Thus the product of project work further might be used in real everyday life or performed only to motivate/stimulate students' learning.

For the development of one particular skill or practice the material under study it is necessary to choose the right type of a project to reach the learning goals, so teachers should take into consideration that:

- structured projects may influence students' motivation, and they may not be interested in the project,
- Unstructured projects may not focus enough on the mastering of a particular skill or knowledge because students choose the type of sources and the way information is gathered.

That is why teachers might prefer to use semi-structured projects to guide students to the right direction.

The data collection techniques and sources of information may be another variable to make projects differ one from another. Stoller (2002) distinguishes five project types according to the way information is gathered:

1. **Correspondence** projects, which may require communication with individuals, gathering information by the means of interviews, emails, phone calls, etc.

2. **Survey** projects involve students in creating surveys/questionnaires, collecting, analyzing and presenting data in class orally or submitting in written form.

3. **Encounter** projects are based on information received from a guest speaker, or individuals outside the classroom determined by the teacher or chosen by students themselves.
4. **Text** projects involve students in work on one particular text (or texts of one author), rather than on individuals.
5. **Research** projects require students to gather information and work with different written materials (library research).

The source of information the students use for their project work/s will mainly depend on the type of project work, knowledge and skills students are expected to acquire, consequently, they will simultaneously develop several skills, or focus on one particular one. For example, for the development of speaking skill students can be involved in correspondence projects, gathering information via oral communication with individuals, or/and present the obtained data orally. Thus, the focus will be on speaking and listening skills, and the other skills (writing and reading) will be involved on the secondary level.

The other way projects may differ is the way the product of work is presented/reported: **production project** (videos, radio programs, posters, written reports, brochures, menus, letters, etc.), **performance project** (oral presentations, drama, fairs, shows, debates, etc.), and **organizational projects** (planning an organization of clubs, conversation program, etc.)

Projects in EFL may also differ one from another according to the skill, which is focused on development. According to Mukalel (2004), there are some skills and linguistic items to be focused on during the project work:

1. **Pronunciation.** Students may work on pronunciation of particular sounds, stress, intonation, pitch, etc. For example, students may record the speech of each other, listen and analyze it to find the most common mistake in the pronunciation of sounds. This work may help them to master their pronunciation being more aware of their own mistakes.
2. **Grammar.** For the development of grammar, students may work on written, oral or audio/reading (for example, to see how meaning may change according to the use of different structures)

accuracy. For example, students of higher language proficiency may be involved in a project helping students of lower language proficiency.

3. Vocabulary. Focusing on vocabulary enrichment students may be involved in a wide range of project work. For example, working on newspaper articles (better if the article is connected with students professional education) students prepare a booklet with crosswords or using the word list (prepared by the teacher or together with the students) student write a story trying to use every word from the list. Vocabulary mini projects can also be used as preparation for another project, providing students with necessary vocabulary bank.

4. Listening. To develop students' listening skills, project work might be whether with recorded, or live speech of different people. For example, the teacher may organize a visit to a museum/organization/institution/etc. (where the guidance is available in English) where students will listen and take notes, then prepare reports about it.

5. Speaking. The speaking projects are usually focused on both speaking and listening and can be used to develop the two skills together (every speaking activity involves listening as well). For example, students may be involved in interview production, which can be audio or video-recorded, students/teachers may also organize fairs, days or weeks where the language of communication is English.

6. Writing. Depending on what kind of writing is chosen to develop (formal or informal), students may be involved in projects like writing letters/e-mails, booklets, advertisements, articles, etc.

7. Reading. Projects on reading in English are focused on a number of things: increasing reading speed, comprehension, proficiency in expression and recognition of vocabulary, or discourse development. For example, supervised library reading, class extensive reading (for instance, every day for 15 minutes, the number of pages may be recorded, then after a month to see how much their speed improved), students may be given a book to read (for example, for a week), then tested or attend a competition (the questions of which are prepared according to the book).

Very often project work helps to develop more than one skill simultaneously because real language communication is not a separate skill, but a combination of all. Students working on a listening

project will also work on their writing, speaking and reading, working on writing projects students will also need to read, listen or speak, etc., thus, project work usually involves work on several skills, where one or two skills can be more stressed than others.

PROJECT ORGANIZATION

Each project is a unique work because each student or group of students has different background knowledge, attitude toward the topic, approach to learning, and creativity. However, projects can be changed and adapted for specific purposes/students' needs and each project should go through certain stages of development and fit the common framework.

Various researchers provide different frameworks for organizing project. Legutke & Thomas (2014), for instance, suggest six stages of a project work:

1. Opening (stimulus - discussion about the idea of the project, definition of the objectives, language preparation/practice)
2. Topic orientation (discussion and sharing of information students have about the topic)
3. Research and data collection (design of written materials, preparation of questionnaires, maps, tables, photos, etc.; reading is practiced most on this stage)
4. Preparing data presentation (collating and organization of material)
5. Presentation
6. Evaluation

Once the stage requirements are fulfilled, students move to the next stage.

The most popular project work framework is provided by Stoller (2002). The ten-step model is an easy to follow the guideline of project work that helps students and teachers to develop "meaningful projects to facilitate content learning and provide opportunities for explicit language instruction at critical moments in the project" (Stoller, 2002, p. 111):

1. Agree on a theme
2. Determine the final outcome
3. Structure the project
4. Prepare students for the language demands of Step 5

5. Gather information
6. Prepare students for the language demands of Step 7
7. Compile and analyze information
8. Prepare students for the language demands of Step 9
9. Present final product
10. Evaluate the project

Working on a project needs a systematic approach to guide students through the process till the culmination of the end product. Following the steps of a framework chosen by the teacher, students, or both provides students with the information about what they are expected to do at every stage of the project work.

The guidelines for project work recommended by Legutke & Thomas (2014) and Stoller (2002) have very much in common and can serve many learning/teaching objectives. From our point of view, teachers/students might feel that it is necessary to modify the existing guidelines (if they choose the readymade ones) according to the learning/teaching objectives of the course/program/etc. changing the order of the stages and adding/skipping different tasks and activities.

METHODS

The guideline of the project work used for the experiment of this study is a kind of synthesis of Stoller's and Fried-Booth frameworks discussed above. The first stage (before the teacher-student discussion of the ideas for the project topic) starts from teachers' preparation for the introduction of the project work to the class (project work objectives, such as skill(s) to be developed, the type of the project, and the form of final product). Then brainstorming with students about topics to work on occurs. On this stage students usually need some review of the project because students' background knowledge may not be enough to make a qualified decision (Fried-Booth, 1986). Thus it can be a good idea to ask students to make some preliminary research. This research can also help in shaping the project, distribution of the roles among students, and guide students while gathering information.

Once the material and information are collected, students analyze, synthesize, and combine the information. The practice shows that students need a preliminary presentation in class or to a teacher, to see what was done well and what needs to be changed or corrected because they may not see their mistakes and need someone else to help them. Having taken comments into consideration, students edit their work to prepare the final product.

The process of the project work used in this research is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Guideline for the project "Exciting Science"

Title: Exciting science	
Stage 1.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher asks students to indicate their own field/profession/major or the sphere of their own interest. 2. Teacher discusses with the students what they would like to work on.
Stage 2.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher negotiates the format of the final product (preparation and presentation of the poster, power point presentation, etc.) 2. Students discuss the draft titles of their presentations (based on the task of step 1)
Stage 3.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students together with the teacher agree on the major components of their projects (introduction, main part, conclusion) 2. Students decide what major questions they need to answer in their projects. For example: Why did I choose this topic? Why is it helpful? Etc.
Stage 4.	Students gather information on the selected topic.
Stage 5.	The teacher provides students with the expressions they can use in their presentations.
Stage 6.	With the help of peers and the teacher compile and analyze the gathered information.

Stage 7.	Students prepare the final product of their project
Stage 8.	Students show their product to the teacher and edit it (if necessary).
Stage 9.	Project presentation. All the presentations are video recorded.
Stage 10.	The video recordings of the presentations are watched and discussed.

After completion of the last stage of the project work procedure, to reveal the students' attitude toward using presentations in EFL class a questionnaire, being a quantitative method, was chosen as the method for the purpose of the research of this study.

The research was conducted in Continuing Education Center, Ishik University, Erbil, KRG, Iraq. The participants of this study were 23 EFL learners, whose age varied from 35 to 45, with a minimum bachelor degree in education. The research was completely on a voluntary basis, anonymous, and the obtained data was used only for academic research.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The survey used for this research consisted of 5 Likert scale questions with five answers varied from totally agree to totally disagree (Table 2). The received data was calculated with the help of Microsoft Excel, Office 2013.

Table 2. Questionnaire results

#	Question	Totally Agree	Rather Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Totally Disagree
1	I find presentations useful in improving my English Language	81%	17.2%	-	-	-
2	I would like to repeat this type of activity (presentation) more often	86%	8.6%	4.3 %	-	-
3	Knowing the presentations are video recorded motivated me to prepare better product	77.4%	17.2%	4.3 %	-	-
4	Watching and discussing video recordings showed me my weaknesses and strengths	94.5%	4.3%	-	-	-

5	The individual presentations made during the course helped me to reach the expected learning outcomes	90.1%	4.3%	4.3%	-	-
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The results of the survey reveal students' higher satisfaction (81%) of implementation of individual presentations into EFL course content, expressing their desire to repeat this type of activity more often in future (86%).

Video recording of the presentations increased students' feeling of responsibility and attempts to produce a better product (77.4%). Moreover, further discussions of the video recordings helped learners to reveal their strength and weaknesses (94.5%), which is crucially important for the development of their learning strategies and teaching methodology and course content, enabling students and the teacher to understand what they need to work on.

Finally, 90% of the participants (21 out of 23) believe that individual presentations made during the course helped them to reach the learning outcomes they expected to master at the end of the course.

CONCLUSION

Project work, applied to the process of learning contributes to student learning and program improvement in a number of ways:

- They focus on a real-world subject matter that can sustain the interest of students.
- They require student collaboration and, at the same time, some degree of student autonomy and independence.
- Project work is a process and product-oriented, with an emphasis on one particular skill or integrated skills and end-of-project reflection.
- Project work requires information gathering (or preparation for information gathering) which involves work with different written materials, from different sources, of different genres, etc., consequently, it improves students' English language proficiency.
- Project work increases students' interest and motivation toward learning English.

Project work in this thesis was assumed as an activity to promote the alignment between teaching methodology and students' learning outcomes, which puts increased demands on both the learner

and the teacher. That is because for a project to be successful both the teacher and his/her learners have to be prepared for a new style of working. However, the satisfaction of achieving the learning goals clearly outweighs all possible problems.

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University Teachers' Perspectives on Feedback as Recipients

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ABSTRACT

Wherever topics on feedback are tackled, one would certainly think of giving feedback to learners. This paper tackled feedback from the other direction, i.e. the feedback that is given to university teachers on their teaching from different providers: students, peers or colleagues. The paper investigated university teachers' perspectives on feedback as recipients, apart from the central quality assurance process in asking for student feedback at the end of the academic year. The feedback that is gained is self-access feedback i.e. it is gained by teachers themselves from different sources. The researcher predicted that feedback that university teachers are supposed to gain from different sources is useful to give them power for future performance, improve their teaching quality and to raise the level of learning and understanding on the side of students. The research that is carried out is a field research intended to investigate the perspectives of university teachers at Salahaddin University- Erbil in regard of feedback and the extend they seek feedback from different sources and act on it and the source(s) of feedback they consider to be reliable to be used as basis for accommodating their teaching behavior for the purpose of better learning and higher quality of teaching. The investigation that is carried out was achieved through a questionnaire. The results of the study supported the researcher's prediction in the usefulness of feedback for university teachers and their effort in seeking feedback and in there being justification for accepting or rejecting a source of feedback.

Keywords: feedback, receiving feedback, sources of feedback, teaching quality

1. INTRODUCTION

Anyone teaching at university would like to be a successful teacher in order to be highly evaluated and warmly welcomed. In order to find out how someone is teaching, one should ask for factual feedback from sources that are considered to be reliable by the receiver (Brown & Race, 2002), therefore; as it is very important to provide students with "quality feedback" in order to learn and improve, it is of the same degree of importance to give the teacher the feedback that contributes to the development of the teaching quality because having knowledge is not everything; therefore; there should be feedback be on the way the teacher manages the classroom, sets questions or engages students in the activities. (Furney, 2014, para. 1, 3), because it is not easy for any teacher to know about him/herself and about his teaching if feedback is not provided to

him/her. In order to be efficient, it is necessary to get feedback and successful "leaders" are always seeking feedback to improve their "performance" (FULL CIRCLE FEEDBACK, 2017, para. 8, 9).

Different definitions are given to *feedback* but all of them imply one thing which is improvement. Burn defines it as "information about the results of a process which is used to change the process itself" (2009, para.1). In Merriam-Webster it is defined in two ways: either it is "the transmission of evaluative or corrective information about an action, event, or process.....", or it is the "helpful information or criticism that is given to someone to improve performance, etc...."

Feedback does not cost a lot, but it has proved to be the most effective instrument that is available, but despite that, feedback is undervalued and is not considered as an influential instrument that leads teachers to be directed to the right way. Feedback is also used as a device that helps teachers and helps others to be aware of their performance (FULL CIRCLE FEEDBACK, 2017, para. 4). To clarify the importance of feedback, a resemblance is made between someone who works without feedback and between someone travelling without "a map or sign posts" (FULL CIRCLE FEEDBACK, 2017, para. 7), so, as it was stated, not only teachers' feedback on students' achievement is useful, but students' feedback is of the same degree of importance for teachers to improve their teaching for their sake as well as for their students' (Center for Research on Learning and Teaching [CRLT], 2016, para. 1).

Feedback can come from different sources. At university, mostly teachers are evaluated at the end of the year. Students are given questionnaires to reflect on the extent the course achieves its required results (Day, n. d.). Two aims are behind providing university teachers with this feedback; either to use the feedback for the improvement of teaching quality or to be used as a document in applying for an occupation or when promoted (About Feedback for Teachers [FFT], 2016, para.1).

Teachers seek self-access feedback on their performance for "personal and professional" reasons (Day, n. d.). Yet people do not waste much time to get what they want from feedback i.e. they devote only the time that is needed for this purpose. But getting the needed feedback is not so difficult as deciding the kind of feedback that will serve the receiver's purpose. This is so due to the difficulty of analyzing feedback when it is very rich. (Day, n. d.).

At university, feedback comes from three sources: students, colleagues and peers, and "self-generated" feedback (Hounsell, 2003, pp. 200- 212).The teacher can get access to feedback from his students by giving them a questionnaire in the last five minutes to be filled out but the questionnaire should remain anonymous in order to give factual information about their impression of their learning, the course and of the teacher. In analyzing the feedback, the area of weakness or difficulty can be identified if half of the students shared the same point (CRLT, 2016, para. 2 & Morss and Murray, 2005). If teachers gather feedback in the middle of the semester, they can act on it instantly (FFT, 2016, para. 5). When a teacher receives feedback from students before the academic year comes to an end, it will help the teacher make changes to his/her teaching. This will make students feel that the teacher really wants to improve his/her teaching. The changes to the teaching, even slight ones, will influence students tremendously in their evaluation of him/her. (CRLT, 2016, para. 2). Concerning feedback from peers and colleagues, the teacher can ask his/her peers and colleagues to observe his/her seminar or observe his/her teaching directly and the way students respond (Hounsell, 2003, pp. 200- 212 & Morss and Murray, 2005). But a point of importance in feedback is that in order to be useful, feedback must be provided instantly not after time goes by (Gormally, Evans, & Brickman,

2014, pp. 187- 199). Then comes the lecturer's personal views about his teaching behavior (Day, n. d.). In this case the teacher can write his/her notes or use a videotape of his/her teaching (Hounsell, 2003, pp. 200- 212). Besides what was mentioned, the teacher can depend on another source of feedback from "attention levels, pass, fail, transfer and drop-out rates (Hounsell, 2003, pp. 200- 212).

One might not depend on the feedback gained from those sources all the time separately because they might not be factual: either untruly good, or only the weak aspects are pointed out and focused. This is also approved by the researcher. It is recommended that teachers should get feedback from two of the sources and it would be the best way to gain the feedback from all those sources to get a balanced view from reflections of different kinds (Day, n. d.), because each of the sources has its good point: students can give feedback on the teacher's explanation of the lecture; colleagues can give you "constructive" feedback and reflect, for example, on the way test sheets are marked, students' assignments and on the objectives of the course and the last kind of feedback i.e. self-generated feedback or self-assessment which is achieved by using a recorded video of one's teaching can daily point out good and bad aspects of one's teaching to correct any faulty explanation before it is too late to do that (CRLT, 2016, para.1; Hounsell, 2003, pp. 200- 212 & Morss and Murray, 2005).

Teachers are restrained from using student feedback as means of assessment, in particular when used for "personal and tenure decisions". They confirm that this kind of feedback leads to lowering their "morale" and make them not satisfied with their profession, and this eventually will lead the college to "reduce standards on examinations and assignments in an effort to placate students due to their focus on students' satisfaction" (Gormally et al., 2014, pp.187-199).

At the same time other teachers state that student feedback can improve teaching. Yet, using student feedback as the only source for improving teaching is not enough as this feedback is not always adequate; learners rarely present tangible opinions pertaining to the improvement of teaching style. Sometimes students present views that contradict each other. Therefore; a limited number of teachers are inclined to make changes to their teaching because recipients like to receive definite feedback since generalization would not lead to improvement and change (Gormally et al. 2014, pp. 187- 199).

Peer feedback also proved to be inefficient. It is not approved by colleagues; the peer may be biased, and sometimes the peer is not ready to provide "negative" feedback as teachers usually like to gain encouraging feedback than gaining discouraging feedback but this affects the teacher negatively since it will eventually lead him/ her to restrain from getting feedback because (s)he feels that (s)he is perfect (Gormally et al., 2014, pp. 187- 199).

One must not consider negative feedback to be discouraging all the time and positive feedback to be encouraging, i.e. the manner in which it is provided is what matters (Tosey, 2002, pp. 108- 122).

Despite the usefulness of feedback, most people do not like it whether providers or recipients; people do not like to criticize or to be subject to "criticism" and at other times the comments on one's performance would not be negative but it comes out to be injurious because the word *feedback* itself is associated with criticism by lots of people (Poertner & Miller 1997). Therefore; the staff restrain from feedback from peers because they feel that this feedback "contributes little to tenure and promotion decisions" (Gormally et al., 2014, pp. 187- 199). Yet, they are ready to receive feedback and accept what is suggested by friendly honest peers to improve their teaching (Poertner & Miller, 1997).

It is advised that people, and in this context university teachers are addressed, have to try to get something from feedback because a person can use feedback, even if it is negative, in a useful way to achieve its desired ultimate aim which is improving performance (Poertner & Miller, 1997).

The researcher predicted that feedback is useful for university teachers to make changes to their teaching behavior and the feedback is gained from different sources. The researcher conducted a questionnaire to investigate university teachers' perspectives on the usefulness of feedback and the extent they use feedback of different sources to improve their teaching quality.

2. THEORY

The researcher predicted that feedback is useful for university teachers in order to improve their teaching and facilitate student learning, so they try to get feedback on their teaching from different sources and that they have reasons for accepting or refusing (a) certain source(s) of feedback.

3. METHODOLOGY

In order to get the information needed on university teachers' perspectives on feedback, a questionnaire was conducted to be filled out by university teachers. The questionnaire that was conducted was filled out by teachers from six colleges of Salahaddin University- Erbil.

3.1 PARTICIPANTS

One hundred Salahaddin University teachers of different academic titles and of both genders from six colleges participated in completing the questionnaire. The teachers belong to College of Languages (23 respondents), Arts (23), Education (9), Basic Education (12), Engineering (19) and Agriculture (14). Sixty eight of the respondents were male while (28) were female and four failed to identify their gender. Concerning years of service, the service of (33) of them was below ten years and of (68) of them was above ten years and four failed to show that. In each of the colleges, the teachers were chosen randomly considering their availability and their readiness to fill out the questionnaire as a number of teachers were unwilling to participate in filling out the questionnaire.

3.2 MEASURE

The data that was needed to carry out the research was gained from the questionnaire that was conducted and filled out by the teachers. The researcher listed ten items on the questionnaire with a five- scale response starting from *Strongly agree* to *Strongly disagree*.

3.3 PROCEDURE

To carry out the research, the questionnaire was distributed to the teachers in their offices in six colleges with the help of the departments in those colleges. The items that were not clear to the teachers were explained. The questionnaire was written in two languages; English and Kurdish and the Arabic version was available for those who did not speak Kurdish. The average time needed to fill out the questionnaire ranged from 10- 20 minutes.

4. RESULTS

The researcher predicted that feedback that teachers gain from different sources is useful for university teachers in order to adjust their teaching behavior for the benefit of their students and to facilitate learning but they have their own justification for approving or disapproving (a) certain source(s) of feedback. The results of the questionnaire (Table 1) revealed that generally university teachers approve feedback on their teaching and find it useful in accommodating their teaching behavior. Teachers try to have access to feedback on their teaching and all this supports what was predicted by the researcher.

Concerning sources of feedback, teachers approve the feedback that comes from honest peers but in regard of accuracy of student feedback, there is no absolute agreement among the teachers on its accuracy or inaccuracy as it is the case with colleagues comments as to be taken as criticism or as feedback. Teachers prefer to get positive feedback, yet negative feedback does not influence them greatly. The results also revealed that only a small number of teachers disapprove feedback and do not think it to be useful as basis for improving their teaching style.

Table 1 Questionnaire results for university teachers on feedback

Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. It is useful for university teachers to get feedback on their teaching.	32%	44%	5%	14%	5%
2. I try to get feedback on my teaching from different sources.	28%	59%	7%	5%	1%
3. Positive feedback encourages teachers to teach better.	41%	39%	5%	13%	2%
4. Negative feedback makes me lose confidence in myself.	6%	17%	12%	54%	11%
5. I work on feedback in improving my teaching quality.	24%	50%	10%	12%	4%

5. DISCUSSION

6. I think negative feedback is more useful in making me change my teaching style.	9%	44%	15%	24%	8%
7. I request my students to provide me with feedback in the middle of the term.	10%	34%	24%	24%	8%
8. I accept feedback from an honest peer.	29%	49%	16%	3%	3%
9. I regard colleagues' comments on presenters during seminars as criticism.	7%	35%	18%	35%	5%
10. Student feedback is not accurate.	27%	22%	12%	32%	7%

The researcher predicted that feedback that is gained from different sources is useful for university teachers. The results of the study showed that 76% of the teachers think that feedback on their teaching is useful for them (Table 1, item 1) and this supports the researcher's prediction, while 19% of them disagree to that. The results also revealed that the majority of the teachers with the rate of 87% get feedback on their teaching from different sources (item 2). It is noticed that a number of the teachers, who do not believe in feedback and do not act on it, and out of curiosity, seek feedback on their teaching. This is noticed from the increase in the rate of respondents to *item 2*. Most teachers like to get positive feedback because it encourages them to do better and this was revealed in *item 3* which received 80% and this is supported by Gormally et al. (2014, pp. 187-199), but 15% of them do not consider it as an encouraging factor. Negative feedback discourage only a small number of teachers which is 23% and this is contrary to what was stated by Gormally et al. (2014, pp. 187-199) as more than half of them with the rate of 65% are not influenced by negative feedback. These teachers work on feedback (item 5) whether positive or negative and use it as a means of development and this item received 74%. Respondents to *item 6* with the rate of 53% showed the benefit of negative feedback because this pushes them to the improvement of their teaching. Teachers agree to get feedback from students but those who get it in the middle of the term is about 44%, and 32% of them get the feedback at the end of the term and 24% of the teachers have not made up their minds (*cp. the rate of the respondents to item 1 & item 7 in Table 1*). The majority of the teachers with the rate of 78% approve the feedback that comes from an honest peer while 6% of them do not want feedback even from honest peers. Concerning the comments of the colleagues during the seminars, teachers are divided nearly equally as to take the comments as criticism with the rate of 42% or consider it as feedback with the rate of 40%. Nearly half of the teachers (49%) think that student feedback is inaccurate while a smaller rate of teachers which is 39% thinks that student feedback is reliable.

6. CONCLUSION

To conclude, it is noticed that the prediction that was made by the researcher was supported by the results of the questionnaire. Generally, university teachers believe that feedback is useful in giving them insight into their teaching in order to make changes to their teaching style to facilitate student learning. Teachers are willing to gather feedback for this purpose, not influenced or discouraged by negative feedback; as they consider both negative and positive feedback useful and act on it

though they find positive feedback much more encouraging. The majority of the teachers find honest peers' feedback reliable. Nearly half of the teachers do not rely on student feedback and on the comments of their colleagues either which is taken as criticism. It is worth mentioning that only a small number of teachers do not believe entirely in feedback as a source of improving teaching.

7. RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that an increased number of university teachers consider feedback as a device for better teaching and learning. It is more appropriate to consider all sources of feedback as useful. If student feedback is inaccurate or negative, the teacher can discuss it with their students and show them why (s)he did what (s)he did in that way because students do not have proper knowledge on teaching or on teacher's plan and the teacher can convince his/her students in a friendly way that it is impossible to satisfy all students and consider all of their feedback even if it is illogical and contradicts with methods of teaching, therefore; students have to get used to the teacher's style as far as possible.

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Flipped Classrooms in Teaching Method Courses at Universities in Iraq

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Abstract: The expectation from education is to bring 21st century learning skills to the new global and digital world students, as the world progresses rapidly towards an information society. In this direction, learners should be able to create their own knowledge rather than just receiving it; to be active in the learning process, and to discover new information and be able to transfer it. Developments in technology provide great opportunities for students to access and explore knowledge on their own. Together with these developments, the exploration for a learning environment, which will especially provide 21st century skills to students, is continuing. The flipped classroom has important potential for students to gain 21st century skills. With the flipped classroom, the time spent for the explanation of lessons is moved out of the classroom, and during the class time, students have a chance to apply new information and internalize knowledge in practice. In accordance with the flipped classroom model, this article aims at first, introducing the measurement and evaluation processes of suitable teaching methods, second, suggesting different activities inside and outside of the classroom, and, third, designing Web 2.0 applications that would help educators realize the suggested method.

Keywords: 21st Century Skills, Flipped Classrooms, Teaching Methods, Web 2.0 Applications.

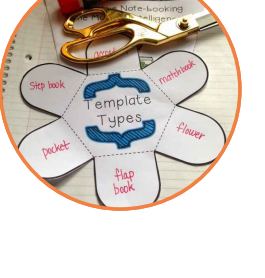
Introduction

Due to the general problems in the last years of Iraqi higher education, education is not given much importance. In this sense, the education curriculum needs to be renewed according to the needs and education technologies in Iraq. This renewal describes the 21st century learning skills of the International Association of Educational Technologies ([ISTE] 2008) as the skills and knowledge that must be learned in order to make learners of the rapidly increasing global and digital world live productively (Serin, 2015). Similarly, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills ([P21] 2009) defines these skills as skills, knowledge and expertise necessary for learners to successfully enter the business world. ISTE (2008) compiles these skills for learners under six main headings. These titles are; creativity and innovation, communication and collaboration, research and information

literacy, critical thinking, problem solving and decision-making, digital citizenship, and finally, technological processes and concepts. P21 (2009) defines learning and innovation skills as the skills that students need to acquire while preparing for a complex life and business life, and it offers three different skills under this heading. These skills are; creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, communication and cooperation.

Rapid developments in technology accelerated searches for the developed learning environments. In recent years, behavioral learning applications have begun to switch to constructive learning practices (Temizyürek ve Ünlü, 2015). In this context, learning has evolved into a continuous action that has become independent of time and space. What expected from the teachers in this process is self-improvement in the skills of using technology, linking activities in and out of school. What expected from the learners is knowledge production and synthesis (Taşkıran, Koral, & Bozkurt, 2015). In addition, teachers should provide learners with 21st century skills as *communication and cooperative work, knowledge-media and technology literacy, creative and critical thinking, problem solving, production, social and cultural skills development, learning to learn, self-organizing skills* (Kotluk ve Kocakaya, 2015). In order to bring these skills to learners, a multi-application education should be provided by increasing the activities within the classroom. (Turan and Göktaş, 2015). The fact that the information is delivered to the students in different formats in a short period through more advanced technologies with similar functions is a sign that education continues its way with the traditional teaching-learning pedagogy that exists for a long time in the 21st century. However, when the technology is used appropriately, students can be provided with the learning environment in which they can organize knowledge themselves. In this direction, in particular with technological improvements in higher education, different approaches such as distance learning, blended learning and flipped classrooms have emerged as supporting or alternative to traditional classroom models.

In short, providing students with creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, communication and cooperation skills is expected from 21st century education and teachers. In this direction, the faculties of education have come to an important position to maintain these skills, while training teachers.



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