

2018 VESAL

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INNOVATION, INSPIRATION, AND HOPE



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2018 VESAL

Learner Autonomy: Learning Centralized



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WELCOMING REMARKS



Dr. Suleyman CELIK
Dean of Education Faculty, Ishik University

It is a pleasure and privileged to welcome you to this most innovative and forward thinking venue where you will have time to consider and formulate what higher education will look like as emerging technologies, economy, and policies continue to catapult it into the future.

In many ways ones career during this evolving information age seems more like a foot race. We have been challenged to remain relevant in our disciplines and at the same time are compelled to adopt and use current technologies. The changes have been both exciting and profound and have transformed the way we do business. We now have learning environments that include online classrooms, MOOCs, cellphone response systems, and countless other instructional technologies dramatically changing the way in which we interact and engage with our student sand deliver education. As professors, administrators and public leaders, what do we need to be thinking about as the academy's core missions of teaching, research, and outreach move into the future? To discuss the core mission of education and language teaching and learning, Faculty of Education at Ishik University and College of Education at Salahaddin University jointly organizes International Visible Conference on Education Sciences and Applied Linguistics (VESAL), which is entering its 9th year of successful organization. The conference has already become a considerable brand and improving year by year.

The aim of VESAL 2018 is designed to attract the research communities to promote connections between theory and practice and ex-

plore different perspectives on the application of research findings into different practices.

I kindly welcome scholars coming from the international and local regions as well as experts, educators, linguists, lecturers and senior lecturers to Erbil, Iraq. The Conference is aiming to open channels, and pave roads of academic collaboration and to bring experiences together with expertise for further innovative thoughts and more creative research.

Profile:

Dr. Suleyman Celik, dean of the Education Faculty at Ishik University, in Erbil-Iraq, teaches pedagogy courses in different departments. His teaching interests include teacher training in pedagogy and Principles of teaching. Prior to coming to Ishik University, he has worked in different parts of Turkey as an English Language instructor. Celik received his PhD in 2013 in Georgia. His primary research focuses on learner diversity and differentiated instructions. He presented several articles in the conferences and published research articles based on different types of learners and their consequences in different journals. He is the chairman of two leading Educational conferences in Iraq. He is also the head of internal audit committee of the University. Celik resides with his family in Erbil. Dr. Celik is responsible for organizing all the programming aspects of the Education Faculty conferences.

ORGANIZING COMMITTEE

The Organizing Committee of The International Visible Conference of Education Sciences and Applied Linguistics (VESAL 2018) is composed of distinguished academics who are experts in their fields. The Organizing Committee is responsible for nominating and vetting Keynote and Featured Speakers; developing the conference program, including workshops, panels, targeted sessions; undertaking event outreach and promotion; recommending and attracting future Organizing Committee members; working with Ishik University to select PhD students and early career academics for Ishik University-funded grants and scholarships for teaching profession as careers; and reviewing abstracts submitted to the conference.

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Learner Autonomy: Learning Centralized

Autonomy means empowering students, yet the classroom can be restrictive, so are the rules of chess or tennis, but the use of technology can take students outside of the structures of the classroom, and the students can take the outside world into the classroom.

Learner autonomy has been a major area of interest in Education and foreign language (FL) teaching for some 30 years. Much has been written about what learner autonomy is, the rationale for promoting it, and its implications for teaching and learning. In terms of its rationale, claims have been made that it improves the quality of language learning, promotes democratic societies, prepares individuals for life-long learning, that it is a human right, and that it allows learners to make best use of learning opportunities in and out of the classroom.

Teachers' voices have, however, been largely absent from such analyses, and little is actually known about what learner autonomy means to language teachers and educators. This is a significant gap given the influence that teachers' beliefs have on how they teach, and, of particular interest here, on whether and how they seek to promote learner autonomy. This conference aimed to address this gap by examining and discussing what 'learner autonomy' means to language teachers and teachers in an education field. The role of the teacher as supporting scaffolding and creating room for the development of autonomy is very demanding and very important.

Learner autonomy is very useful in learning a new language. It is much more beneficial to learn a language by being exposed to it in comparison to learning patterns of different tenses. According to neo-Vygotskian psychology, which supports the idea of autonomous learning, the development of a student's learning skills is never entirely separable from the content of their learning, seeing as learning a new language is quite different to learning any other subject. It is important that the students discover the language for themselves, with only a little guidance from their teacher so that they can fully understand it.

MISSION & VISION

VISION

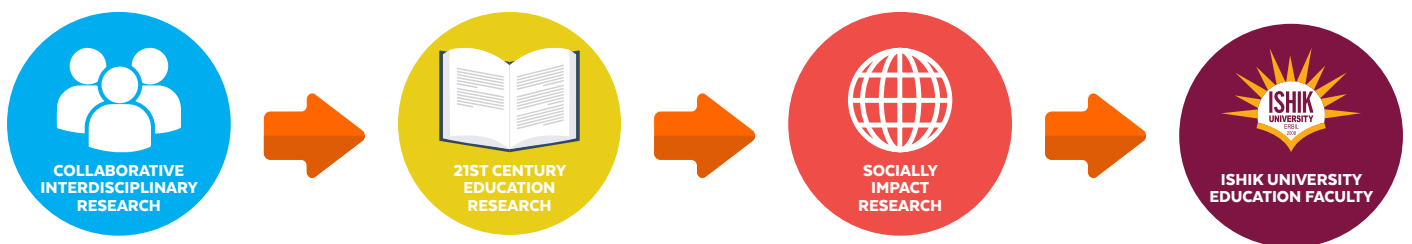


In order to enable the knowledge and information accessible to everyone, Ishik University holds its annual conference on Educational Sciences. The International Visible Conference aims to gather researchers, practitioners, educators, and scholars with interests in any fields of teaching at all levels from around the world. The VESAL 2018 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.

We kindly welcome scholars coming from the international and local regions as well as teachers and prospective teachers to Erbil, Iraq. The VESAL 2018

conference aims to contribute to the region and educators through international experts and researchers.

The VESAL 2018 conference plans to remain open to educational studies, language teaching and/or language-education related topics broadly defined, looking more closely into the current dynamics in the world between old and new trends, local and global tendencies, progressive and conservative views, stabilization and destabilization patterns, national and global identities. It is expected that VESAL 2018 conference will be a magnet for a significant number of front-ranking academics, professionals and policy makers working in the broad areas of environmental protection.



MISSION



To develop highly-qualified individuals who will contribute to the future of the country by making utmost use of the knowledge gained in fields of science, technology and arts in the light of universal values; offer learning opportunities in the fields of research, education and service for the benefit of the wider community.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

1- The Use of Handheld and Mobile Devices for Language Learning	
Soran Karim Salim/ Ibrahim Abdulrahman Ahmed	3
2- A Sociolinguistic Study of Sex Differences in Mosuli Arabic in Mosul-Iraq	
Dr. Ibrahim Khidhir Sallo	13
3- Additive Discourse Markers in the Kurdish Novel “Xazal Nûs U Baxakâni Xajâl”	
Paiman Hama Salih Sabir	36
4- Arabic-English Code-Switching as a Medium of Instruction in TEFL in Mosul University: A Sociolinguistic Analysis	
Dr. Ibrahim Khidhir Sallo	59
5- Discrimination toward the African-Americans in James Baldwin’s Go Tell It on the Mountain	
Asst. Prof. Dr. Sherzad Shafi’ Barzani/ Khalil Ibrahim Amin	76
6- The Impact of Using New Technology on Students' Learning Achievements at the University of Halabja\ Department of English Language	
Hedayat Muhamad Ahmad/Goran Omar Mustafa/Omar Fouad Ghafor	83
7- The Effect of Extensive Reading Program on Kurdish EFL Learners’ writing Performance	
Sangar S. Hamad/ Marjan Abbasian	94
8- How Colour Perceptions affect the English-Kurdish Translation of Colour Idioms	
Raz Fraidoon Abdulrahman	108
9- Kindergarten Teachers’ Job Satisfaction in the Cities of Koya and Rania	
Asst. Prof. Dr. Jabbar Ahmed Abdul-Rahman	119
10- The Effect of Critical Comprehension Strategy on Enhancing Reading Skill of Iraqi EFL Preparatory School	
Asst. Prof. Dr. Madeeha. S. Saleh/ Salwan Maulood	140
11- Narrating Arabs: An Analytical Study in T. E. Lawrence's Seven Pillars Of Wisdom And Miguel Cervantes's Don Quixote	
Ali Hamada	161

12- English Language Learners' Attitudes toward the Effectiveness of Communicative Strategies to Develop Their Speaking Skill	
Dr. Parween Shawkat	166
13- Influence of the weight of a School Backpack on backache among secondary school students at Koya province, Iraq	
Khalid I. Mustafa/ Sarhang Ibrahim	180
14- The Language Policy in Iraqi Kurdistan Region from the Perspective of Spolsky's Theories	
Mohammed Qader Saeed/Ali Mahmud Jukil	187
15- The Role of Grammar-Translation Method in Enhancing EFL Learning Skills	
Eman Abdulsalam Al- Khalil	197
16- The Role of Translation Theory as a Background for Translation Problem Solving	
Asst. Prof. Dr. Wrya Izzadin Ali	205
17- EFL Learners' Perspectives on the Process Approach to Essay Writing at the College of Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil	
Asma Abas Brime/Prof. Fatimah R. Hasan Al -Bajalani	218
18- Iraqi EFL Learners' Vocabulary Size in Relation to their Reading Comprehension Performance	
Wafaa Shakir Ibrahim/Rana Abdul Settar Abid	231
19- Large Classes: Problems and Consequences A Field Investigation into the Situation at the Department of English-College of Languages at Salahaddin University-Erbil	
Asst. Prof. Dr. Widad Sabir Shakir	242
20- The Role of Paideia Seminar Technique in Teaching English Poetry to University Students	
Prof. Amra Ibrahim Sultan/Shaimaa Safaa	250

The Use of Handheld and Mobile Devices for Language Learning

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Abstract

Mobile and handheld devices have played a significant role in daily lives of people in general and of students in particular. Learning languages particularly English on mobile devices is no longer new for language learners. Mobile devices have become inseparable part of everyday lives and activities; this also applies to the field of foreign language learning. The use of handheld devices and mobile phones in foreign language pedagogy, such as English, has been the subject of discussions and debate for many studies and made the researchers and educators to explore the advantages and implications of mobile devices in their scope for efficient and energetic language teaching/learning.

This paper is looking at the advantages and disadvantages derived from using handheld and mobile devices for language learners as well as how to make an effective, appropriate and interactive use of mobile phones from the perception of Salahaddin University and Koya University students. Hence, most of the respondents agreed that mobile phones benefit them in learning English as a foreign language. Moreover, the applications and types of dictionaries will also be discussed in this study.

Key words: Handheld devices, Mobile applications, Mobile dictionaries, Mobile learning

1. Introduction

Mobile phones and other portable devices are increasingly interested and engaged novel consumers, offering various capabilities and enabling the users for more multifaceted practices. Thus, this affects social, cultural and educational practices and makes innovative settings for pedagogical opportunities and learning (Pachler et al., 2010; Demouy et al., 2015; Dashtestani, 2016; Cavus and Ibrahim, 2017, inter alia). The incorporation of such mobile devices into instruction and learning has been incremental, as pedagogues should realise how they can be efficiently utilised to assist a variety of learning and promote practical approaches and resources for (MALL) mobile assistant language learning (Kukulska-Hulme and Shield, 2008). Ogata and Yano (2005) have summed up and introduced the key features of mobile learning for example, user-friendliness, convenience, durability, interactivity, directness, and positioning of educational activities. M-Learning is defined by Sharples et al. (2007) as a 'process of coming to know through conversations across multiple contexts among people and personal interactive technologies' (p. 255) with the emphasis on settings. The technological tools support this procedure involves any type of handheld devices including smart phones, cell phones, iPods, iPads, and so forth. Laptops are usually not regarded as mobile in this field, although they have the feature of mobility to a certain degree.

Furthermore, M-Learning is recognised as highly supportive in a range of pedagogical circumstances, such as independent learning (Bull and Reid, 2004), cooperative learning (Hine, Rentoul and Spencht, 2004), constant learning (Attewell and Savill-Smith, 2004) and EFL learning as well (Liu, Yu and Ran, 2008). Although, there are numerous studies on the application of information communication technologies in EFL learning, research on MALL are still essential. Since mobile devices have many benefits and features. Practitioners are investigating the way of utilising them in assisting learning

languages (Huang et al., 2012). The principal features of mobile learning are acknowledged as having the possibility for learning procedure to be ubiquitous, spontaneous, informal and personalised. While learning via mobile and handheld gadgets might take longer time in comparison to using computers. Language learners feel a better sense of convenience in terms of time and place, in order to make use of their spare time to learn a foreign language whenever and wherever they are.

Nevertheless, there are noticeable drawbacks in using mobile technology for educational purposes too, for instance, limited text entry, constrained potential of showing visuals and small screen size (Albers and Kim, 2001). Regardless of such disadvantages, Thornton and Houser (2005) demonstrate that handheld and mobile devices can certainly be efficient gadgets for presenting language learning resources to the learners. In addition, they (ibid) reveal three cases on using mobile phones for learning. They conducted experimental studies on Japanese students by using email service to receive daily vocabulary lessons and exchange emails with each other and with their teacher through their mobile phones. Finally, they were asked to explain English idioms via their own video-capable mobile phones. The targeted students expressed their satisfaction with using mobile phones for vocabulary learning purposes and they stated that it was 'a valuable teaching method' (p. 217) as well as they positively valued its pedagogical efficacy (ibid) within the classroom setting. Another recent study by Dashtestani (2016) on EFL Iranian learners reveals the importance of MALL to improve learners' language skills and strategies (p.839).

This paper attempts to explore the efficient way of learning and teaching via mobile phones. This led to a change from teacher-centred learning to students-centred approach - that is giving more autonomy to the learners in their learning process through M-Learning.

It is worth mentioning that the expression mobile and handheld devices refer to mobile phones and tablets. Furthermore, for the space limitation and the similarities of both mobile and handheld devices only **mobile devices** or **mobile phones** are used throughout this paper.

1.1 Objectives of the study

The main objectives of this study are two folded:

1. To discover how students at both **Salahaddin University (SU)** and **Koya University (KU)** use mobile phones in their English language learning process.
2. To find out their perceptions, attitudes, and application usages to learn an L2.

1.2 Research questions

This study focuses on the use of mobile phones in academic settings and investigates their advantages and disadvantages in the second language (L2) process by two Kurdistan Region's university students. The major questions of this paper are:

1. What are students' perceptions about the use of mobile phones in their English language learning?
2. How do SU and KU students utilise mobile phones in their English language learning?
3. What types of mobile applications do university students use most in their L2 learning?

2. Mobile and handheld device applications for language learning and improvement

Smart phones and tablets such as iPhone, iPad, Galaxy mobile and its tablets are widely owned and used by students and educators for different purposes including for learning and teaching aims. Language learners now have more opportunities and facilities to learn a target language than before via using these mobile technologies, and there are now thousands of applications that can be downloaded on their phones and tablets for free or in a very low price in order to use them for learning different languages. These software and applications are commonly known as 'applications', and these language learning applications are highly helpful for specific language learning skills (Viberg and Grönlund, 2012; Cavus and Ibrahim, 2017), for instance promoting vocabulary learning, building speaking skills, enhancing phonetic comprehension, learning grammar points and more.

For language learners especially university students, the accessibility, convenience, and free or low price mobile applications, provide great opportunities for them to make use of them in their L2 process especially outside classroom. Few studies have been conducted on student' use of mobile applications and their views regarding the productiveness of utilising them in their L2 learning, and how these applications can promote and accelerate their learning procedure (Kim, 2012; Oberg and Daniels, 2013).

Expanding language learning practice beyond classroom setting is crucial, particularly where the duration of in-class language use is limited (Kennedy and Levy, 2009). In order to master an L2, informal frequently practicing of it is required (Kukulska-Hulme, 2012). In a setting where lacks direct contact with the target language for students, this indicates attempting to sustain a more constant contact with L2 by allocating chances and time for self-activating and rehearsal. In this sense, mobile technologies and their applications possess possible language learning accessibility for its learners (Kukulska-Hulme, 2012).

For the busy language learners and students, mobile applications provide them with a variety of learning materials that can be downloaded on their smart phones and utilise effectively at their convenience in various contexts and on the go. In this study various types of mobile applications are given as examples for L2 learning. Those applications incorporate firstly, an application for building conversational skills i.e. improving speaking and writing in English, secondly applications for vocabulary learning or translating through monolingual and bilingual digital dictionaries and thirdly, a group of applications in different languages of the world about learning the most 2000 common words in daily use.

3. Advantages of mobile phones in language learning process

The general advantages of M-Learning are many and varied. Studies have verified the ample advantages of mobile learning such as space saving, time saving, cost decreases, as well as the better chance for personalised and autonomous learning (Zhang et al., 2011).

Mobile devices have numerous advantages; they are highly portable, multipurpose, convenient, are instantaneously operational and they have little propensity for application problems. They are like boxes of resource tools that can be employed in educational institutions in general and in a language classroom in particular, for example a recorder, microphone, camera, a library of e-books and dictionaries and so on. Hence, it is not surprising that mobile phones have been adopted by schools for educational purposes globally. They are considered as user-friendly and convenient. They have been considered as tools to assist the learning procedure (Wong and Looi, 2010; Oberg and Daniels, 2013).

Most mobile technologies are valuable in education as management, arrangement and teaching facilitators for educators, as well as learning assistant devices for language learners. The following points are some of the major benefits:

- a) Interaction and communication: language learners can communicate and interact with their teachers and with one other through their mobile devices instead of sitting behind large monitors of desktop computers.
- b) Portability: mobile devices are lighter than books and much smaller than desktops and thus allow the learners to take notes or save data immediately into the mobile device irrespective of position either by voce recording, typing or taking pictures of the written data. In addition they can be utilised anytime anywhere for educational purposes especially for language learning.
- c) Cooperative: mobile devices make opportunities for several learners to work together on their tasks and assignments within or outside the classroom setting.
- d) In terms of accessibility and vacancy, it is much easier to provide numerous mobile devices for a classroom than the numerous desktop computers.

4. Disadvantages and challenges of mobile phones in language learning process

Despite those advantages mentioned earlier, several disadvantages have been contributed to M-Learning and the use of mobile devices in education process in general and learning process in particular

(Zhang et al., 2011; Miangah and Nezarat, 2012).). The following possible disadvantages are identified by researchers:

- a) The small screen size of mobile phones and smart phones constrain the quantity and kind of information that can be shown.
- b) The majority of mobile phones have limited storage capacities.
- c) Regular recharging is required for mobile devices due to limited battery capacity.
- d) The written data entry is difficult in mobile devices because of having small keyboards.
- e) Owing to continuous development in mobile technologies, particularly for mobile phones, mobile devices may be soon become outdated.

Furthermore, some issues should be taken into account regarding the use of mobile phones for educational purposes. First, mobile phones have been used only as a supplement to traditional vocabulary learning, such as the use of dictionaries and books. Second, learning vocabulary through SMS technology of mobile phones has not been very effective in L2 process (Kennedy and Levy, 2008). Third, learning vocabulary via mobile phones only is said to be short-termed as Zhang et al claimed that words learned merely with a mobile phone cannot be recalled for long (2011).

Nevertheless, those mobile devices which are suitable for particular learning tasks are too costly for most of the learners to purchase especially in the developing countries. Therefore, instructors need to consider what types of mobile devices learners have, and then plan to choose or adapt learning materials well-matched to such tools (Kukulka-Hulme, and Traxler, 2005).

However, the advantages of M-Learning and the use of mobile devices for educational purposes have outweighed the disadvantages as most of the defects of mobile devices which have been mentioned above regarding small screen size, storage capacity, data entry and more, have now been solved to a large extent for instance in smart phones and tablet. .

5. Methodology

5.1 Setting

The current study is conducted at the English Departments of both Salahaddin University and Koya University, during the academic year 2017-2018.

5.2 Participants

The target participants of this research paper consisted of 60 second-year students at the English Departments of SU and KU. Thirty participants from each university were chosen randomly without considering their age, gender, and language proficiency.

5.3 Research Tools

For data collection and analysing research findings a questionnaire of ten statements was designed which was followed by two open-ended questions (that's to say 12 questions in total). The design of the questionnaire was based on two different ways of eliciting the date; which were statistical and verbal responses. Respondents are asked to indicate their scale of agreements or disagreements to measure their attitudes and perspectives of given statements regarding the use of mobile phones in L2 learning. Five-point Likert scale is used to measure the scale of agreement and disagreement. The questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 30 students at SU and 30 students at KU who they peruse their English language at their departments. The participants were not invigilated. They felt free to take the questionnaire home and return them back the day after. Almost half of the subjects completed the questionnaire inside the class. Further, the rest were able to complete at home and return them back the day after. In addition, SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program was used to analyse the data.

6. Results and analyses

The quantitative data analysis given in this section is based on the students' responses to the questionnaire, while the qualitative analysis is based on students' responses to the open-ended questions. Two answer the three research questions, it is better to group the items related to each other.

6.1 Close-ended questions

All sixty participants at both SU and KU were asked to show their scale of agreements or disagreements to measure their perspectives and attitudes of given statements about the use of mobile phone in L2 learning. Five-point Likert scale was used to assess the scale of agreement and disagreement as follows:

1. Mobile phone has helped my overall language learning process and I believe its use is very effective.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	22	36.7	36.7	36.7
	Agree	30	50.0	50.0	86.7
	Neutral	4	6.7	6.7	93.3
	Disagree	4	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

2. I plan better for my language learning with mobile phone than without it.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	13	21.7	21.7	21.7
	Agree	27	45.0	45.0	66.7
	Neutral	12	20.0	20.0	86.7
	Disagree	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

These two above tables illustrate students' usage of mobile phones for overall and planning L2 learning. The data shows that 50% of the respondents agreed that mobile phone has assisted their overall learning process, while 6.7% gave neutral and disagreement responses.

In addition, 45% of the students agreed that mobile phones help them plan better for their L2 learning. In contrast, 13.3% expressed their disagreement to the statement.

3. The use of mobile phones in language learning makes me more productive.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	11	18.3	18.3	18.3
	Agree	28	46.7	46.7	65.0
	Neutral	16	26.7	26.7	91.7
	Disagree	4	6.7	6.7	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

4. I find the use of mobile phone improves the language learning process.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	19	31.7	31.7	31.7
	Agree	29	48.3	48.3	80.0
	Neutral	7	11.7	11.7	91.7
	Disagree	4	6.7	6.7	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The table of question three shows a large number of respondents (46.7%) thought that the use of mobile phone in L2 learning makes them more productive, while 6.7% did not agree with the statement. Moreover, the table of question four indicates that 48.3% of participants have agreed that the use of

mobile phone improves their language learning process, whereas only 6.7% have disagreed with this idea.

5. My vocabulary acquisition (learning) has increased because of text message are written in English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	21	35.0	35.0	35.0
	Agree	22	36.7	36.7	71.7
	Neutral	10	16.7	16.7	88.3
	Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

6. My vocabulary acquisition (learning) has increased because of my mobile phone dictionaries.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	18	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Agree	22	36.7	36.7	66.7
	Neutral	9	15.0	15.0	81.7
	Disagree	10	16.7	16.7	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Regarding questions five and six, which are about vocabulary learning via mobile phones, 36.7% of participants seem to have a higher preference to vocabulary learning from English text messages and mobile phone dictionaries. However, only 10% of the respondents have expressed their disagreement regarding their vocabulary learning from English text messages on their mobile phones. In addition, 16.7% of students disagreed with the idea of learning vocabulary learning from their mobile phone dictionaries.

7. My language learning motivation has been improved by the use of mobile phone in and outside the classroom.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	9	15.0	15.3	15.3
	Agree	28	46.7	47.5	62.7
	Neutral	13	21.7	22.0	84.7
	Disagree	8	13.3	13.6	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

8. Mobile phones help learners to learn independently and at their own speed.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	9	15.0	15.0	15.0
	Agree	33	55.0	55.0	70.0
	Neutral	13	21.7	21.7	91.7
	Disagree	5	8.3	8.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

It is immediately clear from these two tables that 46.7% of students agreed that their motivation has improved through using mobile phones in and outside the classrooms. In contrast, only 13.3% of them disagreed with this notion. Following this, 55% of respondents agreed that mobile phones have helped them to learn L2 autonomously at their own speed, but merely 8% of students disagreed with this statement.

9. Mobile phones are helpful for learning new words and checking spelling, parts of speech and pronunciation of vocabulary.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	33	55.0	55.0	55.0
	Agree	20	33.3	33.3	88.3
	Neutral	5	8.3	8.3	96.7
	Disagree	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

10. Mobile phones help me to improve my English speaking and writing skills.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	18	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Agree	23	38.3	38.3	68.3
	Neutral	13	21.7	21.7	90.0
	Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	95.0
	Strongly Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

Significantly table nine shows that 33.3% of respondents have agreed mobile phones are actually helpful for learning new words, parts of speech, pronunciation, and spelling check of their vocabularies, whereas, only 3.3% of students have disagreed with the statement respectively.

Additionally, the latter table reveals that 38.3% of students expressed their agreement towards improvement of their speaking and writing skills through mobile phones, while only 5% did not agree with the idea that mobile phones were helpful to improving their speaking and writing skills.

It is important to state that the previous tables and data description may clearly answer the first and second questions of this study.

6.2 Open-ended questions

Regarding the two open-ended questions, various answers from both SU and KU students were elicited.

The first question was about using applications on the participants' mobile phones. Hence, twenty-seven out of sixty participants from both universities have mentioned using (Longman Dictionary) on their mobile phones which is English-English dictionary. Also, fifteen students from both universities have stated they use (LitCharts) application on their mobile phones which is a great source for literary genre. Moreover, more than half of them have written that they have English-Kurdish Dictionaries on their mobile phones like (Karzan, Rebin and Shwan dictionaries). This might be due to the fact that the majority of the students are Kurdish native speakers.

Furthermore, eleven of them have stated that they use Merriam-Webster Dictionary on their mobile phones, fifteen of them have also mentioned using Oxford Dictionary on their mobile phones, and eight of them have written (Dict Box) Dictionary. In addition, almost all of them have declared using other applications such as: English Grammar, Idioms, phrasal verbs, collocations, busuu, kids stories, hello talk and so on.

It is worth mentioning that more than thirty of them (out of 60 students) have written that they use social networking sites and other web pages, such as Facebook, YouTube, and BBC learning English, TED, Google translation and so forth.

It is to be noted that almost all applications mentioned above are a collection of free apps that can be downloaded onto smart phones and tablets and they are compatible with both iOS and Android systems. These apps are available in main languages with the same features and layouts, which offer great opportunities for L2 learners whatever language they wish to acquire and whenever and wherever they prefer to learn them.

Moreover, the second open-ended question was about whether they usually use English-Kurdish dictionaries or English-English Dictionaries. On one hand, twenty-six out of sixty learners usually use both of them. On the other hand, twenty-two of them often use only English-English dictionaries for learning an L2, whereas only ten of them use English-Kurdish dictionaries when they check vocabularies on their mobile phones. Overall, these two open-ended questions answer the third research question of the current investigation.

6.2.1 Dictionaries applications on mobile phones

Dictionary applications are now widely available and used on mobile phones. Digital dictionary applications are great facilitators and convenient tools for language learners in their learning process. The latest generation of mobile phones and smart phones enable their consumers to access multimedia utilities such as recoding, listening and speaking ones. Having such facilities, the learners may download various types of dictionaries on their personal mobile devices including monolingual and bilingual ones with sound functions so as to learn the correct pronunciation of unknown or new vocabularies to be able to meet their L2 learning requirements. This study is in line with Miangah and Nezarat's (2012) work.

Language scholars have considered dictionary use a significant vocabulary learning strategy and dictionary itself is a valuable resource device for L2 learning in order to acquire the meaning of unfamiliar and new words as well as most of the other facets of word knowledge. This paper is in line with Cook's (2008) and Nation's (2008) studies.

7. Limitations and suggestions for further study

Upon the research results of the current study, the advantages and drawbacks of mobile phone usage in language learning process, it can be stated that the researchers provided a number of limitations and suggestions that may deserve investigation:

First, the number of participants were limited (n 60) at two universities in Kurdistan Region. Therefore, it is suggested that a larger number of participants may give a clearer representation of the use of mobile phones in L2 learning among students. Second, the participants were only English major students (2nd grade), thus, future researchers can work on non-English major learners to explore their mobile phone usage in their L2. Third, this paper did not focus on specific mobile phone functions such as email, text messages, camera, audio recordings, and so on. Hence, future research studies can investigate on these areas. Finally, this research has taken on the perception and attitudes of students into consideration only. Therefore, further researches can take EL teachers, non-English major students' perceptions and attitudes into account.

8. Implications of the study

Because of the importance of mobile phones in the process of L2 , it is highly recommended for teachers to encourage their students to use mobile phones especially applications and dictionaries for L2 learning both inside and outside classrooms. It is also crucial for students to use their mobile phones for macro and micro skills of language learning such as, writing, reading, listening, speaking, vocabulary,

pronunciation, spelling, parts of speech, phrasal verbs, idioms and so on. Lastly, it is extremely vital for educators, scholars, curriculum designers to integrate mobile phone applications in their L2 learning process.

9. Conclusion

In summary, this paper has tried to investigate the use of mobile phones in English language learning by SU and KU students in general. Language learning through mobile devices is really effective to learn an L2 via the use of mobile devices to make L2 learning more convenient that can happen anytime anywhere. The domain of learning becomes more flexible, more mobile, and more exciting with the use of multifunctional mobile phones if they are integrated into educational settings and language learning contexts.

Although mobile devices can play a significantly vital role in L2 learning it has also some disadvantages in educational context, such as small screen size, data entry difficulties, and low storage capacity. However, most of these deficiencies have now been solved to a large extent especially via smart phones and tablets which have larger screen sizes, more storage capacity and more learning opportunities particularly through numerous applications that can be installed on them. Finally, in light of the research results several suggestions have been recommended for further studies so as to evade the limitations of the current paper regarding the number of participants and other functions of mobile phones for other purposes.

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A Sociolinguistic Study of Sex Differences in Mosuli Arabic in Mosul-Iraq

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Abstract:

This study examines language sex differences (henceforth SDs) in Mosul at lexical, syntactic and semantic levels and attempts to explore the influence of sociolinguistic incentives (i.e., topic, setting, and participants including their age, sex and literacy). It is hypothesized that females and males (henceforth Fs and Ms) speak differently. This study aims proving that Iraqi speech community is not a homogeneous one with shared linguistic norms as Chomsky claims (i.e., ‘the ideal speaker/listener theory’). It is based on data collected from Mosuli Arab informants. This study is also expected to shed light on this phenomenon with reference to its nature, causes, how and where they occur. This paper also tackles SDs in expressing apology, compliments, complaints, condolence, congratulations, greetings, leave-takings, refusal, swearing, thanks giving, and threatening. It ends with some findings and recommendations, which call for future empirical studies of SDs to give a comprehensive picture of them in Iraq and the Arab World with reference to sex-mixed interaction, gossip and verbosity, interruption, joke-telling, language acquisition, language change, communicative competence, self-disclosure, social stereotypes, taboo expressions, use of proverbs, tag questions and stylistic SDs.

1. Introduction:

According to sociolinguists, language is not a monolith with fixed rules shared by the members of a homogeneous speech community (as Chomsky assumes). They view language as a social behaviour and the social differentiation leads to linguistic variations since extra-linguistic factors influence language (Judd 1983: 234).

One sociolinguistic area that has not been studied until recently is the correlation between language and Gender in a speech community. Unfortunately, this topic has not been tackled by Arab sociolinguists. At present time, it is recommended to adopt a sex-neutral style and language to reduce if not possible to eliminate sex-specific references.

The ‘introspective judgements’ made language SDs by Jespersen (1922) are similar to those expressed by (e.g., Lakoff 1972) but the explanations are different and the SDs ‘are no longer based on biological assumptions but on social ones’ (Quoted in Brouwer 1982: 708). In North America and Europe, the last few decades have witnessed greater attention being paid to the issue of the link between language and sex. And it is only recently the sociolinguists have embarked on investigating linguistic variations correlated with sex. Accordingly, researches have to be carried out to confirm or refute the validity of hypotheses (Judd 1983 : 234, 235).

Numerous observers have described women's speech as being different from that of men. Undoubtedly, these observations are biased because the language of Ms is regarded as the norm against which the language of Fs is judged (Wardwaugh 1989: 303).

2. The Hypotheses:

This study aims at: (i) it is expected that Iraqi women and men use language differently; (ii) there are sex differences in the speech of Fs and Ms at lexical, syntactic and semantic levels; (iii) there are also SDs in the expression of speech acts and (iv) it is also anticipated that SDs are correlated with social factors (i.e., topic, setting and participants).

The question which is supposed to be answered throughout this paper is: Do Mosuli women and men talk differently? If they do, do the SDs reflect different social behaviour? It is hypothesized that this study will support the rejection of the notion of innate SDs.

3. The Purpose and Value of the Study:

This study aims at proving that Mosuli society is not homogeneous with shared linguistic norms in the Chomskyan sense. It is supposed to explore what motivates Fs and Ms to adopt different ways of speaking. It is also expected to shed light on the features of women's language and the stylistic differences between Fs and Ms.

Such empirical sociolinguistic studies are crucial in the design of language learning materials especially if they are based on authentic data. For SDs studies, the attempt, should aim at identifying language SDs and incorporating sex-based language in the textbooks prepared by materials designers. The failure to learn SDs on the part of the learners might cause embarrassment and frustration for them in dealing with the native speakers a specific language. According, mastery of sociolinguistic competence of a language demands teaching the SDs to the nonnative speakers of it (For details see Judd 1983: 235, 236, 239, 240).

It is hoped to show that there are SDs at the lexical, syntactic and semantic levels and to explain the effect of sociolinguistic incentives (i.e., topic, setting and participants) on the language used by Fs and Ms in dealing with specific topics in certain situations.

The shift from grammatical competence to sociolinguistic competence has stressed the necessity of carrying out sociolinguistic studies which highlight the shortcomings of the Chomskyan 'ideal speaker-hearer' competence.

4. Data Collection:

This empirical research is a data-based study which aims at identifying lexical and syntactic aspects which show sex-related variation. The site chosen for data collection is Mosul where (24 Fs and 24 Ms) were randomly selected. All the interviews were conducted in Mosuli Dialect. I and my wife, M.A. in English Literature, tape-recorded data elicited through interviews with the chosen informants. Data collection was carried out in 1994. During this period and up to a recent time additional materials have been collected. The corpus is centered around everyday informal language of women and men.

The interview usually commenced with general questions about the informant's name, age, education, work, etc. The respondents were asked to tell something about their lives and about an

experience in which they expected they were in danger of dying (A technique suggested by Labov 1972b) and to tell a traditional story. Apart from conducting a random sample, existing relations of kinship and friendship to recruit respondents have been used. Most of the interactions were conducted in informants' homes (i.e., uncontrolled natural settings) to get rid of the stiffness of the subjects. Response times to the interviews lasted about 30 minutes for each informant. All the informants are adult native speakers of Mosuli Arabic (18+). A list of topics of general interest was used to initiate a conversation. In addition, the interviewees were free to discuss topics of personal interest. Then the recorded data were transcribed. Some cassettes were replaced by new ones because they did not meet the purposes of this study which concentrates on SDs. Before the session began each participant was asked to fill out a biographical questionnaire form.

The sample for this study is based on the statistical public census of population in Iraq in 1988. As for sample of the household, it was selected by probability sampling methods. It covers a sample of (1000) households in Mosul equal to 1% of the total households. The survey represented the different geographical quarters of the city. Then a sub-sample of 10% was drawn as potential informants for the present study. A list of names and addresses was obtained for the households in the sub-sample and a questionnaire was designed to collect personal information on each individual. The next stage was the distribution of the questionnaire forms. The data obtained from the questionnaire was processed. As a result, it was ended up with 96 members as potential informants. But due to lack of sufficient time it was decided to contact only (48) of them and to have further appointments with them. This selection was done by the stratified sampling procedure.

The data bank built for this fieldwork consists of (48) hours of tape-recorded conversation. Eventually, the informants were grouped into eight consisting of six speakers for each one. They were selected to represent the combinations of the dependent social variables (i.e., age, sex and literacy). The following stratification of the sample was ended up with:

1. Age: Young # Old (18-40 # 41-65+)
2. Sex: Fs # Ms
3. Literacy: Literate # Illiterate

The bulk of the data (i.e., 48 tapes) was finally transcribed phonemically. All the utterances, which embody SDs, were transcribed. The processing of the data led to the tabulation of the corpus into: single lexical items, syntactic structures and expressions, topics, speech acts, proverbs, swearing and taboo expressions. These items were presented in nine questions. They were put in the form of a questionnaire in Arabic to save time and effort in understanding.

Since the core of this paper concentrates on SDs, the options in the questions were three (i.e., whether the linguistic items and structures were used by Fs or Ms or both sexes). The social variables, age and literacy, were not used in this questionnaire as dependent variables due to lack of time. Moreover, the option (both sexes) was cancelled in the analysis since it stood for a linguistic similarity not SDs between the two sexes. And it is not the focus of the study.

The questionnaire forms were given to (100) students (50 Fs vs. 50 Ms) randomly selected in the Department of English and Translation in the College of Arts, University of Mosul. The purpose behind the number (100) was to facilitate the frequency counts and percentages. The equal number of the respondents of each sex was significant while age and literacy were not important. The fieldworker explained the goal behind filling the forms and requested them to hand the forms over after one week. After receiving them, the task of 'frequency counts' was started to facilitate comparison but this study is

qualitative not quantitative. The idea behind the combination of data collection through interview and recording, and the distribution of the questionnaire is to support the use of sex-based items by either sex. The reader is referred to sections 5, 6, 7.

5. A Linguistic Analysis of Speech Sex Differences:

Early 1970s studies had concentrated on SDs in word choice, syntax, phonology and suprasegmentals. The stereotypical assumptions of Jespersen (1922) and others generated questions such as: (i) Have women limited vocabulary? (ii) Do they use more and/or different adjectives and adverbs? (iii) Do they use more unfinished sentences and more ‘superficial’ lexical items? (iv) Do the sentences of women and men differ in length? These stereotyped claims have been modified or refuted by recent studies (Thorne et al 1983: 12).

In this part, some linguistic aspects (e.g., lexical, syntactic and semantic), extracted from data collected in Mosul, will be investigated with discussion of offering an illustration of SDs supported by examples from the corpus.

To give a clear picture of women’s language characterized by certain lexical and syntactic features, the researcher has attempted to present an analysis of speech SDs in Mosul and to identify them at lexical, syntactic and semantic level leaving phonological and morphological areas for future studies. No evidence of SDs at morphological level has been noticed. The phonological stratum demands an independent study since it is beyond the scope of this paper. The discourse stratum will be tackled in section 7 (Analysis of speech Acts). For the syntactic SDs, this section embodies some sex-linked expressions and structures leaving SDs related to negation, interrogation, passivization, conditional sentences, if there are any for future studies. As for lexical items, vocabulary can be considered the most striking area where SDs can be found. The analysis will be limited to linguistic differences between Fs and Ms whereas linguistic similarities will be discarded.

6.1 Sex Differences at Lexical Level:

In this section, the lexical variation demonstrating the correlation between the selection of lexical items and the sex of the speaker will be presented to show which ones are considered more feminine and which ones are more masculine. Abd-el-Jawad (1988: 104) believes that the lexicon in Arabic is the area with the greatest amount of sex variation. Moreover, the phenomenon of SDs in vocabulary has been frequently studied by many researchers.

This section shows that most of the lexical items collected from the informants were given to (100) students (50 Fs and 50 Ms aged between 18 and 25) in Mosul University to state whether Fs and Ms or both sexes mostly use them. In this analysis the last option was cancelled because it stood for similarities while the other two choices (by Fs or Ms) were taken into consideration. Moreover, the analysis was limited to the significant lexical SDs because they called for comment. The following table explains the use of lexical items by women in a decreasing manner based on their scores.

Table No. 1
Use of Lexical Items by Women

No.	Item	Meaning in English
1	‘magruud’	Such a miserable one
2	‘qurbaanu’	A sacrifice for you
3	‘mafjuu9’	A misfortunate person
4	‘9aabat’	What a bad

5	'?ankafeeti'	Death be upon you
6	'makfii'	Such a desperate fellow
7	'Hayraanu'	I sacrifice myself for you
8	'ishta9alat'	May you be burned
9	'matooba9'	May misery be upon you
10	'kawayis'	Lovely
11	'?anlahabat'	May you be burned or inflamed
12	'9awaafii'	I hope you enjoy it
13	'kaniinu'	It looks like
14	'badaa9a'	Wonderful
15	'makhanzar'	Piggy behaviour
16	'yajannan'	It is amazing!
17	'khastakhaana'	Hospital
18	'piira'	A tricky woman
19	'yakhabbal'	It is wonderful!
20	'taqshab'	She gossips a lot
21	'waja9'	May you suffer
22	'khaTiiyy'	O' dear!
23	'baarii'	You should better do this
24	'khooma'	Do you believe?
25	'Haraamaat'	O' no or I wish it didn't happen

Table 1 shows that 'magruud' (miserable) is the most frequently used word by Fs, compared with Ms. It expresses sorrow which reflects the psychological nature of women regardless of age and literacy. It is used by women, especially the illiterate old women, more than by men. This explanation is applicable to the words 'mafjuu9' (what a pity!) and 'makfii' (desperate).

The table also indicates that the words 'qurbaanu' and 'Hayraanuu' (to sacrifice oneself for somebody especially babies) are highly used by women. They express women's love and for newly born infants or babies. They are occasionally used mockingly and sarcastically with old people.

It is indicated by the table that '?ankafeetii' (O' God! I wish this would be my end ... I wish I died) is always used by Fs jokingly or seriously, or for expressing exclamation and exaggeration. Men claim it does not suit them.

It has been found out that the word 'kawayis' (nice , good) is always used by women, especially old ones, in expressing their admiration towards persons and things as well.

The table shows that the word '9aabat' (what a or how + bad + N.) is highly common among women whether literate or illiterate. It can be used for provoking others seriously or for kidding and joking depending on the intonation of the speaker.

The word '9awaafii' (congratulation) is commonly said to someone after finishing bath or having a delicious meal. It is usually used by women and sometimes used cunningly to mean the opposite as when someone commits a mistake or a crime and imprisoned as a result of that. People may use it to imply that such a person deserves the punishment.

The word 'khastakhaana' (hospital) is mostly used by old women. Originally, it is a Turkish loanword borrowed during the Ottoman Empire. The use of it by women in particular is probably due to the fact that women are more linguistically conservative than men because they, especially in the past,

rarely leave their houses. Accordingly, the shift from ‘khastakhaana’ in (IA) to ‘mustashfa’ in (SA) is slow on the part of women although both mean (hospital).

In table No. 1, ‘yajannan’ and ‘yakhabbal’ (both mean to make one fool or crazy) are highly used by women when they are fascinated by somebody or something.

The word ‘waja9’ (may you be hurt) is highly used by women when they are angry at their children’s naughty behaviour, e.g., shouting or crying aloud.

The word ‘khaTiiyy’ (what a pity! Or I pity him/her....) is highly used by women regardless of age and literacy when they pity somebody since they are extremely emotional and quickly affected by bad news whereas men are the opposite. This may be justified psychologically because men seldom show personal sorrow or translate it verbally as women do. Similarly, ‘Haraamaat’ (feeling sorry or regretful for losing something or the departure of somebody) is mostly used by women to express regret because they are emotional by nature.

The word ‘kaniinuu’ (as if, just like, look like) is mostly used by women, especially the illiterate old ones, to express similarity and it is very often replaced by the SA word ‘mithil’ (as...as, like).

The following table shows the use of lexical items by men in a decreasing manner based on their frequency counts.

Table No. 2
Use of Lexical Items by Men

No.	Item	Meaning in English
1	‘garantii’	Guarantee
2	‘biznis’	Business
3	‘chayyak’	Check
4	‘taqshab’	She gossips a lot
5	‘kansalha’	Cancel
6	‘griin laayat’	Green light (expression of assurance)
7	‘chaaykhaana’	Tea shop
8	‘piira’	A tricky woman
9	‘fazgan’	Careless
10	‘ookee’	O.K.
11	‘baTraan’	Indifferent
12	‘haloo’	Hello
13	‘Saaloon’	Hair dressing shop
14	‘khooma’	Do you think?
15	‘haay’	Hi (a word of salutation)
16	9abaaalak’	As if
17	‘khaTiiyy’	O’ dear
18	‘badii9’	Wonderful
19	‘bil9aafiya’	I hope you enjoy it
20	‘Haraamaat’	O’ no

Table No. 2 shows that ‘garantii’ (guarantee) is the most frequent item used by men because it is related to business. It has been noticed that the English loanwords in IA, especially the ones which are correlated with business life, are mostly used by men, e.g., ‘baznas’ (business), ‘chayyak’ (check),

‘kansalha’ (cancel), ‘griin laayit’ (green light), ‘ookee’ (OK), ‘haloo’(hello), Saaloon’ (hair dresser shop), ‘haay’ (Hi), etc. It has also been observed that these items are often used by the literate young individuals from both sexes as a social etiquette and to show off in using the pre-mentioned foreign borrowed items as symbols of elitism, modernism, Americanism and westernization.

The table shows that the word ‘taqshab’ (gossip) is mostly used by men because it embodies bad connotation and it is used by men as a criticism of women who are fond of gossiping.

The word ‘9abaalak’ (as if, look like) is mostly used by men to express similarity and it can be replaced by the SA word ‘mithil’ (as...as, similar to).

The words ‘fazgaan’ and ‘baTraan’ (of being different) are mostly used by men, especially the illiterate old generation. Originally, they are likely to be borrowed by men from the countryside and the south of Iraq.

Table 2 also indicates that the word ‘chaaykhaana’ (café, tea shop) is entirely used by men. It refers to a place where tea is served and only men of different ages, professions, and status can go there. Originally, it is a loanword from Turkish, so it is mostly used by old men. But the young literate men normally use the equivalents of it in SA such as ‘maqha’ or Mosuli word ‘qahwii’ or the borrowed word ‘gaaziinoo’ which convey the same meaning (i.e., café, tea shop, casino).

The previous analysis shows that there are SDs in the use of vocabulary because some lexical items are sex-linked. Some of them are mostly used by Fs whereas some others are usually used by Ms although the majority of Iraqi lexical items are shared by both sexes.

6.2 Sex Differences at Syntactic Level:

There are certain SDs as far as syntactic structures are concerned, yet very little has been done on sex-related variation in the syntactic component (For details see Shibamoto 1987: 30). This section will focus on some fixed expressions commonly used by women or men. The following two tables present samples of such structures. The analysis will be confined to the significant differences while the similarities will be discarded. The following table shows the use of some syntactic expressions by women arranged decreasingly based on their scores.

Table 3
Use of Syntactic Expressions by Women

No.	Arabic Expressions	Meaning in English
1	‘wii daada’	O’ dear!
2	‘wii 9eeb’	What a shame! Or How dare you!
3	‘ooy daadaa laa 9ashtu’	O’ I wish I would n’t live after you.
4	‘wii yishbah’	O’ It is similar to
5	‘qubaan 9eenak’	I wish to sacrifice myself for your eyes
6	‘wii ?ashqad Hulu’	How nice and sweet it is!
7	‘wii ?ashqad najmu khafiif’	Lit., What a light star he has!
8	‘wii daadaa ?um beet’	O’ she is a good housewife!
9	‘laa Haraam laa’	O’ by what is forbidden no.
10	‘khalii yinTam’	Let him be buried.
11	‘Taqat ghuuHii’	I would explode.
12	‘?alla 9andak’	May God protect you.

13	'laa daadaa laa'	O' dear no.
14	'?asm alla 9aleek'	May God protect you.
15	'qurbaanul alla'	Wish to sacrifice myself for God.
16	'Hamaam ?al 9awaafii'	Wish you enjoy it.
17	'?ashqad tawasaltu biinuu'	How I begged him.
18	'maqSuuf ?al ghaqabii'	May God break your neck.
19	'Tamaamii illi ?aTamu'	May he be buried.
20	'mariidh ?ash Haalu'	How sick he is!
21	'?ashoon faj9a'	What a disaster!
22	'?ashqad beehat'	What a naughty boy he is!
23	'laa 9eenii laa'	Lit., O' my eye no.
24	'maa SaHiiH'	Is n't right?
25	'maa tamaam'	Is n't correct?

1. 'wii daadaa' (O' dear!)

Table 3 shows that this expression is the most frequent one used by Fs. It is highly uttered by women when they pity somebody to express their amazement towards bad news. Similar expressions are:

2. 'ooy daadaa laa 9ashtu' (O' dear, I wish I would not live after ...)
3. 'laa 9ashtu' (I wish I would not live after)

These three examples are confined to women regardless of age and literacy because men never use them. They all express sorrow and regret.

4. 'wii 9eeb' (How dare you!)

This expression is always used by women because they pay too much attention to social traditions imposed on them and the list of what is '9eeb' (shameful) is long, yet there is social plasticity and flexibility towards men regarding the social conventions in the Arab World.

5. 'wii yishbah' (... similar to ...)

This expression, which refers to similarity, is always used by women to show surprise and exclamation. The use of 'wii' is the marker of women's speech while 'yishbah' (like) by itself can be used by both sexes.

6. 'qubaan 9eenak' (I wish I sacrificed myself for the sake of your eyes)

This expression is sex-linked because it is used by women only and never by men. Sometimes, it is used provokingly and sarcastically with the older people. It is very often accompanied by the following examples 7, 8 and 9.

7. 'wii ?ashqad Hulu' (What a nice or a beautiful, e.g., baby or thing it is!)

The table shows that this example is always used by women not men because of the feminine marker 'wii', but '?ashqad Hulu' (How nice or beautiful it is!) can be used equally by both sexes to express compliments for children and admiration for inanimate things.

8. 'wii ?ashqad najmu khafiif' (Literally, how light his star is!)

This is used to a great extent by old women and never used by men to talk metaphorically about someone exposed to envy and jealousy and has a bad luck.

9. 'wii daadaa ?um beet' (What a good housewife you are or she is!)

This expression is particularly used by old women who express their admiration for a girl who is good at managing house affairs. Namely, she is going to be an excellent housewife after marriage. This example is never uttered by men due to the use of 'wii daada', a marker of women's speech.

10. 'laa Haraam laa' (Literally, no by what is forbidden no.)

This expression is mostly used by women and is normally replaced by 'laa walla laa' (No, by God no ...) which can be used by both sexes to express an oath.

11. 'khalii yinTam' (Literally, let someone be buried)

It is often used by women and sometimes replaced by ‘Tamaamii illi ?aTmu’ (The same meaning of example 11). Both can be used by men as well and are correlated with illiteracy and expression of disgust and degradation of others.

12. ‘Taqat ghuuHii’ (Literally, my soul exploded).

This expression conveys complaining and of being fed up especially by women.

13. ‘?alla 9andak’ (May God protect you.)

It is frequently used by women to express sorrow and pity for bad things which may hurt the addressee.

14. ‘laa daadaa laa’ (O’ dear no)

This is a womanly-used expression and men rarely use it. If a man uses it, surely he is old. It is similar to some other expressions commonly used in informal settings, e.g.

15. ‘laa maamaa laa’(Literally, no mother no)

16. ‘laa baabaa laa’ (Literally, no father no)

17. ‘laa Habiibii laa’ (Literally, no love or honey no)

18. ‘laa 9eenii laa’ (Literally, no my eye no)

They all express polite refusal. They are mostly used by women except the last two examples which are confined to family members, husbands and lovers; therefore, women are socially embarrassed in using them with strangers in public settings. All of them can be used by men as well.

19. ‘?asm alla 9aleek’ (May the name of Allah protect you)

It is mostly used by parents and women in general to avoid anything that might hurt children. It implies that God may prevent such an action from happening. It is usually used by old people.

20. ‘qurbaanul alla (Literally, sacrifice for God)

This expression is used to express admiration for things and also to criticize people cunningly.

21. ‘mariidh ?ash Haalu’ (How sick he is!)

It is totally used by women. It involves exaggeration towards others because ‘?ash Haalu’ implies of being in a very bad state. This reflects the nature of women in general.

22. ‘?ashoon faj9a’ (What a disaster!)

This expression is commonly used by women and especially by the illiterate old ones to express complaining. Similar expressions are also used, e.g.

23. ‘?ashoon dhooja’ (What nuisance or discomfort!)

24. ‘?ashoon 9iisha’ (What a life!)

25. ‘?ashqad beehat’ (What a naughty)

This exclamatory expression is used by women to express disgust at a silly behaviour when they provoke others either seriously or jokingly. A similar example can be used.

26. ‘?ashqad naHas’ (He is so naughty or he is such a silly)

The last two examples can be used by men as well.

The following table shows the use of syntactic expressions by men, arranged decreasingly.

Table 4
Use of Syntactic Expressions by Men

No.	Arabic Expression	Meaning in English
1	‘siim baalak’	Be careful
2	‘laa bal Haraam laa’	Believe me I didn’t do it
3	‘?aban dalaal’	He is such a pet (spoiled)
4	‘?um beet’	She is such a perfect housewife!
5	‘Tamaamii illi ?aTamu’	Damn him.
6	‘?ashqad naazuuk’	What a delicate ... he/she/it is!
7	‘maa SaHiiH’	Isn’t true?

8	'?ashqad beehat'	He is such a silly man!
9	'?ashoon faj9a'	What a catastrophe!
10	'?asm alla 9aleek'	May the name of God protect you.

27. 'siim baalak' (Be careful)

This is a kind of warning used excessively by men more than by women, maybe because men are more serious and afraid of any shortcoming. It is often replaced by 'diir baalak' which conveys the same message.

28. '?ashqad naazuuk' (How nice or delicate he/she/it is!)

This expression is used by Fs and Ms to express compliments.

Among the collected expressions, the following ones are commonly used by Fs:

29. '?akal ghaasii' (Literally, he eats my head. Metaphorically, complaining about the state of being envied by someone else)

30. 'sawadalla wachii' (God blackened my face.)

31. '?anhajam beetii' (Literally, my house was attacked and destroyed.)

The last two examples are usually used by illiterate old women to express their reaction towards hearing disastrous news.

There are some examples commonly used by Ms:

32. '?ashtaghal 9ala iidii' (He worked with me to get experience.)

33. 'maalii khalaq' (I am sick or I don't feel well.)

34. 'natwakal 9ala alla?' (Shall we start?)

35. 'fattaH 9ayuunak' (Literally, open your eyes well (advice). Metaphorically, to be careful)

36. '?alla wakiilak' (Literally, God is your deputy. It is an oath meaning by God)

37. 'qaarash waarash' (Foxy, playable, tricky)

38. '9aTTaal baTTaal' (Jobless)

6.3 Speech Sex Differences at Semantic Level:

This section is confined to colours only. In Iraq, it is quite natural that there are SDs in the use of colours since it has been found that women know more colour terms. Regarding this point, my wife and sisters, and their friends claim that the selection of a variety of colours is a part of their nature. They add that women often tend to choose clothes with various colours. Moreover, their use of cosmetics (i.e., make up) offer them a great chance to be familiar with great number of colours in their daily life. Colours usually attract the attention of Fs more than Ms and women always attempt to look for unique and newly-coined colours. In short, women tend to change and such a change includes colours to a great extent. Furthermore, in their attempt to look beautiful and elegant women seek whatever gives them a chance to achieve that. The use of colours is considered a golden opportunity to accomplish this psychological motive. Conversely, men normally limit their choice to certain basic colours due to the fact of being busy in their life.

To justify the assumption that women know and use colours more than men do, I asked (100) informants (50 Fs and 50 Ms aged between 18 and 25) to mention the colours they are familiar with. For Ms, the average number of the colours mentioned by them ranged between 8 and 12 (i.e., basic colours only), e.g., '?abyadh' (white), '?aSfar' (yellow), '?aHmar' (red), '?azraq' (blue), 'purtaqaalii' (orange), 'banafsajii' (violet), 'niilii' (indigo colour henceforth cl.), 'fiilii' (grey, i.e., cl. of elephants), 'bunii' or 'qahwaa?ii' (coffee brown), 'khaakii' (khakii). The last colour reflects the influence of military life upon men.

As for women, they outnumbered men in giving names of colours since apart from the colours mentioned above by men, they added many other colours. Here are the colours commonly used by women: ‘Hannii’(henna cl.), ‘Hannii Hajarii’ (cumphine cl.), ‘batikhii’ (melon cl.), ‘baSalii’ (onion cl.), ‘9asali’ (honey cl.), ‘kastanaaii’ (chestnut cl.), ‘maawii’ (light blue cl. of water), ‘samaawii’ (cl. of sky), ‘Hashiishii’ (cl. of grass), ‘9annaabii’ (cl. of grapes), ‘nuHaasii’ (brass colour), ‘raSaaSii’ (lead cl.), ‘qurmazii’ (scarlet cl.), ‘jumbadii’ (rosy), ‘dhahabii’(golden), ‘fadhi’ (silver cl.), ‘tabnii’ (straw-coloured), ‘zanjaarii’ (rusty), ‘rumaanii’ (cl. of grenade), ‘Haliibii’ (cl. of milk), ‘khardalii’ (mustard), ‘kurkum’ (curcume), ‘fastaqii’ (pistachio), ‘beej’ (beige), ‘maaroonii’ (cl. of black grapes), ‘nafTii’ (cl. of petrol), ‘HanTii’ (cl. of wheat), ‘nerjasii’ (narcissus), ‘broonzii’ (bronze cl.), ‘?aHmar dam’ (sanguinary), ‘?akhdhar salaq’ (dark green), ‘shafaqii’ (dusk cl.), ‘ramaadii’ (ash cl.), ‘shakarii’ (cl. of sugar), ‘bunduqii’ (hazelnut cl.), ‘shadhrii’ (turquoise), ‘bambii’(pink), ‘naarii’ (cl. of fire), ‘joozii’ (cl. of nuts), ‘tamrii’ (cl. of dates), ‘?arjawanii’ (purple), ‘yaaquutii’ (ruby), ‘feez ranjii’ (cl. of fez), ‘chakleetii’ (cl. of chocolate i.e., brown), ‘lylaakii’ (lilac cl.), ‘kuHlii’ (antimony, i.e., black and lead grey), ‘zaytii’ (oil cl.), ‘zahrii’ (rosy), ‘khamrii’ (wine cl.), ‘nuumii’ or ‘laymuunii’ (lemon cl. or yellowish), ‘laHmii’ (flesh cl.), ‘baadhanjaanii’ (cl. of eggplants), ‘naamard’ (violet), ‘tarikwaaz’ (turquoise), ‘Hadiidii’ (iron cl.), ‘?azbarii’ (strawberry cl.), ‘?aHmar nabiidhii’ (redness of wine), ‘?abyadh karistal’ (crystal whiteness), ‘?akhdhar fasfoorii’ (Phosphoric green) , ‘faranjii’ (Tomato cl., i. e. red and orange), ‘faHmii’ (cl. of coal).

It is clear that women are creative in coining new lexical items to refer to colours based on similarity between the object or the cloth and fruit, vegetables, minerals, flowers, animals, etc. The creativity and originality on the part of women spring from imagination, romanticism and beauty. According to this list of more than (70) colours by women.

Sometimes colours are used metaphorically, e.g., ‘moot ?aHmar’ (red death, i.e., killing), ‘bla ?aswad’ (black disease, i.e., plague), ‘?amal ?akhdhar’ (green hope, i.e., promising and bright future), etc. It has been noticed that women use them more than men do.

To sum up, it is noteworthy that there are certain SDs which have not been completely analysed in this chapter. In such cases we propose that they might be better handled in separate studies in the future.

7. The Social Factors Influencing Sex Differences:

The fundamental social variables on which SDs in language behaviour are largely dependent are age, setting, literacy and sex. In Mosul, among the social factors which influence SDs are : ‘setting’, ‘topic’ and ‘participants’ including their ‘age’, ‘literacy’ and ‘sex’. Apart from sex which is the main motivating factor behind SDs the other factors affect them as well, as seen in the following sections:

7.1 Setting:

Very little is known about the possible effect of situation on female/male speech (Thorne et al 1983:15). Setting refers to the psychological and physiological situation including place and time. It is expected that speech SDs are more common in informal situations than in formal ones. Moreover, SDs are expected to be used more in home domain than in school or university domain under the influence of age and literacy since the gap of SDs is narrowing among members of the literate young Fs or Ms at the university level while at homes where the illiterate old generation dominate, the differences are more.

7.2 Participants

Participants or interlocutors have many personal features such as age, literacy, sex, socioeconomic background, social status, mood, etc. But the most influential features correlated with SDs, apart from sex, are age and literacy.

7.2.1 Literacy:

SDs are expected to be more common among the illiterate women and men while they are less common among the literate ones as a result of the influence of Mass Media and the use of the SA as a medium of instruction at schools and universities and education in general.

7.2.2 Age :

It is expected that there are SDs between the old and young generation with reference to vocabulary, use of specific expressions for colours and speech acts. The reader is referred to sections 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 7. The following points, as far as the relationship between language and age is concerned, have been observed:

(i) With regard to colours, it has been observed that the young generation members Fs and Ms know more colour terms under the influence of literacy, shopping, clothes, etc.

(ii) Concerning vocabulary, some lexical items are mostly used by the young Fs and Ms, e.g., ‘ookee’ (o.k.), ‘halloo’ (hello), ‘baznas’ (business), ‘garantii’ (guarantee), ‘chayyak’ (check), ‘kansal’ (cancel), ‘haay’ (Hi), ‘Saaloon’ (salon), ‘suupar maarket’ (super market), ‘griin laait’ (green light) etc. Some other words are commonly used by old women and men, e.g., ‘makfii’ or ‘magruud’ or ‘mafjuu9’ (what a pity!), ‘kawayyis’ (nice), ‘piira’ (devil or evil for an old woman), ‘qubaanuu’ or ‘Hayraanuu’ (sacrifice), ‘Tamaama’ (be buried), ‘baarii’ (at least) etc. (The reader may see 5.1).

(iii) It has been noticed that some borrowed expressions are frequently used by the young generation, e.g., ‘bay baay’ (bye bye), ‘thaank yuu’ (thank you), ‘sii yuu’ (see you) and many other English loan words in Iraqi Arabic. In contrast, some expressions are commonly used by the old generation, e.g., ‘?ashqad najmu khafiif’ (easily envied), ‘mariidh ?ashHaaluu’ (seriously ill), ‘?akal ghaasii’ (literally, he ate my head. Metaphorically, he envied me), ‘khaliin yinTam’ (literally, let him be buried, i.e., disgust), ‘?ashoon faj9a’ (what a disaster!), ‘?ashoon qahar wa ?ashoon maghaagh’ (what miserable and bitter life it is!). (See 5.2).

(iv) As for ‘topics’, there are certain differences between the young and old generation since the members of the former are involved in particular subject matters, e.g., cosmetics and perfumes, hairstyles, sewing and models, gold and jewellery, sports, love relationships, scientific issues, and reading. The topics which form the core for the old people are: house affairs, food and cooking, gossiping, marriage and engagement, washing and cleaning, children rearing, political issues, work, commerce, religious subjects, and agriculture. There are SDs as far as topics are concerned. (The reader may see 6.3).

7.3 Topics :

Women and men tackle different ‘topics’ or ‘subject matters’ because of differences in their interests, physical abilities, social attitude, purpose, feelings, etc. This variation of topics leads to the acquisition of different sets of lexical items or ‘registers’ as Halliday called the specialized vocabulary. So it happens that each sex has its own vocabulary with reference to the topics dealt with. To support the belief, the researcher gave a list of (30) topics to (100) informants (50 Fs and 50 Ms) aged between (18 and 25).

The following topics were found to be commonly tackled by women in Mosul: washing and cleaning, cooking, house affairs, accessories, make-up and perfumes, gossip, hair styles, sewing and

models, jewellery, films and songs, child rearing, clothes and elegance, marriage and engagement, and furniture.

For men, the following topics were found to be commonly hit upon by them: agriculture and animal breeding, scientific matters, sports, work, religious matters, cars, military affairs, commerce, and political topics.

As for the topics tackled approximately equally by both sexes they were discarded.

8. The Role of Sex Differences in the Expression of Speech Acts

The area of 'speech acts' where SDs are found seems to be virgin. In Iraq, sex plays a great role in the expression of speech acts since they are expressed differently by Fs and Ms.

The examples presented in this section were collected through personal observation, interviews and questions. The collection was reduced to (160) examples on the condition they cover different speech acts. Then, they were given as a kind of questionnaire to (100) informants (50 Fs and Ms) aged between (18-25) to identify whether Fs or Ms or Ms and Fs commonly use them. The third option was cancelled because it represented a linguistic similarity. The following situations explain that:

8.1 Apology:

It is the state where the idea of regret for doing something wrong or inconvenience, or being unable to accomplish a task is expressed. It can be expressed in different ways. It has been observed that Fs and Ms apologize differently by using various expressions to convey their apologies due to the acquisition of different sex-linked ways of expressing apology within the process of socialization in Iraq. The most common expressions of apology used by Fs are:

39. '?aanii kulash ?aasfa u mastaHiya' (I am terribly sorry and feel shy....)
40. 'maa Taqtu' (I couldn't)
41. 'saamHiinii' (Forgive me)
42. '?a9dharuuna' (Forgive us....)

While the following expressions are mostly used by Ms:

43. '?al 9afu' (Sorry)
44. '?aasaf' (Sorry)
45. '?a9tadhar' (I apologise)
46. 'wadaa9tak(i)' (Believe me

The comments, detailed expressions of the reasons behind sex-preferential use of each, are beyond the scope of this paper.

8.2 Compliments:

A compliment refers to the cases when we express our astonishment, admiration and appreciation for something or somebody. In Iraq, women and men usually express compliments differently as a result of being socialised differently. The subject of compliments can be animate or inanimate, so the focus of them is on body organs, hair, appearance, new born babies or something possessed by the addressee, e.g., a dress, a car, a house, etc. In the process of complementation there are the complimenter and the complimented. It is a social etiquette if expressed reasonably but women often exaggerate their compliments.

The following examples are very often used by women:

47. 'ooy daada ?ashqad' (O dear what a ...!)
48. 'qubaan 9iinkii, kaniikii qamagh'
(A sacrifice for your eyes ... You look like the moon)
49. 'kathiigh Hulu, kawayyis' (So nice, so lovely)
50. '?abuuya u ?akhuuya ... nuur u maay 9eenii, Habiibii, 9umrii, 9ayuunii, Hayaatii'
(Metaphorically, you are my father and brother ... the light and tears of my eyes, darling, my whole existence, my eyes and life).

Whereas men are interested in using certain complimentary expressions such as:

51. '9aashat iidkii 9ala haay ?akla' (You have made a delicious meal indeed!)
52. 'quul ?ashta?magh, ghaalii waT Talab rakhiiS, tadalal 9eenii, Saar ?aghaatii, ?anta faSSal wa ?ana ?albas'
(Just ask, you are so dear! Whatever you want my eye, you are my master, just give orders and I'll obey)

8.3 Complaints:

Complaints imply that the speakers express their suffering from something, disgust, dislikes, discomfort and a wish to get rid of them and have an end for them. People generally complain through language, among other ways. This social phenomenon seems to be universal. In Iraq, it is expected that the two sexes complain differently. The following examples embody some of the common expressions used by women:

53. '?ashqad + adj. ,e.g., '?ashqad dhayjii' (How upset I am!)
54. '?ashoon + N. ,e.g., '?ashoon 9iisha!', '?ashoon Haala!', '?ashoon mushkila'
(What a life it is! ... What a problem it is!)
55. '?alla yaqtaInii u yakhalaSnii minkom'
(I pray that God may kill me to get rid of you)
56. '?ash alla balaanii u waghaTnii biikom'
(You are such a bad destiny for me!)
57. 'kawii ta9abtuunii, walla Taqat ghuuHii'
(I am very tired and fed up with you).
58. 'ooy, ?ashoon balwii u muSiiba'
(O what a dilemma and catastrophe!)
59. 'ooy haay maa 9iishii ...haadha beet loo jahanam!'
(O this is not a way of life ... I feel this is hell not home).

Frankly speaking, very few complaint expressions are uttered by men, e.g.

60. '?allahu ?akbar, ?ashoon shaghla haay, leesh ?al mallaHha ...ya ?alla fukk yaakha 9annii'
(God is great. What a dilemma it is! Why do you insist thus? Get away off me).

8.4 Condolence:

Condolence is expressed differently by women and men. The following expressions are commonly used by women for conveying condolence, e.g.

61. '?aweelii 9ala al muSiiba' (What a misery!)
62. 'wii, wii, wii, ?asmalla 9ala shabaabak'
(Oh, Oh, Oh. May God protect your youth).

63. ‘?alla yiSabbarkom ... laa 9ashtu kulnaa 9ala haT Tariiq ... maa tastaahaluun haay al muSiiba ... in shaa? alla maa taq9aduun haay al qa9dii’
(I hope you become more patient. I pity him. All of us will face the same fate one day. You don’t deserve this loss. I ask God you will never face such a calamity).

Men have their own expressions for conveying condolence, e.g.

64. ‘?al khallaf maa maat, raaskom Tayab, haadha ?amaru alla ...’
(The children compensate for the loss. I ask God to keep you safe. This is the will of God).
65. ‘?al baqiya ?ab Hayaatkom, 9adhdam ?allahu ?ajrakom, haadhihi sunnat al Hayaat’
(May the rest of life be yours. May God increase your reward. This is the way of life).
66. ‘?alla yirHamu ...kul man 9alayhaa faan’
(Mercy be upon him. All of us are mortal).

The impact of Islamic religion on men’s condolence expressions is obvious.

8.5 Congratulations:

This speech act embodies the idea of congratulating somebody on having a happy occasion (e.g., marriage, success, feasts, engagement, child birth, etc.) In Iraq, there are fixed expressions to be said on such occasions but women differ from men in the language used to convey congratulations. However, there are certain occasions where the same formulae are used by the two sexes. Here are some of the congratulation expressions commonly used by women:

This speech act embodies the idea of congratulating somebody on having a happy occasion (e.g., marriage, success, engagement, childbirth, feasts, etc.) In Iraq, there are fixed expressions to be said on occasions but women differ from men in the language used to convey congratulations. Nevertheless, there are certain occasions where the same formulas are used by the two sexes. The following examples are commonly used by women.

67. ‘in sHaa alla tashufuun dhana dhanaah, u yatraba ?ab 9azkom’
(If Alla wish you may live long to see your grand children (i.e., descendents) and I hope they will live a prosperous life).
68. ‘ mabruuk, qurrat 3eenkom., yatrabba ?ab 9azkom’
(Congratulations. May he be a dear eye for you and live a properous life).
For men, the most common is :
69. ‘mabruuk’ (Congratulations)

8.6 Greetings:

They have three important features: (I) they occur at the beginning of a conversation (ii) they give the speakers a turn and they involve an initiator and a responder. In Iraq, the responder B often repeats the initiator A’s formula. There may be some variation, but within limits. For example, if the initiator A says ‘marHaba’ (Welcome), the responder B will simply repeat A’s formula ‘marHaba’ (Welcome) or as in A: ‘SabaaH ?al-kheer (Good Morning) – B: ‘SabaaH an-nuur’ (Good Morning), or A: ‘masaa? ?al-kheer’ (Good Afternoon) – B ‘masaa? an-nuur’ (Good Afternoon). These greeting expressions are used in Iraq regardless of sex, age and literacy. But women and men use different formulae of greetings as well (For similar discussion see Coulthard 1979: 70, 84).

The verbal expressions of greetings are sometimes accomplished by non- verbal behaviour, implicit or explicit, e.g., a nod or a smile or a twinkle in the eye. The non-verbal part of greeting seems

indispensable. This combination is governed by specific norms of appropriateness, therefore, it is not 'arbitrary' or 'random'. This is applicable to Iraq (For details see Mehrotra 1975: 2).

Women commonly use the following greeting expressions:

70. 'marHaba umm ibraahiim'
(Welcome or Hello mother of Ibrahim)
71. '?al guwa ?abu maHamad'
(May you regain your strength father of Muhammad).
72. 'SabaaH al kheer or masaa? al kheer'
(Good Morning. Good Afternoon or Good Evening)

Men also very often use the following greeting expression:

88. 'as salaamu 9alaykom'
(Peace be upon you).

8.7 Leave-Takings:

Conversational endings, like openings, usually involve a paired exchange. In Iraq, the common formulae of leave-taking are 'ma9 as salaama' (Good-bye); 'fii ?amaan alla'(You may be in the safety of God). These expressions are usually used by Fs and Ms regardless of age and literacy, but they are 'sex-preferable' not 'sex-exclusive', for example, the first one is preferred by women while the second one is mostly used by men. It is also common among Iraqi people to say 'taSbaHuun 9ala kheer' (Wish you good and nice morning) to a person going to bed regardless of age, sex and literacy. The following examples are some of the common expressions used by women:

89. '?alla ma9aak ?abuuya ... ma9a as salaamii'
(God be with you ... Farewell dear. May you be safe).
90. 'mawadda9 balla ... maHruus balla taghuuH saalam u tarja9 ghaanam'
(May God keep you safe. I pray to God to protect you and let you arrive safely and turn back rich).
91. 'ruuH ?buuya ...?alla u muHammad u 9ali ma9aak'
(Farewell dear. May God, Prophet Muhammad and Ali be with you).

Men use different expressions for leave-taking, e.g.

92. 'natrakhkhaS, min rukhSatkom'
(We are afraid we have to leave or May we leave?)

8.8 Refusal:

It implies rejecting something or an idea or refusing to do something. Socially speaking, it is advised to refuse politely and to apologise mildly in order not to make the addressee feel shy. There is an overlap between refusal and apology because there is no clear-cut line between them. In IA, refusal regularly embodies negation by using the particles 'maa' and 'laa' standing for 'no'. It has been noticed that Fs and Ms express refusal somewhat differently. Here are some of the ways in which women refuse:

93. 'laa ?akhaaf, raaH ?aquul ?al maama'
(No, please I am afraid. I'll tell my Mum).
94. 'maa ?aghiid ... maa ya9jabnii'
(I don't want it ... I don't like it).

As for men, they refuse differently and somewhat in a tough way, e.g.

95. 'la walla maa yaSiigh u maa ?aTiiq'
(No, I assure you by God it is not possible and I can't).

96. 'laa wa ?alf laa ... ruuH Tiir, walli, ?anqala9'
(I say 'No' a thousand time ... Go away or begone).
97. 'baTTalaaq ... bal Haraam maa tadfa9'
(I swear that I'll divorce my wife if you pay. I swear by what is illegal and forbidden that you don't pay).
- The last two examples characterise illiterate men's refusals.

8.9 Swearing:

Swearing refers to the state when a person takes an oath by God or the names of God, or by the Prophet Mohammad and other prophets, or the Holy Quran, or Ka'ba and other sacred places, or parents or parts of body, etc. to do or not to do a thing. Religiously, socially, and morally speaking, it is unacceptable to swear. The purpose of it is to give the listener the impression that what the speaker says is true. In Iraq, swearing is common among the illiterate people regardless of age and sex because literate people avoid using 'swearing expressions' and regard them unsuitable for the elite.

The following expressions were considerable by the respondents to be utterly used by women:

98. 'wadaa9at maama or baaba' (By my mother or father).
99. 'wanabii' (By the prophet).
100. 'wanabii yuunas' (By Prophet Younis).
101. ' wal ka9ba' (By Ka'aba).
102. ' wash sheekh fatHii' (By Sheikh Fathi).
103. ' wash sheekh 9abd al qadar' (By Sheikh Abulqadir).
104. ' u raas ?abu ?al wlaad' (By the head of the father of ...).

Conversely, the following expressions were found to be used entirely by men :

105. 'bisharafii wa muqadasaatii' (By my honour and principles).
106. 'u raasak al 9aziiz' (By your dear head).
107. ' billah al kariim ' (By God the generous).
108. ' u Haliib ?umii ' (By my mother's milk).
109. ' basatar ?ukhtii ' (By my sister's virginity).
110. 'wa Haq man Hallal u Harram' (By God who allows and prohibits).
111. ' wa Haq haadha az zaad' (By this food).

Of course there are some expressions shared by both sexes, e.g.,

112. ' wadaa9at fulaan' (By X)
113. ' u ruuH al maytiin' (By the soul of the dead).
114. ' baqabar ?aw batraab ?abuuya' (By my father's tomb).
115. 'baraas ?abuuya' (By my father's head).
116. 'walla al 9adhiim' (By God the great).
117. 'u raasak ...u 9ayuunak...u Hayaatak' (By your head, eyes, life).
118. ' wal quraan ' (By Quraan).

8.10 Thanks giving:

Thanks are usually expressed to somebody for making a favour and this phenomenon seems to be universal. In Iraq, both women and men express thanks but somewhat differently. Men very often say 'sukran' (thank you) only to save time and effort or perhaps because they are serious and practical or probably they are less emotional than women are who mostly do not confine themselves to 'sukran' (thanks) only but they add complimentary expressions.

The following expressions of thanks giving are mostly used by women:

119. ‘shukran, ?alla yiTawwal 9umrak, u yaHfadh lak ?awlaadak u ya9Tiik’
(Thanks, may God prolong your life and keep your children safe and denote you).
120. ‘shukran Hayaatii ... mamnuunii 9eenii’
(Thank you my life ... I am grateful to you darling).

As for men, they mostly use the following thanks giving expressions:

121. ‘shukran. jazaaka allah khayran u alla yakaththar ?amthaalak’
(Thanks, may you be rewarded by God. May God increase the number of good people like you).
122. ‘shukran wa ?alf shukar ?aghaatii ...yoom illi nardha lak’
(Thanks a lot or a thousand of thanks my lord ... I am looking forward to award you).

8.11 Threatening:

It embodies the idea of provoking somebody for not doing something or blaming somebody for misbehaviour or warning somebody that the speaker would do so and so if the addressee carries out a wrong action or continues making the mistake. Threatening depends on intonation and paralinguistic features, for example, an utterance can function as an ordinary statement ‘?alla kariim’ (God is generous), but if it is pronounced in a special way, the intonation will change it into a warning or a threatening which means (You will see).

In Iraq, Fs and Ms express ‘threatening’ differently: men prefer the direct threatening, i.e., they will do so and so if the addressee(s) ... whereas women mostly threaten indirectly, i.e., their fathers, or brothers, or husbands, etc. will do so and so if the addressee(s) The threatened people by women are usually children or women or neighbours and rarely men.

Here are some of women’s threatening expressions:

123. ‘?askut laa tajiik ad daamiya was sa9lwa’
(Shut up! Otherwise the whole will and kill you)
124. ‘basiiTa, hasa yajii zawjii ?aw ?akhuuya ?aw ?abuuya’
(Wait and see. When my husband or brother or father comes)
125. ‘laa tandala9 laa ?aqSuf 9umrak wa ?azatak lal dhiib Hatta yaaklak’
(Don’t be naughty, otherwise I’ll terminate you and I’ll throw you to the wolf to swallow you).
126. ‘?askutii, ?askutii, kawii ?aSiiH bash shaara9 wa ?afdhaHaki’
(Keep silent otherwise I’ll shout loudly and make a scandal).
127. ‘maa taghsha9, man ?alla yi9miik ...yawall wa Haq alla idaa maa masheet hassa9 la?a9malak siinama wa ?akhliik tandam 9alal yoom illi waladat biinu ...ghuuh yaa maa tastaHii, maa 9andak sharaf, maa 9andak ?akhwaat’
(Don’t you see? May God turn you blind. Believe me, if you don’t step away I’ll make fun of you and give you a lesson to regret the day you were born in ... Begone. You are an immoral person. Are you void of honour? Haven’t you sisters?)
128. ‘?ashHaddak, ?aksagh ghaasak, wa ?adabbak 9ala qalbak, kawii ?adamrak wa ?akhliik taSiigh mahzala’
(I challenge you. I’ll crack your head and trod on your chest. I’ll knock you down and make fun of you).

129. ‘walla idhaa maa jitaak raaH ?amsaH biik ?al ?aghad, maal weeHad yiquS khashmak u yiqTa9 lisaanak u yishaq Halqak’
(Believe me, if I come I’ll wipe the earth by you. I’ll take your nose of your face, cut your tongue and tear your mouth).

8.12 Marriage:

On marriage occasions, women and men are always aiming at happy wishes and promising future, e.g.

131. ‘bir rafaah wal baniin in shaa? alla’
(Wishing you, i.e., the married couple, to be wealthy and have many children if Alla wishes)

The use of ‘baniin’ (boys) implies bias against girls.

Women and men have their own wedding songs which are different depending on sex.

8.13 Confinement:

When a woman is about to give birth to a baby, she usually uses certain expressions to show her pains and to feel psychologically at ease. So, she shouts at the top of her voice and repeats saying, e.g.

132. ‘aah ... aah ... aah ... yaa ilaahi ... yaa rabii ..yumma aah yumma ...yaa alla ... yaa rabii saa9adnii ... yaa alla raaH ?amuut’
(Oh ...Oh ... Oh God ...Oh my God ...Oh mother ... Oh mother ... Oh God ... Oh my Lord help me ...Oh Alla I’ll die).

Other women who visit the confined woman and attend the confinement usually use certain expressions to cheer her up, e.g.

133. ‘?alla yasaa9idki u yifrajha 9aleeki ... ?alla yaqawiiki yoom ...quulii ya ?alla quulii ya ?alla ...maa dhal shii maa dhal shii ... ma yakhaalaf ma yakhaalaf ?atHamalii ?ashwaya ...’

(God help you ... God support you ... Pray to God, Pray to God. Wait it is just a matter of seconds and everything will be O. K. Calm down and don’t worry ... Be patient, be patient little bit).

8. 14 Lullabies:

One of the approaches of studying women’s verbal genres is to focus on genres mainly performed by them. The genres of lullabies and laments are extremely and habitually performed by women in ‘traditional, non-industrial and non literate communities’. They occur at the opposite ends of life cycle. The practice of lullabies by women may be due to the social and cultural role of mothers although fathers can perform them (See Sherzer 1987: 112, 113).

9. Miscellaneous Topics Correlated with Sex Differences:

This section is not going to deal with the following areas because tackling them with reference to SDs is beyond the scope and limitation of this paper, e.g., class interaction, gossip and verbosity, interruption, joke-telling, language acquisition, language control and language change, personal names, paralinguistic features, politeness, prestige/standard language, communicative competence, self-disclosure, tag questions and stylistic SDs.

The use of stereotypical features, taboo expressions and proverbs with reference to SDs will be presented in the following sections:

9.1 Stereotypes and Sex Differences:

In almost all speech communities, there are probably certain stereotypes correlated with religion, or nationality, or colour, or sex. Actually, most of these stereotypical features are universal. This section is confined to 'sex' which pertains that there are fixed characteristics referring to Fs and to Ms in Mosul. These qualities embody positive or negative implications and the social attitude towards both sexes. The users of them are subjective, i.e., influenced by personal feelings.

Concerning the Mosuli situation, the researcher tried to prove that some stereotypes are mainly correlated with Fs, some with Ms and a third category shared by both sexes. Therefore, a list of 50 commonly used characteristics associated with Fs and Ms was given to 100 informants (50 Fs and 50 Ms) aged between (18-25) to find out whether there is a general agreement among the Iraqis in Mosul upon the use of stereotypes.

It has been found out that the following stereotypes are associated with women: of being emotional, worried, introvert, quietness, sensitivity, kind-heartedness, eloquence, of being talkative, changeability, shyness, jealousy, caring, stuttering, love of appearance, weak personality and complaining.

The following stereotypical features have found to be associated with men: tale-telling, creativity, rashness, hypocrisy, being easily excited, of being gay, violence, financial management, strong mindedness, activity, subjectivity, loyalty to traditions, joke-telling, independence, keeping secrets, aggressiveness, interest in adventures, self-confidence, cleverness, bravery, self-reliance and strength.

The connotations of the above-mentioned sex-linked qualities are subjective and social rather than linguistic.

9.2 Use of Taboo Expressions by Women and Men:

It is believed that taboo expressions are common in almost all societies. Lexical items related to sex, sex organs, and bodily functions make up a large number of taboo expressions in many cultures. The creation of euphemisms is the result of the existence of taboo words and ideas.

This section sheds light on sex-linked taboo expressions in Mosul (i.e., curses, abuses, insults, dirty and swear words). To prove that there are SDs in the use of taboo expressions the researcher gave a list of 50 of them to 100 informants (50 Fs and 50 Ms) aged between (18-25) to reply whether (Fs or Ms or Fs and Ms) use them.

The following taboo expressions are the most common ones used by Fs:

134. '?um ?al sqaqaat' (A woman wandering aimlessly)
135. 'boola' (Whore)
136. '9aagha' (Untidy, or filthy woman)
137. 'piisii' (Filthy)
138. '?aafii' (Foxy woman)
139. 'chamaaqa' (Prostitute, tricky woman)
140. '?aban ?alqaHpa' (Son of bitch)
141. '?aban shaara9' (He is a vagabond. Ill up-bringing)
142. 'qawaad' (Cuckold)
143. '?adabsaz' (Immoral. Ill-behaved)

As for men the following taboo expressions are some of the most common ones for them:

144. ‘ kalb ?aban sata9ash kalb’ (A dog and a son of 16 dogs)
145. ‘ sasarii’ (Immoral person. Ill-mannered)
146. ‘ masarbat’ (He is loose and ill-bred)
147. ‘ Haqiir’ (Mean, unworthy)
148. ‘ mal9uun ?alwaaldeen’ (What damned parents you have!)
149. ‘ duunii’ (A down-to-earth man. Scum of the earth)
150. ‘ khanziir’ (Pig)
151. ‘ Himaar or jaHash or ?azmaal’ (Donkey)
152. ‘ ?aban Haraam or ?aban zina or naghāl’ (Son of bitch. Bastard)
153. ‘ saafal’ and ‘ naa9aS’ (Mean. Down –to- earth)
154. ‘ kalachii’ (Gipsy)
155. ‘ luutii’ (Foxy. Tricky . A deceitful person)
156. ‘ palashtii or shalaatii’ (Foxy and crooked person. Ill-behaved)
157. ‘ dayuuth’ (Cuckold)

9.3 Use of Proverbs by Women and Men:

It is undeniable that every speech community has its own proverbs that reflect the culture and folklore of that society. It has been noticed that some proverbs are commonly used by women and others are used by men. The third category is shared by both sexes and it is not the concern of this paper. To support this claim, the fieldworker gave 100 proverbs selected randomly from a collection of proverbs by Saeed Al-Deewachi, to 100 informants (50 Fs and 50 Ms) aged between (18-25) to identify whether Fs or Ms or both sexes use them.

In surveying the proverbs, it has been found that the common themes of the proverbs shared by Fs and Ms are : luck, work, friendship, optimism, divorce, cooperation and money. Obviously, women and men stress the role of luck in our life; the value of work in the social life; characteristics of a good friend ; how to be optimistic; disadvantages of divorce; the significance of being cooperative and finally that money is the root of all evils.

Examples of the most common proverbs used by women are:

158. ‘ takandagh ad dasat laqaa lu qapagh’
(The pot finds its suitable cover or Birds of a feather flock together).
159. ‘ ?aSfa min ad dama9’
(Purer than tear drops).
160. ‘ Hayii jawa at taban’
(A snake under a pile of hay).
161. ‘ ?al ?aqaarab 9aqaarab’
(Relatives are just like scorpions).
162. ‘ Saam Saam u fatagh 9ala baSali’
(He fasted for a long time but broke his fasting by an onion)
163. ‘ yabuuq ?al kaHal min al 9een’
(He steals eye colour).

The following are some of the most common proverbs used by men :

164. ‘ yikhaaf min khayaalu’
(Even shadows frighten him. Metaphorically coward)
165. ‘ ?abu saba9 Sanaayi9 wal bakhat dhaayi9’
(A man of seven trades with no luck)
166. ‘ sarrak bil biigh’
(Don’t worry. Your secret has fallen into a well)

167. ‘ ?amgadii ma yaHab ?amgadii’
(A beggar does not like a beggar)

10. Conclusion:

This study which examined language SDs in Mosul shows that there are lexical, syntactic and semantic SDs in IA. This paper calls for carrying out future studies dealing with the phonological SDs. It has been noticed that there are no morphological SDs. The lexical part indicates that there are SDs because certain lexical items are mostly used by women while some others are limited to men. The syntactic section also shows that certain syntactic expressions are frequently used by Fs and some others are mostly used by Ms. At the semantic level, SDs were confined only to the colour terms used by both sexes (See 1, 2, 3, 5, 5.1, 5.2, 5.3).

This paper shows that SDs in Mosul are influenced by sociolinguistic variables such as ‘ topic’, ‘participants’ and ‘setting’. It has been observed that the SDs are more common in family gatherings than in school or university domains due to ‘age’ and ‘literacy’. The topics tackled by Fs and Ms are different because of different interests, social status, and physical abilities (See 6.1, 6.2, 6.3).

The paper also shows that there are SDs in the expression of apology, compliments, complaints, condolence, congratulations, greetings, leave-takings, refusal, swearing, thanks giving and threatening (See 7.1-7.11).

Section (8) suggests that future researches may tackle SDs in the following areas: mixed-sex class interaction, gossip and verbosity, interruptions, joke-telling, language acquisition, language control, personal names, paralinguistic features, politeness, prestige language, communicative competence, self-disclosure and stylistic SDs, sex differences have been found in the use of stereotypes, taboo expressions and proverbs.

The conclusions call for further studies in this field so as to give a clear picture of SDs in IA and the Arab world.

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Additive Discourse Markers in the Kurdish Novel “Xazal Nûs U Baxakâni Xajâl”

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This study, which entitles “Additive Discourse Markers in the Kurdish novel “Xazal Nûs w Baxakâni Xajâl” is an investigation of the Additive discourse markers contextualized in the Kurdish novel “Xazal Nûs U Baxakâni Xajâl” by Bakhtyar Ali (2014).

Discourse Markers are various words that are from different parts of speech, such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, conjunctions, phrases and even clauses, which have different discourse functions, despite their own grammatical functions, which is a reason for their being known as multifunctional in nature or functions.

These lexical items are labeled differently by different researchers who study this topic such as pragmatic markers, cue markers, discourse connectives etc...and defined them differently according to the different approaches adopted, such as coherent approach, functional approach, pragmatic approach and cognitive approach.

Schiffirin (1987: 311-47) whose work is considered as one basic studies of these markers, exposes an introductory section in her book entitles” Discourse Markers’, prelude to her analysis, she defines DM operationally as “ sequentially dependent elements bracket units of talk”, (ibid, 1987: 31).

Noteworthy, Discourse Markers (DM) are investigated and studied in different languages; however, no studies are done on these markers in Kurdish till now and their status are not known in the language; therefore, the current study is an attempt to shed light on the DMs in Kurdish language through their use which is contextualized in the novel mentioned above, and depending on the coherence approach proposed by Halliday and Hassan (1976) as a framework.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) who investigate these linguist elements under the title of ‘connectives’ classify them into four major categories “ ADDITIVE, ADVERSATIVE, CAUSAL and TEMPORAL’. Applying the same framework, it can be deduced that Kurdish language does not lack such linguist elements in the language and that they are part of the daily uses, which are contextualized in writings and utilized daily.

Additive DMs cover those markers that connect the discourse segments of similar semantic values, accordingly and according their internal and external uses, additive DMs are classified into ‘simple, complex, appositional and comparative’ types. They include such words as ‘w (and), harwahâ (also), jân (or), bo nimûna (for example), wâta (that is to say), ba dîwakai tirdâ (on the other hand)...etc...

The purpose behind this study is to know to what extend the author makes use of additive discourse markers in his novel, and which marker has the most frequency and what discourse functions they have.

In order to achieve the aims, the researcher adopts a qualitative/quantitative research method. Thus, first, she identifies the occurrence of these elements manually since there are no corpus studies in Kurdish, then statistically and linguistically analysis the results she arrived at. In conclusion, discourse structure of Kurdish languages does involve ADDITIVE DMs in its structure with its all types and subtypes categorized by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and under the conditions put forward by Fraser (2009).

Introduction

Discourse Markers has not been received due attention attention in Kurdish language. This class of linguistic elements, which are only studied at on the grammatical level in Kurdish literature, signal coherence relation between discourse segments and they are of different categories. This paper is an attempt to shed light on one of the categories of DMs in Kurdish language through context. That class is Additive markers and the chosen context for the study is through the one of the contemporary novels written by a Kurdish novelist.

Accordingly, the aim of this study is to investigate the presence of DMs and more specifically Additive DMs, which are the focus of study in various languages and in different fields. The study focuses on identifying, analyzing and categorizing these markers in Kurdish which are used in the novel 'Xazal Nûs w Baxakânî Xajâl', and highlighting their discourse function in the light of Halliday (1976) functional framework, and to recognize the extent of their distribution in the novel.

To achieve the aims, the Additive DMs (in the novel) are identified manually, since no corpus is available for this purpose in Kurdish, and then the frequencies are converted into statistical means, through which the outcome results are discussed. Hence, these markers are defined in Kurdish, classified, and their features are characterized, furthermore the grammatical categories from which they are emerged or driven are unearthed.

So, the procedure would be as follows; definition of DMs in English depending on different approaches and accordingly defining and characterizing DMs in Kurdish. Identifying the DMs in the novel, categorizing them depending on Halliday and Hasan (1976)'s framework into simple, complex and additive, and identifying their categories and finally the frequency of use through the novel is discussed and tabulated.

Definitions of DMs in English

Researchers face difficulty in studying Discourse Markers (henceforth, DMs) that may be due to the various terminologies, definitions, classifications, functions and their abstract meanings. In terms of terminology, DMs are labelled as 'Discourse Particles, Pragmatic Markers, Cue Phrases, Connectives, Sentence Connectives, etc...'.

Since there are different approaches to the study of DMs, different definitions are provided. Schiffrin (1987) adopts a coherence approach defines them as 'sequentially dependent elements, which bracket units of talk' Schiffrin (1987:3). Fraser (1999: 321), who adopts a pragmatic view, defines them as a class of lexical expressions drawn from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases". And , Andersen (2001: 27) whose investigation focuses on the diachronic development of these

markers is on the view that DMs (Pragmatic Markers in her terms) that come to be used as *pragmatic markers* in discourse commonly develop from lexical words. Blakemore (2002: 151) adopts a structural approach, he states that “discourse, like a sentence, exhibits hierarchical structure” and that “discourse markers or connectives are defined in terms of the role they play in ‘marking’ these structural relations between segments, and the key to their analysis lies in the classification of the kinds of relations that exist between text segments”.

Furthermore, Brinton (1996) adopts a functional approach and proposes “pragmatic marker” as this term better captures the range of functions filled by these items”, (Castro, 2009: 59). Ford and Thompson, (1996:) describe them as a set of elements that help participants negotiate the boundaries of conversational actions. Whereas Mosegaard Hansen (1998:73) defines them as “non- propositional linguistic items whose primary function is connective, and whose scope is variable”, as by 'variable scope' he means that “the discourse segment hosting a marker may be of almost any size or form, from an intonational pattern indicating illocutionary function.

For Lutzky (2002: 10) DMs are “forms with little or no propositional content that are syntactically and semantically optional but have important pragmatic functions on the level of discourse”. Furthermore, Aijmer (2002 :3) highlights the importance of DMs stating that: “Discourse particles are different from ordinary words in the language because of the large number of pragmatic values that they can be associated with.

Looking at the previous definitions, DMs are mostly confined to the spoken language and they are used to achieve conversation continuity only in spoken discourse. However, the notion and studies on DMs broadened and used to cover elements in written language, too. Accordingly, Kopple (1985) defines them as a kind of linguistic items that appear both in spoken and written language and are those items which can help the reader/listeners organize, interpret and evaluate the information.

Thus, it can be concluded that DMs are linguistic elements formally diverse (i.e.) from different parts of speech but they are functionally similar that signal text coherence, and achieve text relevance and by which different pragmatic functions of the text or discourse can be achieved, such as managing and initiating the discourse.

Discourse Markers in Kurdish

Since no prior studies have been conducted on DMs in Kurdish, the present study can be considered the first work in the area of the DMs in the language. Though one of the Kurdish researchers, Salih (2014) conducted a study on Discourse connectives, “A Comparative Study of English and Kurdish Connectives in Newspaper Opening Headlines”, but Salih (2014)’s study is different from the current one in certain basic aspects. First; as the title suggests, Salih (2014) ‘s study focuses on ‘connectives’ entirely rather than on DMs and signals conjunctive relations on newspaper opening articles. Second, though he (ibid: 2014) confirms in his abstract that he utilizes Halliday and Hasan (1976)’s framework of connectives, but he mostly relies on the Relevance Theory of Sperber and Wilson (1995) in clarifying and explaining most of the connectives. He (ibid) states that his framework is Hallidayan on macro level, but on micro-level he (ibid) depends on his sub-classification of any type of connectives on another classification done by other researchers, as he finds Halliday and Hasan (1976) ‘s classification of connectives as vague or not clear in all its aspects.

In the present study, the researcher depends on the theories and background information on DMs in English, the researcher largely depends on Hallidayan (1978) functional approach as framework, at the same time takes insights from Fraser (2009)'s pragmatic approach in characterizing the features of these markers in Kurdish language. In accordance to what have been identified and investigated as DMs in the novel, DMs in Kurdish can be described as *lexical expressions that are part of the discourse segment, by lexical items it is meant that they do not cover non-verbal expressions, such as gestures (since the markers are taken from a written text) and they are driven from different grammatical categories which are mostly conjunctions and adverbs, such as (w, balam, yâ, aginâ, harçanda....)*. On the syntactic level, the elements have conjunctive functions as they connect two elements of the same grammatical category, such as nouns as (sûr w spî) or verbs (hâtm u brdim), but they can also appear and function as DMs on discourse level. DMs class do not cover interjections, here, though the author uses a good number of them and they are used to convey different meanings or they can be meaningless, for instance ah, oi, hâ, xö, , hei, ouh, hm, h..h, hou, hi, ahâ, wâi, já, äxr....

Since Halliday and Hassan (1978)'s theoretical framework for the current study do not include certain criteria or conditions for identifying what is a DM in a text; therefore, the researcher relies on Fraser (2009), as he (ibid) puts foundation stone for what is a DM in a written discourse. Hence, for Fraser (2009: 297), DMs must meet three requirements:

1. A DM is a *lexical expression*, for example, *but*, *so*, and *in addition*.
2. In a sequence of discourse segments S1-S2, a DM must occur as a part of the second discourse segment, S2.
3. A DM does not contribute to the semantic meaning of the segment but signals a specific semantic relationship, which holds between the interpretations of the two Illocutionary Act segments, S1 and S2.

The researcher applies these conditions to the DMs in the whole text. So, all those markers are identified which are lexical items, and those DMs are identified which are only part of the second segment rather than the first one (according to the second condition). And those markers are included which occur within the second discourse segment, whether they occur after a comma or a full stop or even when the author does not use punctuation markers properly and systematically as there are various instances of this kind in the novel, for example:

1. am kteba barancâmi mânawajaki drežî awa bo éandahâ mâng tâ saratâj bahâri sâli 2007 law çijâ 3âsjana. *herwahâ hikâjati komele law rûdâwânaš ka dakawna dwâi aw bahâra* (Ali, 2014: 10).

2. Xo am pjâwa ba pilânu naxšajaki pešwaxt kârdakât, jâxud žjân xoi am hamû hezai pe baxšîwa (Ali, 2014: 625).

Thus, it can be stated that DMs in Kurdish are a class of connectives and non-connective discourse elements in the language, which are derived from different word groups and monosemous in meaning but polysemous in function (i.e.) they have one meaning but various discourse functions determined within the text.

3.2 Formal Properties of DMs in Kurdish

Due to the large number of instances and extracts of DMs occurrences within the Kurdish novel, the researcher arrived at a number of definitive characteristics of DMs in Kurdish:

1. DMs in the text occur in only two different positions; initial and middle.
2. Depending on the third condition forwarded by Fraser (2009: 299) , the following expressions are excluded since they do not “represent a semantic relationship which holds between the interpretation of the two illocutionary Act segments S1 and S2;
 - a. Interjections: *ah, oi, hâ, xö, , hei, ouh, hm, h..h, hou, hi, ahâ, wâi, já, äxr.*
 - b. Sentence Adverbial: *bé gûmán* (certainly), *ba dlnjâii* (surely).
 - c. Modal particles: *ba râsti* (indeed/in fact).
 - d. Focus particles: *tanhâ* (just), whereas *tanhâ* as a temporal DM is included within the classification.
 - e. Evidential adverbs: *ba gwerai* (according to)
 - f. Attitude adverbs: *ba rûni* (frankly)
3. In terms of the word class that these markers are chosen from, the DMs of the current text yields to be from different word classes; thus, they are heterogeneous in this concern, such as:
 1. Conjunctions (*w, bełam, yâ, bałkû...*)
 2. Adverbials: *pâşân* (later), *dwâtr*, (later),
 3. Prepositional phrases: *ba pçawánawa* (conversely),
 4. Nouns: *wek*
 5. Adjectives: *tanhâ*
 6. Prepositions: *,pêş, la pêş.*
4. DMs may be composed of only one morpheme (monomorphic) such as *as balam, wa, w, harwahâ...*, or more than one morpheme (polymorphic), such as *garçi, hendai triş, la râstidâ, ba har hal,....*
5. In terms of position, it can be observed that DMs occupy the first position within the discourse segment, whether after a full stop or a comma. That is to say that it is not easy to state that DMs occur initially within the sentence, since the length of sentences is not limited here within the Kurdish novel. For instance there are sentences that contains more than 13 lines, for example in (xezelnüs û Baxaekani Xeyal, (2004: 195), which this can be considered a violation of formal writing in a language like English.
6. In the Kurdish novel, the author uses numerous markers, each with conceptual or procedural meaning. This opposes the claim of most of those who talk of markers as meaningless elements. For instance, Salih (2014), when he refers to the meaning of connectives, which are mostly dealt as DMs in the current study as elements that “ do not have semantic values’, (ibid, 2014: 34). For instance, *but* indicates contrast and denial.

3.3 The Meaning of DMs

In identifying the meaning of each DM in Kurdish, the researcher followed two steps; first, translated the elements personally (since she is a legal translator), consulted the translated version of the book of Xazalrus , though some of the DM in the Kurdish novel were left un-translated such as *balam* (page: 31), *ba har hal* (p: 38), *birtan naçe* (p: 38) and finally she makes use of the The Sharazoor Dictionary (2000) and The Kurdish and English Dictionary of Wahbi and Edmonds (1966),.

One point to be raised in this semantic aspect of DMs is to refer to different approaches of meaning of DMs. Generally; there are two approaches to the meaning of lexemes. Semasiological approach in which

one takes specific linguistic form and investigates the range of meanings or functions the form may fulfill”, in contrast with onomasiological approach, whereby one “ takes a predefined set of discourse functions and investigates how these functions might be expressed linguistically”, (Fraser, 2009: 306). Lewis (2006: 442) suggest three main approaches to the meaning of DMs; the homonymy approach where “are two or more quite separate senses”, the pragmatic (or monosemy) approach, here “the form has a single core semantics and the different interpretations reflect pragmatic ambiguity that is resolved by the context,” and finally the polysemy approach in which “the form has two or more related meanings”, (Lewis, 2006:40)

Each researcher adopt different approaches whether homonymy or monosemy, or polysemy. Lewis (2006: 49) takes the insights from the three.

In the current work, the monosymous approach to DMs meanings, which is adopted by Fraser (2009) also some other researchers dealing with DMs. Fraser (2009) treats DMs ‘monosymous’ since “ markers have only one meaning relationship, and those which have more than one “ they can be dealt with by pragmatic interpretation”, (2009: 307).

So, when searching or investigating the meaning of each marker, every single element is taken in a way as how it connects discourse segments, but when the linguistic element has other functions and are used to have another grammatical function or even discursal function, in such cases they are not taken into consideration, for instance;

Tâ is used to have a DM function on two levels, temporal and causal, for instance:

1. **Temporal:** *Tâ aw kata wam dazâni mn bo awa drüstbüm kçân w žnâni am šâra sairm bkan w pem sarsâm bn.* (Ali, (2004: 556)
2. **Causal:** *pewisti ba kaštjakai macidi gül solâv bü, tâ bânin ka haqiqat teparaw xayal abadja.* (Ali, (2004: 695)

But its use as a preposition is not taken into account, here. So, for identifying the meaning of markers that have more than one like (*tâ, balkü, îtr...*) the researcher depends on the text and also pragmatic interpretations, for instance:

3. *idî* : causal (then): *Idî naw la yake trm bo henân* (Ali, 2014: 38)
4. *idî*: temporal : *idî la mn gorait* (Ali, 2014: 38)

The meaning of DMs in Kurdish goes hand in hand with that of English, for instance *idi=then* and *thus*. Accordingly, DMs have both conceptual and procedural meanings. This assumption runs counter to that of relevance theory by Blakemore (2002), who claims that any expression can have either procedural or conceptual meaning, but not both. And also these examples oppose the approaches towards the meanings of DMs that claim that DMs are meaningless element. However, one can not deny the fact that DMs are studied in different aspects and each researcher includes different elements under the umbrella of DMs, for instance *eh, ouch, oh,....* which are mainly used in spoken language or in conversation. In Kurdish, however, such words can also be used as markers, such as *âxr, eh, âh, ei, hei,...etc*.

Here, one can state that each marker in the Kurdish text has its own semantic value and that DMs in Kurdish are onomasiological in the sense each DM performs different functions at different discourse levels, simultaneously.

Thus, DMs in Kurdish form a rather pragmatic category since they connect segments of discourse

3.3 Classification of Additive DMs in Kurdish

Taking Halliday and Hassan's (1976) taxonomy as a framework, Additive DMs in Kurdish have been classified as follows depending on the DMs found in the novel.

a. Simple additive relations (external and internal):

Additive : *w, harwahâ, (and, and also)*

Negative : *, nek har (not either)*

Alternative : *yân/yâxud (or), lawe bitrâzet (or else).*

b. Complex additive relations (internal): emphatic

Additive : *lagał awaşdâ (additionally) /čidi, čitr further (more), la pâldâ/ dwái awa, (beside that)*

c. Complex additive relations (internal): de-emphatic

d. Comparative relations (internal):

Similar : *likewise, (hendaš)ba hamân šewa/ similarly, wak čon/čon/ wak awai (in the same way), wahä (in (just) this way). Ba corek, ba šewayakn (in the same way)*

Dissimilar : *diwakai triš (on the other hand)*

e. Appositive relations (internal):

Expository : *ya'ni, wâta, baw manaya (that is).*

Exemplificatory : *bo nmuna (for instance)*

Data Analysis

Data is analyzed manually, as the researcher selected each DM one by one that are used in by the authors. The choice is dependent on Halliday and Hassan (1978) framework of DMs, then each marker is categorized or classified according to the taxonomy that ibid (1987) provide for the classification of DMs. Then the frequency and nature of use of each marker is counted in a way that she divided discourse segment into separte segemnets. Then the frequency is converted into percentages in order to compare the use of each group of marker easier in each novel, and to be better compared. Then the average of each type of markers are determined and then compared in both languages dependent on the obtained collected data. The results would be shown in the upcoming sections.

In order to prove that the lexical elements chosen and analyzed certain linguistic criteria are depended upon for this work and applied to DMs in Kurdish.

1. Each element explained function on discourse level, this reflects the definition that DM are “ sequentially dependent elemnt which brackets units of talk”. (1978”:3)
1. Trugott (1995) attaes that DMs serve to specify “ the tyope of sequential dicouse...relationship that hols between the current and the prior discourse”
2. They fill syntactic slots (Traugott, 1995: 5)
3. They are part of grammar of language (Fraser, 1988: 32) even though they have pragmatic in function.

Discussion of DMS in the Kurdish Novel

3.3.1 Additive DMs

3.3.1.1 Simple Additive

Simple additive is the first use of additional meanings of DMs within Halliday and Hassan (1976) framework. Though they (ibid: 244) refer to simple additive but there is not a specified definition or reference what ‘simple’ means.

1. w (and)

In Kurdish language, *w* is one of the most common words used as a conjunction. It is used to connect different linguistic elements such as nouns, verbs, adjectives , phrases and clauses. Kurdish grammarians, native and non-native have studied and investigated and treated *w* as a conjunction or a syntactic particle.

McCarus (1958:100) lists *w* within the category of ‘ independence connectors’, which are those connectors appear in an independence clause or they are part of a relative clause in a larger utterance”.

In the field of generative grammar, Fattah (1997) studies *w* and categorizes it under the class of simple conjunctions, (.i.e.) those conjunctions that consist of only one free morpheme ,(ibid, 1997: 189). In terms of form and in terms of function *w* is classified as a coordinator, which has the connection or linking function between words, phrases and clauses. Fattah (1997: 185) adds that the clauses that are connected by these connectives are often sequentially fixed and that are restricted to initial position in the clause.

3. Hâta žûre w dâništ. (ibid, 1997:185)

Though, Fattah (ibid: 185) points out that a sequence of coordinators is not allowed in Kurdish, as in:

4. *Dilsoz ba w baîâm trsnok nabî.

He (ibid: 185) confirms the function of coordinators in linking of words and phrases of the same grammatical category as in;

-Žin w pjâw

-krâseki spî w blûzeki kask.

Thus, on the syntactic level the word *w* functions as a coordinator. However, Ali (2004) uses *w* as a

conjunction numerously as in the following examples:

- sâla w sât (Ali, 2014: 82)
- sar w biçim (Ali, 2014: 83)
- sî w çlakân (Ali, 2014: 89)
- mrdin w žjân (Ali, 2014: 90)
- dawr w taslîm (Ali, 2014: 91)
- pāk w tahûr (Ali, 2014: 84)
- min w aw (ibid: 2014: 97)
- pûl w pára (ibid, 2014: 103)
- xalk w xwâ (ibid, 2014: 104)
- haja w hürmat (ibid, 2014: 485)
- çak w 3atâd (ibid, 2014: 106)

Halliday and Hassan (1976:234) point out that “The coordination relation which is represented by the word *and* may obtain between pairs (or among sets) of items functioning more or less anywhere in the structure of the language’, that function as a complex structural element, whether nominal, verbal or clausal and has different syntactic functions within the sentence, whether subject, object, etc....

Nonetheless, the status of *w* as an additive DM is extended and modified (as pointed out by Halliday and Hassan, ibid: 234). It functions as a cohesive device that participates in achieving discourse cohesive relation. *w* (and) relates different segments or sentences that occur one after the other, as it is the case with coordinator. Since conjunction use is related to the syntactic level, they are not to be covered within this study.

On the discourse level, the usage and function of *w* is observed and studied through the Kurdish novel ‘Xazal nûs w Baghakani Xayal’. It is investigated that *w* is the most frequently used marker among the other markers used by the author, as it is used (1229:) that is (% 82. 48) throughout the novel. Shifirin (1987: 128) points out that “skewed frequency of a form often implies its distribution in a relatively less restricted set of environments.

The data reveals that *w* is used in different environments. For identifying the function of *w* those occurrences are counted in which this linguistic element occurs as a part of the second segment according to Fraser’s (2009) second condition of DMs, as in :

5. Sa’eed Bajo paî dada ba kursjakawa *w* daigût “Xanim mn pemgûti mamostajakai dawet ferî xayali bkât”.

In the above discourse segment *w* can be considered as a DM. Such a position of *and* which is equivalent to the Kurdish DM *w* is pointed out by Halliday and Hassan (1976: 236) as state “A slight different use, and one in which the cohesive *and* comes perhaps closest to the structural function it has in coordination, is that which indicates next in a series (of things to be said)”, which is labeled as internal use”. Though linguists like Halliday and Hassan (1976) and Fraser (2009) show that the typical context of *and* to occur as a DM (connective in Hallidayan term) is “one in which there is a total, or almost total, shift in the participants from one sentence to the next, and yet the two sentences are very definitely part of a text”. Halliday and Hassan (1976: 236).

In the novel, a large frequency of DM ‘w’ occurs in such a context;

6. Xâwan ûtelakamek sġamjawa w ġûti “ basar câw hemintrîn ŷûrt dadame”. (Ali, 2014:117)
7. Cântâkai bo henâja ŷûre w ba hurmatawa ġûti “baretân pşui xotân bidan”(ibid, 800)
8. hât bo lâm w ġûti “Hasan Tofan, to baştrin taqa kar w âzâtrin čak ba dasti wiġati emait”. (ibid: 132)
9. amcara hasan tofân rûxoştr w bâştir pêşwâzi le krdim w ġûti “am arşifa stûnâna ştmân zor bo âşkrâ dakât...” (Ibid, 2014: 141).

And there are numerous instances for **w** in such a context, which means or indicates that speakers have more to say.

It can be observed that in the large frequency of using *w* (within the novel) that is used before ‘ġûti’ (said), ‘ġûtm’ (I said) that have additive meaning or speaker’s continuation of his/her talk. In such a case *w* has a pragmatic effect as DM as stated by Schifirin (1987: 150), this use of ‘and’ as a marker of a speaker’s continuation; and makes a speaker’s definition of what is being said as a continuation of what had preceded. And in such a case **w** does not give the reader an idea about what is being continued but it is the cues in the content and structure of information that the reader gets such information.

So, in these all instances **w** is an additive simple marker ; however, **w** is used in the novels to convey other senses, such as to show contrast (but), conclusive (so,..then) or sometimes can be substituted by zero,

And = but

If one considers the meaning of the following excerpt,

10. şâzamân saratâ wâj dazâni tanja kçeki îşkara w aw rekawtî nakrdwa. (Ali, 2014: 227)
‘w’ can mean contrast between the two segments (S1 and S2), which can be predicted from the meaning of both segments.

On the syntactic level, Shwani (2002: 88-89) refers to certain uses of *w* as a relative particle to show contrast between two simple sentences’ events in a compound sentence, which has only one subject;

11. min kâr nâkam w nâniş nâxom. (Shwani, 2002: 88)
or it can be used to relate or connect two sentences that have two events but not addition. The related sentences have one subject but two verbs which are oppsit in meaning;

12. ema daikain w awân daixon. (Shwani, 2002: 88)

w and = kawâta (so, as a result)

Considering the meaning of ‘w’ in the following contexts from the novel;

13. hamü pekrâ awajân dübâra dakrdawa ka min kûri awân w idî awân dâiki mnin. (Ali, 2014: 313)

14. hamü pekrâ awajân dübâra dakrdawa ka min kûri awân *wabet* idî awân dâiki minin.

The above instances indicate that *w* can be used in environments shared by *kawâta* (*so*), the first segment provides the background information to the resultative outcome that ‘all those women consider themselves as Ghazalnu’s mother after his mother’s death’

W (And) = zero

In discourse segments such as the following, *w* as a marker connects the first segment to the next one.

15. hiç xâlqek nia hamû xalq la hamû roždâ tawaw bkât *w* îtr tâ abad be îş dânişet. (Ali, 2014: 713)

If *w* is removed from the context and the discourse segments are written without *w*, it does not affect the meaning of the sentence. *W* in such instances neither stands for additional information nor conclusion. So, the only substitution for *w* in this case would be zero.

Even in the novel, the author uses *w*, especially in indirect speech preceding ‘gûti, gûtim,..’ (he/she said or I said), but these are instances that a comma substitutes *w*.

16. sari barz krdawa *w* be awai pe bkane jân ta3bîrekî djârî krâw lasar rûxsârî bet, gûti(Ali, 2014: 228)

Shiffirin (1987: 131) observes this alternation between ‘and’ and ‘zero’ in English DMs through her data analysis, she states; “zero works at a global level to separate segments of the story”.

Throughout all instances investigated through the novel, *W* as a DM occurs as a part of the second discourse segment and in terms of its position it never occurs at the beginning of a new sentence.

One point to be clarified about punctuation of direct speech uses in the novels is that, the comma (,) has never been used after ‘gûti’ throughout the whole novel except in one example that stated earlier in the alternation between zero and *w*, which in the system of punctuation marks in Kurdish, it is stated that one of the positions to put a comma (,) is after ‘gûti’ (said), (Hashmi, 2016:1), as it is the case with the punctuation mark (,) in English.

Thus, the occurrence of DM *w* in the novel is as follows:

S1, DM S2.

Herwahá (and also)

Another simple additive lexical element in Kurdish language is *herwahâ*. It can be translated as *and also*, but its use is less than *w*. Grammatical analysis of *herwahâ* reveals that this marker can be used as a conjunction; however, only the DM function would be accounted for here.

It is observed that *herwahâ* has much rarer use than *w* throughout the novel, as it is only used (3) times, that is (%0.20) only.

The use of *herwahâ* in the discourse segments reveals that it can initiate new sentences; in that sense it occurs after full stop. Therefore, it can be predicted that one major differences between *w* and *herwahâ*, as DMs, is that the latter occurs after the stop, hence, initiates utterance while the former can not behave in such a way. So, its major function to add more information to the hearer on what is said previously.

,*herwahâ* appears in these positions within the contexts;

S1. *Herwahâ* S2

17. am kteba barancami mânawajaki drži awa bo ćandahâ mâng tâ saratâi bahâri sâfi 2007 law ćjâ 3âsjana. *herwahâ* hikâjati komele law rûdâwânaš ka dakawna dwâi aw bahâra.(Ali, 2014: 10)

The meaning of the discourse segments that are related with *herwahâ* have the same importance; for instance, in the first segment Ali (2014:10) talks about the importance of his book, then in the second segment he adds additional information to what he has said in the first segment. Therefore, there is a balance in both sides in terms of emphasis and none of the segments has more emphasis than the other. Halliday and Hassan (1978: 236) refer to *and* its counterparts such as ‘and also...’ as simple additives, which indicates ‘next in series’ or things to be said, which is known as ‘internal meaning’ as hinted at earlier. So, in the above extract *herwahâ* is used to indicate what is to be said within the discourse context.

Nek her (not either)

As a lexical item in the dictionary, *nek har* is described as a conjunction that co-occurs with *balku* (but). So, it has the form *nek her...balku*. On the syntactic analytic view, neither McCarus (1958) nor Fattah (1997) include or enlist *nek her...balkü* within the list of the Kurdish conjunctions, they analyse and describe it within the list of identical correlative pairs as *na...na, yân...yân*, or with distinct correlative pairs *boja..ka, magari..aginâ, etc..*

Halliday and Hassan (1987: 237) describe this marker ‘not either’ in English as a negative correlatives of ‘and’. As a conjunction, it occurs with *balku*.

In the novel, the frequency of its use is only once.

Alternatives

jân, jâxud (or)

‘*jân*’ and *jâxud*’ are figured out to be conjunctions by Wahbi and Edmonds (1966: 163). Shwani (2003: 93-100) talks about the statues of *jan* on the syntactic level as a conjunction. He (ibid: 2003:96) states that, as a conjunction, *jân* is used in compound sentences and appears two forms; *jâ or ja..yâ* to connect sentences. *jân*, in isolation, is used for asking about the alternation between two alternative things, actions, phenomenon, in a compound sentence, as in

21. le sarawa buit jâ la xwârawa?

Fattah (1997) does not list *jâ* within his classification of simple conjunctions but rather he (ibid, 1997: 185) enrolls *jâ...jâ* within the category of correlative pairs, where the same conjunction is reduplicated.

The equivalent translation for *jân*, *jâxud* is *or* in English. In discourse, *or* is used as an option marker as it “marks a speaker’s provision of options to a hearer”, (Shiffirin, 19187: 177). It is observed the different occurrences of *jâ/jân/ jâxud* are (58) times, (%3. 89) within the novel.

22. Ewâraniş lagał aw piramârdanai dosjândá **jân tawłaj dakird**, **jân** xarîkî gaşândnawai maqali w čakrdni maza bü. (Ali, 2014: 135)
23. Pê daçé nâmakai malâ garibî hâcar hâwgfti şteki dî bûbet ka peştir la nâwawai harzakârakadâ âmâda bû, **jân** dardakawe rohî har la saratâwa bo bîstnî hawâleki law cora lşar pe bûbet. (Ali, 2014: 143)
24. Şari nâw min sari čakaw xrâpa, **jân** avîn w riq nabû, nâ..(Ali, 2014: 143)
25. Xudâja âxir trsi la ke habwaja la sa3idi bâjo, la xasrawi cabr, la 3ala twân dû **jâ** la maca ekslânsi inglizi. (Ali, 2014: 199)
26. Kastân flimi žamânži robin wljamztân biniwa, **jân** flimi sâturâ. (Ali, 2014: 204)
27. Datsâm la kâti qsa krđnâ be hoş bet , **jân** hawâ bibât. (Ali, 2014:

So, it can be observed in the above excerpts ‘*jâ/jân*’ function as conjunctions that is used between two options; whether names, events, objects, actions...but in the following extract, *jaxud* functions as a DM:

28. Râsta min pjaw kuž bûm , la sâlâni haştâdâ xałkânek zor kûştai çaki min bûn, la newân awândâ xałkâneki xrâpi tedâ bûn ka şâistai marg bûn,jâxud ba bîr krđnawai şorşgerânai aw sardama w zamana ba şâistai mrdnm dazânet. (Ali, 2014: 412)
29. Xo am pjâwa ba pilânu naxşajaki peşwaxt kârdakât, jâxud žjân xoi am hamû hezai pe baxşiwa. (Ali, 2014: 625)

In the instances in the novel in which *jân* or *jâxud* are used, the marker is used in the middle position between the segments but not sentence initial position or after a full stop except when it functions as a conjunction.

In the data obtained *ja/Jan* provides the hearer between two choices,; either accepting only one of the given choices or both. Such a use of *ya/jan* is described as exclusive as only one member of the disjunct is held; it can also be exclusive when the speaker provides the hearer both choices in the argument. So, it can be observed than *jan/ja* is different from *w* in behavior since it gives the hearer with the desire to take an action whereas in *w* it indicates the speaker’s desire towards his talk.

Lawa btrâzet (or else)

Lawabtrâzet (or else) is not mentioned as a conjunction, particle or even a relativizer in Kurdish literature. Even the two reliable Kurdish-English dictionaries ‘The Sharazoor (1960) and ‘A Kurdish-English dictionary of Wahbi and Edmons (1966) do not include these words in their lexical entries within the dictionaries.. But a morphological analysis to the word can reveal that it is a prepositional phrase.

Looking at *Lawa btrâzet (or else)* behavior as a DM within the novel, that can be revealed through its position, meaning, and pragmatic function, through the following extracts;

29. Dinjâ zor gorâ bû, kaçi magôli har waku xoi bû, tanjâ kamek la cârân tanhâ kamek la cârân qaław tr û dast xr û bâzû qawîtir hâta barçâwm , *lawabtrâzet* ngâi hamân nigâ w angî hamân dang w

rohi hamân roh bû. (Ali, 2014: 791)

This marker is used twice in the novel as a simple additive marker. So, it has a rare use, here. It is mainly occurs after the comma in the second segment of the discourse unit but not at the beginning of the discourse segment, as follows;

S1, DM S2

The use of *lawâ btrâzet* (or *else*) takes its internal sense of ‘alternation’ in statements as pointed out by Halliday and Hassan (1978: 245).

3.3.1.2 Complex Additive

Complex additives are “emphatic forms of the ‘and’ relation occurring only in the internal sense”, (i.e.) they indicate that there is another point to be taken in conjunction with the previous one”, (Halliday and Hassan, 1987: 245).

In Kurdish, as it is the case with English, there are numerous expressions that which convey this meaning, such as ‘lagał awaşdâ (additionally), la pałdâ, dwâ awaş (beside that), çidî, çitr, (furthermore), sararâi awaş (besides), nak tanhâ...balkû (not only that but)..et...

In xazalnûs w baghakânî xajâl, the author makes use of such terms in different positions either as conjunctions (which is not the concern here) or as DM, which would be explained in this study. The frequency of the whole complex additive markers is 16 times, which is (% 1.07).

Lawa zjâtr, çidî, çitr, lagał awaşdâ (despite that)

In Kurdish literature no due explanation is given to the lexical elements in this group, but in certain resources a hint is given on them. For instance, *lagał awaşdâ* is grouped as a member of complex conjunctions by Fattah (1997: 184) but no further explanations is given concerning its use and meaning. They can be translated as ‘despite that’ or as ‘any more’.

In the novel, these words occur in certain contexts, as shown from the following excerpts:

30. Dazânim to tanjâ xalkt pe dakûžn , *lawâ zjâtr* ba kałkî hiç nâjait . (Ali, 2014: 742)

31. Bałâm trîfa law kçâna nabû aw štâna brindâri bkât , lagał awaşdâ dabet blem ka trîfa la şawi jakamawa ba core nzîkâjatiaki roh w xzmâjati dił lagał xazal nûs akrd.

32. Estâ harsekmân hamû šte lasar tarxûnçi dazânin ka dajawet rohi ema bipşknû w qûlâi dlmân bxwenetawa , lagał awaşdâ harsekmân haz dakain aw bagakâni nâw dli xoi bdozetawa. (Ali, 2004: 866)

In terms of its position, it can be observed that this group of complex additive markers occupies the mid position. Thus, as the extracts from the text reveal that they do not occur initially in the discourse segment. The formula would be as follows;

S1 .DM S2

S1, DM S2

In terms of meaning *Lawa zjâtr*, *lagał awaşdâ* are used in the sense to tell the reader that:

(1) S1 is not the only truth to be said, and therefore;

(2) There is something else to be added to S1.

3.3.1.3 Similarity

In the Hallidayan (1978) framework, additive includes a related pattern of semantic similarity. In this sense, the source of cohesion would be “ what is being said with what has gone before”, Halliday and Hassan (1978: 247). In the Kurdish novel, the author makes use of such a lexical terms as ‘*wâ, hendaš, ba hamân šewa, wak, wak, wak çon, wak awai, be corek, be šewayak*’, that all imply a sense of similarity and resemblance.

Wak (similar)

Traditional Kurd grammarians, like Ibrahim (1986) talks about the syntactic statues of this element and lists it under the ‘compound syntactic particles’; which in form it is composed of two parts; ‘wa’ and ‘kû’. *Wa* is a conjunction in Kurdish language and *kû* is a relative particle in the southern Kurdish dialect, (Ibrahim, 1986: 26-27).

In terms of its function, he identifies two functions for *wakû*; it relates (or connects) two simple sentences and it is used as a ‘similarity particle’. He (ibid, 48) points out that there is a syntactic difference between the two uses, as the first use is more related to syntactic use. Fattah (1997: 186) classifies *waku* as a subordinate conjunction that “introduces clauses but not restricted to the initial position”, and the clause that such subordinate conjunctions introduce are not sequentially fixed and they allow coordinates like ‘w’ precede them.

The occurrence of this element is mostly tends to be as a conjunction. So, it is not to be taken as a DM, as the following examples;

- wak estâ: such as now
- wak hamiša: as usual
- wak pešû: as previously
- wak jony dip: like jhomy dep.

Here, different uses convey different meanings. This is what is meant by the polysemousness in meaning, which is not only determined or understood by the whole context, but by its collocation and cooccurrence with other words.

33. la brwâjaki qûlawâ brjâri dabû xam bo wiîat naxwât, wak zor lawânai saîgaleki bešwmâr tarawge dekewn. (Ali, 2014:))

Therefore, the shift would go to the following lexical element that function as DMs;

Wâ, wahâ (in the same way)

This lexical element appeared in various positions in the novel. ‘Wahbi ad Edmonds (1966: 52) categorize such lexical items as adverbs in term of their part of speech. Thus, it can be seen that they occur in the following contexts in the novel;

33. bûnawareki wahâ lawâz btwâne la pišt aw aw hamû iša âloz w xroša bet, *wahâ* rawilaw naxoš djâr bû, mirov ka daibînî kispâ la hanâwi dahât (ADV)
34. har čonek bû xom tekaławjan kird darbârai darbârai njâz w xwâstjân pirsjârm krd, *wâ* te gaištîm la čan rožî dâhâtûdâ era era darûxenîn,. (Ali, 2014: 157) (ADV)
35. swendî ba bonî kaneraw rehâna daxwârd, *wahâ* nâsk qsai dakrd sarm law sar w zmâna šîrînai daahât. (Ali, 2014: 417) (ADV)
36. hané câr gûleki daxsta bar kapûi w midâla dabûrayawa , *âwhâ* firsatî dahênâ baw mâladâ bgart w boni bkât w gwebgret, Ali, 2014: 530) (ADV)

In the above examples and in such contexts ‘*wâ*, *âwâ*, *awhâ* *wehâ* function as ‘connectives’ rather than conjunctives since they are used in context and their meaning indicate similarity. Salih (2004:108) in his study on ‘connectives’ points out that when “*similarly* is used as a connective it usually occurs in the initial position of S2 and it is used by the writer to signal there is comparison between S1 and S2, in which S1 and S2 are similar to each other in terms of emphasis”. Syntactically analyzing them, it can be said they are adverbs , since in each example they describe the verb they follow , and convey the meaning of ‘in such a way’.

Considering the following extracts from the novel, one can get to analyze them as DMs,

37. čon hestrek bâreki gawra ba hawrâzekdâ sardaxât, *âwahâ* šaw rož bâri nâšrinî xom sardaxam. (Ali, 2014: 6130)
38. 3Atar wak čon štî 3antîkai kodakrdawa, *awhâ* âdamîzâdânî sair w nâwazaiši dakri. (Ali, 2014: 163)
39. čon dajân twâni be awai cwâni rohm bibiin , *âwhâ* werânîm bkan? Čon?...*wahâ* bû rûm la har išek dakird qâpjakâni bar rûmdâ dâdaxrâ..he he he...*wahâ* bû...nân lasar siframdâ nabû ..*wahâ* bû,...(Ali, 2014: 684)

In the above extract, *wahâ* and *âwhâ* are used alternatively by the author within the same discourse segment. It can be observed that the meaning of these lexical items are determined by the context as pointed out previously that it is the pragmatic context defines the meaning of markers.

In all the above instances *âwha* and *wahâ* function as DMs, occupy the middle position and part of the second discourse segment, as the following formula;

S1, DM S2

However, both segments have the same semantic load, as none of them is more emphatic than the other. The frequency of using this marker is (20) times, (% 1.33) in this sense, form and pragmatic function.

Wak čon, wak awai, čon, ba mislî

Wak čon, wak awai, čon, ba mislî are words that mean “as if, in that manner of” and they can be used as adverbs. There are a good amount of them in the novel in adverb use.

As markers of comparison to show the similarity between the events, actions, phenomenon ...etc are *Wak čon, wak awai, čon, ba mislî*. These markers can be translated as ‘in the same way’ as predicted from the contexts.

40. šer zor asân daitwâni bgaretawa lajân , *wak awai* klilekî sihrâwi bibnet,...(Ali, 2014: 351)

41. râsti law pari xajâlawâ dast pe dakât. *Wak çon* xajâliš law pari râstjawa dast pe dakât. (Ali, 2014: 347)
42. estâ ka la âwenakadâ sairi xoi dakrd diñjâ bû nawcawâni çinî niwa kužrâwakai xojati, wak çon niwa kûžrâwakai xazal nûsiša, wak çon niwa kûžrâwakai hamû maxlûqa xajâljakâna, (Ali, 2014: 734)
43. hamûjân ba šewai coraâw cor bîrjân law dakirdawa, *wak awai* xazalnûs hawâi dnjâjakî tri henâbet. (Ali, 2014: 870)
44. wahâ bû wak awai dangm la dûrawa bet , *wak awai* prsjâreki zor qûł bkam w bo nhenjaki zor be bin bgarem, *wak awai* la šânogarjâkdâ bim w tekstaka bsapet ba sarmdâ aw prsjârakam. (Ali, 2014: 870)

Sometimes the author uses similarity markers repeatedly within the same segment as illustrated in the last above example to indicate different sorts of similarities between different phenomena.

Thus, it can be observed that these markers occur in the contexts in the following positions;

S1, DM S2

S1. DM S2

Thus, they occur medially as a part of the second segment of the two segments they correlate after comma and full stop, and the frequency of using them is (145) times, (%9.73) which is a considerable number of repetitions.

45. aw jânajjân wâ lekrd bet ba šweni îš , bet ba maidâni kâr. *Wak çon* xałk bo krekâr dagaret daçet bo maidâni krekarân, (Ali, 2014: 321)

in the last instance, the formula is ;

S1. DM S2

3.3.2. Appositives

Appositive additives come as the second type of additive connection relations within the classification of Halliday and Hassan (1978). Appositive appears to have two further sub branches of meaning which are ‘Expository and Exemplification’. However, no further explanations or details of the meaning or the definitions of these terms are provided by the authors related these meanings.

What can be understood from the meaning of the discourse segments in which appositive markers are used is that the first segment is S1 is exemplified, expanded, clarified and elaborated or even summarized through the upcoming segment S2.

a. Expository

Expository meaning is expressed by ‘jân, wâta, baw mânâja, ..etc’ in the novel. The meaning of these markers implies that the elaboration, definition and exploration of S1 can be found in S2.

There are a number of markers that are used to expose expository meaning in the novel such as, *wâta, baw mânâja, ya3ni*’ which can be translated as ‘mean, that is’. Though, *ya3ni* is an

Arabic word originally, but it is used by the author in his novel, as it is a wide and common word used by most speakers of Kurdish speaking community today, as a borrowed word from Arabic through the process of lexical borrowing.

wâta is equivalent to English ‘mean’ or ‘I mean’, which is a member of meta-linguistic expressions such as ‘let me tell you, let’s put it this way, like I say...’ which are DMs.

Schiffirin (1987: 295) states that ‘mean’ marks speakers’ orientation to two major aspects of meaning of talk; ideas and intention. She refers to the polysemous meaning of ‘mean’ and also this different meanings can be due to the meta-linguistic properties of this marker.

The frequency of using expository markers in the novel is (9) times (0.60%), for instance;

46. *estâ zjâtir rang w rûi dânâjaki wrd bîn jân şa3ireki hemnî haja ,be awai ruxsâri xâli bet la âmâža bo pîşai trû w xûljâi dîkaş. Wâta gar ba nîgâjaki dîş tei brwânîn , daşet la barçâwmân rûxsâri pizişkeki ârâm w ba wiqâr w ganci habet.* (Ali, 2014: 37)

In the above example ‘*wâta*’ is used to explain of the intention of ideas’ as the intended meaning seems to be indirect for the appropriate as one of the meanings of the word ‘mean’ pointed out by speaker, Schiffirin (1987: 296),

Thus, ‘*wâta*’ prefaces clarification of misinterrupted meaning (as Schiffirin (1987) calls it).

47. *xwâi gawra har çjakm krd am xanma bçkolânajai to law ate nagaşt zindawarakân datwânin ba be cût bûn zâw ze bkan, ya3ni mni gajânda hałatek handek wša bakâr bhenm ka cwân nja pjâweki wak min la bardam xânmeke b hurmat w pâkizai wak awdâ bîxâta sar zmân.*(Ali, 2014:)

In the above example , the author uses *ya3nî* as an expository marker.

Schiffirin (1987: 295) states that ‘I mean’ functions within the participation framework within her mode (that hinted at previously in the second chapter) , such a framework covers not only the footings through which the speaker and hearer relate to each other , but the ways in which procedures of talk are related to the units of talk they are producing their prepositions, acts and terms”.

Thus, according to her (ibid, 1987: 296) *wâta* marks (1) a speakers upcoming modification of the meaning of his/her own talk. (2). Speaker’s explaining ideas.

In the following discourse unit from the novel *wâta* is used to explain ideas;

48. *hasan tofân gûti “ bo am îşa jakekmân awet be bâk nabet w çâw natrs bet, wâta jakemân dawet la to naçe, pjâweki la to 3aqłtr bet”.* (Ali, 2014: 257)

thus, in the above extract the author gives and explains the meaning of ‘*çâw natrs*’ by describing the person required for the killing mission.

Schiffirin (1987: 300) clarifies that ‘I mean’ is not only responsible for the use of ‘I mean’ as a modifier of ideas and intentions but also for its use with a particular type of self-repair. Self-repairs can be background repair and/or replacement repair. Background repair are ‘subordinate asides which provide information to modify and/or supplement hearer’s understanding of surrounding material”.

49. min w aw hamû ştakân djâri dakin, îşakân dabs dakain , pârakân djâri dakain, wâ dakain be baş nabe”. Ba trsekawa prsîm “ ya3ni tâ estâ xałk dakûžn, wâ nia tâ esta xalk dakûžin”.

In the above quote ‘ya3ni’ is used to ask the speaker to express ideas, which seems unpredictable for the hearer in the first sentence. In this occasion, ‘ya3ni’ is used as replacement repair that switches the direction of the upcoming talk and that is by substitution of the prior talk, which seems understood by the hearer.

50. baron şa3irş bû, baw manâja nâ ka diwâni şî3rî habet , bałkû baw mânâjai mrov şî3r bidwet w şî3r bžî, (Ali, 2014: 328)

And sentence in (50) *wâta* is used as a remedial for the prior speech.

Wâta or *ya3ni* are used to mean ‘in other words’ in certain discourse segments, for instance:

51. bałâm la wenakadâ cga la wenai rût w qûti aw cegâja hîci tir nâbinît, ja3nî wasfî paşa xajâli tjâ nia.

So, the second segment is like a paraphrase of the first segment in the above discourse context.

b. Exemplification

Bo nmûna (for example)

Exemplification is the second type of appositional additive markers. In this sort of discourse segments, the second segment involves an additional example for a statement put forward in the first segment. The DMs identified in the Kurdish novel are ‘*bo nmûna*’, ‘*in which*’ used only once in the novel.

52. bałam lagal qûli w rîşa sairakânîdâ kam w zor şteki la roli am sardamai min w to tedâja. *Bo nimûna*, roheki biçûk w fełparstî wak aw pjâwai am hamû laparânai nûsiwa. (Ali, 2014: 10)

53. S1, DM S2

Though, the novelist uses this term enormously, but they are all conjunctions. ‘*Bo nmûna*’ is semantically similar to the English phrase “for example” and also both are prepositional phrases. Researchers such as (Salih, 2014: 107) claim that *bo nmûna* is the only connective that signals an additive relation through exemplification. Fraser (2009: 301) lists such lexical items of exemplification as Elaborative markers, where a marker “signals elaboration in S2 to the information contained in S1”.

Additive	Types of DM Relation	Sub-category	Kurdish DM	English translation	Frequency	
	simple	Additive	<i>W</i>	<i>And</i>	1229	82.48%
			<i>Herwahâ</i>	And also	3	0.20%
		Negative	Nek.. her	Not	1	0.07%
		Alterbnative	<i>Jân/Jâjxûd</i>	<i>Or</i>	58	3.89%
	Lewe bitrâzet		Or else	2	0.13%	
Complex		Additive	<i>Lewe zjâtir</i>	<i>Besides that</i>	4	0.27%
			<i>Ĉidî/Ĉîtr</i> <i>Lagal awaş</i>	<i>Further more</i> Additionally	16	1.07%

		Complex	<i>Wâ/wahâ</i>	<i>In the same way</i>	20	1.33%
			<i>Wak çon</i>		145	
			<i>Wak aweî</i>			9.73%
			<i>Çon</i>			
			<i>Ba mîslî</i>			
	<i>Apposiiti</i>	Expository	<i>Jâ'ni</i>			
			<i>Wâta</i>			
			<i>Bew mînâje</i>	<i>I mean</i>	9	0.60%
	<i>Total</i>				1501	

Table -1 Number and Frequency Additive Discourse Markers in Xazel NÛS W Baxakânî Xejât

Though, the novelist uses this term enormously, but they are all conjunctions. ‘Bo nmûna’ is semantically similar to the English phrase “for example’ and also both are prepositional phrases. Researchers such as (Salih, 2014: 107) claim that *bo nmûna* is the only connective that signals an additive relation through exemplification. Fraser (2009: 301) lists such lexical items of exemplification as Elaborative markers, where a marker “signals elaboration in S2 to the information contained in S1”.

Conclusions

In the outcome of this study the researcher arrives at a number of findings and results that can be summarized as follows.

Written discourse of Kurdish language does not lack DMs in its structure and content. Through the investigation of form, function and meanin of the DMs which are used in the novel, it has been arrived to the definition of DMs in Kurdish as a ‘class of lexical items (connectives and non-econnectives) which are either mono- or polymorphemic, derived from different word classes, monosemous in meaning and polysemous in functions’. They are tended to reveal different chatracteristics, such as (mostly) initiality in discourse segments, heterogenousity in class and functions, diversity in meaning.

Applying Halliday and Hasan (1976) 's framework, DMs reveal different relational meanings; one of them is Additive Relation. This relation usually occurs between two elements or discourse segments of equal status; one initiates and the latter continues. These markers involve a number of sub-categories within them; such as simple, complex additive with its both types; internal and external and appositive, and each of which embrace sub-further categories.

Each group and sub-group of Additive DMs has different discourse functions and meanings, despite their basic role in achieving coherence; first, Simple Additive indicate next in series, actions and phenomena, shift in topic or thematic shift, alternation between events and maintaining balance between the two discourse segments. Second, Complex additives, with its two internal and external categories, add to the truth of the previous discourse segment and denote similarity. Third, Appositive group of markers indicate that the first segment is exemplified, expanded and elaborated.

In order to achieve the aims of the study, a quantitative /qualitative research approaches is adopted, as the number and frequency of each marker is identified manually, then they are converted to statistical numerals. Later, the results are discussed.

The frequency of occurrence of this group of markers which is (1501) times, and the number and percentage each class and subclass of Additive DMs within the novel reveal that Additive DMs are common in use in Kurdish contexts that are figured out in the novel "Xazal Nûs w Baxakânî Xyâl".

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Arabic-English Code-Switching as a Medium of Instruction in TEFL in Mosul University: A Sociolinguistic Analysis

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Abstract:

This study investigates a recent sociolinguistic phenomenon (i.e., Arabic–English Code-Switching (henceforth Ar-E CS) as a medium of instruction in TEFL in Mosul University. The study attempts to deepen our understanding of the vital role played by CS learning in our life. It is based on the analysis of collected data from informants in Mosul University in Iraq through social participation, interviews and personal observation of EFL classes. The hypotheses and objectives of the empirically collected data are presented along with a linguistic analysis on the phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic levels. It is hypothesized that there are certain features and rules of the code-switched language used in them. Suggestions are advanced about when, how and why Ar-E CS occurs, emphasizing the influence of sociolinguistic variables (i.e., topic, setting, and participants including their age, sex, education, rural vs. urban and socioeconomic background) as well as psychological, academic and other non-linguistic constraints of Ar-E CS. It is also expected to shed light on this phenomenon with reference to its nature, causes, and functions of using the first language in TEFL. Finally, some conclusions are drawn and some recommendations are made for future studies to give a comprehensive picture of Ar-E CS in Iraq as well as the Arab World.

Key words: Sociolinguistics, Code Switching, Code Mixing, Languages in Contact.

1. Introduction:

Monolingual and bilingual speakers often view the practice of code switching negatively alike. It is often seen as a low prestige form, incorrect, poor language, or a result of incomplete mastery of the two languages. In spite of the negative perceptions of code switching, it is a common feature of bilingual speech. But, it is important to state that such assumptions are not based on logical justifications.

Speech mixing is not restricted to present speech communities but goes back to the mixing of European vernaculars with Latin in the middle ages, e.g. German. In the sixteenth century, Latin was mixed with items inflected according to Greek rules in philosophical writings (Ure 1974: 229, 230). She added that mixing covered educational subjects, for instance, Cicero used it for philosophy whereas Williram and Luther used it for theology. Italian was mixed with Latin in the fifteenth century sermons.

Timm (1975: 480) refers to evidence dating back to the early Middle Ages where the upper class members mix their mother tongues with French in Germany, Russia and Edwardian England.

Comparing contemporary mixing with medieval European mixing, Ure (1974: 229) claims that the former is limited to the spoken form. This assumption is questionable since we have a lot of code-switched

samples in modern Arabic, Indian and English literature. Code-switching may occur also inter-dialectally, for example switching from Standard Arabic to Colloquial Arabic.

Recently, CS has been studied from psychological perspective for it is strongly linked with the linguistic storage in memory. Some other studies have focused on switching time. Code-switching studies have also attempted to answer questions related to the functional motivations and the linguistic constraints of CS, and the attitude of people towards it. Some others have tackled the impact of 'topic', 'participants', and 'situation' on CS.

Excluding the previous studies, the psycho- and sociolinguistic analyses of CS are virgin. Additional studies of CS need to be undertaken in order to discover (i) the linguistic rules of CS, (ii) the grammatical relationship between the items of the code-switched constructions and (iii) the role of the two systems in sentence production (Sridhar 1980: 204, 213).

2. The Problem:

Although Arabic is the mother tongue of the majority of Iraqis, it has suffered from a long history of colonial repression through the Ottoman Empire and later the British Empire. In Iraq, English has been a subject of study since 1873. Under British rule, it became a medium of instruction and even after independence retained this role in some university departments.

Yet Arabicisation must contend with the fact that English still plays a leading role in such subject areas, the more so as 90% of the world's scientific and technical literature is published in English. A conspicuous result is the persistent code-switching between Arabic and English among the educated Iraqi people and university students and staff, who shift, mix, or insert English lexical items into lexical slots within Arabic contexts.

This paper will explore these phenomena in terms of their motivations and linguistic constraints. The term 'code-switching' has had an extensive history in studies of sociolinguistics and has accumulated a range of roughly similar descriptions or definitions and findings. Studies of code-switching lend support to sociolinguists who (unlike generative grammarians) do not believe that we can find any 'homogeneous speech community' in the real world.

The selection of one code rather than another in situations when either could convey the message is a problem that has not received adequate systematic attention from socio- and psycholinguists. This is similar to the choice of lexical alternatives in homogeneous monolingual communities (Gumperz 1968: 381).

For our study, the working definition of 'code-switching' will be: the alternation between Arabic and English, whether for one word or more. We hope to shed light on the nature, types, causes, of code-switching, and on its linguistic constraints and non-linguistic motivations behind it and the restrictions imposed on it. We also hope to probe the effects of bilingualism on language choice so as to deal with specific topics in certain situations, and the correlation between such choices and the academic level of the speakers. Finally, we shall examine the role of some psychological factors.

3. Hypotheses:

It is assumed that CS is a systematic sociolinguistic phenomenon correlated with linguistic and extra-linguistic constraints such as 'participants', and 'topic'. Apart from that, CS is believed to occur as a result of academic, psycho- and sociological factors. It is also hypothesized that CS occurs at certain boundaries, i.e., it follows certain linguistic rules.

Since CS is both formally and functionally a rule-governed phenomenon, the study attempts to discover (i) the functional motivations of Arabic-English CS and (ii) the devices used in the switching between them.

4. Objectives and Purpose of the Study:

The objectives of the study are theoretical as well as practical.

Our specific questions can be stated as follows:

- (a) whether switching occurs systematically or at random, and by what system;
- (b) whether the switched-to stretches have functional correlation with the context in which they are inserted;
- (c) how far the units of switching are words (i.e., unit switchers), or whole sentences (i.e., split-over switchers) and whether switches are intra- or intersentential;
- (d) what extra-linguistic motives canalise code-switching and what linguistic norms constraining it;
- (e) whether their code-switched constructions are formally cohesive and contextually appropriate or not.

This empirical study is hoped to show the effect of bilingualism on language choice or mixing them in dealing with specific topics in certain definable situations. It also attempts to show the correlation between the socio- and/or psycholinguistic determinants and CS.

5. Data Collection:

The data of this fieldwork study is based on the collected data collected from students and staff members in Mosul University. They are 50 (25 Females and 25 males aged between 18-60 and different levels of education, i.e., undergraduates and M.A. and Ph.D. holders in English, Colleges of Science, Agriculture, Administration and Economics, Law, Medicine, Engineering) where CS was found. Hence, the data represent instances of code-switched language used. The randomly selected informants were chosen. Some speak 'qultu' dialect of Mosul, others, the dialect of Baghdad or that of the south of Iraq. This fact has been taken into consideration in transcribing the data as it would be noticed that a particular lexical item is transcribed differently, e.g., /farid/, or /fadd/ or /faghid/ for 'a' and 'an' in English; /waaHid/, or /weeHid/ for 'one' (masculine) and /waHda/ or /wiHdi/ for 'one' (feminine) in English.

6. Scope and Limitation of the Study:

This study is an attempt to analyse code-switched utterances used in EFL classes in Mosul University. The empirical portion embodies the linguistic and the extra-linguistic analysis of CS, which is hoped to answer when, how and why CS occurs.

7. Definitions of Related Concepts:

The following sociolinguistic notions are frequently referred to in this study; it proves necessary to define them.

7.1 Code-Switching:

The codes are above the abstract linguistic rule system; they are types of social semiotic, or symbolic orders of meaning generated by the social system. Codes are not varieties of language, as dialects and registers are (they refer to language according to users and use respectively). (see Halliday 1978: 111; Dittmar 1976: 9,10).

Although many sociolinguists have studied CS, their definitions of it have approximately been similar, Blom and Gumperz (1972: 411) defined it as “a shift between two distinct entities, which are never mixed”, while Haugen (1964: 40) says that CS occurs when a bilingual introduces an unassimilated word from another language into his speech. Lance (1975: 138) viewed CS as a linguistic aspect of true bilinguals. Scotton and Ury (1977: 170) defined CS as the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation, for one lexical item or more. The varieties can be genetically unrelated languages to two styles of the same language, i.e., style-shifting. Bell (1976: 114) stated that stylistic shifting of monolinguals differ in degree but not in kind from CS of bilinguals. He (1976: 110), also rejects the monolithic view of a language and of its 'ideal speaker-hearers' (another favoured 'generative' term), and defines a code as a bundle of sub-codes which can be styles, dialects, or even autonomous languages. Diebold (1968: 84, 85) defined CS as “the successive alternative use of two different languages, a standard and a dialect, sociolects of the same language” For Halliday et al. (1972: 162) it is the lacing of native language utterances with foreign language items is likely to happen whenever a foreign language is a mark of social distinction and the sole medium of language activity in certain registers.

Code-switching is variously referred to as ‘code alternation’, ‘code shifting’, ‘code selection’, ‘code mixing’ and ‘triggering’. Pfaff (1976) has stated that CS presupposes bilingual competence, while ‘borrowing’ is confined to the speech of monolinguals. Hatch (1976: 202) states that “there is no sharp distinction to be drawn; rather it is a continuum. This has led some writers to use ‘switching; for both’”. This is applicable to the working definition of CS in this study (i.e., the alternation between Arabic and English, whether for one word or more, due to linguistic and extra-linguistic motivations).

7.2 Diglossia:

It refers to the existence of high and low varieties of the same language, which fulfill different functions within a speech community (Giglioli 1972: 233). In diglossic situations, the people have competence in both varieties. Apart from that, ‘diglossia’ is a social phenomenon, whereas ‘bilingualism’ is an individual one (Dittmar 1976: 177).

7.3 Interference:

Weinrich (1953: 7) defines it as “a linguistic overlap, when two systems are simultaneously applied to a linguistic item”. Hasselmo (1969: 122, 123) defines it as “the over-lapping of two languages”. Clyne (1967: 79) uses ‘transference’ instead of ‘interference’. And defines it as “the adoption of elements from another language”. For Taylor (1976: 263), it is the intrusion of the dominant language upon the weaker one at phonological, lexical and syntactic levels. Whereas Mackey (1972: 569) considers ‘interference’ a feature of ‘parole’ and ‘borrowing’ a feature of ‘langue’.

7.4 Bilingualism:

Bloomfield (1976: 56) sees bilingualism as “native like control of two languages”. For Taylor (1976: 239) a bilingual is “a person who speaks two or more languages, dialects, or styles of speech that involve differences in sound, vocabulary and syntax”.

7.5 Pidginisation and Creolisation:

A pidgin is a marginal language which can fulfill limited communicative purposes among people who do not share mutually intelligible language; a Creole develops when a pidgin becomes the mother tongue of the children in that area and is capable of satisfying almost all the linguistic requirements of its speech community members (Todd 1974: 1-11). So as Pfaff (1976: 258) states CS arises in situations when the speakers share a common language and occurs for fundamental and attitudinal aims, while pidgins and Creoles arise where the members of a speech community do not share a common language.

7.6 Iraqi Arabic:

It is a variety of Arabic spoken by Iraqi people. It has two main dialects, i.e., ‘qultu’ dialect spoken mostly in Mosul and the ‘Baghdadi’ dialect spoken mainly in Baghdad and south of Iraq. The latter often refers to Iraqi Arabic (henceforth IA). IA differs from Standard Arabic (henceforth SA) in phonology, lexicon, and syntax to some extent. The former is usually used in daily life interactions while the latter is confined to education, broadcasting, mass media and worship.

7.7 Standard English:

This variety is more or less understood all over the English-speaking countries and is usually used by educated people in England. It is termed as RP. This form has been selected because it is taught in Iraqi schools.

7.8 Speech Repertoire:

It is believed that a perfectly homogeneous language community is an ideal claim because in every speech community there is a variety of repertoires which covers alternate ways of expression, i.e., there are no single-style speakers. Hymes (1972: 54) refers to the phenomenon of variation saying "No normal person and no normal community is limited in repertoire to a single variety of code. Many other linguists such as Labov 1972s 180; Verma 1976: 153; Sankoff 1977:33 and ElJas-Oliveres 1979: 121 share this opinion.

The term 'repertoire' is defined by Gumperz (1964: 565) as "the totality of linguistic forms available to the speakers of a speech community", while Kachru (to appears 24) who used the phrases 'linguistic repertoire', 'code repertoire', 'verbal repertoire' defines it as "the total range of codes which members of a speech community have available for their linguistic interaction". It should be noted that 'linguistic repertoire' is not confined to a bilingual's competence in separate languages only but it also refers to the repertoire of styles and dialects as well (Sallo 1983: 12).

8. Data on Arabic-English Code-switchin: Discussion and Analysis:

If code-switching is correlated with sociolinguistic constraints such as topic, participants, and situation, the proportions of English used within Arabic should reflect the informants' educational levels and field of study, so that constraints are also partly psychological and academic. Topic is the content or 'subject matter' of speech and regulates language choice insofar some topics are more appropriately discussed in one language than in another (Ervin-Tripp 1973: 244.) Participants are the persons sharing

the speech act and can be described in terms of age, sex, socioeconomic background, ethnic membership, and residence. Situation is the 'setting', including the roles and rights of the interlocutors and the suitability of place and time (Jacobson 1976: 413).

The data for this study were collected from personal observations in EFL classes and at Mosul University . It has been noticed that nouns by far outnumbered the other English parts of speech. Hence, the respective 'topics' of the fields, as well as the educational levels of the participants were clearly influential regulators of language choice, as we had predicted. It has also been found that the informants much more likely to switch words rather than whole sentences. The amount of English was noticeably low among the informants who graduated from the Colleges, where Arabicisation has been extensively implemented to make Arabic the medium of instruction. Conversely, the amount of English was high among the informants in the Colleges of Medicine and Dentistry, where Arabicisation has not yet been adopted.

8.1 Linguistic Analysis of the Data

We can now analyse the phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic aspects of the data. We shall attempt to identify some rules governing Arabic English code-switched utterances and some norms of lexical selection and sequence in both languages.

The phonological changes of English items occurring in the data were quite diverse. Voiced stops were devoiced and vice-versa. Changes of /p/ =>/b/ in mikrosko:b/ and /b/ => /p/, as in 'test-tube' indicate that these two sounds could be treated as the phoneme /b/ in Iraqi Arabic. Similarly, changes of /k / => /g/ as in 'bank' => /ba:ng/, and /g/ => /k/, as in 'plug' => /plak/ indicate that these two sounds could be treated as allophones of the same phoneme /k/ in Iraqi Arabic. Voicing and devoicing also appeared for /t/ =>/d /as in 'bonnet' => / boni:d/ and for /d/ => /t/, as in 'card' => /kaart/ and /t/ => /T/ as in 'battery' => /battaariyya/ and for /v/ => /f/, as in 'vitamin' => /fi:taami:n/. Other modifications of consonants included: /s/ => /S/ , as in 'sample' /Sa:mpl/, or 'slide' /Sla:yd/.

Short vowels underwent lengthening: /a/ => /a:/ as in 'carbon' /ka:rbo:n /; /e/ => /e:/ as in 'centre' =>/se:ntar/ , 'set' => /se:t/ 'test' => /te:st/ ; /o/ => /o:/ as in 'wrong' => /ro:ng / 'problem' => /pro:blam/ ; /u/ => /u:/ as in 'full light ' => /fu:l la:yat/ or 'good' =>/gu:d/ ; /i/ => /i:/ as in 'switch ' /swi:ch/. Also, the diphthong /ei/ went to /e:/, as in 'case' => /ke:s/ 'patient' => /pe:shant/

Sometimes greater modifications occurred. Two successive consonants underwent epenthetic separation by a vowel, as in 'spring' => /sipring/ or 'film' => /filim/ . Or, an entire phoneme was substituted for another, as in 'flywheel' => /fla:y wi:n/, 'handle' => /hindir/, 'pin' => /pi:m/ .

The morphological changes in the code-switched items showed many English items being adapted to Arabic morphological rules (most often for nouns). A few Arabic verbs were derived from English verbs, as in 'cancel' => /kansal/ , 'check' => /chayyak/, 'fill' => /fawwal/, and 'gauge' => / gayyaj/. Some adjectives were derived from English nouns by adding Arabic ending '-yy' and the feminine suffix '-a' to form the adjectives, e.g. [1] and [2]. In [3], the relative adjective modifies a grammatically masculine noun.

[1] simaat foonooloojiyya

[phonological features]

[2] mutaghayyaraat soosyooloojiyya

[sociological variables]

[3] shakal moorfooloojii

[A morphological shape]

Also, the Arabic negation particle 'muu' preceded English adjectives, e. g.

[4] idhan muu NECESSARY tabda' bil chaaptar ath thaanii

[it is unnecessary for you to start with the second chapter]

The treatment of nouns was especially complex, as would be expected from Arabic morphology. To make the dual number, English nouns got the Iraqi Arabic ending /-e:n/ (rather than the Standard Arabic '-aan' in nominative and '-ayn' in accusative and dative) (cf. Erwin 1963: 187; McCarthy & Faraj 1964: 127), viz. /Sala:yde:n/ (i.e., two slides) , /simina:re:n/ (i.e., two seminars) and /Sa:mple:n/ (i.e., two samples). For the plural, the choice was whether to follow Arabic either by adding inflectional suffixes (the 'sound' or 'external' plural, which usually adds '-iin' to the masculine and '-aat' to the feminine in Spoken Iraqi Arabic), or by rearranging and modifying the form (the 'broken' or 'internal' plural) (cf. Hayes 1956: 4; Erwin 1963: 185, 190).

Like most nouns borrowed into Arabic from foreign languages, the majority of the English nouns in our data were suffixed with the Arabic feminine plural ending '-aat', viz., /mu:de:la:t/ (i.e. models), /shiitaat/ (i.e. sheets), /ke:rva:t/ (i.e. curves), /ringa:t/ (i.e. rings), /sto:ra:t/ (i.e. stores). Some followed the broken plural patterns, e.g. /go:l/ - /gwa:la/ (goal - goals) /kali:sha/ - /kala:yish/ (cliché - clichés) /dakto:r/ - /daka:tra/ (doctor - doctors). A few got either the sound feminine plural or the broken plural, e.g. /pistina:t/ or pasa:tin / (i.e. pistons), and /spaa:na:t/ or /spa:yin/ (i.e. spanners). Not a single example followed the sound masculine plural.

English nouns inserted into the Arabic contexts were not affixed with the Arabic case endings of the nominative, accusative, or dative (dhamma /=u/; /fatHa /=a/; /kasra /=i/), which are not commonly used in Iraqi Arabic. Instead, the nouns remained unchanged, e. g.

[5] 9indmaa taS9ad al-PRICES

[when the prices go up]

[6] ?arsal MESSAGE kul yoom

[I send a message every day]

[7] raddeet 9alal EMAIL

[I replied the email]

Even the English plural '-s' was often omitted, as were, for verbs, the present tense marker '-s', the past tense marker '-ed', and the verb 'be', e. g.

[8] naakhudh khamasta9ash CD

[we will take fifteen CDs]

From a lexical standpoint, our data showed an inclination to prefer English content words, such as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and notional verbs.

[9] ?al -OVEN 9ala 80°

[the temperature of the oven is 80°]

[10] yakuun maw9id QUIZ ?al-sociolinguistic....

[the quiz of Sociolinguistics will be]

In contrast, the use of function words was small (i.e., the frequency of articles, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions). Presumably, function words can hardly be assimilated when the two languages are so different as Arabic and English. But more research is needed here in studies of code-switching that give equal consideration to both the psychological and social motivations and to the proportions of parts of speech.

Our data also showed some semantic concepts being repeated in Arabic and English, e.g.

[12] THE SAVE MAY LAST FOR FEW SECONDS qad yaduum al- khazan bida9 thawaanii

[13] taHtawii jamii9 lal-9anaasir maa 9ada ?al-UNKNOWN ?al-maadda

?al-majhuula

[It contains all the elements except the unknown]

[14] ?akhadhat ad-dawaa 9an Tariiq ?al-fam ORALLY

[I took the drug orally]

For prepositions, the Arabic ones occurred within Arabic or English contexts, while the English ones occurred only within English contexts, except in two cases:

[15] ?al-TEMPERATURE BELOW sab9a wa thalaathiin

[the temperature is below 37]

These data came from the notebooks of students, personal notes of the teachers, or official notices.

[16] ar-RANGE yikuun WITHIN miya wa khamsiin

[the range will be between 100 and 150]

From a syntactic perspective, the data showed that the word order of code-switching chiefly follows that of the host language, which in most of our data were patterns of positive and declarative sentences, with only a few negatives and interrogatives. We shall give examples relating to definite and indefinite articles, genitive particles, relative particles, noun-adjective agreement, subject-verb agreement, and the formats of clauses and sentences.

In regard to articles, English and Arabic do share the concepts of definite versus indefinite. In Iraqi Arabic, the definite article corresponding to English 'the' is usually '?al', which has several allomorphs like /el/ or /ill/ or /al/ and whose 'l' assimilates to initial 'shams' ('sun') consonants like /l/, /n/, /r/, /s/, th/, /sh/, /z/, etc. but is not declined for all genders and numbers (cf. Hayes 1956: 16, Erwin 1963: 182; McCarthy & Faraj 1964: 132). Indefiniteness can be indicated by using 'faad' or 'fard' before nouns, meaning 'one' and corresponding to the English articles 'a' and 'an'; 'fadd' may also be used with plural nouns in the sense of 'some'.

The following examples show the use of English nouns with the Arabic definite article, which underwent assimilation to 'as-' in [17].

[17] yi?athir 9ala as-STRUCTURE wal_FUNCTION maalt al- LANGUAGE

[influences the structure and the function of the language]

The data also showed the use of /ʔal/ before a noun, an agent, an adverb, and a verbal noun, e.g. 'ʔal-MESSAGE', 'al-TIMER'. 'ʔal-INSIDE', 'ʔal-SAVING'. The definite article /ʔal/ could also precede the modifier, e.g. 'ʔal-POSITIVE RESULT', 'ʔal-PRETTY PICTURE'. Sometimes /ʔal/ occurred where English uses no definite article because the noun is generic, e.g. 'ʔal-LIFE' or 'ʔal-WATER.'

The following examples show the use of the indefinite article /fard/ or fadd/ with English items:

[18] yijiina fard STUDENT

[a student came]

[19] aaku fadd 9awaamal soosyooloojiya

[there are some sociological factors]

[20] yaakhudh ash-shakhas fard DOSE ʔaw doozeen

[the person takes one dose or two doses]

In English, the genitive chiefly uses '-s' for persons and for animals with person-like gender characteristics, and uses 'of' for other animals and for inanimates, although there is much overlap (Quirk et al. 1972: 199ff). In Iraqi Arabic, the genitive is expressed by using forms of 'maal' meaning possession, the form /maal/ being for masculine singular nouns, /maal(a)t/ for feminine singular nouns, and /maalaat/ mostly for plural nouns of impersonal objects (Hayes 1956: 26; McCarthy & Faraj 1964: 61). In our data, the form /maal/ was used with English items either corresponding to 'of' [21] or in lieu of any possessive particle like 'my', 'its', 'his', etc. [22], viz.

[21] ʔal COVER maal al-MOBILE maaltii

[the cover of my mobile]

[22] ar-RESULT maalti takuun NEGATIVE

[my result will be negative]

No English genitive particles like '-s' were used with Arabic items in our data.

In English, the relative pronouns or adverbs 'who', 'which', 'whose', 'when', and 'where' do not vary for number. In Standard Arabic, the relatives like /ʔalladhi/, /ʔallati/, /ʔalladhaan/, /ʔallataan/, /ʔalladhiina/ and /ʔallaati/ do show gender and number. The Iraqi Arabic, /illi/ was the only relative particle we generally found, e.g.

[23] ʔal-FACTORS illi taʔathir 9ala al-INTELLIGENCE

[the factors which influence the intelligence]

[24] ʔal MESSAGE illi ba9athat lii

[the message you sent me]

The data showed /illi/ in the code-switched sentences containing embedded relative clauses whether the antecedent was Arabic or English, whereas the English relative pronouns occurred only with English antecedents.

Whereas English shows agreement (concord) between subject and verb in person and number, it does not show it between adjective and noun, e.g. for feminine versus masculine. In Iraqi Arabic, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns all have inflectional affixes indicating such distinctions (cf. Erwin 1963: 318). Modifier agreement shows number and semantic gender for nouns referring to living beings but

grammatical genders for other cases, a noun being usually masculine if it ends in a consonant and feminine if it ends in '-a' (e.g., 'taa? marbuuTa') (cf. Hayes 1956: 17; McCarthy & Faraj 1964: 113, 175ff). This scheme was applied to English items as well, e.g.

[25] at-TUBE aakhar
[another tube]

[26] ?al-GROUP al-?awal
[the first group]

[27] as-SENSITIVITY ?aw al-TEMPERATURE 9aaliya
[the sensitivity or temperature is high]

[28] al-PRESSURE munkhafidh
[the pressure is low]

Here, the agreement was either between the Arabic modifier and the Arabic equivalent of the English noun as in [27] and [28], or between the modifier and the structural form of the noun as in [25] and [26]. Moreover, agreement showed gender where the Arabic adjective took the feminine marker '-a' when the noun seemed grammatically feminine in [27] and masculine in [28]. The Arabic equivalents of the English nouns in [25-28] would be, respectively '?umbuub', '?al-majmuu9a', '?al-Hasaasiyya' '?al-Haraara', '?al-dhaghat'). The data also had English adjectives modifying Arabic nouns, e.g.

[29] ?al-mesajaat NICE takhabbal
[the messages are nice and make one crazy]

[30] ?al- mobaaylaat jadiida
[the mobiles are new]

While in English the verb agrees with the subject in number, in Arabic it agrees in both number and gender, which creates confusion for code-switching. Since Arabic feminine nouns end with the feminising morpheme '-a', borrowed words like 'camera' and 'cinema' become feminine in Arabic as do words ending in '-er' or '-or' where the last syllable is pronounced as a schwa / /, e.g. 'transistor' => /traansista/. But if the final syllable is clearly pronounced as 'er', they are masculine in Iraqi Arabic, e.g., 'locker' => /lo:kar/, 'poster' => /po:star/ (cf. Hayes 1956: 18; Erwin 1963: 194; McCarthy & Faraj 1964: 134). We see the outcome here, where the subject is English and the verb is Arabic, or vice versa:

[31] ?al-PAIN yiziid
[the pain increases]

[32] ?al-PRICES tas9ad
[the prices increase]

[33] ?al-SCANNER maa yishtaghul
[the scanner does not work]

The Arabic verbs agree with the Arabic equivalents of the English items, '?alam' [31] and 'al-as9aar' in [32]. The gender markers for the verbs are 'ta-' for feminine and 'ya-' for masculine. The expression 'mobile', which sounds masculine (compare 'mudhakkar lafdhii'), agrees with 'yishtaghul'. Although code-switching usually involves single lexical items, phrases and clauses did occur in our data, using them more than, and phrases being more frequent than clauses. The decisive factor was probably

greater fluency in English, and the density was of course higher among the graduates of the colleges which not yet adopted Arabicisation, e.g. Medicine and Dentistry. Some examples were:

[34] yinfijir BECAUSE IT IS VERY HOT
[it explodes...]

[35] Please arsal li EMAIL IN THE EARLY MORNING
[Please send me an email]

[35] yijiina ?al-mariidh TO EXTRACT THE TOOTH
[the patient came...]

The data also had many switches at sentence boundaries, which is 'cleaner' in mixing the two codes less promiscuously, viz:

[36] ?aham shii ?at9awad nafsak 9ala ?al-qiraa?a as-sarii9a.
THE MOST IMPORTANT THING IS THAT YOU HAVE TO READ QUICKLY TO
COVER WHAT YOU SHOULD READ.
[the most important thing is to be accustomed to fast reading ...]

8.2 Linguistic Versus Extra-linguistic Constraints on Code-switching

The data surveyed in section 2 indicate that code-switching is subject to some linguistic constraints. We found that content words, mainly nouns and adjectives, were most frequently switched and were adapted to Arabic phonological rules, whereas function words were the least frequent and were adapted. The high ratio of code-switched nouns over verbs would be due to scientific, technical and newly coined terms and register and to the difficulty of fitting English verbs to the Arabic conjugation (Sallo 1988: 75).

We also found a significant tendency for certain English words to be associated only with other English items in English contexts, whereas the Arabic equivalents were associated with either Arabic or English contexts. This finding held for verbs, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, plural affixes, genitive particles, relative pronouns, and definite and indefinite articles. Non-relative pronouns, and conjunctions, however, occurred only in same-language contexts.

Code-switching most commonly occurred because Arabic equivalents for scientific and technical terms, and new inventions were either lacking or else diffuse and not standardised. For example, informants remarked on the difficulty of giving exact Arabic equivalents for 'mobile', 'receiver', 'dish', 'CD', 'floppy', 'scanner', 'key board', 'chat', 'email', 'bacteria', 'microbe', and 'germ'. University professors face similar difficulties in lecturing in Arabic without recourse to Arabic dictionaries of scientific and technical terms, and the problems get passed on to the students.

But code-switching also occurred apart from any lexical gaps or problems, e.g., when English numerical terms were used to accompany English terms for weights, prices, and measurements, probably by automatic association (Sallo 1987: 82). Nobody could complain that Arabic lacks numbers!

Such linguistic constraints as the ones we found ensure that code-switching remains meaningful; random switching would be funny, unacceptable, or meaningless. In general, the native language functioned as the 'host code' into which linguistic items from the non-native language got inserted (cf. Hasselmo 1980 Gumperz (1977: 2) and Verma (1976: 156, 158, 164) claim indeed that code-switching follows universal underlying restrictions similar to the grammatical rules and style shifts applied by

monolinguals. Yet unlike pidginisation, code-switching does not produce 'a stable and intermediate language' (cf. Nash 1977).

8.3 Extra-linguistic Constraints of Code-switching:

The extra-linguistic aspects of the data need to be considered as well. We found that academic, psychological, and social motives were influential. Iraqi people commonly switch to English because it has until recently been the medium of instruction in Iraqi universities. It is still used as the language of teaching and expression at the postgraduate level in Iraqi universities. The educated Iraqi people use some English lexical items in their daily life language.

Switching to English also depends on the ease of discussing a 'topic' in a particular language, and on the participants in the discourse. Iraqi students switch to English much more often when speaking with their colleagues in a university setting. People were observed to switch from English to Arabic when clarifying, emphasising, or summarising, e.g., by giving an Arabic term as a gloss for an English term; this may reflect the 'translation method' commonly used for teaching English in Iraq. Some examples were:

[37] CERTAIN MESSAGES ba9adh al-mesajaat CAUSE EMBARRASSMENT
[... certain messages ...]

[38] al-COMPOSITION imma ?an yakuun NARRATIVE sardii,
?aw DESCRIPTIVE waSfii , ?aw REFLECTIVE 9aradhii
idhaaaHii ?aw ARGUMENTATIVE jadalii
[the compositions are either ...or...or...]

Some informants claimed that English is a 'better' language of instruction than Arabic at the university level. This claim reflects the misconception that some languages are intrinsically better than others (cf. Halliday 1972: 160). In fact, any language can be expanded to cope with new concepts (Sallo 1987: 81). The use of English lexical items can also hinge on aesthetic factors. Some students in the College of Medicine asserted that certain English items sound more 'musical' while their Arabic equivalents sound 'funny', e.g., 'spatula' vs. /milwaqa/, or 'rubber bowl' vs. /kujja/, etc. This claim too has no objective linguistic grounds.

Switching from English to Arabic was sometimes done merely to relieve monotony and add colour, refreshment, or relaxation, e.g.

[39] BETWEEN MY KNEES, MY FOREHEAD WAS! WHAT IS THIS?
waaHid ghaasu been ghijlee... yi9nii weeHid dhaarb daalgha shii min hal qabiil
(The sound /r/ is transposed to /gh/ in the dialect of Mosul, e.g. in 'ghaasu' and 'ghijjee' rather than 'raasu' and 'rijjee.' The reader may also find that some lexical items are pronounced adopting Mosuli dialect)
[my head was between my knees, that is, I was absent-minded or distracted 'something of this sort']

Standing English idioms and proverbs could also add colour, e.g.

[40] anHalat ?al mushkila?
laa WE ARE NOT YET OUT OF THE WOODS ?al-mas?ala takhawaf
[A: was the problem solved?
B: No I still have my fears, we still have some difficulties]

Or again, switching to English could be a way to show off and impress others with being 'educated' (cf. Nash 1977: 209). Our university students and physicians like to give the impression of being fashionable and fluent in English by saying 'hello', 'okay', 'great', 'excellent', 'well done', 'delicious', 'O my goodness', 'see you', 'good luck', 'happy birthday', 'fantastic', 'perfect', etc. Moreover, Iraqi universities staff members who have continued their studies abroad may use English to display their 'Westernisation' and their 'elite' knowledge.

As was observed by the author during the 1977 census in Iraq, the social prestige of English leads people to overstate their own proficiency and throw in English words, especially when their socioeconomic status is improving. While filling in the census forms, many individuals listed English as one of the languages they have mastered despite only being pupils on intermediate or secondary levels. Also, people may listen to English songs or wear sweaters with English embroidery, yet do not understand the meaning of the word (s) (Annamalai 1978:24; Kachru982:146; Sallo 1987: 88).

Medical doctors were found to be the extreme English users. Sometimes the situations were quite incongruent, e.g.

[41] haadha al-CASE kullish DANGEROUS
[this case is very dangerous]

[42] naakhudh aj-GENERAL CONDITIONS maalt al-PATIENT bi nadhar ?al-i9tibaar
[we take the general conditions of the patient into account]

Among the English items frequently uttered by doctors were 'needle', 'syringe', 'bandage', 'tablets', 'dose', 'gauze', 'syrup', 'canula', 'dressing', 'chest tube', 'chest X-ray', 'stool', 'blood sample', 'fever', 'gastric wash', 'ABG or VBG (i.e., artery blood gases or veinary blood gases)', 'anti biotic', 'plazma', 'foreign body' and so on. Most of these expressions are used by nurses and doctors, e.g., 'arakkab lu CANULA' [fix a canula for him], '?a9malu GASTRIC WASH' [I will make gastric operation for him].

Whereas switching to shared vernaculars like Kurdish, Turkish, or Assyrian by Iraqi doctors or shopkeepers can make patients or customers feel at ease, switching to English may be done to prevent understanding. Doctors consulting with each other may switch to English to conceal medical states or diseases from their patients, e.g. 'I suspect cancer', 'the case is very serious', 'he needs an operation'. Doctors may even have recourse to highly specialised terms, e.g. saying 'neoplasia' lest a patient understand 'cancer', or to abbreviations like 'CA' for 'cancer', 'SY' for 'syphilis', or 'TB' for 'tuberculosis'. On the other hand, they usually write medical prescriptions in English but give the doses in Arabic to make sure patients can understand what to do.

Switching to English can avoid socially 'tabooed' expressions that could be stressful to utter in the native language, e.g. saying 'W.C.' and /tuwaaleet/ despite having six Arabic equivalents (Annamalai 1978: 242). In our study, English words were popular in lectures dealing with the sexual organs in College of Medicine, e.g.

[43] biHaala waHda lamma nsawwii VAGINA LAVAGE nshuuf aakuu BLOOD bil-FLUID illii
raaH nisHaba min al-VAGINA, fab haay al-Haala mumkin nashuk innahaa PREGNANT
[when we carry out vaginal lavage, we see whether there is blood in the fluid which is taken
from the vagina; in that case, we can suspect that she is pregnant]

Conversely, teachers teaching in English commonly switch to Arabic when they get excited or angry with their students, e.g.: /laa tit7arrak/ ['be quiet'], /laa tandala9/ ['don't be naughty'], /itla9 barra/ ['get out'], /kaafii Hakii/ ['enough talking'], /laa titlafat yimna ysra/ ['don't look right or left'], /daHaq 9ala warqtak/ ['look at your own paper'].

This fits the assumption that people switch to the familiar language when they are extremely fatigued, excited, angry, hungry, tired, astonished, or fed up, and thus indisposed to make the conscious effort of using another language (Stanlaw 1972: 148). Or, people may prefer the familiar language to downplay the severity of the criticism or censure they have to make.

*The research tackles language functions such as clarification/persuasion, translation, and socializing. CS emerged when there was a misunderstanding or an opposite opinion that could not be expressed in English. Translation is really needed when explaining grammatical points. The reasons of CS are lack of lexical items, terminology, filling linguistic gaps, quotation, and showing off. CS functions are listed as topic switch, affective functions, and repetitive functions by Mattson and Burenhult (1999:61). The focus will shift to students' CS by introducing some basic perspectives as: equivalence, floor holding, reiteration, and conflict control. This reflects their ethnic identity to bridge intimacy and solidarity.

This study shares Olmedo-Williams (1981) study of CS categories including emphasis, sociolinguistic play, clarification, accommodation, lexicalization, attracting attention, regulating behavior, and miscellaneous switches. Moreover, Goodman and Goodman (1979), in a study on writing found that students often use CS in spoken language, but rarely in writing.

Researchers propose different approaches toward CS. For example, (McClure, 2001; Poplack, 1978; Genishi, 1976; Zentella, 1982) suggest that language proficiency, language preference, social identity, and role of the participants are crucial in a CS situation. For other linguists, the relationship between the two languages and the status, power, and prestige associated with them is a deciding factor in CS.

For "attitude" which is defined by (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993: 1) as a "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" was adopted to find out whether it is positive or negative. Students' Attitude towards CS during instruction affects the learning environment by increasing student understanding, comprehension, and application of the material Learning. Cole (1998) argues that the strict exclusion of L1 in the classroom can lead to unusual behaviors, such as "trying to explain the meaning of a language item where a simple translation would save time and anguish."

Finally, some conclusions are drawn and some recommendations made for further studies in this virgin area in future and to give a comprehensive picture of Ar/E CS in Iraq as well as in other parts of the Arab world where CS occurs between Arabic and the languages used there, whether in everyday language or registers. Unfortunately, many teachers still feel uncertain towards the merits of CS in teaching a FL. Many teachers oppose CS during classroom instruction. While supporters of CS suggest that it may be an effective strategy in various aspects. These lead to weak and strong sides of the use of CS in EFL classrooms (Soodeh, Adlina, Elham).

9. Conclusion:

This study showed that CS obeys two types of constraints. The linguistic ones concern the phonology, morphology, lexicon, and syntax of the two languages. Future 'grammars' might try to incorporate such constraints upon code-switched language (cf. Romaine 1981: 102).

The extra-linguistic ones concern the academic, psychological, and social motivations. Iraqi CS is correlated not just with the degree of fluency in English but with speakers' attitude toward it, especially its prestige in a speech community (Kachru: 1978: 78). People will use English if they believe that it is essential for access to better socioeconomic status and technological progress. This holds strongly among elite class. But we should distinguish such CS from the use of the assimilated English loanwords by professionals as mechanics, carpenters, oil and railway workers, custom officials, etc.

By showing that CS occurs systematically, we can refute the popular bias that mixing languages is utterly unsystematic and random, as implied by pejorative labels like as 'Tex-Mex', 'Spanglish', 'Franglais' etc. (Sallo 1983, 1988). Conservative Arab grammarians reject the use of foreign elements because they believe that language purity mirrors language identity and loyalty, whereas language-mixing leads to 'corruption', language shift, language loss, language degradation, Europeanism, or elitism. Purists who would wipe out foreign items from Arabic should take into account that most of the 'switched-to' foreign items are content words that can affect only the lexicon of Arabic, and are brought into conformity with the rules of Arabic. Also, the technological and technical progress advances faster than new vocabulary can be coined and created from native sources (Sallo 1994: 129). English vocabulary can thus be regarded as enrichment for Arabic (Sallo: 1988: 80).

Written switches in mobile messages and students' notebooks have found to be less frequent and less acceptable than the oral ones. Such written sources did show CS between Arabic and English or between Standard Arabic and Iraqi Arabic. Yet intriguingly, even the people who freely do it in speaking may reject switching in writing. When the transcript of the data was shown to the informants, they read it with uncontrollable laughter.

Code-switching clearly calls for further study. Among the outstanding questions to be addressed are whether CS has universal linguistic constraints, whether it is related more to competence or to performance; whether the native speakers and the foreign learners of English have a similar competence; and whether the speakers of Arabic have the same competence in the Standard and the Iraqi varieties (Sallo 1983, 1988: 78). The answers to such questions may profoundly reshape our views of languages in contact, whether in geographic, academic, or professional settings all around the world.

The study focused on Ar-E CS in teaching EFL Classes in Mosul University. Further studies could be conducted on Chat language and in other Arab countries to have a comprehensive picture about this phenomenon. MA and Ph. D. dissertations may deal with the topic depending on extended data. Courses of email writing style, mobile messages and chat language could be introduced similar to writing courses to enable students to keep pace with the rapid changes and challenges that are happening around us in the wake of globalization.

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Discrimination toward the African-Americans in James Baldwin's *Go Tell It on the Mountain*

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ABSTRACT: In this novel Baldwin, depicts the especial effects of general racism. It shows the inhumane impact of past slavery on the second and third generations of African-Americans. The protagonist of the novel is the product of racial society in which he has lived all his life. He has been alienated from the society; and this alienation makes him a cruel person. He is unable to confront the society which has marginalized him; and this marginalization is the main reason of his frustration and anger. Therefore he uses his family and church as outlets for his emotions. This research deals with the dilemma of the protagonist of the novel facing a cruel and unjust society that considers him as a second hand citizen.

Keywords: African-American, Discrimination, *Go Tell It on the Mountain*, James Baldwin.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to show the discrimination of one race against the other. One of the main reasons for this discrimination is the skin color. The method of this research is based on text analyzing to indicate how language has been used to indicate the discriminations in multiracial societies. The results of the research come to the point that race, culture, religion and environment have a great impact on behavior of individuals in the society.

James Baldwin (1924-1987) was an essayist, playwright and novelist. His novel *Go Tell it on the Mountain* is a semi-autobiographical novel. It is a tripartite novel consisting of three parts: "The Seventh Day," "The Prayers of the Saints" and "The Threshing Floor." The novel is heavily set on the Christian Church and the titles of the triple parts of the novel are related to Christianity and Biblical stories. There are a lot of parallel stories of the novel that alluded to the Biblical tales; even the title of the novel has taken from a religious hymn which starts with the following stanza:

Go, tell it on the mountain
Over the hills and everywhere
Go, tell it on the mountain
That Jesus Christ is born
(Hymnlyrics.org)

A historical context of the novel is very crucial to understand the impact of slavery on the lives of the post-slavery African-Americans. The novel is set during the Great Migration in the early twentieth century when millions of southern blacks moved to the northern cities in order to find a better life in the industrial

northern part of the country. One of the major movements of the black people in twentieth century for seeking social equality and freedom is Civil Rights Movement:

The civil rights movement was a struggle for social justice that took place mainly during the 1950s and 1960s for blacks to gain equal rights under the law in the United States. The Civil War had officially abolished slavery, but it didn't end discrimination against blacks—they continued to endure the devastating effects of racism, especially in the South. By the mid-20th century, African Americans had had more than enough of prejudice and violence against them. They, along with many whites, mobilized and began an unprecedented fight for equality that spanned two decades. (Civil Rights Movement)

The novel opens with the sadness of the protagonist of the novel John Crimes, wondering who will remember his fourteenth birthday. John who is always criticized hatefully especially by his father for his ugliness, unmanliness and intellect is one of the round and main characters of the novel who has been based on the young Baldwin.

The beginning of the novel reveals the crisis in John's life. John is in conflict with his surroundings and the attitudes of his step father whose name is Gabriel. John the protagonist of the novel begins his fourteenth birthday on a Saturday morning in March 1935. The whole story spans about a twenty four hour period of the Saturday morning to the Sunday morning when he has been enlightened. Although all the actions of the novel takes place in twenty four hours but through the flashbacks of John's aunt, his mother and his father it covers several decades.

The Racial Discrimination

John is the illegitimate son of Elizabeth and Richard. Richard is a proud and educated character but by being an African- American he finds himself in the racist system of society. Later on in an accidental tragic act of fate which he had no role in it by a false accusation and police brutality, he was unable to tolerate the blows to his pride he committed suicide. After Richard's death Elizabeth married to Gabriel.

Gabriel did not want to accept John as his son and treated him as an alien at home. Therefore the second part of the novel relates the life story of Gabriel, Elizabeth and Florence who is Gabriel's sister.

Baldwin's themes arise from the relationships between characters rather than from dialogue or action. John hates his father, Gabriel, but wants his approval and respect. His self knowledge and his intelligence, and his sense of being anointed combine to save him from imitating Roy's waywardness (Williams, 690).

Roy is the son of Gabriel and his mistress Ester who is a hedonist character in the novel. Gabriel prefers Roy to John, thinking that Roy is his biological son although not quite sure because Ester being a hedonist had many boyfriends. There is an antagonistic father son relationship that overshadows the novel. Gabriel who lacks the power outside his home in the white dominating society he is avenged on his family. James Baldwin gives a perspective of the third generation of African Americans who have never lived in South by making John the protagonist of his novel.

John becomes aware of the racial prejudice existing in his country and develops an inferiority complex, but he resist to accept his father's views that all white people are sinners. Baldwin depicts the effects of racism on his major characters e.g. Florence uses skin whiteners. These effects are clearer between John

and his stepfather Gabriel, they are two opposite poles. Gabriel suffered a lot from the systematic slavery with the feeling of inferiority to the white men but John as a younger character of novel lacks these experiences:

He said that white people were never to be trusted, and that they told nothing but lies, and that no one of them had ever loved a nigger. He, John, was a nigger, and he would find out, as soon as he got little older, how evil white people could be. John had read about the things white people did to colored people, how, in the south, where his parents came from, white people cheated them of their wages, and burned them and shot them... and did worse things, said his father, which the tongue could not endure to utter (Baldwin, 1953, 36).

Gabriel has a hypocritical treatment toward his wife, Elizabeth. He criticizes her for sinning without accepting his own similar sin. In a flashback Elizabeth remembered when she convinced her aunt that she wanted to move North where the opportunities for a good job and education were better, as James N. Gregory explains:

African Americans had left the South in the nineteenth century for different reasons and in different directions. Before the Civil War, some had been taken West by slaveholders who dared move their bond people into California or Kansas. Some had escaped northward, typically to Ohio, upstate New York, Massachusetts, and Canada (Gregory, 12)

Elizabeth followed Richard to New York Harlem district where they planned to marry. The young couple could not marry because of poverty. The Elizabeth relationship with Richard resulted in her pregnancy out of marriage. They found it difficult to save much out of their incomes as a chambermaid and elevator or lift boy. The harsh reality of ghetto life has taught them, like the reality of plantation life taught their slave ancestors, the hypocrisy of institutionalized Christianity. By referring to this reality Bryant states:

The ghetto is ferment, paradox, conflict and dilemma. Yet within its pervasive pathology exists a surprising human resilience. The ghetto is hope, despair, it is churches and bars. It is aspiration for change, and it is apathy. It is vibrancy, it is stagnation. It is courage and it is defeatism. It is cooperation, and concern, and it is suspicion, competitiveness, and rejection. It is surge toward assimilation, and it is alienation and withdrawal within the protective walls of the ghetto (Bryant, 63).

Elizabeth gradually discovers that the only difference between the North and the South is that the North promises more. Through the loss of Richard and discovery of Gabriel, Elizabeth bears witness to this belief that “what is promised it did not give and what it gave, at length and reluctantly with one hand it took back with the other” (Baldwin, 1953, 163).

Richard was picked up as a robbery suspect by the police and cruelly beaten for insisting on his innocence, he tells Elizabeth to pray to that Jesus of hers and get him to come down and tell these white men something. She prays, with the revenge in her heart for the whole white world without exception.

Ignorant of Elizabeth’s pregnancy and broken in spirit, Richard commits suicide after the police released him. The story of Richard’s unjust imprisonment and suicide has been crucial to evaluations of the novel’s standing in the history of African American literature. It is an shocking example of an issue that pervades the novel, that of the prejudice and destruction attendant to racism.

The impact of racial discrimination is clear in other characters of the novel for example Gabriel, his violence and impotency are indicated as remnants of his past, although he is individually characterized as weak and hypocritical by Florence and John.

Baldwin put the essence of all into *Go Tell it on the Mountain*. Gabriel has the preacher's traditional love of helplessness, and traditional anger in the face of self-sufficiency. Yet the central issues of Gabriel's life are his hypocrisy, and the sexual desire that accompanies the rejoicing of religious life. His treatment of Ester combines the two ('I guess it takes a holy man to make a girl a real whore,' she says) but only Florence seems aware of the truth after Ester is dead (O'Hagan, 5).

As the reader learns more about Gabriel, however his distrust of the dominant society becomes increasingly justified. Baldwin through his minor characters (Deborah and Richard) shows the brutal treatment against blacks by whites:

Trouble had taken place in town today. Their neighbor Deborah, who was sixteen, three years older than Florence, had been taken away into fields the night before by many white men, where they did things to her to make her cry and bleed. Today Deborah's father had gone to one of the white men's house and said that he would kill him and all the other white men he could find. They had beaten him and left him for death (Baldwin, 1953, 69).

At various times in the past and present narratives, Florence tries to distance herself from other African Americans as though this will spare her from the insidiousness of racism. The act of separating herself from others can also be interpreted as approval with the dominant ideology. Baldwin depicts the effects of racism on his major characters for example Florence uses skin whiteners. For Florence, her legacy from her mother has been one of misery and bitterness. She used to try to lighten her skin, as though to eradicate herself, is indicative of racist intolerance of black skin, but later on she encounters with the damaging effects this has on her sense of identity.

Religion as an Outlet and Escapism

It has been mentioned in the introduction of the research that the title of the novel has taken from an African American spiritual hymn. The chapter titles are also taken from biblical language (the Seven Day, The prayers of the Saints, The Threshing Floor) and the names of characters are often alluding to the biblical names (Deborah, John and Gabriel).

The parallels between the main plot and the Bible are many for example Gabriel, who is the interpreter of visions and prophecies in the old Testament translates the John's dream of "climbing to the top of a high rugged mountain" as a sign from God to choose Deborah as "his holy helpmeet (Baldwin, 1953, 112).

John's body and his black skin are left often to the abusive force of others' words. In one particularly haunting assessment of John's appearance, the reader begins to learn about the nature of the harmful remarks John is forced to entertain about his body: "His [step] father had always said that his [John's] face was the face of Satan" (Baldwin, 1953, 27).

This conflict between John's body and the words that surrounded him highlights a prominent tension animating much of the novel. The religious words like the words his stepfather uses to describe John's

sinful flesh shows that John's physical form and religious rhetoric are very important. The language of Christian conversion is the primary manner, in which the characters connect themselves to each other, instilling in one another a sense of historical continuity and community. The novel is full of biblical imagery and black church rhetoric which establishes the sense of inferiority deeper in the soul of the black people who go to the church regularly and the Gabriel's sermon in the novel is a good example of such black rhetoric:

Let us remember that we are born in sin, in sin our mothers conceive us, sin reigns in all our members, sin is the foul heart's natural liquid, sin looks out of the eye, amen, and leads to lust, sin is in the hearing of the ear, and leads to folly, sin sits on the tongue and leads to murder. Yes! Sin is the only heritage of the natural man, sin bequeathed us by our natural father, that fallen Adam, whose apple sickens and will sick all generations living, and the generations yet unborn (Baldwin, 1953, 103).

The subject and passionate delivery of this sermon suggests Gabriel's obsession with sin and his unkind character. Sermons like these, with their rhythmic mixture of biblical metaphor, folk images, colloquialism and repetitions gave black Americans a religious explanation for their rejection and isolation by white America, encouraging blacks to believe that, like the Jews, they too, were a chosen people whom God would, in Gabriel's own time, deliver from oppression and exploitation.

After his spiritual conversion, Gabriel awakens from a wet dream with the thought: "Out of the house of David, the son of Abraham" (Baldwin, 1953, 111). He then has a second dream in which he climbs to the top of a high rugged mountain, dressed in white robes and bathed in the blazing sun, he looks down the steep mountain.

And now up to this mountain in white robes, singing, the elect came. Touch them not, my seal is on them. And Gabriel turned and fell on his face, and the voice said again: So shall thy seed be." Then he awoke (Baldwin, 1953, 112).

The analogue of God's promise to Abraham and David gives a mystic dimension to Gabriel's vision and the relationship he has with his son. Abraham had a son Ishmael, Hagar, bondswoman to his wife Sarah; and David had a son Solomon, by Bathsheba. Baldwin uses Ishmael and Absalom, David's legitimate son by Maacah, as symbols of the rebellious outcast. Both Ishmael and Absalom were disinherited and alienated by their fathers (Haynes, 8).

Similarly Gabriel disowns Royal, his bastard son by Ester. After Ester's death in Chicago, her body and her son came home. Although he always remembers him and there is not a single day in which he does not see "his lost, his disinherited son, or heard of him," (Baldwin, 1953, 138) he will not acknowledge Royal. After the news of Royal's death in a Chicago barroom reaches him does Gabriel break down and confess his guilt to Deborah, his first wife who was raped by a group of young drunk men and she was unable to bear children. Deborah tells him from his dying bed: Honey... you better pray God to forgive you. You better not let go until He makes you know you have been forgiven (Baldwin, 1953, 149).

Here again Baldwin points out the reliance on prayer by the black masses as a key to salvation. After Deborah's death, Gabriel moves north, meets Elizabeth and receives her and her bastard son, John, as a sign from God. Richard, Elizabeth's lover and John's father, is also a fatherless child. Baldwin is highly imaginative in using bastards as a metaphor for the estranged relationship between blacks and white Americans.

Baldwin continually leads his black characters back to church, back to the threshing floor where conversions occur, not merely to the honor of a religious history, but also to give shapes and words to what it means to be black in the United States of America. As W. E. Bois (1868-1919) famously says: “The Negro Church of today is a social center of Negro life in the United States, and the most characteristic expression of African character” (Bois, 142).

Watkins also portrays Baldwin’s novel as a “complex, deeply textured tale that captures the frenzy and almost orgiastic passion of the black Baptist Church” (Watkins, 113). Therefore, in all of these accounts, the black church is the primary figure for the African American life.

Conclusion

Baldwin’s novel draws on a part of American history that deals with effects of slavery on the lives of black people who migrated from south to north. The segregation of the older generation from the white dominated society of America pushes them toward alienation which in return is translated into bitterness and destructive behavior. The third generations who have not lived in the south lacks the experience of slavery. The conflict between the two generations goes on through the novel because they see the world differently.

The novel shows the discriminations that were being committed against black people. Baldwin’s dependence on the historical concepts during slavery and racism is mirrored in the novel. Many of his novels including *Go Tell It on the Mountain* are the samples of racism and racial discrimination. The focus in this novel is on the racial relationship between the protagonist John with his stepfather. Baldwin uses this racial relationship inside one black family to reflect the relationship between the whites and the blacks in the United States of America.

The positive ending of the novel indicates the African Americans envisioning a better future. There are some other important points in the novel like; racism and injustice play a significant role in the lives of the round characters of the novel. Baldwin through his characters establishes special relationships with the world around him and he sees himself caught between the white and the black world. As a black novelist Baldwin is also aware of his responsibilities, in this novel he tries to visualize several solutions in order to resolve the American racial problems. The other crucial point which can be traced in the novel is this reality that the author shows that love, hatred, religion, home and expatriation are strongly related to religion. All in all the novel shows that maturity comes when somebody is his own master and it cannot be achieved under the influence of others. The other important theme of the novel that one cannot release himself from the past and the events of past are always present in the course of one’s life.

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The Impact of Using New Technology on Students' Learning Achievements at the University of Halabja\ Department of English Language

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, new technologies have been used widely for different purposes. One of these purposes is teaching and learning. Due to this widespread use of such technologies, the researchers conducted this research study to investigate the impact of using new technologies on students' learning achievements at the University of Halabja\ department of English language in the academic year (2017-2018). To achieve this aim, the researchers provided a theoretical background about new technologies and their impact on students' learning achievements. Then, designed a questionnaire to determine the range of the use of new technologies by the students of English language department at the University of Halabja and the impact of such technologies on their learning achievements. Finally, they analyzed and discussed the results of this questionnaire, drew certain conclusions and made relevant recommendations.

Key words: Educational Technology, Language Learning, Learning Achievements, New Technologies, Online Learning, Technological Developments.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, the focus of language learning is no longer on grammar, memorization, and learning through repetition, but on using language and cultural knowledge as a means to communicate and connect to others around the world (Eaton, 2010, p. 5). Traditional views of education are changing to newer and more innovative ways of thinking about how we learn, teach, and get knowledge. Technology has been used to both assist and enhance language learning (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2017). (Zhao, 2013) states that access and exposure to engaging, authentic, and comprehensible materials in the target language is essential for successful language learning.

Today, technology has become more central in our everyday lives than before. It helps us in every aspect of our lives, from health and fitness to creativity and social communication. About 22 million students are benefiting from the online distance learning, which is worth around \$70 billion (Zazulak, 2015). In addition, (Luppisini, 2005) believes that using technology in university is a new attribution that has been struggling to secure rights and recognition. It is similar to how a new country struggles to establish internationally recognized independent boundaries.

According to (Zhang, Zhao, Zhou, & Nunamaker, 2004) the most important component that supports the use of technology in the educational system is the internet. E-learning has become one of the significant developments in education and works as a suitable alternative to traditional learning.

The invention of iPads, tablets and e-readers like the Kindle, developed a more interactive reading experience, which is a wonderful feature for English learners. Functions like click-to-define, vocabulary builders, and downloading whole texts by touching a button are all helpful to learners looking for a fun and effective way to improve their reading and writing. It can help to expand their vocabulary and expose them to different sentence structures (Zazulak, 2015).

Research has proven that people learn better from a combination of both words and images, which technology allows, than only from words alone (Mayer, 2005, p. ix). However, technology helps students become autonomous, proficient learners and researchers.

In terms of writing, word processor is a valuable tool. Simple tools such as a dictionary and a thesaurus help writers expand their vocabulary, while spelling- and grammar-checkers are helpful to find and correct errors. Moving forward to the internet age, online forums are widely used channels for learners to communicate and learn from one another using the written word. This is also a good alternative for those who don't have the opportunity to converse with a native speaker face to face (Zazulak, 2015).

Technologies for listening start from simple audio on a cassette tape to today's audiobooks which have taken over the literary world. As it is found in a global survey of 6,000 English language learners, 44% of respondents said speaking was the most difficult aspect of learning English. When it comes to improving both comprehension and speaking skills, extensive listening is highly recommended. Listening to and reading a text at the same time is a great way to start and Kindle's "Whispersync for Voice" technology is designed for this purpose. It includes audio with selected books that learners can listen to and follow the text as they read. Podcasts are also becoming more popular with English learners with the ability to listen anytime and anywhere. English language podcasts are a great way to improve listening skills (Ibid).

2. THE ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY IN INCREASING LANGUAGE LEARNING ACHIEVEMENTS

Technology can be used to enhance language instruction, practice, and assessment, as announced by the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages. By using technology, students can read, listen to, and view authentic, engaging, and new materials from the target culture. Moreover, students can practice interpersonal skills as they interact with native speakers of the target language through video, audio, or text. Students can also collaborate with their peers or teacher anytime and anywhere. In addition, students can work on their learning autonomously as they access online content and/or use online tools managed by their teacher. Students can practice various skills by using online games and applications. Using technology is not a goal by itself; rather technology is a tool that supports language learners as they use the target language in appropriate ways to complete authentic tasks. The development of technology is determined by the needs of the language learner and supports the kinds of interactions students need to become college, career, life, and world-ready (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2017).

Learners can communicate in real-time conversations with English speakers by using certain technologies to improve their speaking skill. Certain technological advancements have come in the form of Skype and FaceTime. Tools such as video-conferencing also offer learners the opportunity to link to other classes around the world, also getting support from other teachers and students. There are many new apps on the market for speaking with other learners, such as CoffeeStrap and HelloTalk – meaning you can converse with native speakers right from your phone. No webcam is required anymore. These technological developments can help learners advance in their English learning; they just need to take advantage of them and they're right at their fingertips (Zazulak, 2015).

3. METHODOLOGY

3. 1. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

To achieve the aim of the study, which is to investigate the impact of using new technologies on students' learning achievements at the University of Halabja\ department of English language in the academic year (2017-2018), the researchers designed a questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of twenty-one items which are divided into two parts; the first part consists of four multiple choice questions, two “yes-no” questions and two open-ended questions, while the second part comprises thirteen statements which should be rated by the students on a five-scale basis. The scales start from 5, which refers to “strongly agree”, to 1, which refers to “strongly disagree”.

The researchers gathered the research sample from each stage to complete the questionnaire. Then, they explained the items to the students to help them complete the questionnaire and make sure that they understand all the items before answering them. Moreover, the researchers asked them not to answer any item unless they understand it. So, several students asked questions about the items or asked the researchers to explain some terms in the questionnaire items and they answered all their questions.

The researchers collected the completed questionnaire forms from the students and analyzed the results using Microsoft Office Excel and IBM SPSS statistics software. Then, they discussed the results and drew conclusions on the basis of these results. Finally, they suggested several recommendations to the university administration, teachers and students to enhance the use of new technologies in learning and overcome the difficulties which the students face in using such technologies.

3. 2. THE POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The researchers distributed the questionnaire forms randomly among 85 undergraduate students of English department\ university of Halabja during April of the academic year (2017-2018). The researchers considered the following factors, as described by (Dessel, 2013), (Smith, 2013), (Raosoft Inc., 2004) and (The Research Advisors, 2006), to determine the sample size of the study:

The population is 217 students.

The margin of error (confidence interval) is % - + 7

The confidence level is % 90

Tables (1) and (2) show the distribution of the students according to their stages and sexes. As table (2) shows, the number of the female students is more than the number of males.

Table (1) Distribution of the students according to their stages

Stage	Population		Sample	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
First	74	34.101%	28.986	13.358%
Second	51	23.502%	19.977	9.206%
Third	46	21.198%	18.018	8.303%
Fourth	46	21.198%	18.018	8.303%
Total	217	100.000%	85.000	39.171%

Table (2) Distribution of the students according to their sexes

Sex	Population		Sample	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Male	64	29.5%	29	34.1%
Female	153	70.5%	56	65.9%

Total	217	100.0%	85	100.0%
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The researchers asked the students to write their ages to verify their stages. As table (3) shows, the ages are between 18 to 21 years old. When we look at the tables (1) and (3), we can conclude that the first-year students are 18 years old, the second-year students are 19 years old, the third-year students are 20 years old and the fourth-year students are 21 years old. This is the age range of the university stage in the Iraqi Kurdistan region. However, there are few students who are older.

Table (3) The students' ages

Age	Frequency	Percent
18	16	18.8%
19	10	11.8%
20	16	18.8%
21	22	25.9%
22	6	7.1%
23	7	8.2%
24	3	3.5%
25	2	2.4%
26	2	2.4%
37	1	1.2%
Total	85	100.0%

3. 3. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Table (4) shows the frequencies and percentages of the answer choices for the first two questions. As the table shows, 1.2% of the students have laptop and 3.5% of them use it for their learning. 1.2% of them have tablet and none of them use it for learning. 2.4% of them have smart phone and 12.9% of them use it for learning. 1.2% of them have internet and 11.8% of them use it for learning. Only 1.2% does not have any technology and 2.4% do not use any technology for learning. 1.2% of them have desktop, smart phone and internet and 2.4% of use them for learning. 9.4% have laptop and internet and 4.7% use them for learning. 7.1% have laptop and smart phone and 3.5% use them for learning. 47.1% of them have laptop, smart phone and internet and 24.7% of them use these technologies for their learning. 10.6% have laptop, tablet, smart phone and internet and 1.2% use them for learning. 10.6% have smart phone with internet access and 29.4% use them for learning.

The answers to these two questions show that:

1. 81.3% of the students have laptop and 37.6% of them use it for learning.
2. 5.9% of them have desktop and 3.6% use it for learning.
3. 15.4% of them have tablet and 3.6% use it for learning.
4. 86.1% of them have smart phone and 76.5% use it for learning.
5. 77% of them have internet access and 75.4% use it for learning.
6. 1.2% of them do not have any of these technologies and 2.4% do not use any of them for learning.

The answers to this question show that most of the students have laptop, smart phone and internet access and use them for learning.

Table (4) The frequencies and percentages of the answer choices for the questions (1 & 2)

		Q1. From the list below, which technology have you got?	Q2. Which technology would you usually use for your learning?
Laptop	Frequency	1	3
	Percent	1.2%	3.5%
Desktop	Frequency	0	0
	Percent	0%	0%
Tablet	Frequency	1	0
	Percent	1.2%	0%
Smart Phone	Frequency	2	11
	Percent	2.4%	12.9%
Internet	Frequency	1	10
	Percent	1.2%	11.8%
None of them	Frequency	1	2
	Percent	1.2%	2.4%
Desktop, Smart Phone and Internet	Frequency	1	2
	Percent	1.2%	2.4%
Desktop and Smart Phone	Frequency	0	1
	Percent	0%	1.2%
Laptop, Desktop, Smart Phone and Internet	Frequency	3	0
	Percent	3.5%	0%
Laptop, Desktop, Tablet, Smart Phone and Internet	Frequency	1	0
	Percent	1.2%	0%
Laptop and Internet	Frequency	8	4
	Percent	9.4%	4.7%
Laptop and Smart Phone	Frequency	6	3
	Percent	7.1%	3.5%
Laptop, Smart Phone and Internet	Frequency	40	21
	Percent	47.1%	24.7%
Laptop, Tablet and Smart Phone	Frequency	1	0
	Percent	1.2%	0%
Laptop, Tablet, Smart Phone and Internet	Frequency	9	1
	Percent	10.6%	1.2%
Smart Phone and Internet	Frequency	9	25
	Percent	10.6%	29.4%
	Frequency	1	0

Tablet, Smart Phone and Internet	Percent	1.2%	0%
Tablet and Internet	Frequency	0	1
	Percent	0%	1.2%
Tablet and Smart Phone	Frequency	0	1
	Percent	0%	1.2%

Table (5) shows the frequencies and percentages of the answer choices for the third and fourth questions.

As the table shows, 2.4% of the students spend less than an hour daily in using new technologies for their personal use. 11.8% of them spend an hour, 21.2% spend two hours, 17.6% spend three hours and 47.1% spend more than three hours. While 24.7% of them spend less than an hour daily for learning, 36.5% of them spend an hour, 21.2% spend two hours, 3.5% spend three hours, 11.8% spend more than three hours and 2.4% never use new technologies for learning.

The answers to this question show that most of the students spend more than three hours daily for their personal use while they do not spend more than two hours for learning.

Table (5) The frequencies and percentages of the answer choices for the questions (3 & 4)

		Q3. How much time do you spend daily in using new technologies for your personal use other than learning?	Q4. How much time do you spend daily in using new technologies for your learning process?
Less than an hour	Frequency	2	21
	Percent	2.4%	24.7%
1 hour	Frequency	10	31
	Percent	11.8%	36.5%
2 hours	Frequency	18	18
	Percent	21.2%	21.2%
3 hours	Frequency	15	3
	Percent	17.6%	3.5%
More than 3 hours	Frequency	40	10
	Percent	47.1%	11.8%
Never	Frequency	0	2
	Percent	0%	2.4%

Table (6) shows the frequencies and percentages of the answer choices for the fifth and sixth questions.

The table shows that 48.2% of the students used new technologies for learning before attending university, 37.6% of them did not use any and 14.1% of them are not sure about the answer. Moreover, it shows that 18.8% of them face difficulties in using new technologies for learning, 58.8% of them do not face any difficulty and 22.4% of them are not sure about their answer.

Table (6) The frequencies and percentages of the answer choices for the questions (5 & 6)

		Q5. Have you used new technologies for your learning before attending university?	Q6. Do you face any difficulties in using new technologies for your learning?
Yes	Frequency	41	16
	Percent	48.2%	18.8%
No	Frequency	32	50
	Percent	37.6%	58.8%
Not sure	Frequency	12	19
	Percent	14.1%	22.4%

The students who answered the fifth question with “yes” were asked to write the names of the technologies that they used before attending university and they stated the following: Internet, laptop, desktop, smart phone, tablet and TV.

Moreover, they were asked “how did you use such technologies?”. Their answers show that they used new technologies in different ways, such as:

Talking to native speakers of English, writing reports in school, watching videos, searching for English words, searching for information in different sources, learning English by watching “English for you” program, learning Turkish language through “youtube”, using messenger to talk to friends about school subjects and scientific topics, getting information about language, using dictionaries to search for vocabularies, watching movies and documentaries, getting information for school lessons, using social media for learning, getting general information, listening to English music, and using google translation.

The answers show that students used different technologies for learning in different ways.

The students who answered the sixth question with “yes” were asked to write down the difficulties they face while using new technologies for learning. They stated the following:

1. They cannot find all the information they need because they do not know how to search and find specific information.
2. They do not know how to use some of the new technologies.
3. They do not have appropriate internet access all the time, especially inside university campus.

These answers show that students do not face significant problems while using new technologies for learning.

In the answer of the seventh question, “In your opinion, what are the major advantages of using new technologies for learning?”, the students stated the following advantages:

1. New technologies develop students’ minds and increase their knowledge.
2. Learning many new things, including foreign languages.
3. Getting information quickly and easily. For example, you can download the soft copy of a book into your smart phone and read it there instead of getting the hard copy. Moreover, you can download dictionaries into your smart phone, tablet or laptop and use them easier than hard copies.
4. Being in contact with teachers, friends or any expert to get information and help from them even if they are far away.
5. Talking to native speakers of English language to improve your language, especially listening and speaking skills.
6. Knowing foreigners.
7. Finding anything, anytime and anywhere. This saves time.
8. Getting more experience and knowing about things which you have never known about before.
9. Improving your vocabulary and pronunciation.
10. Downloading and watching movies to improve your language.
11. Making the process of learning better and faster, especially for students.
12. Availability of many different sources for getting information.

13. Being familiar with the other cultures.
14. Getting apps, presentations and PDFs for learning.
15. Participation in online courses.

In the answer of the eighth question, “in your opinion, what are the major disadvantages of using new technologies for learning?”, the students listed the following disadvantages:

1. New technologies cause wasting too much time.
2. They cause psychological, social and health problems.
3. They are open to everyone. Some people use them in a bad way.
4. Too much focus on internet in learning is bad.
5. There is a lot of unnecessary and irrelevant information. It is sometimes confusing.
6. They make people inattentive or less active. For example, they affect people’s writing and spelling.
7. They avoid reading books.
8. They avoid hard working. People can get information easily without great effort.
9. Everything cannot be accessed for free.
10. They do not know where to find specific information and sources they need.

In the second part of the questionnaire, the students were asked to reflect on using new technologies in their learning process by rating eleven statements on a five-scale basis. The rating scales are as follows:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

Table (7) shows the percentages of the rating scales for each statements

Table (7) the percentages of the rating scales for each statement

No.	Statements	Scales					Mean
		1	2	3	4	5	
9.	I feel confident in using new technologies for my learning.	4.7%	10.6%	11.8%	58.8%	14.1%	3.7
10.	I usually use new technologies for my learning.	2.4%	15.3%	25.9%	41.2%	15.3%	3.5
11.	I can use the new technologies for my learning easily.	4.7%	8.2%	34.1%	36.5%	16.5%	3.5
12.	Using new technologies helps me have more achievements in my learning process.	5.9%	4.7%	20.0%	43.5%	25.9%	3.8
13.	Using new technologies helps me to be up-to-date with new topics in my field of study.	3.5%	5.9%	17.6%	54.1%	18.8%	3.8
14.	I need training about using new technologies for learning.	8.2%	14.1%	27.1%	31.8%	18.8%	3.4
15.	Using new technologies helps me get better results in my subjects.	2.4%	12.9%	17.6%	42.4%	24.7%	3.7
16.	Using new technologies helps me understand the subject materials more deeply.	1.2%	7.1%	23.5%	50.6%	17.6%	3.8
17.	Using new technologies helps me in preparing my assignments.	5.9%	9.4%	18.8%	43.5%	22.4%	3.7
18.	Using new technologies saves the time I need to get resources in my learning process.	2.4%	8.2%	24.7%	43.5%	21.2%	3.7

19.	New technologies have made me a better learning environment.	5.9%	8.2%	29.4%	40.0%	16.5%	3.5
20.	My teachers use new technologies inside the class.	7.1%	9.4%	27.1%	31.8%	24.7%	3.6
21.	Using new technologies by my teachers inside the class has a positive impact on my learning.	3.5%	8.2%	14.1%	38.8%	35.3%	3.9
Mean		4.4%	9.4%	22.4%	42.8%	20.9%	3.7

The table shows the following facts:

1. Most of the students feel confident in using new technologies in their learning process and they usually use them. Moreover, they can use them easily.
2. Most of the students believe that using new technologies helps them have more achievements in their learning process. In addition, it makes a better learning environment for them, helps them to be up-to-date with new topics in their field of study, get better results in their subjects, understand the subject materials more deeply and prepare their assignments easily.
3. Most of the students need training about using new technologies for learning.
4. Most of the students think that using new technologies saves the time they need to get resources.
5. Most of the students stated that their teachers use new technologies inside the class. They think that this has a positive impact on their learning process.

4. CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the discussion and analysis of the questionnaire results, the researcher has drawn the following conclusions:

1. New technologies are helpful in increasing students' learning achievements.
2. New technologies help students develop the four language skills.
3. New technological developments have made language learning and practice easier.
4. Students have laptop, smart phone and internet access.
5. Students use laptop, smart phone and internet for learning.
6. Students spend more than three hours daily in using new technologies for their personal use while they spend less than two hours in using them for learning.
7. Students have a positive perspective on using new technologies for learning.
8. Students used different technologies in different ways for learning before attending university.
9. Students do not face any difficulty in using new technologies for learning.
10. Using new technologies has many advantages for the students. However, it has several disadvantages if it is not managed cautiously.
11. Using new technologies saves the time students need to get resources.
12. Using new technologies by the teachers inside the class has a positive impact on the students' learning achievements.
13. New technologies help students communicate with teachers, peers and experts to develop their language skills.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the conclusions reached, the researcher presents the following recommendations:

1. Students should use new technologies carefully to avoid wasting their time with unnecessary and irrelevant information.
2. Students need special training on using new technologies for learning.
3. Students can get help from friends to be able to use new technologies for their learning properly.
4. Students should spend more time in using new technologies for learning.

5. University should facilitate using new technologies to the students by providing internet access inside university campus.
6. Teachers should create environments that promote students' use of new technologies inside and outside the classroom.

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The Effect of Extensive Reading Program on Kurdish EFL Learners' writing Performance

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Abstract

Reading and writing skills have vital roles in foreign language teaching and learning. The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of implementing reading and writing for EFL learners. The five-month study emphasize on the effect of extensive reading (ER) on writing performance for 1st year EFL Kurdish students in GASHA institute. Pre-test and posttest implemented by the Jacobs, Zingraf, Wormoth, Hartfield, and Hughey (1981) measurement of writing, including content, organization, language use, and mechanics. To gain the aim of the study, 64 students has randomly assigned to the test, 32 students were chosen for the experimental group and 32 students were assigned to the control group. The researchers collected and assessed the data using a sample t-test to measure the effect of the implemented ER program.

The findings demonstrated that the experimental group outperformed the control group as it was treated by the researchers and significant differences were seen in gains of their writing skill but in return the control group was treated by the regular teaching of English teachers without giving ER materials.

Keywords: Foreign language, EFL, Extensive reading (ER), reading and writing skills.

1. Introduction

Reading is one of the most important language skills that is crucial to learn a foreign language for anyone at any age. Reading, as an essential skill, makes the reader to interact with the text which includes tapping prior knowledge, asking questions and making connections, constructing the idea, monitoring, revising meaning, reflecting, relating, and evaluating” (Olson, 2003, p. 17). Other skills like Writing, speaking, grammar, vocabulary items, spelling, and other language sub-skills can be taught with reading when the readers look for meaning and finding pleasure in their texts they read. Reading and writing share the same procedures like drafting, re-writing and negotiation with each other, so both the reader and writer should keep each other in mind (Olson,2003). Apart from that, the proficient reader and writer automatically use their skill, which means they should both read and write actively and strategically.

While reading, a reader will automatically pick up vocabulary and language structures and s/he should be able to make use of them in their writing work. Therefore, when teaching writing as a separate skill, we can also use reading as a tool to improve student's writing. Thus, while teaching the target language, various strategies can be combined like reading and writing to achieve the production skill; writing. Language learners can be not only a skillful reader but also a writer. The practical performance is clear, implementing reading texts as a source to brainstorm and organize ideas to develop writing assignments while at the same time they use writing as a learning instrument in teaching reading strategies.

Reading for pleasure and reading as much as you like to read or so-called "extensive reading" (ER) has been repeatedly recommended by many famous reading experts and practitioners such as Grabe (2002), Eskey (2002), Nuttall (1996), Day and Bamford (1998) as an easy but as a dominant tool to improve other language skills. Practical experiments and surveys have reported that writing has been improved by many EFL learners thanks to ER with various age groups in an EFL contexts. From surveys, for example, many studies have shown a positive relationship between the amount of reading by students and their writing abilities.

Other researchers like parks and Thatcher (2000) stated that "English writing plays vital, cross-cultural, and traditional roles in business, work places, and governmental actions throughout the world geography". Leki (2003) has also reported that writing is the vital part of education which is an essential method of language learning. He also believes that writing plays a key gate-keeping role in career improvement.

EFL learners often have the lack of writing assignments due to their lack of vocabulary, grammar and sentence structure with their difficulties of transferring their ideas and opinions to a written expression (Al-Meni, 2008).

Consequently, several EFL scholars have planned and practiced useful and effective methods to simplify the writing process and improve learners' writing capabilities and using extensive reading texts which may provide that for them.

It has been also stated by Tsai (2006) that writing and reading share similar structures and learners are more likely to benefit from the teaching program that makes writing and reading activities go together in such a way that complete each other.

But at the same time, some other studies especially in EFL contexts, e.g. (Elley and Mangubhai, 1983; Tudor and Hafiz, 1989; Hafiz and Tudor, 1989; Elley, 1991; Pilgreen and Krashen, 1993; Cho and Krashen, 1994; (1995a); (1995b); Constantino, 1994), and Lai (1993b) and Krashen (1996) found no relationship between reading and writing. They showed that there is not any significant improvement from students' writing skills while giving ER program. For this reason, in this study our interest was to examine

this case in an EFL context to know that if the Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance would be improved by providing several pleasure reading materials during a five-month regular study period.

1.1 Statement of the problem

After changing the school curriculum as a new strategy to make the students to write effectively , understand clearly and speak well in English language, by studying one year preliminary English language program, according to the researcher experiences ,as the head of the English language department, the class observations, teaching the students, scoring their writing assignments, and also the writing teachers' complaints, we found the students' lack of performance in writing to make sentence structure, poor vocabulary, spelling mistakes, and their ideas organization to express what they want to say in English language. Therefore, the researchers recommend a new technique to be implemented to improve Kurdish EFL learners' writing ability through extensive reading program which they believe that this strategy could have a significant influence on students' writing performance to write better and express their ideas more logically. The results of this study can demonstrate the importance of ERP to improve learners' writing performance in an EFL context.

1.2. The hypothesis

Using extensive reading has a positive effect on Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance.

2. Literature review

There is a complicated connection between reading and writing performance and this connection is a clue to do research and work on its theoretical grounds. Over the past several decades a lot of research has been done to verify the relation between extensive reading and writing performance. Most of the EFL studies claim the satisfying results about the impact of reading on writing abilities of learners. According to their exposure to the target language, a lot of positive links between reading and writing scores were found. This section reviews the literature related to the effect of extensive reading program on the EFL learners' writing performance.

At first, you may find worth considering the exact meaning of extensive reading (ER) by Powell (2006) who states that the term "extensive reading" was originally coined by Palmer (1917) to distinguish it from "intensive reading" which is: The careful reading of short, complex texts for detailed understanding and skills practice. It has since acquired many other names such as "pleasure reading", "sustained silent reading", and "free reading".

Regardless of the different names, the characteristics generally include the relatively fast reading to understand material, with the reading done mostly outside of the classroom and at each student's own pace and level. There are few, if any, follow – up exercises, because the aim is for overall understanding

rather than word – by – word decoding or grammar analysis. For the same reason, there is minimum use of dictionaries. Most importantly, instead of an inflexible curriculum saddling students with texts they neither enjoy nor understand, with extensive reading the material is generally chosen by the students themselves, who can thereby enjoy some small measure of responsibility for decisions affect in their learning, a basic tenet of communicative teaching (Thompson, 1996).

Krashen (1989) studied the power of reading on language acquisition on the basis that reading becomes comprehensible input if texts are both interesting and understandable so that they capture the learners' attention. His research on reading exposure supports the view that it increases not only reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, but it improves grammatical development and writing style.

Beach (1984) studied the effect of reading ability on 60 seventh-grade students' narrative writing quality. The findings of the study indicated that reading ability influenced the quality of personal incident writing. Schneider (1985) examined how re-reading functions in the composition process of six college students – three skilled writers and three unskilled ones. In fact, he tried to describe how reading and writing processes interact during composition. It was found that re-reading has an important function in helping writers shape the meaning of their written pieces.

Hafiz and Tudor (1990) investigated the effects of an extensive reading program and accuracy of using lexical items on Pakistani primary school pupils' second language learning. They found that the students had statistically significant gains in their vocabulary base and writing and the influence of extensive reading program supported the idea that students learn to write through reading.

The combination of writing skill with the other language skills can be more useful to teach composition to the students. Zaher (1990) investigated the effect of a proposed unit based on the integration of the writing skill with other language skills, mainly with reading. it was found that there was a tangible increase in the students' use of varied types of structures while writing after the treatment as compared to their writing performance before the implementation of the proposed unit. In other words, it was found that the students confined themselves mainly to simple structures and a limited number of compound and complex structures on the pre-test, while after the treatment, the students' use of compound and complex structures in writing increased significantly. So, the hypothesis of combining the language skills with writing to improve the students' writing performance was approved by the findings of that study.

Janopoulous (1986) studied the relationship between reading for pleasure and second language writing competence. The findings of the study showed a meaningful correlation between pleasure reading and students' proficiency in written English. Murdoch (1986) investigated the effect of integrating writing

with reading on developing and improving students' writing achievement. The findings showed that if writing with its mechanics were integrated into activities or exercises based on reading texts, students would no longer view writing as an unpleasant task, but as a natural part of language learning. Moreover, it was found that students' writing performance substantially improved. Shahan and Lomax (1986) suggested three models explaining the writing-reading relationship. Their models contain the interaction of writing and reading, reading-to-write, and writing-to-read. They used path analysis to investigate the impact of reading on writing. The results showed that the reading-to-write was superior to the other two models.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) suggested that reading activities will be of a great assistance to improve and promote too many writing activities at the beginning and advanced levels. They stated that the outcome of a reading activity serves as input for writing and writing heads students to further reading sources and references. They also indicated that there is a need for students to read texts and analyze them logically, which is considered as a key component in their academic writings. Mason and Krashen (1997) investigated the effectiveness of a one-semester reading program on Japanese university students' linguistic competence, reading and writing skills. The findings of the study revealed statistically significant gains and positive attitudes in the students' reading ability and writing skill. Bell (1998) stressed that reading extensively offers teacher worldwide engagement in a concentrated and encouraging reading program to direct students along a passage to be independent and resourceful in their reading and language learning, and furthermore to be well improved and naturally-respondent to form texts, thoughts and ideas in writing.

The available research results imply the relationship between reading and writing and its positive aspect supports the students to read more and more to improve their writing performance. Kirin (2010) gave details of a 15-week reading experiment with a group of Thai EFL learners who were encouraged to read and, by the end, were then sub-divided for statistical analysis based on their reading amounts. Designated 'high' and 'low' groups, this represented the volume of their exposure to comprehensible input. All subjects had their essay writing abilities measured every five weeks throughout the entire engagement with simplified reading books. The findings of the study showed that the high ability learners' writing improved, while low ability learners' writing abilities did not improve despite additional reading involvement over the four months of the experiment.

Yoshimura (2009) investigated the effects of connecting reading and writing and a checklist to guide the reading process on EFL learners' learning about writing. In this research, ways of reading which are likely to promote the development of writing ability were sought and operationalized into checklist questions for EFL reading instructions. The findings of the study showed that connecting reading and

writing has positive effects and that the checklist helps students consider genre and efficiently integrate the reading and writing processes.

Erhan (2011) analyzed the effects of the cooperative integrated reading and composition technique and the traditional reading and writing pedagogical methods for primary school students. It was found that there was a statistically significant difference between the reading and writing skills of the experimental and control groups in terms of academic achievement and retention. This difference was discovered in favor of the cooperative integrated reading and composition technique.

Zainal and Husin (2011) studied the effects of reading on writing performance among faculty of civil engineering students. The results showed that reading has positive effects on students' writing. Generally, the results of this study indicated that reading and writing are connected to each other. It is effectively help students in writing in several ways.

Previous findings report a positive connection between reading and writing. If we want to consider the general goal of this study which is investigating the effect of extensive reading program on the Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance, the reviewed literature results will be a good support for it. Nevertheless, the effect of extensive reading on Kurdish EFL learners have not received any attention in the previous studies, so this point was a good excuse to concentrate on the effect of extensive reading program on the Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance.

3. Significance of study

Extensive reading has been used to develop writing skills in several foreign language classrooms and it has been a crucial debate for many teachers and scholars (Abou Baker, 1996; Khater, 2002; Helal, 2003; and Bakir, 2004). This current study examines the effect of ERP on Kurdish EFL learners' writing skills in undergraduate school –which is a technical private institute. To the best knowledge of the researchers in this study, they try to see whether implementing a new tool, ERP, will improve EFL Kurdish learners' writing skills. For that reason, it is hoped that

- Students writing skills; sentence structure, content, organization, language use, and mechanics will improve through pleasure reading texts.
- It will also assist the researchers and teachers to be involved in the educational procedure to achieve insights into ERP and its impact on writing skills
- It will also help teaching and learning procedure to use more ERPs and diverse teacher class hours to teach their skills especially in both writing and reading.

The results of the ERP effectiveness will help students perhaps to open their minds towards the importance of reading to improve their writing skills.

4. Methodology

This study was conducted at GASHA institute with first year students- it is a five-year technical institute which has three departments; petroleum, computer science, accounting and management in Iraqi Kurdistan region. There is a standard designed curriculum and course books. Students have been placed with their majors and there no any placement tests before entering their classes. So, all the classes that have about 400 students within this program are mixed-ability students in 20 classes, in each class, there is 45minute reading and writing lessons for four times in a week. The participants of this study were randomly selected and divided into groups; control group and experimental group –following a pretest-posttest design for both groups. The extensive reading program was only implemented to experimental group during a five-month study program while both groups have regular teaching hours in reading lesson-four lessons (each session is 45minutes) for each week. However, the control group students were only assigned to traditional method which was reading classes only. Both groups were addressed to a writing assignment (see appendix1) pretest at the beginning of the experiment and the same test was given as a posttest immediately after it.

There were 64 Kurdish EFL first year students at GASHA institute in the first and second semester of the academic year 2017-2018. The participants were chosen randomly and they assigned into experimental and control groups of 32 subjects each.

The extensive reading program was designed for this study, students read different books at home or in the library whenever and whatever they like to read according to their own interest in various subjects; sports, history, famous characters, movie stars, health, science, technology, etc. Each weekend, they supposed to finish one of the graded reader's materials and write a summery about what they have learnt from the book (see appendix2) as a writing activity.

The materials have been divided according to the levels. It is expected that by providing the students the chance to be put in their own levels and read according to their levels in all various subject fields, the present study program may possibly develop Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance through a pleasure reading program.

Students in experimental group were given the importance of the ERP and the researchers explained about the program in developing their writings skills.

The writing test was assigned to both groups before and after the treatment. Students were requested to write a paragraph about how they spent their last holiday. The researchers used the following checklist to evaluate the students' writing performance: (a) content, (b) organization, (c) vocabulary use, (d) sentence structure, and (e) mechanics.

The total score for writing the paragraph was out of 25, 5 points for each skill. Two English language instructors rated the students' writings. The two raters were asked to evaluate each of the five writing skills separately, and then the overall marks were calculated.

5. Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of ERP on Kurdish EFL learners' writing skills. The researchers theorize that participants who studied ERP including their regular reading hours would perform better writing assignments than those who only study reading in traditional lessons.

The data were collected through a pretest-treatment-posttest design for the equivalent groups and analyzed via the statistical package SPSS. An independent t test was carried out to determine achievement of the two groups on the pretest.

Table1. Results of the t Test of the Means of the Achievement of both groups on the pretest

Pre Test	Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T	Significance
	Control Group	32	8.44	5.459	1.21	0.32
	Experimental Group	32	10.91	5.497		

Table 2 represents that the difference between the results of both groups before implementing the ERP on the pretest which is statistically not significant at $\alpha=0.00$. As it has been shown that there is not statistic difference between the control and the experimental groups at the beginning of the program-pretest, both groups were supposed equivalent. But after implementing an extensive reading program for five months in two semesters, another t-test was examined to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the groups' results on the posttest.

Table 2 shows the data results as below.

PostTest	Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T	Significance
	Control Group	32	9.09	5.761	31	0.045
	Experimental Group	32	15.91	4.283		

Table 3 explores that there is a statistically significant difference at $\alpha = 0.05$. Between the results of the experimental group and the control group on the posttest which are measured by the differences between the tests after implementing the ERP for the experimental group, it points that using extensive reading program to Kurdish EFL learners has better impact on their writing skills for the experimental group than the control group. The mean score for experimental group on posttest was (15.91) while that of the control group was (9.09).

The findings of this part of the study are consistent with studies conducted by Beach (1984), Schneider (1985), Janopoulous (1986), Murdoch (1986), Hafiz and Tudor (1990), Zaher (1990), Grabe and Kaplan (1996), Mason and Krashen (1997), Bell (1998), Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), Wong (2001), Helal (2003), Smith (2003), Bakir (2004), Hany(2007), Shen(2009), Yoshimura (2009), Kirin (2010), Alkhalwaldeh(2011), De Rycker and Ponnudurai (2011), Erhan (2011), and Zainal and Husin (2011). All these studies showed that using extensive reading in English language instruction in general and in improve their writing skill, in particular. They also found that extensive reading does offer students certain educational benefits. Moreover, the findings of the study are in line with the hypothesis of the study as it was found that the extensive reading text has a positive impact on Kurdish EFL students' performance in writing. The researcher demonstrates that the difference in the performance of the students was assigned to using the extensive reading text in the writing classes. The experimental group participants significantly improved their writing performance in a period of five months. The progress attained by the control group participants, nevertheless, was not statistically meaningful.

To ensure the reliability of scoring of the writing test, three raters from the correlation was calculated. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table3. Writing Test Interrater Reliability

The interrater Correlation	Correlation	Significance
Interrater correlation between the first rater and second rater	0.96	0.01
Interrater correlation between the first rater and third rater	0.97	0.01
Interrater correlation between the second rater and third rater	0.96	0.01

Table 3 shows that the writing test interrater reliability is statistically significant (0.93) at 0.01.

6. Discussion

The main goal of this study was about the investigating of the extensive reading effect on Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance. The data were collected by conducting a pretest and posttest for both control and experimental group. In this study it was presumed that students who were given extra reading passages should outperform the other group regarding appropriate vocabularies and structures. Most of the subjects in experimental group observed this attribute but there were several cases who had difficulty in having good word choices for their topic. Since the subjects in both groups were first-year students in GASHA institute, they had some other minor grammatical errors but they were overlooked, since they didn't serve our purpose.

It is not enough to just consider the language input to explain the growth of the participants' writing ability. Language output or the production of written work may be required to coordinate and confirm language learned from the reading engagement. According to Silva and Matsuda (2002) understanding some of the writing strategies through practice is helpful especially for less experienced writers. In fact, several ER studies; for example, Mason (2004) and Caruso (1994), have proven that writing practice supports the improvement in a readers' writing performance. On the other hand, studies by Mason and Krashen (2004) also claim writing progress despite any formal instruction or practice.

Swain (1999) proposed the Output Hypothesis and it relies on the writing practice and according to this hypothesis, the production of language is necessary because while creating a piece of work by a writer can br along with taking notice of the language they are using in their writing. Without choosing appropriate words to create longer sentences it is highly probable that the language is not adequately noticed and besides, the acquired knowledge a reader gains from comprehensible input could be easily lost.

Motivational ER activities which focused on playing with words and sentences found in stories read are considered as conscious learning. However, according to Harmer (2001) the noticed language infers neither the acquisition of language nor the ability to use it immediately. The spontaneous production of the acquired or learned language needs a longer time because it needs enough processing time in the learners' memory through noticing and may be restructured before being available for use.

Moreover, the findings of the study agree with the hypothesis of that study as it was found that the extensive reading program has a positive effect on Kurdish EFL learners' writing performance. The researchers demonstrate that the difference in the achievement of the students was attributed to using the extensive reading program in the writing classes. The experimental group subjects significantly improved their writing performance in a period of five months. By comparing the results achieved by the two groups, the researchers reached the conclusion that the improvement achieved by the experiment group may have been attributed to the way they render instruction: the extensive reading program. Furthermore, the differences between the two groups may be attributed to many other reasons.

First, using the extensive reading program in the writing classes is a creative method. This novelty may have motivated the students to cope with it enthusiastically, which may have been reflected in better writing achievement. Second, reading a lot of various passages and doing many reading and writing activities helped the students to develop beneficial reading and writing habits and at the same time it improves their writing performance through the consistent exposure to the meaningful content of the texts. Extensive reading program makes a better comprehension of the content, which in turn led to improving writing performance. Third, extensive reading program encouraged the students to practice the skills they acquired when writing a paragraph on a certain topic which surely leads to develop their writing performance. Fourth, the program was effective in encouraging the students to read on different genres (narrative, argumentative, descriptive, scientific, and expository texts) which increased their writing proficiency. Fifth, by reading passages, the students can learn a main idea is developed through out a passage. Moreover, they offered the students a range of vocabulary to be used later in their writing. Besides, the students could gain necessary ideas and information for writing through reading the passages. Finally, integrating reading and writing skills to improve their performance in writing a paragraph and it decreased the feeling of boredom and kept them active all the time. This supports Grabe and Kaplan (1996) speech who suggested that reading activities will be a great assistance to improve and promote too many writing activities at the beginning and advanced levels. They also stated

that the outcome of a reading activity serves as input for writing. Zamble (1992) stressed that the teaching of reading and writing cannot be torn apart nor can be arranged in linear order so that one necessarily precedes the other. Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) also indicated that voluntary-pleasurable reading has empirically proved to bring about positive impacts on developing writing skill.

7. Conclusion

Improving the writing skill is so important for many EFL teachers. Second language writing ability is a complex skill and teachers may need to use a variety of methodologies to best ensure their students' abilities improve over time. According to this study, a partial improvement was also seen in the control group by using the direct instruction and doing a lot of writing tasks and practice over the course of five academic months.

Based on the findings of this study, the researchers believe that the using extensive reading for EFL learners helps them to make learning more interesting. Extensive reading programs can motivate the students. Moreover, the findings of this study demonstrated that integrating extensive reading programs into writing instruction, was effective for improving students' performance and made a good learning experience.

Because of the limitations of the classroom and the time available for teachers to directly interact with each student, ER can be helpful for the second language learners to become more autonomous learners, especially in EFL environments where exposure to the target language may be limited.

If an ER method is as effective as the results of this study and other studies suggest, then the implications for using an ER method as a secondary method of improving learners' writing abilities in the teaching of EFL may be extraordinary. Therefore, it is crucial for EFL teachers to seriously use the ER method to help learners in their classrooms.

Maybe, one of the limitations of this study was about time management and about the time which was spent out of class for reading or working on English homework assignments. Another limitation was perhaps about the manner of scoring the pre- and post-writing samples. During the present study, the pre- and post-writing tests were scored at two separate times, one at the first month and the other at the fifth month. A blind scoring system has been preferred, where all of the writing samples are scored after the study has been concluded without the raters knowing which samples were pretests and which samples were posttests. This may be a good subject for the future researchers to consider.

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How Colour Perceptions affect the English-Kurdish Translation of Colour Idioms (A case-study of under-graduate students at Sulaimaniyah University, Department of Translation)

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Abstract

Colour Idioms are those expressions that are used to describe feelings, emotions, and thinking towards people, objects and situations. Colour Idioms may not have their Kurdish equivalences since they are connected with western culture. The paper studies the fact that students' colour perceptions affect their translation while they are translating from English into Kurdish. The aim of the study is to examine the translation of Colour Idioms from English into Kurdish by the under graduate students through their perceptions toward colours, and to know how their perceptions towards the colours will affect their colour-idiom translation. In order to accomplish the aim of the study, 26 undergraduate students who are studying in the Department of Translation taken to participate in a two-part questionnaire. In the first part, the students were asked to show their perceptions towards the colours, how they see and understand the colours, and what feeling and emotions they have while seeing each colour. The second part of the questionnaire includes 40 statements; and each statement contains a colour idiom within its contextual meaning, and the translator should give the correct equivalence for each idiom within the statements. The study shows that; Firstly how the students translated the colour idioms, through the data being collected about their acceptable and unacceptable translation of the idioms, and Secondly; performing the data being collected to show the perceptions that affected the students' understanding of the idioms.

Keywords: colour, colour-idioms, translation, colour perception.

Introduction:

Different expressions are used by people of different languages completely to express a similar meaning, in a way that some expressions might be fully easy and understandable for the speakers of a language while the same set of words and expressions may seem completely unclear and even incomprehensible to the speakers of other languages. It is a fact that each language has some terms that are culture-specific which are fully different from the equivalent items in another language. Also the religious, geographical, ideological, and social factors and social classes of languages and societies will harden understanding and translating idiomatic pairs from one language into another.

Colours are one of the most important elements of visual symbols. They are regarded as a worldwide way of communication among the members of each society. Colours are related to social, individual, emotional, and mental aspects of life. They are symbols of things that are basically taken from nature. So, red stands for blood and blue stands for sky while green is a symbol of nature and to some people it is a symbol of sacred.

There are individual differences in colour interpretations, though regarding the translation of colours; individuals may understand the meaning of the colours differently since they are related to their specific cultural connotations. Thus, in the case of colour-idioms, the meaning of colours may increase their complications.

Colour idioms are used to show feeling and status in different languages, and in the process of translation since they are associated with cultural specific connotations, the issue of no- equivalence begins. The meaning of the idioms are related to their original culture, thus the translation of colour-idioms is a difficult mission since there would be lack of equivalence between the two different cultures. The situation will be more difficult when the meaning loss will happen in the translation product. So to avoid loss of meaning, it is better to understand the meaning of the colour idioms in the original context and then start translating.

Before appropriate translation methods can be considered, colour idioms should be recognized, understood, and analyzed and it is of enormous importance to be capable of identifying the colour idioms. According to Larson (1984, p. 143), while translating the idioms, the first step is to be completely certain about the source language meaning of the idiom. Therefore, it is very significant to be able to distinguish the differences between the literal meaning and the real meaning of the colour idiom and it needs excellent command of the source language to be capable of translating the colour idioms.

2. Theoretical Background of the study:

2.1. Definitions of Idioms:

Any language has idiom, and especially when it's spoken. Idioms give colour and feeling to language by forming images that suggest meanings beyond those of the individual words that are spoken. Idioms are regarded as culture-bound terms since they provide other people hints about history, culture, and society of their users. As idioms are practiced by the members of the society, they change according to time, practices, beliefs, and other aspects of culture. Some of them will disappear, while others replace them. They are over used, so they became inseparable parts of language, culture and life. Some of the idioms are used to express feelings, emotions, time, place, size and etc. the idioms are mostly complex, and this makes difficulty for non native speaker to use, understand and translate them a well.

Collins English Dictionary (2006) defines idioms as “an expression such as a simile, in which words do not have their literal meaning, but are categorized as multi-word expressions that act in the text as units”. Carine (2005, p. 495) says that “they give information about conceptions of the world considered by linguistic communities”. According to McMordie (1983, p.4) “we can say that an idiom is a number of words which [when they are] taken together, mean something different from the individual words of the idiom when they stand alone”. Moreover, Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 246) believe that an idiom is “an expression which functions as a single unite whose meaning cannot be worked out from its separate parts”.

On the other hand, Moon (1998, p. 3) states that idioms is “an ambiguous term, used in conflicting ways. In lay or general use, idiom has two main meanings. First, idiom is a particular means of expressing something in language, music, art, and so on, which characterizes a person or group; secondly, an idiom is a particular lexical collocation or phrasal lexeme, peculiar to a language”. Jackson (1988, p. 106) states that idioms have “non literal, metaphorical meanin”. Besides, Baker (1992, p. 63) says that “... idioms and fixed expressions are at the extreme end of the scale from collocations in one or both of these areas: flexibility of patterning and transparency of meaning. They are frozen parts of languages which allow little or no variations in form and, in the case of idioms, often carry meanings which cannot be deduced from their individual components”.

Moreover Jackson and Amvela (2001, p. 665) define idiom as “a phrase the meaning of which can be predicted from the individual meanings of the morphemes it comprises”. Therefore, the meaning of the idioms can be understood if the whole expression is considered as a unit. While Carter (1998, p.66) classifies idioms as a form of fixed expression that consists of stock phrases, proverbs, catchphrases, allusions, idiomatic similes, and discursal expressions as well. Also Makkai (1972, p. 122) believes that idioms are multiword expressions that their meaning cannot be predicted from their constituents.

2.2 Colours and Meaning:

Recent studies have shown that colors have effect on people and even society, and especially when people don't see them. Ceratto (2012, p.4) states that “neuropsychologist Kurt Goldstein confirmed in his classic, *The Organism*, that a blindfolded person will experience physiological reactions under rays of different colors”. In other words, the skin is capable of reading the colors, and even bodies, minds, and emotions respond to each colour. Moreover, Ceratto says that human pineal gland is attached to human brain which has the ability to manage the daily rhythms of life. When lights and colours enter through the eyes and skin, it travels along neurological pathways to this pineal gland. Thus, colors give off wavelength frequencies, and these different frequencies have effects on human beings.

Kress and Leeuwen (2006, p. 229) colour is primarily related to affect. Moreover, they add that “again colour is also used to convey interpersonal meaning” and “it can be and is used to do things to or for each other”.

To Xing (2009, p. 229) each colour has three types of meaning which are: First: Original meaning: is the etymological meaning of the colour. Second: Extended meaning: is the meaning that is extended from the original meaning through metaphor or other cognitive means, and third: Abstract meaning: is the meaning that refers to the meaning that has been further abstracted from the extended meaning.

2.3. Context:

Bortoli and Maroto (2001, p. 4) state that “A single colour can have different meanings in different cultures”. So colours may have different perception in the various cultures. In Asia orange colour has a positive perception which is the colour of spiritually enlightening and life-affirming, while in US orange is a colour of road hazards, traffic delays, and fast-food restaurants as well.

Colours distinguish between fun and serious, young and old, male and female, happiness and sadness, and etc. Bortoli and Maroto believe that “context is everything...”. Moreover, colours have different traditional meanings, they associate with birth, weddings, funerals, prisons, and even the companies use colours to symbolize their products, for instance red is regarded as the symbol of coca-cola, and Yellow is the colour for MacDonald's.

2.4 Colour Idioms:

There are some difficulties that are very hard to overcome with translating the idioms in general, and especially with colour idioms, since colour idioms show rareness of the language and the culture that they originated in. It is certain that translating colour idioms are quite difficult and especially of the translator is not well aware of both the source and the target language and culture. Setting a scene for this discussion, it is better to consider the idiom “black-faced” which assigns fury or being cheated in English, while it means shame and dishonor in Kurdish. So, this example may be a serious shortcoming for the translators if they are not attentive of the differences that each colour brings about.

2.5 Meaning of the colours in English and Kurdish

Colours are problematic in translation because they signify symbols. Generally, their meanings and their uses as symbols are different from one culture to another. This means that colour perception will also vary. Some uses of colour which are symbolic are regarded as universal such as the colour “red” which means “stop” in the traffic lights, and it is also a universal symbol of blood, but still there cases in which colour “red” has different perception. Therefore, the meaning of colour idioms will vary according to the perception and the culture in question. Each colour in Kurdish may be interpreted in a way that is quite different from the way it is interpreted in English.

As it is mentioned earlier, context is very significant therefore the meaning of colours determined by the context. The same fact is applicable for the colour idioms; hence their meaning is determined by the context they are used in.

Colour idiom may have two meaning. One is the “denotative meaning” dictionary meaning while the other meaning is the connotative meaning which is the additional meaning rather than the dictionary meaning, that is the emotions and associations connected to the colour idioms.

To Berlin and Kay (1969, p. 4), black and white are regarded as the most basic colour term that is occurring in the languages before the other colour terms.

White is the colour that refers to purity, cleanliness, holiness in many societies. White colour indicates light, and its abstract positive meaning is a good day. An example for this is that the brides wear white gowns, and the doctors wear white coat as well. Similarly, white is seen as positively Kurdish. It is associated with purity, innocence, and harmless, and cleanliness. Nowadays among the Kurdish people, the brides wear white wedding dress. Kurdish people say “روو سپی بیت” which means “to be honest, guilt-free, sinless, virtuous, and moral”. “درۆی سپی” is also used in Kurdish which means “White Lie”. Moreover, “سپى ههنگهرايو” which means “turned white” because of sickness or fear.

American colour specialist Eiseman (2009, p. 1) states that black colour grants a sense of weight and strength; and it gives things a solid feel. Moreover, (as cited in Azmi and Mehawez, 2013, p. 110) Eiseman adds “[...] spatially, blackness implies vast emptiness and a more foreboding perception of infinity than blue skies depict because black is authoritative and powerful; black can evoke strong emotions, too much can be overwhelming”. Black can make one feel unremarkable. It indicates power, sexuality, sophistication, formality, elegance, wealth, mystery, depth, and style. As it has negative associations like sadness, sorrow, anger, fear, wickedness, mystery, and unhappiness.

In western culture, black represents mourning and death, and in Kurdish culture it also represents death and mourning. In Kurdish, “دهست پيس” which means “black-handed” has two meaning. The literal meaning refers to someone whose hands are dirty, while the idiomatic meaning refers to someone who is stealing from others or a thief. Moreover, sometimes black colour refers to depression, pessimism, and hatred. As Allan (2009, p. 627) states, black colour is associated with funeral and other things that concern death. In Kurdish society, black colour indicates negative or unfavorable meanings or things. For example, “رۆژى رهش” which means “Black day” which is a day that has a bad ending or a day in which something bad happens. “ههناو رهش” which means “Black-hearted” and indicates someone who is full of hatred and wickedness.

To Eiseman (as cited in Azmi and Mehawez, 2013, p. 111) after white and black, red is the most common repeated colours. It symbolizes excitement and emotion positively and negatively. Blood is the most common association of blood and as Smith (2009, p.1) states, red colour also holds its place in our society as well. Red has positive indication like love, excitement, and enthusiasm. It also has some negative indications like anger, and embarrassment. Red has positive connotations in Kurdish “روو”

سوور ببيت that literally means which means “to pray for someone to be praised, honored, and pleased”. While "سوور ههنگهرا" which means “His face turned red” and that’s either because of anger or shyness.

In Kurdish, green colour is regarded as the colour of nature, peace, and growth. The colour holds the meaning or refreshing, health, and holiness, and religiousness. While Blue is the colour that’s related to sky and oceans. It is perceived as the colour that calms, and cools peoples’ lives. James (as cited in Azmi and Mehawez, 2013, p. 111) states that light blue is the colour of cleanliness. In English, colour blue has positive connotations. While in Kurdish it has positive and negative connotations as well. “دهم و چاوى شين” “His face turned blue” that is after he was beaten; there were bruises on his face. "شين ههنگهرا ابوو" which means “ was blue in face” due to the lack of oxygen or feeling cold.

3. Methodology

This paper aims at investigating colours perceptions of Kurdish students at University of Sulaimaniyah in the department of translation, and to know to what extent their perception toward the colours affects their translation of colour idioms. Therefore, the paper tries to answer the following questions.

1. What are the students’ perceptions toward each colours, how they see the colours or what each colour means to them?
2. Do the students’ perceptions toward the colours affect their translation of the colour idioms?

The research analysis is planned in two parts. Part one is to know the students’ perceptions toward the colours; therefore the students were asked to show their perceptions, feelings and emotions towards each colour. The second part of the test includes a set of sentences including colour idioms as a (ST) to be translated by the students into the target text (TT) which is from English into Kurdish.

Depending on those tests, data are collected and analyzed to find appropriate answers to the above research questions. 26 students were participated to do the task which is based on translating 40 colour idiomatic expressions from English into Kurdish. Each one of the items contains a colour idiom. The colours included are black, blue, brown, gold, green, grey, indigo, orange, pink, purple, red, silver, white, yellow, and off colour. All the participants are Kurdish students that are studying B.A. Translation at the Department of Translation, University of Sulamianiyah.

Thus the researcher designed a test which includes 40 statements. Each statement includes a colour idiom within its exact contextual meaning. The colour idioms were selected based on their connotations in the source language culture, and each idiom is selected according to its usage in English language. Moreover, the students were given no tools of translation, so they depended on their linguistic and cultural knowledge to translate the statements. In the data analysis and discussions the colour perception and the translation of the colour idioms were shown and discussed.

4. Data Analysis and Discussion:

Part A: The following table shows students translation of the colour idioms from English into Kurdish.

Table No. (1)

Students’ Translation of the Colour-Idioms

No.	Idioms related to Colours	Answers	
		Acceptable	Unacceptable

1	Black	% 73	% 27
2	Blue	% 61	% 39
3	Brown	% 60.5	% 39.5
4	Golden	% 53.5	% 46.5
5	Green	% 78.5	% 21.5
6	Grey	% 48.5	% 51.5
7	Pink	% 79.5	% 20.5
8	Purple	% 18	% 82
9	Red	% 50.5	% 49.5
10	Silver	% 43.5	% 56.5
11	White	% 41.5	% 58.5
12	Yellow	% 61	% 39

Part B: The following shows how colour perception affects students' translation colour-idioms, the percentage of the following table is from the unacceptable translation of the idioms in the table above, which show how the students affected by the perceptions they have towards each colour while they were translating the colour idioms:

table
of the
taken
colour-

Table No. (2)

How colour perceptions affect the students' translation of Colour-idioms

Black 27 %	
Hatred	7
Pessimism	8
death	7
Envy	5
Blue 30 %	
Calming	7.5
attention	5
Freshness	6
Optimism	6.5
Health	6.5
Softness	6
Nil	1.5
Brown 39.5 %	
Hunger	7

jealousy	5
Cowardice	5
Warmth	7
Pessimism	5
Arrogant	6
Sophistication	4.5
Gold 46.5 %	
Wealth	15
Mystery	6
Confidence	4
Happiness	4
Health	4
Youthfulness	4
Creative	9.5
Green 21.5 %	
Freshness	5.5
Naturalness	16
Grey 51.5 %	
Bold	4
Mystery	7.5
Envy	6.5
Cowardice	9
Disobedience	6.5
Arrogant	5.5
Sympathetic	5.5
Sophistication	5.5
Nil	1.5
Pink 20.5 %	
Childish	7.5
Softness	12
Happiness	2

Purple 82 %	
Girlish	13
Creative	6.5
Arrogant	8
Attraction	6.5
Sickness	5.5
happiness	5
confidence	4
Anger	3
Hunger	4
Love	3
Youthfulness	3
Nil	20.5
Red 49.5 %	
Love	18
Anger	15
warmth	7.5
evil	3
Power	3
Lust	3
Silver 56.5 %	
Power	13.5
Balance	6
freshness	5
Attraction	7
Hatred	8.5
Girlish	6
Softness	4.5
Confidence	4.5
Nil	1.5
White 58.5 %	

Purity	14.5
Calming	6
Peace	11.5
Optimism	8
Fear	4
Health	4
Freshness	3
Youthfulness	3
Sympathetic	3
Nil	1.5
Yellow 39%	
Hunger	8
Cowardice	10.5
Fear	7
Sickness	13.5

5. Conclusions:

According to the literature review and data analysis mentioned above, the researcher reaches at the following conclusions:

1. The meanings of Colour Idioms are cultural bound
2. Both English and Kurdish people use and understand the meaning of colours differently.
3. It is clear that since there are cultural differences, and because of the lack of cultural knowledge and the lack of equivalence, the translation of idioms will be a difficult task to the students.
4. Based on the data analysis, in the process of translating the colour idioms, the students affected by their own perceptions toward the colours while they were translating the colour-idioms from English into Sorani- Kurdish.

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Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in the Cities of Koya and Rania (Comparative Study)

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ABSTRACT

The term job satisfaction refers to the attitude and feelings people have about their work, and it is a key necessary for success in the career. This study aimed to identify the level of Job satisfaction for kindergarten teachers, and compares the job satisfaction between Koya and Ranya cities, also discovering the job satisfaction for kindergarten teachers according to some variables. The descriptive and correlative approach was used. The sample of the research was composed of kindergarten teachers in both cities of Koya and Ranya and reached (642) teachers, (376) from Koya and (266) from Ranya. A questionnaire tool was prepared. The validity of the instrument was verified and the internal consistency of the instrument was verified too. The tool was found to be reliable using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient, where it reached 0.913. The tool was made up of (49) items divided into nine domains and a 5 point Likert scale. The results showed that in general, the sample was satisfied with their profession as kindergarten teachers. There were no differences between kindergarten teachers in Koya city compared to Ranya city, also there were no differences due to gender, age, marital status, years of service, besides there were no differences between teachers and teachers' assistance, between managers and assistants, or due to location (housing in the different administrative unit). However, there were differences between teachers in private kindergarten were more satisfied than teachers in government kindergartens. Finally, the researcher presented some recommendations and suggestions.

Keywords: Job, Satisfaction, Kindergarten, Teachers

1. Introduction

The organization seeks to achieve its objectives and carry out its activities through human efforts. Human represents the most important and most expensive elements of production in them, therefore, the imbalance that affects human as a result of work pressure or dissatisfaction or low level of loyalty is directly reflected on the performance of the individual, also, on the organization's performance, effectiveness and adaptability to changing environmental conditions and ensuring their survival and sustainability.

The subject of Job Satisfaction has received considerable attention from researchers in the fields of psychology and management, besides it is one of the most obscure issues of management, science because it is an emotional state related to the human resource that is difficult to understand, not to be measured objectively. Perhaps this uncertainty led to the emergence of hundreds of research and studies on this subject. Hoy & Miskel (1996, p. 252) believe that there is a general agreement that job satisfaction is an affective or emotional reaction to a job that

results from the employee's comparing actual outcomes to desired, expected, or deserved outcomes. (Salama, 1999) believes that The importance of job satisfaction lies in the fact that it is a subject that deals with the feelings of the individual about the work effects he performs and the physical environment surrounding him. Achieving a high level of job satisfaction is important for the organization due to its obvious effects on the level of ambition and productivity, the rate of absence, and the behavior of the individual towards his work and organization.

As Qublan (1981, p.18) states that job satisfaction is an important subject in psychology because of its association with human needs and its role in raising the level of production, quantity, and type.

In the view of some researchers Friedman, and Barnaville 1985, Omran 1988, Kamel, and Al-Bakri, 1990 that job satisfaction is the condition that coincides with the attainment of the individual's purpose and satisfaction of the needs and desires required by the interaction between the personal factors of the individual itself, factors of the nature of the work itself, and factors associated with the work environment and environment (Majali, 1999).

Whether job satisfaction in whole or in part touches certain aspects of the teacher, things are It is recognized that success of any kind of work requires a high degree of satisfaction with this work, especially in the field of education, and confirms the results of some studies conducted by Agyris Bhella Finding that the most satisfied employees tend to achieve high levels of productivity, and are expected to work more effectively (Alnaji, 1993, 29), therefore the loyalty of individuals working in the institution and their satisfaction with work makes the individual move in the limits and scope of that satisfaction with the tasks and functions assigned to him and reflect the levels of performance in accordance with the degrees of satisfaction.

The definition of (William & Others, 1985, 37): "Job satisfaction is the difference between what an individual expects from his work and what he actually finds" (William & Others, 1985, 37).

In Herzberg (1995), job satisfaction "is in the good and bad feelings of the individual that he feels with the driving factors and the health factors, that is good work experiences, and not good" (Al-Adaily, 1985, 35).

Is the psychological feeling of satisfaction, satisfaction or happiness to satisfy the needs and desires and expectations with the work itself and the content of the work environment and with confidence and loyalty and belonging to work (Abdel-Baqi, 2000, 130)

(Hoppock) One of the first researchers in job satisfaction defines it as a combination of psychological, functional and environmental factors that make an employee happy with his work (Al-Azraq, 2000, 1).

Job satisfaction definitions have taken different directions, making the agreement on one definition an issue Difficult due to the different outlook for job satisfaction due to different circumstances, environment, and values Beliefs and the nature of the trend, which is sometimes based on the personal nature of the employee, and sometimes on the Environmental position of work.

Therefore, the researcher defines job satisfaction as: It is the psychological state or emotional well-being that The employee reaches her, at a certain degree of satisfaction, that occurs to him because of exposure to a group of Psychological, social, professional and material factors.

The job satisfaction of teacher is important because it is based on the ability to deal with children and how to accept all the expected cases during this interaction and the reflection of satisfaction

among the teachers on their relationship to all groups within and outside the kindergarten area from the child - parents - colleagues - the surrounding community looking to the self, besides the job satisfaction of the kindergarten staff is one of the most important factors affecting his/her gifts, so this study came to focus on the job satisfaction and its relation to some variables (demographic) at the teachers, where the researcher see that the subject of the study is gaining importance as it studies variables related to the teacher, especially since those variables have not been studied according to the knowledge of researchers before in the environment and specifically to the teacher in kindergarten affiliated to the Kurdistan Region of Iraq, especially in Koya and Ranya cities.

This has led researcher of this study to, therefore the researcher summarizes the statement of problem in this question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in the Cities of Koya and Rania at the same level?

2. Theoretical Background:

2.1. The theories of job satisfaction:

There are many theories that tried to explain the job satisfaction, and the following are some of them:

1. The theory of hierarchy of needs for Maslow (1943):
The American psychologist where arranged the human needs according to the pyramid depending on the following needs:
 - Basic physical needs
 - The need for security and security
 - The need for friendship, relationships and belonging
 - The need for respect, status and social status
 - Need for self-affirmation

These unsaturated needs are the determinants of one's behavior until they are fulfilled (Qublan, 1981: 8-6).

Maslow based his theory on three basic elements

- a. Different needs have an impact on the behavior of individuals This effect is generated by unsaturated needs, but saturated needs are not considered motivation.
- b. The needs of individuals arranged according to the importance and degree of saturation, starting with basic needs such as food and drink to the need for self-realization.
- c. The transition from one level to another according to the order provided by Maslow (Al-Adaily, 1995, 154). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs shown in the following figure:

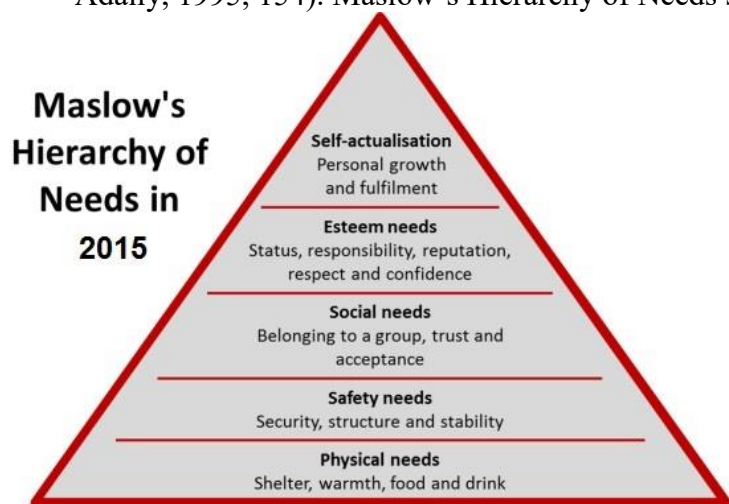


Figure 1. Maslow Model for Needs Distribution

Therefore, Maslow believes that these needs are pushing the individual to adopt a particular behavior as the way to satisfy its needs, as unsaturated needs are factors motivation for the individual, and non-response to needs for a relatively long time, lead to a negative behavioral reaction by the individuals, such as the abuse of moral qualities such as insults and material theft and other phenomena that are bad among the indicators of job dissatisfaction (Al-Adaily, 1995, 154).

2. The Adequate Equity Theory of Adams:

This theory is attributed to Adams appeared in 1963 and considers that justice and equality in treatment the individual in his or her career is the basic idea in his or her doing. Individuals want to receive treatment fairly compared to others, such fair treatment is the main determinant of an individual's efforts, performance, and satisfaction (Al-Adaily, 1995, 164). According to Badr (1983: 61), this theory assumes that the individual is driven to create a balance between the time, effort and experience he gives to the organization and between what he gets in the form of money, recognition, and relationship with others. Equivalent inputs are the persons who feel that they should be drawn with them.

3. The theory of scientific management:

developed by the pioneers Taylor (Feber) and (Fayer) and (Fayol), and interested in physical incentives as the only incentive for satisfaction of work, this theory tried to provide all the physical means that raise the efficiency of the worker, to make him perform his work perfectly and quickly, the administration can reach the required satisfaction, but now this theory is ignored, because of the human aspect, it is concerned only with material motives (Manceil, 1993, 3758)

4. Locke's Value Theory:

This theory is presented to Locke, and aims at the satisfaction of the job satisfaction, a pleasant emotional state resulting from the employee's recognition that his job allows him to achieve the exercise of important functional values in his conception, provided that these values are consistent with his needs (Harbi, 1994: 27).

5. Vroom expectancy motivation theory:

Vroom sees that the satisfaction process occurs as a result of the employee's comparison between the expected returns of his behavior and the personal benefit that he actually achieves. After this comparison, the employee makes a choice between several alternatives to choose a particular activity that achieves the expected return to match the benefit already earned , And this benefit includes both material and moral aspects together, and this theory assumes in its interpretation of job satisfaction that the individual trying to get the returns while doing something, and depends on the satisfaction of work, the extent of the returns of the work obtained with what he thinks he deserves (Tharrington, 1993, 2198).

2.2.Methods of measuring job satisfaction:

The researchers followed several methods to measure job satisfaction and to gauge employee satisfaction, like:

1936 Hoboken which used (interview), 1939 - Rothesber and Dixon which used (direct

observation), 1946 The British Opinion Institute conducted a survey, 1960 Porter developed a method of measuring job satisfaction that links the mental conditions of the employee to ideal conditions (Salam, 1997, p. 52), In Arabic Studies, Youssef Mohamed Qublan used the short version of the Minnesota Questionnaire (Qublan 1981, p. 68), Ali Askar used a special questionnaire (Askar, 1988, 7-59), Shukri Sayed Ahmed used a special form (Ahmed 1991, pp. 279-325)

2.3. Job satisfaction factors:

Keith (1994: 35) identifies six important factors for job satisfaction as reported in the monthly.

- The adequacy of direct supervision
- Satisfaction with the work itself
- Integration with colleagues at work
- Providing the goal in the organization
- The justice of economic rewards
- Health, physical and mental state

Whilst (Al-Salem 1997, pp. 79-82) Saied: The factors that indicate job satisfaction vary according to the studies that address these factors, for example; Farsouni: refers to the factors (same working relationships, gender, age, professional groups, duration of work in the practice of profession, level of supervision, professional commitment to recognize the academic status of the employee impact of the environment incentives role of human relations).

2.4. Types of satisfaction with work

1. Overall satisfaction:

Represents employee satisfaction on all aspects and components of work, and here the employee has arrived to the maximum degree of satisfaction with his work, but not necessary to be available in this work all the elements of satisfaction mentioned above, because this depends on the nature of the employee himself, it is perhaps all of these elements are not considered important and therefore only the staff member can determine those Items that you agree with.

2 - Partial satisfaction:

Emotional feeling of the individual about some parts and components of the work. Here the employee has reached sufficient degree of satisfaction with some aspects of the work and is satisfied or perhaps still Discontent exists but still performs its work. (Kamel & Bakri, 1990, 78-91)

2.5. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Study of Davis (1982) showed that five variables contributed to the overall job satisfaction of the teacher of physical education. These variables are Morale of teachers, professional responsibility, leadership behavior of the school principal, climate of responsibility, years of experience. Wages, age, gender, and degree of responsibility at work did not constitute predictive factors for general satisfaction among respondents (Davis, 1982, 5055), whilst The Liacqu & Schumacher study (1995) focused on the analysis of the factors affecting job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of faculty members in postgraduate studies using the Herzberg (1966) division of workers' theory, the results of the study have found that the factors

Satisfaction with work or so-called driving factors was a sense of achievement and growth opportunities, And appreciation of others. He noted that the satisfaction of these needs and the services required by the organization for workers Where they lead to a high degree of satisfaction with work and improved performance Their presence to dissatisfaction (health factors) is linked to wages, organization policy, and supervision (Artistic, interpersonal relations, working conditions, relationship with superiors, and social status) (Liacqu & Schumacher, 1995, 8-49). In the other hand (Ssesanga, 2005) found that the analysis recorded the most influential factors in satisfaction are all that is related to behavior Co-workers, supervision, and aspects of real and substantive education, as the motivation to create a lack satisfaction was the most external factors such as rewards, control, research, promotion and environment work, age, and academic grade were also found to have implications for job satisfaction, while there was no indication of the effect of gender on job satisfaction (Ssesanga, 2005, 33-56). Further Statistical analysis by (Oliver, 2007, 1-2) revealed a significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of the characteristics of the teams in their schools and their expressed job satisfaction. The results of the study indicate that maintenance of a collaborative culture in which educators engage in focused and purposeful activities dealing with instruction, assessment, and professional development is essential in motivating teachers to perform above and beyond their current level. The study concluded that the attributes of teaming can impact teachers' attitudes toward their jobs and their motivation to improve performance. (Oliver, 2007, 1-2).

A study of the National Association for Education in the United States of America 1928 on job satisfaction, which included 5603 teachers and schools showing that married women are more satisfied than unmarried. Single teachers are more satisfied than married, the first stage teacher is more satisfied than the secondary school (Al-Adaily, 1985, p. 69). (Al-Mir, 1995, 207-252) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and social status, and was positive, especially for those from Western countries (Al-Mir, 1995, 207-252).

Several studies have confirmed a relationship between job satisfaction and age. Including the study of Askar (1988) where she confirmed that the variable of age plays a positive role in job satisfaction (Askar, 1988, 7-59). The researcher also finds the same result in the study of the Al-Namr (1993, 63-106), which was confirmed a positive relationship between the variable age and job satisfaction. The study of (Al-Namr, 1993) shows that there is a fundamental relationship between job satisfaction and age. As the age of an individual increase, his experience and knowledge increase, and he becomes more objective in his view of things and thus more satisfied with his work (Al-Namr, 1993, 63-109). But Hakim's study (Hakim, 1995, 93-155) did not reveal any correlation between job satisfaction and age in a study conducted to determine the effect of career incentives and job satisfaction on faculty members in teacher colleges (Hakim, 1995, 93-155).

In the other hand, several previous studies also found that there is a positive relationship between the monthly salary of the employee and job satisfaction, including the study of Baqazi (1986), Al-Adaily (1985), Badr (1983).

As for the relationship between managerial levels and job satisfaction, (Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra & Smith, 1998, 465-470) reveal increased job satisfaction with higher levels of employment for the individual. Senior management is more satisfied with their work than those in lower-level occupations (Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra & Smith, 1998, 465-470).

In the other hand, several studies confirm that there is an effect on the number of years of service at the level of job satisfaction such as Al-Babtain's study (1989), Al-Qahtani (2001).

Herzberg (1966) described a two-factor theory concerning teacher job satisfaction. Achievement, recognition, the work itself, and the intrinsic interest of the job were motivators which lead to increased job satisfaction. On the other hand, working conditions, pay, job security, policy, administration, and relationships with peers were hygiene which led to decreased job satisfaction. Herzberg referred to motivators as intrinsic factors and hygiene as extrinsic factors.

(Al-Namr, 1993) had the opposite effect of the previous study. Job satisfaction was found to be high among those with lower qualifications in the public sector due to high expectations and willingness to participate in the decision-making that the highly qualified people aspired to, leading to higher expectations and low satisfaction if all this is not achieved (Al-Namr, 1993, 63-109).

3. METHODOLOGY

In this study, the descriptive and correlative methodology were used because of it is commensurate with the nature of this research.

3.1 PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY:

- a) To know the levels of Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in the Cities of Koya and Ranya.
- b) Compares the job satisfaction between Koya and Ranya cities.
- c) To identify the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction according to some variables (Gender, Types of kindergarten, marital status, years of service, Profession (teachers and teachers' assistance), Administrative position (managers and manager's assistants), Location (housing in the different administrative units), age).

3.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

1. What are the levels of Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya?
2. Are Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya at the same level?
3. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Gender?
4. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Types of kindergarten (private or government)?
5. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of marital status (Married, Single, Divorced, Widowed)?
6. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of years of service?
7. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Profession (teachers and teachers' assistance)?
8. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Administrative position (managers and manager's assistants)?
9. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Location (housing in the different administrative units: governorate, district, township, village)?
10. Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of age?

11. Are Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction at the nine domains of the Instrument reach the satisfied level?

3.3. SAMPLE SIZE

The sample of the research was composed of kindergarten teachers in both cities of Koya and Ranya and reached (642) teachers, (376) from Koya and (266) from Ranya. as it is summarized in Table 1, the sample was voluntary selected.

Table 1: The sample size of the study

Cities	The number taken	Percentage
Koya	376	58.57 %
Ranya	266	41.43 %
Total	642	100 %

3.4. **RESEARCH INSTRUMENT:** The Instrument was developed based on the following steps:

1. The researcher reviewed the established literature.
2. Depending on the steps No. (1), 49 items were formulated by modifying, changing and adding the items to be relevant to the Instrument divided into nine domains which was (Relationship with work colleagues (4 items), Relationship to the Manager (5 items), Relate to the needs of the teacher and prepare them professionally (10 items), Relationship with children's relatives (5 items), Relationship with children (5 items), kindergarten Building; tools and instruments (5 items), Self-satisfaction (5 items), Economical level (5 items), Social level (5 items)).
3. Then he set the Likert scale to answer the scales and give weights to each option as shown in the following diagram:

The choices and values given

I am very satisfied	I am satisfied	I don't know	I am dissatisfied	I am very dissatisfied
5	4	3	2	1

Figure 2. Likert scale

3.5 VALIDITY AND THE RELIABILITY

3.5.1. **VIRTUAL VALIDITY**

The Instrument was validated by specialists and experts; he recommended making corrections in terms of content, expression, and formulation, to find the apparent truthfulness of the instruments, this is achieved by taking a percentage of agreement between the experts by reaching (80%) and above. The final questionnaire consists of (49) items.

3.5.2. **VALIDITY of INTERNAL CONSISTENCY**

In order to find validity of internal consistency, the researchers depended on the statistical program (SPSS) to find out a correlation coefficient (Spearman) between the items and the scale as a whole, also to find a correlation between the items and their fields, and to find a correlation between the fields with the scale. The results showed that all the items were correlated to their fields also to the scale and the fields correlated to the scale strongly and they were statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Table 2; is showing only the correlation between the dimensions (fields) with the scale.

Table 2: Spearman correlation between the Dimensions with the scale

Dimensions	Spearman Correlation	Sig.
First	.590 **	.000
Second	.474 **	.000
Third	.758 **	.000
Fourth	.630 **	.000
Fifth	.628 **	.000
Sixth	.619 **	.000
Seventh	.647 **	.000
Eighth	.515 **	.000
Ninth	.647 **	.000

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

3.5.3. **RELIABILITY**

By using the Cronbach's Alpha, the reliability for the 49 items was established at 0.913. According to Duran (1985, p.133) this is an appropriate proportion of measurement for individuals, see Table 3.

Table 3. Cronbach's Alpha

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.913	49

3.6. DETERMINE THE TEST VALUE (HYPOTHESIZED MEAN):

The researcher Determine the Test Value (hypothesized mean) according to the following equation (1) below:

$$\text{Test Value (hypothesized mean)} = \frac{\text{Total weights of alternatives} \times \text{No. of total items}}{\text{No. of alternatives}} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Test Value (hypothesized mean)} = \frac{(5+4+3+2+1) \times 49}{5} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Test Value (hypothesized mean)} = 147 \quad (3)$$

3.7. STATISTICAL PROCESSING

For the data analysis; SPSS technique was applied in this study, which was the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, Cronbach's Alpha, One Sample t-Test, Independent Samples t-Test, One-Way ANOVA, and Equal Variances Assumed: Scheffe.

3.8. RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND DATA ANALYSIS

After checking the validity and the reliability of the scale, the scale was applied to the research sample, the data was then entered into the SPSS program to obtain the search results.

4. FINDINGS

- 1- To answer the first research question: What are the levels of Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya? By using One Sample T-Test equation of the SPSS statistical package, after finding the Test Value (hypothesized mean) of the questionnaire (147), it was found that the arithmetic mean of the sample was (190.25) with a standard deviation of (26.3) and a degree of freedom (641) The value of (t) (41.662) was statistically significant at the level of (0.01). Kindly note Table 4.

Table 4: One Sample T-Test

N	hypothesized mean	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
642	147	190.25	26.3	41.662	641	.000*

* statistically significant at 0.01.

In order to determine the location of the arithmetic mean of the research sample on the scale of options versus the items, the researcher divide the arithmetic mean of the sample of the research on the number of the items of the instrument (190.25 / 49), the researcher get (3.88), therefore, the researcher can identify the level of Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya by comparing the arithmetic mean of the sample with the following chart (1):

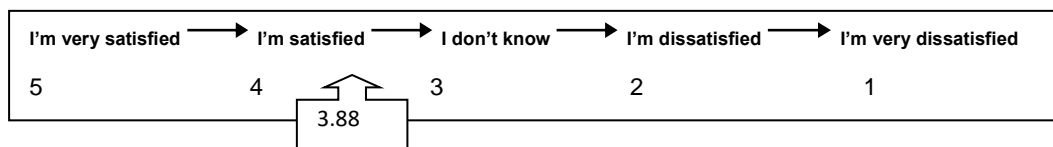


Chart 1. Determine the location of the arithmetic mean of the research sample

As shown in the above chart, Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya is at a satisfied level.

- 2- In answering the second research question: Are Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya at the same level? This research question was tested by using Independent Samples T-Test technique, by finding the mean of Koya city which was 191.75, whilst the standard deviation was 28.5, the mean of the Ranya city was 188.12, whilst the standard deviation was 22.69, the degree of freedom was 640, the value of (t) was 1.722, which was non statistically significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Independent Samples T-Test for Cities

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed
						0.05

Koya	376	191.75	28.5	1.722	640	.086
Ranya	266	188.12	22.69			

As shown in the above table, the mean difference between Koya and Ranya Kindergarten Teachers according to their Job Satisfaction is (3.62) in favor of Koya city, but the difference is not statistically significant, therefore there were no differences between kindergarten teachers in Koya city compared to Ranya city.

- 3- In answering the third research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Gender? This research question was tested by using Independent Samples T-Test technique, by finding the mean of Female which was 190.47, whilst the standard deviation was 26.18, the mean of the Male was 186.35, whilst the standard deviation was 28.53, the degree of freedom was 640, the value of (t) was .900, which was not statistically significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 6:

Table 6: Independent Samples T-Test for Gender

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed 0.05
Female	607	190.47	26.18	.900	640	.368
Male	35	186.35	28.53			

As shown in the above table, the mean difference between Female and Male Kindergarten Teachers according to their Job Satisfaction is (4.12) in favor of Female, but the difference is not statistically significant, that is mean there were no differences between male and female in their Job Satisfaction.

- 4- In answering the fourth research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Types of kindergarten (private or government)? This research question was tested by using Independent Samples t-Test technique, by finding the mean of government kindergarten which was 187.79, whilst the standard deviation was 31.32, the mean of the private kindergarten was 197.03, whilst the standard deviation was 23.4, the degree of freedom was 372, the value of (t) was 3.129, which was statistically significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 7:

Table 7: Independent Samples t-Test for Types of kindergarten

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed 0.05

government	215 ¹	187.79	31.32	3.129	372	.002
private	159	197.03	23.4			

¹ The statistical program accounted for 374 of the sample, and the rest is counted as missing data due to a lack of answers in this field.

As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Types of kindergarten (private or government), that is mean there were differences between government kindergarten and private kindergarten in their Job Satisfaction in favor of private kindergarten.

- 5- In answering the fifth research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of marital status? This research question was tested by using ANOVA, the value of (F) was .648, which was statistically not significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: ANOVA According to categories of marital status

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1347.2	3	449.08	.648	.584
Within Groups	442077.8	638	692.9		
Total	443425.07	641			

As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of marital status (Married, Single, Divorced, Widowed).

- 6- In answering the sixth research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of years of service? This research question was tested by using ANOVA, the value of (F) was 1.242, which was statistically not significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9: ANOVA According to categories of years of service

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6853.47	8	856.68	1.242	.272
Within Groups	636571.6	633	689.68		

Total	443425.07	641
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As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of years of service.

- 7- In answering the seventh research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Profession (teachers and teachers' assistance)? This research question was tested by using Independent Samples t-Test technique, by finding the mean of teachers which was 189.55, whilst the standard deviation was 25.46, the mean of the teachers' assistance was 192.69, whilst the standard deviation was 31.01, the degree of freedom was 628, the value of (t) was 1.109, which was not statistically significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 10:

Table 10: Independent Samples t-Test for Profession

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed
teachers	525	189.55	25.46	1.109	628	.268
teachers' assistance	105	192.69	31.01			

As shown in the above table, the mean difference between teachers and teachers' assistance according to their Job Satisfaction is (3.14) in favor of teachers' assistance, but the difference is not statistically significant, that is mean there were no differences between teachers and teachers' assistance in their Job Satisfaction.

- 8- In answering the eighth research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Administrative position (managers and manager's assistants)? This research question was tested by using Independent Samples t-Test technique, by finding the mean of managers which was 190.14, whilst the standard deviation was 33.43, the mean of the manager's assistants was 176.87, whilst the standard deviation was 29.17, the degree of freedom was 83, the value of (t) was 1.858, which was not statistically significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 11:

Table 11: Independent Samples t-Test for Administrative position

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed
managers	83	190.14	33.43	1.858	83	.068
manager's assistants	83	176.87	29.17			

managers	53	190.14	33.43	1.858	83	.067
manager's assistants	32	176.87	29.17			

As shown in the above table, the mean difference between managers and manager's assistants according to their Job Satisfaction is (13.27) in favor of managers, but the difference is not statistically significant, that is mean there were no differences between managers and manager's assistants in their Job Satisfaction.

- 9- In answering the ninth research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Location (housing in the different administrative units)? This research question was tested by using ANOVA, the value of (F) was .863, which was statistically no significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 12.

Table 12: ANOVA According to categories of Location

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	179.4	3	597.14	.863	.460
Within Groups	441633.6	638	692.22		
Total	443425.07	641			

As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of Location (housing in the different administrative units: governorate, district, township, village).

- 10- In answering the tenth research question: Are the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of age? This research question was tested by using ANOVA, the value of (F) was .968, which was statistically no significant at the level 0.05, as shown in Table 13.

Table 13: ANOVA According to categories of age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6027.99	9	669.78	.968	.466

Within Groups	437397.06	632	692.08
Total	443425.07	641	

As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of age.

11- In answering the tenth research question: Are Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction for the nine domains of the Instrument reach the satisfied level? By using One Sample T-Test equation of the SPSS statistical package, after finding the Test Value (hypothesized mean) of the domains, it was found that the arithmetic mean of the sample was (190.25) with a standard deviation of (26.3) and a degree of freedom (641) The value of (t) (41.662) was statistically significant at the level of (0.01). Kindly note Table

Table 14: One Sample T-Test for the nine domains of the Instrument

Domain	N	hypothesized mean	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	642	12	17.52	2.91	47.95	641	.000*
2	642	15	21.98	3.49	50.61	641	.000*
3	642	30	39.29	7.19	32.69	641	.000*
4	642	15	19.44	3.73	30.14	641	.000*
5	642	15	21.01	3.39	44.85	641	.000*
6	642	15	16.47	5.70	6.54	641	.000*
7	642	15	20.55	3.97	35.39	641	.000*
8	642	15	13.64	5.68	6.07	641	.000*
9	642	15	20.34	4.67	28.98	641	.000*

* statistically significant at 0.01.

As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction for the nine domains of the Instrument reach the satisfied level, that is mean they are satisfied in their Relationship with work colleagues, Relationship to the Manager, relate to their needs like a teacher and prepare them professionally, Relationship with children's relatives, Relationship with children, kindergarten Building; tools and instruments, Self-satisfaction, Economical level, Social level.

5. Discussions and Conclusions

By reviewing the results of this research, the following conclusions can be drawn about the current research results and analysed as follows:

- 1- Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction in both Cities of Koya and Ranya is at a satisfied level. In the other hand, even Koya Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction was at the higher level comparing with Ranya Kindergarten Teachers, but the difference between them were not statistically significant. this may be due to both cities of Koya and Ranya are near each other, they similar in culture and social aspects.
- 2- The mean difference between Female and Male Kindergarten Teachers according to their Job Satisfaction in favor of Female, but the difference is not statistically significant, that is mean there were no differences between male and female in their Job Satisfaction, this finding is similar to (Ssesanga, 2005) which founds there was no indication of the effect of gender on job satisfaction.
- 3- The Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction changed according to categories of Types of kindergarten (private or government), that is mean there were differences between government kindergarten and private kindergarten in their Job Satisfaction in favor of private kindergarten, there was no similar researcher to compare with, the researcher concludes that maybe this finding is due to the reason that the salary in private kindergarten is higher than government kindergarten, and that maybe lead the teacher to feel more satisfied.
- 4- The Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of social status (Married, Single, Divorced, Widowed), this finding was opposite with a study of the National Association for Education in the United States of America 1928 on job satisfaction, which showing that married women are more satisfied than unmarried. Single teachers are more satisfied than married (Al-Adaily, 1985).
- 5- As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of years of service, this finding was opposite with several studies confirm that there is an effect on the number of years of service at the level of job satisfaction such as Al-Babtain's study (1989), Al-Qahtani (2001).
- 6- The mean difference between teachers and teachers' assistance according to their Job Satisfaction in favor of teachers' assistance, but the difference is not statistically significant, that is mean there were no differences between teachers and teachers' assistance in their Job Satisfaction, there was no similar researcher to compare with.
- 7- The mean difference between managers and manager's assistants according to their Job Satisfaction in favor of managers, but the difference is not statistically significant, that is mean there were no differences between managers and manager's assistants in their Job Satisfaction, there was no similar researcher to compare with.
- 8- The Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of Location (housing in the different administrative units: governorate, district, township, village), there was no similar researcher to compare with.

- 9- As shown in the above table, the Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction not changed according to categories of age, his finding was opposite with several studies which have confirmed a relationship between job satisfaction and age, including the study of Askar (1988) where she confirmed that the variable of age plays a positive role in job satisfaction (Askar, 1988), Al-Namr (1993), which was confirmed a positive relationship between the variable age and job satisfaction. But this finding is similar to Hakim's study (Hakim, 1995) which did not reveal any correlation between job satisfaction and age (Hakim, 1995, 93-155).
- 10- The Kindergarten Teachers' Job Satisfaction for the nine domains of the Instrument reach the satisfied level, that is mean they are satisfied in their Relationship with work colleagues, Relationship to the Manager, relate to their needs like a teacher and prepare them professionally, Relationship with children's relatives, Relationship with children, kindergarten Building; tools and instruments, Self-satisfaction, Economical level, Social level, there was no similar researcher to compare with.

6. Recommendations

Based on the results of this research, the researcher recommends that the officials of the Ministry of Education and the directorates of education draw their attention to and take into account the following points:

1. Increase interest in the teacher of the basic education stage, and encourage it with incentives or financial cadres, better because it is of great importance in raising the level of satisfaction with the profession, and strengthening the leading ways to redouble its efforts, in a way that would improve its performance in achieving the objectives of the process education at this educational stage, which forms the basis of any subsequent education.
2. The need to apply specific criteria for the selection of teachers and teachers of the basic education stage I the region of Kurdistan in republic of Iraq, especially If he learns that basic education is finished and open education channels simultaneously.
3. Opening courses by the directorates of education not less than six months to teach the teachers how they became satisfied in their Job.

7. SUGGESTIONS

1. Conduct a similar study taking into account a larger sample and comparison between several cities.
2. A study on the impact of the application of the teacher law on the level of job satisfaction, teaching profession teachers of the basic education stage in the Region of Kurdistan of Iraq.
3. A study on job satisfaction in teaching profession among teachers in secondary school teachers
4. A comparative study on the level of job satisfaction in their relationship with teaching profession of each teacher

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The Effect of Critical Comprehension Strategy on Enhancing Reading Skill of Iraqi EFL Preparatory School

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Abstract

The present study aims to find out the effect of critical comprehension strategy(henceforth CCS) on enhancing reading skill of Iraqi EFL preparatory school. To fulfill the purposes of this study, (56) fifth grade were chosen to be the sample of the present study. (28) students were enrolled in an experimental group that received instruction on critical comprehension strategy. The other (28) students were enrolled in a control group, which was taught reading by the use of the conventional way of teaching reading comprehension. The findings indicate that the experimental group performance in critical comprehension strategy has been found to be better than control group at the post-test. In End results obtained, it is recommended that critical comprehension strategy should be an integral part of reading instruction of EFL preparatory school.

1.0 Introduction

1.1 The Problem and its Significance

We reach to clear fact that the main aim for most specialist, and methodologist is to enable learners to master, even partly the main four skills. These skills help learners to inter the real life, real world in communicating with others (Mei-Yun,1989:13-16). Lyons (2003:2) states that learning to read is critical and has tremendous impact on pupils throughout life not only in social development but also on emotional side. Hence the first step to develop and build pupils character demands ability to read and read to expand their vision and thought about everything in life. Ellis (1990:175) clarify that both R and comprehension skills belong to mental process and the final aim of learner of EFL/ESL are comprehend what they read. Hence comprehension is considered the heart of learning operation (Al-Marsumi: viii). And that what Kaplan (2002:51) explains "the most central purpose for reading is comprehending the text". Therefore he states that the ability to read in second language is one of the most important basic skill people depend on it to a chive certain aims and purposes in life to develop to high level of proficiency (ibid:49).

The problem face, and touch it in our schools in our days that students can't reach to critical comprehension (henceforth CC) or comprehend what they read when they were practice reading. For this reason the goal of this study is enable students to comprehend critically what they read, developing their ability in reading depend on them self, filtering what they read according to

cognitive ability, and what have store in his long-short-memory by using CCS that include different elements such as: decoding, predicting, grasping, guessing, and summarizing.

Alderson (2000:15) emphasis a fact we do not know the reasons which prevent learners of English or any other foreign language from understanding a particular text properly. But Shaban (1985:26) states that learner of foreign language they are not familiar with the structure of unsimplified English words. Whereas Ismini (2003: 516) shows that written reading materials in English in particular and FL in general are considered difficult and this difficulty might be due to the limited vocabulary items, get idea of the text, and failure in RC the text.

1.2 Aims of the study

This study aims at finding out:

- 1- The effect of CCS on the pupils' reading skill.
- 2-The effect of the CCS on the enhancing of the pupils' reading skills.

1.3 Hypothesis of the study

This study hypothesis to:

- 1-There is no statistically significant differences between the main scores of EG. pupils whom are taught according to the CCS, and CG. Whom are taught according conventional method.
- 2-There is no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the EG. in pre-test and their scores mean in the post-test.

1.4 Limits of the study

This study is limited to:

- 1-The fifth scientific year pupils of the preparatory school.
- 2- Units (1,2,3, and 4) are selected from "English for Iraq" syllabus in the first semester of the study.
- 3-The academic year 2016-2017.

1.5 Value of the study

- 1-EFL college instructors.
- 2- Curriculum designers and planners.
- 3-Researchers who are looking for different strategies in teaching English linguistic skills.

1.6 Procedures

The present study tackles the underneath procedures:

1. The sample consists of the Fifth stage pupils of preporatory school.
2. The E and C groups are chosen on purpose to be the data of current study.
3. A pre-test is utilized to equalize the students' level in CCS in both groups.
4. The subjects of the EG. are exposed to the new suggested strategy, i.e. the CCS. Whereas CG taught according to the conventional strategy.
5. At the end of the experiment, a post-test is exposed to both groups to find out whether there is any statistically significant differences between groups in their CCS achievement.
6. Data collected are analyzed, and suitable statistical methods are used to calculate results.

7. Conclusions, recommendations and suggestions put at the end of the study.

1.7 Definitions

1.7.1 Comprehension

Comprehension "one of the basic linguistic skills, consisting of the ability to listen to and understand speech (aural comprehension) or to read and understand written language (visual comprehension)" (Hartmann and Stork, 1976:46).

The Operational Definition

Pupils manipulate information and then able to link information to their prior-back knowledge to perform full image.

1.7.2 Reading

Urquhart and Weir (1998:22) define reading as "the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print"

The Operational Definition

Firstly we want our pupils to love reading, and make them feels of benefit of it. Secondly to make them engage in practicing R not in class but also at home or whatever out place.

2.1 Theoretical Background

Goodman (1982c:63) defines reading as "a psycholinguistic process by which the reader, a language user, reconstruct, as best he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display". Furthermore, Kaplan (2002:51) states that when dealing with reading do not forget it mixing and combination of skills and abilities that pupils need and use them when they start read. One of these abilities are recognition of letters, words, phrases, and clauses, interpretation, and perception of written or printed material (Day and Bamford, 1998:194; Johnson and Morrow, 1981:204). In contrast Southgate, et al., (1981:22) view R as thoughtful process that requires the reader not only to understand what a writer is to convey, but to contribute his own experience, thought, facts and even feeling and emotions to the problem presented in text.

No one can deny that comprehension during reading is the most important goal of reading; it represent the essence of reading (Balota et al.,1990:xvii; Durkin ,1993:39-115). Therefore comprehension is complex activity, consuming, and continuous; in which the reader acting of understanding the meaning of printed or spoken language; depends on several elements as linguistic factors, such as phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic elements; also depend on vocabulary, background knowledge, skills, knowledge of text structure, and strategies to construct meaning (Duke and Pearson,2002:205-242; Wang, 1986:9; Hurts,2001: 692).

2.2 The Comprehension Strategies

Cohen (1998:70) points out that" the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process

In meantime Hasan (2015:1-18) explains that comprehension is a thinking, creative, and multifaceted process in which people engaged with the text so they need RC strategies which

indicate how readers understand a task, observe textual cues make sense of what they read and what they do when they do not understand. In this respect strategies divides to several parts, as cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, memory, affective, social, summarizing, retelling, and test-taking strategies (Robertson, et al., 2010 : 21).

2.3 Critical comprehension strategy

CCS depends on different factors like (decoding, predicting, guessing, grasping, and summarizing) in R lesson a reader uses them in order to achieve his aim which he can decide according to his CC ability in manipulating whether, what he is read to enable him emerge to find suitable answer or not. Also in critical side which is representing high level of coperhension includes several elements as "consciousness, noticing, attention, and creation" (Byrnes,1998: 232).

Therefore, CCS is a plan or technique used by students to get information they need from reading text or getting enough information to construct an effective report or essay, or building his own belifes or changing his opinions (Dymock and Nicholson, 2010:166).

However, in order to make CCS benefit there will be an interaction among the reader, the strategies employed, the material being read (Klapwijk,2015:1-10). The role of students at critical level read beyond the lines to make associations with other knowledge, practice to solve problems depend on several factors and to modify existing perception, also students emotionally and intellectually react and draw with the material (Verezub, et al., 2008:326-338). Therefore below factors that CCS depend on it.

2.3.1 Decoding

Decoding is "the process of going from code to message in information theory" (Paulston and Bruder, 1976:158). Al-Sulaimaan (2011:6) explains that human language is a huge code contains system of rules, these rules allow us to transmit information in symbolic form. So text presents alout of materials from letters, words, sentences and pragraphs that encode meaning. Therefore, the educational system requires students be able to decode meaning-lexical, structural, and cultural-from, graphic symbols. Urquhart and Weir (1998: 195) claim that the situation with FL or L2 readers is not the same. The readers sometimes face words that are both difficult to decode and are unfamiliar for them when compering to their native language system.

2.3.2 Predicting

This is another component that student, or learner depends on it in his dealing with text to comprehend what he read. Harmer (2007 :101); Brumfit, et al.,(1987:91); Day and Park (2005:6) state that when dealing with predicting the reader clearly brings his knowledge of the language and his knowledge of the world to bear, he builds up expectations, he makes predictions about what is to come; to determine what might happen next or after a story ends. Therefore predicting works on book covers, photographs, headline, content, etc. The moment we get these clues or keys our brain start formulating predicting what are going to read or what are going to find in reading (Harmer,2007:102).

2.3.3 Guessing

While, reading learners seem to 'guess' the meaning of unknown words from the context, this depends on many element and component the learner practice it in order to reach to "reconstruct" or 'derive' guessing. Therefore, a learner in his dealing and practicing with reading textbook will be able to guess the meaning of an unknown word from the surrounding context (Hayness,1993:46 ; Sternberg, 1987: 105; Huckin and Coady, 1999: 193). So guessing meaning from the context is possible as Twaddell (1988, 439) points out and proposes two conditions for this possibility: "First, students know something about the content of the reading or listening materials from their knowledge of first language reading. Secondly, they know how the meaning of the words they learn refers to parts of reality".

2.3.4 Grasping

Paulston and Bruder (1976:170) emphasize on reading situation when pupils need to use grasping they concentrate on the main consideration simply should be selected the key words necessary to grasp the main plot, main them or main idea whatever the frequency of the words in English.

Hence, grasping is understanding the main aspect of the passage in which the students look for specific thing such word or sentence presented in context depends on their cognitive ability and at the end arrive to comprehension about what is presented in paper (Gerllet,1981:62 ; Carrell and Joan Eisterhold, 1988:247).

2.3.5 Summarizing

Summarizing is changed from one learner to another, depending on his character, experience, knowledge about the writer, the text, the information he acquires, it's work by putting ideas together in your own styles, words and in a condensed form shows how reading critically can lead to deeper understanding of any text. Therefore, "when we summarize, we condense ideas, details, and supporting arguments in point form using our own words. It is suitable for recording facts, details, statistics, and background material" (Robertson and Smith,1987:41).

2.4 Models of Reading

2.4.1 Bottom-Up

The oldest model that used for longtime and is still working in our days. Goodman(1998:11) refers to the bottom-up model as the common sense notion in which reading is meant to be a process of decoding: identifying letters, words, phrases, and then sentences in order to get the meaning. In other hand Gough (1972: 54) proposes the systematical operation model of reading process describe the process in reading as proceeding in a serial fashion, from letters to sounds, to words, and then to meaning.

2.4.2 Top-Down

The main aim of this model is to make reader achieves his goal by using world knowledge and contextual information from the passages being read in making hypotheses about what will come next during reading. Hence, Crow (1979:96) emphasizes on the fact that comprehension first starts in the mind of the reader who already has some knowledge about the meaning of the text. Then he makes survey of the text through proceeding from the whole to the part. Therefore this model rejects the old idea of bottom-up model that letter and then word identification lead to meaningful and efficient reading instead," it assumes that effective reading requires readers to make predictions and hypotheses about the text content by relating new information to prior knowledge with use clues" (The Asian Conference, 2012: 148-168).

2.4.3 Interactive

According to Rumelhart (1977:730) who invented this model, "reading, is neither a bottom-up nor a top-down process, but a synthesis of the two". Donoghue (2009:170) states that the main objectives of this approach is to teach students strategies, and explain to them who can use it that will help them in future to develop into independent readers who can monitor their own thinking while reading and link prior knowledge to the new material in their text. The text contains a lot of information that comes close to it bring something to you and in contrast you bring something to the text (Lewis,1999:186).

3.0 Methodology

To achieve the aims, hypothesis of the study, an experiment is conducted. In other words, this chapter is devoted to the detailed explanation of the steps, and procedures followed, and conducted by the researcher in the experiment. And, also sheds light on the following points:

- 1- Experimental design.
- 2-Selection population, sample of the study.
- 3-Equalization between groups.
- 4-Validating test, ascertaining its reliability and analyzing its items.
- 5-Administrating the construct test, and
- 6-Manipulating the statistical procedures for the treatment of the researcher data.

3.1 The Experimental Design

Van (1962:230) mentions that the selection of a suitable experimental design for testing the deduced consequences of the research hypotheses is necessary for conducting a study. In the same sense Goodman (1973:174) shows that the experimental design is "the plan according to which experimental groups are selected, and experimental treatments are administered, and their effect is answered".

Concerning the current study, aims and hypotheses demand the use of Non-Randomized-Design. Consequently, two groups of fifth scientific preparatory pupils. Represent sample of current study as shown in table (3-1).

Table(3-1)

The Experimental Design

Group	The Test	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	The Test
Ex.	Pre-Test	Critical Comprehension strategy	Enhancing reading skill	Post-Test
Co.	Pre-Test	Traditional strategy	Enhancing reading skill	Post-Test

3.2 Population and Sample of the Study

3.2.1 The Population

The population can be define "any set of items, individuals, ...etc. that share some common and observable characteristics, and from which a sample can be taken. Thus, one can speak of comparing test scores a sample of a population of students". (Richards and Richard 2010:443; Webster,2003:966).

The population of the present study consists of EFL Iraqi preparatory pupils of fifth scientific grade for boys in the center of Tikrit city. The total number of fifth grade pupils' population is (210) as shown below:

Table(3-2) The Population

No.	preparatory schools	Number	No.	preparatory schools	number
1.	Aqbia Aben Nafia	41	4.	Khalid Iben Al-Waleed	40
2.	Al-Mutmeasen	28	5.	Al-Gmmea	15
3.	Al-Furqan	42	6.	Al-Toheed	44

3.2.2 The Sample:

Lehmann and Mehrens (1971:18) defines "the sample is a smaller number of elements selected from a population and is hopefully representative of that population".

The sample of this study consist of (56) pupils derived from fifth scientific grade chosen from the school Aqupia iben Nafias in Tkrit province. For this reason (28) pupils have been chosen to be the experimental group and (28) pupils have been chosen to be the control group.

Table (3-3) The Sample

Group	Number	Total
Ex.	28	56
Co.	28	

3.3 Equalization

Before implementing the experiment, the researcher made equivalence between the groups. Information was collected from the available archives stored in the schools. All the differences are tested at (0.05) level of significance using the t-test formula for two independent samples, and chi-square formula.

- Academic level of father and mother.
- Testees age.
- Testees achievement in English at previous schooling year.
- The testees level on the pre-test scores.

3.3.1 Father Academic level

This level is equalized by applying chi-square formula. It is found out that there is no statistically significant differences between testees of both groups the experimental, and control, since the computed χ^2 - value which is (1.283) which is lower than the tabulated χ^2 - value which is (5.991) at the level of significances 0.05 and the degree of freedom (2) table (3-4) shows.

Table (3-4)

The equalization between Academic level of the father variable

Group	Illiterate + read and	Inter media te+	Institut e+ College +	comput ed χ^2 - value	tabulate d χ^2 - value	d.f.	Level of significa nce

	writes+ primary	secon dary	higher studies				
Ex. observed	18	5	5	1.283	5.991	2	0.05
Ex. expected	0.25	0.34	0.04				
Co. observed	14	8	6				
Co. expected	0.25	0.34	0.04				

3.3.2 mother Academic level

In second variable which equalized by applying chi-square formula. Table (3-5) shows that there is no statistically significant differences between testees of both groups since computed x^2 - value (2.007) found out to be lower tabulated x^2 - value which (5.991) at the level of significances 0.05 and degree freedom (2).

Table (3-5)

The equalization between the Academic level of the mother variable

Group	Illiterate + read and writes+ primary	Interme diate+ seconda ry	Institut e+ College + higher studies	comput ed x^2 - value	tabulat ed x^2 - value	d.f.	Level of significa nce
Ex. observed	10	14	4	2.007	5.991	2	0.05
Ex. expected	0.195	0.076	0.071				
Co. observed	13	12	3				
Co. expected	0.195	0.076	0.071				

3.3.3 Age Testees

For the third variable that is the age of testees the researcher depended on information taken from the school records and from students. After applying t-test for two independent sample table (3-6) shows no statistically significant differences between testees of both groups since computed t-value (0.04). It found out to be lower tabulated t-value (2.009) at the level of significances 0.05 and degree freedom (54).

Table (3-6)

The equalization between the Age of Testees variable

Group	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	computed T- value	tabulated T- value	d.f.	Level of significance
Ex.	28	198.60	3.38	0.04	2.009	54	0.05
Co.	28	198.64	3.30				

3.3.4 Testees achievement in English subject at previous schooling year.

Information taken from the school records about last year 2015-2016 examination in English for each pupils in the two groups. After applying t-test for two independent sample, the results shows there is no statistically significant difference between the achievement of the two groups in English subject. The calculated t-value is (0.1598) less than the tabulated t-value which (2.009) at (0.05) level of significance and (54) degree freedom as shown in Table (3-7) below:

Table (3-7)

T – Test Results for Pupils Achievement in English last year

Group	No.	Mean	S.D	T-Value		d.f.	Level of significance
				computed T- value	tabulated T- value		
Ex.	28	65.5	9.58	0.1598	2.009	54	0.05
Co.	28	65.8929	8.79				

3.3.5 Pre-Test Variable

The pre-test has been conducted to equalize the two groups in their previous CCS. Pre-test consists of a passage selected from the book (English for Iraq 5th preparatory student's) by Olivia Johnston and Mark Farrell. Followed by four questions: 1- multiple choice, 2- true/false, 3- matches, and the 4- write a passage to measure pupils comprehension, and knowledge (see App. A). The total mark of four questions is (25) where the correct answer gains (5) mark, and the incorrect answer gains zero.

So, the equalization of the two groups' testees in the pre-test shows clearly there is no statistically significant differences between the testees of the experimental, and control groups, in independent variable since the computed t-test value found out to be (0.0653) which lower than table t-test value which (2.009) at degree freedom (54) and the level of significance (0.05).

Table (3-8)

Pre-Test Equalization of the Control Group and the Experimental Group.

Group	N	Mean	S.D	T-Value		d.f.	Level of significance
				computed T- value	tabulated T- value		
Ex.	28	54.39	12.78	0.0653	2.009	54	0.05
Co.	28	54.14	15.71				

3.5 Test Construction

The post-test is instruction used to find out the results. Thus test is constructed to measure whether there are statistically significant differences between the control and experiment groups. The post-test consist of (4) questions as shown in table (3-9) below:

Q.1 is multiple choice which is an objective test consisting of 5 items, pupils told to choose only 5 items and in each item there is only one correct choice which explains the meaning of each situation. The total mark of the first question is (25). The correct answer gains five score, and the incorrect answer gains zero. In Q.2 is true-false which is an objective test consisting of 5 items, pupils told to choose only 5 items and in each item there is only one correct choice. The total mark of the second question is (25). The correct answer gains five score, and the incorrect answer gains zero. In Q.3 is Wh/Short answer which is an subjective test consisting of 5 items, pupils choose only 5 items. The total score of the third question is (25). The correct answer gains five score, and the incorrect answer gains zero. In Q.4 is Completion which is an objective test consisting of 5 items, pupils told to answer all items according to information related to the title of the passage

they have taught. In which the correct answer gains five score, and the incorrect answer gains zero. The total mark of the fourth question is (25) (see App. B).

Table (3-9)
Specification of Post-Test Items

Q. No.	Type	No. of Items	Category	Total Score
1	Multiple Choice	5	Objective	25
2	True/false	5	Objective	25
3	Wh/Short answer	5	Subjective	25
4	Completion	5	Objective	25
Total				100

3.5.1.1 Face Validity

According to Brown (2001:388) face validity is very important a learner needs to be convinced that the test is indeed testing what it claims to test.

Hence face validity of pre-test is achieving by exposing it to a number of jurors (see App. C). The agreement percentage of suitability of the test items is 100%. The agreement is calculated by the use of percentage of the sample to the percentage of the agreements and disagreements among the jury members. As far reliability of pre-test Alpha-Cronbach formula is applied where is found out to be (0.81) which is considered an acceptable one.

3.5.1.2 Content Validity

The researcher depends on the content validity which is defined by Gronlund (1971:78) as to what extent a test measures the relevant elements which are more representative to the construction that will be under consideration. To ascertain the content validity of units of the test the present study exposed to a jury of experts specialized in TEFL and linguistics. They are requested to determine whether its contents conform to its aims, and behavioral objectives suit the learners for whom it is intended to be exposed. The least average of agreement depended for the test items is 80%. Accordingly, modifications are made in the light of the experts' remarks and suggestions.

3.5.2 The Pilot Test Administration

The pilot study aims at:

Revealing the extent of the clarity of questions, and their instructions.

Defining the exact time to answer the questions.

Defining the difficulty level, and discrimination level power.

Calculating the reliability of the test. The sample of the pilot study consists of (30) male pupils have been chosen from the school Kalid Iben Alwaleed of the fifth scientific morning studies. After applying the test through the pilot study the researcher recorded the time when the first pupils finished the test or answered the questions, and the last one who finished with the calculated average time for answering the test which continued for 45 minutes.

3.5.3.1 Difficulty Level

One of the aims of the pilot study is to determine the difficulty level of the test items. The items have high percentages they will be too easy, and if they have low percentages, they be too difficult (Madsen,1983:180). According to Ebel (1972:200) DL should be ranged among (0.20% to 0.80%) the researcher adopted Ebel opinion therefore the researcher analyze the DL of pre-test it ranges between (0.30% and 0.55%)(see App D).

And DL of post-test ranges between (0.30% and 0.75%) is considered acceptable (see App. D).

3.5.3.2 Discrimination Power

It refers to the degree to which test discriminates between the students who has a high percentage, and low percentage at their achievement (Stanely and Hopkins,1972:23). Brown (1981:104) clarifies that "the test item is good if it has a discrimination power of 0.20 or more". Therefore researcher adopted Brown opinion, hence DP of the pre-test items range between (0.25% and 0.42%) , (see App. C). And DP of the post-test items have been ranged between (0.30% and 0.50%). Thus, all the test items have been accepted according to Gronlund(1998:38) (See App. E).

3.5.3.3 Reliability of the Post-Test

According to specialist they mentions that reliability is a necessary characteristic of any good test because It gives the same results on different occasions when the conditions of the test are the same. Therefore a test cannot measure anything well unless it measures consistency which represent the important element (Harris,1969:14; Brown 1980:211).

So, Using the split-half methods, the reliability coefficient before correction is found to be (0.73) such a reliability is considered acceptable since it is above (0.50). After correction, using Spearman–Brown Formula, the reliability becomes (0.84) which is considered acceptable.

3.6 Lesson Planning:

In each lesson plan (see App. F) that deals with EG. the researcher use reading skills that includes: pre-during-post-reading. In pre-reading the teacher write the name of passage on blackboard, give a short introduction, what it contains, explain some of the keys, in order to draw pupils attentions, to engage with passage, also write the factors of CCS that depend on it on the board for one reason is to make pupils think about material between theirs hand. During-reading teacher dividing the text into sections that helps for effective learning because when the first section has been dealt with, it can help pupils to predict the second pare based on their understanding of the earlier section. This is also help pupils to hear how produce sounds that change and mix into words and vocabularies that enable us to communicate, then the teacher gives the role to pupils to start read moving from one to another listen carefully to their reading. In third step post-reading teacher ask critical questions to motivate pupils to reach to real interaction. And

to know if they comprehend. One of the questions what they think the writer is likely to say in the passage, or what is the main them, or about the massage that push the writer to write such work. Also questions arise from pupils some of them ask to know and comprehend other ask question based on their understand relating to their background knowledge and daily life. The researcher adopted several techniques in order to help pupils to engage actively such as:

a- The purpose for reading. The researcher mentions to pupils that many of our pupils being read without knowing why they read, so the purpose can help them to improve their ability to understand.

b-The problem. Every text or reading passage have a problem and the pupils job are to search for solution to this problem.

c-Prior and Back knowledge. The researcher explains to students that all of them have knowledge of different material of different sources. Therefore, they told to mix information about what they have already known and mix it with what they have about the topic by using several strategies as:

1-Decoding: text present alot of materials from letters, wards, sentences and paragraphs that encode meaning so learner job to recognition of words and then their meanings to gain comprehension.

2-Predicting: is about what is to come next before reach to the end of story. The pupils builds up their expectations depending on background knowledge and experiences in life. So readers use whatever, information found in order to reach to a proper solution.

3-Guessing: is the ability to guess the meaning of an unknown word from the surrounding context this depend on learner order to reach to comprehension.

4-Grasping: is understanding the main aspect, select the key words necessary to grasp the main plot or main theme or main idea whatever, the frequency of the words in English.

5-Summarizing: in summarize we condense ideas, details, facts and supporting arguments in point form using our own words and our style.

3.7 Experiment Application

Experiment application started in first of Nov.,2016, ended on 10th Jan., 2017. The experiment has lasted for two months, and lectures have been arranged for both groups as two hours per week. It is proper to mention that the English book of 5th preparatory included eight unites, four for first semester, and four for second semester, by Olivia Johnston and Mark Farrell. The researcher chose the first semester to start his experiment. The four passages are selected to be the data analysis for the present study they are:

Unit one Babylon Festival, p.12.

Unit two Inventions that have changed the world, p.26.

Unit three The Aswan Dam: triumph or tragedy,42.

Unit four Bakkar's adventures :Have you heard of bakkar? p.46. (see App. F).

3.8 Final Administration of Test

Depending on the outcome of the pilot administration which has approved that the test is valid, and reliable. So the researcher starts to applied the final test to the selected sample of pupils on 10th of Nov. 2016 during the first semester, and end the experiment on 12th of Jan.,2017.

One of element that researcher takes care of it:

- The test is time-schedule, i.e. to be finished in 45 minutes.
- The testees were instructed to read the given passages carefully, then to read the questions attached with them and then write down their responses on answer sheets.

3.9 Scoring Scheme

An accurate scoring scheme has been designed, and developed. So, the researcher has prepared marking schemes, in order to make clear how the marks are distributed among various question criteria. Therefore the total scores are 100 marks which distribute as:

1-In question one consist of five items the pupils are told to choose only five items. The pupils were instructed to read the items of MSC and choose the correct answer for each item. The score of the question is (25ms). Each item has (5) scores.

2-In question two which is true-false consist of five items the students are told to choose only five. This mean that every correct item take 5 marks, and zero for any false or neglect item.

3-In question three which is wh-short answers it consist of five items the students are told to answer only five. This mean that every correct item take 5 marks, and zero for any false or neglect item.

4-Question four which is a completion passage consist of five items the students are told to answer all. this mean that every correct item take 5 marks, and zero for any false or neglect item.

4.Results

4.1 Results Related to the First Hypothesis

In order to achieve the first aim of this study namely: Find out the effect of CCS on the pupils' reading skill.

The finding results of the statistical analysis have shown that the mean value for CCS achievement level of the control group is (56.03) with a standard deviation of (9.49) while the mean value of the experimental group is (70.03) with a standard deviation of (8.36). In order to find out the differences between the mean scores of the two groups t-test formula for two independent groups has been used. The computed t-value (5.8526) higher tabulated t-test value (2.009) at the level of significance (0.05) and degree freedom of (54). Means there is statistically significant differences between experimental group which has been exposed to the suggested strategy, and control one which has not been exposed to the same suggested strategy in their reading skill level and in favour of the experimental group, therefore first hypothesis is rejected as shown in (Table 9) below:

(Table 9)

The Experimental and Control group Achievement in the Post-Test

Group	No.	Mean	S.D	T-Value		d.f.	Level of significance
				computed t- value	tabulated t- value		
Ex.	28	70.03	8.36	5.8526	2.009	54	0.05
Co.	28	56.03	9.49				

4.2 Results Related to the Second Hypothesis

In order to achieve the second aim of this study, namely: Find out the effect of the CCS on the enhancing of the pupils’ reading skills.

The obtained results of applying t-test value for two paired samples indicate that there is statically significant differences among the pupils achievement in EG. scores between the pre-test, and the post-test are as follows: the computed t-value is (5.4182) and tabulated t-value (1.676) with degree freedom of (54). The computed t-value higher than tabulated t-value, the difference between the achievement scores of the two tests is significant at the level of (0.05). In other words, there is statistically significant difference in use of CCS among the performance of the experimental group in the pre-test and the post-test as shown in (Table 10) below:

(Table-10)

The Experimental Group Achievement in the Pre-Post-Test

Group	Test	No.	Mean	S.D	T-Value		d.f.	Level of significance
					computed t- value	tabulated t- value		
Ex.	Pre	28	54.3929	12.78	5.4182	1.676	54	0.05
	Post	28	70.0357	8.36				

4.3 Discussion of Results

1-The pupils’ who are subjected to experiment have been taught by CCS which is a cognitive strategy based on many communicative operations. Thus, the reading skills have been enhanced by decoding, predicting, guessing, grasping, and summarizing.

2-Pupils develop their reading skills by exchanging and sharing ideas in real life situations.

3-CCS contributed pupils reading. When applying the steps of CCS, pupils starting enjoying the empowerment of reading comprehension passages.

4-Whereas in the traditional the learners were passively, and did not take part in the reading process except in reading aloud without comprehension in many times. Also they lost the comprehension and the meaning of the text because they did not know the meaning of many words existing in text, and how it pronounced, or they don't know conjunction with their back ground knowledge and their experience in life with the reading text to reach comprehension A large number of pupils depend on word-by-word reading. This result weakened their comprehension and made them poor readers.

5-In each lesson that deals with Ex. group the researcher adopted several techniques in order to help pupils to engage actively such as:

a-The purpose for reading, b- The problem, c- Prior and Back knowledge.

5. Conclusions

1- Experimental group dealt positively with the new strategy which is CCS showing high interest and motivation.

2- EFL preparatory pupils improve and enhance their comprehension of reading texts in FL.

3-It is also considered a helpful activity, since it gives the EFL students the opportunity to take part in the learning process, they active and able to give their best individual-group-work. They depend on themselves to reach the solution.

4-It strengthens the relation among the learners themselves and between the learners and their teacher since it creates an atmosphere of interaction and intimacy. Even the shy ones push them find the proper solution.

5-It gives the learners an opportunity to generate so many critical comprehension questions depending on their back-prior-knowledge relate to the main subject. This leads to generate huge ideas concerning one subject, and widen their comprehension. 6-It helps to strengthen the personality of pupils, from many ways such as: if he faced the unknown meaning, un able to comprehend, and even make mistakes in reading. In order to enhance reading skill pupils must comprehend what they read.

6.Recommendations

1-Hours which are paid in teaching reading at school should be increased.

2-Critical comprehension should have the main concern in reading lessons, more critical comprehension leads to strong association between the reader and the text.

3- teachers practice with new modern approach, to develop their wide experiments.

4- EFL teachers must be well sufficiently prepared and trained in teaching R. This can be achieved through involving EFL college teachers in-service-training-programs that provide them with the latest strategies used in teaching CCS, and throw continue R of new approaches and strategies that make them be aware of the new in world.

5- EFL teachers must have the spirit of intimacy in the class to give the EFL learners confidence and bravery in order to create student character. This happened when the readers know they the dominant and the productive role in the RC classes.

6-The R skill as a whole and CCS as a part of the reading skill should receive enough emphasis and attention at all language learning levels.

7-EFL learners should pay more attention to the external R because it helps them to improve their CCS.

8-Calm and shy EFL readers must take part in the R process. This can be successfully achieved through involving them in cooperative work.

9- The R passages should be interesting, familiar, and suitable to the learners age.

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Narrating Arabs: An Analytical Study In T. E. Lawrence's Seven Pillars Of Wisdom And Miguel Cervantes's Don Quixote

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Abstract

This paper deals with the image of the Arab in two texts, Cervantes's Don Quixote and Lawrence's Seven Pillars of Wisdom. It is an attempt to trace the threads interweaving the image of the Arab to the final impression. In an objective way, a scrutiny of certain extracts from both texts is made to assess the image both writers present.

The significance of this research is that both texts are celebrated worldwide as opus scriptum for their writers. Likewise it enables the reader to have a better look at the way both writers present the image of the Arab as 'the other.'

Finally, the paper shows the results it attains in a summed conclusion. They can be summarized in saying that both writers present the Arab in a biased way. The final image they delineate is criticizable, and can be said to be flawed and tend to fallacy.

It is inevitably true, that the stereotyping perspective that some western writers see the Arab through, is shockingly contradicted and within the field of fallacy. In fact, it is not something new. Nay, it dates so long in the journey of history to reach major writers like Dante. In his Divine Comedy, he placed prophet Mohammad and his cousin Ali at the bottom of Hell(1) despite the fact that he took the contents of the Divine Comedy from the Arab poet Al-Maary's Resalat Al-Ghofran, a case of plagiarism, which was discovered later on by a Spanish priest in the early twentieth century.

There is no question about the fact that the Arabian Nights had an impact on western mind, yet to the same writers, they never acknowledged that the Arabs have literature or that they were influenced by Arabic literature. Rather, the Arabs are depicted by the them as follows:

"The Arabs show themselves not as especially easy of belief, but as hard-headed, materialistic, questioning, doubting, scoffing at their own superstitions and usage, fond of tests of supernatural ---- and all this in curiously high mined, almost childish fashion."(2)

And if we look carefully at The Cambridge History of Islam, we find it radically misconceives and misinterprets Islam as a religion ...it is a "Chronology of battles, reigns and deaths, coming and passing, written for the most part in a ghastly monotone."(3)

Further, these and the same writers deform, on purpose, the doctrine of Islam. For instance, they claim that the main concept of Islam is the preaching of the idea, of "world-worthlessness,

bareness, renunciation and poverty."(4) Of course, these ideas are totally in contrast to the real principles of Islam, a thing refuted by the multiple Arabic and Islamic civilizations that existed.

In this paper, T. E. Lawrence's Seven Pillars of Wisdom and Miguel Cervantes's Don Quixote, two worldwide celebrated works are selected to show the aforementioned stereotyping perspectives.

Lawrence's major work is Seven Pillars of Wisdom. It is an interesting autobiographical narrative of his war experiences, talking about the Arab revolt against the Turkish domination in the late of the Turkish Empire(5). The book is chosen here for discussion because it contains outrageous statements that intend to depreciate the Arabs – mainly their mentality, religion and civilization.

Lawrence's judgments and evaluation, however, are built on misconceptions and what is called logical fallacies, particularly, hasty generalization as well as his prejudice against the Arabs and Islam. He, for instance, considers the Arab civilization as an abstract one rather than applied. He says:

"Arab civilization had been of an abstract nation, more and intellectual rather than applied; and their lack of public spirit made their excellent private quality futile."(6)

And it is logical to ask Lawrence the following question: How could an abstract civilization survive and last for centuries, occupying a very large space of earth that no previous civilization had done before? And what about the achievements made by the Arab scientists in various fields of life? To say an abstract civilization means that the role of the Arab was the role of merely a transporter. And that is a false charge history disproves. Andalusia, Spain now, was and still a formidable evidence that shows and beyond doubt the art of Arabs in architecture ... building gigantic and gorgeous palaces, hospitals, making roads and glamorous universities which were real centers for learning to all European countries. In Asia, Baghdad itself is a sufficient proof ... the architectural engineering of Baghdad during the Caliph, Al-Mansur. Baghdad was the center of all sciences - applied and theoretical – mainly in chemistry, physics and medicine. In addition, Damascus, during the reign of Ommayed, witnessed, and on a large scale, an architectural activities which reflect positively the high level of Arab mentality, not to mention the Arabs contribution in ship and weapon industry.

Seemingly, Lawrence has seen one part of the Arabs' intellect, as it has been mentioned earlier, a time when the Arabs were weak and under the Turkish occupation. And what is worse, the Turkish Empire was decaying. That is why he was right when he described the Arabs (during this period) as follows:

"They were a limited narrow-minded people, whose inert intellects lay fallow in incurious resignation."(7)

However, that does not give him the right to generalize his critical evaluation on the entire Arab civilization.

Further, Lawrence claims also that the Arabs "lost their geographical sense"(8), whereas the fact is that the Arabs are among the rare nations who are so clung to their environment that when the word Arab is mentioned, it comes to one's mind immediately the world of the desert. Even Lawrence himself calls the Arabs somewhere in his book as the "desert dwellers", he says:

"The Beduin of the desert, born and grown up in it, had embraced with all his sole this nakedness too harsh for volunteers, for the reason, felt but articulate, that these he found himself indubitably free."(9)

Another false charge raised by Lawrence against the Arabs is that they have "dark minds, full of depression and lacking in rule."(10) If the case is like what he says, then how could the Arabs build their civilization and conquest the world and become its masters for centuries, not for years? If he says by force, then one would say that force can make people slaves, but it cannot change their minds. The countries which the Arabs conquered accepted Islam willingly. Indonesia, for instance, which has the largest number of Muslims in the world, was converted to Islam utterly not by force; they admired the good morals of the Arab Muslim traders.

Lawrence's charges were accompanied by a good deal of rumours about Islam to make the Arab Muslim scholars busy defending their beliefs as well as their civilization, while the west is developing and becoming a superpower. At the present time, particularly, after September 11th, 2001 - the aggression on the two commercial towers in Manhattan, New York – the world witnessed a new aggressive campaign against Islam and the entire Islamic world. Now, they (the west) make Islam equal to terrorism, and the Arab-Muslim, wherever he goes, he is suspect number one. Islam symbolizes terror and devastation, and its followers are the demonic hordes of barbarians. The religion of mercy and humanity has become (in their view) a lasting trauma, and prophet Mohammad is an impostor. (11)

To the true believer of Islam, all these allegations are nonsense simply because he knows well that his religion is right, besides, God has mentioned in his Holy Book more than once that the enemy of this religion will never stop their hostility, antagonism and falsehood.

As for Miguel Cervantes's worldwide celebrated novel, Don Quixote, it goes the same way as Lawrence's Seven Pillars of Wisdom in narrating Arabs. It does have, besides its short account of the Arab character, a flagrant contradictory narration premise. Yet, to some critics, this contradiction serves as a reinforcing argumentative aspect. One argues that "The outcome of Cervantes' mighty struggle was a book of infinite levels of interpretation, the first novel that can be read from multiple points of view because it does not refuse its own contradictions but makes them the stuff of the intensity of its writing. Victim and executioner of his own book, a man divided between the moribund and the nascent,"(12)

In respect to Arabs, our concern in this paper, Cervantes plainly expresses his opinion on them. Writing a blurb to Don Quixote, he says that:

"if any objection can be made against the truth of this history (Don Quixote), it can only be that its narrator was an Arab - men of that nation being ready liars,"(13)

In the same time, we should note that Cervantes admits, just in the outset of his work, which is mainly a collection of skits, the perplexity he experiences as to the lack of resources in respect to the subject matter documented on Don Quixote de la Mancha. Despite the fact and the importance of the character of Don Quixote who represents

"the light and mirror of Manchegan chivalry, and the first man of our times, of these calamitous times of ours, to devote himself to the toils and exercise of knight errantry; to redress wrongs, aid widows and protect maidens," (14)

this hero's history, unfortunately, 'might not be written down.' Again, Cervantes admits that

"Though well I know that if Heaven, chance, and good fortune had not aided me, the world would have remained without the amusement and pleasure which an attentive reader may now enjoy for as much as two hours on end." (15) Here he means that he would have not completed his novel.

How then could he complete his book? He provides an answer to this question by saying that he depended, in writing the adventures of Don Quixote, on the History of Don Quixote de la Mancha, a book written by Cide Hamete Benengeli, whom is an Arabic historian who portrayed, in the first place, vivid and viable characters. One critic sees that "the characters are self-conscious of the process of their creation and representation." (16) The critic continues: "In Chapter III of the Second Part of the Quixote, Sancho informs Don Quixote that they are already characters of a book written by a Moorish historian Cide Hamete Benengeli recounting their adventures in Arabic, and which had been later translated into Spanish." It is quite clear that the priority here is Arabic, and it, by no means, is a wanting.

Then he relates how the 'discovery occurred' of the material on Don Quixote. He was once in Alcana at Toledo, when he chanced a lad who was selling some parchments and old papers to a silk merchant. He could recognize Arabic characters on them, and with the help of a Spanish-speaking Moor, he found out that they are what he was looking for.

On the one hand, Cervantes builds his narrative on the information provided to him by the book written by an Arab whose nation he described as 'ready liars.' On the other, his work was just that he, by the help of the Moor, translated the content from Arabic into Spanish. He says that he took the Moor to his house and "there in little more than six weeks he translated it all just as it is set down here. (17)

Conclusion

T. E. Lawrence's SEVEN PILLARS OF WISDOM is a major work that shows a brilliant mind. To the best of its manifestations, it attests the great intellect the writer has which derives largely from a real-foot experience he had from his own experiences as an executive officer serving in Arabia in the intelligence.

As an insider, Lawrence analyzed – in depth – the Arabs, their character, culture, relationships ... etc. Though stereotypical, he presented his own impressions and the conclusions he attained through this literary autobiographical work. He unveiled that the west seeks to study the region

of the Middle East in order to know the strength and weakness points in the line of a systemic comprehensive process to eliminate their prospect power.

As for Cervantes's *Don Quixote*, it is a collaborative work in which Cervantes collaborated with Cide Hamete Benengeli, as the prior author of the *History of Don Quixote de La Mancha*; and the Moor who translated the aforementioned history from Arabic into Castilian, and both are Arab. That is so, two thirds of the work goes Arabic while the other third is concerned with highlighting the shortcomings in the Arabic character.

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English Language Learners' Attitudes toward the Effectiveness of Communicative Strategies to Develop Their Speaking Skill

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1. Abstract

Language is a system which is important to express one's ideas and thoughts and communicate with others. It is our gift for human beings from our creator Almighty Allah. Most of the English language instructors adopt the communicative strategies with the learners so as to enable them to acquire the communicative competence and be able to use English language properly and fluently. The learners of English language department at college of education appear to have problems of communicating in English for certain reasons such as the deficiency in the use of appropriate communication strategies in speaking context. The communicative strategies that are applied for teaching English Language at English departments have some lacks and they seem to be ineffective to improve the learners' communicative performance; therefore they can't acquire the ability to use the language communicatively.

Key words: communicative strategies, communicative competence, conversation

1.1 The Problem

English language is the most dominated language nowadays and both oral and written English skills are necessary and required around the world; therefore to many of learners in English language departments, speaking English seems to be a very challenging task. . Since the aim of English language departments is not only to develop knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and written skills but also to teach oral English skills specially the graduates in these departments are going to be English language teachers in the high schools. Most of the learners have lacks

concerning the selection of the suitable words or phrases when they speak English. They know grammar and vocabulary but they can't use this linguistic competence in communication.

1.2 The Significance of the Study

This study may have a great importance because it confirms some communicative concepts such as communicative competence, communicative performance and real-life situations which form the fundamental factors of communicative English teaching – learning classroom. The results of this study are not useful just for the learners but also for the teachers who can get benefits since they can select the fruitful method and techniques that make the class to be communicative. The current study is important for both English language teachers and learners since it presents the effective communicative strategies that are applied for teaching English language through integrating communicative strategies in the class and the learners can get the benefits in their daily conversations through finding the suitable immediate plans to control the communicative difficulties that they face.

1.3 The Aims

The current study tries to achieve the following aims:

1. Exploring the attitudes of the EL learners concerning the effectiveness of applying communicative language strategies in improving their speaking skills.
2. Investigating the effects of the communicative strategies to modify and improve the students' communicative performance in daily classroom activities.
3. Identifying the communicative strategies that English instructors prefer to apply in their classes for enhancing the learners' speaking skills.
4. Assessing the learners' speaking abilities and their abilities to communicate by using English language fluently and accurately.

1.4 The Methods

1.4.1 The Participants

The participants of the study are the teachers and the students of the second stage of English language department / college of Education / Salahaddin University –Erbil for the academic year 2017-2018. In order to reach an accurate data the selection process of the sample is done randomly according to the whole population of the students which is 80 so the researcher selected 20% of the whole society. The sample includes 16 students that is suitable scientific percentage for the aims of the study. While the teachers' sample includes four teachers who are specialized in teaching English language communication subject which is considered one of the basic subjects that is taught in this stage. See table no 1

Table no 1 : Description of the participants

Gender	Male 8	Female 8
Average Age	19-20	18-19
Total	10	10

This group of students is selected for certain reasons firstly they have a good level in English language since the researcher herself has taught them English language communication subject during the first term. Most of them showed a high level in mastering the main skills of English language. Secondly, they have the desire and to improve themselves in speaking skill since they realize that they have some lacks in vocabulary and grammar which appear clearly in communication.

1.4.2 The Instruments

The following instruments are applied for gathering data:

1. Questionnaire for English language learners.
“valid, reliable and unambiguous” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 438)
2. Interviews with English language instructors
According to Burns (1999, p. 118) contends that “Interviews are a popular and widely used means of collecting qualitative data.”
3. Construction an oral test for the learners.

1.5 Definition of Basic Terms

1. Corder, (1981, p.103) defines CSs as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his (or her) meaning when faced with some difficulty.”
2. “an approach to language teaching methodology that emphasizes authenticity, interaction, student-centered learning, task based activities, and communication for the real world, meaningful purposes” (Brown,2007, p.378)
3. Savignon (2002,p: 1) writes that “CLT refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning” and that “the central theoretical concept in communicative language teaching is communicative competence”
4. “Conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual’s thought” (Tarone, 1977, p.195).
5. Hymes (1972), Communicative competence should be viewed as “the overall underlying knowledge and ability for language which the speaker-listener possesses” (p. 13).
6. Communicative strategies
(Færch and Kasper 1983, 36) define CS as “ potential conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal”

2.Theoretical Background and Previous Literature

2.1 An Overview of Communication Strategies

Sleinker in 1972 was the first who presented the term communicative strategies CS as one of the main processes that has the effect on learning and developing the second language . This term was considered to be essential in the field of learning the second language but it wasn’t discussed and researched in details. In the same year Savignon indicated the importance of CS and she referred to this as copying strategies and how they play a great role as a component of language teaching and training. Then other Researchers such as Dörnyei and Scott (1997), Færch and Kasper (1983), Tarone (1980) and Nakatani (2010)debated that including communication strategies in any communication process not only solves learners’ communication problems, but also supports the

learner's interaction in target language , which in turn, modifies and increases the learners' oral proficiency.

Tarone in 1977 was the first researcher who investigated through an empirical study for the first time about more details of using the CS in the communication with presentation of five new types of CSs which were (avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime). This classification was considered the starting point in the field of investigation about the nature of CSs. But in 1990 Bialystok's work clarified two important factors that are involved in the process of using CSs which are : taking the psychological process of speech production as a basis for studying CSs and teaching language structure which led other researchers to explore the relationship between CSs and proficiency level of the learners. Since then, great attention has been given to the instruction of CSs and the techniques that are applied by the instructors to enhance using CSs by the learners (Hmaid,2014,16-17).

2.2 Classification of Communicative Strategies

Communication strategies are considered the means to fill the gaps which may occur in oral interaction. So strategies are recalled if the speaker of any second language experiences a problem. The basic assumption concerning the original taxonomies is based on that the speaker has two basic means to deal with a problem faces him during a speech. These two means are either avoiding the problem or trying to use the best what the speaker owns of resources to pass his message clearly and appropriately. Generally CSs can be classified as:

- Reduction strategies: these strategies have influence on forming the goal of the communicative process when the speaker may try to avoid pronouncing certain words which imply particularly difficult sounds that also affect the content of a message. Avoiding a topic is an essential strategy when the speaker does not feel confident to talk about this topic. Even a strategy like topic avoidance can play a role in developing strategic competence since they are difficult to be discovered in actual verbal behavior, but they are essential part of a language learner/user's instinctive source.
- Achievement strategies

The first distinction is appeared between strategies at the word or sentence level and strategies at the discourse level. Using these strategies indicate the speaker's ability to find ways of expressing the meaning of a word when the exact term is not available which are

realized during the course of interaction or trying to borrow words from the native language. These achievement strategies at the discourse level are possibly regular and endless, because they deal with the general ability to manage the interaction which is a very complex and difficult process which contains not only strategic and pragmatic skills, but sociolinguistic and sociocultural conventions as well.

- Cooperative strategies: this is a joint effort between two or more people. Which means that the participants in a conversation share an attempt to agree on a meaning in situations where they do not have the same levels of knowledge and skill (Mariani,2010,p::24).

2.3 Factors Affecting the Learners' Choice of Communicative Strategies

English Language learner is required to implement a series of mental assessment and planning before selection a particular strategy in his/her communication. Certain concerns are necessary to be taken into consideration when the learner wants to involve in a communicative situation such as : when and where the communication takes place, what the problem is, where the topic is from and who participates in the communication. There are many factors affecting the use of communicative strategies, such as the learner's level of language proficiency, the learner's personality and communicative experience, a learner's attitude towards communicative strategies, the topic source, and the communication situation. These factors can be categorized into three aspects: learners, learning context and communicative context.

4. Learners

The learners' attitudes, level of language proficiency and their personalities may have some impact on the use of communicative strategies. Learners' attitudes towards a particular strategy affect the use of it. This means that the positive attitude certainly brings high frequency of using it. Communicative strategies such as cooperative, L1-based strategy and nonverbal are actively used if the learners' attitudes towards them are positive.

2. Learning situation

The traditional teaching methods that are applied in the class and the inadequacy of strategic competence can affect the learner's ability to use the suitable strategies; therefore English language teacher should be able to select the suitable method for teaching that creates and improves the

learners' communicative competence by increasing the daily communicative activities in the class. Communication context also has a great role concerning the learner's preference for a specific communicative strategy. The learner should have the communicative experiences that enable him to determine and assess his communicative strategy according to the situation that he needs this strategy to enhance his speech and select the suitable language style whether this communication is with his teacher or with a friend. The learners who have good knowledge about their first language may be able to select the strategies differently from those who are less in their knowledge because the rich knowledge learners are more successful to know which strategy fits the gap that appears in his speech. It is affirmed that each of the factors is not able to determine independently the choice of communicative strategies but the interaction of the factors together leads to choosing the suitable communicative strategies by the learners (Wei,2011 , p:29-30).

4. Analysis of the Results and discussion

Certain findings have been achieved depending on the aims that the researcher has presented during the study which are exploring the attitudes of the EL learners concerning the effectiveness of applying communicative language strategies in improving their speaking skills. Investigating the effects of the communicative strategies to modify and improve the students' communicative performance in daily classroom activities. Identifying the communicative strategies that English instructors prefer to apply in their classes for enhancing the learners' speaking skills. And assessing the learners' speaking abilities and their abilities to communicate by using English language fluently and accurately.

4.1 Results of the Students' Questionnaire

The researcher has applied a questionnaire for the students includes 27 items investigating about their opinions concerning the methods and the techniques that are applied by EL instructor so as to improve and enhance their abilities to acquire the communicative competence generally and the ability to use and select the suitable communicative strategies through conversation to overcome the breakdowns that face the speaker. Through the application of the statistical formula to percentile ,arithmetic mean and the standard deviation, it has been found that 23 variables have scored high standard deviation, while 4 variables has scored middle standard deviation except. Which means a significantly greater percentage of the learners in the second grade students have positive attitudes towards being able to master English speaking skill and to employ a high use of

CSs to convey a message to the his listener in a conversation. Also these scores indicate that the communicative teaching methods supply the opportunities for the leaners to acquire the communicative competence and communicative performance in an effective way. See table (no.2)

Table no 2: Results of the Students' Questionnaire

ID	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	%	level
1	Learning English language is important in my life and I'm interested to learn it.	4	3.9	87	H
2	I need to learn English language to express my ideas and communicate with my classmates .	3	3.8	62	H
3	English communication subject is grammar-focused.	2	0.46	56	H
4	I can read any article written in English when I access to internet.	3.8	0.87	56	H
5	I exchange my ideas with my classmates using expressions from communication subject.	3.8	1.57	44	H
6	Group working is applied in communication lectures.	3	0.53	44	H
7	I understand all the dialogues and activities of listening that are available in the course.	3.43	0.46	50	H
8	Our teacher sometimes uses Kurdish language in the lecture.	2.25	0.33	50	H
9	I can write essays, compositions and emails grammatically and without mistakes.	2.00	0.68	56	H
10	Audio-visual aids are used in communication course such as videos pictures or CDs .	3	0.63	62	H

ID	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	%	level
11	skills and tasks are introduced in a slow and manageable manner till you build confidence in yourself while mastering a skill (scaffolding).	3	0.6	62	H
12	The activities in communication lecture allow interaction with my classmates.	2.88	0.730	56	H
13	The teacher always activates my prior exciting knowledge of any topic is discussed in the class.	3.12	0.816	37	H
14	through extended discussions I can learn English language.	3.25	0.730	50	H
15	The situations of teaching dialogues sound natural and real.	2.75	0.730	62	H
16	My English teachers correct my errors in class	3	0.966	50	H
17	Tasks are authentic which means close to real life situations.	2.375	1.032	62	H
18	Speaking activities are developed to start meaningful communication.	3	0.966	50	H
19	Activities are balanced between individual response, pair and group work	3	0.816	56	H
20	In English communication lessons there are classroom conversations and discussions.	3.5	0.894	62	H
21	We work and talk in small groups in English communication lessons.	1.93	1.4	56	M
22	We use songs and movies to learn English.	2	1.032	44	H

23	EL teacher uses visual materials such as pictures and movies.	1,82	1.095	44	M
24	We do role-plays in speaking activity when you put yourself into an imaginary situation! Imaginary people .	2.125	0.894	44	H
25	We do translation exercises.	1.5	0.856	44	M
26	We do oral presentation in front of the class.	3	0.966	38	H
27	I depend to my native language to understand English language in communication lecture.	2.36	0.966	78	M

4.2 Results related to the Oral Test

It has been found that construction an oral test for the English language learners is a great means to assess their speaking abilities and to explore the types of the communicative strategies that the learners try to use when they face communicating problems or when they try to fill the gabs that appear in their speech. The researcher aimed to reach the reliable scores concerning the oral test; therefore a grading rubric is developed for this purpose.. The left column in the rubric lists the different areas of language and conversation to be assessed, and the top row provides scores for the extent to which each performance is achieved include poor, acceptable and excellent performance. The rubric also includes the objective behind the test, the student’s name and instructions about how to account the scores. Allen (2014:p.1) asserts that rubrics can provide the criteria for assessing students' production or learning behavior, such as essays, reports, portfolios, oral presentations, performances, and group works. Through the application of the statistical formula to percentile, arithmetic mean and the standard deviation, it has been found most of the students have accepted levels in using grammatical, meaningful, accurate and fluent phrases and sentences in their conversation. See table no. 4 and Table no.5.

Table no 4: The Rubric Form for the Oral Test

Objective of the test: The student is required to communicate in English using communicative strategies

Date :

Student's Name :

10 Marks for the whole Test

5 marks for each part of the performance

Performance Area	Poor 1	Acceptable 2	Excellent 3	Comments
Grammatical mistakes in the performance	3 or more	1-2	0	
Vocabulary mistakes in the performance	3 or more	1-2	0-1	
Pronunciation mistakes in the performance	4 or more	1-2	0-1	
Accuracy mistakes in the performance	4 or more	1-2	0-1	
Fluency mistakes in the performance	4 or more	1-2	0-1	

Instruction: Put a check mark in the appropriate box for each row.

Excellent = Performance is above the expectations stated in the outcomes.

Acceptable = Performance meets the expectations stated in the outcomes.

Poor = Performance does not meet the expectations stated in the outcomes

Table no 5: The Results of the Oral Test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	%	Level
Grammar	16	6	2.0976	60	H
Vocabulary	16	8.87	1.060	88	H
Pronunciation	16	4.5	1.290	50	H
Speaking Accuracy	16	5	1.751	50	H

5.	Speaking Fluency	16	3.93	1.1832	40	H
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4.3 Results Related to Teachers' Interviews

Fox (2009, p: 9) states that “Face-to-face or personal interviews are very labour intensive, but can be the best way of collecting high quality data. Face-to-face interviews are preferable when the subject matter is very sensitive, if the questions are very complex or if the interview is likely to be lengthy”. Interviews have been scheduled with two of English communication subject instructors and two questions are asked which are:

1. What are the techniques that are applied in the class so as to teach the increase the learners' abilities to select the suitable communicative strategies through a conversation?
2. What are the challenges or the difficulties that face the students in learning the communicative strategies?

It has been found through the interviews that the instructors use the Communicative Approach in their classes and they try to integrate English four main skills. Concerning the communicative strategies the instructors focus on achievement strategies more than the other types of strategies. Techniques such group working, group debates and presentation of thematically projects through seminars.

5. Conclusion

It has been concluded that application of traditional methods of teaching English language and teaching communication course cannot be useful any more since the learners are in need to have abilities for communication; therefore most of the students have positive attitudes towards using certain types of communicative strategies so as to have fluent conversation. The most significant point is that the learners try to be confident enough when they are involve in communication in any real life context. To reach such output English language instructors are required to adopt different communicative methods of teaching English language beside traditional methods of language teaching

so that they can motivate their learners to comprehend the different types of communicative strategies and being able to choose spontaneously the suitable communicative strategy during the communication .

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Influence of the weight of a School Backpack on backache among secondary school students at Koya province, Iraq

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Abstract

The aim of the current study was to determine the recommended average weight of schoolbags in comparison to school children Body Weight (BW), and to find out factors that influence their backache. To achieve that 114 students participated from grade 7 and 8 in a secondary school, the self-designed questionnaire has been used to collect the data. The study found that the mean of schoolbag weight of grade 7 was 6.3 kg, with body weight 47.7kg, and for grade 8 was 5.7kg with body weight 50.8kg. Founding's showed non-standard backpack weight compared to student's body weight. Generally, (65%) of students reported having pain, Overall, 38.6% reported feels shoulder pain and 12.3% feels back pain while about 15% of the rest students felt pain in different parts, nearly (50%) of students complained about their bags heavy weight, also, feeling pain was more prevalence among girls (70%) than boys (60%). Carrying style was associated with feeling pain as a study found that (75%) of those who carried their bags with one shoulder feels more pain. Suggestions and recommendation were presented.

Keywords: School bag weight, way of carriage schoolbag, children's back pain.

Introduction

Nowadays, we must raise a red flag and an alarm about the school children's inappropriate school bag weight, style of using and their back and shoulder pains, for the reason that school children's back pain becomes a common health and well-being related problem (Ibrahim, 2012), as compared with adults, a child's back pain is much more possible to experience underlying disorders and they deserve better care (Henkus, 2002). A reasonable backpacks weight should not to be bigger than 10% of body weight for school children to carry (Voll & Klimt, 1977). Otherwise, many possible problems may emerge such as back and shoulder pain, headache, drop shoulders, some mechanical musculoskeletal injuries and fatigability sensation (Zakeri, Baraz, Gheibizadeh, & Saidkhani, 2016). The gender found to be a factor causing discomfort, a study found that discomfort among the girls (80%) was higher than boys (63%) (Dockrella, 2006). Also the distance of school- home and the time carrying bags has an important factor, a study reported that, the longer the children carry bags to schools, the more predisposed they become to the musculoskeletal pain and disorders (Neuschwander et al, 2010). In addition, the schoolbag design and the incorrect

ways of carrying are also factors to school children's musculoskeletal problems (Kabilmiharbi, 2017).

A considerable amount of research has dealt with this issue (e.g. El- Nagar, 2017; Abdul Sahib, 2016; Zakeri, 2016; Al-Saleem, 2016; Farhood, 2013; Ibrahim, 2012; Cottalorda, 2004; & Chansirinukor, 2001), rarely studies been done about related topics in Kurdistan region of Iraq.

Methodology

Sampling

A total 114 convenience samples of two different grades in a secondary school participated: 59 students in grade 7 and 55 in grade 8.

Instrumentation

This study was conducted with a self-designed questionnaire. A self-designed questionnaire was used to collect information about students' type of schoolbag used, style of carrying, and any discomfort experienced due to carrying their schoolbag, and Scale used to measure body and schoolbag weight.

Procedure

The research assistants were trained on use of the tools and verification was done for completeness of the instruments during data collection. Students' body and their bags were separately and together weighted, a detail questionnaire seeking information on students' measuring their bag weight and their perceived level of discomfort about their bag weight.

Data Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS- Descriptive Statistic-Crosstabs were used to process the information that collected in the research.

Results

Participation rate

Two groups of students were selected voluntarily in two deferent grade (7 and 8), 59 students in grade 7 and 55 in 8; the total number is 114.

Schoolbags and students 'body Weight

The school bag weights of grade 7 was ranged from minimum 3kg to maximum 12kg (mean= 6.3kg), and the grade 8 Schoolbag weight ranged from minimum 4kg and maximum 9kg (mean = 5.7kg). The Mean age of grade 7 was 12.5 years old with the body weight 47.7kg, while Mean age of grade 8 was 13.5 years old with the body weight 50.8Kg. See table1.

Table1: Bag body weight of grade 7 & 8

	Grade 7 in Kg		Grade 8 in Kg	
	<i>Bag</i>	<i>Body</i>	<i>Bag</i>	<i>Body</i>
Mean	6.3	47.7	5.7	50.8
Maximum	12	69	9	75.5
Minimum	3	34	4	30

Schoolbag weight as a percentage of body weight

The mean schoolbag weight of grade 7 as a percentage of mean body weight carried by the students was 13.4%, and grade 8 was 11.16%, see table 2.

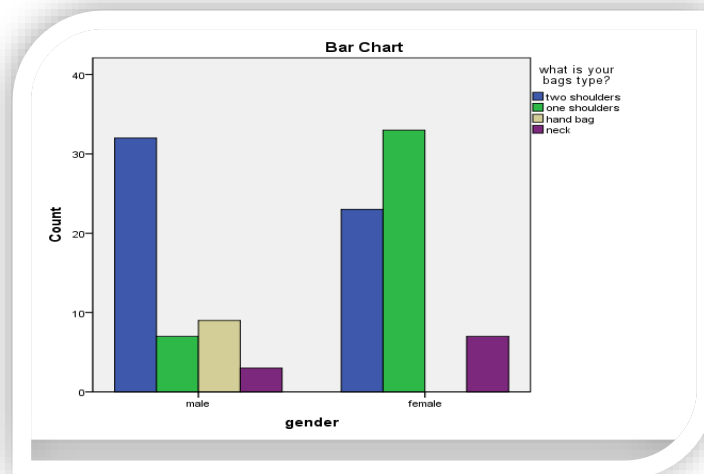
Table 2: mean Bag body weight of grade 7 & 8

Grade 7 in kg		Grade 8 in kg	
<i>Bag weight</i>	<i>body weight</i>	<i>Bag weight</i>	<i>body weight</i>
6.3	47.7	5.7	50.8

Types of schoolbags and methods of carriage

Students used four types of bags include (Two shoulders, one Shoulders, Hand bag and Neck side), (48.2%) of them used bags with two strips but only (24.6%) carried it on their back over two shoulders. (68.25%) of girls and (35.3%) of boys carried their bags with one shoulder. See table 3.

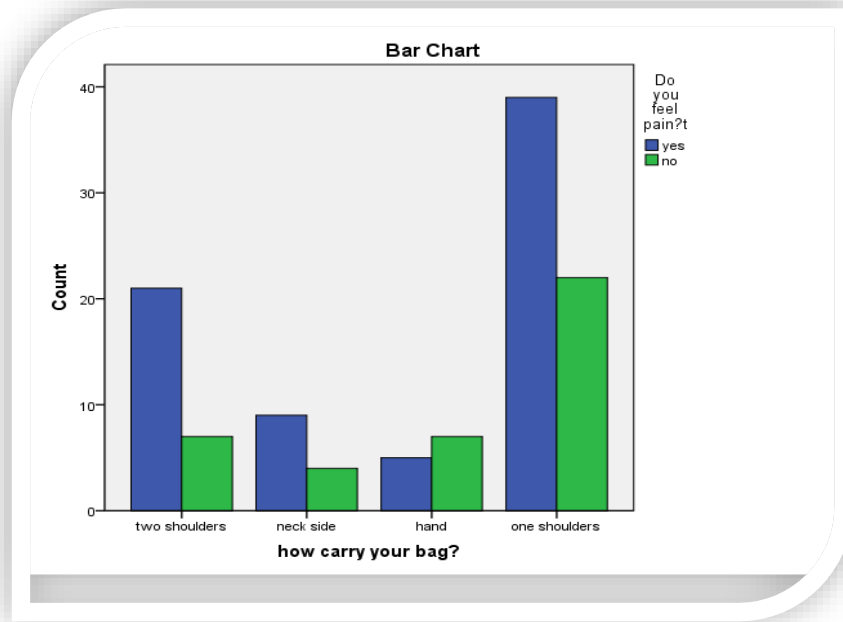
Table 3: types of schoolbag used by students



Schoolbag weight related to musculoskeletal discomfort

There is (50%) of students complained about their heavy weight bag, (64.9%) of students reported pain while (35.1%) didn't feel it, only (6.1%) fell heavy pain and (15%) feels pain even after schooling time. Study found that feeling pain was more and higher among girls (70%) than boys (60%). Carrying style is associated with feeling pain, (75%) of those who carry their bags with one shoulder feels pain, the majority of students (41.27%) girls and (35.9%) boys feel shoulder pain. See table 4.

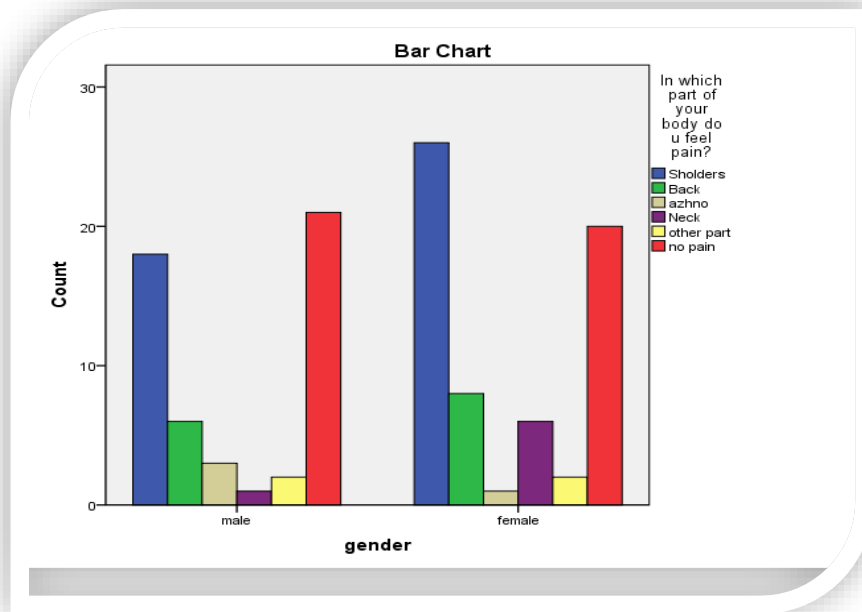
Table 4: feeling pain and way of carrying schoolbag



Distribution and intensity of pain

Generally, (65%) of students reported having pain, overall, 38.6% reported feels shoulder pain and 12.3% feels back pain while the rest of other students feel pain in different parts. See table 5.

Table 5: Body parts suffered by pain



Discussion

The study represent a shocking situation as students were carrying school bags of >10% of their body weight, (13.4% to grade 7 and 11.2% to grade 8), the majority of reports indicated that schoolbag greater than the recommended weight (10% of student BW) might affect the musculoskeletal alignment which will cause back pain, neck pain, and shoulder pain, (Rai, 2013; Smith et al 2007; Farhood, 2013; Cottalorda, 2004; Zakeri, 2016), depend on current study founding's, nearly all of our study students are at risk to be affect by shoulder pain, back pain, and other musculoskeletal discomforts (MSD).

A study reported that discomfort was higher for girls (80%) than boys (63%) (Dockrella, 2006), female students suffer from back pain five times than male students (El-Nagar & Mady, 2017). Results support both the above studies, there is a notable difference between the male and female students as regards the pain they feel, nearly 70% of females feel pain while 59% of males experienced pain.

Table 5 shows that nearly 44 (38.6%) students were suffering from the shoulder pain, 14 (12%) were suffering from back pain among the total of 114 students. Among these 114 students, 17 (15%) were having pain even after schooling time, so the most affected area by pain was shoulders, this result is in line with the findings of study conducted by (El-Nagar & Mady, 2017), moreover other studies found that the shoulder pain was the second most common musculoskeletal problem after back pain among students (Ibrahim, 2012; Al-Saleem, 2016; Chansirinukor, 2001).

Conclusion

Students of (Chro) primary school were carry a bag pack that is heavier than the standard accepted weight, and carrying a backpack heavier than 10% of Body Weight (BW) is associated with increased incidence of shoulder pain, back pain and cause shallowing of the lumbar lordosis and a tendency towards a vertical position of the sacrum. Bags with two straps was the most popular ones, but most of them were carried it on one shoulder, females were more likely to be suffered by heavy school bag effects than males of the same age and stage. Monitoring the weight of children's school bags and enabling them to leave books and notebooks at school would probably be beneficial in reducing the daily burden put on children's spines.

Suggestions

Some risk reduction strategies include:

- Using suitable kind of backpack.
- Make sure it is packed correctly.
- Showing the students, the correct lifting and carrying techniques.

Recommendations

- The most effective way to reduce pain and discomfort is lighting papers weight and making book sizes smaller.
- Reorganize the weekly timetable to suit students' ability.
- Using I Pad instead textbooks.
- Leaving the books and other papers at school.

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The Language Policy in Iraqi Kurdistan Region from the Perspective of Spolsky's Theories

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ABSTRACT

Social, cultural, religious and political forces are four complex factors that generated language policy. Taking this in his consideration, Bernard Spolsky presents his first theory in which he assumes that national ideology, English spread in the process of globalization, a sociolinguistic situation of a nation's attendant, and the internationally growing interest in the linguistic rights of minorities are four co-occurring conditions the language policy of any independent nation is driven by. Meanwhile, this paper tries to examine non-linguistic pressures on language management in Iraqi Kurdistan in an effort to test the second model of Spolsky's language policy through showing whether the effects of previous Iraqi Ba'ath Regime continue to show up even after the uprising of 1991 or not. The last component is what Spolsky calls self-management, an individual who modifies his or her language repertoire usually by learning a new language. It accounts for private language schools, and the way that some parents hire tutors for their children. It is assumed that in the case of Kurdistan it is likely to be the nonlinguistic problems that interfere with working out a satisfactory language policy. Accordingly, this paper finds that most of the linguistic and non-linguistic factors indicated by Spolsky's theories have driven in one way or another Kurdish language policy.

Keywords: English Spread, Language Policy, Minority Linguistic Rights, Non-linguistic, Theory, Sociolinguistics.

1. INTRODUCTION

Language policy which takes the role of an interdisciplinary discipline is in close and direct contact with social sciences. Hereby, the national language policy of each nations is found to be the consequences of the complex interaction of political, cultural, religious, educational and economic domains (Spolsky and Shohamy, 2000: 1-42). While Spolsky considers the time language policy came into existence, he (2004: 75) proposes that four fundamental and co-existing factors will motivate the language policy of modern independent nation states. The four proposed factors are national ideology, the role of English as a global language, a nation's sociolinguistic situation, and an increasing interest in the rights of linguistic minorities. In an answer and as a sort of reaction to what Spolsky (2004, 133) himself proposes in terms of this theoretical model which

he finds it necessary to be tested against actual cases, this paper tries to introduce Iraqi Kurdistan as a tempting and actual case.

Though the beginning of Kurdish literature is difficult to date (Blau, 1996: 21), both ancient and modern language matters are specifically related to current language policy in one way or another in the Kurdish community which has remained passionately engaged in the its language management since the age (succession) of Amawi (Tofiq, 2007: 9) since the process of Arabization goes back to that time and the Kurdish elite wrote in the languages of their overlords but creative poets were the first to use Kurdish, their mother tongue, in their work. The first known literary masterpieces that depicted and made the Kurdish language a symbol of collective identity, a marker of the identity of the Kurdish people emerged in the 16th and 17th centuries, when Kurdistan was then the central point of the greed of its powerful neighbors. At the end of the 17th century, the poet and philosopher Ahmed Khani framed the idea that the Kurds were a distinctive people, in his *Mam u Zin* (Blau cited in Jabar and Dawod, 2006: 103); (Khaznadar, 2010). Accordingly, literature was one of the valuable points that were the column of language which preserved it from fading and getting extinct. That is, Kurdish literature is the best example which worked as a strong support for language. (Pakhshan, 2013: 168)

Notably, the Kurdish language was probably the strongest means through which Kurdish nation identity is kept and the Kurdish language is not melted into Arabic language just like other languages such as the languages of the minorities found before the establishment of the current Arab nation states (Tofiq, 2007: 9); (Pakhshan, 2013: 146). As far as the emergence of nationality (national feeling) in the Kurdish literature (especially in the Kurdish poetry) is concerned, one can say that most of the Kurdish poets talked about nationality but some of them focused more on such feeling (sense), for instance, Ahmadi Khani is well-known for his poetry in which the sense of nationality is clearly seen. After the war of Chalderan and the division of Kurdistan, the ideology of Kurdayati (nationality) was found in the Kurdish poetry in a new style. One of those who wanted to insert the ideology of nationalism into his poetry was Khani. The second part of the 19th century witnessed the emergence of (Haji Qaderi Koyee) who completed what Khani started until he reached the top. The two orientations that Khani and Haji initiated in two different ages paved the way for being a school which guided other poets to adopt the same steps. Talking about Khani and Haji doesn't indicate that other poets didn't appear. There were definitely many other poets who talked about nationality in their poetries. (Mustafa, 2006)

Today, language policy discourse is more essential to up-to-date Iraqi Kurdistan sociolinguistic situation, and it is found to work on the improving the Iraqi Kurdistan's linguistic homogeneity. Further, Kurdish besides Arabic is the formal language of the region (Bengio, 2012: 16); (Jambaz, 2014: 18) and Sabir (2011: 30) in addition to Talabany (2013: 65-102). To be to the point, Spolsky's discussions displays that Kurds are not counted in Iraqi Kurdistan as a monolingual nation since other minorities have been coexisted long ago.

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study takes into its account the aforementioned factors of Spolsky's theory besides the non-linguistic pressures on language management as well as self-management of an individual who modifies his or her language repertoire usually by learning a new language and analyzed their relevance to current Kurdish language policy so as to conclude as to whether, and if so, how, these

factors and components of these three different theories have motivated Kurdish language policy. Accordingly, the adopted approach is qualitative since the language and language policy situation in Iraqi Kurdistan Region including books, book chapters, journal articles, theses and unpublished literature composing both primary and secondary literatures are reviewed. Though the official form of language policy as a sociolinguistic branch doesn't go back to an old age, particular attention was given to recent discussions by prominent scholars of Kurdish language policy and Kurdish sociolinguistics generally, including Tofiq (2007); Nawkhosh (2010, 2013); Sabir (2008) and others like Jambaz (2014) with their comprehensive works and monographs of language in Kurdish. Meanwhile, this study also depends on primary sources that provided direct insights to, and evidence of Kurdish language policy, including government and government funded websites (e.g., the Ministry of Education, Higher Education and Scientific Studies, and the Academic Institute for Kurdish Studies), and news media with stories, editorials and opinions relevant to language policy discourse. Although the research was limited to sources available in Kurdish, scholarship in Kurdish sociolinguistics and Kurdish language policy information is commonly available in Kurdish, English, and Arabic a little bit.

Notably, this study tackles three supplementary theories in which four distinct components besides other nonlinguistic pressures that affect the community and the individuals in Iraqi Kurdistan community are explored. In a word, this paper is an effort to arrive at a systematic and critical analysis of each determinant in the Kurdish context after considering and tackling Spolsky's national language policy theories and his definition of what language policy comprises.

3. SPOLSKY'S THEORIES

3.1 SPOLSKY'S FIRST THEORY

For Spolsky (2009: 1) the following four common and co-existing forces drive language policies at the national level:

- national (or ethnic) ideology or claims of identity;
- the role of English as a global language;
- a nation's sociolinguistic situation; and
- an increasing interest in linguistic rights within the human and civil rights framework.

As far as the first factor is concerned, beliefs and principles related to a collective psyche that may appear in language policy mainly depend on the first factor of Spolsky's theory, i.e. national ideology and identity. To be to the point, language is one of the principles of national security, for example, many nations of the south part of Arabian gulf peninsula, Sham, and North Africa got extinct due to the process of Arabization. Consequently, they lost their countries and lands as they lost their languages. They are all known as Arabs now and their countries become part of the Arab state. Thus, the national security of Kurdistan is restricted to the strength of language (Hamid and Raza, 2013: 116); (Fattah, 2007: 7); (Pakhshan, 2013: 161). On one hand, the idea and the struggle for saving the Kurds from the national oppression through uniting all parts of Kurdistan in an independent Kurdistan state is what is known by Jukil (2014: 8-9) as Kurdayeti, on the other hand, Kurdish is a genuine medium through which the Kurdish ethnic identity is expressed and it is an important criterion that differentiates them from their neighbors nationally and ethnically (Blau,

2006: 111); (Jukil, 2014: 7). Accordingly, the ancient history and proto-national identity reveals the significance of language to the national identity in Kurdistan. Kurdistan's political culture from the twelfth through the nineteenth century answers the essential question as to whether there existed a Kurdish nationalism in the modern sense of the term during that period. (Aziz, 2015: 45)

The second factor revolves around the role of English as a global language which is embodied by the impression given by Spolsky (2004: 220) when he assumes that the 'tidal wave of English' is moving into almost every sociolinguistic repertoire throughout the global language ecology. Though the history of the journey of English in Kurdistan is not a long one, Iraqi Kurdistan Region is not excluded. English which is the universal communication language plays a crucial role in terms of the current international social and economic movements and changes. As a matter of fact, the colonial rule in the past wasn't the key player for spreading English in Iraqi Kurdistan. Nevertheless, it seems that the Ministry of Education in Iraqi Kurdistan has practically started its first steps towards giving the priority to English as a second language in Iraqi Kurdistan since the language of education is changed from Kurdish into English and as empirical samples the process is currently in place for the first three stages. That is, as a language polity but without being studied, the Ministry of Education is adopting the steps of other locations and states such as Netherlands which insistently prioritizes English as a second language (L2) (Ytsma, 2000: 228). Nevertheless, the consequences of such a step has an adverse consequence the Iraqi Kurdistan Regional Government is to be aware of because the tidal wave of English is a great threat for the local languages. Surkhi (2013: 49) confirms that learning the second language without paying attention to the mother tongue will lead the Kurdish language to a kind of committing suicide or the slow death. Hereby, the status or vitality of local languages are protected in different ways all over the world. For example, discourse in Germany indicates that there is a boiled worry about English. Hence, one can find a lot of debates in terms of marginalization of German (Phillipson, 2003: 80). In a word, despite of the confirmation of the growth and development of the modern national language, and of the facilities that enable English language to be superior in Iraqi Kurdistan, in a statistics made by Aziz (2015: 141-143) among a group of students of Salahaddin University in terms of the attachment and loyalty to Kurdish, Arabic, and English languages. The students were basically from College of Science and College of Arts. In conclusion 90 per cent of the students agreed that the priority is to be given to Kurdish and this was a vigorous finding.

The third factor deals with sociolinguistic situation which revolves around the number and kinds of languages, the number and kinds of speakers of each, the communicative value of each language both inside and outside the community being studied (Spolsky, 2004: 219). Though apparently supporting dialects and sub-dialects is a threat which may divide language and melt the nation (Hamid and Raza, 2013: 117-118); (Nawkhosh, 2010), the dialects are to be served to make use of them for having a standard language and to adopt the same method of Arabic Kufa school where they discussed and investigated dialects so as to arrive at the rules and fix these rules in the Arabic standard language later on. Accordingly, the project of formal languages, which is prepared by two lawyers and two linguists, is the only project which is forwarded to Kurdistan Parliament in Kurdish in an effort to preserve Kurdish language from the threats Kurdish language encountered them. (Jambaz and et al, 2012: 5-19)

In fact, until the 1920s Kurdish classical poets and literate Kurds, like all non-Arab Muslim peoples of the region, used the Arabo-Persian alphabet. After the First World War, Kurds in Iraq attempted to Latinize their alphabet. Today Kurdish is written mainly in three scripts: Arabic, Latin and Cyrillic. Surkhi (2013: 24) believes that the principal way to preserve any language from

getting changed is through recording it in a written form. The efforts to Kurdicise the Kurdish language by removing all formal and lexical borrowing from the dominant languages is to be credited to the authors of the period 1920-60 (Blau, 1996: 23) cited in Kreyenbrock & Allison (1996). After the 1990s an entire institutional network of printing presses, publishing houses, newspapers, magazines and literary societies was created outside the purview of the previous Iraqi state. It was through this venue that a new approach and modern standardized language was given shape (Aziz, 2015: 42). Likewise, after the 1990s the means of new technological communications played a significant role in Kurdish national aspirations. On one hand, technology rapidly fills the gaps of life and adds many new terms and words to various dictionaries and enrich them. This is a positive point which is carried out as a consequence of development but this has also a negative impact on the native language and weakens the humanitarian feeling (Hamad, 2013: 137), on the other hand, the Kurdish-language education system operating in southern Iraqi Kurdistan made an enormous contribution to Kurdish studies by creating an intellectual elite operating from within 'Kurdistan' rather than from the diaspora, but it was unable to cater for speakers of minority dialects and the political situation made it vulnerable to interruption and government interference. Throughout their history, any serious study of Kurdish culture cannot afford to ignore the oral traditions. (Allison, 1996: 29-30) cited in Kreyenbrock & Allison (1996)

The increasing global interest, Spolsky (2004: 220) states to be found, in linguistic pluralism and an acceptance of the need to acknowledge the rights of individuals and groups to go on using their own languages is the final factor of his first theory. It seems that it is due to the influential role of the linguistic rights that made Spolsky (2005: 2152-2164) especially recall the international awareness of minority issues the American civil rights movement and twentieth century international human rights instruments spark and affirm to protect language minorities either explicitly or implicitly. Being counted as an element of human rights, language spurs nations to provide their minorities with language rights such as provisions for minority language-medium schooling in some way (Spolsky, 2004: 113). This is indeed the case, for example, for speakers of Turkman, Assyrian, and Arman minorities in Iraqi Kurdistan Region (Jambaz, 2014: 133)

On the level of Iraq, the rights of Kurds and minorities is kept safe in the rule of mother tongue. According to the first item of article 4 of the Iraqi Constitution in (2005) both Arabic and Kurdish languages are two formal languages in Iraq. Likewise, all other ethnic groups of Iraq have their rights to use their own languages in the educational institutions such as Turkmani, Syriac and Armenian languages. The fourth item of the Iraqi constitution in 2005 which is the only lawful texts on the international level which recognizes the Kurdish language as a formal language. Accordingly, the final factor of Spolsky's theory assumes that nations pay necessary attention to developing and implementing indulgent language rights for their minorities.

Educational System in Kurdistan covers minorities' rights in education such as Turkmani, Assyrians and Arabs. Aftermath Kurdish uprising in March 1991, for the first time the minorities of Turkmans and Assyrians gained their rights in Education and their languages became medium of instruction. Since the previous Iraqi Ba'ath regime put Turkmani and Syriac languages in the corner of domestic function and forced their users to change their real nationality into Arabs through many channels. Concerning Syriac language, the Iraqi Ba'ath regime had attempted to put in the corner of religious function only. But after the Kurdish uprising of March, 1991, Turkmani and Syriac languages gained their real status as native language for Turkmans and Assyrians respectively. For the first time some primary schools for Turkmani and Syriac were opened in the areas where the majority of population are Turkmani or Syriac speaker. By the academic year

2001-2002 Turkmani and Syriac schools has expanded (Jukil, 2005: 39-40). Further, the range of the expansion of Turkmani and Syriac schools has increased. That is, the number of Turkmani has increased by 30 schools and the number of Syriac schools has increased by 62 schools (Jambaz, 2014: 133, 137).

As an example for the impacts of migration and crossing the language and national limit, the education system in different states paved the way for many education languages of the schools. Actually, the existence of minorities groups in the societies of indigenous people and new migrated groups made the education insert Kurdish language into the working plan of such countries. There are Turkman private schools in the Iraqi Kurdistan cities which enable the Turkish language to accommodate itself step by step. The Chouefat private English school enables the Kurdish school to get mixed with English more and exchange more terms and words with such a language. Such exchanges among the languages that are like twins are in a continuous movement though negative points are expected if they are not dealt with consciously. (Pakhshan, 2013: 143)

Accordingly, there are rights and requests minorities groups are demonstrating in many parts of the world for the sake of practicing their languages and they submitted requests for studying their languages at schools or they asked for opening private schools in this respect. Sabir (2009: 33)

However, Kurd was most illustratively framed as a minority when the point is about Microsoft and Kurdish-language software. Iraqi Kurdistan is to view this as a disastrous imposition of supranational language policy on a minority. Definitely, this confirms the position of this factor of Spolsky's first theory and the interconnect relation it has with the three other forces of the theory. Accordingly, it seems so far that linguistic minority rights have informed Kurdish language policy in Iraqi Kurdistan.

3.2 SPOLSKY'S SECOND THEORY

The relevant part of the addition to Spolsky's theory concentrates on non-linguistic pressures on language management in Portuguese and French colonies after independence. The gist of the theory revolves around the non-linguistic factors and the effects of colonialism or any other forces that controlled a nation and continue to show up even after independence. Iraqi Kurdistan which is a state within a state (Bengio, 2012: ix) faced many internal and external obstacles as at the first moment of Iraq's transition to a colonial state (Natali, 2005: 26) till the beginning of the twenty-first century when Kurds had cast off the sorry image and witnessed a profound transformation.

Iraqi Kurdistan won or were granted independence from Iraqi Ba'ath regime in 1991 but it was left with social, economic, political, and linguistic problems which were the outcomes of the previous planned politics of the previous regimes in Iraq. By 1957 Kurdish language was ignored in primary schools, for example, there was one Kurdish school in Arbil, (The First Hawler school), all the remaining schools were Arabic; in Bahdinan, formal education was considered a taboo. In Kirkuk, schools did not accept Kurdish books but they returned them back to the ministry. At a time, even singing in Kurdish was prohibited in schools in Sulemania, and they attempted to get rid of Kurdish education, this was in boys' schools, whereas all girls' schools were taught in Arabic (Nebez, 1957:41-42). The same procedures continued after Ba'ath regime came to power in 1968 till 1991 but in a different way. For instance, the Ba'ath regime planned to forbid the Kurdish language through preventing it from being the language of education; according to their plan, they

wanted to start from the academic year 1990-1991, but they failed (Jambaz, 2014: 317, 318). In a word, Spolsky (2018: 62-97) tries to convey in his second theory that non-linguistic forces prevent or handicap severely the implementation of the language policy. Most of the states in Africa and the Americas and the Pacific continued the colonial selection of the metropolitan language as sole official language, in Asia, local languages took over, and in North Africa, Arabization was attempted. Being one of the independent entities of the middle east, Iraqi Kurdistan tries to shape and establish a self-governing Kurdish entity having its own national language policy.

3.3 SPOLSKY'S THIRD THEORY

The third theory deals with what Spolsky himself calls self-management, an individual who modifies his or her language repertoire usually by learning a new language. It accounts for private language schools, and the way that some parents hire tutors for their children. In the case of Kurdistan it is likely to be nonlinguistic problems that interfere with working out a satisfactory language policy (Spolsky, 2018). The story of the private schools in Iraqi Kurdistan goes back to the monarchy period when many isolated efforts were made for spreading education in Kurdistan via opening private schools the most well-known of which are “Kashti Noah” founded by writer Najmaddin Mullah, and “Jamhiyat Zanisti Kurdi” “scientific society” founded by Ahmed Tawfiq for teaching the Kurdish language to the laborers in the evenings until 1937 when it was closed and the government (Mutasarif) of Sulemani withdrew its license later (Jukil, 2004: 113).^[L_{SEP}] Since that time none of the private schools were granted any license for opening in Kurdistan till 1997 when the phase of private education in the Kurdistan region resumed and got improved in the interest of the modern educational system under the auspice of the Ministry of Education of (KRG) Kurdistan Region Government. Due to the policies have been adopted by the Ministry of Education which encourages private sectors to take part in the education process in Kurdistan and to the impact of globalization, many private schools have been opened. Recently, a considerable wave of private contribution in education Iraqi Kurdistan experienced since it is likely to grow due to the support they got from the KRG which provided the private sectors with land and legal contribution.

Parents that can afford sending their children to such private schools due to certain factors such as the modern technical instruments, and the curriculum which depends on English as the medium of instruction. Despite of the negative impression such schools have by the majority of the population since their fees are too expensive, many parents encourage their children to learn the second language through sending them to private schools or hiring tutors in this respect.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper assumes that the Spolsky's four forces besides the most updated policies drive language policy in Iraqi Kurdistan in the way Spolsky envisioned. That is, national ideology, English as a global language, the sociolinguistic situation, and an internationally growing interest in linguistic minority rights besides non-linguistic pressures on language management in Iraqi Kurdistan as well as the efforts made by an individual to modify his or her language repertoire usually by learning a new language and what is accounted for in this respect is the private schools where the parents afford the tuitions of their children especially when they hire tutors for them. The priority is given to non-linguistic problems when it comes to the factors that interfere with

working out a satisfactory language policy in the case of Iraqi Kurdistan. Notably, Kurdish today is definitely the same language of the ancient forefathers. It is due to the rise of English as a global language that the people in Iraqi Kurdistan try enthusiastically to acquire English as their second language and it is due to English threat protectionist language planning measures to face English impact and preserve Kurdish. Thus, an interest in the rights of linguistic minorities to improve and utilize their native languages has informed Kurdish current language policy. Hence, the Kurdish situation doesn't consider domestic linguistic diversity as a threat. Anyhow, this study recommends/affirms keeping all four forces and finds it unnecessary to expand Spolsky's first theory in any way. Ultimately, this paper calls for the successful application of Spolsky's national language policy theories to illustrate national-level language management including the language beliefs and language practices which establish his full conceptualization of language policy and display dissimilarly in many levels of the language policy.

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The Role of Grammar-Translation Method in Enhancing EFL Learning Skills

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Abstract:

People intuitively have the ability to learn many different languages throughout several different ways and techniques. Therefore, there are different methods that refer to how one can learn foreign languages; one of these is the Grammar Translation Method (GTM).

Simply, the (GTM) is a method of teaching foreign languages where students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target and the native languages. The main goals of this method are to enable students to read, understand and translate written texts in the source language, and to further students' general intellectual development.

Thus, the main objective of using of (GTM) in EFL class is to learn another or a second language through developing reading and writing skills, learning new vocabulary and grammatical structure, and improving translation practice as its main procedure.

However, this paper investigates the use of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in foreign language learning; its features, advantages and disadvantages, principles and techniques. It also aims to show its role in learning new vocabularies, understanding the content of a text, and developing language learning and translating skills.

Keywords: Grammar-Translation Method, Advantages, Disadvantages, Translation, EFL learning skills.

Introduction

Latin and Ancient Greek are known as "dead" languages, though people are no longer speak them for interactive communication. Yet they are still considered as important languages to learn (especially Latin) for the sake of gaining access to classical literature, and until recently, for the kinds of grammar training that is highly important in any education study.

Latin has been studied for centuries to learn how to read classical Latin texts, understand the fundamentals of grammar and translation, and know more about the foreign influences Latin has had on the development of other European languages. And the method used to teach it, came to be known as the Classical Method which is now more commonly known in Foreign Language Teaching areas as the Grammar Translation Method.

In the western world, "foreign" language learning in schools was synonymous to the learning of Latin and Greek. In addition, Latin was taught by means of the classical method, focuses on grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary and conjugations, translation of texts, and doing written exercises (Brown, 1994). The GTM was adopted as the chief means for teaching FLs. It arisen from the practice of teaching Latin which widely studied FLs due to its importance in government academia and business. The students had learned Latin for the purpose of communication, but after its declination the purpose of learning it in schools has changed. Modern languages were taught at schools side by side with GTM (New York Science Journal, 2012:5).

It is worth mentioning that this method has still survived (alongside with the other more modern and 'enlightened' methods) and is essentially the most developed method for the study of "dead" languages. It involves little or no spoken communication or listening comprehension. Besides, it is still used for the study of 'alive' languages requiring competence in terms of reading, writing, structure, speaking, listening and interactive communication. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:4)

It is worth looking at the objectives, features and typical techniques commonly associated with the Grammar Translation Method, in order to both understand how it works and why it has considered as an acceptable and recommended language teaching method in many countries and institutions around the world.

Objectives

The purpose of the GTM is to help students read and understand foreign language literature (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Most teachers who employ it to teach English would tell their students that the most fundamental reason for learning the language is to give learners access to English literature, develop their minds through foreign language learning, and to build in them the kinds of grammar, reading, vocabulary and translation skills necessary to pass a variety of written tests required at different School levels.

Besides, some other teachers tell their students that it is the most effective way for "global communication" by starting with the key skills of reading and grammar. While others would say it is the "least stressful" for students because almost all the teaching occurs in L1 and students are rarely called upon to speak the language in any communicative fashion.

GTM as a Means for EFL Learning Skills

The use of grammar translation method in EFL class aims at giving students access to English language literature (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It is an adequate way of learning vocabulary and grammatical structures. Language learning would be easier when students focus on the rules of grammar, the features of L1 and L2, hence translating correctly. Through the mastery of the two languages, learning is facilitated when Language skills and practice are provided and used appropriately to make communication accurate and meaningful. Students' reading and writing skills will be developed, as well, in this method. Added to that, practicing various translating tasks will supply them clarity, improve their accuracy in the target language and raise their awareness and

independent study (Fish, 2003). As Vienne (1998) also points out that this awareness will be raised not only at the levels of L1 and L2, but also at the cultural level.

Moreover, student's comprehension is promoted when practicing translation in foreign language learning process. For, the GTM is the most useful for students' second language acquisition in the way that it increases their use of figures of speech, enrich their own vocabulary and improve the ability of interpretation to produce similar texts, if not exactly identical (Hell, 2009, p. 9).

Features of the GTM

According to Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979:3), the key features of the Grammar Translation Method are as follows:

- 1- Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- 2- Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
- 3- Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- 4- Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- 5- Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
- 6- Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in Grammatical analysis.
- 7- Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
- 8- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

http://www.englishraven.com/method_gramtrans.html

Merits and Demerits

The GTM has been practiced and survived so long because of its important merits. There are classes with a large number of students. So, GTM with its focus on teacher-centered is effective and appropriate. In addition, translation, as its major technique, into L1 with accuracy in understanding synonyms helps explain the meaning and remove the misunderstanding.

Moreover, translation technique saves time when translating from L1 to L2, the meaning, words, and phrases of the TL would also be clarified. So teachers who are not fluent in L2 can teach via the GTM. Furthermore, teachers are less challenged because their students already understand and will have no problems in responding the comprehension questions asked by the teacher in the first language. So the teacher will be able to decide whether the students have learned and understand what they were taught or not (Marks, 2008).

On the other hand, the GTM has its demerits. For speaking and understanding are the key skills for learning modern languages rather than reading and writing skills. Whereas GTM favors written than spoken language. However, the GTM uses a graded grammatical syllabus and then the students must accumulate and have an accurate command of each item in the syllabus. Here is the very big demerit of this method especially for those who want to start using the language straight away.

Learning foreign languages nowadays, should be best practiced, experienced and exercised, compared to GTM that uses conscious memorization of grammatical rules or vocabulary. Added to that, in this method, both the teacher and the students only interact in their mother tongue without allowing the students to interact with each other. Students should have the ability to co-operate and establish their self-confidence when conversing in and outside the class.

Currently, translation as the main technique of the GTM, is not considered as a good strategy to learning foreign languages. For it does not allow fluency and communicating through language use (Newson, 1998). Therefore, it is not advisable when not allowing students to be exposed to the target language. Translation is a useful tool in an EFL environment (Ellis, 1992; Ur, 1996). Stern also (1992) stresses that translation is a very effective way in language learning. It helps students to realize the similarities and differences between L1 and L2, when encountering difficulties of whatever kind. This is a good way to understand the language system better through comparing the target language and their native language.

Principles and Techniques

The main principles of the GTM are:

- 1- The most important purpose of learning a language is to be able to read written literature.
- 2- The primary skills are reading, little attention is given to speaking and listening, and non to pronunciation.
- 3- The GTM class is a teacher- centered; the teacher is given the authority inside the class.
- 4- The main target of the method is to enable students to translate the SL and TL into one another by finding the equivalent words of the SL to the TL ones.
- 5- The ability to communicate in the TL is not the main aim of language instruction.
- 6- Attention should be drawn to the similarities and differences between the SL and TL to facilitate learning. (Larsen, 2011:21)

Here are the most important techniques of the GTM:

- 1- Translation of Literary Texts:

Students have the ability to translate reading passages from the TL into the SL. The reading passage often provides the focus for vocabulary and grammatical structures in the passages are studied in the subsequent lessons. The passage is taken from some work of the TL literature, or a teacher may write a passage includes particular grammar rules and vocabulary. Thus translation may

be written or spoken or both. The students should translate the difficult words in a way that shows they understand their meaning.

2- Cognates:

Students are taught to confess cognates by learning the spelling or sound patterns that correspond between the languages. The students are also asked by their teachers to memorize words that have meanings in the TL different from those in the SL. This technique is useful in languages that share cognates.

3- Deductive Application of Rules:

First of all, grammar rules are presented by the teacher to the students with different examples. Second, exceptions to each rule are noted. Third, when the students understand a rule, they are asked to apply it to some examples.

4- Using words in sentences:

Students make up sentences by using new words in order to show that they understand the meaning and use of a new vocabulary item.

5- Memorization:

Students are given lists of vocabulary words belong to the TL. Then the teacher gives them lists of their native language equivalents and asks to memorize them. Students are also asked to memorize grammatical rules and paradigms.

6- Composition: Students are given a topic to write about in the TL. The topic is based on some aspects of the reading passage. However, the students are asked to prepare a docketed of the reading passage instead of creating a composition. (Larsen, 2011: 20-21)

Translation and EFL Learning

Translation is a useful device in the learning process of ESL. Furthermore, it is an aid to enhance foreign language proficiency. It has a facilitating function in the comprehension of the foreign language. The Grammar-Translation method has a supportive role in foreign language learning, and allows students to notice the differences and similarities between L1 and L2 that will make the students understand the language system better. In foreign language learning process students are provided with accurate translation of an English word. This will help them understand quickly, and acquire the target language easily. Any avoidance of translation in the learning process may not lead to the comprehension of the foreign language, which will prelude the achievement of the process goals.

Translation has a meaningful function in the FL learning process, and students become active participants in the learning process. Danchev (1983, p.35) lists the benefits of translation as: 1) natural and easy comparison between the TL and SL; 2) quick and effective comprehension control; 3) to overcome and neutralize SL transfer. To perform an activity, understanding of the instructions is significant, and translation is a useful tool to the comprehension establishment of these instructions. As Harmer (1991, p.240) suggests: “to get a translation of these instructions to make sure the students have understood”.

Alan Duff (1996) states that translation is a natural and necessary activity. To him translation shapes our way of thinking and our use of the foreign language. He says that “translation helps us to understand better the influence of the one language on the other, and to correct errors of habit that creep in unnoticed” (p.6).

Alan Duff (1996, p.7) also argues that “translation develops three qualities essential to all language learning; accuracy, clarity and flexibility. It trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)”. These qualities are important factors in foreign language learning process as they will contribute to better understanding.

The use of translation is thought to be independent of the four English skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), but Malmkjaer (1998, p.8) argues that without these skills translation is not possible and writes: “in fact dependent on and inclusive of them, and language students who are translating will be forced to practice them” .

Anne D. Cordero (1984, p.351) states that translation is not as the exclusive foreign language course in a student’s language program, but as a skills course among diversified options. When properly developed and taught it can maintain and strengthen its own vital role, while contributing to the development of other skills and consequently to a higher overall competence. Translation is thus conceived as an end desired in itself and as a method of furthering proficiency in the foreign language.

Vermes (2010, p. 91) is of the opinion that there is no fundamental reason for the exclusion of translation in foreign language learning, and concludes that translation involves interaction and cooperation between people, which makes it a potentially very useful device, in foreign language teaching.

Conclusion:

The Grammar-Translation Method has been used by language teachers for many years. Long ago, it was called the Classical Method since it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek (Chastain, 1988). In the earlier stage of this century, this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature and is still used as an effective means of learning foreign languages. The use of translation, on the other hand, will contribute to the use of the target language effectively. Learning becomes meaningful when translating from the native language, and better comprehension promotes foreign language proficiency. Using the Grammar-Translation method in the FL class is useful because learning process would become clearer, thus develop accuracy by students. It is hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better.

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The Role of Translation Theory as a Background for Translation Problem Solving

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Abstract

J.C Catford (1965) defines Translation as: “The replacement of a textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language. “Meaning” and “Style”, to many theorists, play an essential role side by side with “equivalence”. Translation means reproducing the closest natural equivalent of the (SL) message in the receptor language, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style.

Some theorists look at translation from a semantic perspective, others look at it from a communicative perspective in which the translator is interposed between a transmitter and a receiver. For others, it is always an interpretation. It is the final product of problem solving. All these views look at translation as a theory, a set of rules and principles that are helpful in the analysis of texts.

Translation theory is a form of comparative linguistics. The equivalence of grammatical categories in the (SL) and (TL) become a basis for establishing translation correspondents.

Translation theory includes principles for translating figurative language, dealing with lexical mismatches, rhetorical question, inclusion of cohesion markers, and other topics crucial to good translation. Translation theory, seems to Nida as something beyond the boundaries of narrower linguistic theories to put linguistics into the framework of communication.

Introduction

Translation theory plays a crucial role in translation process and translation studies. Theories of translation and practice are complementary. They are the two sides of the same coin. The translator, while practicing such a task or skill, should be aware of certain theoretical strategies which help him in solving problems.

Many views have been emerged nowadays about the importance of Translation theory in the process of practical translation and in translation studies. Some translators believe that there is no need to study these theories since translation is a branch of contrastive linguistics, while others affirm its importance. The study aims at finding out to what extent translation theory is important in translation.

The study tackles, what is meant by translation theory, view points on translation theory, its value in the process of translation, what type of theory is needed. Translation theory does not give the direct solution to all the problems that face translators, instead, it shows him the road map of translation process.

Translation and Translation Theory

Translation is a mutual process of conveying meaning from one language to another. To J. C. Catford (1965) “Translation is the replacement of a textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”, (p. 20). Translation as an activity attempts to serve as a cross-cultural bilingual communication means among people. The process is not a mere simple one by itself but requires several regulations and adequate knowledge.

A perfect translation is supposed to meet so many qualifications and illegibility.

Many linguists and translation theorists confirmed that “meaning” and “style” play an essential role in translation process side by side with “equivalence”. Translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. (Nida and Tabor, 1965, p. 12)

On the other hand, functionalists view translation differently, to them translation is the reproduction of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given source text that is specified according to the intended or demanded function of the target text. (Nord, in Shuttleworth and Cowie, 2007, p.182)

To sum up, definitions of translation are numerous. Some look at it from a semantic perspective. Others look at it from a communicative perspective in which the translator is interposed between a transmitter and a receiver. For others, translation is always an interpretation. It is the final product of problem solving. All these views attempt to look at

translation as an activity not as a theory. Other views look at translation as a theory, a set of rules and principles that are helpful in the analysis of texts. (Catford, 1965, p. 125)

What is meant by Translation Theory?

The Theory of Translation is a branch of comparative linguistics, translation has been defined by Catford as the replacement of a textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). This view leads him to consider the degree of equivalence of grammatical and other categories in the source and target languages. Thus, the equivalence of grammatical categories in (SL) and (TL) becomes a basis for determining translation correspondence.

Taking a more pragmatic view, Newmark claims that translation theory is not really a theory but a framework of principles and hints... a background for problem solving.

Translation theory's main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods for the widest possible range of texts or text categories. He also asserts that translation theory is concerned with choices and decisions, not with the mechanics of either the (SL) or the (TL).

Catford (1965: 20) argues that the theory of translation is concerned with a certain type of relation between languages and it is, consequently, a branch of comparative linguistics. Thus, translating is defined as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).

Newmark makes a distinction between translation theory and contrastive linguistics. To him, any comparing and contrasting of two languages such as Catford's example about grammatical differences between languages in number and gender, may help the translator to translate but does not contribute to translation theory.

Having to discuss different translation theory views on theories of translation, it is worth mentioning here, to focus on the value of Translation theory in actual translation practice. People who are practicing translation as a profession have not appreciated the importance of translation theory, though there is a common belief that translation theory can serve at least in the preliminary stage of analysis, as a guide to translation process.

The translator, while practicing his skill, is aware of certain theoretical strategies which can help him in solving translation problems. In fact, theory provides him with alternatives leaving him to make the decision. The problem with translation theory is that it has to meet the great

demands which are made of it, i.e., great involvement in the actual process of translating, but to tell the translator how to translate is not the task of translation theory.

Translation Theory is not supposed to provide the translator with ready-made solutions of his problems. Theory is not a substitute for proper thinking or decision making.

What does the Concept of Translation Theory Entail?

Translation theory is based on a solid foundation on understanding of how languages work. In addition, it recognizes that different languages encode meaning in different forms, yet, it guides translators to find appropriate ways of preserving meaning, while using the most appropriate forms of each language.

Translation theory includes principles for translating figurative language, dealing with lexical mismatches, rhetorical questions, inclusions of cohesion markers, and many other topics crucial to good and perfect translation. (Valleyjo, J. D. (n.d.) Translation theory. Retrieved from: <http://www.translationdirectory.com/article4/4.html>)

Moreover, Hermans (2002 A) emphasized the role of translation studies by declaring that “Translation studies aims at exploring the ways in which Translation is both practiced and theorized in individual cultures.” (p. 13). He added that translators decode and recode the text according to their concept and perceptions.

Nida (1964) defined translation theory as something beyond the boundaries of narrower linguistic theories to put linguistics into the framework of communication text interpretation should, also, be taken into consideration, first, the writer’s intention beyond the boundaries of words, second, the relationship between the writer and the audience, the culture, and the receptor.

The importance of Translation theory in translation

Many theorists’ views have been put forward, towards the importance of Translation theory in translation process. Translation theory does not give a direct solution to the translator; instead, it shows the roadmap of translation process. Theoretical recommendations are, always, formulated to assist the translator in his work, but final success depends on whether they are properly and successfully applied by the translator in each particular case. (pp.208-9, as cited in Shaheen 1991, p. 11)

Newmark (1988), clarified that translation theory cannot make a bad translation into a good one. It cannot make a translator intelligent, or sensitive, which are two qualities of a good translator, instead, translation is an art as well as a skill and a science, and it cannot teach anyone to write well.

The translator, while practicing his skill, is aware of certain strategies which can help him in solving problems. In fact, theory provides him with alternatives, leaving him to make the decision. The problem with translation theory is that it has to meet the great demands which are made of it. (Shaheen, 1991, p. 11)

Linguists and Translation theorists' views towards Translation

Though there have been many attempts to arrive at a unified theory of translating, linguists and translation theorists are still in doubt about such a possibility. The idea of formulating a reliable theory is of a great significance, since it would systematize the methods and procedures of translating.

Catford (1965, p.20) argued that “the theory of translation is concerned with a certain type of relation between languages and consequently, is a branch of comparative linguistics.” Here, Catford distinguished between different types of translation equivalence, i.e., textual equivalence and formal correspondence. He is concerned with translation equivalence as an empirical phenomenon. In other words, he is interested in formal correspondence.

Newmark (1982) claimed that translation theory is a label, a framework of principles: “It is neither a theory nor a science, but the body of knowledge that we have and still have is to acquire about the process of translating. Its main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods for the widest range of texts or text categories.”

Newmark (1988, p.19) added that translation theory is concerned with choices and decisions, not with the mechanics of either the (SL) or the (TL). To him, any comparing and contrasting of two languages may help the translator to translate but does not contribute to translation theory.

Newmark (1988) argued that translation theory's main concern is to:

Determine appropriate translation methods for the widest possible range of texts or categories.

Provide a framework of principles, restricted rules and hints for translating texts and criticizing translations, a background for problem solving.

Give some insight into the relation between thought, meaning, and language, and the universal, cultural and individual aspects of cultures, the interpretation of texts that may be clarified and even supplemented by way of translation.

Cover a wide range of pursuits, attempts, always, to be useful, to assist the individual translator both by stimulating him to write better and suggest points of argument on certain translation problems. (Newmark, 1988. What Translation Theory is about)

Why Translation Theory? Which theory is needed for Translation?

Some linguists and Translation theorists believe that theory helps in practical translation task or work. Perez (2005) argued that theory is necessary on, at least, two accounts, namely for the practical texts of a) revision, and b) criticism of Translation.

According to (Hatim, 2001, p. 7) and (Venuti, 2000, p.26), theory helps to raise awareness amongst translators and encourages them to make conscious decisions, and to explain these decisions to other translators participating in the translating process. Likewise, Albert Einstein suggested that whether you can observe a certain thing or not depends on the theory which you use. It is the theory which decides what can be observed (As cited in Frank, 2008, p.1).

Which Theory is needed for Translation?

Frank (2008) indicated that the lens of a theoretical model or framework focuses on certain facts in order to understand them better while leaving other facts out of focus. He added “we can assess the worth of a theory in terms of its validity-i.e., whether or not it seems to fit and explain the facts and whether or not it is useful.

In linguistics, translation, communication and other social sciences, various theories exist, where one theory may take the place of another.

Translation theory is an aid to the translator. It helps him capture the sense and the spirit of verbal and non-verbal elements in texts. Any attempt to translate a text without restoring to translation theory would fail to produce certain elements, which are essential to the effectiveness and efficiency of a text. Therefore a good and successful translator is the one who can link between translation theory and translation practice.

Translation theory enriches the translator's knowledge of the text. It provides insight into cross-cultural semantics and pragmatics. Moreover, it equips the translator with adequate knowledge and understanding of the techniques and ways of approaching a text; other views advocate the idea that translators need, only, translation practice.

Some translation theorists recommend following a semantic or communicative approach to translation, while others might follow structural theory to focus just on the surface or deep structure rather than other components.

Nida's Theory of Translation

Nida (1976) indicated that since translation is an activity that relies on language, all theories are linguistics. He classifies these theories of translation into three main categories:

Philological 2) Linguistics 3) Sociolinguistic

Philological theories of translation

Philological theories of translating deal with the problems of the equivalence of literary texts by comparing and contrasting the (SL) and (TL). They also focus on literary quality. i.e., the form of the text and its stylistic features and rhetorical devices. (Nida, 1976, pp.67-8)

Nida listed a number of works as representatives of philological theories of translation. Savory's book "The Art of Translation" (1957) falls under this category. Nida, also, regards most of the articles published in Babel as philological in perspective.

One of the major preoccupations of philological theories of translating is the discussion of literary works of high quality such as Shakespeare's works.

Another major issue in philological theories of translating is the problem of equivalence of literary genres between the (SL) and the (TL).

One can include, here, all the previous controversies on translation, e.g. whether translation is an art or a science, whether it should concentrate on the form or on the content of the message. In fact, traditional rules and directives for translators were on philological basis.

Linguistic theories of translation

Linguistic theories of translation are based on a comparison on linguistic structures of source and receptor texts rather than on a comparison of literary genres and stylistic features of the philological theories.

One major difference between linguistic theories of translating and philological theories of translating is that linguistic theories are descriptive rather than prescriptive. They demonstrate on how people translate rather than how they should translate.

The principal differences between various linguistic theories of translation lie in the extent to which the focus is on surface structures or corresponds to deep structures. These theories based on surface structure comparisons involve the use of more-or-less elaborate sets of rules for matching roughly corresponding structures.

Their development is due to two factors, first the application of the rapidly expanding linguistics, the scientific study of language, to several fields such as cognitive anthropology, semantics, pragmatics and translation and interpreting skills, and second, the emergence of Machine Translation (MT) which has provided a significant motivation for basing translation procedures on linguistic analysis as well as for rigorous description of (SL) and (TL), (pp. 69-70).

The pioneers of these theories are Eugene Nida, Roger Bell, and J.C. Catford, who viewed translation as simply a question of replacing the linguistic units without reference to factors such as context of connotation. In this regard, it seems that “equivalence” is a milestone in the linguistic theories.

Moreover, Newmark (1982) classified linguistic translation into communicative translation and semantic translation. He stated that communicate translation attempts to produce on its reader an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the original. Semantic translation attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the contextual meaning of the original (p. 39). Besides, Newmark’s classification resembles, somehow, Nida’s formal and dynamic equivalence. In like manner, Ilyas (1989) indicated that in formal equivalence “the translator focuses on the similarity of form between (SL) text and the (TL) text as well as on the content, while in dynamic translation “ the translator has to reproduce an equivalent effect on the receiver as that experience by the (SL) receiver (p. 28-29).

Sociolinguistic theories of translation

Sociolinguistic theories of translating emerged out of the dissatisfaction with linguistic theories of translation and the growing interest in communication. Such interest resulted

from the work of anthropologists who recognized the role of text recipient in the process of translating.

Sociolinguistic theories of translating relate linguistic structures to a higher level where they can be viewed in terms of their function in communication. When discussing a text, the sociolinguists concern particularly with its author, its historical background, the circumstances involved in its production, and the history of its interpretation for such elements figure in the social setting of communication. (Shaheen, 1991, p.15-6)

These theories endeavor to link translation to communicative theory with certain emphasis on the receptor's role in the translation process. They do not completely overlook language structure. Instead they deal with it at a higher level in accordance to their functions in the communicative process. Moreover, these theories require the translator to exhibit language competence as well as language performance. In translating, one should be aware of the fact that there are several styles at work which must be rendered into the (TL). IN observing different styles in translating, the translating is achieving a near dynamic equivalence. (Nida and Taber, 1969, p.129)

Practical Practice in Translation

The following sentences represent practical practice in translation, both from English into Kurdish and vice versa. It points out certain problematic issues in rendering certain words or expressions for which semantic translation theory doesn't serve, thus, the translator attempts to use Communicative Translation theory which is the most recent approach in translation to meet the needs of the (TL) reader. The underlined words and expressions in the (SL) text have been treated communicatively in the (TL).

Communicative translation is used to solve the problems of untranslatability but sometimes even this will not serve in translation and it requires to be translated freely. Thus, the first attempt in translation is to start with semantic translation but once it fails, communicative translation will be applied in the process of translation.

A) Practical Practice in English → Kurdish Translation

1. Ali looked in the mirror. He had a kind face. He had intelligent brown eyes. He usually had a friendly smile. But Ali wasn't smiling today.

عقلي ستييري ئاوينىكى كىرد، دىم و ضاويكى زور خوش و ضاويكى قاوتوي زيرىكانتى هتروها و كو هتموو
جاريك وزىر دىخانىكى دوستانى هتبوو، بەلام ئەمرو زىر دىخانىكى نى يە.

2. Rome was not built in a day.

ئىنجامدانى: اري مەزن بە شتو و روڭىك ناكري.

3. I pray that my sister will pass in the exam.

لە خوا دىئار يىمە كە خوشكىتم دىر بىي لى تاقىر دىتو.

4. It rains cats and dogs.

باران بە طور دىباري.

5. He was filled with anger.

زور توورە بوو.

6. An eye for an eye

تۆلە بە تۆلە

7. Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?

ئايا ئىتوانم بىر اور دىت بىكەم بە روڭىك لى روڭانى و قرزى بەهار؟

8. Break an ice.

شىكرىك بىشكىنە

9. Ahmed went out to have his dinner.

ئىھمەد ضووة دىرەقە بو نان خوار دىنى دىمى نىو قرۆي دواخراو.

10. The child cannot sleep on his stomach.

مىنالىكە ناتوانى لىسىر سىي بىخوي.

11. Dozens of children are affected by this disease every year.

سالانى بە دىيان مىنل تووشى ئەم نىخوشىە كو شىندىە دىبىت.

B) Practical Practice in Kurdish →English Translation

1. من لة بقرنامهمدایه خۆم خانەنشین بکەم و حسابی ئۆتۆم کردوو لێره لة کوردستان (10) سال بمینیمتۆ، نەتەر خودا ئیزن بدات ئیم خووشە ضەند سالیکی دیکە لێره بمینیمتۆ.

I have in my agenda to retire myself, and I have thought to stay for (10) years here in Kurdistan, and if God wills, I would like to stay here for some more years.

2. سالانی ئەتەجاکان لة طەرتەکی ئیمە خووشەتێک هەبوو ضوار هەتیوان و ضوار ضووری تیدا بوو، لة هەر یەکێ لة هەتیوان و ذوورانەدا ذن و میردیک دەذیان، هەموویان ضوار خیزان بوون، ئیاوەکان یەکیکیان ئاقلەفرۆش بوو، ئەویتر یان سیوو و جەتەری دەبراندان و دەفرۆشت، سێ یەمیان شاپرد ضاخی بوو، ضوارەمیان دوو طوی دریدی هەبوو، هەموو وەک یەک خیزان سەریان نابوو بە یەکۆ و وەک یەک خیزان یەکی دەتەنێ دەذیان.

During the (1950s), there was, in our quarter a courtyard in which there were four terraces and four rooms, a wife and husband were living in. They were, all, four families. One of them was a broad bean seller, the other one was grilling and selling lungs and liver. The third one was a café apprentice. The fourth one had two donkeys. They and their families, all, lived quietly, together as one family.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, the study comes up with the following conclusions:

Translation Theory can be of aid to the translator. If theory stops short at semantic or syntactic analysis of language or at contrastive analysis at the level of word-group, relevant and important as this may be, the translator may fail to transfer into practice any of the practical grounds learned or experienced.

Translation is not an easy task whatsoever for the translators, but a complicated one.

Translation from mother tongue, i.e., from (SL) to (TL) is rather more difficult for the Kurdish translators in the process of rendering into English (TL).

Difficulties arise owing to lack of enough knowledge and background about the culture of (TL) and the details of the constants of expressions and meaning construction.

Problems of the linguistic differences including inconsistent semantic and grammatical patterns between English and Kurdish languages.

One of the most problematic areas translators have got problems with during translation is grammatical one particularly in Kurdish to English translation.

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EFL Learners' Perspectives on the Process Approach to Essay Writing at the College of Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil

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ABSTRACT

Command of good writing skills is increasingly seen as vital to equip learners for success in the twenty-first century. The ability to communicate ideas and information effectively is crucially dependent on good writing skills. Writing has been identified as one of the essential process skills in a world that is more than ever driven by text and numerical data. Learning how to write in a foreign language is one of the most challenging aspects of foreign language learning.

To make an effective piece of writing, good writers plan and revise, rearrange and delete text, re-reading and producing multiple drafts before they produce their finished document. This is what a process writing approach is about (Graham 2014). The process approach mainly focuses on the stages of writing such as planning, drafting, revisiting or redrafting and editing (Harmer, 2010).

This study is a part of the researcher's doctoral study. A questionnaire was used to investigate the main challenges and difficulties third year students have encountered while applying the process writing stages. The aim of the study is to find out the students' attitudes towards the process approach to essay writing after teaching them essay writing following the process-approach.

To achieve the aim, twenty-five 3rd year students were given the questionnaire. The study was conducted in the second semester in the academic year 2016-2017.

The results revealed the students' attitude toward the process approach to writing essay was positive. Applying the process approach accelerated essay writing. Students felt the improvements of their performance.

Keywords: EFL learners' perspectives, Essay Writing, Process Approach.

1. INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the most important skills in learning a foreign language. The significance of being able to write in a second or foreign language has become clearer nowadays. Accordingly, different approaches to writing such as product approach, process approach and genre approach came into existence and they have been the concern of SL/FL researchers and educators.

This study mainly focuses on the process approach, i.e. the process writing. It is an approach which emphasizes the composing processes writers make use of in writing such as planning, drafting and revising and which seeks to improve students' writing skills through developing their use of effective composing process. (Richards and Schmidt 2013).

A process approach aims to get to the heart of various skills that most writers employ and which are, therefore, worth replicating when writing in a foreign language. Harmer (2010) argues that editing and re-drafting are even more important when writing in a foreign language than in the first language.

Moreover, EFL writing is one of the most important aspects of language teaching. As Lee (2003, p. 112) asserts, "it is likely that most business and technical writing in the world is done in a second language." Good EFL writing is the main concern for teachers, researchers, textbook writers and program designers in the field of Foreign Language Teaching, but crafting a text for most EFL students is difficult because the writing process calls for a wide range of cognitive and linguistic strategies of which EFL students are mostly unaware (Luchini, 2010).

2. WRITING APPROACHES

Historically, there are three major types of EFL writing approaches. They are product approach, process approach and genre-based approach (Harmer, 2010; Hyland, 2003; Brown, 2001).

In the product approach, students are supposed to produce the correct textual form that conforms to the model provided by their teacher. As the name suggests, in this approach, the final product takes precedence over the process of learning to produce the product. In other words, under product approach, students are taught to "develop competence in particular modes of written communication by deconstructing and reconstructing model texts" (Christmas, 2011, p.1). Traditionally, this approach was used by many ESL/EFL teachers all around the world. As Robertson (2008) posts, "teacher-centeredness is often amplified if instructors organize their curriculum by means of a 'product approach' where instructors teach to and evaluate from a sample, 'ideal' texts" (p.53). Furthermore, in product approach, successful learning is measured by how well-structured and grammatically correct a composition is (Brown 2001). It is also important to note that in a product-based approach, students rarely acquire the skills required for creating and shaping their work because of the overemphasis on linguistic forms (Robertson, 2008).

In contrast to the product approach, the process approach mainly focuses on the stages of writing such as planning, drafting, revising or redrafting and editing (Harmer, 2010). In the process approach to learning, methods play pivotal roles and the learning can be regarded as non-linear and discursive.

The last approach is the genre-based approach which focuses on social contexts. In this approach, writing is not only a linguistic and social activity; it is also a social act (Harmer, 2010).

3. THE PROCESS WRITING AND THE WRITING PROCESS

Process writing includes the strategies, procedures, and decision-making employed by writers as they write. Writing is viewed as the result of a complex process of planning, drafting, reviewing and revising; and some approaches to the teaching of first and second language writing teach students to use these processes.

The process writing is no more than a writing process approach to teaching writing. The idea behind it is not really to dissociate writing entirely from the written product and to merely lead students through the various stages of the writing process, but ‘to construct process-oriented writing instruction that will affect performance’ (Freedman, Dyson, Flower, & Chafe, 1987, p. 13).

The writing process as a private activity may be broadly seen as comprising four main stages: planning, drafting, revising and editing. The stages are neither sequential nor orderly. In fact ‘many good writers employ a recursive, non-linear approach — writing of a draft may be interrupted by more planning, and revision may lead to reformulation, with a great deal of recycling to earlier stages (Krashen, 1984: 17).

4. STAGES OF THE PROCESS WRITING

To have an effective teaching program means that instructors need to systematically teach students problem-solving skills connected with the writing process that will enable them to realize specific goals at each stage of the composing process. Thus, process writing in the classroom may be construed as a program of instruction which provides students with a series of planned learning experiences to help them understand the nature of writing at every point (Seow cited in Richard and Renandye 2002).

Process writing as a classroom activity incorporates the four basic writing stages — planning, drafting (writing), revising (redrafting) and editing. The process writing in the classroom is highly structured, since it requires the ordered mediation of process capabilities, and therefore, at least initially, it will not give way to a free variation of the aforementioned writing stages. Teachers often plan appropriate classroom activities that support the learning of specific writing skills at every stage (Ur 2015). The planned learning experiences for students can be described in the following subsections.

4.1 Pre-writing /Planning

Ur (2015) states that pre-writing is any activity in the classroom that encourages students to write. It stimulates thoughts for getting started. Sufficient ideas are gathered at the planning stage. In fact, it moves students away from having to face a blank page toward generating tentative ideas and gathering information for writing. Students should be given kinds of activities that provide the learning experiences at this stage. These activities include:

- Group brainstorming

Group members spew out ideas about the topic. Spontaneity is crucial here. There are no right or wrong answers.

- Clustering

Students form words related to the topic. The words are circled and then linked by lines to show discernible clusters. Clustering is a simple yet powerful strategy.

- Rapid free writing

Within a limited time of 1 or 2 minutes, individual students freely and quickly write down single words and phrases about a topic. Time limitation keeps the students' minds in motion and thinking fast. Rapid free writing is done when group brainstorming is not possible or because the personal nature of a certain topic requires a different strategy (Ur 2015).

- Wh-questions

Students can generate who, why, what, where, when and how questions about a topic.

In addition, ideas for writing can be elicited from multimedia sources (printed material, videos, films), as well as from direct interviews, talks, surveys, and questionnaires. Students will be more motivated to write when given a variety of material for gathering information during pre-writing (Ibid 2015).

Finally, Planning is a very important step of the writing process; it allows the students (writers) to organize their writing before they begin. A good planning at the beginning of the writing process will facilitate a great deal of what comes after. It will help the students not to wander off or get stuck in one part of their writing (Tompkins, 2011).

4.2 Drafting

In this stage, students have to arrange the ideas and arguments they came up within the planning stage on paper. During this stage, spelling rules for the written text are ignored. The students have to focus on the content of their material (Marchisan and Alber,2001).

At the drafting stage, students focus on the fluency of writing and are not concerned with grammatical accuracy or the neatness of the draft. One dimension of good writing is the writer's ability to visualize an audience. Although writing in the classroom is almost always for the teacher, the students may also be encouraged to write for different audiences, among who are peers and other classmates. A conscious sense of audience can dictate a certain style to be used. Students should also have in mind a central idea that they want to communicate to the audience in order to give direction to their writing (Ibid 2001).

Depending on the genre of writing (narrative, expository or argumentative), an introduction to the subject of writing may be a startling statement to arrest the reader's attention, a short summary of the rest of the writing, an apt quotation, a provocative question, a general statement, an analogy, or a statement of purpose. Such a strategy may provide the lead at the drafting stage. Once a start is made, the writing task is simplified "as the writers let go and disappear into the act of writing" (D'Aoust, 1986: 7).

Tompkins (2011) asserts that drafting along with prewriting are crucial stages in the students' composition. In these stages, students come up with the novelty of ideas. Students read, search, assess notions and compose the bulk in a raw form of what will come later in their writing. In the drafting stage, they organize their ideas, notions, they choose a topic and now all they need is to think of the means in which they are going to put these notions in writing. They have to come up with the words, phrases, paragraphs to express ideas and at the same time, they have to think of the logical order which fits best these ideas (Tompkins 2011).

4.3 Revising

When students revise, they review their texts on the basis of the feedback given in the responding stage. They re-examine what was written to see how effectively they have communicated their meanings to the reader. Revising is not merely checking for language errors. It is done to improve the content and the organization of ideas so that the writer's intent is made clearer to the reader.

When responding to draft, students should ask themselves questions related to the greatest strength and weakness of their essay, what the central idea is and whether more elaboration is needed. Students should check whether more details or examples are to be added. Students should be careful about the points which fail to hold the reader's interest and get rid of them. Moreover, they should find where the organization is confusing where the writing is unclear or vague.

In this stage, students may modify, erase or even come up with new ideas according to the suggestions of their friends in class. Revising is a crucial part of the writing process which serves as a filter of peers that refines the written work according to the feedback with regard to the content.

In the revising phase, students can share drafts with revising groups, constructive discussions, and make substantive changes, i.e., they add, substitute, move and delete sections of writing. In addition, students can read their rough drafts. Students can also distance themselves from the writing and read it from a fresh perspective (Tompkins 2011).

4.4 Editing

At this stage, students become very busy with tidying up their texts as they prepare the final draft for evaluation by the teacher. They edit their own or their peer's work for grammar, spelling, punctuation, diction, sentence structure and accuracy of supportive textual material such as quotations, examples and the like (D'Aoust, 1986).

A simple checklist might be issued to students to alert them to some of the common surface errors found in students' writing. For instance: verbs tense, and forms, subject-verb agreement, correct prepositions, using articles where they are required, and using pronouns correctly, and using adjectives and adverbs appropriate (Ur 2015).

Editing within process writing is meaningful because students can see the connection between such an exercise and their own writing in that correction is not done for its own sake but as part of the process of making communication as clear and unambiguous as possible to an audience (D'Aoust, 1986).

5. METHODOLOGY

Twenty-five students at the tertiary level in the department of English, College of Education, Salahaddin University-Erbil were the subject of the study. A questionnaire was used as a tool in this study to find out EFL students' attitudes towards the process approach. Following an intensive course on essay writing using the process approach, a questionnaire was given to the students to investigate the difficulties of using this approach in essay writing (see appendix 1). The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part is about the students' performance and opinions about writing essay in general. The second part has 10 questions about the students' performances and opinions in the different stages in the process. Part three includes 5 multiple-choice items and 2 open-ended questions. This part deals with the details of each stage as an attempt to find out the problems and the difficulties.

6. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The literature review in the previous sections and the data analysis, as Table(1)illustrates, have led to the following conclusions:

A. Part I

1. Most of the third year students like writing essays since only (0.7) % show no interest in writing good essays .
2. Writing skills are challenging for third year EFL learners as merely 7 students out of 25 students found writing skills easy. 10 students (40%) were unsure whether these skills are easy or not.
3. The majority of the students like to share knowledge and opinion with friends by using writing works.
4. Almost most of the students think that writing is essential and useful.

B. Part II

5. About more than the half of the students, 56% practiced via pair and group work.
6. 64% students planned and discussed the chosen topic with their partners and/or friends. 24% did not.
7. 68% used the language competence to create pieces of writing.

8. 56% students got suggestions and information on writing techniques from their partners. 7 students did not.
9. The majority of EFL learners (98%) preferred to get the writing techniques from the teachers.
10. All the students had a chance to share and exchange their ideas.
11. 38% were able to help their partners, while 36% of them were not sure whether they could help or not.
12. 36% loved writing essays following the process approach. 40% liked it. 16% students were neutral and only 8% did not like it.
13. 28% highly believed that the process writing helped them in generating and organizing ideas. 60% (15 students) believed the same.
14. About all of the students believed that The process approach sharpened their thinking.
15. 68% became more motivated to work harder when they got feedback.
16. 22 students (88%) felt the improvement of their writing skills with writing the second and the third drafts.
17. Almost all the students saw writing essays very demanding before applying the process approach.
18. 76% needed the outside sources since they did not have sufficient information about the subjects.

Part III

1. Prewrite to get ideas was the most difficult parts for 44% of the students. The second difficult one was (b)organize ideas.
2. The argumentative essay was the most challenging type, followed by summary/response, then caused and effect was no.3
3. 2 hours was the average time the students spent in writing an essay.
4. Prewrite was the most effective step, organize ideas was the second, Write the first draft was the third one.
5. Students made use of the process approach. First, "Think as a writer and a reader" was number one benefits. Then, "Think about your thinking" was no.2.
6. None of the students find any disadvantages of applying the process approach.
7. All of the students considered self-editing and pair review as very important stages in the process approach.

Table 1: Questionnaire Results

P1: Q no.	S.A	A	N.A.D	D.	S.D	
1	8 (38%)	8 (38%)	4 (16%)	3 (18%)	2 (8%)	
2	15 (60%)	6 (24%)	1 (4%)	1 (0.8%)	2 (8%)	
3	1 (4%)	6 (24%)	10 (40%)	7 (28%)	2 (8%)	
4	11 (44%)	8 (38%)	2 (8%)	3 (18%)	1 (4%)	
5	10 (40%)	11 (44%)	0	2 (8%)	2 (8%)	
P2						
6	5 (20%)	9 (36%)	4 (16%)	5 (20%)	1 (4%)	
7	4 (16%)	11 (44%)	4 (16%)	6 (24%)	1 (4%)	
8	2 (8%)	13 (52)	5 (20%)	4 (16%)	1 (4%)	
9	4 (16%)	10 (40%)	4 (16%)	6 (24%)	1 (4%)	
10	15 (60%)	8 (38%)	1 (4%)	0	2 (8%)	
11	12 (48%)	13 (52%)	0	0	0	
12	2 (8%)	11 (44%)	9(36%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	
13	9 (36%)	10 (40%)	4 (16%)	2 (8%)	0	
14	9 (36%)	15 (60%)	0	0	1 (4%)	
15	14 (56%)	10 (40%)	0	1 (4%)	0	
16	12 (48%)	5 (20%)	7 (28%)	1 (4%)	0	
17	13 (52%)	9 (36%)	2 (8%)	0	1 (4%)	
18	3 (18%)	21 (84)	0	1 (4%)	0	
19	11 (44%)	8 (38%)	1 (4%)	5 (20%)	2 (8%)	
P3						
Q no.	A	B	C	d.	E	F
1	11	8	4	1	0	1

2	4	9	3	7		
3	9	6	4	4	1	1
4	2	17	5	4	2	

7. CONCLUSION

Writing is one of the important skills in learning English language. It reflects the mastery of language whereby students use their language competences. It is a challenge and needs deep thinking and good skills to transfer what is in mind into words on papers. To write a good piece of writing is the heart of process writing approach which leads students to use writing process systematically. Teaching essay writing through the process approach accelerates acquiring this skill. Going through the stages of planning, drafting, responding, revising, and editing needs time, efforts and patience by teachers and students. The result reveals that most of the students liked writing and sharing their knowledge through writing. They considered writing as an important activity. They wished to write good essays, but the skills of writing are not easy. The process approach is an effective approach to teach essay writing. It accelerates writing essays and makes it easy for the students to think as writer and readers.

Finally, it has become clear that the use of the process approach to teaching writing has left a positive impact on students when students felt the importance of improving their performance.

APPENDIX A

Name of the student:

date:

Writing Essay Questionnaire

Part I: Students' attitude

Instruction: For each of the statement below, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by placing a tick \surd in the appropriate box.

Degree of practice and feeling

- 5 = strongly agree SA
- 4 = agree A
- 3 = neither agree nor disagree N.A.D.
- 2 = disagree D
- 1 = strongly disagree S D

Item	Performance and Opinions	5	4	3	2	1
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1.	I like an English writing activity.					
2.	I wish to write good essays.					
3.	Writing skills are simple for me.					
4.	I like to share knowledge and opinion with friends by using writing works					
5.	I think, a writing activity is essential and useful.					

Part II: Process writing questionnaire

Item	Performance and Opinions	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Writing skills are practiced by me via pair and work group, etc.					
7.	I along with my friends and partners planned and discussed the topic given or in which we were interested.					
8.	My language competence is used to create pieces of writing.					
9.	Friends and partners provided me suggestions and information on writing techniques					
10.	My teacher suggested me writing techniques.					
11.	I had a chance to share and exchange opinions and ideas with friends and partners.					
12.	While process writing being conducted in class, I was able to help partners.					
13.	I like writing essays following the process-writing.					
14.	I believe the process- writing helps me in generating and organizing ideas.					
15.	Writing drafts sharpens my thinking and improves my writing.					
16.	When I got feedback, I became motivated more to work harder.					
17.	I felt the improvement of my writing skills with writing the second and the third drafts					
18.	I saw writing essay very demanding before applying the process-writing.					

19.	Using outside sources to generate ideas was of a great help since I didn't have sufficient information about the subjects.					
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Part III:

1. What is the most difficult part in the process writing when writing an essay?

- a. prewrite to get ideas b. organize your ideas c. write the first draft
- d. revise the draft e. edit and proofread the draft f. write a new draft

Reasons.....
.....
.....
.....

2. Which types of essays were challenging for you?

- a. Cause/effect essay b. argumentative essay c. problem/ solution essay
- d. summary/response essay

Reasons:
.....
.....
.....

3. How long did it take in writing an essay (250 words) as an assignment?

4. Which steps of the process –writing did enhance you to think more deeply about your topics?

- a. prewrite to get ideas b. organize your ideas c. write the first draft
- d. revise the draft e. edit and proofread the draft f. write a new draft

Reasons.....
.....
.....

5. What do you consider to be the main benefits of applying process writing?

- a. enhance thinking critically c. think as a writer and a reader d. think about your thinking
- e. express thoughts logically f. enhance self confidence

6. Do you see any disadvantages of following the writing process?

.....
.....
.....
.....
7. How important do you think self-editing and peer review are?
.....
.....
.....
.....

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Iraqi EFL Learners' Vocabulary Size in Relation to their Reading Comprehension Performance

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1. Introduction

Whether in the learners' native or second language, reading is an essential component of literacy, and a key to the communication of information and ideas. For a long time, reading used to be labelled as a passive skill since the readers receive information from the text they read. However, Clark (1979 : 49) rejects this by asserting that reading is an active skill as it requires eliciting and constructing meaning through the reader's interaction with a written text. Reading comprehension, the essence of reading, means understanding the text which mainly depends on three essential elements : vocabulary, grammar and prior knowledge.

Vocabulary , simply refers to knowledge of words and their meanings (Diamond and Gutlohn, 2006 : 3), has always been regarded the core of language learning and the predictor of success in reading, writing, general proficiency, and academic achievement (Laufer and Goldstein, 2004 : 399). The present study aims to find out :

- Iraqi EFL learners vocabulary size in English, and
- the effect of this size on their reading comprehension performance.

2. Vocabulary Size and EFL Reading Comprehension

Needles to say, vocabulary is the vital component of language learning in spite of the little attention they get by teachers and learners when compared to grammar. That is why, Wilkins (1972 : 111) asserts that *"without grammar very little can be conveyed. Without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed"*. A good deal of research has emphasized that the number of words that a learner knows determine to a large extent his / her proficiency in language use. Size / Breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the quantity or number of words learners know at a certain level of language competence (Moghadam, *et al.* 2012 : 557).

As far as reading comprehension is concerned, a great deal of studies have acknowledged the important role of vocabulary size in first and foreign language reading comprehension. In fact, the relation between the two is thought to be a reciprocal one. That is, vocabulary growth leads to improved reading comprehension, and amount of reading leads to vocabulary growth. Vocabulary size is found to be a predictor of the learners' achievement in reading comprehension. Similarly,

reading comprehension is proved to have its essential role in expanding the number of words the learners know in the foreign language. Curtis (1987 : 48; cited in Zhang and Anual, 2008 : 53) confirms that students with low vocabulary scores are *"missing information that can affect their comprehension and their ability to use reading as a means for acquiring new information"*. Similarly, Anderson and Freebody (1983: 367) state that *" people who do not know the meanings of very many words are most probably poor readers"*.

The question that has to be raised here is about the number of words that learners should be equipped with in order to understand what they read. Laufer (1992 : 97) reports that at the 3,000 level reading would be satisfactory regardless of general language ability; only at the 5,000 to 6,000-level of lexical items, does the influence of general language ability on reading become ambiguous. Laufer (1992) repeats the fact asserted by foreign / second reading researchers and instructors that inadequacy of vocabulary knowledge is indeed a stumbling block in reading performance of many learners. While Hirsh and Nation (1992 : 695) maintain that to read unsimplified fiction for pleasure, learners need about 5,000 words, below which reading will be laborious; this amounts to about 95-98% of lexical coverage.

3. Method

Participants:

88 Iraqi EFL students in the first stage, Dept. of English, College of Education (for Human Sciences), University of Basra, in the academic year 2017 - 2018 volunteered to participate in the study. The participants were taught English for eight years during their study at schools before joining college in which they have been studying English for two years so far. These years of study are important in the vocabulary the those students have learned.

Instrumentation:

Two major tests are used in the present study. The first one is the vocabulary test. The one adopted here is a new version of Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Level Test (henceforth, VLT) that is developed by Schmitt (2000). Nation's VLT has been used in a considerable number of studies on vocabulary for it is found to be. Nation (2001 : 416) commends Schmitt's version when considering it to be a " major improvement of the original test ". VLT s composed of three levels of vocabulary knowledge; the 2000-vocabulary level, the 3000-vocabulary level, the 5000-vocabulary level, the 10.000-vocabulary level, and the academic-vocabulary level. Only the 2000-, and 3000-word levels, and the academic vocabulary were tested in the current study. The first two levels are recognized by Laufer (1997 : 30; 2001: 46) and Nation (2001 : 180) to be a prerequisite for successful communication. According to Nation (2001 : 189-191), the academic vocabulary items are important because they are common to most academic texts and are specialized and limited kind of vocabulary which makes it possible for teachers to help their students acquire them.

As for the format of the test, it is a lexical matching test which requires test takers to match a word with its definition. There are 30 question words and 60 word options with 30 minutes allocated time for answering the questions. Each three words has six options on the opposite. The

test taker's task is to find the best three options to match the three given questions. Reflecting on the distribution of these words, they are from a stratified sample tending to fall into a 3 (noun): 2 (verb): 1 (adjective) ratio. This ratio was maintained in the test, with each section containing three noun clusters, two verb clusters and one adjective cluster. The following illustrates the format of a noun cluster:

You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning.

1 concrete	
2 era circular shape
3 fibertop of a mountain
4 hipa long period of time
5 loop	
6 summit	

The second test used in the current study is the reading test which comprises two passages. These passages are selected TOEFL books. After examining the reading comprehension textbooks that the Iraqi EFL students study in the first and second stages, Dept. of English, College of Education, it has been confirmed that the readability of the passages on the reading test matched to a large extent the readability of the passages in aforementioned textbooks. Each passage is followed by a number of questions in the multiple choice format, measuring different reading comprehension skills and strategies like skimming, scanning, guessing word meaning from context, and making inferences.

Data Analysis :

Descriptive statistics (SPSS 20) have been used to address the study first objective which is related to finding out the Iraqi EFL learners vocabulary size. The statistics of the three sections of the vocabulary test are reported in Table (1).

Table (1) : Descriptive Statistics for the VLT

Vocabulary Level	N.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Skewness
2000-Level	88	5	29	16.08	16	.423
3000-Level	88	0	21	7.81	7	.875
Academic Vocabulary-Level	88	0	21	8.28	8	.546

Table (1) above presents the means of the participants' responses in the VLT. It is clear that they did rather well in the 2000-level, which includes the most familiar vocabulary in English, than both of the 3000-level and the academic one. In the 2000-level answered 16 items of 30 correctly, whereas for the other two levels, they correctly answered only 7 and 8 items, respectively.

Tables (2) and (3) sum up the participants' performance in the reading comprehension test. The total number of questions is 15, each item weighs one score. So, the complete score of success is 15. It is evident that only 32 (36.4%) students passed the test, whose mean of scores was only (44.50). None of them did actually get the full score, the majority of whom got (8) out of (15).

Table (2) : Descriptive Statistics
of Participants' Reading Comprehension
Scores

		student	Reading Score
N	Valid	88	88
	Missing	0	0
Mean		44.50	7.09
Std. Deviation		25.547	2.480
Minimum		1	0
Maximum		88	13

Table (3) : Frequency of Reading Scores

	Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	1	1.1	1.1	1.1
1	1	1.1	1.1	2.3
3	3	3.4	3.4	5.7
4	7	8.0	8.0	13.6
5	6	6.8	6.8	20.5
6	18	20.5	20.5	40.9
7	20	22.7	22.7	63.6
8	10	11.4	11.4	75.0
9	8	9.1	9.1	84.1
10	5	5.7	5.7	89.8
11	4	4.5	4.5	94.3
12	3	3.4	3.4	97.7
13	2	2.3	2.3	100.0
Total	88	100.0	100.0	

Table (4) reports the analysis of the relationships among students' scores of reading comprehension and vocabulary levels tests for 2000, 3000, and academic word levels. A

significant and strong correlation was found between reading comprehension and vocabulary size at the 2000 words level, $r = .637$, $p < .01$ by using the Pearson correlation coefficient.

A significant but moderate correlation was found between reading comprehension and the academic word level, $r = .496$, $p < .01$. This could have been caused by the fact that the participants' scores on this part of the vocabulary test were generally low. The correlation was even weaker between reading comprehension and the 3000 words level, $r = .414$, $p < .01$. The 3000 word level and the academic vocabulary seem to be a little bit beyond the participant's vocabulary knowledge, and hence produce significant but not strong correlations with the reading comprehension scores. The limited range of scores on these two levels of the vocabulary test could have also resulted in the small correlation coefficient.

Table (4) : Correlations among reading comprehension and the 2000, 3000, and academic vocabulary word levels

		Reading Score	2000-word level	3000-word level	Academic-word level
Reading Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.637(**)	.414(**)	.496(**)
	Sig.(2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	88	88	88	88
2000-word level	Pearson Correlation	.637(**)	1	.571(**)	.744(**)
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	88	88	88	88
3000-word level	Pearson Correlation	.414(**)	.571(**)	1	.678(**)
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	88	88	88	88
Academic-word level	Pearson Correlation	.496(**)	.571(**)	.678(**)	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	88	88	88	88

**Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed)

4. Conclusions

The major outcome of this study supports the what has been reported in comparable studies that the foreign language learners' vocabulary size play a significant role in their performance in reading comprehension. The results of the Vocabulary Level Test ostensibly indicate the Iraqi EFL learners have adequate mastery of the familiar words in English, yet this has been found to be not enough in comprehending reading texts and passed the tests.

Such findings can be exploited pedagogically in attracting both of the teachers' and students' attention to the importance of vocabulary in foreign language learning, with its two types of skills; the productive and receptive ones. Hence, it is so essential to design special courses to teach vocabulary that suit the needs of the different levels of learners. Moreover, students must be equipped with the suitable vocabulary learning strategies according to their own learning abilities and styles.

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APPENDIX 1: Vocabulary Level Test (SCHMITT, 2000)

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning.

The 2,000 word level

- | | | | | | |
|----------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------------------|--------------|---------------------|
| 1. birth | | 1. cap | | 1. cream | |
| 2. dust | ----- game | 2. education | ___ teaching and | 2. factory | ___ part of milk |
| 3. | ----- winning | 3. journey | learning ---numbers to | 3. nail | ___ a lot of money |
| operation | ----- being born | 4. parent | measure with | 4. pupil | ___ person who is |
| 4. row | | 5. scale | ___ going to a far place | 5. sacrifice | studying |
| 5. sport | | 6. trick | | 6. wealth | |
| 6. victory | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| 1. choice | | 1. attack | | 1. adopt | |
| 2. crop | ----heat | 2. charm . | ___ gold and silver | 2. climb | ___ go up |
| 3. flesh | ----meat | 3. lack | ___ pleasing quality | 3. examine | ___ look at closely |
| 4. salary | --- money paid | 4. pen | ___ not having | 4. pour | ___ be on every |
| 5. secret | regularly for doing | 5. shadow | something | 5. satisfy | side |
| 6. temperature | a job | 6. treasure | | 6. surround | |
| | | | | | |
| 1. bake | | 1. burst | | 1. original | |
| 2. connect | ----join together | 2. concern | ----break open | 2. private | ---first |
| 3. inquire | ---walk without | 3. deliver | ----make better | 3. royal | ---not public |
| 4. limit | purpose | 4. fold | ---take sth. to someone | 4. slow | ---all added |
| 5. | ----keep within a | 5. improve | | 5. sorry | together |
| recognize | certain size | 6. urge | | 6. total | |
| 6. wander | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| 1. brave | | | | | |
| 2. electric | ---commonly done | | | | |
| 3. firm | ---wanting food | | | | |
| 4. hungry | ---having no fear | | | | |
| 5. local | | | | | |

6.usual

The 3,000 word level

1.belt ---idea
 2.climate ---inner surface of
 3.executive your hand
 4.notion ---strip of leather
 5.palm worn around the
 6.victim waist

1.acid
 2.bishop ---cool feeling
 3.chill ---farm animal
 4.ox ---organization or
 5.rigid framework
 6.structure

1.bench
 2.charity ---long seat
 3.jar ---help to the poor
 4.mate ---part of the
 5.mirror country
 6.province

1.boot
 2.device ---army office
 3.lieutenant ---a kind of stone
 4.marble ---tube through
 5.phrase which blood flows
 6.vein

1.apartment
 2.candle ---a place to live
 3.draft ---a chance of sth.
 4.horror happening
 5.prospect ---first rough form of
 6.timber sth.

1.betray
 2.dispose ---frighten
 3.embrace ---say publically
 4.injure ---hurt seriously
 5.proclaim
 6.scare

1.encounter
 2.illustrate ---meet
 3.inspire ---beg for help
 4.plead ---close completely
 5.seal
 6.shift

1.assist
 2.bother ---help
 3.condemn ---cut neatly
 4.ereb ---spin around quickly
 5.trim
 6.whirl

1.annual
 2.concealed ---wild
 3.definite ---clear and
 4.mental certain
 5.previous ---happening once
 6.savage a year

1.dim
 2.junior ---strange
 3.magnificent ---wonderful
 4.maternal ---not clearly lit
 5.odd
 6.weary

Academic word level

1.benefit
 2.labor ---work
 3.percent ---part of 100
 4.principle ---general idea
 5.source used to guide one's
 6.survey action

1.element
 2.fund ---money for special
 3.layer purpose
 4.philosophy ---skilled way of
 5.proportion doing sth.
 6.technique ---study of the
 meaning of life

1.concent
 2.enforcement ---total
 3.investigation ---agreement or
 4.parameter permission
 5.sum ---trying to find
 6.trend information about
 sth.

1.decade
 2.fee ---10 years
 3.file

1.colleague
 2.erosion ---action against the
 3.format law

1.achieve
 2.conceive ---change
 3.grant

4.incidence	---subject of a	4.inclination	---wearing away	4.link	---connect
5.perspective	discussion	5.panel	gradually	5.modify	together
6.topic	---money paid for	6.violation	---Shape or size of sth.	6.offset	---finish
	services				successfully
1.convert		1.anticipate		1.equivalent	
2.design	---keep out	2.compile	---control sth.	2.financial	---most important
3.exclude	---stay alive	3.convince	skillfully	3.forthcoming	---concerning
4.facilitate	---change from one	4.denote	---expect sth. to	4.primary	sight
5.indicate	thing into another	5.manipulate	happen	5.random	---concerning
6.survive		6.publish	---produce books and	6.visual	money
			newspapers		

- 1.alternative
- 2.ambiguous ---last or most important
- 3.empirical ---sth. different that can
- 4.ethnic be chosen
- 5.mutual ---concerning people
- 6.ultimate from a certain nation

Appendix 2 : Reading Comprehension Test

Read the following passages and then answer the questions that follow. (Passage I)

Since the world has become industrialized, there has been an increase in the number of animal species that have either become extinct or have neared extinction. Bengal tigers, for instance, which once roamed the jungles in vast numbers, now number only about 2,300, and by the year 2025 their population is (5) estimated to be down to zero. What is alarming about the case of the Bengal tiger is that this extinction will have been caused almost entirely by poachers who, according to some sources, are not interested in money but in personal satisfaction. This is an example of the callousness that is part of what is causing the problem of extinction. Animals like the Bengal tiger, as well as other (10) dangerous species, are a valuable part of the world's ecosystem. International laws protecting these animals must be enacted to ensure, their survival, and the survival of our planet.

Countries around the world have begun to deal with the problem in various ways. Some countries, in order to circumvent the problem, have allocated (15) large amounts of land to animal reserves. They then charge admission to help defray the costs of maintaining the parks, and they often must also depend on world organizations for support. With the money they get, they can invest in equipment and patrols to protect the animals. Another solution that is an attempt to stem the tide of animal extinction is an international boycott of products made (20) from endangered species. This seems fairly effective, but it will not, by itself, prevent animals from being hunted and killed.

1. What is the main topic of the
(A) the Bengal tiger
(B) international boycotts
(C) endangered species
(D) problems with industrialization
2. The word "callousness" in line 8 is similar in meaning to
(A) indirectness
(B) independence
(C) incompetence
(D) insensitivity satisfaction
3. The word "circumvent" in line 14 is similar in meaning to
(A) avoid
(B) create
(C) complicate
(D) ignore
7. The word "defray" in line 16 is closest in meaning to which of the following?
(A) double
(B) raise
(C) pay
(D) invest
4. The above passage is divided into two paragraphs in order to contrast
(A) a problem and solution
(B) a statement and an illustration
(C) a comparison and a contrast
(D) specific and general information
5. What does the word "this" refer to in line 8 ?
(A) endangered species that are increasing
(B) Bengal tigers that are decreasing
(C) Poacher who seek personal satisfaction
(D) Sources that may not be accurate
6. Where in the passage does the author talk about a cause of extinction?
(A) Lines 1-3
(B) Lines 5-8
(C) Lines 10-12
(D) Lines 13-15
8. Which of the following best describe the author's attitude?
(A) forgiving
(B) concerned
(C) satisfy
(D) surprised

(Passage II)

Bees are insects that live in almost every part of the world except the northernmost and southernmost sections. There are 10,000 species, or kinds, of bees. One species is the honeybee, which is the only bee that produces honey and wax. Humans use the wax in making candles, lipsticks, and other products. We see the honey they produce as a food.

Bees are truly amazing because while they are gathering the nectar and pollen with which they make honey, they are helping to fertilize the flowers on which they land. Many fruits and vegetables would not survive if bees did not carry the pollen from blossom to blossom. The worker bee carries nectar to the hive in a special stomach called a honey stomach.

The hive is a nest with storage space for honey. Other workers make some beeswax and shape it into a "honey comb," which is impermeable to water in order to protect the bees from bad weather. The queen lays eggs in completed cells. As the workers build more cells, the queen lays more eggs.

All workers, like the queen, are female, but are smaller than the queen. The male honeybees are called drones; they do not work and cannot sting. They are developed from unfertilized eggs, and their only job is to impregnate a queen. The queen must be fertilized in order to lay worker eggs. During the season in which less honey is available, and drone is of no further use, the workers block the drones from eating the honey so that they will starve to death.

1. Which of the following is the best title for the reading?
(A) The Many Species of Bees
(B) The Useless Drone
(C) The Honeybee- Its characteristics and Usefulness
(D) Making Honey
2. Which of the following is correct about the drones?
(A) They collect less honey than the workers.
(B) Their only purpose is to mate with the queen.
(C) They come from eggs that have been fertilized by other drones.
(D) They can be male or female.
3. In what way does the reading show that bees are useful in nature?
(A) The pollinate fruit and vegetable plants.
(B) They make marvelous creations from wax.
(C) They kill the dangerous drones.
(D) They create strong spaces.
4. The word "impermeable" in line 12 is similar in meaning to which of the following? (A) penetrable
(B) not accessible
(C) attractive
(D) encompassing
5. Which of the following can be understood from the passage?
(A) The workers need to save food for useful members of the colony when food is scarce.
(B) Bees are unnecessary in the food chain. (C) Drones are completely useless.
(D) Bees can drown in their hive in a heavy rain.
6. Nectar is carried to the hive in a honey stomach by the
(A) queens
(B) drones
(C) males
(D) workers
7. Where does the passage show the difference between drones and workers distinguished?
(A) Lines 3-5
(B) Lines 11-13
(C) Lines 15-17
(D) Lines 18-20

Large Classes: Problems and Consequences A Field Investigation into the Situation at the Department of English-College of Languages at Salahaddin University-Erbil

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ABSTRACT

Large language classes pose problems for teachers. Generally, those problems impede the fluency and efficiency of the process of teaching including class management, tests, class activities and others. Large classes produce low achieving students. The researcher predicted that large language classes influence the process of teaching and students' achievement negatively. The researcher investigated this phenomenon using a questionnaire with items addressed to the staff members at the Department of English- College of Languages at Salahaddin University-Erbil. The results revealed that teachers face challenges in teaching large classes and ultimately influencing the teaching process and students' achievement negatively.

Keywords: Classroom Management, Large Classes, Lecturing, Small Classes

1. INTRODUCTION

The greatest challenge facing teachers is having a large number of students in class (Scrivener, 2012). The problem of language teachers arises from the size of the class; packing too many students in the class causes problems to the teacher and to the students as well (Dierking 2017, para.1). As Bahanshal (2013) believes, large classes impede learning and teaching (pp. 49-59). A large class is a challenge to teachers teaching such classes. The challenge is not confined to the situation inside the classroom, but it oversteps or goes too far beyond the boundaries of the classroom. Large classes create in students the feeling of being alienated and make them discouraged from involvement in class activities (Wilsman, 2018, para. 1). It will be discouraging to teach a large class for the first time. (Long, 2012, para. 1). But Bahanshal (2013, pp.49-59) believes that generally large classes are challenging for novice teachers and for old ones as well because students have different views and belong to different social and educational background and exhibit different psychological traits. Yet the researcher thinks that large classes in themselves cannot be regarded a problem if teachers of large classes are well prepared before class starts to overcome any problem that may arise (as cited in Heppner 2007).

Lots of schools have large classes, and in certain countries it is not unusual to have even larger classes but in each of these class types teaching methods vary, yet it is required to involve all the learners in class activities in all class sizes (Scrivener, 2012). But to be perfect, language classes should be small. In small classes it is easy for the teacher to have control over the class and give enough time to the students (Long, 2012, para.1).

There are different criteria to decide on the size of the class such as skills practiced, age and the number of students. According to Brady (2013, p.1 as cited in Brady 2011), deciding on the size of the class is relevant to the class and the skills to be practiced. When practicing writing, classes are rapidly regarded as large as teachers need to write down their feedback. A specific class size can be regarded large for speaking or listening activity while it is regarded small for reading activity. Considering age, a class is large for young students while it is not large for old ones. The result of an investigation that covered thirty countries showed that the teachers in those countries regarded a class containing 30 learners as a large class (Brady, 2013, p. 1 as quoted in Brady 2011). But considering the number of students by Scrivener (2012), the author describes a small class as containing between (7-13) students, and a standard one as containing (14-25) students and a large one, which is the issue of the research, as containing (26-45) students. Classes containing (45+) students will be taken as extremely large classes.

Based on Scrivener's classification (2012) the situation of classes at the Department of English can be described as extremely large classes.

Large classes face challenges of different kinds. According to Cox (1994), the challenges mentioned include challenges such as "less interaction and lower feedback"(143). Providing handouts maybe possible for a standard class but impossible for students outnumbering one hundred. This will ultimately force the teacher to change his method of teaching. There are also problems such as "group discussion", or working in laboratory and organizing tests and assessment but in such classes the load on the teacher and teaching quality should be taken into consideration (Cox, 1994 pp. 143-44). Scrivener (2012), too, states that teachers of large classes face problems of different kinds such as late arrival of a number of students interrupting the flow of teaching or answering messages on their cell phones inside their bags. Nambiar (2012, para. 2) mentions the social negative aspect of large classes in which teachers usually do not have connection with their students and remembering their names is hard for them unless they arrange their seats for a period of time to know their students by their names.

Brady (2013, p.1) mentions some other challenges in large classes such as difficulty in remembering students' names, as it was mentioned by Nambiar (2012, para. 2), and keeping them on task. There is also the problem of cheating, insufficient room for students to move and for the teacher to watch the progress of class activity when having group work and besides that providing copies for a large class is another problem. Cox (1994) states that tests pose another problem in large classes. This statement is confirmed by Brady (2013, p. 1) and adding that the problem in large classes concerns also providing feedback on test sheets and even in oral participation it is hard for the teacher to identify the errors made by the students or identify those who made the errors. Another problem is that the teacher cannot devote enough time to each student (Brady, 2013, p. 1). At the same time Brady (2013) states that what can be done in small classes, can be done in large classes and even it is possible for the teacher to make the class "student- centered" (p. 1).

Cox (1994) mentions that certain teaching activities are common to all classes regardless of their sizes; for instance lecturing, but lecturing a small or a standard class is easier than lecturing a large class.

Lecturing is the best way to follow in large classes in which there is no opportunity for discussion and students write down important points and rarely raise questions which impede the flow of lecturing (University Language Services [ULS], para. 3). But Clandfield and Tennant (2017, para.1) regard lecturing in large classes as a disadvantage because students have little opportunity to use language in such classes.

The problem arises in large language classes not only because of having little opportunity in practicing language but because it is usually not possible to lecture in language classes. If it were possible to lecture, teachers will not have faced so many problems of the kinds mentioned earlier (English Club, 1997- 2018, para.1).

Despite all the challenges, large classes have some advantageous aspects such as " high energy...,timing.....participation.....and fillers" (English Club, 1997-2018, para. 2). Following English Club (1997- 2018), other authors confirm the previous advantages and some others add more others.

Long (2012) believes that teaching large classes is interesting if teachers are energetic and they and the students have knowledge of the order of activities, stick to the rules, if routine is established, if teachers have their order of "seating" and they act according to a lesson plan (para. 2, 3, 4 & 7) . Clandfield and Tennant (2017, para. 1) also state that large classes have desirable advantages such as working in group and discussion. Hatfield (2011, para. 5) adds to what was mentioned earlier by saying that large classes are energetic, interesting and enjoyable. Time passes without tension and many students like to be involved in class activities. TEACH THIS (2018) shares Hatfield in regard of time and adds that *activities* in large classes need more time to get started and some of the activities that the teacher planned to cover will be postponed and this will help the teacher to save time for the following lecture. Furthermore, some of the students may be humorous and this will change the atmosphere of the classroom, more students will be involved in participation and raising questions. All these advantages make teachers feel that large classes are not definitely boring (para. 2). There is also an advantageous aspect of large classes for introverted students who find large classes more suitable because participation is not of importance in such classes (University Language Services [ULS], n. d., para. 2). This last statement by ULS contradicts what was mentioned by TEACH THIS (2018).

To make teachers less disappointed with large classes, researchers have presented some suggestions to make large classes successful. Brady (2013) has suggestions in this respect to manage class without the need for the teacher to monitor students. "Structured groups are the only one to accomplish this. Using groups allows students to be self- managing and allows more time for practice" (p. 1). Doing so, Bahanshal (2013, p.1 as cited in Heppner 2007) states , teachers teaching large classes can take over some of their responsibilities to students and this is what many studies focus on in teaching large classes (pp. 49-59).

In structured groups the teacher can pair high achieving students with "struggling" ones and in this case high achieving students can act as a substitute to guide the struggling ones (Brady 2013, p 1-2). In this way some students' responsibility will be increased. The teacher can also encourage those students who behave well as this can contribute to better managing the class. Teachers are also allowed to use the native language until when rule is established (Brady 2013, p. 2).

Scrivener's point of view (2012) to deal with small interruptions, the author states that there are some methods to be followed such as carrying out threat when teachers threaten, using unspoken interventions such as coughing or staring fixedly at the students that are addressed or distracting students instead of addressing undesired behavior in order to forget their disturbing manner.

Cox's suggestion concerns tests (1994). He states that one of the solutions to the problems of tests is to minimize the "amount" of tests such as depending on "sessional" test but the teacher should try to prevent cheating even if the class is heavily crowded (p.149 as cited in McGee 1991). Another solution is to set questions of the kind True/ False or multiple choice questions which

will make the grading process easier. Another method stated by Cox is to use " pass/ fail grade" to minimize the load on the teacher concerning the process of marking of so many test sheets (p, 149 as cited in Gibbs 1992 b).

But one can quickly identify the cons of these solutions which ultimately lead to producing low achieving students, low teaching and *education* quality and low standard graduates (Cox, 1994, p. 149). A contradicting view by Scrivener (2012) to the one mentioned earlier states that low achievement is not the result of large classes as there is no stated rule confirming that poor learning is the result of large classes and that small classes guarantee good learning.

The results mentioned above are natural results of large classes and cannot be avoided. Yet teachers can do nothing but complaining (Cox, 1994).

The researcher thinks that large classes are not so bad but the challenges apply to large language classes where students are packed in small rooms, the number of rooms are not enough and there are insufficient number of seats in order to have a natural teaching environment.

The researcher predicted that large language classes are challenging, therefore; the researcher used a questionnaire to investigate the situation at the Department of English- College of Languages at Salahaddin University to point out the viewpoint of the staff members regarding the challenges of large classes for them and their negative influence on students' level of learning

2. Theory

The researcher predicted that teaching large language classes is a challenge for teachers and that large classes have bad consequences on students at the Department of English- College of Languages at Salahaddin University.

3. Methodology

The researcher used a questionnaire to collect data on the reflection of the teaching staff members on challenges of teaching large language classes in order to get the data needed to support or refute the prediction made by the researcher. The questionnaire included items related to the topic under study including different aspects of teaching and classroom environment. The questions were addressed to the teaching staff at the Department of English- College of Languages at Salahaddin University-Erbil.

3.1 Participants

The participants who thankfully completed the questionnaire were staff members of the Department of English- College of Languages at Salahaddin University- Erbil. The participants who were available and ready to fill out the questionnaire counted (17) and are holders of different academic degrees and academic titles. The rest of the staff members were either on leave lasting for a long time or unavailable. Few of them refused to fill out the questionnaire for unknown reasons.

3.2 Measure

The data was gathered from the results of the questionnaire that was used and distributed to the participants to be filled out. Ten closed end items were listed on the questionnaire because open

end questions would have needed a longer time. Three- scale response was provided after each item, namely *Agree*, *Neutral* and *Disagree*. The participants were required to tick the answer that best corresponded to the situation at the Department of English- College of Languages at Salahaddin University- Erbil in regard to teaching large language classes.

3.3 Procedure

A questionnaire was distributed to the teachers at the Department of English-College of Languages at Salahaddin University- Erbil. The participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire by ticking the answer that the participant thought to be best applying to the situation of the classes at the Department of English. The time needed to fill out the questionnaire ranged between (4-10) minutes.

4. Results

It was predicted that teaching large language classes is challenging and large classes affect students negatively regarding the standard of students. The questionnaire pointed out that large language classes really have negative effect on the teaching and learning process. Teachers are really facing problems because classrooms are so crowded with students. The results of the questionnaire pointed out that the participants rarely disagreed to the challenge of teaching large language classes and affecting students' learning.

Table 1 Questionnaire results the of staff members at the Department of English on large classes

Items	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
1. Teaching large language classes is challenging.	94.11%	5.88%	0%
2. In large classes teachers have little time to devote to each student.	94.11%	5.88%	0%
3. In a large class, there is little opportunity to involve all students in class activities.	94.11%	5.88%	0%
4. In large classes , there is difficulty in organizing group work.	64.70%	29.41%	5.88%
5. Grading examination papers is a great load on the teacher.	94.11%	5.88%	0%
6. There is a lot of distraction in a large class.	64.70%	29.41%	5.88%
7. The result of having large classes is lowering education quality.	76.47%	23.52%	0%
8. Large classes lead to produce low standard graduates.	70.58%	23.52%	5.88%

9.	It is hard for teachers of large classes to organize the test types they like.	82.35%	17.64%	0%
10.	It is time consuming to provide written feedback for all the mistakes on examination papers.	88.23%	11.76%	0%

5. Discussion

The researcher predicted that teaching large classes is challenging and that large classes affect the standard of students negatively. What was predicted by the researcher was highly supported by the results of the questionnaire. The results pointed out that 94.11% of the participants agreed that teaching large language classes is challenging (item 1) and is supported by Scrivener (2012). The participants agreed by the same rate, i.e. 94.11% to item (2) which is having little time to be devoted to each student. This item is supported by what Brady (2013) confirmed. Each of the items (3 & 5) regarding having little opportunity of involving all students in class activities and the load of grading papers received 94.11% on *Agree* scale as well. Percentages of *Disagree* to the items mentioned (1, 2, 3 & 5) were either null and the rest of the items not approaching 6%. The lowest rates which is 64.70% on *Agree* scale went to items (4 & 6) which concern difficulty of organizing group work and there being distraction in large classes. The rate of agreement to item (8) about low standard of graduates received 70.58%. While the item concerning low quality of education, item (7), received 76.47% and item (9) relating to difficulty of organizing test types received 82.35%. Item (10) referring to the difficulty of providing feedback on test papers received 88.23% which is asserted by the author Brady (2013). It is noticed that there were not considerable percentages on *Disagree* scale and while not being quite sure about some of the items, the participants ticked *Neutral* scale not *Disagree* scale. This means that they did not totally disagree to the items

6. Conclusion

Surveying the research, it is concluded that what was predicted by the researcher concerning the challenges of large language classes and their negative influence on students was highly supported by the participants. Nearly all the participants agreed that teaching large language classes is a challenge. Large language classes pose obstacles before the process of teaching and learning. The teachers become exhausted grading so many papers, spending a lot of effort on group work which reduces the time devoted for learning. Much time is lost waiting for late comers. Teachers do not find enough time to devote to the students who have questions or have problems concerning their learning. There is no involvement for the majority of the students in class activities which ultimately reflects on students' learning and their improper achievement. Teachers cannot organize test types freely; multiple- choice questions are dangerous because of cheating and grading essay type questions is tiring. The low level of students, though not stated but implied, is discouraging and disappointing the teachers who exert a lot of effort inside the classroom and outside of it as well. Yet the teachers can do nothing to solve the problem other than complaining.

7. Recommendations

To solve the problem of large language classes, some solutions are recommended if possible to be implemented:

1. Devoting more rooms for the Department of English to have more sections than those existing currently
2. Devoting an additional day-off to each stage separately to have more classrooms to be occupied by the other stages, or
3. Not starting class for all stages at the same hour; each of the stages can start class at 11:30 for one day to let more rooms available for the other stages

The recommendations are meant to raise the level of students' achievement and take away some of the load on the teachers who suffer continuously from being overburdened with large classes.

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The Role of Paideia Seminar Technique in Teaching English Poetry to University Students

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ABSTRACT

Understanding poetry has been always a difficult task for students because the language of the English poetry is difficult and complex. The commonly used method in teaching poetry at the University level is the traditional method (lecturing) by which a poem is introduced by the teacher where the students respond passively. The majority of university students complains a negative attitude towards poetry as the teacher's ready-made notes cannot stimulate the students to interact with the text or to cooperate with each other to discover and share the ideas. Hence, it is necessary to dig in the methods that can be employed to improve the students' understanding and comprehending of poetic texts taught in the second year stage, College of Education, English Department, University of Samarra. This research explores experimentally the role of Paideia Seminar technique in teaching poetry to university students. The Paideia seminar is a structured, student-centered discussion that requires the thinking of the poetic text elicited by open-ended questions.

It is hypothesized that the use of the Paideia seminar technique has a significant degree of positive effect on students' achievement in poetry. To fulfill the aim of the study and to verify the hypothesis, an experiment has been designed, sixty students have been selected to be the sample of the study, divided into two equal groups: thirty students representing the experimental group (taught by Paideia seminar) and thirty students representing the control group (lecture). The two groups have been equalized.

After instruction for six weeks, a test has been constructed and applied. Data have been analyzed using T-test for independent samples and T-test for paired samples. It has been found that students in the experimental group perform better than students in control group. Applying

Paideia seminar technique has motivated students to be engaged in problems of interpreting and better understanding of the poetic text. The results obtained from this study indicate the superiority of Paideia seminar as compared to lecture of teaching poetry.

1. Introduction

Lecture method is considered the most common form of teaching literature in colleges and universities. The teacher passes on information about a particular literary topic and students listen to the teacher passively, accumulate a vast amount of information and prepare to get a degree as the end of the course. Discussions or seminars are usually neglected and hardly arranged to activate students' creative thinking abilities. Hence, teachers and students do their best to activate success in the examination. In this method, all students depend on teacher's notes. They simply memorize all relevant answers and lecture notes and reproduce them on the paper of the exam.

Altenbernd and Lewis (1966: 4) argue that poetry has many distinctive features. It is different from many kinds of prose in being more concrete and specific. It communicates experiences, feelings, emotions, ideas and attitudes by dealing with a specific situation or events that implicitly embodies abstract generalization. The present situation in teaching and studying poetry requires new methods and techniques which can revive the importance of the study of poetry and make it a tool to help students develop the skills and capabilities necessary to cope with the ever-changing modern world. Poetry as an academic subject is in need of a teaching methodology, which enables students not only to accumulate information about the poets history and literary conventions, but also to have the ability to think creatively, generate opinions and apply the classroom study to practical life outside. Leach (1992: 99) has the view that the modern approaches to teaching attempt to develop an interaction between leader and text and encourage students to approach the text from different creative perspectives. Poetry, in the researcher's opinion, like other literary genres exists to be enjoyed and appreciated. The difficult task facing any teacher is to develop this sense of enjoyment and appreciation in students who are not interested in poetry. So, there is a need to seek and experiment new methods and techniques in teaching poetry. This study suggests Paideia seminars technique to teaching English poetry in EFL situations. The Paideia similar has been used recently in many universities and secondary schools in the United States of America. Paideia seminars have been first described by Mortimer J. Adler

(1984) and have recently "experienced a revival and resurgence in popularity because of the renewed interest in dialogic classrooms". According to Hale and City (2006) Paideia seminars are "student-centered, text-based discussion" (P. 5).

This study aims at

1. Investigating empirically the role of using Paideia seminar technique in teaching poetry to university students.

2. Find whether there is a significant difference between the scores of the experimental group and the control group. It is hypothesized that there is a positive effect of using Paideia seminar technique on the students' achievement in poetry. This study is limited to

1. Poetry area of English literature.

2. The poetry of the 16th and early 17th century for the second year students including "Sonnet 18" by William Shakespeare, "The Hind" by Sir Thomas Wyatt, "Spring" by Sir Henry Howard, "Sonnet 34" by Edmond Spenser, "Leave

me O Love" by Sir Philip Sidney and "The Passionate Shepherd to his Love" by Christopher Marlowe.

3. The College of education, English Department, University of Samarra.

4. The sample of the study is limited to second year EFL students (both male and female) for the academic year 2013/2014.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. The Theory of Paideia Seminar

Paideia seminar is a unique format for implementing dialogic discussion. Ediger et al., (2010: 66) state that "language is primarily speech, and knowing a language is often defined as the ability to understand and speak the language". Green et al., (2002: 225) points out that discussion skills are often undeveloped in the EFL/ESL classrooms. There are several obstacles that are responsible for this situation such as large class size, students' level of proficiency and time constraints. So many teachers have adopted the use of guided discussion where learners are given content input before the discussion and they follow predetermined steps and answers through the

discussion. Brookfield (2013: 64) adds that "pedagogically, discussion is held to engage learners in participatory learning, which helps them come to a deeper understanding..., "and" politically, discussion is supposed to provide an analog of democratic process". It is obvious that most of the dialogue in the classroom is recitation, memorization and students responding to teacher's questions. According to Hale and City (2006: 4) a student-centered discussion is a better and more effective means if the goals for a discussion are to deepen the students' understanding and to develop their ability to engage in civil, intellectually challenging discussion of ideas. Wells (2000) describes a real discussion as:

A form of collaborative meaning-making in which both individual and collective understanding are enhanced through the successive contributions of others and the oriented to their further responses. It is by attempting to make sense with and for other that we make sense for ourselves (p. 58).

It is "collaborative" because it is not recitation, memorization or monologue. It is a dialogic discussion. A dialogue is an interaction with equal rights to speak. Brown (2001: 269) points out that "conversations are collaborative as participants engage in a process of negotiation of meaning". The words "understanding" and "making sense" denote the goal of seminar. As students talk, their talking becomes the "means and the goal" of the dialogue (Adler et al., 2004: 317). Adler (1982: 53) posits that seminar aims at raising the mind up from a weaker understanding to a stronger one where the teacher teaches by asking, not telling.

Constructivism and Sociocultural theory provide the ground for the building of a teaching model that promotes both individually constructed knowledge and socially mediated understandings. Constructivists theory holds the view that learners need to take responsibility in their learning. They actively construct knowledge for themselves in the process of learning. Gagnon and Collay (2001 : 53) say that " it should be the learners who discover the knowledge themselves " According to Combourne (2002 : 26) " Constructivism is a set of assumptions about learners and the learning process". Piaget argues that knowledge acquisition is a process of continuous self - construction. It means that knowledge is invented and reinvented as the learner develops and interacts with the surrounding world. Students do better when they think together, record their thinking, and presenting it to the class. Marlowe and Page (2005 : 7-10) have

summarized the foundations of a constructivist approach as constructing knowledge , not receiving it, thinking and analyzing , not accumulating information, understanding and applying , not repeating back or memorizing and being active, not passive. According to Fosnot (1996: ix) constructivist learning is a process in which the learner builds a bridge between old and new knowledge in cooperation with others. Gagnon and Collay (2001: 52) support this view saying that one of the most important principles of constructivism is that the teachers need to help the students build the bridge between what they already know and what they might learn using whole class discussion.

The Paideia seminar is a methodological process that embodies the constructivist approach. Students come to the seminar with their prior knowledge and their different interpretations of a text. Students Schema (Prior knowledge) creates various responses to the questions provided by the facilitator of the discussion. Roberts with Billings (1999: 5) have expressed this view stating that Paideia classroom "nurtures the right of each student to construct his or her own complex response to the world". The students come to the seminar and sit in a circle they start a dialogue around the questions that involve motivated issues and values. They Synthesize, analyze, evaluate, elaborate, make meaning and share their ideas and assertions. Collaboration is another important feature of constructivist learning. Collaboration enables learners to develop their own understanding and have the opportunity to come to new thoughts and conclusions through "the give-and-take of interaction, argument and discussion" (Vygotsky, 1978 : 142) . Adler (1982: 29) in his book The Paideia Proposal supports this view stating that discussion method of teaching stimulates the imagination and intellect by awakening the creative powers. It is teaching by asking, by leading discussions, by helping students to raise their minds up from a state of understanding less to a state of understanding more. Employing student - centered discussion, applying collaborative learning, asking open- ended questions, and making seminars serve to implement the constructivist condition and sociocultural characteristics for learning.

Vygotsky has introduced the view that learning is a social experience. Firstly, individuals' thinking alone make personal meaning. Secondly they test their thinking in dialogue with others to construct shared meaning. Finally, they construct collective meaning by reviewing shared meaning in a larger community. These three phases of meaning making embody the process of socially constructed knowledge (Gagnon and Collay, 2001: 42). Though knowledge is constructed

individually, it occurs within a sociocultural context. Wells (2000: 67) describes the tenets of sociocultural theory saying that knowledge is created and re-created among people as they bring their personal information and experiences derived from different sources to learn and construct new knowledge. The transformation of ideas occurs through an interaction with others in dialogue (ibid: 61). Billings and Fitzgerald (2002: 909) posit that the "reciprocal flow of ideas involving actions and reaction of group member may lead to new understandings".

Constructivism and sociocultural theory are the theoretical corroboration and support for the Paideia Seminar. Roberts with Billings (1999: 42) present the basic tenets of Paideia Seminar saying "it honors both the community and the individual within the community ... and it values discussion as a means of leaving". This quotation stresses both constructivist and sociocultural values of Paideia Seminar.

Students need to be prepared with a wide range of communication and thinking skills. The Paideia programmes is a classical education that is perfectly suited for the 21st century world. It is a return to ancient wisdom in response to contemporary challenges. The three Paideia columns of instruction are designed to support specific aspects of learning: conceptual understanding, skills development, and factual recall. It highlights the goals of preparing democratic citizens and preparing democratic students to improve the necessary intellectual skills for the "continuation of learning" and in "their working years and beyond"(Adler, 1982: 11). The philosophy of the Paideia Seminar has been extended by the National Paideia center. Roberts with Billings (1999 : 52) assert that the "ultimate goal of the seminar is to facilitate the students learning to read critically, listen closely, respond thoughtfully, clarify their statements, and justify their thinking all for themselves". The seminar is a formal discussion based on a text where students are required to study the text, listen to the ideas of others, think creatively and critically, take notes with textual evidence and prepare answers to the questions. Hale and City (2006: 10) explain that the best seminars have a structure that supports open - ended question. This structure includes pre- seminar to prepare students for the itself, in seminar; the seminar which different types of questions are asked to guide the conversation, and past-seminar, which offers opportunities for the application of the ideas from the seminar.

2.2 Pre-Seminar

The seminar procedures require some unique preparation and this preparation is what distance it from the teacher - centered discussions (Billings and Fitzgerald, 2002: 909). The prior preparations include reading the text. The students are given the questions for the discussion a day or two before the discussion takes place. Students are required to come with well prepared ideas, assertions and evidence. Hale and city (2006: 10) in their book *Leading students - Centered Discussions* argue that "pre-Seminar activities connect the seminar to the other work of the class and help participants prepare students to begin to understand the ideas in the text and they include reading and rereading the text and giving background knowledge that students need for the discussion. Pre-seminar content activities also include distributing the text and supplementary materials to the students. The students are asked to explore the structure of the poem, number of stanzas and lines during an inspectional reading. Defining unfamiliar vocabulary and giving relevant background information, including the poet's name, historical period and influences are important part of pre-seminar content. Pre-seminar content activities help the students master the basics of the poem leaving the details to be addressed during the discussion. While pre-seminar content activities can vary in length and depth, pre-seminar process activities are quick and take place just before the beginning of the seminar. The pre-seminar process activities include a review of the roles of students and the facilitator and specific process goals that can be set by students (ibid: 12). The goals can be for the group - for example, "We need to work on building on the ideas of others" -or the goals can be for the individual, such as, "I need to ask more questions". Roberts and Billings (1989: 43) Stress that activating prior knowledge is an important part of the pre-Seminar. They emphasize the importance of assigning pre-seminar activities that ensure students have read the text, have taken detailed notes, and have prepared for a discussion.

2.3 Seminar

The seminar is designed to put the student in the place of having to think critically and creatively so that they can develop the ability to discuss and understand ideas and values, solve problems, make decision, apply knowledge and skills to new situations and value discussion as a means of learning. "The seminar is the culmination of the Paideia learning experience" (Roberts and Billings, 1999: 41) '.

The seminar has three phases: opening, core, and closing, each uses a different type of open-ended questions. The opening questions help students identify main ideas from the text. The opening question is a question that can be answered by all participants, it is broad, with multiple possible answers (Hale and city, 2006: 13). For example, an opening question for a seminar on Shakespeare's sonnet "Shall I Compare Thee" might be "which line is most striking to you in this sonnet? Core questions are asked during the conversation. They put emphasis on certain aspects of the text to help participants think deeply into the text. Sample of core questions for "Shall I Compare Thee" include "What details show that a summer's day is backing in loveliness?". Roberts with Billings (1999: 46) support this view and recommend a sequence of questions that includes opening questions, core questions and closing questions. Closing questions relate the values and issues to the lives of the students Examples can include, "If you were the poet, what would you choose to compare a friend?" Hale and City (2006: 13) argue that the closing question is the opportunity for student to personalize the text".

2.4 Post - Seminar

The best seminar is a three-stage process: pre-seminar activities, the discussion and post-seminar activities. Roberts with Billings (1999: 47) state that the post-Seminar activities maximize the learning of both the group and the individuals. Writing assignments that follow directly from the seminar are focused on as powerful complement to the Seminar. Hale and City (2006: 14) show that post seminar activities include process and content. To address process, the facilitator asks students directly after the seminar to reflect on how they have done in meeting the goals they have set at the beginning of the seminar. This reflection enables the students to participate better socially and intellectually in future seminars. To address content, Post-seminar activities may include creating art work, writing essays or role-plays based on students interpretation and application of the ideas from the seminar. Post-seminar activity offers an opportunity for the teacher and students to assess the students' thinking from a seminar. Teachers often ask their students to write in post-seminar content activities so as to make use of their increased understanding of the conceptual issues involved.

2.5 Open - Ended Questions

There are two types of questions; questions that assess students' knowledge and questions that assist and lead students into deeper understanding Roberts with Billings (1999: 95) describing

Paideia seminar point out that "the leader of the discussion asks open - ended questions designed to precipitate spirited and thoughtful dialogue". Hale and City (2006:8) explain the nature of open - ended questions saying that they should have more than one possible answer, they should also be thought - provoking , meaning that students don't necessarily answer quickly and might need to return to the text and think before answering. Finally, open - ended questions should be clear, Beyer (1996: 36) supports this point of view stating that students must be given questions on a global level related to a broad idea with little specificity. Roberts with Billings (1999: 45) have written that questions should elicit critical thinking and analysis of major ideas presented in the text and that the open-ended questions spark higher - level thinking. In essence the questions required for the Paideia Seminar are open-ended that are conducted in a manner that directs the students through the thinking process.

2.6 The Paideia Classroom

The Paideia classroom model features three teaching columns: didactic, coaching and seminar. Didactic instruction is the most efficient way to introduce information to students through lecture, audiovisual or presentation, the coached project is the most effective way to have students practice the intellectual skills involved in applying that information, and the seminar is the most powerful and evocative way to have them investigate the ideas and values inherent to the information (Roberts,1998: 11-12). Adler (1982: 22) in his book. *The Paideia Proposal* comments on these three columns stating that the mind can be improved by three different ways: by the acquisition of organized knowledge (didactic), by the development of intellectual skills (coaching), and by the aesthetic appreciation. According to Roberts with Billings (1999: 6) Adler puts great emphasis on coaching and seminar because didactic instruction places the students in a passive role. He agrees that a Paideia teacher should spend only 10 - 20 % of instructional time in the didactic mode and up to 90% on coaching and seminar techniques. Coaching and seminar place the students in a much more active role than traditional didactic instruction. The goal of didactic instruction is to supply students with a body of knowledge in well - organized way that they can then apply and manipulate in the other two columns.

The ground rules in a Paideia classroom should be set first that all students will be given a chance to be heard, treated with respect, and all students will rely on textual evidence in the event of a disagreement (Vasquez et al., 2013 : 105). Hale and City (2006: 73) support this view adding

that ground rules should be reviewed for students before every seminar as a reminder, even with experienced participants and it is suggested to make a poster with the following ground rules for participants: prepare, participate, listen, think, ask questions, speak, respect others and refer to the text. Seminar participants should sit in a circle or hollow square so that the leader and all the students can see everyone else clearly. Brown (2001: 193) has the view that students are members of a team and should be able to see one another, to talk to one another not sitting in rows and not "be made to feel like they just walked into a military formation". Roberts with Billings (1999: 56) have the view that the rationale for the seminar circle is to make it easy for all the students to address their classmates. As a result the circle is a better arrangement than other designs. The circle enhances free and open discussion, it allows free and equal eye contact among all the students and allows the facilitator equal visual access to participants.

2.7 Facilitator and Participants

In the past few decades, the field of educational theory has witnessed a shift from the so called traditional methods of teaching, which is defined as teacher-centered methods, to student-centered learning. This new focus has re-examined and re-defined the role of the teacher and the student within the classroom and the way in which students cognitively and socially construct new information. The role of the Paideia teacher is a facilitator. Hale and city (2006: 9) add the facilitator's tasks in a seminar are to prepare for a seminar by selecting a text, writing question and planning what students need to do before and after a seminar. During the seminar, a facilitator listens, thinks, asks questions and keeps track of the conversation by taking notes. The facilitator's voice should not be the most heard voice in the classroom because his/her main task is to help students birth their ideas and dig deeply into the text. Vasquez et al., (2013 : 106) have the view that optimally , the role of the teacher is to record students' comments and to prompt students to analyze the text by asking open – ended questions. According to Roberts (1998: 13) seminar leaders are aware of two goals. Firstly, all participants are asked to practice communication skills: reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking. Secondly , to engage students in higher – order thinking by asking them to summarize , analyze , synthesize , compare , contrast , challenge and defend their ideas and the ideas of others.

Hale and city (2006 : 8) state that participants should prepare before a seminar (by reading the text , annotate it , etc.) and during the seminar, they should participate by listening well, thinking

, giving comments, asking questions , referring to the text and respecting their classmates. Roberts with Billings (1999 : 52) comment that "the ultimate goal of the seminar is to facilitate the students' learning to read critically, listen attentively, respond thoughtfully, clarify their statements, and justify their thinking-all for themselves".

3. Procedures

In order to fulfill the main goals of this study, to find out whether the students' achievement in poetry taught with Paideia Seminar, will equal or transcend that of students' taught via the traditional way of teaching poetry, an experiment has been designed to investigate that point. Sample of students has been selected randomly and a test has been constructed to determine how far both groups have been improved. The experimental – control group design has been used in which equivalent groups have been chosen by employing randomization.

The population of this study is the students in the English Department, College of Education, University of Samarra. Number of students, male and female is randomly chosen from the second year students of English Department, College of Education at University of Samarra. During the academic year 2013-2014. Thirty students have been chosen for the experimental group and other thirty for the control group. The experimental group has been taught with Paideia Seminar technique ,while the control group has been taught without Paideia Seminar technique by using the traditional method of teaching poetry which is usually the lecture method. In order to ensure that the two groups are equivalent, the researcher has equalized the two groups in the age of subjects, the level of education of parents, student's scores of poetry in the first year and the pre test.

3.1 Selection of Teaching Material

The poetry of the 16th and 17th century is one of the most important materials taught to the second year EFL students at the College of Education at University of Samarra, for its richness in expressions and imagination that stimulate the students to think creatively ,to enrich their abilities to think critically and give their different ideas and interpretations of the poems. The poems taught by the researcher are:

"Sonnet 18 ", by William Shakespeare.

"Spring ", by Sir Henry Howard.

"The Hind ", by Sir Thomas Wyatt.

"Sonnet 34 ", by Edmund Spenser.

"Leave me O Love ", by Philip Sidney.

"The Passionate Shepherd to his Love ", by Christopher Marlowe.

3.2 Construction of the Test

The researcher has constructed an achievement test on the subject matter that is determined at the beginning of this study to measure the students' progress at the end of the course and to measure what the students have gained from the application of Paideia Seminar technique .The test consists of 42 items related to the subject matter which has been taught by the researcher according to the objectives of the course. The achievement test is used in this study as a means to measure the achievement of the experimental group students in poetry who has been taught by using Paideia Seminar technique and the control group students who has been taught by the traditional method of teaching poetry which is used at the University of Samarra.

Question number one is a two-branch test : A and B .The first item of) A (evokes the different interpretations for the reason that makes the poet thinks that his addressee is better than a summer's day .The second and the fourth items test the students' ability to analyse the metre, the rhyme scheme and the language of the poem. The third item makes the students guess the person whom the poet is addressing, while in) B ,(the first item examines the tone of Henry Howard's poem "Spring". The second item examines the students' abilities to conclude the major themes of Wyatt's poem "The Hind" and finally the third item is to give a brief idea that summarizes the whole situation of Sir Philip Sidney's poem "Leave me O Love ".

The second question contains also A and B .Branch A contains (10) phrases or information derived from six poems, the students have to match the suitable poem for every choice .The options of the poems are mentioned underneath. This activity helps the students to imagine the events of every poem. Branch) B (has two items; the first one is an open-ended question. It allows students to explore the idea of real love expressing their own opinions mentioning some types of love with a reference to the poems "Leave me O Love", "Sonnet 34" and "The Hind." The second item

encourages the students to imagine Shakespeare's "Sonnet 18" to show agreement or disagreement with the last two lines (the couplet of the sonnet) giving reasons for their answers.

The third question has two branches) A (and) B ,(the first branch (A) is to test students' capabilities in giving the synonyms for different words and phrases from the poems taught by the researcher. This activity helps the students to think to which poem each word or phrase belongs, even if the text is not present in front of them to give another suitable word or phrase. It helps the students to be creative in writing since a student may suggest a synonym depending on his/her own explanation for a specific poem. Branch) B (is to give the students some lines from Edmund Spenser's "Sonnet 34". The students have to match the interpretations with the most appropriate lines .It evokes the students' thinking about sense devices) Simile, metaphor and personification) and the situation of the poem. It helps the students realize the function of connotation, symbolism and imagery which are related to critical thinking.

The fourth question has been divided into four items. The first item is to explain briefly what is meant by "The Eye of Heaven" in Shakespeare's "Sonnet 18" showing what makes the sun less bright or dim. The second item asks about the temptations the shepherd gives to make his beloved come and enjoy love with him in Marlowe's pastoral "The Passionate Shepherd to his Love ."The third item of question four asks the students to think about the hunting scene in Wyatt's poem "The Hind". They have to analyse the situation to show whether it is real or symbolic. This kind of question elicits the students' ability to think critically and creatively .The last item of question four is to show the effectiveness of the personification used in "Leave me O Love "by Sir Philip Sidney . The last question ,question number five, contains three branches. Branch) A (consists of two items, the first item is an open-ended question asks the students to live the situation of Shakespeare's "Sonnet 18", use their imagination, think creatively trying to find a feature of nature other than the Summer day to describe a friend while the second item is to show what is meant by the word "fair" found in line 7 from Shakespeare's "Sonnet 18 ."The second branch, i.e., branch) B (is to ask the students to find out examples of the use of alliteration from Sir Henry Howard's poem "Spring". Branch) C (is an open-ended question asks the students to write a paragraph about their feelings when they want something unreachable and they have to mention the poet who has passed this feeling in one of his poems .This kind of questions helps the students to be creative in writing and

to reflect their feelings. The specification of behavioral objectives and the distribution of marks of the test are shown in Table (1) Table (1)

Specification of Behavioral Objectives and the Distribution of Marks of the Test

Question	Item	Behavioral Objectives	Scores
1	A		(12)
	1	Test the students' ability to interpret the poet's intention.	3
	2	Test the students' ability to analyse sound devices	3
	3	Assess the students' ability to expect the person whom the poet addresses.	3
	4	Tests the students' ability to describe the language of the poem.	3
	B		8)(
	1	Tests the students' ability to describe the tone of the poem.	4
	2	Tests the students' capability to conclude the themes.	4
	3	Assesses the students' ability to summarize the situation of the poem.	4
	2	A	Tests the students' capability to match the ideas and events to the suitable poems.
B			
1		Tests the students' ability to express their opinions with reference to the poems.	(10)
2		Tests the students' ability to think critically	5
3	A	Tests the students' ability to give synonyms for different words and phrases.	10
	B		10
	1		
	2	Tests the students' ability to identify simile	2
	3	Tests the students' ability to identify personification	2
	4	Tests the students' ability to identify metaphor	2
	5	Tests the students' ability to identify hyperbaton	2

4		Tests the students' ability to identify metaphor	2
	1	Tests the students' ability to realize imagery	5
	2	Tests the students' ability to understand the situation of the poem.	5
	3	Elicits the students' ability to realize symbolism.	5
5	4	Tests the students' ability to identify and realize personification.	5
	A	Elicits the students' ability to use their imagination to personalize the ideas of the poem.	(10)
	1	Tests the students' ability to understand connotative meaning.	5
	2	Tests the students' ability to identify alliteration.	5
	B C	Tests the students' ability to write creatively and to reflect their feelings.	5
			100

3.3 Test Validity

Bell (1981:198) points out that " the test is valid if it actually measures what we want to measure." It is then, the agreement about the test whether it is suitable to measure what it is supposed to be measured or not. To ensure the face validity the test has been exposed to a jury of experts. Every member of the jury has been handed a copy of the test with a letter requesting them to give their opinions of the suitability of the items used. The test items have been approved by the jury members saying that they are appropriate to measure the purposes they are designed for apart from some recommendations and modifications which are taken into consideration.

3.4 Test Reliability

Reliability is the consistency of results of a test. it is concerned with the precision of test scores (Douglas, 2010:105). It is the stability with which a test affords the same or nearly the same results in measuring whatever is intended to be measured (Harris, 1969:1)(.In this study the reliability of the test has been measured by the test-retest method. According to Davidson and Fulcher (2012: 354) the test- retest method is especially feasible in experimental and quasi-

experimental designs that use control and experimental groups that are measured on pretest and posttest. Thirty students in the second year College of Education have been chosen to apply the test for estimating its reliability. Pearson formula 1 indicates that the Correlation Coefficient of reliability is 0.98.

3.5 Instruction

The instruction of the control group and the experimental group has been started at the end of February 2014. The researcher taught both groups. The lectures have been arranged for the two groups on Wednesday and Thursday every week. The learners have been exposed to the material for two hours for the experimental group and two hours for the control group every week. The experimental group has been taught the poems using Paideia Seminar Technique .See Appendix(B) directing the students to read the poems and interact with the text to answer open-ended questions given by the researcher to precipitate spirited and thoughtful dialogue. As results, the students a asked to justify and clarify their own ideas as well as their responses to the ideas of others. The ultimate goal of a seminar is that all students develop deeper understanding of the text through thoughtful interaction with the ideas of others. The optimal seminar setting arrangement is a circle or hollow square because it allows free and equal eye contact among all the participants. The students give different opinions for the same poem .They have been told to think creatively of questions, to solve problems to give ideas, take notes and to write them down. The students exchange ideas and opinions and the teacher facilitates and directs their performance and discussion. The control group has been taught the poems in a traditional way, using lecturing method. The poems are explained directly to the students who listen and take ideas and information from the teacher who clarifies and explains the poem in some details, students are passive.

3.6 Statistical Instruments

The following statistical tools are used in the study:

1- The test formula for two samples: It is used to find out the average age of the subjects in experimental and control groups ,the mean scores of both groups in the first year of poetry and the mean scores of both groups in pre-test.

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{(1/n_1 + 1/n_2)}{(n-1) S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1) S_2^2}}} \times 2$$

$$n_1 + n_2 - 2$$

2- Chi-Square is used to show the degree of equalization between the two groups in the level of education of parents.

3- Pearson Correlation Coefficient Formula is used to calculate test reliability by using test-retest method. The formula is as follows:

$$R = \frac{N \sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][N \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

4- The difficulty level formula has been used to estimate the difficulty level of test items.

5- The discrimination power formula has been used for estimating the discrimination power of test items.

4. Analysis of the Results

The Means, Standard Deviation, "t" test for independent samples in order to determine whether there are significant differences between the experimental and the control groups in the post-test scores have been used. The "t" test formula for paired samples is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the post-test and pre-test scores in the experimental group, and it is used again to find out whether there is a significant difference between the two tests in the control group.

4.1 Comparison of the Experimental and the Control Group in the Post-Test Scores:

In order to determine whether there is a significant difference between the two mean scores of the experimental and the control groups in the total scores of the post-test, the mean scores of the two groups have been compared by the researcher. The mean of the experimental group is 68.767 and the mean of the control group is 45.900. The "t" test formula for independent samples has been used so as to find out whether there is a significant difference between the mean scores of both groups or not. The calculated value, which is 5.859, has been compared with the tabulated value, which is 2.00. This comparison indicates that there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups, as shown in table (3). This obviously indicates that the experimental group is better than the control group. As a result the second alternative of the hypothesis adopted initially, which indicates a negative effect of using Paideia Seminar technique on the students' achievement in poetry is rejected. The first alternative of the hypothesis which indicates that Paideia Seminar has a significant degree of positive effect on the students' achievement compared to their achievement in situation where traditional method of teaching poetry is used, is accepted. The third alternative of the hypothesis which indicates a neglected effect of using Paideia Seminar technique on students' achievement in poetry is also rejected.

Table (2)

The Mean, Standard Deviation and 'T' Value of the Post-test Scores

Group	Number of Students	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree of Freedom	'T' Value		P<
					Calculated	Tabulated	
Experimental	30	68.767	15.811	58	5.859	2.00	SD
Control	30	45.900	14.385				

4.2 Comparison of the Pre-test and the Post-test Scores in the Experimental Group

The 't' test formula for paired sample* has been used to find out whether there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the experimental group in the pre-test and post-test scores .A paired sample 't 'test is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the average values of the same measurement made under two different conditions . The' t' test calculated value of the7.841 is compared to the tabulated value 2.00. This indicates that there is a clear and significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores in the experimental group. Since 7.841 is greater than 2.00 it can be easily concluded that the null hypothesis, which indicates no effect of using Paideia Seminar technique on the students' achievement in poetry, is rejected. This highlights that there is a statistically significant difference on the achievement of students taught poetry via Paideia Seminar technique, as shown in Table(3).

* The 't' test formula for paired sample:

$$t = \frac{d}{sd}$$

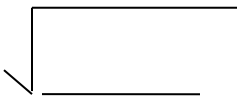
$$s = \frac{sd^2}{n}$$

$$sd^2 = \frac{\sum d^2 - (\sum d)^2}{n-1}$$

d = mean of difference

sd = Standard Deviation of Difference

(Hinkle et al., 1982:218)



Sd² = Variance of difference

Table (3)

The Mean, Standard Deviation 't' Value of the Pre-test and Post-test', Scores of the Experimental Group

Test	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree of Freedom	'T' Value		P<
				Calculated	Tabulated	
Pre-test	36.167	14.227	29	7.841	2.00	SD
Post-test	68.767	15.811				

4.3 Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores in the Control Group

The 't' test formula for paired sample has been used to find out whether there is a significant difference in the mean scores of the control group in the pre-test and post-test scores. The 't' test value is 2.536, which indicates that there is a difference, but it is not significant, as compared with 't' tabulated value, which is 2.045 at 0.05 level, as shown in Table (4).

Table (4)

The Mean, standard Deviation, 't' Value of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group

Test	Mean	Standard Deviation	Degree of Freedom	'T' Value	
				Calculated	Tabulated
Pre-test	35.800	13.947	29	2.536	2.045
Post-Test	45.900	14.385			

4.4 Discussion of the Obtained Results

The statistical analysis of the results obtained from the experiment indicates that the achievement of students in the experimental group is significantly better and higher in average from the achievement of students in the control group in the total scores of the post-test .It can be mentioned that this experiment leads to demonstrate significantly higher learning effects for Paideia Seminar. This can be interpreted to mean that teaching poetry in a way that promotes interaction with the text ,work cooperatively, thinking creatively, generating and sharing ideas,

and a way that encourages student- centered discussion with open-ended questions as a means and goal of teaching is more benefit to learning than the traditional way which does not give the students the opportunity to discuss and communicate inside the classroom .It can be said that the interaction with the text and helping the students take the responsibility of their own learning give them the opportunity to develop their creative and critical thinking and improve their communication skills.

The mean of the experimental group is 68.767 while the mean of the control group is 45.900 .it does not indicate that the traditional way of teaching poetry to university students has a totally negative effect, but the wide variations in scores indicate that learners get benefit from this technique which is based on student-centered discussion. The aim of this study has been specified as reaching a decision on the role and effectiveness of the use of Paideia Seminar Technique on the achievement of second year college students in poetry. The obtained findings as well as their interpretations can be summarized as:

- 1- The mean score of the experimental group is higher than the mean score of the control group. This means that teaching poetry using Paideia Seminar technique is more effective than teaching poetry through using the traditional method which is often teacher-centered.
- 2- The wide variations in scores between the experimental group and the control group in the post-test highlights the significant effectiveness of student-centered text-based methods and techniques.
- 3- There is a clear and significant difference in the students' scores of the experimental group between the pre-test and the post-test. This indicates obviously that the students in the experimental group have got benefit from applying Paideia Seminar technique.
- 4- It has been discovered through the analysis of the variations among subjects in the experimental group between the pre-test and the post-test that the range of variations has been relatively widened.
- 5- It has been discovered through the experiment that Paideia Seminar can be developed as an effective technique in teaching poetry at the university level.
- 6- This study demonstrates that the Paideia Seminar can be a teaching process that meets the needs and expectations of many teachers.

7- The difference in means between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores in the control group is 10.1 and the difference in means of the two tests in the experimental group is 32.6. It does not mean that the traditional way of teaching poetry has a totally negative effect, but the students in the experimental group have got observable benefit from applying Paideia Seminar technique.

8- It has been discovered through the analysis of variation among subjects in the control group between the pre-test and post-test that the average of variations is reduced .

5.1 Conclusions

In the light of the findings of this study, we have come up with the following conclusions, some are theoretical, others are practical:

5.1.1 Practical Conclusions

According to the results obtained from this study, the following practical conclusions have been observed:

1. Paideia Seminar technique gives students an opportunity to react to the poems based on their own experience, emotions and their prior knowledge.
2. Paideia Seminar technique encourages the students to express their personal understanding of a poem rather than wait for the teacher's ready-made notes.
3. The results of this study show a significant improvement in the experimental group. The statistical results have confirmed the first hypothesis at the outset of the study, which indicates that the use of Paideia Seminar in teaching poetry is expected to have a significant positive effect on students' achievement in poetry.
4. From a pedagogical and practical point of view, the results indicate the importance of teacher training to play different roles and especially in presenting different activities inside the classroom.
5. Paideia Seminar makes the students more active, it motivates them to read and analyze the text, it develops their ability to generate new and different ideas from the poem and it helps them to be able to appreciate poetry. Consequently, it plays a vital role to develop their language and communicate skills as they are students of English as a foreign language and to be creative in thinking and writing.

6. The safe classroom environment for students in the experimental group to think creatively and talk freely because negative comments are not acceptable.
7. Planning, organization, communication and comprehension elicited by the Paideia Seminar are necessary for optimal learning.
8. The application of Paideia Seminar technique has stimulated actively students to become more fluent and freer in generating ideas.
9. Paideia Seminar consolidates the relationships between the teacher and his students, and between the students themselves. It encourages the spirit of cooperation among students.

5.1.2 Theoretical Conclusions

According to the results obtained from this study, the following theoretical conclusions have been drawn:

1. From a theoretical point of view, the results of this study uphold the view that language teaching is communication and interaction between the students and the text. It is so important to encourage the students to use their prior knowledge and their own experience to learn new things and to generate new ideas through discussion and interaction with each other.
2. Note taking by students in the experimental group is encouraged as well as active listening.

5.2 Recommendations

In the light of the conclusions and the obtained results, the following pedagogical implications and recommendations can be derived:

1. Teachers are highly required to implement pre-seminars activities in teaching literary and poetic texts to encourage students to better reading and deeper understanding of the poetic text.
2. Paideia Seminar must be implemented because it develops the students' communicative skills, critical thinking and creativity.
3. More attention should be directed to training teachers of poetry, providing them with the up-to-date methods and techniques of teaching literature.
4. Paideia Seminar technique should be used because students are encouraged and directed to interact with the text to analyze and criticize the poetic meanin

5. Paideia Seminar should be used since it is a means to learn problem-solving skills, that enables the students to present a problem or an issue, generate various solutions, apply suitable ideas to solve the problem, and evaluate the results.
6. Emphasis should be laid on developing students' higher- order thinking skills; this can be implemented by using Paideia Seminar technique.
7. More attention should be directed towards sound devices and language devices of poetry which can be taught by Paideia Seminar technique.

Appendix (A)

Learners' Post-test Scores

No.	Experimental Group Scores	No.	Control Group Scores
1	65	1	22
2	86	2	54
3	45	3	34
4	77	4	31
5	83	5	79
6	82	6	23
7	68	7	29
8	62	8	67
9	63	9	48
10	59	10	34
11	70	11	53
12	79	12	51
13	85	13	45
14	70	14	60
15	81	15	54
16	48	16	31
17	63	17	55
18	89	18	43
19	70	19	61
20	96	20	23
21	82	21	40
22	48	22	35
23	79	23	48
24	54	24	56
25	77	25	35
26	31	26	33
27	68	27	50
28	81	28	58
29	63	29	63
30	64	30	55

Appendix (B)

The Lesson Plan

Sample: Sonnet 18. By: William Shakespeare.

Time of the Lecture: Two hours.

Note: This poem takes two lectures.

The teacher arranges students' desks in a circle so students are all facing each other.

Pre-Seminar

Content- The facilitator presents relevant background information. Participants are prepared to discuss the selected poem.

Before handing students a copy of the poem, the teacher makes them listen to the poem from a CD player. Once they have done so, they are handed out copies of the sonnet and the teacher has at least two students read the sonnet aloud.

Process- The facilitator reviews seminar objectives and guidelines. Participants are asked to set goals, individual goals and a group goal.

Example of the goals for an individual participant.

- Listen more closely.
- Speak at least once.
- Refer to the text when I speak.

Examples of goals for a group:

- No interruption.
- No side conversation.
- Build on each other's ideas.
- Allow silence to people to think.

Seminar Questions

Opening – identify main ideas from the text.

Which line do you think is the most important in the sonnet? Why?

Core – Focus/ analyze textual details.

- 1- Why do you think Shakespeare choose a summer day to describe his addressee?
- 2- What do you think "the eye of heaven" and "his gold complexion" mean?
- 3- What is the logic behind lines 13-14? Is this a valid proof? Why or why not?
- 4- What details show that "a summer's day" is lacking in loveliness and is intemperate?
- 5- How can you describe the language of this poem?
- 6- What are the metre and the rhyme scheme?

Post-Seminar

Process – The teacher assesses individual and group participation using the seminar Rubric with students referring to recent past as well as future seminar discussion.

Context – The teacher extends application of textual and discussion ideas.

Students have to do these activities:

- 1- Write a persuasive essay about Shakespeare's sonnet "Shall I Compare thee".
- 2- Choose – feature of nature than the summer day to describe a friend. Write a paragraph about it.

Appendix (C)

The Test

Second Year

Poetry Exam

May 2014

Q.1. A/ Read the first quatrain of Shakespeare's sonnet 18" and then answer the questions that follow: **(12 marks)**

Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?

Though art more lovely and more temperate

Rough winds do shake the darling buds of May,

And summer's lease hath all too short a date.

1- Why is the poet's addressee better than a summer's day?

2- What are the metre and the rhyme scheme of the poem?

3- To whom is the poem addressed?

4- How can you describe the language of this poem?

B/ Explain briefly two of the following: **(8 marks)**

1- The tone of the Henry Howard's poem "Spring"

2- The major themes of Wyatt's poem "The Hind".

3- The situation of Sir Philip Sidney's poem "Leave me O love".

Q.2. A/ Mention the poem which is suitable to the following expressions. **(10 marks)**

1- a bed of roses.

2- chains of learning give us light to see.

3- the immortality of love in poetry.

4. no one catch me.

5- the turtle is playing with her mate.

6- a ship, a large ocean and storms.

7- the feeling of frustration.

8- thinking of heavenly things.

9- transience of human beauty.

10- the rebirth of nature.

The Poems

Leave me O Love/ The Hind/ sonnet 34/ Spring/ Sonnet 18/ The passionate Shepherd to his love.

B.1/ Describe your opinion of real love shedding light on some types of love mentioned in the poems "Leave me O Love", "Sonnet 34" and "The Hind".

(5 marks)

2/ do you agree with the last two lines of Shakespeare sonnet 18? Give reasons for your answers.

(5 marks)

Q.3.A/ Find the suitable synonyms for the following words and expressions:

(10 marks)

1- Fair 2- reachest but dust 3- yoke 4- buds 5- soote season 6- Hind 7- owest 8- doth 9- thou art 10- lodestar

B/ Match the following interpretations with the most appropriate lines from the poem "Sonnet 34".

1- There is a clear example of simile.

2- It is an example of personification.

3- The poet compares strong winds with his own difficult situation.

4- There is a case of hyperbaton.

5- The speaker foresees a bright time to come.

The Lines

(10 marks)

- a) Whereas a storm hath dimd her trusty guyde.
- b) Lyke as a ship, that through the ocean wyde.
- c) With lovely light to clear my cloudy grief.
- d) So I, whose star, that want with her bright ray.
- e) Yet hope I well that, when this storme is past.

Q 4/ answer the following questions briefly:

- 1- What is "the eye of heaven" in Shakespeare's sonnet, "Shall I compare thee"? When is its gold complexion dimmed?
- 2- How did the shepherd try to convince his beloved to come and enjoy love with him in Marlow's poem "The Passionate Shepherd to his Love".?
- 3- Do you think the hunting scene in "The Hind" is symbolic or not?
- 4- Do you think the personification in "Leave me O Love" is effective? Give reasons for your answer.

(20 marks)

Q.5.A/ Answer the following questions briefly

(10 marks)

- 1- What feature of nature than the summer day can you use to describe a friend? Write a paragraph about it.
- 2- What does the word "fair" in "And every far from fair sometimes declines" mean?

B/ Find out examples of the use of alliteration from Sir Henry Howard's poem "Spring".

C/ The poet wants something unreachable. Mention the poem and write a short paragraph about your feelings when you want something unreachable.

(5 marks)

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