

6TH INTERNATIONAL VISIBLE CONFERENCE ON
EDUCATIONAL STUDIES
AND
APPLIED LINGUISTICS

BOOK of PROCEEDINGS

April 26-27, 2015
Erbil



Ishik University
Faculty of Education
www.ishik.edu.iq



Salahaddin University
College of Education
www.su.edu.iq

First published 2015
by Ishik University
Erbil- Kurdistan Region/Iraq
© 2015 Ishik University

Edited by:
Başar Batur
İbrahim Nişancı

Reviewed by:

Dr. M. Numan Kanar (Coordinator of Editorial Board) , Ishik University
Dr. Dilovan Safuddin Ghafoory, Salahaddin University
Assoc. Prof. Yakup Cetin, Fatih University
Assist. Prof. Dr. Himdad AbdulQahar, Salahaddin University
Assist. Prof. Dr. Anjuman Muhammad Sabir, Salahaddin University
Dr. Mustafa Bahar, Fatih University
Dr. Muhammad Omer Ahmed, Salahaddin University
Alice Rosemarry Farthing, Ishik University

Typeset in Ishik University by Başar Batur, Hamdi Serin

Printed and bound in Irfan Publishing/ Anıt Printhouse

ISBN 978-0-9962570-1-5

Reproduction of this Publication for Educational or other non-commercial purposes is authorized without prior permission from the copyright holder. Reproduction for resale or other commercial purposes prohibited without prior written permission of the copyright holder.

Disclaimer: While every effort has been made to ensure the accuracy of the information, contained in this publication, Ishik University and Salahaddin University will not assume liability for writing and any use made of the proceedings, and the presentation of the participating organizations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

Partner Universities

Ishik University (Erbil)

Salahaddin University (Erbil)

Honorary Committees

Prof. Dr. Ahmet Öztaş

President of Ishik University

(Head of Academic Advisory and Honorary Committee)

Prof. Dr. Ahmed Anwar Dizayi

President of Salahaddin University

Conference Chairs

Dr. Süleyman Çelik

Dean of Faculty of Education, Ishik University

Assist. Prof. Dr. Idrees Muhammad Tahir Harky

Dean of College of Education of Salahaddin University

Organizing Committee

Co-chair: Başar Batur, *Ishik University*

Co-chair: Dilovan Sayfuddin Ghafoory, *Salahaddin University*

Organizing Secretary: İbrahim Nişancı, *Ishik University*

Organizing Committee Members in Salahaddin University:

Assist. Prof. Dr. Saeed Omer Ibrahim

Dr. Dilovan Safuddin Ghafoory

Dr. Muhammad Omer Ahmed

Dr. Muayad Jarjees

Academic Advisory Committee

Prof. Dr. Ahmet Oztas, President of Ishik University (Head of Academic Advisory Committee)

Assist. Prof. Dr. Idrees Muhammad Tahir Harky, *Dean of College of Education of Salahaddin University*

Prof.Dr. Adnan Kısa, President of Zirve University

Prof. Dr. Fatih Toremeh, Dean of faculty of Education, Zirve University

Prof. Dr. Bayan Salim Obaid, Ishik University

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mikail Soylemez, Dicle University

Assoc. Prof. Yakup Cetin, Fatih University, Head of ELT Department

Assoc. Prof. Azamat Akbarov, Burch University

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yaseen Alhiti, Head of Clinical Sciences Department at Faculty of Dentistry at Ishik University

Assist. Prof. Volkan Cicek, Ishik University

Assist. Prof. Dr. Arif Çelebi, Dean of Dentistry Faculty , Ishik University

Dr. Mehmet Özdemir, Vice President, Ishik University

Dr. Huseyin Cakillikoyak, Dean of Faculty of Law, Ishik University

Dr. Doğan Özdemir, Dean of Faculty of Engineering, Ishik University

Dr. Sara Kamal, Suleymaniye University

Dr. M. Numan Kanar, Ishik University

Dr. Mustafa Altun, Ishik University

Dr. Zeynel Polat, Ishik University

Foreword

We are really pleased to introduce the proceedings of the Sixth International Visible Conference on Educational Studies and Applied Linguistics (VESAL 2015) organized by Ishik University and Salahaddin University. The aim of the conference is to disseminate research findings and provide a platform for scholars to debate and exchange ideas that will increase awareness of importance of education.

We are particularly indebted to our keynote speakers: Laura Woodward, Azamat Akbarov and Alaa Makki. Without their outstanding performances, the conference could not have been successful. We wish to express our sincere thanks to all of the presenters that contributed to the success of the conference through many fruitful discussions and exchange.

A special thanks should also be extended to the session chairs. We would also like to record our appreciation to the organizing committee whom we owe a great debt for their remarkable work as this conference would not have been possible without their constant efforts.

Finally, we would like to especially thank the Foundation of Fezalar Educational Institutions for its moral and material support. All in all, VESAL 2015 has been very successful. The plenary lectures and valuable contributions of the presenters have brought new perspectives on educational studies and applied linguistic studies.

Dr. Süleyman Çelik

Conference Chair
Ishik University



Assist. Prof. Dr.

Edrees Muhammad T. Harki

Conference Chair
Salahaddin University

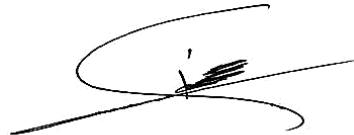


Table of Contents

1. Motivation Equals Participation <i>Laura Woodward</i>	1
2. Developing Cognitive Linguistic Approaches to Implement Communicative Language Teaching in EFL Classrooms <i>Azamat Akbarov</i>	2
3. On Sophism in Mathematics Education <i>Abdullah Kurudirek, Hüseyin Akça</i>	3
4. Assessment of Strategic Procedures Used in Teaching Communication in English Department <i>Ali M. Jukil, Jwan Ahmed Mustafa</i>	11
5. The Effect Of L1 Interference On Written English Acquisition For Kurdish Students <i>Alice Farthing</i>	31
6. To take notes or not to take notes? That is the question! <i>Alison Salm, Stacey Xaelani</i>	45
7. Investigating University Students' Recognition of Illness as Metaphor in "Hard Times" and "The Scarlet Letter" <i>Amra Ibrahim Sulltan, Afrah Adil Mahmood</i>	64
8. The Effective Use of Strategies in Purposeful Reading <i>Arkan Abdulqader Elias</i>	87
9. Evaluation of Accuracy Criterion of Writing Skill of Second-year College Students <i>Ayad Hammad Ali</i>	106
10. Criteria for Evaluating Students Essay Writing at the Tertiary Level at Salahaddin University, Kurdistan Region, Iraq <i>Aziz Emmanuel Zebari, Asma Abas Brime</i>	123
11. A Comparative Study of Phonological properties of English and Kurdish <i>Bandar A. Mohammad, Fatima Jalal Taher</i>	135

12. Awareness of Importance of Communicative Competence in Tefl among Efl Teachers in Iraq <i>Elvira Koran</i>	159
13. The Role of English in Present Day Higher Education <i>Eman Abdulsalam AL-Khalil</i>	172
14. Storytelling in EFL Classes <i>Emine Bala</i>	181
15. An Evaluation of the Teaching of “General English for University Students” at Salahaddin University-Erbil <i>Fatimah Rashid Hasan</i>	188
16. Interrogative Sentences in English and Turkish language <i>Fawziya Mousa Ghanim , Ibtisam Arabi Abdulah</i>	210
17. Turning the tables: lessons for teachers <i>Fay Al Jibory</i>	215
18. Vocabulary Learning Strategies Of English Language Learners In Northern Cyprus <i>Govand Anwar</i>	226
19. Analysis of strategies in teaching ethics to university graduate students: Evidence from Private University in Erbil <i>Govand Anwar, Navulur Krishna Surarchith, Omer Terzibasi</i>	245
20. The Issue of Gender Assignment in Code Switching <i>Haitham Hussein Bapeer</i>	257
21. Students’ Beliefs About Learning English Language As A Foreign Language At English Department College Of Basic Education Salahaddin University/ Hawler <i>Hazha Salih Hassan</i>	267
22. What Do Students Prefer to Do in an Extensive Reading Course? <i>Ibrahim Nişancı, Fatima Saadi, Niyan Said</i>	285
23. Designing, Implementing and Evaluating of Instructional Design That Was Developed by Using Cabri 3D, Based on ASSURE Instructional Design. <i>İsmail Keskin</i>	305
24. The Assessment and Suitability of ‘Treasure Island’ as Literary Reader in Grade Twelve in Kurdistan Schools <i>Mohammad Aba-Bakir Khidhir</i>	319

25. A New Approach To The Study Of Linguistics <i>Mohammad S. Mansoor</i>	333
26. Using Role-Play Activities To Develop Speaking Skills: A Case Study In The Language Classroom <i>Mustafa Altun</i>	354
27. Assessing Sunrise 12 Ministerial Exam <i>Rawand Sabah</i>	364
28. Code switching in English Language Teaching Environment <i>Rawand Sabah</i>	374
29. Education and Instruction in Ancient Sumerian School "An Educational and Comparative study" <i>Sattar Jabbar Haji</i>	386
30. The Role of Teachers in Developing Learners' Speaking Skill <i>Selcuk Koran</i>	400
31. Considering the Foreign Language (English) Teachers as School Counsellors <i>Suleyman Celik</i>	417
32. Managing the Classes by Using Multiple Intelligence Instruction <i>Suleyman Celik</i>	427
33. Mobile Social Media in Higher Education & Implementation of “EDMODO” in reading classes <i>Tahsin Yagci</i>	436
34. Utilization Media & Technologies for Distance Education <i>Wassan Adnan. Hashim, Omar Abdulmaged Hammood</i>	443
35. Problems of Acquiring Academic Skills in Children with Learning Disability <i>Widad S. Shakir , Lana I. Abdullah</i>	460
36. Evaluating the Role of Counselors and Counseling in High School Learners’ Life in Erbil City- A Field Research <i>Widad S. Shakir</i>	471
37. Definition Of Horyat In Iraqi Turkmen Folk Poetry And Its Etymological Analysis <i>Zeynel Polat, Başar Batur</i>	482

Keynote Speech

Motivation Equals Participation

Laura Woodward

Abstract

Motivating one's students is sometimes the hardest part of being a teacher regardless of what subject you teach. Being an English teacher is no exception as we are teaching a language, a concept that is quite abstract to the younger learner. "Why am I learning English? Because my mummy and daddy say it's a good idea." Even teenagers are not always sure why they are learning English and when they get to a certain age it often seems pointless to them if they think they don't need good English grades to get into university, etc. Moreover, when our learners don't live in an English-speaking country, then the reason for learning English becomes even less relevant as it is difficult to find real opportunities to practise. Therefore we must find ways of making the experience as meaningful and tangible as possible.

During this plenary we aim to explore some simple ways to motivate your students and increase participation.

So, try and look motivated, even if you're not!

Keynote Speech

Developing Cognitive Linguistic Approaches to Implement Communicative Language Teaching in EFL Classrooms

Azamat Akbarov

International Burch University, Sarajevo/Bosnia and Herzegovina

Abstract

This paper will present some of the key principles developed by the cognitive linguistics framework which are particularly relevant for the area of second language teaching context. The first is the claim that knowledge is encyclopaedic in nature which contrasts with the so called dictionary view. From a second language teaching perspective, this means that acquiring the vocabulary knowledge of the second language involves learning integrated networks based on word associations rather than lists of unrelated words. The second is the scope of metaphor and metonymy, which according to the cognitive view do not function merely at the linguistic level but also at the conceptual, physical, and socio-cultural level and can be seen as effective means to implement in foreign language classrooms. And also, the idea of categorisation, which is assumed as an main element, accounts for the common problems in providing one-to-one correspondences between languages. Several pedagogical implications of applying cognitive linguistics findings in second language teaching and learning will be discussed, suggesting ways of translating theory into practical consideration.

Keywords: Cognitive Linguistics, Competence, EFL classroom, Pedagogy, Schema

On Sophism in Mathematics Education

Abdullah Kurudirek¹, Hüseyin Akça¹

¹*Salahaddin Ayyubi College, Sulaimania, Kurdistan Region-Iraq*
drcebir@hotmail.com & huseyinakcha@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

In the study of mathematics, extraordinary problems, puzzles, beautiful mind games, paradoxes, and sophisms often give excitement. Captivating examples can excite, enlighten and inspire learners and encourage them for new discoveries. In this article, we will try to explain some interesting mathematical sophisms and their roles on students in mathematics education. Students are often observed, in trying to divide both sides of an equation by zero or taking only a nonnegative square root. The tricks or incorrect reasoning steps that lead to the sophisms are tied to mathematical concepts. Sophisms from the areas of square root, trigonometry, system of equation, differentiation, logarithm, geometry, binomial expansion and integration are explored. We hope that interested readers will use the ideas in this article as a value for future mathematical investigations. In that regard, this article may serve well as a treasure for both learning and teaching mathematics.

Keywords: Absurdity, Education, Mathematics, Misconception, Mistake, Lapse, Paradox, Sophism,

INTRODUCTION

So far, we have studied the definition of mathematics in different forms even if they have the same meanings. It is a fact that mathematics trains the mind. It has a real disciplinary value and it can form a discipline in the mind. If teaching-learning process is in the right way, it develops logical reasoning, and empowers thinking more and more.

In addition to these definitions, the history of mathematics is full of unexpected and interesting sophisms and they serve to make new definitions in mathematics. So, interesting and instructive sophisms and paradoxes must be distinguished from each other. Basically, we will try to examine sophism in this paper.

MATHEMATICAL SOPHISM

Paradoxes and Sophisms offer an agreeable supplementary resource for improving the study of mathematics. By the word paradox(παράδοξο) which comes from the Greek word 'paradoxon' we mean an amazing, unexpected, counter-intuitive statement which looks invalid, but is true in fact. The word sophism(σόφισμα) comes from the Greek word 'sophos' which means wisdom describes intentionally invalid reasoning that looks formally correct, but contains a slight mistake or flaw. In other words, sophism is a false proof of an incorrect statement. A collection of some examples about sophism showcases the slights of this subject and leads students to contemplate the underlying concepts.

Sophism is putting forward an idea, which logically seems correct, in order to deceive others and the person himself. An incorrect idea which is put forward not for deceiving people is paralogism, meaning a piece of illogical or fallacious reasoning. In the past sophism used to mean skill, ability and significant invention, but later it started to be called as nonsense and superstitious because of the sophists who deceived people by mind games and who turned this into their professions and a kind of art. The starting points of sophism are some premises that are correct or supposed to be correct. However, it eventually leads to illogical and unreal results. This paradoxical situation between premises and results may surprise others, and people cannot always avoid these faulty results and remain incompetent.(Bolay, 1979)

Mathematical sophisms include lapses in mathematical arguments where, even though the result is clearly false, the errors leading to them are more or less well hidden. To uncover a sophism means to show the error in the argument by means of which the outer appearance of proof has been created. The demonstration of the error is usually derived by counter posing the correct argument against false one.

Mainly, mathematical sophisms are constructed on the basis of incorrect usages of words, on the inaccuracy of formulations, very often neglecting the conditions of applicability of theorems, on a hidden execution of impossible operations, on invalid generalizations, particularly in passing from a finite number of objects to an infinite one, and on masking of erroneous arguments or assumptions by means of geometrical ‘obviousness’.(Bradis, Kharcheva and Minkovskii, 1963)

The basic aim of introducing sophism in schools lies in accustoming the students to critical thinking, to knowing not only how to carry out definite logical schemes and definite processes of thought, but also knowing how to examine every stage of an argument critically in accordance with established principles of mathematical thought and computational practice.

Many students are exposed to sophism at school sometimes by intelligent, curious students and sometimes by teachers!.. The exercise of finding and analyzing the mistake in a sophism often provides a deeper understanding than a mere recipe-based approach in solving problems. Typical algebraic examples of flawed reasoning that produce sophism include division by zero or taking only a nonnegative square root. (Klymchuk & Staples, 2013)

Example 1. Prove that $a=b, \forall a,b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Knowing that $a^2 - 2ab + b^2 = b^2 - 2ab + a^2$ is true $\forall a,b \in \mathbb{R}$. So $(a-b)^2 = (b-a)^2$, and take square root of both sides to get $a-b = b-a \Rightarrow 2a = 2b$ dividing both sides by 2 gives us $a=b$. Anymore instead of a and b substitute whatever you want and get different equalities like $1=2, 11=19, \dots$ etc. (Kurudirek, 2005)

Example 2. Prove that $2^2 = 4^2$.

By using the fundamental trigonometric identity,

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x &= 1 \\
(\cos^2 x)^{\frac{3}{2}} &= (1 - \sin^2 x)^{\frac{3}{2}} \\
\cos^3 x &= (1 - \sin^2 x)^{\frac{3}{2}} \\
\cos^3 x + 3 &= (1 - \sin^2 x)^{\frac{3}{2}} + 3 \\
(\cos^3 x + 3)^2 &= [(1 - \sin^2 x)^{\frac{3}{2}} + 3]^2
\end{aligned}$$

Let's check the resulting equality for $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$, yields $3^2 = 3^2$. Nevertheless, when it is checked for $x = \pi$ where $\cos \pi = -1$ and $\sin \pi = 0$, we get $2^2 = 4^2$. (Мадера & Мадера, 2003)

Example 3. Prove that $8 = 6$.

If we solve the system $\begin{cases} x + 2y = 6 \\ y = 4 - \frac{x}{2} \end{cases}$ by using substitution method as follows:

$x + 2\left(4 - \frac{x}{2}\right) = 6 \Rightarrow x + 2 \cdot 4 - 2 \cdot \frac{x}{2} = 6$, and after necessary algebraic operation, we get $8 = 6$. (Kurudirek, 2005)

Example 4. Prove that $\cos^2 x = 1$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let us differentiate the function $y = \frac{1}{\tan x}$ twice as $y' = -\frac{1}{\sin^2 x}$ then $y'' = \frac{2 \sin x \cos x}{\sin^4 x} = \frac{2 \cos x}{\sin^3 x} = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{\tan x} \cdot \frac{1}{\sin^2 x}$. By using the first and second differentiations we get a relation as, $y'' = -2yy'$ or $y'' = -(y^2)'$. If we integrate of both sides of the equation $y'' = -(y^2)'$ leads to $y' = -y^2$ then substitute the values respectively for $y' = -\frac{1}{\sin^2 x}$ and $y^2 = \frac{1}{\tan^2 x}$, so $-\frac{1}{\sin^2 x} = -\frac{1}{\tan^2 x} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sin^2 x} = \frac{\cos^2 x}{\sin^2 x}$. From here we conclude that $\cos^2 x = 1$ for all real values of x . (Мадера & Мадера, 2003)

Example 5. Prove that $\frac{1}{4} > \frac{1}{2}$.

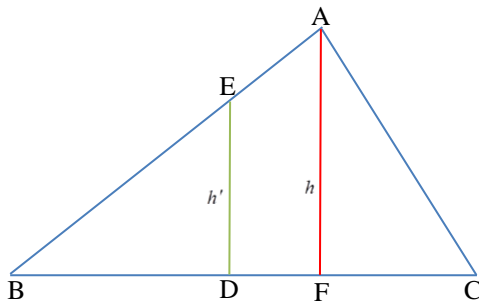
Obviously, $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ and take the common logarithm of both sides $\log \frac{1}{2} = \log \frac{1}{2}$ (Remember! if $a = a \Rightarrow 2a > a$) so multiply both sides by 2 and get $2 \log \frac{1}{2} > \log \frac{1}{2}$

then by using the properties of logarithm $\log\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 > \log\frac{1}{2}$ so $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 > \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{4} > \frac{1}{2}$. (Kurudirek, 2005)

Example 6. Prove that $\sqrt{2(p+q)} = \sqrt{p} + \sqrt{q}$.

Let's draw a triangle ABC where $BF = p$, $CF = q$, $BD = x$ and $DC = y$ are given. $AF = h$ is the

height of the triangle ABC , and let $ED = h'$ be another height which divides the area of the triangle ABC in two equal parts. So we can express the relation between areas of triangles ABC and BED as $\frac{xh'}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{(p+q)h}{2}$ (1).



On the other hand from the similarity of the triangles BED and BAF we get $\frac{h'}{h} = \frac{x}{p}$, if we solve for h' it will be $h' = \frac{hx}{p}$, and substitute this in (1)

equation to get $\frac{xhx}{2p} = \frac{(p+q)h}{4} \Rightarrow \frac{2x^2h}{p} = (p+q)h$ and

deduce $x = \sqrt{\frac{p(p+q)}{2}}$ (2). In a similar

manner, we

get $y = \sqrt{\frac{q(p+q)}{2}}$. Knowing that $x + y = p + q$, so $\sqrt{p+q} = \sqrt{\frac{p}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{q}{2}}$ after cross-product and necessary algebraic operations, we get $\sqrt{2(p+q)} = \sqrt{p} + \sqrt{q}$. (Мадера & Мадера, 2003)

Example 7. Prove that $a + b = \frac{a+b}{2} \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

By using binomial expansion, $(a+b)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}b + \frac{n(n-1)}{1.2}a^{n-2}b^2 + \dots + \frac{n(n-1)}{1.2}a^2b^{n-2} + nab^{n-1} + b^n$ satisfies $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, when substituting for $n = 2m$ we get

$$(a+b)^{2m} = a^{2m} + 2ma^{2m-1}b + \frac{2m(2m-1)}{1.2}a^{2m-2}b^2 + \dots + \frac{2m(2m-1)}{1.2}a^2b^{2m-2} + 2mab^{2m-1} + b^{2m}$$

Evaluate the resulting expansion for $m = \frac{1}{2}$ where $a^0 = 1$ and $b^0 = 1$, and get $(a+b)^1 = a+b+0+\dots+0+a+b$ so $a+b = 2a+2b$ then $a+b = \frac{a+b}{2}$. (Мадера & Мадера, 2003)

Example 8. Prove that $2 = 1$.

Let us consider the representation of x^2 , $x^2 = x+x+x+\dots+x$ (x copies) for any $x \neq 0$.

Differentiating both sides of the equation gives

$$2x = 1+1+1+\dots+1$$

$$2x = 1 \cdot x$$

Simplify both sides by x which is different from zero, yields $2 = 1$. (Klymchuk & Staples, 2013)

Example 9. Prove that $0 = 1$.

First of all, let us find the indefinite integral $\int \frac{1}{x} dx$ using the formula for integration by parts $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$ s.t. $u = \frac{1}{x}$ and $dv = dx$. This gives

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)x - \int x \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx = 1 + \int \frac{1}{x} dx$$

That is, $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = 1 + \int \frac{1}{x} dx$ subtracting the same term both sides we conclude $0 = 1$. (Klymchuk & Staples, 2013)

CONCLUSION

Whether we like it or not it is a fact that sophism has attracted a number of students as well as other people and it seems it will go on attracting many others. Since 1996, I have witnessed that these issues have aroused excitement in different countries, cultures and on different groups of students and I have also witnessed students pulling themselves together and saying "Oh My God, forgive me! Never again!" with a smiley face. Furthermore, I also heard some students saying, "Was everything that our teachers taught us a lie? Did they teach us mistaken things?"

However, this article aims to encourage students and teachers to examine paradoxes and sophisms that arise in mathematics for the following purposes.

- a) To provide deeper conceptual understanding
- b) To reduce or eliminate common misconceptions
- c) To advance mathematical thinking beyond algorithmic or procedural reasoning
- d) To improve baseline critical thinking skills—analyzing, justifying, verifying, and checking
- e) To expand the example set of remarkable mathematical ideas
- f) To engage students in more active and creative learning
- g) To encourage further investigations of mathematical topics

In the history of the development of science, mathematical sophism played an essential role. This makes it easy to understand the early interest in the study, systematization, and pedagogical application of patently false proofs. A study of sophisms and paradoxes shouldn't be thought of as a waste of time.

Because, throughout the history, the humanity discovered so many undetermined and dark things by means of the mysterious world of numbers. It is impossible to understand the relationships between the objects and humans without mathematics. It illuminates our roads as a source of light on the line that extends from universe to life. It shows us the further side of human's horizon, even the depth of universe that is hard to imagine and know, and gets our ideals together. (Gülen, 1994).

As a result, it is concluded that mathematics is not only a subject which has abstract and stereotyped ideas that are abused, but also an active subject that always encourages people to create innovations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We dedicate this article to Halabja Shaheed High School's valuable teachers Ahmed Mehdi and Razi Hama who lost their lives in a traffic accident on 3 November 2014.

REFERENCES

- Bolay,H.S.(1979). Philosophical doctrines dictionary, Ötüken Publishing, İstanbul.
- Bradis, V. M., Kharcheva , A. K., and Minkovskii, L.(1963). Lapses in Mathematical Reasoning, Oxford: Pergamon Press, Newyork:Macmillan
- Gülen, F.(1994). While substituting the statue of our soul. New Hope, January-March, Vol. 3,No. 23.
- Klymchuk, S.,& Staples, S. (2013). Paradoxes and Sophisms in Calculus, The Mathematical Association of America, Inc., Classroom Resource Materials.
- Kondratieva, M.(2009). Geometrical Sophisms and Understanding of Mathematical Proofs, ICMI Study 19 Conference proceedings, National Taiwan Normal University, Vol. 2, 3-8.
- Kurudirek, A.(2005). Lecture notes about sophisms, Dakar.
- Мадера, А.Г., Мадера, Д.А.(2003). Математические Софизмы, Москва, Просвещение.

Assessment of Strategic Procedures Used in Teaching Communication in English Department

Asst. Prof. Dr. Ali M. Jukil,

University of Salahaddin

galimjukil@yahoo.com

Jwan Ahmed Mustafa, MA

University of Salahaddin

jwdkosar@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This study is about *Assessment of Strategic Procedures Used in Teaching Communication* in which the term *strategy* refers to the techniques that are used to support and assist students' learning in the form of appropriate instructions since the process of teaching cannot be fulfilled without using them. Therefore this research sheds light on assessing the adaptability of the appropriate strategies by teachers of English department in teaching communication. For achieving this purpose the study uses an observation checklist as an instrument for collecting data throughout observing the process of teaching and learning within five class periods in the second class stage of English department in the College of Basic Education. The study reached the point that most of the teachers are not aware of how the

strategies should be used and at the same time they use strategies but are not aware that these procedures are strategies for supporting students' learning. This research has pedagogical implication because it concentrates on strategies which require teachers to monitor students' progress and successfully adapt lessons to meet students' needs.

Keywords: Appropriate Instructions, Assessing, Strategies, Fulfilled, Monitor, Support, Teaching Communication Techniques.

Introduction:

Historically the word *strategy* comes from the ancient Greek word *strategia* which means "steps or actions generally taken for the purpose of winning a war". In the modern version of the word, it conveys the idea of obtaining a goal. (Celce-Murcia, 2001:362)

Strategies are techniques that are used to support and assist students' learning in the form of appropriate instructions. Students learn and develop strategies to analyze critically and learn effectively. Research on language acquisition and student motivation highly supports the importance of student engagement in facilitating student learning (Echevarria and Vogt, 2008:67). All the strategies require teachers to observe students carefully to monitor their progress and successfully adapt lessons to meet their individual needs. (Jordan and Herrell, 2008:67).

Strategies are defined as "procedures that facilitate a learning task..... they are most often conscious and goal driven." (Brown, H. Douglas, 2007:132) Strategies are directed goals and consciously controllable processes that facilitate performance. Goals directed means that the aim is intended to perform a definite function. The processes must be controllable and the instructor should direct them clearly and consciously. In addition, strategies can be regarded as processes for improving performance particularly when matched to task requirements by which one can do things better, easier and quicker. The current study tends to have the following research questions:

1. Do the teachers make use of the required strategies during teaching communication to enhance students' learning?
2. Are they aware of using these strategies?

Strategies fall into two categories: **cognitive** and **meta-cognitive** strategies.

Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways e.g., through *reasoning*, *analysis*, *note taking*, *summarizing*, *synthesizing*, *outlining*, *reorganizing information*, *practicing in naturalistic settings*, and *practicing structures and sounds formally*. (Celce-Murcia, 2001:363)

According to Burns and Richards (2012:69) "Strategies are conscious behaviors involving cognitive, social and affective processes.... They can take the form of covert mental activities that the learner use to process and manage the flow of information in a second language." Sometimes these strategies are covert social behaviors. For example, when learners don't understand what the speakers said they ask them to clarify or repeat what they said in order to continue their interaction.(Ibid)

Metacognition literally means "big thinking." It means to think about thinking. During this process you are examining your competence. Teachers can guide students to become more strategic thinkers in a way that help them understand the way they are obtaining information. *Questioning*, *visualizing*, and *synthesizing information* are all ways that readers can evaluate their thinking process. Metacognitive strategies are employed for controlling the learning process overall. Metacognitive strategies have a "significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion". (Celce- Murcia, 2001: 364)

Several studies have found that metacognitive instruction has a significant positive effect on acquiring vocabulary. To improve reading comprehension through teaching metacognitive strategies and using self questioning techniques indirectly succeeded in increasing vocabulary learning. (Cohen and Macaro, 2007:268)

The major metacognitive strategies are: predicting, self-questioning, monitoring/ clarifying, evaluating, and summarizing, synthesizing. (Echevarria and Vogt, 2008: 71) Metacognition refers to higher order thinking which involves active control over the cognitive processes engaged in learning. Activities such as planning how to approach a given learning task, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward the completion of a task are metacognitive in nature. (Ibid) Metacognition is referred to as "thinking about thinking" and involves whether a cognitive goal has been met. This should be the defining criterion for determining what is metacognitive. Cognitive strategies are used to help an individual achieve a particular goal (e.g., understanding a text) while metacognitive strategies are used to ensure that the goal has been reached (e.g., quizzing oneself to evaluate one's understanding of that text). Metacognitive experiences usually precede or follow a cognitive activity. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies may overlap in that the same strategy, such as questioning, could be regarded as either a cognitive or a metacognitive strategy depending on what the purpose for using that strategy may be. For example, self-questioning may be used as a strategy while reading as a means of getting knowledge (cognitive), or as a way of monitoring about what you have read (metacognitive).[website]

Activities of Strategic Procedures:

Re-reading:

Students during reading a passage or any piece of writing have difficulty recalling what they have read during class time. It is the problem of most of them that they do not remember chunks of text after reading. Reading is a very important skill of learning, so it needs a careful awareness and ample ambition to understand the text well. The teacher can alleviate students' anxiety about reading fast by explaining that everyone in the group will finish at different times. The teacher should always allow enough time for all students to finish and offer choices to students who complete their reading earlier. Rereading is a strategy that facilitates the students' comprehending a piece of writing. Before modeling and practicing strategies that incorporate rereading, it is preferable that the teacher asks the class to work in small

groups and talk about rereading. The goal is to get students to view rereading as a positive habit because some students may assume that rereading is only for dumb ones. It should be understood that the strategy fosters reading fluency, better recall of details, improved word recognition. Ultimately it builds students' self-confidence.[website]

Organizing Information:

When the reader reads a text it is necessary to organize the key ideas and concepts given in the text. The reader labels the ideas from the most important to least important, and the cause and effect sentences, difference and similarity points of two things or concepts. The reader also looks up how the text is divided. The most important point is the main sentence or topic sentence of the text. The reader may make use of highlighting. He/she highlights some words, phrases or even sentences in the text to support what the reader thinks is the main purpose of the text. The learner must learn the steps needed to accomplish this task.

Predicting:

The potential benefits of predicting the content of a passage have been explored in many studies investigating the effects of listening strategy instruction. (Cohen and Macaro, 2007: 180) The strategy of "predicting" together with "inferencing" and "integrating new material" appears in another early intervention study by Henner- Stanching (1986-87). The instruction was given to ESL/EFL learners and results were presented as extracts from a questionnaire completed by learners at the end of the training, indicating that they responded favorably to it. (Cohen and Macaro, 2007: 180-181). This modeling is generally done by 'thinking aloud' while working on a learning task. Teachers may make use of a statement like "When I am reading I like to visualize what is happening in the story". After a few minutes of modeling by thinking aloud, the teacher engages the students in a discussion of the process by asking them to recall what she/he did first, second, third...etc. The teacher can then name the strategy (Yes, I used the strategy "predicting" to figure out the topic of the story). (Cohen and Macaro, 2007:144-145)

Self-questioning:

It is essential when teaching a new concept, is to ask students what they already know about a subject. As a strategy creating a visual, such as "semantic webs," with the topic in the center and students' knowledge surrounding it, is a good way to engage students in the topic and to find out what they already know. Another simple technique is to ask them what they want to learn about a topic. Some believe that students while learning, begin with their own real questions. This is another example of a strategy that works equally well with native English speakers and English language learners [website]

Evaluating:

After receiving a new concept, good readers reflect on the strategies they used to determine whether their plan worked or whether they should try something else next time. It is very important that learners learn how they should use strategies then evaluate them to determine the best strategy that can be productive and well-working to achieve the goal of learning.[website]

Monitoring:

Good learners take charge of their reading, for example, by monitoring their own comprehension. The first step is to recognize whether or not confusion exists by asking "Do I understand what I just read? or What does the author really want me to know about this text?" Readers who take responsibility for their own comprehension constantly ask about the text and their reactions to it. [website]

Summarizing:

After dealing with the above stages, the student should be able to summarize the key content concepts that were introduced and discussed in the text. The student's level and language proficiencies appear in this stage by depending on the length and complexity of the summary. Sometimes it is helpful to write key vocabularies on the board to help students use them in their

summaries (especially those who need modifications). It is also helpful to write a model summary for the students to avoid a kind of "retelling" rather than a summary. (Vogt, Marry Ellen and Jana Echevarria, 2008:73).

Planning:

To assess any strategy in carrying out a task, it is helpful to plan effectively. Even though planning one's approach to a task can increase the chances of success, students tend not to recognize the need for it. The teacher should show the students how he himself would approach an assignment and lead them through various phases of his metacognitive process. He should make planning the central goal of the assignment. Such assignments allow students to focus all of their energy on thinking the problem through and planning an appropriate approach. (Ambrose, Susan A, et.al, 2010: 208-214)

Asking Higher-order Questions:

To assess the strategic thinking it is helpful to ask questions that are of higher-order by including modeling some discussions of how the teacher evaluates and monitors his progress. For example, the teacher mentions the kinds of questions that he asks himself to ensure that he is on the right path (Could I be solving this problem more efficiently?) or (Am I making any questionable assumptions here?). The teacher should let the students hear him "talk out loud" as he assesses the task (I like to begin by asking what the central problem is and considering it"). In the late stages, the teacher should show his student how to evaluate the finished product by presenting (I would revisit the original goal of the project and ask myself whether I satisfied it). (Ambrose, Susan A, et.al, 2010: 214)

Creating Critical Thinking: Scaffolding Support:

The term 'scaffolding' comes from the works of Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976). The term 'scaffolding' was developed as a metaphor to describe the type of assistance offered by a teacher or peer to support learning. In the process of scaffolding, the teacher helps the student master a task or concept that the student is initially unable to grasp independently. Sometimes scaffolding can be a good way to have the students engage in cooperative

learning. Scaffolding involves the cognitive supports which the instructor provides his students in their early learning and then gradually removes them as students develop greater mastery and sophistication. (Ambrose, Susan A, et.al, 2010: 215).

Verbal Scaffolding:

There are many different facilitative tools that can be used in scaffolding student learning. One of these tools is to break the task into smaller more, manageable parts. Also the teacher can scaffold students by using ‘think aloud’, or verbalizing thinking process when completing a task; this can be accomplished in *cooperative learning*, which promotes teamwork and dialogue among peers. Besides these, *concrete words*, *questioning*, *coaching*, modeling can facilitate the process of teaching. Others might include the *activation of background knowledge*, *giving tips*, *strategies*, *cues* and *procedures*. Successful teachers frequently use cognitive strategies that are in the form of instructional procedures. These procedures are scaffolds that help learners to carry out a task.(Rosenshine, Barak & Carla Meister)

Non- Verbal Scaffolding:

Non-verbal scaffolding can be used in the form of *graphic organizers*, *flash cards* or *vocabulary cards*, *word lists*, *adapted texts*, *highlighting*, and *outlines*.. They help students notice and understand the link between the content they are studying and the specific vocabulary and language structures needed to communicate about that content. Graphic organizers, if well conducted, can scaffold for content and language learning. They provide the necessary guidelines for students to complete a task that requires them to use language meaningfully in a way that help them to *categorize*, *infer*, *summarize*, *compare* and *contrast*, *evaluate*, and so much more. Graphic organizers are especially effective when combined with cooperative learning. Graphic organizers are very versatile instructional tools that can easily be used to visualize content-based lessons. They can be used effectively in many different instructional settings. Graphic organizers can also facilitate the final production stage by helping students prepare, for example, oral/written reports, and written summaries. [website]

Literature Review

There are recent studies on strategies and their application in teaching and learning. Strategies are pedagogically important because they are related to the procedures that a learner uses to learn easily and effectively. The following studies are briefly surveyed to enrich the current study:

1. [Book] Teaching and Researching Language Learning Strategies

The author of this study is Rebecca L. Oxford and the book is published (2011) by Taylor and Francis in New York. The study consists of Four Sections. Each Section is divided into Chapters, which are nine. Section I includes Capters1-4. In this section, conceptual foundation for language learning strategies are dealt with. Section II includes Chapters 5 and 6 which focuses on the practical applications of the Second Self Regulation Model. Section III holds Chapters 7 and 8. This Section is about research on language learning strategies. And finally the last Section which is Section IV includes Chapter 9 concludes the book by situating learning strategies within the various disciplines and offering advice and resources for further reading and exploration.

2. Motivational Strategies Implemented by Teachers

in the Departments of English at Salahaddin University -Hawler. This is an MA research which is carried out by **Jihan Nidhamalddin Abdul-Samad** in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in English Language and Applied Linguistics- Salahaddin University-Hawler. The study attempts to identify the strategies that university teachers use in the classroom to motivate the students to learn English language in Kurdistan Region. Thus, motivation determines the degree of students' desire to learn English.

It aims at finding out Finding out the types of the motivational strategies used by university teachers of English literature in the classroom, and the extent to which teachers of English literature in the departments of English use motivational strategies. It also aims at carrying out a comparison among

the teachers at two colleges, namely colleges of Education and Languages. The study attempts at presenting the principles of motivational strategies including: description, definitions, theories of motivation in psychology, characteristics, dimensions, the distinct phases, and kinds of motivation, as well as principles for increasing learners' motivation. It also tackles English language learning in Kurdistan Region by attending to motivating language learners to learn English in the classroom, and identifying the three main roles of language teachers in this process. The study also investigates the impact of both the learning environment and cultural diversity on motivational strategies, as well as attempting to identify the use of teaching English literature in the classroom. Then, the study presents the analysis for the results of the data collected via the two questionnaires and the observational checklist. At the end, the study provides the conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further studies.

Among the main conclusions arrived at are: most university teachers of English literature do not use most of the motivational strategies to motivate their students to learn English language in an effective way, and there is no good motivating learning environment that helps in the achievement of the process of teaching-learning in a better way.

3- Motivating Language Learners: A Classroom-Oriented

Investigation of the Effects of Motivational Strategies on

Student Motivation

This study is conducted by Marie J. Guilloteaux and Zoltán Dörnyei (2008). The study aims at examining the link between the teacher's motivational teaching practice and their students' language learning motivation. So, this study tries to fill the gap by providing empirical data obtained in a large scale investigation of 40 ESOL classrooms in South Korea, which involved 27 teachers and more than 1,300 learners. In addition, the students' motivation was measured by a self-report questionnaire, and a classroom observation instrument, the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT), which was also used to assess the quality of the teacher's motivational teaching practice as well as the level of the students' motivated behavior. The study reached at a conclusion that doesn't provide any data

about the teachability of motivational strategies. So, this points out the students' demotivation as a major problem in educational settings worldwide. That is to say, it needs to find ways for raising the teachers' awareness of their motivational practice, and to train them in using skills that can help them in motivating their learners.

Method

To assess the strategic procedures used in teaching communication in English department, the present research conducted a checklist that subsumes a number of items. The observation was made by the researchers within five class periods. Each period was about 45 minutes, a full class period, in the second stage class of English department in College of Basic Education. Also the observation checklist was given to the students to have their feedback on the strategies and techniques that the teacher uses during the lesson. The checklist is a five-scaled close-ended items. The researchers have set about 20 items involving statements about using the strategies and techniques that the teacher uses during teaching communication.

Participants:

The observation checklist was done on teachers of English department, College of Basic Education who teach communication in the two stages, first and second. The study aimed to encounter the lessons of communication delivered to the second year students due to the level of the students and the syllabus and of course the kind of the strategy used in the class. To support the observation checklist, the study chose 20 students to have their feedback on the teacher's use of the strategies indicated by the same items.

Data Analysis and the Discussion of Results:

In general, all the items of the checklist are designed to answer the research question: assessing the teacher's use of the strategies indicated by the items in the checklist.

Table (1) Adaptability of the strategies according to no. of attendance

No. of items	always	often	sometimes	rarely	never	Coe Midst	Perc. Weight
1	1	3	1	0	0	3.0	75
2	0	4	1	0	0	2.8	70
3	0	4	1	0	0	2.8	70
4	0	2	3	0	0	2.6	65
5	0	2	1	1	1	1.8	45
6	0	5	0	0	0	3.0	75
7	0	0	0	0	5	0.0	0
8	0	4	1	0	0	2.8	70
9	0	0	3	2	0	1.6	40
10	0	4	0	1	0	2.6	65
11	0	4	0	1	0	2.6	65
12	0	0	2	3	0	1.4	35
13	0	0	1	2	2	0.8	20
14	0	4	1	0	0	2.8	70
15	0	1	4	0	0	2.2	55
16	0	4	0	1	0	2.6	65
17	0	3	2	0	0	2.6	65
18	0	2	3	0	0	2.4	60
19	0	1	2	0	2	1.4	35
20	2	2	1	0	0	3.2	80

Table(2)Items Transcribed According to Student's feedback

No. of items	always	often	sometimes	rarely	never	Coe Midst	Perc. Weight
1	2	7	9	2	0	2.5	61
2	1	8	10	1	0	2.5	61
3	3	10	3	3	1	2.6	64
4	3	10	6	1	0	2.8	69
5	3	8	7	2	0	2.6	65
6	2	3	14	0	1	2.3	56
7	0	0	0	9	11	0.5	11
8	2	8	7	3	0	2.5	61
9	2	9	8	1	0	2.6	65
10	12	6	1	0	1	3.4	85
11	12	3	3	2	0	3.3	81
12	2	7	5	3	3	2.1	53
13	8	2	6	4	0	2.7	68
14	1	5	7	7	0	2.0	50
15	1	6	9	3	1	2.2	54
16	1	5	9	3	2	2.0	50
17	6	7	6	1	0	2.9	73
18	5	6	5	3	1	2.6	64
19	4	7	1	5	3	2.2	55
20	1	6	10	3	0	2.3	56

The above table comes out with the following results:

The first and the twentieth items deal with the strategy *think aloud*. Their Coe. Midst and Per. Weight range between (3.0-3.2) and (75-80) successively which records the highest level among other strategies. This shows that this strategy is adapted by the teacher to enhance the students how to come over their way of thinking to understand the subject more easily.

Dealing with the *second* item which is about *organizing information*, as well as the *third*, *analyzing*, it becomes clear that the teacher uses these strategies *often*. Also from the feedback of the students, eight students indicated that the teacher *often* uses *organizing information* and ten students indicated that the teacher *sometimes* uses this strategy so it ranges between *often* and *sometimes* besides ten students agree that *analyzing* is *often* used by the teacher.

As far as the *fourth* item, which is *prediction*, is concerned, the teacher uses this strategy which ranges between *often* and *sometimes*. This is near to the result of student's feedback that this item gained 69 of the Perc. Weight.

The *fifth* item which assesses the use of *re-reading* ranges from *sometimes* to *never* due to the type of the strategy which is not usually used. Implementing this strategy depends on the nature of the subject. In other words it can be used only when there is text to be read.

The *sixth*, *fourteenth*, and *sixteenth* items are about *asking questions* that would help students think critically and comprehensively. They range between 65-75 of the Perc. Weight. This means that using such a strategy is frequently implemented by the teacher.

The *seventh* item is about using flash cards, vocabulary cards and word lists. During observing there were no use of such graphic organizers which was almost the same result provided by the feedback of the students.

The *eighth* item is about *monitoring* which obtains 65 of the Perc. Weight which is near to Perc. Weight 61 of student's feedback.

Using *cues*, *stress*, and *intonation* is item number *nine* which is sometimes or rarely used.

Items number *ten* and *eleven* are about *summarizing*. This strategy was often used. It gains 65 of the Perc. Weight and 81-85 of the Perc. Weight of the students' feedback which is the highest level. This means that it is frequently used by the teacher.

Synthesizing is the *twelfth* item that ranges between *sometimes* and *rarely* due to the nature of the strategy and students' level. This is almost the result of the *thirteenth* item.

The fifteenth item is conducted to assess the strategy of *taking notes*.

The use of this strategy is bound to a topic about writing. Thus it ranges between *sometimes* to *rarely* which is near from the feedback of the students.

Both item number *seventeenth* which is about *reasoning* and item number *eighteenth* which is about *highlighting* have almost the same frequency of use.

Outlining is item number *nineteen* which has 35Perc. Weight which means that sometimes it is necessary to be used depending on the given subject and it may not be used in some other required topics.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The study has reached at the following conclusions and may at the level to be taken into consideration:

1. Strategies are goal driven procedures used in teaching and learning that help the learner to analyze critically and learn effectively. They can be of various forms and ways.
2. Strategies may be cognitive or metacognitive. Cognitive strategies are used to help an individual achieve a particular goal (e.g., understanding a text) while metacognitive strategies are used to ensure that the goal has been reached (e.g., quizzing oneself to evaluate one's understanding of that text). Metacognitive experiences usually precede or follow a cognitive activity. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies may overlap in that the same strategy, such as *questioning*, could be regarded as either a cognitive or a metacognitive strategy depending on what the purpose for using that strategy may be.

3. The observation checklist is conducted accordingly to assess the strategies used during the class period.
4. Using strategies is not an easy task. Teachers may use some strategies and don't use others. During analyzing the items of the checklist, some strategies like *thinking aloud*, *summarizing*, *monitoring* and *asking comprehensive questions* are frequently used. They scored a good range of percentage.
5. Some strategies scored a low range of frequency and the cause is that they can be used with some tasks and cannot be used with some other tasks. These strategies are ; *outlining*, *synthesizing*, *using tips and cues and intonation*, and *taking notes*.
6. An important point that the study reached at is teachers, sometimes, are not aware of using some strategies however they use them. Besides they don't name the strategies they use to teach their students the name of that strategy. This was obvious when the researchers asked the students to give their feedback. They didn't know the name of *thinking aloud*, for example, so the researchers had to explain about the strategy.
7. The study recommends that strategies should be used to enhance students to reach a goal which is learning. Besides these strategies, if used in a good way, activates the class and motivates students and involves them in class interaction.
8. Teachers should be aware of using strategies and name them to make them familiar to the students and let the students use these strategies by themselves and repeat the same procedures and instructions.
9. Teachers should know how to choose the appropriate strategies for different conditions and purposes and settings because no strategy is suitable for every purpose.

The Checklist:

1. Asks the students questions to make the whole class think aloud.
-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
2. Teaches students how to organize information and re-arrange them from the most important to the least and according to cause and effect .

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
3. Teaches students how to analyze a given subject.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
4. Uses prediction to engage the students in a discussion of the process by asking them to recall about the subject to figure out the topic of the story.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
5. Uses re-reading during reading a text to teach students how to read understand a text silently individually/ in pairs/ or the whole class.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
6. Uses higher-order questions to make the class think critically.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
7. Visualizes the material by using graphic organizers, flash cards or vocabulary cards, word lists, adapted texts link between the content they are studying and the specific vocabulary.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never
8. Asks the students to monitor about what they have taken to clarify a point and recall about the important ideas.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

9. Uses tips, cues, stress, and intonation to scaffold students verbally.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

10. Summarizes the important ideas for the students.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

11. Teaches the students how to summarize a text or a piece of writing or even after listening to piece of recording.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

12. Teaches the students how to synthesize a text or a piece of writing or even after listening to piece of recording.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

13. Asks students to take notes about the subject they are dealing with.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

14. Asks students comprehensive questions to activate their background knowledge.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

15. Links the subject with students' culture and practices the ideas in a more authentic settings.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

16. Aids students when holding a competition between them by asking them comprehensive questions.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

17. Uses reasoning to aid students have a better understanding about the subject.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

18. Highlights the important expressions.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

19. Teaches students how to draw an outline for the subject they have taken and arrange the organs of the skeleton of the whole subject.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

20. Models for the students how to think aloud.

-always -often - sometimes -rarely -never

REFERENCES

- Ambrose, Susan A. et al. (2010). *How Learning Works: Seven Research-Based Principles for Smart Teaching*. USA.
- Celce-Murcia, Marianne. Ed. (2001). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (3rded.). USA.
- Brown, H. 1994. *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Cohen et al. 2007. *Research Method in Education*. Newyork: Routledge.
- Echevarria, Jana and Vogt, Marry Ellen Vogt (2008) *99 Ideas and*

Activities for Teaching English Learners with the SIOP Model ,

Pearson Education: Boston.

-Jordan, Michael and Adrienne L. Herrell (2008) *Strategies for Teaching*

English Language Learner (3rd ed.), Pearson Education: USA.

-Oxford, Rebecca L, (2011) *Teaching and Researching Language*

Learning Strategies, Taylor & Francis: New York.

-Richards, Jack C. and Anne Burns (2012) *Pedagogy and Practice in*

Second Language Teaching Cambridge University Press: USA

[pdf] Rosenshine, Barak & Carla Meister(1992) *The Use of Scaffolds for Teaching Higher-Level Cognitive Strategies* The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

www.gse.buffalo.edu

www.teacher.scholastic.com/lessonrepro/lessonplans/profbooks/strategies.htm

1

<http://filolingvia.com/index/filolingvija-prjamaja-skajp-podderzhki/0-36>

www.benchmarkeducation.com/metacognitive-strategies.html

(www.carla.umn.edu)

The Effect Of L1 Interference On Written English Acquisition For Kurdish Students

Ms. Alice Farthing
Ishik University, Erbil, Kurdish Region of Iraq
alice.farthing@ishik.edu.iq

Abstract

The effects of students' first language (L1) on their ability to acquire a second language (L2) is an area of broad academic discussion. Indeed, both the similarities and differences of both L1 and L2 can cause learners difficulty with second language acquisition. Despite this, the research specifically focusing upon Kurdish students L1 interference on their written English composition is scant. This paper therefore aims to investigate the impact which Kurdish students' first language influences on their ability to write in English. The study was undertaken on a group of 40 second year students at a private university in Erbil. Such students undertook an academic writing module and were assessed based on a number of written tasks and exams. A text-based error assessment was conducted on both pieces of homework and exams to identify reoccurring problems with written composition and to analyse to what extent such errors could be attributed to the students' first language. It was observed that a number of errors directly correlated to L1 transfer including word order, punctuation and verb forms and thus a number of recommendations and suggested techniques are articulated in order to improve the subsequent acquisition of written English for Kurdish students.

Key words: Language Acquisition, First Language Interference, Written Composition, Error Assessment, L2 Writing

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Written composition in the English language is one of the more complex skills for learners. The formalities which are found in written English, not merely with grammar but also style and form are pertinent to drafting an academic essay, article or research paper. Many English language students suffer with understanding the formalities of written English and the problem resonates in the distinctness of their own first language writing conventions and the intricate complexities of those in English. Furthermore, expressing ones' ideas clearly can be a difficult task among those grammatical and stylistic issues which learners face. Indeed, writing is not inherent, it is a skill attained through practice and understanding of a language. In this respect, the cognitive process of writing for learners of English is not only a reformulation of knowledge but also a structural task in formatting their composition. Omaggio Hadley (1993) differentiates the mere note-taking and writing down activities with composing in an academic context. Indeed, as Myles (2002) has suggested, "formulating new ideas can be difficult because it involves transforming or reworking information, which is much more complex than writing as telling" (Myles, 2002 p.1). She also explains how students writing in L 2, not only need an adequate understanding of the language but also an understanding of the form, conventions and methods (Myles, 2002 p.2). Furthermore, Myles (2002) stated that "acquisition is a product of the complex interaction of the linguistic environment and the learner's internal mechanisms" (Myles, 2002 p.6). In this respect, Kurdish students, in dealing with composition in English must master a number of tasks. The aim of this paper is, by conducting a qualitative error analysis on students' work, to assess the interference of the target students' first language in their writing. It is believed that, the target students L1 negative interference impedes them in their ability to write in English. With such assessment, it is hoped that a number of indications arise and thus, such indications can be advised on with various methods of dealing with such mistakes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

II.1. L2 interference with L1

Although L1 writing is very different to L2 writing it is submitted that the L1 interference in such a productive activity is an important influence to assess. Furthermore, many studies have been conducted and different theories conducted to illustrate the influence of L1 on L2. A pioneer and major researcher in this area is Rod Ellis. Ellis has investigated differing theories of second language acquisition and believes that a learner's first language is a "major factor" in L2 acquisition (Ellis, 1994 p.299). Further to Ellis, Myles has stated, specifically with regards to writing, "a writer's first language plays a complex and significant role in L2 acquisition" (Myles, 2002 p.8). Such role is multi-faceted in that not only will learners suffer from the difference in form and structure but also with the conventions and level of academic formality which is specific to English.

With regards to assessing L1 interference in L2 acquisition, two main theories exist, namely the constructive analysis hypothesis and the error analysis (Ellis, 1994 p.299). The constructive analysis involved hypothetical predictions and assumptions of errors based on first language norms and such predictions were based on the idea that interference of a learner's first language directly contributed to errors made, due to the disparity in the languages (Ellis, 1994 p. 47). As Ellis identified "the contrastive analysis gave way to the error analysis [as] the error analysis provided a *methodology* for investigating learner language" which unlike the contrastive approach did not focus solely on the learner's native language (Ellis, 1994 p.48). Stephen Pit Corder was seminal in his research on error analysis methodology (Corder, 1974). He established five steps to assessing errors in students work which begins with collecting a sample of learners' language, followed by identifying the errors, describing the errors, explaining and finally evaluating the errors (Corder, 1974). In doing such, as Ellis stated, it is important to investigate whether the errors made are due to a transfer (negative) from their first language or the intralingual process (Ellis, 1994). The intralingual process is where errors are made due to the incomplete or misunderstood information of the L2 (Brown,2007). Conversely, the interlingual process refers to the transfer of the learner's first language on their application of L2

(Brown, 2007). In this respect, the focus of this paper, in conducting an error analysis (based on Corder's five steps) on the students work will be based primarily on categorizing errors due to their hypothesized origins. An error analysis is a plausible way to assess such as, as Ellis has stated, "Error Analysis constitutes an appropriate starting point for the study of learner language and L2 acquisition" (Ellis, 1994 p.48).

II.II. Kurdish Students Difficulties with Written Composition

Iraqi Kurdish students studying English, particularly Academic English, encounter a range of difficulties. These difficulties are not only due to the difference between their first language and English, both being distinct, but also as a result of their educational background (Kakamad, 2014). Such linguistic differences between Kurdish and English lie in syntax (sentence structure), article and noun endings (plurals), verb structure and morphology (subject-verb agreements), lexis (meaning) and punctuation. Moreover, for students who are used to using the Kurdish script, there are a host of added issues including handwriting and spacing of the words. Further to this, it is widely regarded that learners writing in their second language often directly translate from their L1 and thus the lexical/ collocational formulation of the sentences further distorts the meaning in English (Richards, 1971). Indeed, Kurdish is an unusually distinct language as it contains a number of different dialects (Haig & Opengin, 2014). For the purpose of this article however, the Sorani dialect will be the focus as it is the main spoken dialect within Erbil.

The political nature of the Kurdish Region of Iraq brings with this socio-political and socio-cultural issues related to education. The education system changed due to Saddam Hussein's Baathist party's ideological views (Harb, 2008). Harb suggests that during Saddam's reign, the education system was fuelled with corruption, politically-motivated propaganda and false information (Harb, 2008 p.3). This therefore, has a disastrous effect on the education system in the Kurdish Region of Iraq. Kakamad (2014) notes that a further element of the education system, left by Saddam was the nature of the system being inherently "teacher-centered and encouraged rote learning" (Kakamad, 2014 p.348). The effect of such a system results in students being exam-focused and not education-focused. With such, it is submitted that many students learn to ultimately receive high grades in exams and not

necessarily understand the topic. This is particularly problematic for students of English as the production stage of language acquisition warrants deep understanding, not only of the grammar rules and conventions but also of the subject. Furthermore, the nature of Academic English for such students is made more complex by the fact that, their writing education, even in their native language is not as extensive as those in Western communities. The reliance on rote-learning for examinations, can be said to somewhat impede students' ability to think for themselves with writing. In such regard, on identification of L1 interference, this paper must also consider the educational background of some of the students as it is an important factor. In furtherance to this, if students are found to have difficulties writing in their first language, such difficulties will be transferred to their L1 writing (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). 0

III. RESEARCH METHOD

III.I. Data Collection and Methodology

The data (qualitative by nature) in this paper has been collected from 40 second year students undertaking the Academic Writing module offered in the second year of the English Language Teaching Degree at a private university in Erbil, the capital of the Kurdish Region of Iraq. 3 pieces of work were selected from each student which involved both assignments and written exams. The 40 students were chosen randomly from three classes undertaking such module. Random selection is when each individual has the same chance of being selected (Peck et al., 2014 p.38). The classes contained students of mixed nationalities, although generally the majority are Kurdish Iraqis. Many of the students speak Arabic or Turkish but of those selected, English was not their mother tongue.

On collection of the papers, a qualitative error assessment was conducted, following Corder's analysis (Corder, 1974). This included allocation of the type of language production. In this case, all the papers were examples of different types of paragraphs which the students had been taught, namely descriptive, definition, opinion and narrative. Following such, an identification stage took place, in order to view the errors and later a description of such errors and explanation with reference to the students'

first language (Kurdish) took place. Reoccurring errors, found in a number of students' papers were used for such error analysis in order to analyze the reason behind such mistakes.

IV.I. EXPLANATION OF INTERLINGUAL ERRORS FOUND

IV.I. Categorization of Errors

The categories of errors are as follows; word order, morphology (verbs and plural forms), lexis (pronouns and word choice) and omission or unnecessary use of verbs (primarily the verb 'to be'). With such categories, an analysis of such errors, by using samples from the selected students' work is assessed below.

III.II. Word Order

The differences between Kurdish and English in word order are distinct. English grammar is based on a Subject/Verb/Object structure whereas Kurdish is based on a Subject/Object/Verb structure. This can be illustrated by the following phrases:

I am eating an apple. (English)

Mn sew daxom. (Kurdish)

In the first sentence (English), 'they' is the subject, followed by the verb (to be) 'are' and concluded by the object 'happy' (and time phrase 'now'). The following Kurdish phrase begins with the subject 'mn' (I), followed by the object 'sew' (apple) and ends with the verb 'daxo'(eat) and subject suffix 'm' (I).

As can be noted, the two languages are distinct and the verb form takes the shape of a suffix(for the verb to be)(Thackston, 2006). It is therefore confusing for students when writing in English with how to order the words and thus suffer from interlingual interferences. Below is a categorized sample of the students' errors which was collected from the work assessed.

In an opinion paragraph, one student wrote "it is safe more than..." The correct version is 'It is safer than' The translation of the correct version is *zeatr salamata* which literally translates to 'more safe is.' The confusion

here was the incorrect order of the noun (safe) and the adjective (more). The order in Kurdish, as can be seen from the analysis, is noun followed by adjective, then verb. In such respect, it could be that the confusion of word order stemmed from the interlingual interference, which is caused by literal translation from the mother tongue and expressions in such language.

Another error with regards to word order was “uniforms for schools is better than the normal wearing, because the school uniform makes the students better studying.” The correct sentence for this is ‘school uniforms are better than wearing normal clothes because the school uniform makes the students study better.’ The problem with the students sentence focuses around the confusion with the use of the ‘ing’ noun form of the base verb (to study and to wear) and the word order of the subject verb and subject within the sentence. In the correct version, ‘School uniforms’ is the subject of the sentence, followed by the verb ‘are’ and then ‘better’ which is a comparative, the coordinator ‘than’ and later ‘wearing normal clothes’ which is a noun and further added with a conjunction ‘because.’ Following such, ‘the school uniform’ is the subject of the second phrase, ‘makes’ is the verb and finally ‘the students (noun) study (verb) better (comparative)’ completes the sentence as a component part of the sentence. The first part of the student’s sentence contains confusion with the word ‘wearing.’ As a phrase it is unclear and needs further clarification with the addition of ‘normal clothes.’ The final part of the sentence however contains the phrase “the school uniform makes the students better studying.” This could perhaps be due to the differences between the students first language and English in that the Kurdish translation of such phrase is *yak-poshy wa la qutabeakan dakat zeatr bixwenn*. This directly translates to ‘one/ style (uniform) makes students more study.’ The penultimate word is misplaced and put before the verb (to study). In this respect, the order ‘makes students study more/better’ is very different to the Kurdish ‘makes students more study.’ Such error therefore appears to have been directly translated from the students mother tongue as it is a formation which they have in their own system.

Following this, the error “Messi is player football” directly indicates an interlingual interference as the Kurdish translation of the correct sentence (Messi is a football player) is *Messi yarizani topipeya*. This directly translates to ‘Messi player football is.’ The final ‘a’ on the end of ‘topipey’

(football) indicates the verb 'to be.' The verb 'to be' which will be later explained with reference to the English usage, is complex in Kurdish as it only appears in the third person in the present tense. In the example given above, 'Messi' is 'he' which is the third person and thus the 'a' indicates the subject-verb indicator suffix.

These errors are merely samples of the word order mistakes the students appear to make regularly. Furthermore, the analysis of the errors by looking at the students' mother tongue is interesting as it gives us an interesting insight into potential indicators for such mistakes.

III.III. Morphology

Aronoff and Fudeman (2010) define Morphology as the investigation of words by focusing on the structure and formation. This could be forming plurals or adverbs by adding suffixes at the end of the base word. This could also be the amendment of verbs to the third person by adding 's.' Kurdish students, within this study, appeared to have problems with both the morphology of words forming the third person and also plurals. It is submitted that this could be due to the distinct nature of English, compared to Kurdish.

Verb forms in Kurdish take the shape of suffixes at the end of the base verb (which changes depending on the tense). For example, 'I eat' in Kurdish is *mn daxom*. The 'm' part of the word, which can be given the term morpheme, is specifically for the first person. Similarly, 'you eat' in Kurdish is *to daxoy*. The 'y' suffix indicates the second person of 'you' singular. Such suffixes change for each person and thus should not be seen as a confusing aspect of English for Kurds as they also change the form of the verbs for each person. The third person form however in English is at times irregular and such irregularities can be said to be at odds with the usual verbal structures associated by the students in both languages. A reoccurring mistake by students is the incorrect use of the third person form of verbs. An example of this can be seen by the following errors; "animals has", "it protect", "the test cause", "clothes is" and "wearing school uniform make all students the same and help them." The first error is the misuse of the third

person form as it should be 'animals have.' The translation of 'animals have' into Kurdish (*gyanlabaran hateyan*) does not indicate any confusion or interlingual interference due to the fact that 'gyanlabaran' means animals and 'hateyan' is the plural verbal form for 'they.' This changes for one animal. The second two mistakes omit the use of 's.' It is submitted that there cannot also be interlingual interference from these mistakes as the form in the students mother tongue is similar and thus should not contribute to their errors. Furthermore, Kurdish also adds different suffixes for different people forms which is an association with English. Clothes, which as English, does not have a plural form in Kurdish. In this regard, it does not seem likely that these mistakes are due to the first language interference but instead due to intralanguage and developmental issues in the students own learning.

Another area of morphology which was commonly associated (in this study) with student mistakes was plural forms of words. Students appeared to avoid using plural forms when needed. Examples of such include animal (where 'animals' was needed), uniform (where 'uniforms' was needed), school (where 'schools' was needed) and finally "there are no other way" (where "there are no other ways" was correct). For both schools and animals, plural forms of such words exist in Kurdish; however, uniform (*yak-poshy* in Kurdish) does not have a plural form. Furthermore, the phrase 'there are no other ways' which is the correct form of the students error, translated to Kurdish is *hich regayaketra nia*. Such directly translates to 'no another way isn't.' This therefore appears to be an expression taken from the students' first language and incorrectly written in English. Perhaps, the fact that the translation of 'uniform' in the students head cannot be made plural may be an answer as to why the plural form in English was not used. There are many similarities in morphology between English and Kurdish, particularly to do with verb forms and plural suffixes added; however, the students nevertheless appear to find such confusing when writing. These mistakes cannot be attributed to a negative transfer in Kurdish but instead an incorrect understanding of English (intralingual mistakes).

III.IV. Lexis

Lexis refers to a set of words having specific meaning when together. This category for errors, for the purposes of this paper, has been divided into the subsections of pronouns and word choice. With regards to pronouns, it appears the unnecessary use of such distorts the general comprehensibility of the sentence. As an example, “wearing uniform or some clothes to school it is a good idea.” The student inserted an unnecessary ‘it,’ where it is clear what the subject is and it is thus an unneeded extra. The correct form of the sentence (wearing uniform or the same clothes to school is a good idea) translates into Kurdish as *yak-poshy yan jly wak-yak bo qutabxana berokayaky basha*. The literal translation of such is ‘uniform or clothes like one for school idea good is.’ This indicates that, although the word order is confusing, there is no extra-added pronoun in their mother tongue. This can be further illustrated by the error “ this it’s a good idea.” Which, when correctly written (this is a good idea), translates to *awa berokayaky basha*. When literally translated, it takes the form of ‘this idea good is.’ Therefore, as can be seen, no extra pronoun is used in Kurdish. These two are examples of the many uses of extra pronouns found in the students’ work. It cannot therefore be said to be an interlinguistic interference as no such form exists in Kurdish. It must be associated with intralingual issues and confusion with the use of pronouns.

With regards to word choice, the use of the word ‘too’ is something which is reoccurring by most students. ‘Too’ translates to *Zor* in Kurdish which is used for both positive and negative emphasis. In English, the word ‘too’ is used for negatives and for agreement with a previous statement. Kurdish students (in this study) continuously use it for negative emphasis. For example, “you will save too much money” which when correctly written should say ‘you will save a lot of money.’ As stated, ‘*zor*’ is used in Kurdish to emphasize something and thus the confusion lies with the direct translation from their mother tongue being to ‘too.’

III.V. Omission/Unnecessary Use of Verbs

The omission and unnecessary use of verbs in English for students appears to indicate confusion with regards to their applicability. This is particularly

acute with the verb 'to be.' In English, the verb 'to be' can be found as a stand-alone verb, separate from the noun or adjective to which it relates.

In Kurdish, the verb 'to be' takes the form of a suffix at the end of nouns and adjectives. It does not however appear for each tense or person. In the present tense, the verb 'to be' can only be seen in the third person. For example 'Aw shada' translates to 'He happy is.' The 'a' at the end of the adjective 'shad' (happy) is the verb 'to be.' It does not appear for example, for the first person. 'Mn shadm' which translates to 'I happy am,' illustrates the pronoun 'I' rather than the verb 'to be.' This is due to the fact that the verb 'to be' takes the form of an 'a' at the end of nouns and adjectives and due to the phonetics of the case pronouns, the 'a' cannot be written or spoken. Therefore, the phrase 'to shady' which translates to 'you happy you' can be broken down as follows:

You + happy + verb (invisible) + you (personal pronoun)

In contrast to this, 'aw shada' which translates to 'he happy is' is an example of the third person where the verb is apparent. This can also be seen in the phrase 'aw mesa,' meaning 'it table is.' This is of course with the noun 'table' instead of the adjective 'happy' but the difference in grammatical construction is notable. In addition, if one looks at the future or past forms of the verb 'to be' it is apparent. This can be demonstrated by the following explanation:

1. You are happy (English)
To shady (Kurdish)
2. You will be happy (English)
To shad dabi (Kurdish)
3. You were happy (English)
To shad buy (Kurdish)

The first example, as had been explained illustrates that the verb 'a' for the verb 'to be' is not written or pronounced. This changes for the third person in the present tense as has been indicated. In the second example, 'to shad

buy' can be deconstructed to take the form of S (to) + Adj. (shad)+ V (dab)+ Personal Pronoun (y). Furthermore, example three takes a similar form to the future tense in that 'to shad buy' can be deconstructed to S (to) + Adj. (shad) + V (bu) + Personal Pronoun (y). The third person in the future tense is the same as the second person in that 'to shad dabi' for 'you will be happy' is similar to 'aw shad dabi' for 'he will be happy.' The verb 'to be' therefore only provides a somewhat confusing form in the present tense.

For example, in English 'if you are bored' translates to '*agar to bezary.*' This, when literally translated is 'if you bored you.' The suffix 'y' in Kurdish indicates the second (personal pronoun) person as the verb 'to be' for the present tense does not appear for the second person.

Therefore, 'if I am bored,' translates to *agar mn bezarm.* The suffix 'm' indicating the first person. This was a mistake which a student made, namely they wrote 'if you bored,' omitting the verb. This mistake was found to be common. Another student wrote 'if you a student.' Thus, again omitting the verb due to their first language interference, which, for the verb 'to be' in the present tense (except for the third person) is omitted and thus the adjective/noun is directly followed by the personal pronoun.

With the omission of the verb 'to be', also the unnecessary usage of such occurred by the students in this study. Examples include "the parents are want their children to wear uniform." The correct form of such is 'the parents want their children to wear uniform.' The Kurdish translation of such being *xezanakan(daykan u bawkan) dayanawet mndalakanyan yak-poshy labarbkan.* This directly translates to 'parents want children their uniform wear.' Aside from the clear word order issues in the direct translation there is no extra use of the verb 'to be.' In this regard, it is submitted that the omission of the verb 'to be' can be attributed to the interference of the students' first language but the unnecessary use cannot.

IV. CONCLUSION

The differences between English and Kurdish are significant to assess learner issues with regards to first language interference. It is important to

note that throughout a language learners' life, they continuously make mistakes, due to both interlingual and intralingual issues. This study has aimed to assess a number of categorized errors in terms of how the students may translate such from their own language and such difference may equate to a negative association, resulting in errors and confusion. It has been found that the likely cause of many errors in written composition is due to the students' first language interference. This information can and will, for the purposes of private universities, be used when planning writing classes and curriculums for the students, in terms of assessing their potential difficulties with such materials, particularly with grammar.

References

- Arnoff, M. & Fudeman, K. (2010) *What is Morphology?* (2nd Edition)
London: Wiley-Blackwell
- Brown, H. D. (2007) *Principles Language Learning and Teaching*. USA:
San Francisco State University.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (5th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Corder, S. P. (1974). *Error Analysis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994) *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Haig, G. & Opengin, E. (2014) 'Kurdish: a Critical Research Overview,' *Kurdish Studies*, Volume: 2, No: 2, pp. 99
- Harb, I (2008) 'Higher Education and the Future of Iraq' Special Report No. 195, *The United States Institute of Peace*, Washington D.C : 16
- Hirose, K. and Sasaki, M. (1996). Explanatory variables for Japanese students' expository writing in English: An exploratory study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3, 203-229.

- Kakamad, K. (2014) 'Preparing Iraqi Kurdish Students for Postgraduate Study in the United States: Perceptions and Proposals,' *International Journal of Education and Research*, Vol. 2, No. 12
- Myles, J. (2002). 'Second language writing and research: The writing process and error analysis in student texts.' *TESL-EJ*, 6(2).
- Omaggio Hadley, A. (1993). *Teaching language in context*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle (Retrieved January 2015, from <http://www.tesl.ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume6/ej22a1/>)
- Richards, J.C. (1971). A Non- Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis. *Journal of ELT*. 25, 204-219.
- Richards, J.C. (ed). (1973) Error Analysis. London: Longman Group.
- Thackston, W.M. (2006) *Sorani Kurdish, A Reference Grammar with Selected Readings*, Iranian Studies at Harvard University, Harvard University Press

To take notes or not to take notes? That is the question!

Alison Salm, Stacey Xaelani

University of Kurdistan, Hewler, Iraqi Kurdistan

a.salm@ukh.ac, s.xaelani@ukh.ac

ABSTRACT

The use of mobile devices, particularly Smartphones, as learning aids in the classroom appears to be widespread amongst university students in Kurdistan. Some appear to be using it in place of traditional note-taking methods. In order to more closely analyze the correlation between listening only, hand written notes and the practice of taking notes using smartphones, a class of pre-undergraduate students who were taking part in some note taking research, were asked to complete questionnaires. The results showed that students on pre-undergraduate courses were mostly unfamiliar with useful note taking techniques, they were unsure as to what to take notes about, and that the new generation of students are slowly turning to new devices such as smartphones and tablets in order to take 'notes' in the class.

Keywords: Mobile devices, Note-taking, Smartphones, Tablets

1. INTRODUCTION

In the past few years, the noticeable increase in the use of mobile devices such as smart phones in the classroom has led to changes in note-taking practices amongst students in universities across the region of Kurdistan. However, very little research has been conducted on this subject area in the Kurdistan region. This paper will highlight some of the main findings from a

questionnaire conducted at a local university in the region on the practices of note-taking and the usage of smart phones in the classroom as a method of taking notes.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In most higher education classrooms across the world, students are encouraged to take notes of some form whilst attending academic lectures or presentations (Kiewra, 1987). It is considered by Carrell, Dunkel & Mollaun, (2014) as ‘a useful strategy for augmenting student attention to and retention of academic discourse’ (p83). However, the traditional method of note taking is being challenged as we see an increase in information technology in the classroom (Schepman et al., 2012). Increasingly, laptops and tablets have been endorsed as ‘smarter’ alternatives to the age-old paper and pen and Kurdistan is not immune to this trend. Whilst technology enables students to access information and share learning to a degree previously unimaginable, it is questionable as to whether these new tools are being used effectively to enhance learning or whether they are in fact detrimental to this process. When looking at the activity of ‘note-taking’ in particular, a number of educationalists are questioning the use of laptops and tablets in the classroom/lecture hall and many have returned to the ‘old fashioned’ hand writing method claiming it produces better results (Crowley, 2015). Apart from the risk of students using technology in the classrooms as distractions (e.g. checking social networking sites and playing games) research suggests the use of technology as an alternative to pen and paper enables the mindless transcribing of information and diminishes the processing of information which is the essential aspect for the activity to be beneficial (Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2014). As Crowley puts it, “having students sit in rows while they passively transcribe the words of a teacher on a regular basis is not learning”. In other words, traditional hand written notes aids the processing and retention of information, whereas typing, (considered a faster recording mechanism), merely results in a greater quantity of notes. According to a recent ‘life hacker’ poll (Coursehero, 2012), 38% of people questioned prefer handwritten notes, 21% favour typed notes and 40% like to use a combination of the two. It appears therefore, that use of technology as a note-taking tool is not universally embraced and universities should question the validity of new technology before promoting it in the classroom as a superior learning tool.

Whilst the tablet versus pen debate is inconclusive, it raises a more fundamental question regarding the practice of note-taking; namely, is the practice of note-taking useful in the modern age at all? If we consider the purpose of taking notes to be the recording of information presented by a single person for later revision, the prevalence of web-based platforms such as 'Moodle' and 'Engrade' where lecturers can post their lecture slides/notes, renders note-taking redundant. Should lecturers believe that their job is merely to pass information from themselves to the students, note-taking becomes a distraction for students who could otherwise give their full attention to the lecturer him/herself. Likewise, if students consider note-taking to be beneficial merely for the written product itself, reliance on lecturers' notes or colleagues' notes might be considered preferable to personal note-taking. Whilst many native speakers of English consider note-taking to be an unnecessary evil, how much more cumbersome for students in an English medium university such as UKH, who speak English as a second language. For these students, the task of note taking in a second language may be seen as an extra burden to an already challenging task as they are expected to engage in several complex processing tasks simultaneously (Field, 2008). It is reasonable to predict that students' note-taking behavior relates in part to their belief about the value of note-taking itself. If therefore, there is little learning value in the process, students are likely to refrain from the activity. Conversely, should students find value in the activity of selecting key information, reformulating and recording their processed information having understood that the process itself aids learning, they are presumably more likely to be motivated to practice note-taking. It is likely that beliefs about note-taking affect classroom behavior.

Perusing comments left by university students on academic sites makes interesting reading. On *AtarNotes.com* (2014) for example, of 11 students responding to the question as the validity of note-taking, 8 stated that they never took notes and found it more beneficial to pay full attention to the lecture. The three who reported taking notes did so selectively, choosing to practice note-taking for some subjects but not others, or deliberately summarizing the lecture after the session. These three students appeared to value note-taking for the processing of information more than the storage of it.

According to a 2010 study of American students, only 66.5% of students take notes and these students often lack any structure or strategy in their note-taking (Coursehero, 2012). If American students who are learning in L1, and who have been schooled using a predominantly communicative

pedagogical approach resist note-taking, what thinking and behavior will L2 students in a Kurdish University espouse?

3. METHOD

In an attempt to understand the beliefs and behavior of students at UKH, quantitative style questionnaires, including both closed and open ended questions, were distributed to a total of 26 participants. These participants were volunteers who were taking part in a note taking research study during the summer holidays and had agreed to complete the confidential questionnaire prior to their note taking class. To increase the reliability and validity of the answers, all students were given the questionnaires at the same time under the same conditions. There were two English lecturers present to explain the questionnaires and answer any queries from students. All participants were encouraged to answer all questions, including those which were open ended, to ensure the results were as valid as possible. The questionnaires were then collected prior to the students starting the next phase of their study. Ultimately, our questionnaires sought to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What are the students' beliefs about note taking?
- 2) Do the students claim to take notes in the classroom during lectures?
- 3) If they claim to take notes, do they take hand written notes or do they use their smartphones / tablets?
- 4) Do the students feel they know how to take good notes?

4. RESULTS:

The responses from the participants correlated well with our expectations of pre-undergraduate students and answered our initial research questions well (see method).

The results for each closed question were formulated into a graph or a pie chart.

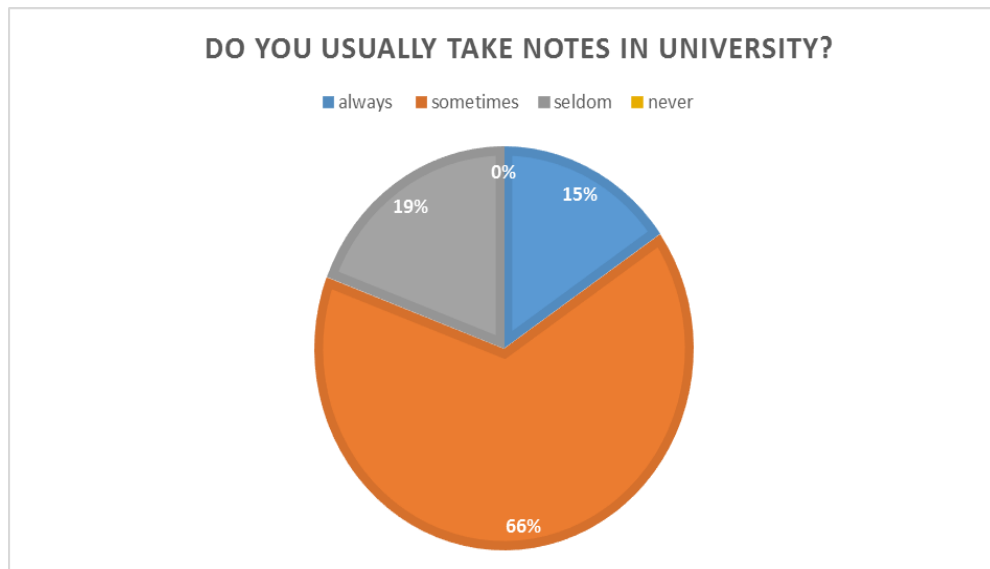
Question 1: Do you usually take notes in university?

FIGURE 1. Question 1 of the questionnaire

According to the questionnaires, 66% of students questioned claimed to 'sometimes' take notes and they later commented that it depends on which lecture they are attending. Only 15% of participants said they 'always' take notes and a small percentage (19%) said that they 'seldom' take notes. From previous observations, these figures are almost what we expected from the participants. The problem with this question is that it is difficult to know if these answers are accurate without classroom observations of the students in question.

Question 2: Students beliefs about note taking

The participants were asked which statement they agreed with the most. The results in percentages follow each statement:

- a. Note-taking greatly increases my ability to remember new information. 61%
- b. Note-taking greatly increases my ability to understand new information. 27%
- c. Note-taking reduces my ability to listen and understand key points of a lecture. 8%

- d. Note-taking is unnecessary because I have a good memory. 0%
- e. Note-taking is unnecessary because my lecturer usually sends me power points. 4%

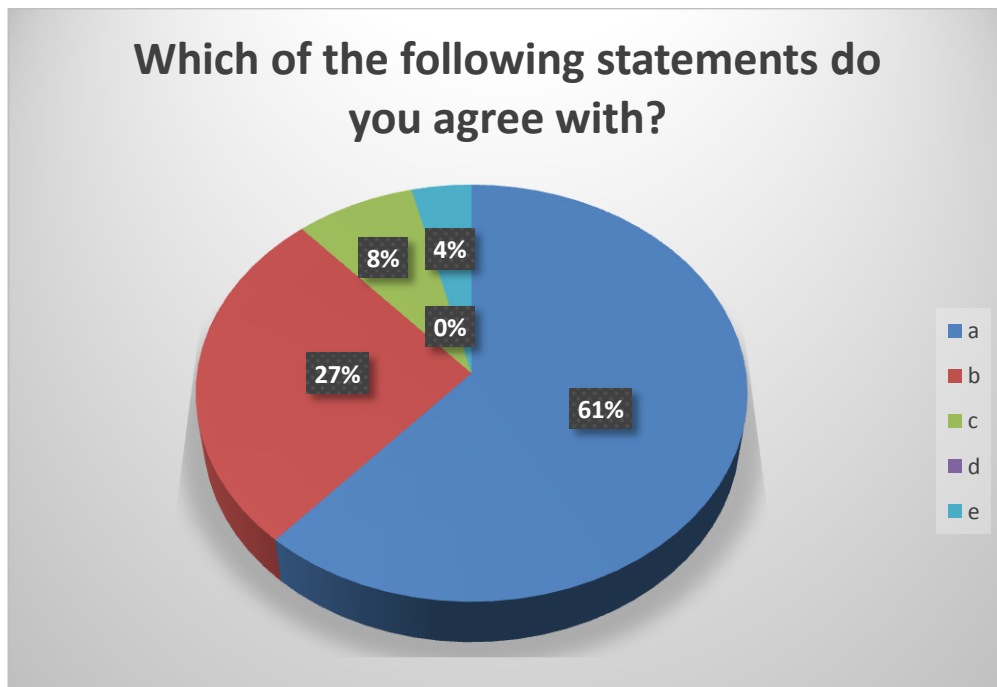


FIGURE 2. Question 2 of the questionnaire

Question 3: How do you take notes?

In this question, we wanted to identify the method of note taking that the students used, if any.

In the note taking study the participants were taking part in, they were being asked to use the Cornell Note taking method which is a technique they had all previously been taught. Therefore they were all familiar with this method of note taking. Despite this, only 4% claimed to be taking notes using this method. The majority of the students claim to be using their own method of just taking notes of what they hear in a freestyle manner.

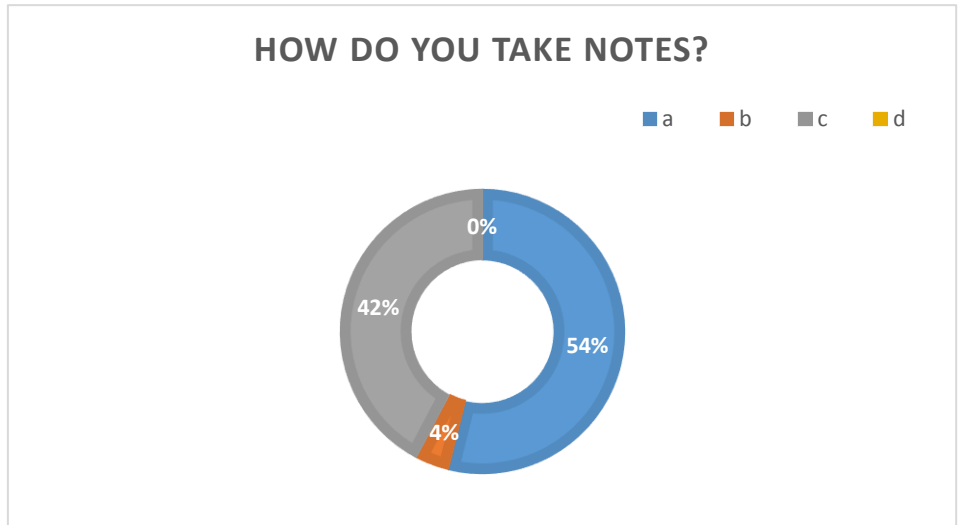


FIGURE 3. Question 3 of the questionnaire

Key:

- a. My own method (54%)
- b. Cornell note-taking method (4%)
- c. I just write down key points (42%)
- d. I don't take notes (0%)

Question 4: Do you own a smartphone / tablet?

This question was asked as we wanted to check that students had access to such devices before we began any further research. Although in classes and on campus most students appear to have such devices, 15% of students said that they own neither a smartphone nor a tablet.

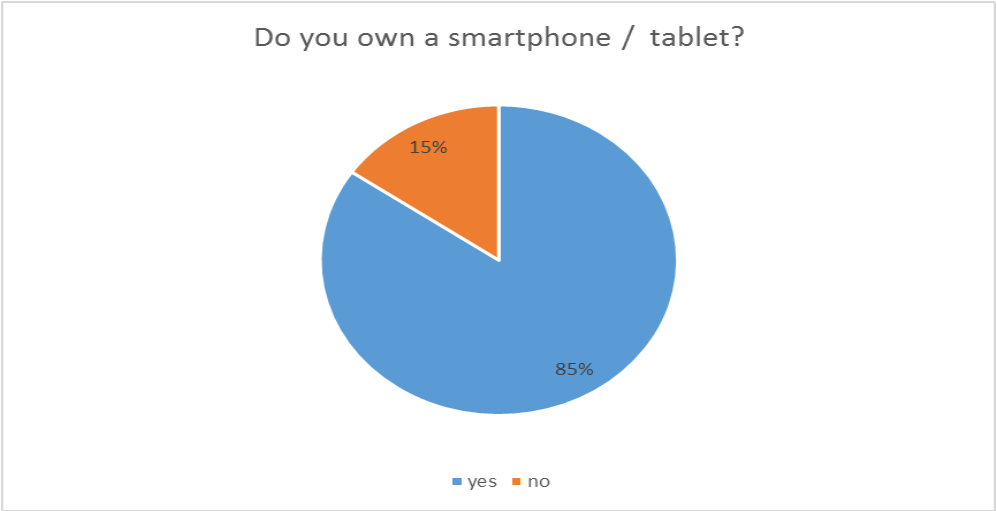


FIGURE 4. Question 4 of the questionnaire

Question 5: Have you ever used a smartphone or tablet to take notes?

From the 85% of students who said that they own such devices, a further 65% of those students said that they use them to take notes in the classroom.

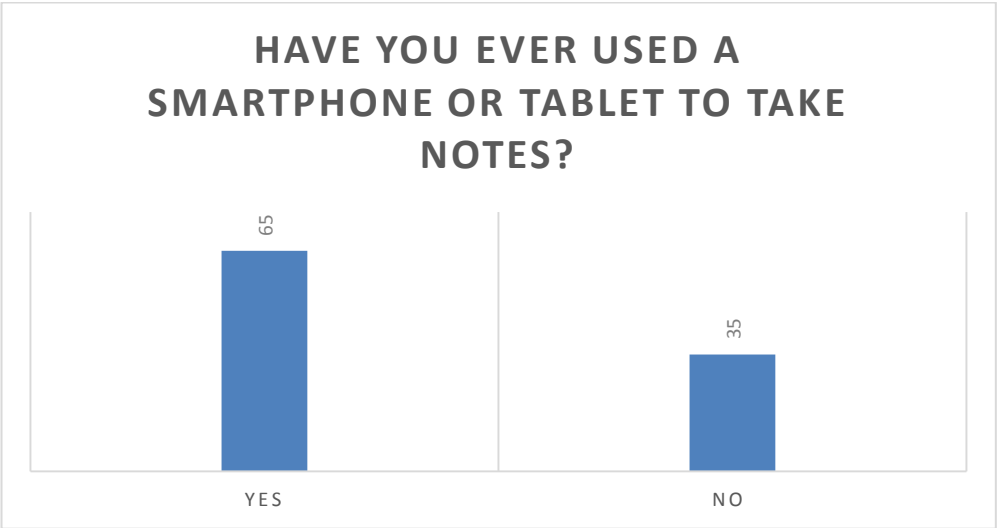


FIGURE 5. Question 5 of the questionnaire

This question, in hindsight could be further clarified by asking which types of apps they use or indeed ‘how’ they use their smartphones to take notes.

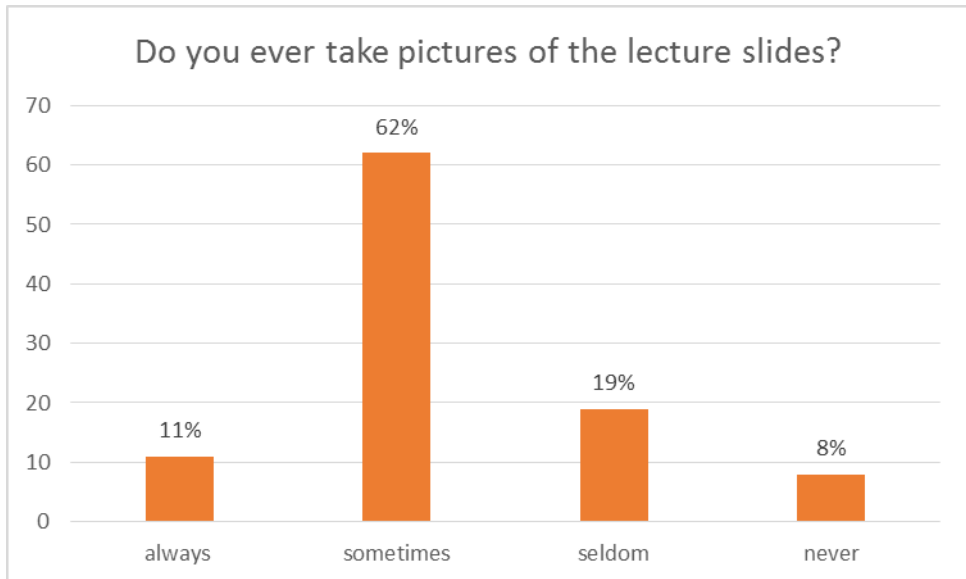
Question 6: Do you ever take pictures of the lecture slides?

FIGURE 6. Question 6 of the questionnaire

Observing the increasing numbers of students who have begun taking pictures of the PowerPoint slides in class is one of the main reasons for conducting this study. The majority of the participants (62%) admitted to taking pictures 'sometimes' and a small percent admit to taking pictures for every class (always). A small percentage (8%) claim that they never use their phones to take pictures of the slides in their lessons.

Question 7: If you answered 'yes' to the previous question, what do you usually do with those pictures?

For the participants who claimed that they took pictures of lecture slides, we wanted to know what students did with those pictures after they had been taken. It had been noticed by several lecturers at this university that some students were taking pictures of every slide during a class and we wondered whether these pictures were actually studied by the students at home.

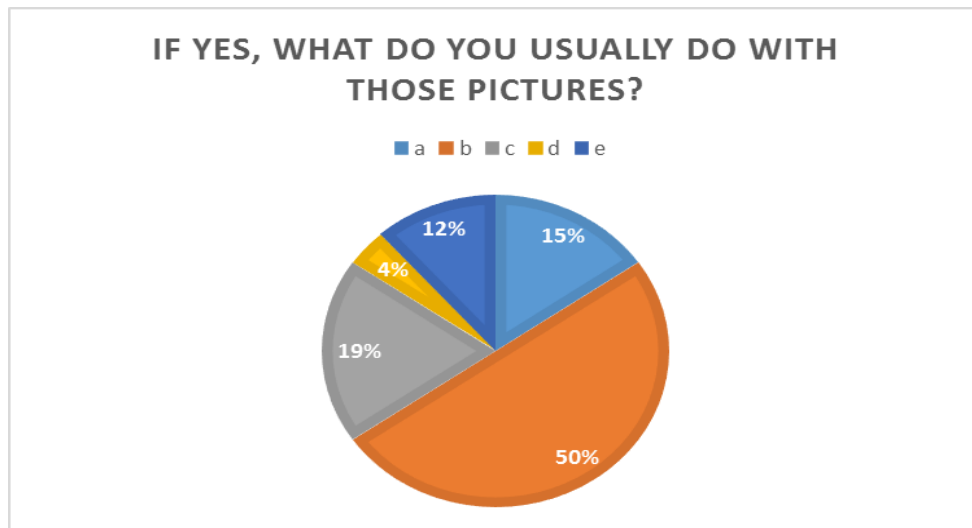


FIGURE 7. Question 7 of the questionnaire

Key:

- a. Review and revise the information straight after the lecture/ same day (15%)
- b. Review the information at a later date (50%)
- c. I usually forget about them and never re-read the information (19%)
- d. I delete them (4%)
- e. Other : (12%)

For the students who chose ‘other’ they mostly wrote how they keep the pictures and neither read nor deleted them.

Question 8: Have you downloaded any note taking apps?

From observation of student use mobile technology at our institution, it appears that note-taking applications are seldom used in classrooms. We were desirous to know if students were aware of such downloadable apps and moreover if they actually have any of these apps available. Unsurprisingly, the majority of students (69%) said that they have never downloaded such an app.

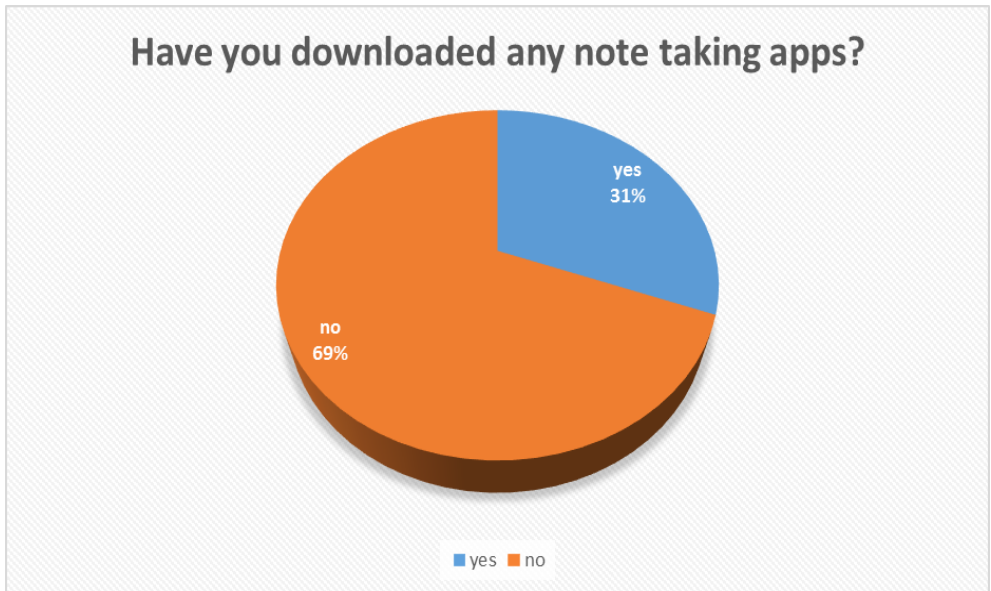


FIGURE 8. Question 8 of the questionnaire

Question 9: Have you ever used this app or any apps to take notes in class?

We were interested to know whether these apps that had been downloaded by the students had been used by them in class.

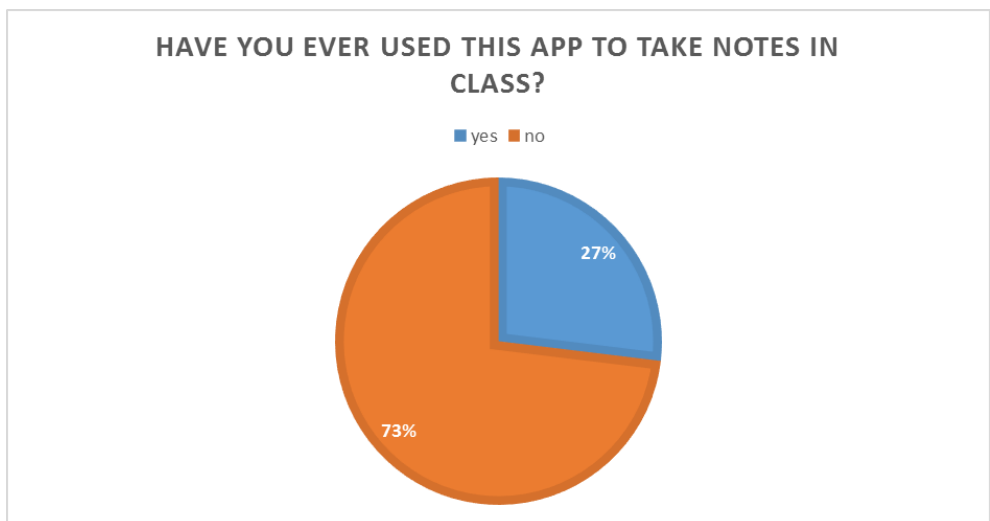


FIGURE 9. Question 9 of the questionnaire

Again, as we had expected, the majority of students (73%) had not used any note taking apps in class. The reason for this, as earlier mentioned, could be that such technology is relatively new to this part of the world and the students in Kurdistan in particular are only just becoming aware of such applications.

Question 10: Do you ever use a laptop to take notes in class?

As we had previously questioned the participants on their use of smart devices, we decided to question whether they were purely taking notes by hand or had they ever used laptops to type notes instead. Only 30% of students claimed that they use laptops to take written notes in class leaving the majority claiming that they do not use them to take notes.

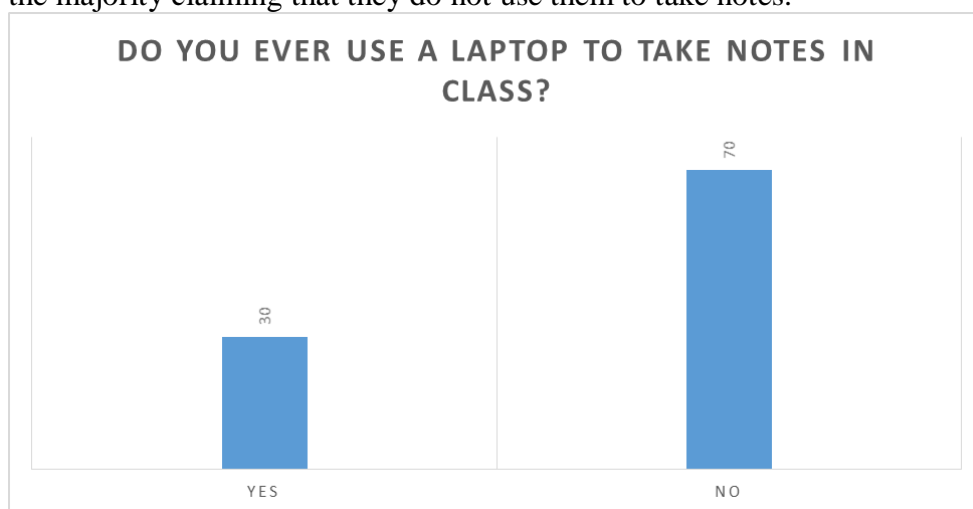


FIGURE 10. Question 10 of the questionnaire

Question 11: Are you able to take notes and keep up / understand in the class?

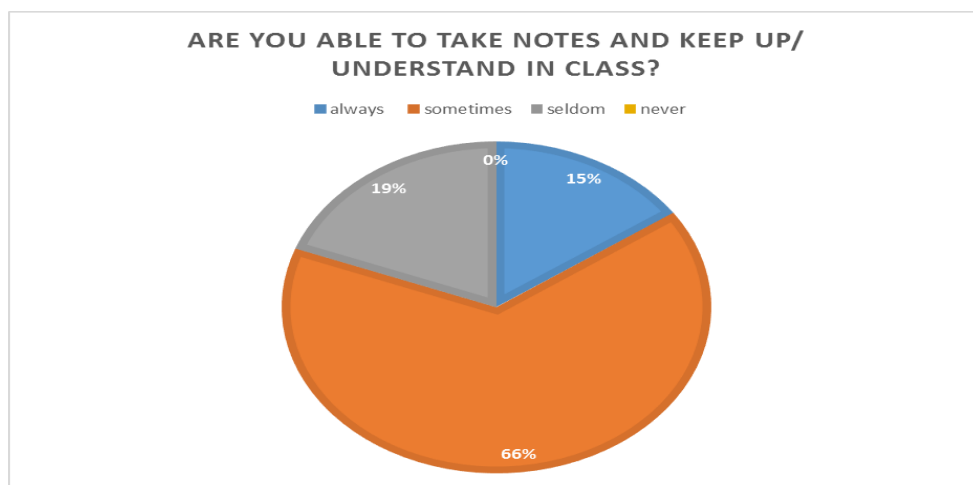


FIGURE 11. Question 11 of the questionnaire

The reason behind this question is that several studies have confirmed that ESL (English as a second language) students often have difficulty with the process of listening in the class and being able to write notes at the same time. We wanted to ask our students personally if they also thought this was the case. The majority of students (66%) claimed that they could ‘sometimes’ keep up and take notes in the class whereas 19% said that they are seldom able to do this. This research question is certainly an area which needs more investigation.

Question 12: Do you have an efficient system of note taking?

Although we had already asked students if they use a particular method, we also wanted to know if the students believed that they knew or used an efficient system of note taking. According to the questionnaires, the majority of students said that they neither knew of nor used an efficient note taking method. Interestingly, 4% of the students asked said that they do not take notes, which has not been disclosed previously in the results.

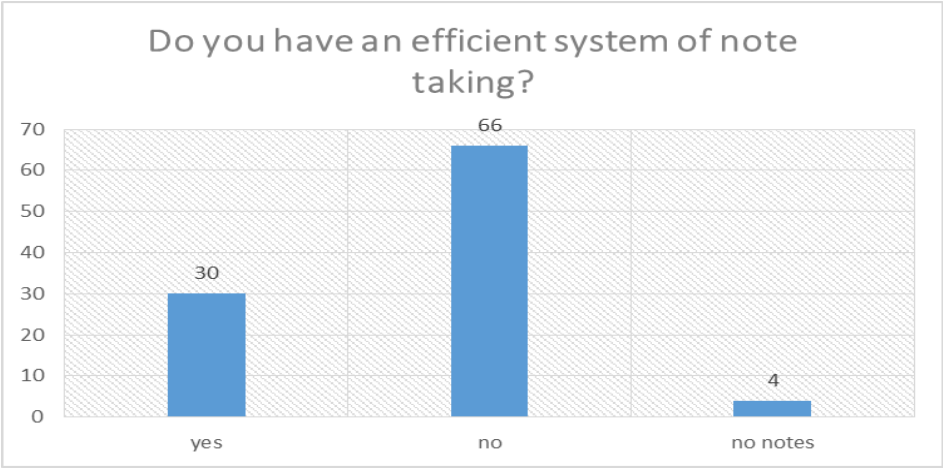


FIGURE 12. Question 12 of the questionnaire

Question 13: Do you review your notes after each class?

Although several teachers in the university have observed students taking notes (either hand written or via smart devices) we wondered if students actually used these notes to review after class. Only a small percentage (12%) claimed to always review their notes, the majority at 54% said that they sometimes did this. Interestingly, 19% of students claimed to never review their notes after class.

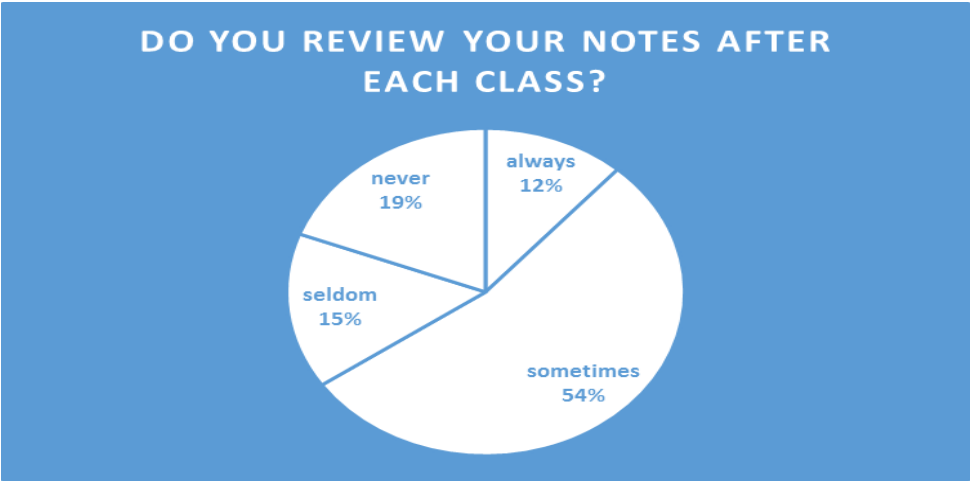


FIGURE 13. Question 13 of the questionnaire

Question 14: Do you know what the 'important stuff' is? (What should you be making notes of?)

As the students are all L2 learners, we decided to question if they knew what they should be making a note of. The results were split into almost even sections. 31% claimed that they know what to make a note of, whereas an equal number of students said that they didn't know what to write down. A further 38% were unsure of what to write down.

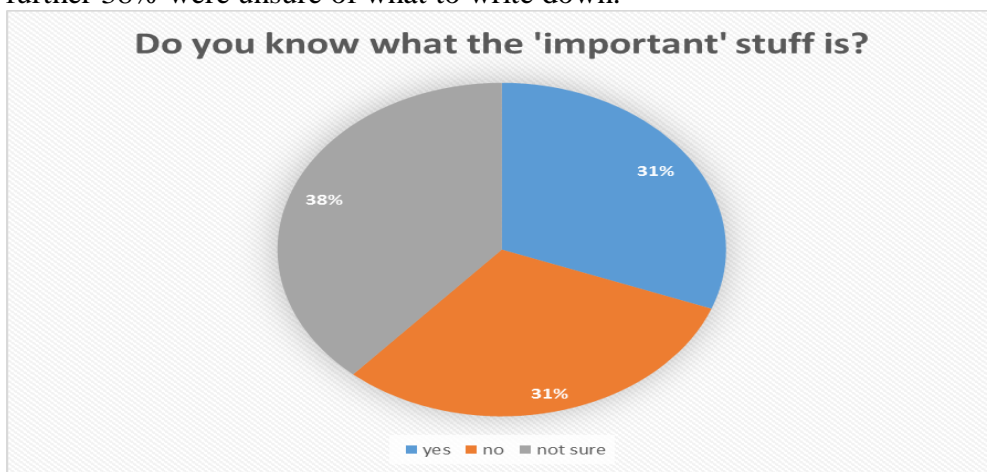


FIGURE 14. Question 14 of the questionnaire

Question 15: (Open ended question)

What listening strategies do you know which you could use to help you take good notes?

The majority of participants wrote responses for this question and most of them mentioned how they thought by listening to stress, intonation and transition signals, they would be able to understand better and therefore take better notes. Others mentioned how they 'write down key names/ dates' and others how they 'take notes of the main ideas'. One student commented: 'I don't know a profound one, but I came to learn a new strategy'. Three participants wrote similar responses saying that they 'make [their] own summary after the class.' From these responses it is clear to see that further work on note taking strategies needs to be conducted with the students.

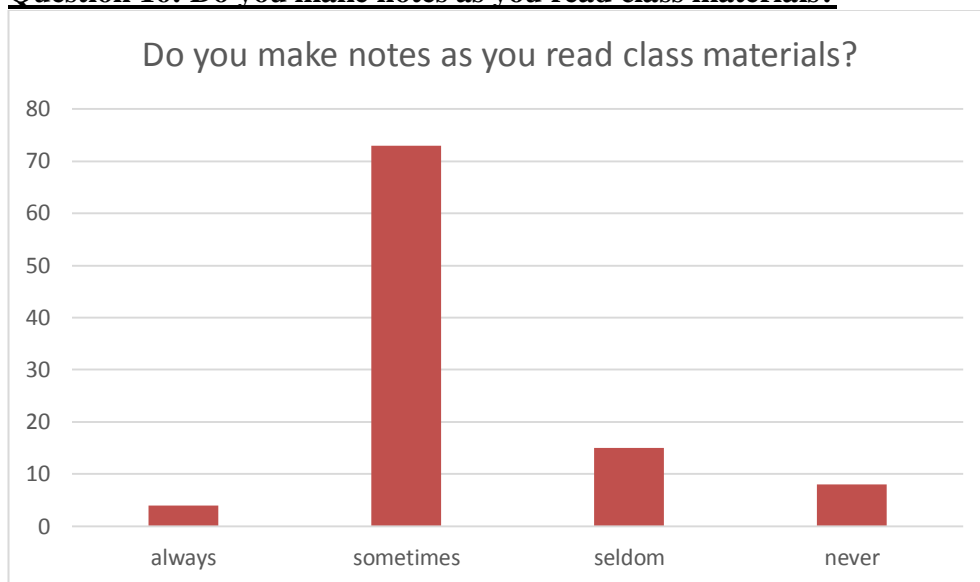
Question 16: Do you make notes as you read class materials?

FIGURE 15. Question 16 of the questionnaire

Rather than just questioning the students on their listening and note taking habits, we used this opportunity of questioning the students to investigate whether they make notes as they read through course books or class materials. A large majority claimed that they did although further study and analysis of these notes would be needed to confirm this.

Question 17: Do you expect that you will need to take notes at a UG level?

Tutors at UKH have noticed that when students are asked why they do not take notes in class, the common responses include: 'because I am not in UG yet'; 'I am a good listener so I don't need to take notes'; and 'because there is nothing worth taking notes of.' Therefore as a final question, we decided to ask the students on the pre-undergraduate course if they thought they would need to take notes on their courses next year. We were comforted to know that the vast majority (92%) replied in the affirmative, claiming that they expected to take notes the following year. Only 4% said that they didn't think they would have to take notes on a UG course.

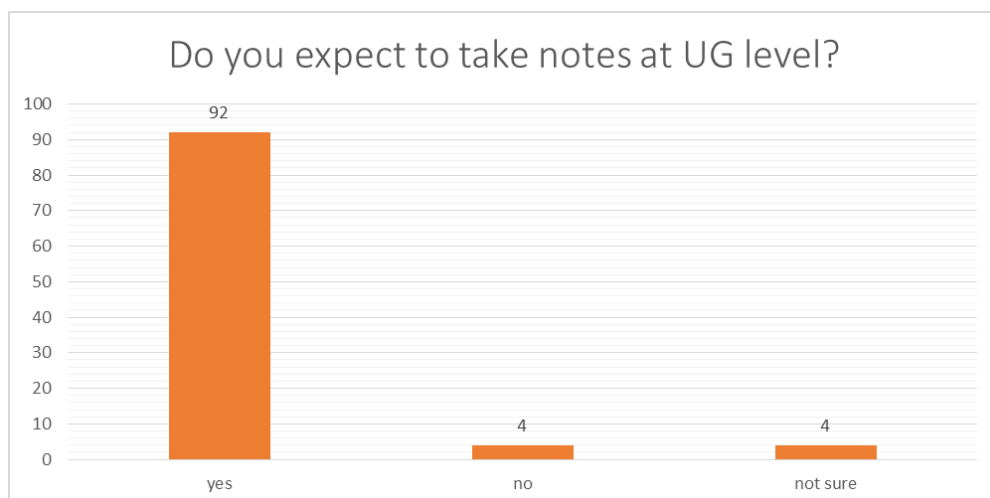


FIGURE 16. Question 17 of the questionnaire

As this question included a comment box, several of the students wrote comments. Some of the examples of their comments are included below:

Participant 1:	Yes of course I need to take notes at UG level because I don't remember all the lectures.
Participant 2:	Yes, I always used to take notes and it helps me a lot to remember all important key points.
Participant 3:	I don't know and I am not sure. I have to improve my listening especially with audios during class.
Participant 4:	No, I cannot take notes because I am not sure which of the points are important to write in my note book so I must improve that.

Table 1. Example comments from participants regarding q.17

Clearly from the sample of comments above, students differ in their expectations of note-taking on UG courses.

Free comments box:

At the end of the questionnaire we deliberately left space for participants to add any comments that they felt necessary to mention to us. Below are the comments that some of the participants wrote:

‘I agree with promoting this method (written notes) instead of taking pictures’
‘My note taking was weak and I will improve it hopefully’
‘Do not obligate students to take notes by Cornell notes let them do it by their own.’
‘My notes always help me to remember lectures’
‘Well, if you could please give us (teach us) some ways and approaches to take notes especially in the UG classes afterward.’
‘I am just bad at finding out the key point. So I always write more things, can you please remind us how we use the key point for example sometimes while listening I don’t know what is going after so I just write all words that I hear.’
‘The teachers should learn us more strategies about note taking.’
‘I need more practice to identify key points because when I take notes I always lose some key points.’

Table 2: Free comments box example comments

Clearly, the opinions of the participants on the subject of note taking are very mixed. Interestingly, several of the comments appear to be a request for help or advice on how to take notes therefore this need has been noted and it is hoped that more workshops and tutorials on note taking will be introduced to the students in the future.

5. DISCUSSION:

The purpose of this research was ultimately to discover the current beliefs and ideas that UKH students at a foundation (pre-undergraduate) level had about note taking. The main themes deriving from the results of the questionnaires are that students at this level are still unsure of the purpose of note taking and why it is beneficial and that more lessons or workshops on the different techniques of note taking needs to take place prior to the students entering their UG courses. Subsequently, students need to be explicitly taught how to develop their own note taking style and what they should do with their notes after the classes. It is also recommended that students be given the choice of how they take notes, whether by hand or using smart devices. As technology continues to develop, teachers and students at the university would benefit from workshops and/or training sessions on how to incorporate the use of smart devices in the classroom to benefit learning. Students should be given the information they need in order to develop their own learning style and choose *how*, *when* and even *if* they take notes in the classroom. Many students claim that they are selective about the subjects which they take notes about. It is recommended that more

research be done into the benefits or otherwise of note-taking as the opinions of students, educationalists and research is inconclusive.

5. **REFERENCES:**

- Atarnotes.com,. (2014). *Note-taking - art or waste of time?*. Retrieved 9 March 2015, from <http://www.atarnotes.com/forum/index.php?topic=139974.0>
- Carrell, P., Dunkel, P., & Mollaun, P. (2014). The Effects of Notetaking, Lecture Length, and Topic on a Computer-Based Test of ESL Listening Comprehension. *Applied Language Learning*, 14(1), 83-105.
- Coursehero (2012) Note taking effectiveness and the digital classroom revolution. *Write it down*. Retrieved from <http://www.coursehero.com/blog/category/college-life/>
- Crowley, M. (2015). Note-Taking: Key to Learning or Waste of Time?. *Maelstrom*. Retrieved from <http://crowleym.com/2015/01/11/note-taking-key-to-learning-or-waste-of-time/>
- Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the language classroom*. 1st ed. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kiewra, K. (1987). Notetaking and review: The research and its implications. *Instr Sci*, 16(3), 233-249. doi:10.1007/bf00120252
- Mueller, P., Oppenheimer, D. (2014). Take Notes by Hand for Better Long-Term Comprehension. *Association For Psychological Science*. Retrieved from <http://www.psychologicalscience.org/index.php/news/releases/take-notes-by-hand-for-better-long-term-comprehension.html>
- Schepman, A., Rodway, P., Beattie, C., & Lambert, J. (2012). An observational study of undergraduate students' adoption of (mobile) note-taking software. *Computers In Human Behavior*, 28(2), 308-317.

Investigating University Students' Recognition of Illness as Metaphor in "Hard Times" and "The Scarlet Letter"

Assist Prof. Amra Ibrahim Sulttan (Ph.D) & Afrah Adil Mahmood

Tikrit University/ College of Education/ English Department

e-mail: dr_amra @Yahoo.com.

ABSTRACT

Metaphor is one of the informative components and represented as understanding the abstract thing by the concrete thing .So, it is found in our everyday life and it is the most important feature of language that reflects cognitive vision and cultural contexts. Therefore, the domain of illness as metaphor is the subject of this study that even the scholars have interested in different institutions ranging from anthropology, psychology, philosophy and linguistics. Metaphor plays an important role in developing our understanding of our emotions , specifically, the emotions of pain and diseases .Illness presents as unhealthy experience and it is completely personal that other people do not feel mans' pain and suffering. Therefore, illness like any other phenomenon can be modeled metaphor as the subject of scientific investigation. Third stage students at Tikrit University College of Education study the novels concentrating on theme and general meaning or plot, but they do not know the domains of metaphors.

The main aim of this study is to investigate English as a foreign language students' recognition of illness as a metaphor in two selected novels "Hard Times" and "The Scarlet Letter". The hypotheses of this study 1- the students of English as a foreign language are able to recognize illness as metaphor 2- they are unable to recognize illness as metaphor from other types of metaphor. The sample of this study is limited to the students of third stage in English department/ College of Education at Tikrit University during the academic year 2013-2014.

An Achievement test has been constructed and its validity and its reliability has been ascertained .The statistical analysis by using “t-test” formula for dependent samples has been applied. It has been concluded that:

1. Third year EFL students in the English Department / College of Education at Tikrit University are able to some extent to recognize illness as metaphor in two selected novels" Hard Times" and "The Scarlet Letter" „but they are not very outstanding. So the first hypothesis has been accepted
2. Third year EFL students in the English Department / College of Education at Tikrit university do not recognize the types of metaphor and their level is below the average . This indicates that the second hypothesis has been accepted .

Key words: Illness, Metaphor, Recognition, Teaching Literature

1. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor is one of the language devices that is used to increase the persuasive power of language whether in genre or everyday life. So, metaphor plays a very important role in a wide range of human activities and types of communication. It refers to the use of language and images, and it is used as attention- grabbing devices especially when they are novel and salient images (Semino 2008, pp. 168 – 169).

Metaphor is one of the figures of speech, which can be understood as basic conceptual process of understanding one idea by using a word, or a phrase that is familiar performed for another reference entirely. Metaphor is, for most people, a device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish – a matter of extraordinary rather than ordinary language. Moreover; it is typically viewed as characteristic of language alone, a matter of words rather than a thought or an action (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, p.3).But metaphor is relevant to the linguistic and the construction of illness, so illness like any other phenomenon , can be modeled metaphorically as the subject of scientific investigation

Metaphor has powerful influence on the practice of medicine and the experience of illness. Illness is an individual and personal state which is associated with physical discomfort, pain , fear ,isolation ,shame and with feeling of anxiety. However, sufferers and experts need to interact in the process of treatment and metaphor may be used more or less successfully within these interactions .Broadly , metaphor often plays an important role in the presentation of illness in high – profile diseases such as cancer . The

presentation of illness in media may affect the individual experience of sufferers. Illness belongs to the kind of complex, subjective and poorly delineated experiences that tend to be verbalized and conceptualized, conventionally through metaphor (Semino 2008, pp. 175 -176) .Metaphor enables sufferers to express and share their experiences in order to clarify various aspects of diseases and treatments.

Students of English foreign language (EFL.) study this device in literature, instructors introduce the term of metaphor without practicing this device, they don't tackle it in details to make students recognize the concept behind the expressions used to express metaphor, especially metaphor as illness. Besides, recognize illness as metaphor has not been investigated before. So, there is metaphor is difficult to be recognized because it is a cognitive process .Students' ability to a need for this study to shed light on the concepts behind metaphors, especially illness as metaphor and to find out whether students of EFL at Tikrit University/ College of Education/ English Department are able to recognize illness as metaphor or not. Then to find out whether they are able to recognize illness as metaphor from other types.

The aims of this study are to:

1. Investigate English foreign language students' recognition of illness as metaphor in "Hard Times" and "The Scarlet Letter".
2. To examine students' ability to recognize the domain that people sense pain and diseases from other types of metaphors.

It is hypothesized that:

1. Third year Students of English as foreign language in the English Department / College of Education / Tikrit University are able to recognize illness as metaphor.
2. They are unable to recognize illness as metaphor from other types of metaphor .

This study is limited to:

1. This study focuses on the language of pain by using such metaphors, since it is a difficult to see or feel the pain of others.
2. The sample is limited to the students of third stage in the English Department / Tikrit University during the academic year 2013-2014.

3. Two literary works "Hard Times" written by Charles Dickens, and "The Scarlet Letter" written by Nathaniel Hawthorne.

Definition of the Basic Terms

1. Metaphor: Is the most important and widespread figure of speech that one idea is denoted to another one by using a word or expression (Baldick, 2001:153) .

Operational Definition:

Metaphor is any word or expression used by writers of the novels under study to express pain or distress or discomfort.

2. Illness: It is the state of being ill and it is presented as unhealthy experience which is completely personal (Boyd, 2013:9).

Operational Definition:

Illness: The expressions mentioned in "**Hard Times**" and "**The Scarlet Letter**" that belong to the domain of illness.

3. Recognition: is the identification one meaning of a word by using another expression. Recognition of poetic language is starting by the discoveries of the cognitive linguists. It is based on the conventional and conceptual metaphors by linking, for example, life and death to a journey (Kovecses 2010, p. 51).

2- Theoretical Background

2.1. The Notion of Metaphor

Ortony (1979, p.3) mentions that the word metaphor comes from the 'Greek **metapherein**' .The etymology of this Greek term stems from two parts: '**meta**' means implying '**a change** ' and '**pherein** ' means '**to carry or to bear**'.

Metaphor may create realities for people especially social realities that will lead to reinforce the power of the metaphor for making clear experience (Lakoff, 1992)

Metaphor is the basic phenomenon that occurs in the whole range of language activity. It is pervasive in language and there are some principles that refer to its importance. Metaphor is a basic process in the formation of words and word meanings ,concepts and meanings are expressed in words through metaphor .Metaphor is very important because of its function , it is used basically for describing ,explaining ,clarifying ,expressing ,evaluating and entertaining in our speech or writing . We choose metaphors in order to communicate with others about what we think or how we feel, about something to explain the particular thing, to convey a meaning in an interesting or creative way, or to do all these. (Wright 2002, p. 9).

2.2 The Types of Metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 14) mention that metaphor is a powerful instrument and by using metaphors we can organize, express our experience and create the important realities in life. So, they focus on five types of metaphor, they are:

A-Structural metaphor

The structural metaphor (Stru.M.) is defined as one concept that is metaphorically structured in terms of another .We can understand some concepts in terms of different metaphors such as "time is money" .In this type of metaphor, the source domain provides a rich structure of knowledge for the target concept .i.e. the cognitive function of these metaphors is to help the speaker to understand target 'A' by means of the structure of source

'B' . For example, the concept of time is structured according to "Motion" and "space"(Kovecses 2010, pp. 37-38).

B. Orientation Metaphor

Orientation Metaphor (Ori. M.) refers to the whole system of the concept organized with respect to one another. The spatial orientations like up - down , front – back , on – off, so, the status is correlated with social power, and physical power is '**up**' , concept Metaphors such as HIGH STATUS IS '**Up**' ; LOW STATUS IS '**DOWN**'. Metaphorical orientation is not arbitrary, so it has a basis in our physical and cultural experience .The spatial orientations provide an extra ordinary, rich basis for understanding concepts. Ori. M. is based on the spatial orientation that can vary from culture to culture (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, p. 16).

C. Ontological Metaphor

Ontological Metaphor (Onto. M.) is an important and pervasive type of metaphor which requires the personal experience with the physical objects. So, using our experience in life and the knowledge of human beings will help us to understand and employ such metaphors. These metaphors reflect ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas or entities and substances. The contemporary metaphor theory (C.M.T) mentions that personification as onto. M. regarding non-human entities (such as life and death) is talking in terms of human actions and activities. Personification can simplify the writer's and reader's tasks by considering the attribution of individuals' actions. Its main task and function in maintaining the national identity (ibid pp. 101- 102).

D. Container Metaphor

Container Metaphor (Cont. M.) is a basic image schema which has three elements: an interior , an exterior and boundary surface .It is used to conceptualize a wide variety of entities such as our bodies .It focuses on the creation of a contrast between two terms: inside and outside. Conventionally, groups, institutions and nation states are constructed as containers. Those groups, institutions and nation states correspond for being '**inside**' (Semino 2008, p. 95).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 67) mention that this type of metaphor suggests that each one of us is regarded as a container, with a bounding surface and an '**in**' – '**out**' Orientation. '**Rooms**' and '**houses**' are obvious '**containers**' and moving from one room to another, one is moving from one container to another.

Lakoff and Turner (1989, pp. 39 - 40) argue that human beings are containers with boundaries and an orientation of 'inside' and '**outside**'. This orientation is used for other physical objects, non- physical objects, like the events, actions, activities and states can be understood by transforming them into physical objects with limited boundaries.

E. Imaginative Metaphor

Imaginative metaphor (Img. M.) structures the ordinary conceptual system of our culture, which is reflected in our everyday language. This type of metaphors has the ability to provide us with a new understanding of our experience. By this way, the Img. M. can help us by giving a new meaning to our daily activity and to our past (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, p. 46).

The imaginative metaphors are related to the best known form of FL. which mentions two terms: literal meanings and non - literal meanings. Literal meanings refer to a concrete entity or something with physical existence in our world, while non - literal meanings define as abstract or

have the abstract qualities. The literal meaning is represented as the basic and physical meaning and the meaning often occur to us even out of the content. The literal meaning is so typical and metaphor is a historical process. Non - literal meaning involves identification or some kind of comparison. In the comparison, a metaphor is implicit .For instance, if we say "someone is a fox", we are comparing him to a fox and mean that someone has some qualities that are associated with foxes (Knowles and Moon 2006, p. 5)

2.3. Illness as Metaphor

Metaphors play an important role in a wide range of human activities and types of communication. The use of metaphor has been studied in relation to discourse (Semino, 2008: 168).

Discourse refers not to language or social interaction but to relatively well bounded areas of social knowledge. Metaphor plays a crucial role in scientific discourse and creative resource with a communicative and pedagogical purposes (Boyd 1993, p. 481).

The discourse of health embodies all aspects of life, from birth to death. Many individuals within our culture have embodied the ideals of health, fitness and activity. The metaphors that describe our body systems are embodied through the mental image of organs of and blood. Fear is associated with dreaded diseases (Barky 1998, p. 26).

In the scientific language of medicine, metaphor is used to explain the internal disease are often seen within the biological body but understood with metaphors (Brike 2000, p. 42).

Metaphors of illness follow a trend much like body systems metaphors. Illness metaphors are loaded with militaristic terms such as 'invaded' attacked or 'triggered', where the body is viewed to be under infection. The body is at war, the immune system is responsible for the communication that is taking place thorough the battle. These images are powerful and become embodied within culture in a way that individuals have come to know and describe their own bodies (Martin 1990, p. 415).

Metaphors in science are as they are in everyday language. The human beings who draw from various domains of experience in order to make sense of new domains of experience. The cognitive perspective metaphor provides us with such a powerful tool for understanding how scientists work out and communicate abstract ideas (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, pp. 54-55).

The function of metaphor in scientific discourse is to facilitate the understanding of abstract domains such as time, star action, purposes and means by using more familiar domains of experience, such as motion, entities and locations (Lakoff-Turner 1989, p. 86).

Metaphor helps to clarify the nature of scientific creativity and enable us to relate thinking and communicate in science to other domains such as Battle on to a target cognitive domain such as Disease (Brown 2003, p. 12).

The notion of illness and disability are linked to biological determinism of health. Biological determinism is central in the discussion of women's health that women's' bodies are viewed as weaker and more susceptible to disease and illness (Brike 2000, p. 43).

In discourse of medicine, we locate the history of fatigue that is related to disease. In that way, we can trace the metaphorical discourse of fatigue to expose attitude and knowledge of disease of the body and the powers structures of the body (Brike 1999, p. 43).

Metaphor is relevant to the linguistic and construction of illness, so illness like any other phenomenon, can be modeled metaphorically as the subject of scientific investigation. It can be understood and approached in science and medicine. Illness is an individual state that is connected with physical discomfort or pain, and with fear, isolation, shame and anxiety. Susan Sontag focuses, in ***Illness as Metaphor***, on the role of metaphor in discourses surrounding illness. She has emphasized on the prominence of WAR metaphors in the construction of disease generally and in cancer, particularly. Sontag mentions how disease is like an enemy or a killer while patients are victims. Within metaphor, cancer drugs are conventionally described as the bombardment of the patients' body (Semino 2008, pp. 175-176).

Many people appreciate the importance of language in the illness experience. She presents the shame feeling of the sufferers because of their illness (Clow 2001, p. 312).

Sontag's idea that metaphor can render disease socially and physically and her conclusion that sufferers have shame and silence because of their diseases. In addition, she has framed our understanding of the relationship between metaphor and illness experiences in modern western society (Benedict 1991, p. 21).

So, metaphor is a product of the lived experience of disease as it is a transforming influence on that experience (Benedict 1991, p. 22)

Semino (2008, pp. 176-178) focuses on Sontag's argument that one of the dominant metaphors that contribute to express illness and to increase in patients' feelings of fear, shame, isolation and pain. Metaphor can be described as a useful resource and as a potential danger in the linguistic construction of illness. Metaphor enables sufferers to express and share their experiences in order to clarify various aspects of diseases and treatments.

The effective use of metaphor is presented on the part of professionals' interacting with sufferers. Metaphors have a powerful influence on the practice of medicine and the experience of illness to examine the main metaphorical source domains that are conventionally applied to what is called WAR and JOURNEYS. So, it is easy and natural to view that within the JOURNEY source domain, the patient is a traveler, the doctor a guide and different directions may be chosen. The use of metaphor is more effective when it comes for helping patients to understand the complexity of illness (Broyndm 1992, p. 44).

2.4. The Analysis of Metaphor in "Hard Times" Novel

The metaphor of illness is well established by **Susan Sontag** in 1978 in her book *"Illness as Metaphor"*.

Charles Dickens has presented a novel entitled, **"Hard Times"**, Dickens makes a portray on the imaginary industrial town of coketown, with its blackened factories .The metaphor of illness is presented clearly in Dickens's **"Hard Times"**. For instance, the people, who live in this polluted environment, are suffering from the smoke of the factories which causes people illness (Dickens 1995, p. X).

Table 1 represents Dickens's expressions that are used in **"Hard Times "** novel and these expressions refer to illness.

Table 1. The Analysis of Metaphor in the novel of "Hard Times".

The Expression	Part	Number of Chapters	Domain	Frequency
Blushing	1& 2	2(in 1 st part)&6 (in 2 nd part)	Shame	5
Burning Red	1& 2	4(in 1 st part))&11(in 2 nd part)	Shame	2
Deaf	1& 2	2,11,13(in 1 st part))& 1,5(in 2 nd part)	Disease	5
Frightened	1& 2	2 (in 1 st part) &4(in 2 nd part)	Fear	5
Gloomy	1& 2	3,12,13 (in 1st part) &11(in 2nd part)	Sadness	7
Darkness	1, 2&3	3,5,6,12 (in 1st part) ,1,5(in 2nd part) &5,6, 7, 9, 11 (in 3rd part)	Sadness	25
Pain	2&3	3,5,6,7,9,12 (in 2nd part) & 1,2,3,6 (in 3rd part)	Pain	18
Blind	1	3 (in 1st part)	Disease	2
Inflammation of lungs	1&3	4(in 1st part) &3(in 3rd part)	Disease	2
Miserable	1	4(in 1st part)	Sadness	2

2.3. The Analysis of Metaphor in "The Scarlet Letter "Novel

"The Scarlet Letter" novel consists of introductory and Twenty-Four chapters. Hawthorne (1990, p. 3-257) mentions the following expressions as metaphors of illness. See Table 2.

Table 2. The Analysis of Metaphor, Domain and Frequency in "The Scarlet Letter " Novel

The Expression	Number of Chapters	Domain	Frequency
Faint	In introduction and in chap.6,8,23	Weakness	4
Melancholy	In introduction and in chap.3,6,8,9,19,20&22	Sadness	11
Pale	In introduction and in chap.2,3,5,6,8,9,12, 15,19,20&23	Discomfort & Disease	19
Fear	In introduction and in chap.5,6,8,12, ,13,15,17,18,21,22&23	Fear	16
Shame	In introduction and in chap.2,3,4,5,6,8,9, 12,13,17,18,19&22	Shame	37
Terror	In introduction and in chap.2,3,4,5,12, 13&20	Fear	12
Pain	In introduction and in chap.2,4,5,9,12, 17,19,20,21,22&23	Weakness & Disease	25
Sin	In chap.2,7&23	Pain	3
Frighten	In introduction and in chap.3,13&20	Fear	4
Dark	In introduction and in chap.2,3,4,5,6,8,9 ,12,13, 15,17,18,19,20,22&23	Sadness	31

It appears from the above tables that all the domains of the expressions used in these two novels express illness as metaphor.

3- The Procedures

The practical side of this study includes choosing the sample of this study .Sample is the process of selecting a group of individuals who represent the larger group that are selected for the study (Ary,et.al,1972 :125) .The sample of this study is 50 students in the third stage of the English Department / College of Education / Tikrit University .

An achievement test has been constructed to find out students' recognition of metaphor as illness . The first step of constructing the achievement test is through the analysis of behavioral objectives . See the table below .

Table 3. Specification of Behavioral Objectives of the Test

Question	Contents	Behaviors	Scores
1	metaphor of illness (in the novel of Hard Times)	To identify the metaphor of illness, specifically in the novel of Hard Times.	40
2	metaphor of illness (in the novel of The Scarlet Letter)	To recognize illness as metaphor, specifically in the novel of The Scarlet Letter.	40
3	different types of metaphor	To recognize the types of metaphor.	20
Total			100

scores are allotted to each correct item , while incorrect item takes zero . The reliability and validity of the test have been ascertained . The test- retest method is used . It is found 0.80. the difficulty level of the items and discrimination power have also been found . The final version of the test has been applied and scores have been treated statistically .

4. Analysis of Data

4.1. Students' Recognition of Illness as metaphor in "Hard Times "

The first question measures the students' ability to recognize illness as metaphor in "Hard Times". For the first question, the mean score is **19.4667** and the standard deviation is **8.9586**. T-test formula for one sample has been applied ; the computed t-value is **0.326**, whereas the tabulated one is **2.00** at **0.05** level of significance. This indicates that there is no significant difference between the theoretical mean which is **20** and the calculated mean which is 19.466. This means that their recognition is slightly below the average as shown in Table (4) .

Table 4. The Mean, The Standard Deviation, The Theoretical Mean 'T' Values of Student’s Recognition of Illness as Metaphor and the Types of Metaphor

	Questio n	Mean Scores	Standar d Deviation	Theoretic al Mean Compute d	T Valu e Tabulat ed	Degree of Freedo m	Level of Significa nce
1	19.4667	8.9586	20	0.326	2.00	49	0.05
2	20.800	8.5597	20	0.512	2.00	49	0.05
3	5.8667	4.7831	10	4.733	2.00	49	0.05

1

4.2. Students' Recognition of Illness as metaphor in "The Scarlet Letter" Novel

For the second question, the mean score is **20.800** and the standard deviation is **8.5597**. T-test formula for one sample has been applied, the computed t-value is **0.512**, whereas the tabulated one is **2.00** at **0.05** level of significance. The theoretical mean is **20** and degree of freedom is **49**, as shown in Table 4.

The computed t-value is less than the tabulated one, it means that there is no significant difference between students' recognition of illness as metaphor. Their mean score is 20.800 and theoretical mean is 2.000. this means that they can recognize metaphor as illness in "The Scarlet Letter", but it is not outstanding or promising.

4.3. Students' Recognition of the Types of Metaphor

The third question measures the students' ability to recognize the types of metaphor. The students' mean score is **5.8667** and the standard deviation is **4.78311**. The computed t-value is **4.733**, whereas the tabulated one is **2.00** at **0.05** level of significance. The theoretical mean is **10** and degree of freedom is **49**, as shown in Table (4) .The computed t-value is more than the tabulated one, it means that there is significant difference in students' recognition of types of metaphor. These results show that the students face difficulties in recognizing these types of metaphor .The students' recognition of the types of metaphor is low. this indicates that students cannot recognize illness as metaphor than the types of metaphor ,so the second hypothesis of this study is accepted.

4.3. Discussion of the Results

The measurement of students' level in the Third year/English Department / College of Education/Tikrit University in recognizing illness as metaphor in two selected novels "**Hard Times** " and "**The Scarlet Letter**" is the main reason for designing the test in this study. T- test formula for dependent sample is used to find out the range of students' level which refers that the level of Tikrit students is below average but statistically there is no significant differences because the calculated't' value level is (1.726) which is less than the tabulated value that is (2.00).This means that there is no significant difference in students' recognition of metaphor in the novels under study because they have an idea about metaphor , but this refers to a matter that their level is not good and it is not promising . But since the computed 't' value is 4.733 whereas the tabulated 't' value is 2.000 , their recognition of the types and domain of metaphor is not good and below average

So, the statistical analysis of the results has shown that third year students at Tikrit university are unable to recognize the domain of illness as metaphor. Though they have studied metaphor in literature, but they study it in general. They do not know metaphors types. Students also do not know that metaphors are related to scientific or medical texts. This is due to the fact that instructors teach novels in theme and general meaning. Besides no literary analysis of language devices is applied by instructors or students. Moreover, metaphor is difficult to be recognized and it needs cognitive processes .

5.1.Conclusions

1. Third year students in the English Department/ College of Education at Tikrit University are able to recognize illness as metaphor in "Hard Times" novel. but recognizing illness as metaphor is not promising .

2. Third year students in English Department / College of Education/ Tikrit University cannot recognize metaphor as illness in "The scarlet Letter" novel, this is due to the fact the expressions are highly correlated to illness that are familiar to student through studying the English language .

3. EFL students in the third /English department / College of Education at Tikrit University cannot identify types of metaphor since the calculated 't' value is 4.733 which is more than the tabulated one scoring 2.00. Besides, their calculated mean is 5.866, which is less than the theoretical mean, which is 10. This is due to the fact that instructors of novel do not analyze the domain of metaphor in classrooms.

4. According to the students' responses, they are not very successful in recognizing illness as metaphor though they studied metaphor in its literary sense.

5.2. Recommendations

1-In early stages, the students should acquire certain knowledge to enrich their competencies to be able to recognize metaphor, in general, and illness in specific.

2-Syllabus designers should pay attention to increase texts, which deals with metaphors and their types that help the students to recognize metaphor correctly.

3-Teachers should pay attention to present the expressions that contain metaphors, by paying attention to everyday life metaphors on TV programs, advertisements and commercial announcement etc. by this way the students will have more information and practical exercises.

4-Students' attention should be directed to the scientific and medical texts which contain illness as metaphor.

References

- Abrams, M. (1957). *A Glossary of Literary Terms*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Ary, D., Lucy, C. and Razavieh. (1979). *Introduction to Research in Education*. USA: Pinehart & Winston.
- Baldick, C. (2001). *Oxford Concise Dictionary of Literary Terms*. New York: O. U. P.
- Barky, S. (1989). "Foucault, Feminism and Modernization of Patriarchal Power". In Rose Weitz (Ed.) *Politics of Women's Bodies : Sexuality , Appearance and Behavior*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Benedict, H. (1991). *"Passionate Mind: Susan Sontag", A Collection of Profiles and the Stories Behind Them*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Boyd, K. (2013). *"Disease, Illness, Sickness, Health, Healing and Wholeness": Exploring Some Elusive Concepts*. Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh.P.9

- Brike, L. (1999). Bodies and Biology. In Janet Price and Margrit Shildrick (Eds.), *Feminist Theory and the body*. Vol :1 , P:45.
- _____ (2000). *Feminism and Biological Body*. New Brunswick: Rotgers University Press.
- Brown, T. (2003). *Making Truth: Metaphor in Science*. Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Broyard, a .(1992). *Intoxicated by My Illness and Other Writings on Life and Death*. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Clow, B. (2001). *The Social History of Medicine*. New York: Yale University.
- Dickens, C. (1995). *Hard Times*: Great Britain: Words worth Edition LTD.
- Hawthorne, N. (1990). *The Scarlet Letter*: Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Heyslett, H. (1979). *Statistics* . London: W. Hallen.
- Knowles, (2006). *Introducing Metaphor* .New York: Routledge.
- Kovecses, Z. (2010). *Metaphor: A Practical Introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University.
- Lakoff, G & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors We Live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G. & Turner, M. (1989). *'More Than Cool Reason': A Field Guide to Poetic Metaphor*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1992). *Metaphor and Thought*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Mehren, W. & Lehman, I. (1973). *Measurement and Evaluation in Education and Psychology*. New York: Holt and Winston, Inc.
- Newmark, P. (1981). *Approaches to Translation*. Oxford: Pergamon Press
- Ortony, A. (1979). *Metaphor and Thought*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Patterson, J. (1994). *The Dread Disease: Cancer and Modern American Culture*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Semino, E. (2008). *Metaphor in Discourse* .UK: Cambridge.
- Sontag, S. (1978). *Illness as Metaphor* .New York: McGraw Hill Ryerson Ltd.
- Wright, J. (2002). *Idioms Organizer: Organized by Metaphor, Topic and Key Word*. United States of America: Thomson Corporation

Appendix(A)

The Test

Q1/Recognize illness as metaphor (in the novel of "**Hard Times**") and mention whether it refers to the isolation, pain, fear, shame, feeling of the physical discomfort, sadness or feeling of anxiety?

1. Cold? I was born with inflammation of the lungs, and of everything else, I believe, that was capable of inflammation, returned Mr. Bounderby.
2. Sissy blushed, and stood up.

3. I am very much vexed by this discovery.
4. Then he beat the dog, and I was frightened and said "father, father! Pray don't hurt the creature who is so fond of you !"
5. You have poured balm into my anxious soul.
6. So, he had been quite alone during the four days, and he had spoken to no one, when, as he was leaving his work at night
7. "As you lie here alone, my dear, in the melancholy night, so you must lie somewhere one night
8. I was so sickly, that I was always moaning and groaning.
9. Mrs. Sparsit had no resource, but to burst into tears of bitterness and say, I have lost here!
10. He smoked with great gravity and dignity for a little

Q2/ Recognize illness as metaphor (in the novel of "**The Scarlet letter**") and mention whether it refers to the isolation, pain, fear, shame, feeling of the physical discomfort , sadness or feeling of anxiety?

1. This woman has brought shame upon us all, and ought to die.
2. The reason is not far to seek. It was my folly, and thy weakness.
3. Truly, as I sought to convince him, the shame in the commission of the sin and not in the showing of it forth.
4. "Thy acts are like mercy ", said Hester be wildered and appalled. "But thy words interpret thee as a terror!"
5. He expressed great alarm at his pastors state of health, but was anxious to attempt the cure
6. She could no longer borrow from the future, to help her through the present grief.
7. Lonely as was Hester's situation, and without a friend on earth who dared to show himself, she, however, incurred no risk of want.

8. She was terror – stricken by the revelation that was thus made.
9. He looked now more care worn ... and whether it were his failing health , or whatever the cause might be , his large dark eyes had a world of pain in their troubled and melancholy depth .
10. He was often observed, on any slight alarm or other sudden accident, to put his hand over his heart , with first a flush and then a paleness , indicative of pain .

Q3/Match the given sentences with the following types of metaphor?

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| A- Orientational metaphor | B- Ontological metaphor |
| C- Container metaphor | D- Structural metaphor |
| E- Imaginative metaphor | |

1. All day, Rachael toiled as such people must toil, whatever their anxieties.
2. The smoke –serpents were indifferent who was lost or found ,who turned out bad or good ,the melancholy mad elephants ,like the hard fact men , abated nothing of their set routine , whatever happened .
3. She had suffered the wreck of her whole life upon the rock.
4. Are you in pain, dear mother? ' I think there is a pain somewhere in the room ' , said Mrs. Gradgrind .
5. It was another red brick house, with black outside shutters ... a black street – door up two white steps

The Effective Use of Strategies in Purposeful Reading

Arkan Abdulqader Elias

Cihan University, Erbil

erkanbayatli@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study is to find out whether EFL learners use reading strategies or not when they interact with reading English texts in academic contexts. The study tackles the types of reading strategies used and how often readers use such strategies. The research also examines types of strategies available and tries to check if some of them are useless to readers. However, the main core of this paper is to carry out a test in which the significant differences between Turkish and Iraqi students in the use of reading strategies are explored. The study is conducted with a total of 40 EFL learners at Hacettepe University in Turkey, and Cihan University in Kurdistan Region-Iraq. The study centers around a tested questionnaire that consists of 20 items used as a data collection instrument.

Keywords: EFL Learners, Effective and Purposeful Reading, Reading Process, Reading Strategies, Turkish and Iraqi Students.

1. INTRODUCTION

Many strategies can be used in the development of English reading proficiency. Some of these strategies involve: understanding of reading purposes, activating relevant background knowledge, allocating attention to main ideas, critical evaluation, monitoring comprehension, and drawing inferences. Reading is not only a willing to consider new ideas or a process of picking up information from the page in a word-by-word way. Rather,

reading is an active and selective process of comprehension (Grabe, 1991). For that reason, it is essential for EFL readers to make use of reading strategies to read English texts more efficiently. According to (Grabe, 1991), effective or efficient reading is rapid, purposeful, comprehending, flexible and gradually developing.

This study tries to give a number of reading strategies in order to help learners of English as a foreign language to read less and get a lot out of it. No one can deny that students are required to read a large volume of academic texts in English and most of them show inability to read efficiently.

2. READING AND THE READING PROCESS

Reading comprehension is a vital component of the academic areas for professional success and life long learning. Importance of reading skills in academic contexts has led to the undertaking of considerable research in reading in a second language (El-Okda, 2005; Grabe, 1991; Jager, 2002; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Yigiter et. al., 2005). The ability to read academic texts is regarded as one of the most important skills that foreign language students need to achieve (Levine et. al., 2000).

Reading is the receptive process of written communication (Goodman, 1995). It is described as a complex process of making meaning from a text, for variety of purposes and in a spacious range of contexts (Allen and Bruton, 1998). Reading is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning which the reader constructs (Goodman, 1995, p. 127). Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with a text and other strategies to help them understand a written text (Pang et. al., 2003).

Additionally, in the reading process, readers use their background knowledge about the text's topic and structure along with their linguistic knowledge and reading strategies to achieve their purpose of reading (Peregoy and Boyle, 2001). During the reading process, the brain seeks to maximize the information it acquires and minimize effort and energy used to acquire it (Goodman, 1995).

Studies in both L1 and L2 reading generally indicate a binary categorization of "top-down" strategies and "bottom-up" ones. Top-down strategies involve identifying main ideas, seeing how the new information fits with the overall text, using background knowledge, making predictions, or skimming (Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989, as cited in Salataci and Akyel,

2002). Bottom-up strategies include focusing on identifying the sentence structure, and details of the text (Salataci and Akyel, 2002).

3. READING STRATEGIES

Reading strategies may be defined as actions or series of actions employed in order to construct meanings (Garner, 1987). Barnett (cited in Tercanlioğlu, 2004) has used the term reading strategies to refer to the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to make sense of what they read.

Strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement that is necessary for developing communicative ability. They are not a single event, but rather a creative series of events that learners actively use (Oxford, 1996). This definition highlights the active role that readers take in strategic reading. To achieve the desired results, students need to learn how to use a range of reading strategies that match their purposes of reading. According to Anderson (1991) strategic reading is not only familiarity with what strategy to use, but also knowing how to use and integrate a range of strategies.

In accordance with Oxford and Crookall (1989), strategies can be operationalized as learning techniques, behaviors, and problem-solving or study skills that enhance learning more effectively and efficiently. In the light of second language learning, it is important to look at the actions that are employed by strategies that enhance learning and strategies that improve comprehension. As said by Brantmeier (2002) strategies that enhance learning may involve skimming, scanning, guessing, recognizing cognates and word families, reading for meaning, predicting, activating general knowledge, making inferences, following references, and separating main ideas from supporting ideas; whereas strategies that improve comprehension can consist of evaluating content, such as agreeing or disagreeing, making an association with prior knowledge or experience, asking and answering questions, looking at the key words, using sentence structure analysis such as determining the subject, verb or object of the sentence, skipping and rereading (Almasi, 2003; Sugirin, 1999). Clearly, not all strategies are of equal effectiveness due to the different types of reading texts and tasks, and reading strategy use by each reader.

Research in second language reading suggests that learners use a variety of strategies to assist them with the acquisition, storage and retrieval of information (Rigney in Singhal, 2001). When readers encounter comprehension problems they use strategies to overcome their difficulties;

different learners seem to approach reading tasks in different ways, and some of these ways appear to lead to better comprehension (Tercanlioğlu, 2004). Research has shown that learners can be instructed to use appropriate reading strategies to help them improve comprehension and recall (Carrell et. al., 1989).

4. METHOD

This study is conducted to find out the reading strategies used by both Turkish and Iraqi students. A questionnaire is administered to the first year students of English at English language departments at two universities: Hacettepe (Turkey) and Cihan (Iraq). On the basis of considerations of the related areas mentioned above, the present study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) What kinds of reading strategies Turkish and Iraqi students use in reading?
- 2) How often do they use these strategies in reading?
- 3) What are the strategies that they do not benefit from and need to focus on?
- 4) Is there any significance between Turkish and Iraqi students at the use of reading strategies?

4.1 THE PARTICIPANTS

The participants of this study are (40) first year students of English at Hacettepe and Cihan Universities. There are (20) Iraqi students: (12) males and (8) females. The Turkish students are (20) too: (9) males and (11) females. The students' ages are (19) to (25). They all have 4-8 years of experience in English reading.

4.2 THE INSTRUMENT

One instrument is used for this study to measure what reading strategies students use during their English reading. It is a questionnaire adopted from the study carried out at <http://www.nclrc.org>. It is composed of (20) items to assess what students actually do when performing certain kinds of tasks in reading English and how often they use reading strategies during their

reading. The items reflect awareness of reading goals, plans and strategies, comprehension and meaning, and evaluating and regulating reading. Besides to the (20) items, a section is provided and entitled “Other Approaches” where the students are demanded to mention if they have other approaches rather than the (20) items. The respondents are asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) (“*Never*”) to (5) (“*Always*”).

4.3 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The responses to the questionnaire are scored and encoded in a spreadsheet for analysis. To determine the participants' proficiency in reading English or what reading strategies they use and how often they use them during their reading, SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) program is employed to analyze the data. Descriptive analysis is performed to compute the mean, standard deviation and standard error mean for each item.

Table 1: Basic Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Item 1	Iraqi	20	3,1000	1,29371	0,28928
	Turkish	20	4,0000	0,85840	0,19194
Item 2	Iraqi	20	3,1000	1,16529	0,26057
	Turkish	20	4,0000	0,85840	0,19194
Item 3	Iraqi	20	3,3000	1,17429	0,26258
	Turkish	20	4,1500	0,93330	0,20869
Item 4	Iraqi	20	2,0000	1,12390	0,25131
	Turkish	20	3,0500	1,09904	0,24575
Item 5	Iraqi	20	3,3500	1,03999	0,23255
	Turkish	20	3,7500	0,91047	0,20359
Item 6	Iraqi	20	3,3500	0,93330	0,20869
	Turkish	20	3,9000	0,85224	0,19057
Item 7	Iraqi	20	3,3000	1,12858	0,25236
	Turkish	20	4,2000	0,89443	0,20000
Item 8	Iraqi	20	2,1500	1,18210	0,26433
	Turkish	20	3,0000	1,29777	0,29019
Item 9	Iraqi	20	2,4500	1,09904	0,24575
	Turkish	20	3,2000	0,89443	0,20000

Item 10	Iraqi	20	1,9000	0,96791	0,21643
	Turkis	20	2,7500	1,16416	0,26031
Item 11	h				
	Iraqi	20	3,2500	1,06992	0,23924
Item 12	Turkis	20	3,8500	0,81273	0,18173
	h				
Item 13	Iraqi	20	3,8000	0,76777	0,17168
	Turkis	20	4,2500	0,78640	0,17584
Item 14	h				
	Iraqi	20	1,9500	0,99868	0,22331
Item 15	Turkis	20	2,9000	0,78807	0,17622
	h				
Item 16	Iraqi	20	3,8000	0,76777	0,17168
	Turkis	20	4,0500	0,82558	0,18460
Item 17	h				
	Iraqi	20	1,8500	0,98809	0,22094
Item 18	Turkis	20	2,6500	1,22582	0,27410
	h				
Item 19	Iraqi	20	3,7500	0,85070	0,19022
	Turkis	20	4,1500	0,93330	0,20869
Item 20	h				
	Iraqi	20	3,8500	0,74516	0,16662
Item 21	Turkis	20	4,3500	0,87509	0,19568
	h				
Item 22	Iraqi	20	3,8000	0,76777	0,17168
	Turkis	20	4,2000	0,89443	0,20000
Item 23	h				
	Iraqi	20	2,9500	1,19097	0,26631
Item 24	Turkis	20	3,8500	1,03999	0,23255
	h				
Item 25	Iraqi	20	3,0500	1,23438	0,27601
	Turkis	20	4,0000	1,12390	0,25131
Item 26	h				
	Iraqi	20	3,0025	0,83279	0,21622
Item 27	Turki	20	3,7125	0,75827	0,16955
	sh				

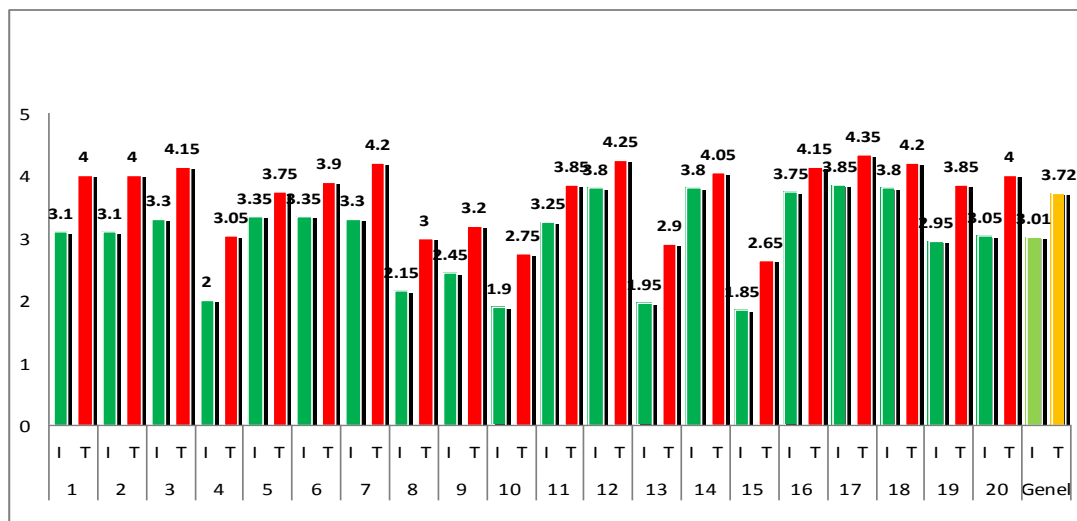


Figure 1: The Reading Strategies Average of Iraqi and Turkish Students

To see if there is any significance between Turkish and Iraqi students at the use of reading strategies, the t-test is used.

Table 2: T-Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t _{test}	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Item 1	Equal variances assumed	2,799	0,103	-2,592	38	0,013	-0,90000
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,592	33,013	0,014	-0,90000
Item 2	Equal variances assumed	1,583	0,216	-2,781	38	0,008	-0,90000
	Equal variances not assumed						

	Equal variances not assumed			-2,781	34,930	0,009	-0,90000	0,3 236 3
Item 3	Equal variances assumed	1,900	0,176	-2,534	38	0,016	-0,85000	0,3 354 1
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,534	36,158	0,016	-0,85000	0,3 354 1
Item 4	Equal variances assumed	0,613	0,439	-2,987	38	0,005	-1,05000	0,3 515 0
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,987	37,981	0,005	-1,05000	0,3 515 0
Item 5	Equal variances assumed	0,003	0,955	-1,294	38	0,203	-0,40000	0,3 090 7
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,294	37,347	0,204	-0,40000	0,3 090 7
Item 6	Equal variances assumed	0,206	0,652	-1,946	38	0,059	-0,55000	0,2 826 1
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,946	37,691	0,059	-0,55000	0,2 826 1
Item 7	Equal variances assumed	0,959	0,334	-2,795	38	0,008	-0,90000	0,3 220 0
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,795	36,116	0,008	-0,90000	0,3 220 0
Item 8	Equal variances assumed	0,008	0,930	-2,165	38	0,037	-0,85000	0,3 925 3
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,165	37,674	0,037	-0,85000	0,3 925 3
Item 9	Equal variances assumed	2,806	0,102	-2,367	38	0,023	-0,75000	0,3 168 5
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,367	36,494	0,023	-0,75000	0,3 168 5
Item 10	Equal variances assumed	0,216	0,645	-2,511	38	0,016	-0,85000	0,3 385 3

	Equal variances not assumed			-2,511	36,775	0,017	-0,85000	0,33853
Item 11	Equal variances assumed	2,311	,137	-1,997	38	0,053	-,060000	0,30044
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,997	35,450	0,054	-0,60000	0,30044
Item 12	Equal variances assumed	0,082	0,776	-1,831	38	0,075	-0,45000	0,24575
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,831	37,978	0,075	-0,45000	0,24575
Item 13	Equal variances assumed	2,348	,134	-3,340	38	0,002	-0,95000	0,28447
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,340	36,051	0,002	-0,95000	0,28447
Item 14	Equal variances assumed	0,033	0,856	-0,992	38	0,328	-0,25000	0,25210
	Equal variances not assumed			-0,992	37,802	0,328	-0,25000	0,25210
Item 15	Equal variances assumed	0,927	0,342	-2,272	38	0,029	-0,80000	0,35206
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,272	36,361	0,029	-0,80000	0,35206
Item 16	Equal variances assumed	1,413	0,242	-1,417	38	0,165	-0,40000	0,28238
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,417	37,678	0,165	-0,40000	0,28238
Item 17	Equal variances assumed	2,223	0,144	-1,945	38	0,059	-0,50000	0,25701
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,945	37,059	0,059	-0,50000	0,25701
Item 18	Equal variances assumed	1,799	0,188	-1,518	38	0,137	-0,40000	0,26358

	Equal variances not assumed			-1,518	37,147	0,138	-0,40000	0,2 635 8
Item 19	Equal variances assumed	1,193	0,282	-2,546	38	0,015	-0,90000	0,3 535 5
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,546	37,322	0,015	-0,90000	0,3 535 5
Item 20	Equal variances assumed	0,108	0,745	-2,545	38	0,015	-0,95000	0,3 732 9
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,545	37,671	0,015	-0,95000	0,3 732 9
Genera 1	Equal variances assumed	0,695	0,410	-2,819	38	0,008	-0,71000	0,2 518 4
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,819	37,671	0,008	-0,71000	0,2 518 4

5. RESULTS

The results in general indicate that most of the students in Turkey and Iraq know a number of strategies and how they can apply a lot of them to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate texts. They decide in advance what their reading purpose is. They focus on specific information when they read. They think of what they already know; compare what they read with what they already know, make use of the familiar words to guess the meanings of unknown words, use a dictionary to help solve comprehension problems, and even separate the main ideas and summarize important information.

The results designate that when being confronted with a vocabulary problem, on the one hand, Turkish students use their background knowledge, decide on whether the word is the key to the overall meaning of the passage, reread the sentence and work out the meaning of the word by using syntactic clues. These strategies are categorized as top-down behaviors. However, on the other hand, Iraqi students believe that translation is very useful strategy to understand during the reading process. They focus attention on questioning the meaning of a word or words in a dictionary, textbook or computer program before trying to paraphrase the sentence and making an

inference, which is considered to be bottom-up processing, characteristic of poor or less proficient readers' strategies. The following points show the sequence of the strategies that are used by Turkish and Iraqi students.

The Sequence of Reading Strategies Used by Turkish Students

1. Summarizing important information (Q17)
 2. Making use of the familiar words to guess the meanings of unknown words (Q12)
 3. Separating main ideas (Q16)
 4. Thinking of what they already know about a topic (Q3)
 5. Translating (Q14)
-

Q: Question (in the questionnaire).

The Sequence of Reading Strategies Used by Iraqi Students

1. Translating (Q 14)
 2. Making use of the familiar words to guess the meanings of unknown words (Q12)
 3. Rating their comprehension by reflecting on how much they understand what they read (Q18)
 4. Summarizing important information (Q17)
 5. Separating or discerning main ideas (Q16)
-
-

The results show that Iraqi students tend to focus on reading as a meaning-making process rather than a decoding process. Meanwhile, the Turkish students appear to do the opposite. The t-test explains that there is a big significance between Turkish and Iraqi students in 12 items (that are in bold boxes, see table 2.). Overall, Turkish readers appear to use a wider range of strategies with higher frequency than Iraqi readers do.

The outcomes of the “Other Approaches” section indicate that most of the Turkish students skim a whole text at the beginning and they understand better when reading something twice at a faster reading rate than reading it slowly only one time by translating words, which indicates that their strategies follow top-down processing, considered a characteristic of good readers’ strategies.

The table below shows some other strategies that have been taken from students’ responses in the ‘Other Approaches’ section at the end of the questionnaire. The students’ responses here have been described through responding to what, when and why questions.

Table 3: Other Strategies Used by the Students

What	When	Why
I connect	while reading	to clarify to evaluate
I evaluate	while reading after reading	to judge the authors’ ideas to make own opinion.
I ask questions	while reading before reading	to evaluate to check to have more interests.
I check for answers to questions	while reading	to pay attention to what I am reading.
I translate	while reading	to get exact meaning.

Other students’ writings at the end of the questionnaire indicate that some of the students think that while reading a longer text, stopping and thinking about what has happened in a story so far or what information has been given is very useful. Also, some believe that looking back and thinking about what they have read is very important in reading. The most interesting thing

here is related to this fact that most of the Turkish and Iraqi students check whether they accomplish their goal for reading or not (Q20).

Although both Turkish and Iraqi students appear to use a wide range of reading strategies, yet they think predicting what the text will be about as not so important. They also think that imagining scenes, putting into context what they read, working with their classmates to solve reading comprehension problems, identifying what they do not understand by asking a precise question to solve the problem, deciding whether the strategies used helped them understand and think of other strategies that could have helped as not so important.

So, they should try to, predict before reading what the text will be about to be remembered better, imagine scenes to be more creative, ask a precise question to solve problems and check at the end whether their question has been answered, and they have to see if the strategies that they use help them to comprehend and think of other strategies that could help them instead of the strategies that they use.

However, in the light of the results found, it can be said that most of the students believe that the strategies can help them to process the text actively, to monitor their comprehension, and to connect what they are reading to their own knowledge and to other parts of the texts. The results arrived at reveal that both Turkish and Iraqi students have positive attitudes in using reading strategies in their reading.

6. CONCLUSION

There may be different reasons for failure in learning a second/or foreign language, or more specifically in reading academic texts at a reasonable rate and with good comprehension. The lack of using reading strategies is considered as one of these reasons. Therefore, this study is conducted to shed light on the use of reading strategies by EFL students. The results indicate that students often use most of the strategies and have comprehended that the best way to read in a language is not by the teacher's explanation; a lot of reading can be done without a teacher, and whether they can read in English well or not does not depend on the teacher.

Finally, in any sort of foreign language research, there are inevitable limitations. That means in any research, variables, and conditions cannot be completely taken under control by researchers. This study sets out to examine the use of reading strategies by EFL learners. By examining the learners' responses to the questionnaire, the results reveal that reading strategies are often used by learners to help them in their reading. However, although the students reported use of some strategies, it is difficult to know

whether they actually use these strategies or not. So, further research should incorporate more research methods like think-aloud protocols or interviews to further examine students' actual strategy use in order to obtain persuasive results. It is also hoped to see whether there is any significant difference between the students regarding their gender, age, and English learning experience. As a result, more studies are suggested to examine whether there is any significant difference between the learners regarding the characteristics above.

REFERENCES

- Allan, J. & Bruton, A. (1998). *Squeezing out the juice: Perceptions of reading in the secondary school*. from <http://www.scre.ac.uk/spotlight/spotlight61.html>
- Almasi, J.F. (2003). *Teaching strategic processes in reading*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Anderson, N. (1991). *Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading and testing*. *Modern Language Journal*, 75, 460-472.
- Barnett, M. A. (1988). *Teaching reading in a foreign language*. ERIC Digest, ED305829. Retrieved November 21, 2005, from <http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-9211/reading.htm>
- Brantmeier, C. (2002). *Second language reading strategies research at the secondary and university levels*. *Reading Matrix*, 1-14.
- Carrell, P. L., Pharis, B. G. & Liberto, J. C. (1989). Metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading. *Tesol Quarterly*, 23/4, 647-678.
- Dreyer, C. (1998). *Improving students' reading comprehension by means of strategy instruction*. *Journal of language teaching* 31: 18-29
Reading Research Quarterly, 19, 53-67.

- El-Okda, M. (2005). EFL student teachers' cognition about reading instruction. *The Reading Matrix*, 5/2. Retrieved June 15, 2006 from <http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/okda/article.pdf>
- Garner, R. (1987). *Metacognition and reading comprehension*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Goodman, K.S. (1995). *The reading process*. In P. L. Carrell, J Devine, & D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 11-21). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOLQuarterly*, 25/3, 375-406.
- Jager, B. (2002). *Teaching reading comprehension: The effects of direct Instruction and cognitive apprenticeship on comprehension skills and metacognition*. Retrieved August 4, 2005, from <http://dissertations.ub.rug.nl/faculties/ppsw/2002/b.de.jager/>
- Levine, A., Ferenz, O. & Reves, T. (2000). EFL academic reading and modern technology: How can we turn our students into independent critical readers? *TESL-EJ*, 4, 1-9. Retrieved August 12, 2006, from <http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/ej16/al.html>
- Oxford, R. & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 404-419.
- Pang, S. E., Muaka, A., Bernhardt, B., & Kamil, M. L. (2003). *Teaching reading*. Retrieved August 3, 2005, from <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/Publications/EducationalPracticesSeriesPdf/prac12e.pdf> York: NY: Newbury House.

- Peregoy, S. F. & Boyle, O. F. (2001). *Reading, writing, & learning ESL*. New York: Longman.
- Salataci, R., & Aykel, A. (2002). Possible effects of strategy instruction on L1 and L2 reading, *Reading in a Foreign Language* 14(1), 1-23.
- Sarıçoban, A. (2001). *The Teaching of Language Skills*. Ankara: Hacettepe Taş.
- Sarıçoban, A. (2002). Strategies of Successful Readers through the Three-Phase Approach. *The Reading Matrix*, 2 (3), September Issue.
- Sheorey, R. & Mokhtari, K. (2001). Coping with academic materials: *Differences in the reading strategies of native and non-native readers*. Journal of applied linguistics 29: 431-449
- Singhall, M. (2001). Reading proficiency, reading strategies, metacognitive awareness and L2 readers. *The Reading Matrix*, 1/1. Retrieved February 12, 2006 from <http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/singhal/article.pdf>
- Sugirin, (1999). Studying the academic reading comprehension process: responding to methodological concerns. Retrieved October 2nd, 2005, from: <http://www.herdsa.org.au/branches/vic/Cornerstones/pdf/Sugirin.PDF>
- Tercanlioglu, L. (2004). Postgraduate students' use of reading strategies in L1 and ESL contexts: Link to success. *International Education Journal*, 5/4. Retrieved August 17, 2006, from <http://ehlt.flinders.edu.au/education/iej/articles/v5n4/tercanlioglu/paper.pdf>
- Yigiter K., Saricoban A. & Gurses T. (2005). Reading strategies employed by ELT

learners at the advanced level. *The Reading Matrix*, 5/1. Retrieved March 17, 2006 from <http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/saricoban/article2.pdf>

Wood, E. (1998). *Examining students' retrospective memories of strategy development*. Journal of educational psychology 90: 698-704

APPENDIX

“Reading Strategies Questionnaire”

Directions: As part of a research project on language learning, we would like you to complete this questionnaire about what you actually do when performing certain kinds of reading strategies in English.

The questionnaire describes different kinds of reading strategies you might use in your English class.

Read the description of English reading. Then read each statement describing possible approaches. Circle one of the options (Never, Rarely, Occasionally, Often, Always) to show how *often* you use the approach described.

The list is not complete, so if you do anything else, please jot it down on the lines provided at the end of the questionnaire.

There is no right or wrong answers. There are only answers that tell what you actually do.

ENGLISH READING

Reading is a frequent activity you use for learning and using English. You may often read texts such as dialogues, and stories in English as part of class work or on your own.

How often do you do each of the following to help you understand English reading material that is challenging?

	Item	N e v e r	Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Alwa ys
1	I decide in advance what my reading purpose is, and then I read with that goal in mind.					
2	I decide in advance specific aspects of information to look for, and I focus on that information when I read.					
3	Before I read, I think of what I already know about the topic					
4	Before reading, I try to predict what the text will be about					
5	While I read, I periodically check whether the material is making sense to me					
6	While reading, I decide whether the information makes sense based on what I already know about the topic.					
7	I compare what I read with what I already know.					
8	I imagine scenes or draw pictures of what I am reading.					
9	I act out the situation described in the reading (for example, using real objects to illustrate and put into context what I am reading).					
10	I encourage myself as I read by saying positive statements such					

-
- as "You can do it."
- 11 I work with classmates to complete assignments or solve reading comprehension problems
 - 12 I use the context, like familiar words, pictures, and the content, to help me guess the meanings of unfamiliar words I read
 - 13 I identify what I don't understand in the reading, and I ask a precise question to solve the problem
 - 14 I use reference materials (dictionary, textbook, computer program, etc.) to help solve reading comprehension problems.
 - 15 After reading, I check to see if my predictions were correct
 - 16 I discern the main ideas of what I read.
 - 17 I summarize (in my head or in writing) important information that I read
 - 18 I rate my comprehension by reflecting on how much I understood what I read.
 - 19 After reading, I decide whether the strategies or techniques I used helped me understand, and I think of other strategies that could have helped.
 - 20 I check whether I accomplished my goal for reading
-

Other Approaches

Evaluation of Accuracy Criterion of Writing Skill of Second-year College Students

Assist. Prof. Ayad Hammad Ali

Department of English

Faculty of Arts

University of Anbar

ayad19773@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The present paper evaluates the accuracy scale of the written skill of second-year college students. The number of the samples is (18) out of (47), these samples represent the second stage of the Dept of English of the Faculty of Arts at Anbar university in Iraq. The procedure of analysis depends on analyzing the answers' sheet papers of the students who did the Final Second Course Exams of the academic year (2013-2014). The evaluated subjects are Drama, Novel, and Poetry and in each subject the teacher gave the students For Questions and the students' answers were in terms of an essay form. The number of lines of each student's answers ranged between (12) to (25) lines. The major goal of this research is to find out the grammatical errors committed by the students and show their types. The grammatical errors represent the violation of accuracy criterion which is concerned with speaking or witting accurate and sound grammatical structures. The results showed that the students committed various errors: errors of 3rd personal singular (-s) added to the verb in the present simple tense, errors of word order, errors of tense selection, errors of concord, errors of Be, errors of article, and errors of complement. The errors of (3rd personal -s) and word order were the most frequent ones. According to the results and

conclusions, certain recommendations were suggested in order to help the students overcome their errors.

Keywords: Evaluation, Writing Skill, Accuracy, CEFR, Error

1. Introduction

The English language has four skills, two are called productive and the other are called passive. The productive skills include speaking and writing, while the passive ones include reading and listening. Nation (2009:114) emphasizes on the productivity of writing when he says that writing is an activity that can usefully be prepared for by work in the other skills of listening, speaking and reading. This preparation can make it possible for words that have been used receptively to come into productive use. It is also important to make sure that the uses of writing cover the range of uses that learners will perform in their daily lives. These can include filling forms, making lists, writing friendly letters and business letters, note-taking and academic writing. Each of these types of writing involves special ways of organizing and presenting the writing and this presentation also deserves attention.

According to Wikipedia (2015), writing is defined as "a medium of communication that represents language through the inscription of signs and symbols". Writing can be represented in different forms including a letter, speech, application, memorandum, lectures, websites, books, academic books, etc. These written forms have formal style and accurate structures which are written in terms of paragraphs.

Richard and Schmidt (2002:603) state that writing is viewed as the result of complex processes of planning, drafting, reviewing and revising and some approaches to the teaching of first and second language writing teach students to use these processes. On the other hand, Heaton (1990:135) claim that the writing skills are complex and sometimes difficult to teach. It requires mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also of conceptual and judgmental elements. Madsen (1983:101) proves Heaton's

point of view in stating that writing tests require evaluating some factors: mechanics of writing including spelling and punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, appropriate content, diction, (or word selection), rhetorical matters of various kinds including organization, cohesion, unity; appropriate to the audience, topic, and occasion, as well as sophisticated concerns such as logic and style.

Writing is a complex sociocognitive process involving the construction of recorded messages on paper or on some other material, and, more recently, on a computer screen. The skills needed to write range from making the appropriate graphic marks, through utilizing the resources of the chosen language, to anticipating the reactions of the intended readers. The first skill area involves acquiring a writing system, which may be alphabetic or nonalphabetic. The second skill area requires selecting the appropriate grammar and vocabulary to form acceptable sentences and then arranging them in paragraphs. Third, writing involves thinking about the purpose of the text to be composed and about its possible effects on the intended readership. One important aspect of this last feature is the choice of a suitable style. Because of these characteristics, writing is not an innate natural ability like speaking but has to be acquired through years of training or schooling (John and Chris, 1993:34).

2. Statement of the Problem

Foreign Language learners commit grammatical errors when they write paragraphs or give answers to certain questions addressed to them. Students of English Departments study English as a foreign language where they study linguistics and literature subjects including Grammar which is taught in all courses per academic year. At the first stage, students study all the tenses of the English in a book entitled *Rapid English Review of Grammar* written by Jane Praninskas (1973); therefore, at the second stage the students should have mastered these tenses and know to write paragraphs well. But they still commit grammatical errors including tense errors and verb to be errors which make their writing inappropriate and ill-formed structures. In fact, these errors go on with them where they do not realize their mistakes and use them as if they are right. Some teachers especially teachers of literature do not focus on such errors fully as they do not determine such

mistakes which encourage the students to keep on their mistakes rather than tackling and overcoming them. The teachers' ignorance of such affects on the students' performance of the linguistic level particularly the grammatical aspects. It has been noticed that some English literature teachers when they do an exam to their students and score their sheets of answer, they just focus on the ideas and themes given by the students and little focus is given to the structures being correct or incorrect where they should determine the errors committed by the students and circle or underline them by the red pen in order to get the students recognize their errors and not to repeat them next time.

3. Objectives

The study aims at investigating the accuracy criterion of writing skill of the second-year college students of the Dept of English. The two following research questions were addressed:

1. What are the types and frequency of grammatical errors committed by the second- year college students learning English as a foreign language?
2. What solutions can be suggested in order to let the students overcome such errors?

4. Sampling

The study consists of (47) second year students of the Department of English, Faculty of Arts at Anbar University who study English as a foreign language. (18) Students were taken as samples and (9) students were males, while the other (9) were females. The Summer second course of the academic year 2013-2014 was selected for the purpose of analysis. Three literature subjects, novel, drama and poetry were chosen by taking the students' sheets of the final exam of the first attempt as samples. In each subject the teachers gave their students (For questions) and the tester/researcher took these sheet papers and identified the errors committed by the students. Since each student answered (For Questions), this means that the tester read (72) answers written in an essay form. The exams were

done at the Halls relating to the Faculty of Arts. The Summer exams usually start in May 25 of each year.

4.1 Instrument

To evaluate the students' performance and how accurate their grammatical structures in their writing skill, there should be a suitable model to be followed in the process of analysis. The best theory that suits the purpose of present research is accuracy scale which is set up by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, 2001). They are stated below:

1. Range means that the words will be classified according to the simplicity and complexity of every word is used by the students. Also, it indicates whether they are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs or sentence models.

2. Accuracy is concerned with the control of grammatical structures, and using these structures appropriately as it involves knowing how to pronounce words correctly. Swick (2009: vii) states that in order to write well, one should first have an understanding of grammatical structures, vocabulary, and tense usage. This criterion, in fact, suits the purpose of this study because it is concerned with the correctness of the grammatical structures and any grammatical errors or inaccurate structures are considered as violations of this criterion.

3. Fluency which means the ability to speak in a normal speed spontaneously without too much hesitation or much pausing.

4. Interaction refers to the ability to start up or stop a conversation, or to take turns in suitable time or keeping the conversation goes on, and making appropriate exchange of roles in the interaction.

5. Coherence refers to the connectedness or identity of spoken or written text. Crystal (2008:85) points out that coherence "involves the study of such factors as the language users' knowledge of the world, the inferences they

make, and the assumptions they hold, and in particular of the way in which coherent communication is mediated through the use of speech acts".

5. Data Analysis

The analysis depends on reading the answer of each question and determine the errors and put them in tables, then classify them into types as being error of tense, or error of Be or word order, etc., and count their frequency and percentage.

Analysis of Drama's Answers

Q.1. Discuss love as a source of suffering in Twelfth Night?

Table (1) Error Analysis of Question (1)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	...he fel love, Olivia but she refus because she mouring of dead brother.(Line 1) A young woman Viola have twin brother.(Line 2) She become and she very sad . (Line, 5). ... to work with character nice and she bring clothes (Line,6) ...and she become like brother when she begin work(Line ,9).	Prep+3 rd personal (s)+ing concord 3 rd personal (s)+Be Word order+3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(2)	...the relationship between romance and imagination so full of shape .(Line,13) ... imagination often seems more powerful that reality. (Line,	Be + Plural concord
Sample(3)	Who was fell in love with Olivia.(Line,2). She find herself in a strange land.(Line,6) And she claim that...(Line,14). When Orsino send Cesario ...(Line,15).	Tense selection 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(4)	None None	
Sample(5)	...and he wants to obey the all kings.(Line,4).	Word order
Sample(6)		

Q.2. Discuss the image of love in the below paragraph?

Table (2) Error Analysis of Question (2)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	...through these <i>word</i> Shakespeare (Line,6). ...something <i>unwanted</i> something that <i>coming</i> upon people (Line, 7). ...the person who <i>is</i> love with the lover own imagination.(Line,15).	Plural Concord Word order + Be 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(2)	...	
Sample(3)	In the speech that <i>follow</i> Orsino, (Line,4)	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(4)	...these lines <i>said</i> by Orsino,(Line,1) ...,so being <i>play</i> on with music,(Line,3) We see the reality of love more <i>imagination</i> (Line,6).	Passive Voice Passive Voice Subject Complement
Sample(5)	None	
Sample(6)	... these lines <i>said</i> by Orsino (Line,1).	Passive Voice

Q.3. There are different characters who assume disguise. Mention them and the cause and consequences of their disguise?

Table (3) Error Analysis of Question (3)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	...she <i>mourning</i> but she <i>decided</i> work (Line,1). She <i>find</i> work to man. (Line,2). ...she <i>delete</i> disguise (Line,4).	3 rd personal(s) + infinitive 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(2)	None	

Sample(3)	...and she <i>tell</i> him that ... (Line,7). and he still <i>smile</i> (Line,9) because he <i>think</i> that Olivia...(Line,10) She <i>explain</i> to him...(Line,11). he <i>follow</i> the commander(Line,12)	3 rd personal(s) Be 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(4)	Because his workers <i>they</i> are men(Line,3) Viola <i>becames a</i> best friend with Orsino(Line,4).	Word order Word order Concord+ Definite Article
Sample(5)	because Dr.Faustus <i>sing</i> (Line,).	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(6)		None

Q.4. Discuss the character of Malvolio?

Table (4) Error Analysis of Question (4)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	Malvolio is <i>work</i> in home (Line,1) ...but he <i>become</i> more interesting (Line,4). a proper servant who <i>like</i> nothing(Line,8)	Tense selection+ preposition 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(2)		None
Sample(3)		None
Sample(4)	Maria <i>written</i> a letter to Malvolio(Line,5) ...he <i>dream</i> to be loved by Olivia(Line,9) ...he becomes <i>behave</i> a <i>strongly</i> way.(Line,12).	Verb inflection 3 rd personal(s) Word order
Sample(5)	...and he <i>advice the</i> Dr. Faustus (Line,3) ...and evil angel was <i>try</i> the temptation (Line,6).	3 rd personal(s) Tense selection
Sample(6)	...that Olivia <i>like</i> his yellow stockers (Line,12).	3 rd personal(s)

Analysis of Novel's Answers

Q.1.What are the major themes in Emma? Discuss one of them?

Table (5) Error Analysis of Question (1)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	Emma Woodhouse is <i>she</i> small daughter (Line,1). ...and she <i>heroine</i> in the novel and she <i>have</i> many brothers and sisters(Line,3-4) His mother <i>death</i> when she was very young(Line,4). ... and was the most <i>dangers</i> subject in the novel(Line,6). The character <i>get</i> on the jent(Line,7) ...because she <i>beautiful</i> and <i>education</i> (Line,8) ...she <i>try</i> become under control (Line,10).	Word order+ Indefinite Article Be+ Have Word order Complement 3 rd personal(s) Be 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(2)	None	
Sample(3)	Emma's friend had <i>suggest</i> that ... (Line, 17).	tense selection
Sample(4)	The most <i>serious</i> is about gift of Jane Fairfax <i>which is</i> Emma is interested in marriage.(Line,3-4).	Word order
Sample(5)	Who is excessively concerned <i>for</i> the health and safety(Line,7-8)	Verb phrase
Sample(6)	The major themes of Emma <i>talking</i> about marriage not <i>every</i> thing else(Line,1). Emma <i>want</i> to marry everyone(Line,8) She <i>refuse</i> any advice from people(Line,10).	Tense selection 3 rd personal(s)

Q.2. Compare between Mr. Knightly and Frank Churchill

Table (6) Error Analysis of Question (2)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	...Mr.Frank: Mr. Welson son by his previous marriage...(Line,1). ...who manages to be like by everyone except Mr Knightly who consider ...(Line,2) ...this partially results from his jealously of Frank.(Line,4).	Word order Infinitive+ 3 rd personal (s) Noun position
Sample(2)	...he also warn Emma against match making.(Line,8). ...Mr. Knightly who consider him quite immature.(Line,13).	3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)
Sample(3)	he also warn Emma against match making(Line,10). Mr. Knightly who consider him quite immature.(Line,14). Frank was claimed that he is love Emma(Line,20). ...to disapper his in love of Jane Fiarfax.(Line,22).	3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s) Tense selection+ 3 rd personal(s) Noun position
Sample(4)	...he deeply interest in her(Line,3) ...because he love Jane.(Line,10)	Complement +Be
Sample(5)	who manage to be liked by everyone(Line,22).	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(6)	None	

Q.3. Why does Emma discourage Harriet to marry Mr. Martin?

Table (7) Error Analysis of Question (3)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	None	
Sample(2)	None	
Sample(3)	Emma <i>discourage</i> Harriet to marry from mr. Martin(Line,1). ...and she <i>want</i> Harriat <i>marriage</i> from Elton (Line,3) ...and he <i>ask</i> to <i>marriage from</i> him (Line, 5).	3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal+prep (s)+verb position 3 rd personal(s)+Verb+Prep
Sample(4)	None	
Sample(5)	None	
Sample(6)	None	

Q.4. What are the mistakes that Emma has made?

Table (8) Error Analysis of Question (4)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	None	
Sample(2)	None	
Sample(3)	The second she admires <i>with</i> Frank Churchill(Line,3).	Preposition
Sample(4)	...so Mr. Knightly <i>advice</i> her to leave him(Line,8).	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(5)	None	
Sample(6)	she <i>don't</i> have any advice from anyone.(Line,2).	3 rd personal(s)

Analysis of Poetry's Answers

Q1. Comment on the following lines:

Table (9) Error Analysis of Question (1)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	in the part poem this poetry the speaker about went time and still a flying(1-2)	Word order+ Indefinite Article
Sample(2)	None	
Sample(3)	... he <i>Not</i> mean lead young ladies to ..(2) ... which <i>it lead</i> to adulterous ...(3)	Do 3 rd personal(s)+Word order
Sample(4)	...that death <i>coming</i> ...(5)	Be
Sample(5)	None	
Sample(6)	left	
	Robert Herrick <i>published</i> to the viginis(1)	Word order

Q.2. Compare between Mr. Knightly and Frank Churchill

Table (10) Error Analysis of Question (2)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	...the death that <i>is</i> should not feel proud(1) ...because it <i>not</i> kill ...(3) ...and death <i>is</i> breath soul and it <i>coming</i> to prive man(5) ...the speaker claims <i>is</i> a slave to fate(10)	Word order+ Be Word order Tense selection + Be Word order
Sample(2)	After which the dead <i>awake</i> into eternal life (11)	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(3)	...those who should <i>kills</i> the death(4) ...and he <i>produce</i> in idea that...(6) The speaker <i>mock</i> from death ...(8)	Misuse of 3 rd personal(s) 3 rd personal(s)+Prep 3 rd personal(s)+Prep
Sample(4)	None	

Q3. Define Epic poetry and mention its main characteristics

Table (11) Error Analysis of Question (3)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)		None
Sample(2)		None
Sample(3)	Speaker <i>begin</i> his poem(1)	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(4)	Death is <i>short</i> sleep and shall no <i>be</i> longer exist	Indefinite article+ Word order
Sample(5)		None
Sample(6)		None

Q4. To the Virgins, was written during a period of great political unrest that culminated in Britain's Civil War. Discuss?

Table (12) Error Analysis of Question (4)

Sample	Error	Type of Error
Sample(1)	It is <i>the</i> because the poem <i>it full</i> with images(1)	Article+ word order+ Be
	It's <i>tell</i> about the first sin of man(4)	Be misuse
Sample(2)	It is so because the poem is full <i>with</i> images(1)	preposition
Sample(3)	... it <i>tell</i> us about ...(6)	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(4)	Eve <i>suggest</i> to Adam to work separately, he <i>is</i> hesitants(13)	3 rd personal(s) +verb concord
	So, she <i>eat</i> from this tree and fall(19)	3 rd personal(s)
Sample(5)		None
Sample(6)		None

6. Results and Discussion

The analysis of the scale of writing skill of the second-year college student of the English Department has shown that the (18) samples committed various grammatical errors. The first error that came first among other is the misuse with the 3rd singular personal (-s) which should be added to the verb when using present simple provided that the subject should be the third singular speaker, such as (he, she, or singular proper noun). In Drama, the students committed (22), while in Novel, they committed (15), and in Poetry (9) errors only. The percentage of the occurrence of errors in the three subjects is (97.87). In Drama, (6) errors of word order were observed, while in both Novel and Poetry (4) mistakes for each one were registered. The rate of the word order errors represents (31.91) which represent the second rank of mistakes. The misuse of the verb to Be takes the third rank in the frequency of the committed errors, in Drama, for example, (5) three errors were noticed, while in Novel just (3) errors were noticed but in poetry (5) errors were noticed which constitute (12) errors as a total number with the rate (27.65). The table (13) contains the errors committed by the students, their types, and rates.

Table (13) Types of Errors and their Frequency

Subject	Type of Error	Total No.	Rate	Total No
Drama	3 rd personal Singular(-s)	22	46	97.87
Novel	3 rd personal Singular(-s)	15		
Poetry	3 rd personal Singular(-s)	9		
Drama	Preposition misuse or shortage	2	8	17.021
Novel	Preposition misuse or shortage	3		
Poetry	Preposition misuse or shortage	3		
Drama	concord	4	5	10.63
Novel	None	---		
Poetry	concord	1		
Drama	Be misuse or shortage	5	13	27.65
Novel	Be misuse or shortage	3		

Poetry	Be misuse or shortage	5		
Drama	Word order	6	17	36.17
Novel	Word order	4		
Poetry	Word order	7		
Drama	Passive Voice	3	3	6.38
Novel	None	---		
Poetry	None	---		
Drama	Tense selection	3	6	12.76
Novel	Tense selection	2		
Poetry	Tense selection	1		
Drama	Article misuse	1	3	6.38
Novel	None	---		
Poetry	Article misuse	2		

7. Conclusions

The analysis of the accuracy scale of second-year college students who study English as a foreign language (EFL) at the second stage who previously studied two courses of Basics of English Grammar including tenses, committed grammatical errors. Such errors can be grouped into errors of tense especially present simple tense, present continuous tense and past simple tense. Some students write inaccurate sentences, for example, the sentence "speaker begin his poem", the student did not add 3rd personal singular (-s) to the verb which is a clear error. Also the sentence "Malvolio is *work* in home" has a wrong structure because the student uses "is" with a verb having no "-ing". Also the students committed errors of word order which occupied the second rank among the types of the committed errors. Other errors include the misuse of prepositions as in the phrase 'admire with' where the verb takes no preposition after it. Also, errors of concord were observed as the sentence "he **is** hesitants" includes error of number concord. Subjects of literature require essay answers which oblige the students to use two tenses but some students make jumps of using tenses which make some of their structures inaccurate. Some students misuse the definite article and

indefinite article which means that they have not mastered the topic of articles and their uses.

8. Recommendations

According to the conclusions obtained from the results of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Both teachers of linguistics and literature particularly the teachers of literature should focus on the grammatical errors committed by the students when they score their answers' sheets.
2. When scoring the sheets, the teachers should determine the errors committed by the students and show their types then correct them in order to make the students know their weaknesses.
3. The teachers who teach grammar of the first stage should focus on exercises through giving home assignments and doing exercises on the whiteboard which enable the students to get rid of their weaknesses.
4. Although the second year students of the English Dept studied the basics of the English Grammar including tenses, verbs to be and others in the first year, it is necessary to make a review of the tenses between while and check whether they master them or not.
5. The Dept of English should organize symposia and sessions to shed light on the grammatical errors that the students commit and give corrections to them in order to let the students realize their errors and how to correct them.
6. Encourage the students to log in many websites concerned with teaching and learning English such as My English Class website, Learn English website, English Club website, etc. which teach grammar and parts of speech which enable them improve their grammar.

References

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (2001). Retrieved from the internet on Nov., 25, 2014 [https:// www.coe.int/lang-CEFR](https://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR).

Crystal, David (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

Heaton, J. (1990). *Writing English Language Tests*. London: Longman.

Jean Praninskas (1973). *Rapid Review of English Grammar*. London: Longman

John, A. and Chris, B., (1993). *Academic Writing for Graduate Students*. Michigan: the University of Michigan Press.

Madsen, Harold (1983) *Techniques in Writing Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nation, I. S. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing*. London: Routledge.

Ritchards, Jack and Ritchard Schmidt (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics*. Malaysia: Fakenham Photosetting.

Swick, Ed. (2009). *Writing Better English for ESL Learners*. 2nd ed. New York: Mc Graw Hill.

Writing Skill (2014). Retrieved in Nov., 7, 2014 from <https://www.en.wikipedia>

Criteria for Evaluating Students Essay Writing at the Tertiary Level at Salahaddin University, Kurdistan Region, Iraq

Aziz Emmanuel Zebari, Asma Abas Brime

College of Education, Salahaddin University

azizeliya@yahoo.com

asma.brime@su.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

The most difficult skill to acquire in a foreign language is the productive skill of writing. There is growing evidence that lack of competence of university ESL students in academic writing affects their overall academic performance.

The present paper aims at evaluating tertiary level students' ability in writing at Salahaddin University, Kurdistan Region, Iraq, to estimate their knowledge in academic writing . It also examines the challenges they face in academic writing. Four criteria were used for this purpose: thesis statement, development of the thesis statement, conclusion, and L1 impact on writing in English language. The results reached at by the research show poor academic writing skills probably due to poor academic training and L1 impact on students' productive skill of writing English that may lead to ambiguity in writing. The study has come up with recommendations that can help improve their skills and ability in academic essay writing.

Key words: Academic Writing, Objective Evaluation, Holistic vs Analytical approach.

INTRODUCTION

The most difficult skill to acquire in a foreign language is the productive skill of writing (Poel 2006) as a basic communication skill. Like other language skills, writing goals vary with the teacher. Sometimes the focus is almost entirely on the language itself, on communication, and/or both the

form and the message (Chastain 1988). The objective, however, is to train students on productive writing to meet the demands of a growing market for writers, journalists, translators..ect.

Probably the first time students are exposed to the skill of writing is through the training they get in academic writing at the tertiary level of their education at university. Academic writing, therefore, can be defined as any writing done to fulfill a requirement of a college or university. It may also be used for publications that are read abroad by teachers and researchers or presented at conferences. A very broad definition of academic writing could include any writing.

Academic Bachelor students are supposed to be able to develop conscious thought, i.e., abstract, objective thought. Consequently, tertiary education wants to develop advanced cognitive and meta-cognitive (or higher order reflexive) skills. Writing in an academic context has to be situated in the broader domain of academic literacy a term, which refers to a collection of skills that students need in order to be able to handle texts, according to the conventions of this genre (Street 1999).

New college students may have a lot of anxiety and questions about the writing they do at college. The course they take is perhaps the only class in their entire college career where they focus on learning to write. Academic writing may resemble playing a familiar game by completely new rules that are often unstated. Success in academic writing depends upon how well students understand what they do as they write and how they approach the writing task. As they start college, they have widely strange ideas about what they are doing when they write an essay, or worse, they have no clear idea at all (Irvin 2010).

In recent years, there has been increasing interest in studies related to writing because, as mentioned earlier, such a skill is very important in academic studies and outside academic institutions. It is clear that "writing structures our relations with others and organizes our perception of the world "(Bazerman and Paradis1991 in Khuwaaileh and Al-Shoumal, 2000).

Academic writing in English is probably different from academic writing in students' native language. The words and grammar and also the way of organizing ideas are probably different from what they are used to in their native language (Oshima& Hogue 2007).

There is growing evidence that lack of competence of university ESL students in academic writing affects their overall academic performance (Giridharan 2006).

Olivas and Li (2006) connected low second language proficiency levels in English to poor academic performance of international students studying at both the university and college levels.

Although many EFL students at university have a general understanding of grammar rules, not many are able to write academically at levels expected of them. This is further exacerbated by a lack of awareness of students' own ability in academic writing.

2. Evaluating and Assessing Students Writing

Evaluating students writing is perhaps the most difficult and challenging task teachers and educators face due to a concern that the evaluation process is too subjective; it is perceived by students as only the educators unsupported opinion, because obviously students have no idea on what teachers think about when evaluating essays (Watson 2013).

Moreover, written papers about divergent knowledge offer a challenge, because students' papers cannot be evaluated by the same criterion as true-false test about knowledge that is convergent (Clark 2009). They are, therefore concerned about the degree of objectiveness achieved".(Watson and Correctness2013).

Undoubtedly, evaluating students' writing can be one of the most daunting tasks an instructor can face. It takes time, and above all, it takes mental energy. It means reading what students have written and judge how well they have responded to the assignment.

The evaluation process involves responding to what students have written for the purpose of helping them revise a piece of writing in the most effective ways" (Hoan.d. ; Bailey2011).

Undoubtedly, as Carbone(n.d.) observes, evaluating and commenting on student writing quite often becomes an exercise in simply " correcting" or " justifying" rather than a practice of offering useful feedback that promotes growth and the process of writing towards that improvement.

Writing assessment refers not only to evaluating a student's final paper and assigning it a grade, but also to measuring a student's knowledge of the elements of writing. It efers to evaluating students' knowledge of the elements of writing as a crucial part of the instructional process and students' growth as writers.Instructors must not assess everything students write. If they do so, students would not write nearly as much as they must if they are to improve. Such purposeful writing requires a constructive response, feedback that helps students revise a specific paper and improve their future performance. (Burke2013)

Teachers are traditionally considered the most powerful person and centre in the classroom. Hall (1998) states that when teachers are the leaders of communities of inquiry and the students are only the passive agents to take their teachers' involvement seriously in the learning process, the students are more likely to be engaged in the intellectually challenging interactions.

2.2. OBJECTIVE EVALUATION

While objective evaluation is important to satisfy both the educators and students, researchers have found out that an objective scale is impossible to evaluate writing as there is no average essay and because essays deal with ideas rather than with answers and that ideas cannot be viewed in terms of being average or above average, but only as being clear and logical or unclear and illogical. Grammar, therefore is not emphasized despite its importance to proper communication. However, since the technocratic establishment is hooked on grade point averages GPAs, the educator must assign some letter grade in order to appease the misguided makers of policy. (Watson 2013).

2.2.1. HOLISTIC VERSUS ANALYTICAL RUBRICS

There are various criteria teachers and educators think of as grading systems for evaluating essays (Goldberg 2000). However, they are generally graded using either a holistic or an analytical approach.

The former was followed in this study because this type is probably more appropriate when performance tasks require students to create some sorts of responses and where there is no definitive correct answer. A holistic rubric allows the scorer to make judgments about the performance as a whole, independent of component parts. The latter requires the scorer to judge separated components or individual tasks associated with the performance (Arends 2013).

Bacha (2001) points out that there is no written standard that can represent the “ideal” written product in English and therefore the only two important issues to be considered in essay evaluation are choice of an appropriate rating scale and the setting up of criteria based on the purpose of the evaluation. She maintains that both analytical and holistic scoring instruments can tell teachers and educators a lot about their students proficiency, but the purpose of the essay task is significant in deciding which scale to choose. For tertiary level students, the purpose of the essay task is to show whether students successfully express their ideas (Watson 2013) in a clear and compelling way.

3. GRADING CRITERIA FOR ESSAYS

The following criteria were used to evaluate students essay writing in the present research paper:

1. Thesis Statement
2. Logical Development of the thesis statement
3. Conclusion

4. L1 impact on writing in L2

The criteria was adopted to serve as a basic, practical and an easy means of evaluating students' essay writing at the tertiary level.

A well-organized academic essay has three parts: introduction, body and conclusion. The introductory paragraph should start with several sentences that attract the reader's interest. It should then advance the central idea, or thesis statement, that will be developed in the essay (Langan 2003).

1- Thesis Statement

The thesis statement is the most important sentence in an essay as it conveys the main point and purpose of the essay. It is what gives an essay a purpose and a point, and, in a well-focused essay, every part of the essay helps the writer develop and support the thesis in some way (Vallis 2010, Zemach & Rumisek 2003). In academic writing, a thesis statement usually contains three main ideas.

However, there can be no essay without a thesis statement, because, as often is the case, students are at a loss as how to begin with writing, and if they do, then they do not find it easy to end as they roam aimlessly in the realm of ideas. In academic writing, however, it is usual to state only three main points in a thesis statement.

2. Logical development

Langan (2003) states that while the first step in writing a successful essay is the formulation of a clearly stated thesis, the second basic step is to support the thesis with specific details in a logical way.

These details are valuable in two key ways. First, details excite the reader's interest. They make writing a pleasure to read, for readers all enjoy learning particular things about people, places and things. Second, details serve to explain a writer's points. They give the evidence needed for the readers to see and understand general ideas.

3. Conclusion.

The concluding paragraph often summarizes the essay by briefly restating the thesis and the main supporting points. The writer often presents his/her answer to the essay question (Ibid 2003).

4. L1 Impact on writing in English as a foreign language (EFL)

It is commonly believed that the first language has an effect on the foreign language. It probably comes as no surprise to anyone that different cultures think in different ways. Western ways of thinking and writing are very different from Eastern or Middle Eastern ways of thinking.

However, on writing essays, students have to organize their thoughts and ideas according to the rules and regulation of writing essays in L2, i.e., in

English. In other words, they should strive to avoid thinking in their first language and then write in English, which is the case with the students under investigation.

EFL teachers are the ones who suffer from such a problem. As the most important part of their task is to teach their students how to think and to use a foreign language as its native users do. The influence of the native language is clearly shown in the written form which is the basic (main) technique, a foreign language teacher uses in testing the proficiency of his students.

Studies (Zemach & Rumisek 2003) conducted in this field show that EFL learners commit errors because they think in their native language and that they translate their thoughts into L2 or foreign language.

Errors found to be traceable to first language interference are termed "interlingual" or "transfer errors". These errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer. The term "interlingual" was first introduced by Selinker (1972). He used this term to refer to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both the learner's L1 and the target language (Abi Samra, 2003). While the term "transfer", which is derived from the Latin word "transfere", means "to bear", "to carry" or "to print" a copy from one surface to another (Webster's third new world international dictionary, 1986). It is also defined (ibid) as "a generalization of learned responses from one type of situation to another."

According to Kavaliauskiene (2009), transfer of errors may occur because the learners lack the necessary information in the foreign language or the attention capacity to activate the appropriate foreign language routine.

However, the main concern of the present study is those transfer errors that are above the syntactic structure, i.e., at the level of the sentence as the minimum unit of expressing ideas, which may often be affected by the impact of L1 on students' performance in writing in EFL. This is likely to lead to a lot of ambiguity in expressing their ideas.

4. Methodology

Fifty-one Students at the tertiary level in the department of English, College of Education, Salahaddin University were given an assignment to write an essay, following an intensive course on essay writing. The students under investigation were all Kurdish native speakers and had no experience in writing in either their L1 or in EFL during their high school education. The essays were analyzed using thesis statement, development and conclusion as the first three criteria for assessing their ability in academic writing. The grammatical challenges students faced were discussed at the sentence level as a minimum unit of semantic expression in writing. Grammatical errors below the sentence level were neglected due to a large body of research done in this area. Therefore, in using the fourth criterion

for analysis, i.e., L1 impact on EFL students' ability in writing essays in EFL, the essays were referred to a team of four Kurdish native speakers with Ph.D degree in English language. The team members were asked to mark the sentences the students wrote as a result of thinking in L1 and writing in EFL, i.e., transferring L1 syntactic structures into L2. which in addition to being grammatical challenges, were thought by the researchers to lead to ambiguous thinking. They were also asked to assign a mark for each essay. The three sets of scores were compared using Pearson's Coefficient, giving a reliability coefficient of 0.740, 0.751, and 0.830 which can be seen as a high positive correlation.

Table 1: Correlation between Scores

Correlation	Pearson Correlation
Correlation between Researcher 's Scores and Second Scorer's scores	0.740
Correlation between Researcher 's Scores and Third Scorer's scores	0.751
Correlation between Researcher 's Scores and forth Scorer's scores	0.830

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following analysis, the students' responses were statistically computed and analysed using Statistical Package for Science Services (SPSS). The test papers were scored out of 100, each of the four criteria were assigned 25 grades to show with an aim to show the students' competence directly and accurately in each criterion.

The first criterion examines students' ability in coming up with a strong thesis statement. Significantly, and as clearly shown in table 3, more than half of the students, i.e., 52.9% got 0. In other words, only 7 students out of 51 were able to come up with a good thesis statement. This is indicative of a probably serious problems students face in suggesting good thesis statements. See table 2

Table 2: Students' marks in writing Thesis Statement

Marks	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	27	52.9	52.9
8	1	2.0	54.9
9	6	11.8	66.7
10	5	9.8	76.5

11	3	5.9	82.4
12	2	3.9	86.3
17	2	3.9	90.2
18	2	3.9	94.1
19	1	2.0	96.1
20	1	2.0	98.0
21	1	2.0	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

The second criterion was intended to assess students' competence in developing their thesis statement in a logical way. Based on the statistical analysis it was found out that out of 51 students 30 got 0. In other words, 58,8% of the students failed to develop the thesis statement in a logical way and only 4 students managed to do so. (See table 3).

Table 3: Students' marks in development

Marks	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	30	58.8	58.8
7	3	5.9	64.7
8	3	5.9	70.6
9	7	13.7	84.3
10	4	7.8	92.2
13	1	2.0	94.1
16	1	2.0	96.1
19	2	3.9	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

As for the conclusion, 96.1 % of them failed to come up with a conclusion while 37 students of 51 got 0. Surprisingly, only 2 students were able to write a good conclusion. (See table 4).

Table 4: Students' marks in conclusion

Marks	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	37	72.5	72.5
6	1	2.0	74.5
7	3	5.9	80.4
8	5	9.8	90.2
9	1	2.0	92.2
10	1	2.0	94.1
11	1	2.0	96.1
17	1	2.0	98.0
18	1	2.0	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

As for the impact of L1 in writing in EFL, table (5) below shows the performance of the "Kurdish" students under investigation in essay writing as a result of thinking in Kurdish and writing in English. The table shows a significant impact of L1 on writing in EFL through transferring L1 syntactic structure to EFL (English). In addition to being grammatical challenges students face at the sentence level, they can be seen to lead to ambiguity in expressing their ideas in English.

Table 5: The impact of F1 on FL

L1/F1 Marks	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	2	3.9	3.9
In 5	4	7.8	11.8
6	2	3.9	15.7
7	3	5.9	21.6
8	3	5.9	27.5
9	1	2.0	29.4
10	6	11.8	41.2
11	2	3.9	45.1
12	2	3.9	49.0
13	4	7.8	56.9
14	4	7.8	64.7
15	8	15.7	80.4
16	3	5.9	86.3

17	3	5.9	92.2
18	2	3.9	96.1
19	1	2.0	98.0
20	1	2.0	100.0
Total	51	100.0	

6. CONCLUSION

Undoubtedly, evaluating and providing useful feedback on student writing will always be a complex process. It's much more than reading a paper and slapping a grade on it, especially if the aim is to help our students become better thinkers and writers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the above results, it looks like there is a drastic need to reconsider the curricular design used to train students on improving their writing skills at the Dept of English, College of Education, Salahaddin University. This is seen be the researches as a result of sporadic and intermitted courses in writing, often within the broad term of communication. The researches therefore suggest that training students in writing has to occur in a prolonged and gradual way starting from first year through third year as follows:

- First year: précis writing.
- Second year: paragraph writing.
- Third year: Essay writing.

Importantly, the admission policy of enrolling students to the department has to reconsidered towards admitting people on the following criteria:

- Students enrollment should be based on their interest as well as experience high school or other experience in English.
- Admission should be restricted to not more than 30 students per session.

This approach is likely to gradually expose students to the skill of writing and prepare them to writing graduation papers when they are in their fourth year of study at college.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The researchers would like to thank Dr. Dara Omar Ahmad, Dr. Dlovan SayfaddinSady, and Dr. Anjuman Muhammad Sabir for their invaluable

work in examining L1 impact on EFL and their evaluation of the students' essays.

8. REFERENCES

- AbiSamra,N.(2012).An analysis of errors in Arabic speakers' English writings.pp.1-48.Rerieved in 17-11-2014 from <http://abisamra03.tripod.com/nada/languageacq-erroranalysis.html>.
- Arends, R.(2007). Learning to teach. 7th ed. Boston: McGraw.
- Bailey, S.(2011). Academic writing. New York: Routledge.
- Burke J. Assessing Students Writing (81-1-2013).Retrieved from <http://www.scholastic.com/teachers/article/assessing-student-writing>
- Boye, A.(n.d.). How I evaluate and respond to student writing? (8-2-2013)Retrieved from <https://www.tltc.ttu.edu>.
- Chastain,K.(1988). Developing second- language skills: theory to practice. AC:Harcourt College.
- Clark,D.(2009). Evaluating essays: four main criteria you should keep in mind. Retrieved form <http://overnightessay.com/blog/2009/08/25/evaluating-essays-four-main-criteria>
- Hoa,T .(n.d.).Evaluating students' writing. Retrieved on 18-2-2013 from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED423540.pdf#page=183>
- Hood, S. (2004). *Appraising research: taking a stance in academic writing*. University of Technology: Sydney .
- Irvin, L. (2010).*Writing spaces: readings on writing*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- IVCC's online Style Book (2013). *Evaluation and grading criteria for essays*. Retrieved in 2-1-
- Langan,J.(2003).*College language skill*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Larsen Dale,.,*Rationale, Criteria, and Standards for Evaluating Essays*.Retrieved from <http://www.ghc.edu/HUMANITIES/DLARSON/RCS.htm>
- Khuwaileh , A. and Ali ,A. (2000). *Writing errors: a study of the writing ability of Arab learners of academic English and Arabic at*

University. Language Culture and Curriculum. Vol.13, No.2. pp 174-183.

Giridharan, B.(2006).*Identifying gaps in academic writing of ESL students.* Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED535491>

Street,B.(1999).*Academic literacies in students writing in the university: culture and epistemological issues.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 139-199.

Pennybaker, H.(n.d.) *How to evaluate a college essay.* Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/how_2131120_evaluate-college-essay.html

Poel, K, (2006). *Language awareness rising in academic writing: evaluating an online writing programme.* Retrieved on 18-1-2013 from <http://www.edilic.org/upload/fichiers/1243417182.pdf>.

Oshima, A.& Hogue, A.(2007). *Introduction to academic writing.*3rd E. USA: Longman.

Vallis,G.(2012). *Reason to write: applying critical thinking to academic writing.* North Carolina: Kona.

Watson, Robert W.(2013). *Rhetorical correctness.* Retrieved from <http://www.smartpublishers.com/rhetorical01.html>.

Webster 's Third New World International Dictionary(WNW) .(1986). New Haven: The Merriam Webster.

A Comparative Study of Phonological properties of English and Kurdish

Bandar A. Mohammad, Fatima Jalal Taher

Assist Lecturer- Salahaddin University, Assist lecturer, Salahaddin University

bandarqahhar@yahoo.com, lirajaff@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Phonological processes contains Regional variation: complementary distribution and free variation, it also covers Elision and Assimilation. Thus, Geographical reasons behind these phonological processes triggers some phonological changes to take place. These changes influence Kurdish orthographic system and phonemic system. Also in other languages ,these phonological processes play their own roles. All sounds of Kurdish are possessing orthography of the language and some borrowed ones .This paper tries to provide some examples to show changes in phonological processes in the language. This paper shows different views about phonological processes in English and Kurdish. In consequence, this study attempts to explain some process in English compared to Kurdish ones. Besides, expressing some controversial matters in Kurdish language concerning some phonemes and their allophones which has been borrowed from other languages. This an effort to show some phonological properties.

The origin of Kurdish Language, it is an Indo-European language and also an Indo-Iranian branch of west Iranian languages which are (Farsi and Kurdish)

The phonological properties

The properties of English and Kurdish are classified in this essay so the scopes are phonemic features of Kurdish sounds, Complementary distributions, Regional variation, free variation, Assimilation and Elision.

Aim:

This essay will expose the way that phonological processes of Kurdish works and the occurrence of those Kurdish phonological properties or processes.

Key Words: Complementary distributions, Free Variation, Phonemic features, Assimilation and Elision.

Hypothesis of the research is about the similarities of some phonological features of English and Kurdish.

1. Introduction:

This study looks at the Regional variation of Kurdish words for the same dailect which is Sorani Kurdish or Central Kurdish. Those two different varieties are Arbili and Sulaimaniye compared to English and this paper attempts to benefit from the intuition of the native speakers of the mentioned varieties. The scopes are description of Kurdish phonemic features alongside data analysis, Free Variation, Complementary distribution, Elision and Assimilation.

In addition, when morphemes are combined to form words, the segment of adjacent morphemes become juxtaposed and sometimes undergo changes. phonemes undergo changes due to the effect of environment more than only having two morphemes together.

Thus, Kurdish is one of the minority languages in middle east which is surrounded by many dominant languages such as (Arabic, Turkish and Persian), it seems to be influenced by those languages. Arabic, especially, has a big impact on Kurdish in general and phonology of Kurdish specifically. Some sounds are not originally Kurdish but they are found in Kurdish recently because they are similar to Kurdish ones, for instance, /ʃ/ looks like /s/ and /t/ looks like /t/, those sounds can be seen in a word like /ʃʒt/→/sʒt/ another example is /ħ/ phoneme which is a borrowed phoneme from Arabic and it looks like kurkish phoneme for /h/ for instance [Ro: ħ] 'soul' some other examples are: [ʃəʃt] 'sixty', [ʃət]~[ʃəd] 'hundred'

1.2. Phonological Processes

some of the morphemes are changed and they have various expressions, these variations cause alternations. Conditions for alternation are: the sounds should be adjacent inside the word, phonological conditions, inflectional features and affix types, and the form and type of speech. For instance, let's check out the functioning of alternation in [beranber]

1. [bə.ran.bər]→[bə.ram.bər]→[bə.ra.mə]

In the above given example, assimilation and alternation occur (Mahwi, 2010, p.75). the reason is that [n] is alveolar and [b] is bilabial. It is difficult in rapid speech to change place of articulation easily. So, the [n] is assimilated to [m] so as to have the same place of articulation with [b].

2. [destgir]→[dezgir]

this process can be carried out, firstly, by dropping the alveolar plosive which is /t/. Secondly, assimilation of voicing sign of fricative /s/ with the sign [+voice] of the plosive [g] (Mahwi, 2010, p.75). It is difficult to have a stop plosive inside a word as it requires stoppages; so, the plosive is usually dropped out in rapid speech. In [destgir], [s] which is voiceless is followed by [g] which is a voiced sound, so [s] would become voiced and sound like its voiced counterpart which is [z].

[dəst.gir]→[dəs.gir]→[dəz.gir]

In Kurdish, there is another phenomenon which is 'segment-epenthesis' there is [g] which is extra in expressing [dang] and it is indicated as /ng/,/ŋ/

/g/ in [də ŋg] and /ŋ/ in [də ŋ. ŋə.də ŋ/

Furthermore, some speakers of Sulaimania Kurdish return some freedom back to the old forms. The cold vowel [i] epenthesis in their position between initial consonants and final ones of syllables. for instance:

[bi.na.ʏə]→[bna.xa]

[qi.buʔ] → [q.bu.ʔ]

[ʔə.sip] → [ʔəsp]

2. Some Consonantal phonemic features

Consonants of Kurdish are divided to some categories,(voiced, voiceless, nasal, oral, plosive and stop)sounds, when lots of tightening and narrowing happens in fricatives the closure is less and this triggers a friction. The place of narrowing is called 'articulation position' and the main substantial articulator positions are 'bilabials-lips, teeth, alveolar, hard palate and soft palate' (Mahwi, 2008, p.44)

2.2. The Phonemes

[p] is a voiceless aspirated plosive or stop [p^h] but [b] is a bilabial plosive and stop, sometimes it occurs as [b̥] which means that it loses its voicing when it is juxtaposed with a voiceless consonant [Ibid], also in the beginning of a word before a homorganic sonorancy, especially in speaking fast the plosive voiced became voiceless, for examples:

[tʃiːb.kəm], [bɑːr]

In addition, [ɖla:wər], [ɖla:r], [gla:w], the voiceless sound is clear in all those three sounds and they are neutralized in the end of each word. /b/ each time after the vowel is represented as the semi- vowel /w/, for instance

[naya:b]→[naya:w]

[ʂəgba:b]→[ʂəgba:w]

As mentioned in the introduction, there is a big influence of the surrounding dominant languages on Kurdish. As phoneme /b/ of the Kurdish and Persian in Kurmanji saru is like /v/ and in Kurmanji nawarast is more like /w/. This all happens because of the relation of the common points between Kurmanji dialects (Xwaru and Saru) with Persian like [a:w]→[a:v]→[a:b] 'water'

[f] is a voiceless labiodental fricative, [v] is a voiced labiodental fricative and it is a rarely seen phoneme but it can more happen in onomatopoeic words like [givagiv] 'whirring', also it can be found in some words of Kurmanji nawarast with plosive voiced and voiceless such as:

[mro:v] 'human'

[ta:vgə] 'waterfall'

also in the created words as an output of the same distribution.

[həwt]→[həft]→[həvdə]

[m] phoneme is a bilabial nasal sound [m] is common in Persian and Kurdish. The previous mentioned sounds are the ones which are more common in Kurdish and Indo-Iranian languages so they were chosen to be studied in this paper on this basis.

[R] is a voiced alveolar, it can occur in the three positions inside a word, initially, medially and finally.

[ʈ] is a voiced alveolar palatal, obstruent.

[**dʒ**] is a voiced palatal alveolar obstruent.

[**ʒ**] is a voiced palatal alveolar obstruent.

[d] is a voiced non aspirated alveolar plosive, in the initial, middle and final position after consonants, it is seen like a non-aspirated alveolar plosive. such as[**d**est], [**d**aik] and [noz**d**a]

Velar sounds are classified as: aspirated and non-aspirated such as:

[**k**], velarized voiceless aspirated sound

[**g**], voiced non aspirated

[**ŋ**] is a voiced palato nasal [ŋ] never occurs in the beginning of a word for example [si**ŋ**]

[**x**] is a velar voiceless obstruent.

[**ʁ**] is a velar voiced obstruent

[**q**] is a voiceless uvular plosive, it is not aspirated unless it precedes [u,ə] such as:

[qhu:**ʔ**], [qhu**R**] = aspirated

[qi:**r**], [qirtaw], [qez] =non aspirated

though /q/ sound is one of the borrowed sounds from Arabic, still most of them are found in original Kurdish words [qi:n], [qiʒa], [raq], [taqa], sometimes it is substituted [k] for example

[kaʁ**ʔ**az]→[qaʁ**ʔ**az] 'paper' so [k] is replaced by [q]

From the above mentioned features of Kurdish phonemes, It can be drawn that Kurdish and English has very close features of sounds especially for the most common and frequent sounds which can be seen inside the Kurdish and English words. This clarification is true unless for the phonemes which are not found in English but they exist in Kurdish or vice versa.

[s] is a voiceless alveolar obstruent , in some words it can be alternated with the broad sound [ʃə t],[ʃəð],[ʃeg], as other obstruent's with plosive voiced and voiceless is in other complementary distribution, another example: [mist]→[mizgər],

At the end of Arabic words [s] is realized as voiced, if sonorance comes before it, data example [dərz]

[n] phoneme is a voiced alveolar dental nasal. It is realized as a voiceless one before the homorgans of /d/ and /dʒ/ data

[ʔindʒa:]→[imdʒa:]

[hende]→[henne]

[n] does not occur before the voiced velar plosive [g]. The only nasal occurs in that position is consonant [ŋ]. [quɫiŋŋə], [dəŋ] but in [milwankə]→*[milwəŋ] so [kə] is true instead of [ŋə]

it is not easy to make the sounds [ŋg],[ŋk] although they are both phonemes but as (Macckenzie, 1961) states that it is not easy for the sounds like [ŋg],[ŋk] to be accounted as in phonemic words as in morphological words. There is a stop between the nasal and plosive stops, so series of [ŋg] of middle are not realized like [ŋ]. for instance:

*[ba:ŋguʃ]→ [ba:nʊʃ]

*[ʔa:siŋger]→ [ʔa:singer]

*[daya:ŋgirt]→[daya:ngirt]

[l] is a voiced alveolar lateral obstruent.

[ɭ] is a voiced velarized alveolar lateral phoneme, it cannot be seen in the initial position of words, but not syllables.

3.Regional variation:

Geographical places affect language and there are regional variations in Kurdish like (Arbili and Suleimani variations of central Kurdish). There is free variation and complementary distribution in both varieties. Like [bax] and [xall], [dellem]

3.1 Free Variation

it occurs between allophones of a single phoneme. It occurs when a phoneme has allophones which is more dependent on Sociolinguistics rather than pure linguistics MCMahon (2001:12) and it occurs when one phoneme can have two sounds or can be swapped with two sounds but it has the same meaning such as:

[bax] ~ [baʏ]

[xəɪm] ~ [ʏəɪm]

Mahwi (2010, p. 194-196) states that the existence of aspiration in Kurdish phonetics which occurs in many examples but only before [u, ə] the aspiration does not occur such as [*q̟u:l] but it is [qu:l]

when two phonetically distinctive units are seen in the same environment without being opposite to each other or contrastive, putting one of them instead of the other one will construct a new word on the other hand, various kinds of realization of words like /hendek/ and another one is the miscellaneous of free expression of /ham/ the suffix (es) with the changeable realization 'plural suffix' of language Examples:

[hen.dek] → [hən.ne.k] but *[he.ne.k]

[yakhəɪm], [dahəɪm]

from the above given examples, it can be drawn that /ə/ is another free expression of /e/ and from the realization of [həɪm] and [yəɪm] are different kinds of free variation, to sum up different phonemic features of a sound can have different effects on free variation of Kurdish.

More examples on free variation, which also exposes the elision of /d/ sound

[swend]→ [swenn]

[xwendim]→[xwenim]

[bændə]→ [bənnə]

4. Theoretical background:

Elision makes sentences easier to say, sentences or utterances are much easier when assimilation or elision occurs, they are depending on attitudes of language in specific and all languages gain their own attitudes towards elision and Assimilation. As English has its own situation and nature of them (Wells and Colson 1971)

4.1. Elision in English and Kurdish

(Jones, 1975, p. 230) declared that " Elision is defined as the disappearance of a sound", Similarly, English has two types of Elision as the same as Assimilation. they are:

a) Historical Elision: refers to the sounds existed in language in past, but, they are no longer there recently.

b) Contextual Elision: refers to sounds which can be pronounced when they are alone but in contexts or in a combination they disappear.

Assimilation and alternation in Kurdish occurs after these sounds [y,d,l,n,m], for instance

[bri:ndar]→[brinna:r]

[dɪlda:r]→[diɫlar]

[guɫda:n]→[guɫla:n]

[guɫda:r]→[guɫla:r]

[həvde]→[həvvə]

[məydən]→[məyyən]

[maydan]→[mayyan]

/d/ in [dan] is an irregular exceptional, because in all positions it is like /d/ which is between vowels and it is treated in that way. In normal cases after a suffix it can be realized as a vowel like /ə/ or a semi vowel.

[dəda:te]→[ʔəda:te]→[də'a:te]→[dəya:te] [ʔəya:te]→[ʔya:te]→[ʔəte]

[nada:te]→[naəa:te]→[naya:te]

[bidərəwə]→[bəʔrəwə]→[bʔrəwe]

[həlbidərəwə]→[həlbʔərəwə] the realization of these consonants lead us to an assumption of which [da:yə] might have this origin [da:də] 'gave' so /d/ can sometimes act like allophone of /b/

[dini:n]→[bini:n]

Similarly, /d/ can be pronounced as /j/ where [a,y,i,e] exists as adjacent sounds. such as

[frejdə]→[freyyə] or [freybə]

when /d/ precedes by consonants of /m,n,k,y/ it can be assimilated [bindəre]→[bimməre]

but /d/ only after /t/ can be realized as itself which is a stop consonant

[dədate]→[dəʔate] or [ʔədatə]→[ʔəate]

another point to explain is borrowing words from other languages into Kurdish, some of them are assimilated in Kurdish phonology and the others with straight words. phonologically, they protect their shapes as itself. It

means that they are functioning like themselves or with a little change. many factors cause this borrowing such as:

[qabir]

[qapi]

[fiaʃir]

[izin]

But, some other words exist because of a change in morphology such as:

[najib]>[nanajib]

In the consequence, elision of /t/, /d/ occurs in English and Kurdish frequently! this can be an answer for the hypothesis which is stated in this Research about the similarities of some phonological features of English and Kurdish.

4.2.1. Elision in Kurdish compared to English

Elision is the disappearance of some phonemes in any language. It is easier to say elided words rather than the complete phonemes. Elision happens in different of words or phrases of a language. As (Roach,1991) has stated that elision happens when a phoneme realized as zero,or it might be deleted. He also states that Assimilation and Elision is typical of rapid and casual speech.

[t] is a voiceless aspirated alveolar dental and plosive, [t̪] and [t] are two conditional allophones of the same phoneme which is [t]. Thus, it follows a personal affix or inflectional pronoun and functional, it is non plosive in the verb of second and third person as

[girt]→[girtit]

[nust]→[nust:t]

Elision of /t/ occurs in the middle position of a word and /w/ sound can appear instead:

[na:tnasim]→[naəna:sim]→[na:wnasim]

The elision of /t/ occurs at the end of a word after the voiceless homorganic friction consonants such as:

[dəst]→[dəs]

The /t/ part of clitic pronoun of second person singular /it/ is also elided when it occurs finally,

[nusti:t]→[nusti:]

[ʃʊjit]→ [ʃʊji]

[d] phoneme in some cases cannot be expressed and it is elided for instance:

[bəʏda:d]→[bəʏəa:]→[bəʏa:]

In a postvocalic position [ə] can be expressed by continuity such as:

[ʔama:də]→[ʔama:ə]

[liba:d]→[liba:ə]

but in some other words it can be totally dropped as the words which are not originally Kurdish such as:

[məulu:d]→[məulu:]

sometimes, /d/ is elided between vowels and alternated to either /y/ or/w/ such as

[ba:dəm]→[ba:yəm]→[ba:ə̃m]

[nauda:r]→[nauwa:r]

4.2.2. Elision in English

As (Kahn, 1976, p. 20) stated that various tests can be made by listening to communication speech. Firstly, in conversation speech elision occurs more a speech which for the purpose of teaching or rather formal one which is done more slowly than the former one.

Moreover, elision is the loss of speech sound (Davenport and Hannah, 2010, p.10). In Kurdish, the most prominent Elision happens when there is a present verb for third person singular the last phoneme is elided. For example, (d)axwa(t), in many of those verbs there is a free variation for phoneme /d/.

4.2.3 Complementary distribution

Mahwi (2008, p.15) Kurdish contains some phonemic features such as /l/, /r/, /l/→/k/. /r/→/R/

[kal] , [kar]

[mal], [mar]

Kurdish Morphological Conditions by Mahwi (70), other phenomenon of those types in expressing some forms like [beste zman] and [destdar] is valid. After dropping the plosive alveolar [b^ə.s^ə.zman] and instead of the shwa^ə/ [b^əszman] the cold vowel will be brought inside and it is [b^ə.szman], the cold vowel is entered and it is [b^ə.sɪz.man], another example is

[bu.wə]→[bwə]→[bi.bə]

In Kurdish, morphological condition for alternations [win.bun] is a lexeme and is counted as a word, another morphological condition is voicing in Kurdish, voice plosives have the sign of [+voice] and voiceless [_voice]. Alternation is the total change of the phoneme which contains [+,_ voice]. One of the significant contributions in the language is complementary distribution then phonological processes and morphological processes. for example,

[həft]→[həʒdə]

[həwt]→[həvdə]

[kuft]→[dəkuʒt]

[bəʃ]→[bəʒdar]

[rʃt]→[dəɾəʒet]

N.B/ in these two words: [dəkuʒt] and [dəɾəʒet], two phonological properties can be seen complementary distribution and their last phonemes are elided so Elision also happens, because in Kurdish /t/ after a vowel is frequently deleted. The [sh] in these examples, comes between two voiced sounds which are either two vowel sounds like in [dereʒet] or a vowel and a voiced consonant like in [heʒde].

4.3. Assimilation:

Words, when pronounced in isolation, sound strong and each phoneme is apparent and clear. However, in connected speech words and sounds affect each other. In other words, “*in connected speech, adjacent sounds frequently influence each other so that they become more alike, or assimilate*” (Crystal, 2010, p.172).

Generally speaking, adjacent sounds, sounds that follow each other, adjust themselves with each other and change their phonological characteristics to go smoothly with each other. Furthermore, “*assimilation goes back to the movement of the muscle of articulators and organization and assimilation of the muscle movement at the time of articulating the sounds*” (Ali, T. H., Kurdish Phonology, 1989, p. 49). So, the muscles of the articulators participating in articulating sounds, especially adjacent sounds, intertwine and make the sounds look like each other or affect the articulation of each other. If compared with sounds in isolation, sounds in connected speech gain characteristics of each other or the characteristics of their close equivalents.

So, assimilation is when a sound changes to be similar with an adjacent sound to go smoothly with each other in connected speech. This takes us to the next point; the aim of assimilation is to make articulation easy and to simplify speaking.

4.3.1. Classifications of Assimilation:

A: In English:

Assimilation, as mentioned above, is when neighboring segments are made similar for the purpose of ease of articulation though in isolation they have nothing in common. It can be classified from two different perspectives:

1. According to the characteristics the sounds endow each other:
 - 1.1 **Voicing:** this kind of assimilation includes phonemes which are voiced but, in connected speech, they assimilate and become voiceless, or vice versa. For example /v/ which is voiced but when followed by a voiceless consonant it becomes voiceless (**devoiced**) like in (I have to) which can transcribed as /ai haf tu/.
 - 1.2 **Place of articulation:** it refers to “the change” of where a phoneme is articulated in isolation and connected speech. For example, if a word final was alveolar like / t, d, n/ and was followed by a non-alveolar consonant, the alveolar consonant changes to have the same place of articulation as consonant it precedes. For instance, in (that boy) and (that girl), /t/ is followed by /b/ and /g/ respectively. These two are likely to be pronounced as / ʒæp boi/ and /ʒæk gɜ:l/.
 - 1.3 **Manner of articulation:** in this case, a sound changes its manner to sound like an adjacent sound. For example, in the phrase (get some), the speaker tends to say /ges sʌm/ in rapid speech. (Roach, 2001, p.54-55)

So, either the voicing or the place or the manner of articulation of sounds (especially consonants) is changed due to neighboring sounds.

2. According to the adjacent sounds:

Assimilation can be classified according to the direction of the effect between the neighboring sounds (adjacent sounds). There are three possibilities:

2.1 **Progressive:** in progressive assimilation, a sound affects the following sound. A clear example of progressive assimilation is plural-s: in (backs) and (bags), the pronunciation of the plural-s is bound to the voicedness or voicelessness of the preceding sound. These two are pronounced /bæks/ and /bægz/ because /k/ is voiceless and /g/ is voiced. Another example of progressive assimilation is /it + iz/ when reduced becomes /its/.

2.2 **Regressive:** in regressive assimilation, a sound is affected by a preceding sound. Examples are:

- /hæz/ + /tu:/ ... /hæstə/

- /grænd/ + /pæ/ ... /græmpæ/

2.3 **Coalescence:** In this kind of assimilation, the adjacent sounds affect each other so there is a reciprocal effect between them. (**Palatalization**¹) might be a clear example or coalescent assimilation like in (this year), (would you), (that you) which are pronounced as /ʃɪjə/, /widʒjə/ and /ʌætʃjə/ respectively, in connected speech.

(Murica & et al, 2010, p. 168-171)

So, undoubtedly adjacent sounds affect each other; either one is affected by a preceding sound or a following one or there is a mutual reciprocal effect between them.

4.3.2. B: in Kurdish:

Certainly, adjacent segments of all languages affect each other. In Kurdish, like any other language of the world, there is assimilation. It is a phonological process in which a sound will have effect on another sound so that the two sounds look like each other. However, there are two main types of assimilation in Kurdish:

¹ **Palatalization:**

1. **Full assimilation:** in this kind of assimilation a sound is completely assimilated to sound like another sound. This kind of assimilation is widespread in Suleimani dialect in (Central Kurdish, CK). For example:

- hev + **de** = [hevve]
- kird + **tan** = [kirttan]
- lêm + **be** = [lêmmе]
- kwêstan = [ʃwêstan]
- kê = [ʃê]
- gja = [dʒja]

In the first example, the [d] in [de] assimilates with the final [v] of [hev]. The place of articulation for [v] is labiodental and it is a fricative continuant while [d] is alveolar plosive and it is not continuant. In connected speech, the plosion of plosives is hardly felt inside words and chunks of language. That's why; the plosive assimilates to the fricative, not the other way round.

In the second example which is [kirttan], the only difference between [d] and [t] is voicing as they are homorganic. It is difficult for the vocal cords to go rapidly and smoothly from voicing to noiselessness. As such, they do not vibrate for both of them and the two adjacent sounds assimilate.

In the third example which is [lê**mb**e], [m] and [b] are bilabial but [m] is nasal while [b] is not.

The fourth and fifth examples ([ʃwêstan] and [ʃê]) are different cases and this kind of assimilation is kind of general whenever [k] is followed by [w] or [ê], the [k] tends to change to [ʃ]. More examples of this kind of assimilation are: [ʃêʃme ʃêʃm]; [

The sixth one is similar in a way to number 5 and 6; whenever [g] is followed by [j], the [g] assimilates to [dʒ]. This might be because [g] is a velar plosive and it is hard to start with a plosive so this plosive [g] assimilates to the closest affricate of the following vowel [j].

2. **Partial assimilation:**

A part or characteristic of a sound changes to assimilate with an adjacent sound. So, the sound is not changing to sound like a different sound but it loses a characteristic (like **voicing**). For example

[roʒ bæʃ] = [roʃ bæʃ]

[pʃ dər] = [pʒ dər]

(Xoshnaw, 2014, p. 77-80)

So, there is partial and full assimilation in Kurdish (Central Kurdish). The examples are not a lot and have nothing in common to have a general rule for all of them; as such, each example or two has to be explained alone. Furthermore, sometimes the assimilation is not clear or clearly audible like the change of /z/ to /s/ in (rrez + grtn = rresgrtn).

Conclusions:

1. There is partial and full assimilation in Kurdish and English.
2. There is progressive, regressive and coalescent assimilation in English while Kurdish seems to have only regressive assimilation, it seems there is no progressive or coalescent assimilation in Kurdish.
3. In Kurdish, In complex words, when /d/ is preceded by /z, v, n, m, r, .../, the /d/ assimilates to sound like the preceding sound.
Hev + **de** = hevve
Ser + **dan** = ser ran
4. Some assimilations are not straightforward like in (rrez + grtn = rresgrtn). It is unclear to an extent whether there is assimilation or not.

4.4.2 Assimilation :

(Wells and Colson, 1971:53) declared that assimilation in English might occur when bilabial /p, b, m/ or velar /k, g/ are preceded by final /d/ which can be found in every day speech for example : handbag [hænbæg] → [hæmbæg]. In assimilation process a segment takes a feature from an adjacent segment, a consonant may pick up features from a vowel or vice versa.

This study also talks about phonemic features of Kurdish Consonants . Elision also happens in some nouns like:

[dəst] → [dəs]

[ma:st]~[ma:s]

In Kurdish, there are different occurrences of alternation, the status of /ə/ is the most interesting problem, the /t/ of the second singular pronominal suffix, (**it**) *sa* in *nawit* 'your name' as observed by Mackenzie (1964, p.11) /d/ phoneme in intervocalic or postvocalic position in a word may in normal conversational style be replaced by high central vowel [ɨ] which is symbolised as [ə] by the author and labelled a 'half -closed central continuant' thus *nawit* vs. *nawiə* 'your name or adam vs. *a'am* ' i give' furthermore, Kurdish has more kinds of alternation. As (Qadir, 2008) noticed morphophonemic alternation is a contrast or opposition unit, but there are some constructive units which are more primary than phonemes.

[ʕ] is a voiced oral obstruent, [ʕ] has a tension which is less the [ʕ] in Arabic. [ʕ] in the initial position is alternated with [ʔ]

such as:

[ʔasma:n]→[ʕasma:n]

[ʔiʃq]→ [ʕi:ʃq]

[ʔəmir]→ [ʕəmi:r]

[quRʔa:n]→ [quRʕa:n]

4.4.3 More about Assimilation:

sounds belong to one word can make some change in the neighbouring words, this property doesnot happen when the words are pronounced in different positions such as in English [Ibid]

bad girl →[baggirl]

As (Schone,1973) noticed that , alteration and assimilation are different in a way that assimilation occurs when segments become more alike in syllable structure where there is alternation in distribution of consonants and vowels.

Assimilation/ in assimilatory processes a segment takes on features from the neighboring segment consonant may pick up features from a vowel or vice versa.

(Jones, 1975) classified assimilation of English into two main types ; historical and contextual:

a: Historical: aunt→[amətə]

b:Contextual: horse shoe→[ho:ʃu:]

5.1. Conclusion

In the conclusion, Kurdish phonological properties attempted to describe the processes that are working nowadays in the language. Besides, there were other problems in the language which were explained in the paper like description of Kurdish phonemes. This paper has also shown the influence of other languages on Kurdish especially Arabic. The main focused scopes of phonological properties are free variation, complementary distribution Assimilation, Elision, Alternation. Different types of those properties has been mentioned. All definitions of the properties are supported by examples either from the native speakers or from the books or articles. This paper recommends more investigation on the same topic, due to time limitation this paper could not provide more examples.

Appendix

Key to Kurdish Alphabet

No.	Kurdish Alphabet	Latinate Representations	IPA
1	أ	A	/ a /
2	ب	B	/ b /
3	پ	P	/ p /
4	ت	T	/ t /
5	ج	C	/ dʒ /
6	ض	Ç	/ tʃ /
7	ح	H	/ h /
8	خ	X	/ x /
9	د	D	/ d /
10	ر	R	Light / r /
11	ړ	Rr	Dark / r /
12	ز	Z	/ z /
13	ژ	J	/ ʒ /
14	س	S	/ s /
15	ش	Ş	/ ʃ /
16	ع	'	/ ʕ /
17	غ	X	/ ɣ /

18	ف	F	/ f /
19	ظ	V	/ v /
20	ق	Q	/ q /
21	ك	K	/ k /
22	ط	G	/ g /
23	ل	L	Light / l /
24	ل	Ll	Dark / l /
25	م	M	/ m /
26	ن	N	/ n /
27	ه	H	/ h /
28	ة	E	/ ə /
29	و	W / u	/ u /
30	وو	Wu / û	/ u: /
31	ؤ	O	/ o /
32	ي	Y / î	/ i /
33	يَ	Ê	/ e /
34	ئ	It fades away into the sound that follows it.	

References

- Abdulla, J.J. and E.N. McCarus.1967. *Kurdish Basic Course: Dialect of Sulaimania, Iraq*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press.
- Amin, W.O. 2009. *Asoyaki tri zmanawany (Another Horizon of Linguistics)*. Hawler: Dazgay Chap u Bllawkrdnaway Aras.
- Amin, W.O.2009. *Asoyaki tri Zmanawany (Another Horizon of Linguistics)*. Hawler: Dazgay Chap u bllawkrdnaway Aras.
- Fattah, Muhammad. 1997. A Generative Grammar of Kurdish .Unpublished PhD, University of Amesterdam.
- Jones,D.1972.*An outline of English Phonetics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jubrail, A.Y. 1998. 'Assimilation and Elision in Kurdish'. Zanco Journal 3: 3-17
- Kahn,M.1976. Borroiwnng and *Variation in phonloogical description of Kurdish* .PhD ,Michigan University.
- Kelly, G. 2000. *How to Teach Pronunciation*. Essex: Pearson Longman.
- Mackenzie, D.N. 1981. ' Kurdish Dialect Studies I'. *London Oriental Series: School of Oriental and African Studies* 9 : 50:203.
- MacKenzie,D.N.1964.'Kudish Dialect studies'. *Journal of American Oriental Society*. 84: 305-310.
- O'Connor, J.D. 2003. Better English Pronunciation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Roach, P. 2000. *English Phonetics and Phonology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Roach, P. 2010. 'Connected speech and Coarticulation'. *Phonetics*:53-63

- Mahwi, M. 2001. *Rstasazy Kurdy (Kurdish syntax)*. Slemany: Zankoy Slemany.
- Mahwi, M. 2010. *Shkanaway Krdar (Verbal Inflection)*. Slemany: Zankoy Slemany.
- Mahwi, M. 2011. *Bnamakany Sintaksy Kurdy (The principles of Kurdish Syntax)*. Slemany: Zankoy Slemany.
- Mahwi,M. 2008. fonatik u fonology (phonetics and phonology).
sualimaniye : zankoy
- Mahwi,M. 2008. fonatik u fonology (phonetics and phonology).2nd ed.
sulaimaniye: zankoy
- Mheddin, Bazyan. 2008. *Paywandi Asty Morphology ba Asty Phonology u Syntaxawa(the relation between level of morphology with level of phonology and syntax) .* Unpublished MA, University of Salahaddin.
- Qader, Tara. 2004. *Jenaw: Lekdanawayaky nwe la zmany Kurdida(A recent analysis in Kurdish Language)*. Un published MA , University of Sulaimania.
- Qader, Tara. 2011. *Zmany Kurdy u Minimal Program (Kurdish language and Minimalist Program)*. Unpublished PhD, University of Sulaimania.
- Qadir, Karwan. 2010. *Formy Lojiky La Zmany Kurdy (Logical Form in Kurdish language)*. Un Published PhD, University of Sulaimania.
- Qadir, Yara. 2008. *Morphosyntax la zary Koya (Morphosyntax of Koya Dialect)*. Unpublished MA, University of Koya.
- The Kurdish Academy of Language Sciences². 2011. *Rezmany Axawtny Kurdy (Syntax of Kurdish Speech) . Hawler: Dazgay chap u bllawkrdnaway Aras.*

Awareness of Importance of Communicative Competence in Tefl among Efl Teachers in Iraq

Elvira KORAN

Ishik University, Erbil, Iraq

elvira.koran@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

Since the introduction of the term – Communicative Competence as a concept became a cornerstone of sociolinguistics and acquired great importance in teaching any foreign language. Communicative competence is the intuitive functional knowledge and control of the principles of language usage. For decades since the advent of communicative language learning in TEFL the practice has experienced decline and stagnation. EFL learners in most cases end their studies without communicative competence in the target language, lacking interaction skills, intuition and knowledge of rules of interpreting the language, unable to appropriately respond to different verbal and non-verbal situations. This is partly caused by the fact that the non-native language teachers themselves do not possess the competence and are not aware of the necessity to teach it. This study aims to disclose whether the EFL/ESL teachers possess the communicative competence in English and what degree of awareness of the necessity to teach it they have.

Key words: Communicative Competence, English Language Teaching, Interaction Skills, Pragmatic Competence, Sociolinguistic Competence

1. INTRODUCTION

Goal of any language program is to teach a language, in our case it is English. One of the aims of teaching a language is to foster the *communicative competence* of the learners in the target language. The term

communicative competence is comprised of two notions, *communication* and *competence*. Thus their combination means “the ability (the competence) to communicate”. If we are to define these words separately then the definition of the word communication according to Canale (1983, p.4) is as follows: “.. the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes.” While the term communication and its meaning are to a large extent clear, the term competence has been long disputed by the scholars of different fields including sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication, linguistics and applied linguistics. Introduction of the term competence, as opposed to performance, is associated with Noam Chomsky (1965), when he drew a distinct line between the two terms in his revolutionary work “Aspects of Theory of Syntax”. According to Chomsky, competence refers to speaker’s/hearer’s knowledge about language while performance refers to the actual use of that knowledge. Thus, competence in this sense can also be called *linguistic competence*. (Stern, 1992) Soon after the introduction of the concept of (linguistic) competence, followers of communicative approach such as Sandra Savignon (1972) opposed the notion on the grounds that purely linguistic knowledge should not and cannot serve as the sole basis for language teaching, learning and testing. Instead, they found an alternative in Hymes’s (1972) notion of ‘communicative competence’ which involves not only the knowledge of grammatical rules of a language but also the knowledge of what is appropriate and not so in any given social context.

Since the advent of the term, there have been many models proposed by different scholars. One of the most frequently used and popular ones is the model proposed by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980) and Canale (1983). According to their initial model, the term consists of three components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. In 1983 Canale added discourse competence to the model. Grammatical competence is similar to Chomsky’s linguistic competence, the second component sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of sociocultural rules and norms of the society where the language is spoken; the ability to compensate and repair possible breakdowns in communication by the speaker is referred to as strategic competence; and final component of the model is discourse competence which is the ability to connect and organize the sentences and utterances into meaningful and coherent discourse. Although pragmatic competence is not pointed out as a standalone component in this model, it is an important part of sociolinguistic competence of the framework.

In 1990, Lyle Bachman, a language tester proposed his own model of the term communicative competence and its components which he named communicative language ability. He divided the concept into components like language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms. Pragmatic competence, one of the two primary foci of our study along with the sociolinguistic competence, is a separate part of language ability, according to Bachman's framework. Language competence consists of two parts:

Organizational competence: a) grammatical competence b) textual competence

Pragmatic competence: a) illocutionary competence b) sociological competence

This model evolved from the previously described model of communicative competence by Canale and Swain (1980, 1983) and if compared to it there are quite a few points where both are consonant and some other aspects where they differ. Grammatical competences in both models are similar while Bachman's textual competence is a mixture of Canale and Swain's discourse and strategic competences primarily because it combines techniques for maintaining coherence and cohesion along with the conventions for turn-taking, starting and ending a conversation.

Pragmatic competence is composed of illocutionary and sociological competences. The ability to convey messages with variety of functions and to interpret utterances correctly is called illocutionary competence. The knowledge of appropriateness which is another analogous component in both of the previously mentioned models is another part of pragmatic competence.

Another model to be discussed and reviewed in this study is the model developed by Council of Europe in 2001. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, commonly abbreviated as CEFR or CEF is a very important reference document which was developed by the Council between 1989 and 1996 in an attempt to standardize language teaching, learning and assessment. It was initially intended to serve as a reference in teaching, learning and assessing European languages, however, it is increasingly being used in other parts of the world as well.

In CEFR, communicative competence is primarily referred to as knowledge with three basic components such as language competence, pragmatic competence and sociolinguistic competence. Language

competence is knowledge of the form such as grammar, semantics, phonology etc. of a language.

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to use language appropriately in any given social situation and context which includes the knowledge of the politeness norms of the target culture, taboos, address terms, expressions of folk-wisdom such as proverbs, sayings and idioms, differences in register and being able to recognize differences in dialects and accents are one of the primary concerns of the term.

Pragmatic competence is another subcomponent of the framework which is subdivided into two subcompetences: discourse and functional competences. Planning and or design competence is a part of both of the above components of pragmatic competence and is ability to order and sequence messages, sentences according to the interactional schemata of the target language. In other words, as was summarized in Elvira Koran's work (2015), pragmatic competence is concerned with the user's knowledge of patterns according to which the sentences are organized and sequenced (discourse competence), used to carry out communicative functions (functional competence) and ordered according to the interactional and transactional schemata (design/planning competence).

1.1. TEACHING SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND PRAGMATIC COMPETENCES

In order to be communicatively competent, i.e. able to use the language communicatively, learners need to be instructed with a new approach Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), to which the notion of communicative competence is of central importance. CLT is a rather broad approach to language teaching rather than a method with clear cut instructions and prescribed classroom practices. Brown (1994) provides us with six key words which summarize the approach: learner-centered, cooperative (collaborative), interactive, integrated, content-centered, and task-based.

The debate over the issue of whether pragmatic and sociolinguistic competences can be taught arises over the general debate whether instruction affects SLA (Second Language Acquisition). A review of the studies held on this subject reveal that instruction has an effect on SLA. The majority of studies showed that explicit instruction is very much effective in teaching pragmatic competence which is significantly intertwined with sociolinguistic competence. (House, 1996, Kubota, 1995, Pearson, 1998; Takahashi, 2001) In light of the information above, we are naming a few techniques to EFL teachers that, when incorporated into their language instruction, can make it

more communicatively oriented. These are using audio-visual materials, explicit teaching of speech acts and role-play.

The use of audio-video material is particularly important in an EFL situation where exposure to the target language is bound to be limited as opposed to ESL, where there might be no particular need for such a technique. Communication is much more than simple exchange of verbal utterances and interpretation thereof, but includes the sense of appropriateness along the non-verbal means of communications such as gestures, mimics and even silence. Video materials can act as a very good source and illustration of the aforementioned aspects of communication. These may be news reports, conversation between socially equals, vs. non-equals performing various speech acts such as requests, apology, compliments etc., or the recordings of the students themselves performing or acting out various communicative situations.

Performative use of language, i.e. speech acts are an area of language that is of primary concern and interest to both sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences and are a component of the language where many language learners have difficulties irrespectively of their general target language proficiency. Explicit teaching of the most common speech acts such as making requests/invitations/compliments, ways of apologizing/agreeing/disagreeing/congratulating, giving orders/condolences etc. is certainly a good idea along with giving general information about the target culture. For example, while teaching ways of apologizing it might be very much useful to inform the students that, for instance, Americans more or less tend to include explanations to their apologies as to why and how something happened that lead them to a situations where they need to apologize. (Yoshida et al., 2000)

Going back to Brown's (1994) six key words defining CLT, it can be said that role-plays are a sole activity that more or less encompasses them all. In addition, they provide the learners with a chance of practicing what they have learned including the aforementioned sociocultural norms of communication and speech acts.

Based on the review of the literature above it can be said that the notion of communicative competence and two of its key components: sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, is relatively new and often overlooked in language instruction. The present study aims to investigate to whether the non-native EFL teachers are aware of the importance of teaching communicative competence (sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences), and to what extent they themselves possess it.

2. METHODOLOGY

Method: A two part survey was designed. The first part consists of 9 questions that intend to measure the degree of awareness of the importance of teaching communicative competence. Questions 1-4 are rating questions where respondents need to rate each of them from 1 to 5 in accordance with their importance. Question 5 includes 6 items that are answered by selecting a word most appropriate to the respondents from the *never-always* range. Questions 6,7,8,9 are semi-structured multiple choice questions where the respondents can either choose an answer from the provided choices or select “other” and specify their own answer. The second part of the survey is designed to briefly test English teachers’ level of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences and has 3 sections. In section 1 there are 5 statements that need to be matched with the appropriate answer.

Participants: The survey above was conducted to 10 English teachers (5 male and 5 female) all of whom are teachers in a language school. The name of the school will not be disclosed so as not to attract direct criticism. Their years of teaching experience range from 1-15. Two of the respondents are holders of Master’s Degree in areas related to EFL.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Teachers’ Evaluation Of: The Communicative Competence And Its Importance, Of Themselves As Models Of Communicatively Competent Speakers Of The Language, And Of The Curriculum In Terms Of Its Value In Developing The Competence

Table 1. Rating questions for teachers.

No:	<i>1-least to 5-most</i>	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	Average
1	How much important communicative competence, namely, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences are for EFL/ESL learners?	4	4	4	3	5	5	2	5	3	4	3,9
2	How much do you serve as a model of communicatively competent	2	5	4	3	4	5	2	4	3	3	3,5

English speaker for students?												
How much freely and appropriately do you use apologies, requests, greetings, etc. in English?												
3		2	4	3	3	3	5	2	5	2	3	3,2
How much the syllabus and the curriculum of English you use focus on teaching communicative competence?												
4		3	4	3	2	5	4	2	4	3	3	3,3

The four questions that were asked in order to evaluate EFL/ESL teachers' level of awareness of the importance of teaching communicative competence revealed that most of the teachers realise it is absolutely important to teach learners to communicate in the target language. The average of all answers equals 3.9 points on a scale from 1 meaning least important/so/of the time to 5 meaning most important/of the time/so etc. The average of the answers to the second question equals 3.5 on the same scale, which means that the teachers' evaluation of their own level of communicative competence is quite above the average. The answers to the third question, and their average of 3.2 reveals that although most of the time the language teachers can appropriately use strategies for apologizing/requesting/ greeting, etc., there are times when they think their knowledge of the aforementioned speech acts is limited. The last question on the table shows that the curriculum and syllabi used by the teachers covers and focuses on communicative competence 3.3 of the time, out of 5.

3.2. The Frequency Of The Teaching Components Of Sociolinguistic And Pragmatic Competences

Table 2. Frequency of teaching components of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

1-never; 2-seldom; 3-sometimes; 4- always												
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	Average	
How often do you teach:	apologies, greeting forms, invitations, expressing gratitude, agreeing/disagreeing, address forms, requests?											
	3	4	4	2	4	4	2	4	3	4	3,4	

<i>distinction between formal and informal English</i>	3	4	4	2	4	3	3	4	2	3	3,2
<i>politeness norms and rules in English</i>	2	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	2	3	3,1
<i>English proverbs and idioms</i>	2	3	2	2	4	2	2	4	2	2	2,5
<i>differences between British vs. American Englishes</i>	2	3	3	1	4	3	2	4	2	2	2,6
<i>cultural issues of English-speaking nations</i>	2	2	3	2	4	3	2	4	2	2	2,6

According to the data given in the table above (Table 2), the most frequently taught components of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences are: apologies, greeting forms, invitations, expressing gratitude, ways of agreeing/disagreeing, address forms and requests. They are taught 3.4 times out of 4. Differences in register, such as formal vs. informal are taught quite often as well, with the average of 3.2 out of 4, which means they are taught more frequently than sometimes. Politeness conventions and rules in English are taught “*sometimes*” which can be seen from an average of 3.1 which is slightly more frequent than “*sometimes*”. The remaining components such as proverbs and idioms in English (2.5), British English vs. American English (2.6) and cultural issues of English-speaking nations (2.6) are taught “*seldom*” to “*sometimes*”

3.3. Teaching And Testing Communicative Competence, And The Source Of The Teachers’ Communicative Competence And Ways Of Teaching It

Table 3. Teaching and testing communicative competence.

Questions	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	Explanation
Which methods of and activities for teaching communicative competence do you use in the classroom?	2, 3	1	2	3	1	1,3	2	1,3	3	3	1-Explicit teaching, 2-role play, 3-audio video material 4-PowerPoint 5-other
How do you test students' communicative competence?	2	5	2	2	5	2	2	2,3	2	2	1-tests; 2-role-play; 3-interviews; 4-other
Where and how did you acquire communicative competence, in English? (sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences)	5	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1-university; 2-on my own; 3-English courses; 4-Teacher Training courses; 5-other
Where did you study methods of teaching communicative competence?	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1-university; 2-on my own; 3-English courses; 4-Teacher Training courses; 5-other

Findings of the study regarding the ways for teaching and testing communicative competence reveal that most of the time teachers teach the competence through the demonstration of audio-video material (6 out of 10), four out of 10 teachers teach the competence explicitly and three of the teachers teach it through role-plays. Three of the teachers combine at least the two ways. Seven of the 10 respondents test the learners' competence through role-plays, two of the 10 use other ways: one of them through writing tasks and the other respondent tests the learners through their presentations. One respondent combines role plays and interview for the testing purposes.

Six of the respondents pointed out that they themselves acquired communicative competence on their own, three responded by saying they acquired it at the university during their studies for BA, MA or PhD degrees. One of them responded by stating that she has not yet acquired the

competence. Six respondents say that they learned methods and ways for teaching communicative competence during their studies at the university, two of which during PhD studies and the remaining during their studies for BA degree. Four respondents learned the methods on their own, during their teaching career.

3.4. A Brief Test For Assessing The Teachers’ Level Of Communicative Competence

Table 4. Results of a brief test for teachers on communicative competence.

Brief Test	Number of correct answers										Average
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	R9	R10	
Items											
Matching Test 1 (out of 5)	3	5	1	1	3	5	1	5	2	2	2.8
Matching Test 2 (out of 5)	3	1	2	1	5	5	2	3	2	2	2.6
Total	6	6	3	2	8	10	3	8	4	4	5.4

The teachers were give the two following matching tasks, containing 5 items each, 10 in total, where they had to match two appropriate and related statements.

Match the questions with the responses

Can you lend me \$100?	Serves you right.
I have eaten too much. I feel ill.	OK. Suit yourself.
Where were you last night?	That’ll be the day.
I think I’d rather go to a pub.	You must be joking.
I’ll pay you back soon.	Mind your own business.

Advanced Vocabulary and Idiom/ B J Thomas/ Longman /1995/ p.87

Match the statements with the responses

Guess what! I won \$ 5 million on the lottery! surprise?	Where’s the
One of my students told me I was a lousy teacher.	What a drag!
My team lost again last weekend. kidding!	You are
Have you heard that Jim is leaving to go to another job?	What a cheek!

I missed the last bus and had to walk home.
riddance.

Good

New Headway Advanced Student's book/ Liz and John Soars /Oxford
University Press/ 2003/ p.62

The mean of each of the tasks is only slightly above the average (2.8 and
2.6, 5.4 in total).

4. DISCUSSIONS

It can be clearly seen from the findings of the study that the English teachers believe that teaching the learners to be communicatively competent is crucial. It can also be concluded that their own view of themselves in terms of their own communicative competence is quite high, although in reality it might not really be so, especially when we look at it in the light of this study which revealed that the participants could answer the question correctly only 5.4 of the time out of 10. We would also like to add in this section of the study that this study also includes the author's observation of her colleagues while they were engaged in a conversation with a native speaker of English; the data is purely empirical and qualitative in nature that is why it is not included in the results section. It was observed that whenever the respondents needed to make culture-specific utterances such as receiving and responding to compliments, expressing condolences, saying proverbs, wishing their interlocutors to enjoy their lunch, etc. they were making utterances that were grammatically correct but not appropriate in a given situation and most of the time they were engaging in pragmatic transfer, i.e. they were translating equivalents and patterns for the aforementioned speech acts from their native language. This might be the most important reason why they do not teach components of socio-pragmatic competence such as proverbs and idioms in English, difference between British and North American English, and general information about English speaking countries' culture at all or do so very seldom. And again this might be the primary reason why their students, as in a vicious cycle, have to learn the components above on their own like the majority of the respondents of this study.

Although the scope of the present study is quite limited with only ten participants I believe it is quite representative of the problems of EFL teachers in this respect. They did not receive enough training in this respect and probably are having troubles in teaching the learners the competence. I would like to mention that literature on TEFL methodology has greatly changed recently and going on to change: in new books we can encounter new words and concepts such as pragmatics, functions, sociolinguistics

alongside the centuries old grammar, morphology, syntax, phonology, phonetics, lexis, which means a lot of importance is attached to them, but as already mentioned, teachers lack training in this respect and the aim of the current study was to attract more attention to this issue and make a contribution to the improvement of the professionalism and competences of the EFL/ESL teachers.

5. REFERENCES

- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, D. H. (1994). *Teaching by Principles. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Canale, M. (1983). From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In R. W. Jack C. Richards, *Language and Communication* (pp. 2-27). London: Longman.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Massachussets: MIT Press.
- Europe, C. o. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- House, J. (1996). Developing Pragmatic Fluency in English as a Foreign Language: Routines and Metapragmatic Awareness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 225-252.
- Hymes, D. (1972). *On Communicative competence*. In J.B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). London: Penguin.
- K. Yoshida, S. U. (2000). *Heart to Heart: Overcoming Barriers in Cross-Cultural Communication*. Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.
- Koran, E. (2015). Practical Value of EFL Textbooks For Teaching Main Aspects of Communicative Competence (Sociolinguistic and Pragmatic Competences). *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications (IJONTE)*, 6(1), 28-37.

- Kubota, M. (1995). Teachability of Conversational Implicature to Japanese EFL learners? *The Institute for Research in Language Teaching Bulletin (IRLT Bulletin)*(9), 35-67.
- Lyle Bachman, A. P. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Michael Canale, M. S. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics* 1, 1-47.
- Pearson, L. (1998). Spanish L2 Pragmatics: The Effects of Metapragmatic Discussion. *Second Language Research Forum*. Manoa: University of Hawaii at Manoa.
- Savignon, S. (1972). *Communicative Competence: An Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.
- Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and Options in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Takahashi, S. (2001). The Role of Input Enhancement in Developing Pragmatic Competence. In G. K. K. R. Rose, *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The Role of English in Present Day Higher Education

Eman Abdulsalam AL-Khalil

MA Linguistics- Translation Studies

Assistant Lecturer – Salahaddin University

E. mail address: emansalam64@gmail.com

Abstract

In today's global world and with the help of modern technology, English has become the most common and dominant language spoken and used both at the national and international levels. It has been playing a major role in many sectors as medicine, engineering, politics, economics, international relations, and higher education in particular, the most important area where English is needed. It has also become a medium of instruction at universities in a large number of countries, a basic means of second language learning / teaching, an accessing source of modern knowledge and scientific research, and a means of global communication and earn living.

It is realized nowadays at the level of Higher Education in many countries around the world, in addition to EU countries as Germany, Turkey, China, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, Japan, Australian, India ..., the significance of providing education in English side by side with their natives. Hence, serious steps have taken to improve the quality of instruction in English at the administrative, academic, students', publications and research levels. And in order to prove English language international power, it goes beyond its tertiary. Many English language proficiency, training and degree programs are managed not only inside but also abroad for internationalization of higher education to keep it up to date.

However, this paper signifies the role of English in modern education, particularly in higher education sector and the role of modern technology in promoting English language learning / teaching quality to meet the standards, communication needs and cultural exchange across the world.

Keywords: English language, higher education, internationalization, modern technology.

1. Introduction

The increasing demand for English language in higher education and research over the last decades is often assumed to be "a parallel and unavoidable process resulting in improved international academic communication worldwide". (Balan, 2011) Due to the importance of English as an international language whereby education and cultures are exchanged at all levels. It comprises a major tool for obtaining academic degrees programs. Alongside with the role of internet and multimedia in global communication, English becomes nowadays popular, widely used as a means of instruction in a large number of educational institutions, language centers and universities, a pathway to accessing all fields of knowledge and academic research sources across the world and a best tool for foreign language learning/teaching.

2. The concept of Education

Education in its general sense is "a form of learning in which the knowledge, skills, values, beliefs and habits of a group of people are transferred from one generation to the next through discussion, teaching, training, and / or research." (Wikipedia).

In other words, Education is a process of enlightenment and empowerment through which individuals can develop their skills and abilities to developing and secure a better quality of human life. It aims at the growth of body, mind, intellect and soul. It also brings change in behavior and nurtures good qualities of citizenship like morality, honesty and humanity. And no one can deny that by education one can't perform successfully in any aspect of life.

Education is normally obtained by learners themselves or by others guidance. Any experience that has a formative effect on the way one thinks, feels, or acts may be considered educational. Education is obtained at

different ages and levels from childhood up to the end of life. It is always a very important requirement that can't be dispensed with anytime.

At the academic level, Education is "the knowledge of basic skills; academic, technical disciplines, citizenship and best processing that knowledge using inspiration, visionary ambitions, creativity, risk, and motivation". (Webb, 2000) To Webb, these skills are mainly depend on understanding the value of knowledge, best experienced and measured inside the class. As such, many super achievers, as Thomas Edison who never finished school, have succeeded because they knew how to research information for a selected project and best processing that knowledge to the service of humans' needs.

Thus, pleasing the teacher to get high grades in the exams is sufficient to create motivation for knowledge-processing skills, but rather how the latter is accompanied by a professional skill that fulfils life requirements. For instance, natural skills students intuitively have, if not measured by tests and students performance if not academically challenged, they don't have value by themselves. For what is exercised inside the class grows stronger, especially when the available information are processed by problem-solving procedure, the competition created among students to drilling, tasking, answering questions and trouble shooting.

In other words, "Education should be a lifetime experience" (Webb, 2000), not restricted to age to overcome barriers. It inspires and is developed throughout students' interest in learning that goes on with them during their lives. Typical employers nowadays are hiring well educated and highly qualified graduates for academic posts and business jobs.

E-learning, on the other hand, becomes nowadays an educational pattern that the present education system completely depends on. It concerns students' motivations, challenges and interests, on one hand, and their intellectual talents on the other to learn and search in an easiest and most up-to-date ways sidestepping with textbooks within which students are able to develop the interest of learning as a lifelong process.

3. English as a Tool for Obtaining Global Education

In the present time, English becomes the most important and vivid means of global communication which prevents our isolation from the world, and a window to the rapid progress and development in all spheres of life. It is the most spread and commonly used language among different nations and individuals worldwide for cultural and educational exchange. In addition, the

use of English language becomes now a must not only at the level of local but global education as well. Many countries long ago have started making use of English and have even been promoting the benefit its use for education receivers as globally useful language for further studies in future. (Balan, 2011) Hence, if students abroad study from a non-English medium, may have problems.

Moreover, modern education, as English is its best means, is always given primary importance to the international education systems. Many countries over the world often organize some special programs in- and outside the country which aim at increasing learners' number in their own countries. Many scholars and academics are sent out of their countries in pursuit of higher education and academic degrees, whatever their ages, cultures or specializations. Special programs of English language training and cultural exchange are designed to help students and instructors practice the use of English in natively English speaking communities, as UK, USA, Canada and Australia, etc. to keeping them up-to date with the modern English spoken worldwide and teaching methods of ESL/EFL. (Balan, 2011)

Today, English has multipurpose social and educational services. It is used as medium of instruction in a large number of universities in the national and international world. Now, it has realized by all countries the necessity of providing education to its citizens in English (Balan, 2011). Every country now demands their governors, representatives, officials or professionals to draw their students and learners attention to the language which will be helpful both in improving the standard of one's living and will directly or indirectly help to enhance the country's economy. Because, if education is received in this medium then it will allow an individual to develop more professionally and will invite chances of gaining success for respecting the country in the fields of economy, politics, science and technology, arts, medicine etc.

The dominance of English in international academic publications on the other hand, has increased during the last few decades. The vast majority of indexed science journals, including those previously published in other languages, have shifted to English from French, Germany, Spanish and Russian to acquire a broader international authorship and readership, and to reach higher impact (number of citations). English language journals have increased the proportion of authors from non-Anglo countries –although proportionally their communities are underrepresented-- while non-English

language journals have become mostly national or regional in scope. (Balan, 2011)

Added to that, English becomes the main language of scientific communication and SSH (Social Sciences and Humanities); it is now dominant in some disciplines, such as Medicine, Mathematics, Science, Computer Science, Psychology, Literature, History, and Anthropology. Books of these fields are now available in English in addition to the original versions of the national languages in many countries such as China, India, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Turkey.

4. Modern Technology and English Language Teaching & Learning

Simply, Technology could be defined as “the systematic application of scientific and other organized knowledge to practical tasks”. (Moursund & Bielefeldt, 1999). It is implemented to facilitate peoples' life. The term in fact is loosely used to encompass various computer applications that are integrated into the learning process. It is a complex, dynamic, and ever-changing part of our society and the world of today. Computer applications are currently employed in the field of education to facilitate instruction and learning process. In other words, technology could be anything that helps us in our life, electronic and non-electronic.

Due to the rapid development of human civilization, life has witnessed huge and over controlled changes in all its aspects including its educational organizations to keep pace with the changing environment. Technology has played a vital role in this revolution which is reflected throughout the use of computer applications in classroom language. In teaching and learning English, a variety of devices are employed such as radios, TVs, CD players, computers, the internet, electronic dictionaries, audio cassettes, Power point videos, Skype, DVDs, etc. (Nomass, 2012)

One of the advantages of modern technology is the use of Internet and software which has started a new era in all aspects of our lives, specifically in education. As a result, both English language teaching and learning are facilitated. Students now learn faster and easier than before by using technology. Computer based effective teaching and implementation of computational tools offer powerful, interesting and new ways of providing knowledge to students. Thus teaching in physical classroom becomes now a

dominant form of delivering lectures, instead of the boring traditional teaching styles.

In addition using technology by teachers has been so successful and influential to achieving the intended targets throughout the effective adoption of teaching strategies. Web-based technologies and powerful internet connections provide various new possibilities for the development of educational technology, online learning and multimedia teaching. (Madhavaiah, 2013)

Furthermore, technology helps in making teaching more interesting and productive. Different teaching methods both visual and auditory are adopted to an effectively teaching English in modern sense. With the spread and development of English language worldwide, it has been learned and spoken by a large number of people around the world.

As part of higher education plan to promote its educational organizations worldwide, it works harder to constantly training and developing their employees, instructors, and students to the effective and creative use of modern technology. From time to time, continuing education sections organize and run special training courses and programs to qualifying instructors on how to use technology and its various applications in their professionals. And in order to update and modernize their teaching styles, various strategies and methods of instruction are implemented in which technology are applied to meet students' needs in class enhancing learning new skills and abilities in subject matters, pedagogy, and educational technology. (Madhavaiah, 2013)

5. Internationalization of Higher Education

Internationalization means adopting English as an international language in Higher Education sector. In today's global world, and with the help of developing technology, English has played a major role in many sectors as medicine, engineering, business, scientific research, social sciences and humanities, and Higher Education, in particular, as medium of instruction. English for academic purposes (EAP), in addition to (GE) General English, and (ESP) English for specific purposes courses are taught to meet learners' different needs in many universities worldwide side by side with their natives, as in addition to EU (European Union) countries, such as in Germany, Turkey, China, Republic of Korea, Taiwan, Malaysia, Vietnam,

Thailand, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Mongolia, Japan, Australia and India. (Motteram, 2003)

Furthermore, EAP programs are especially started at tertiary institutions in the English speaking countries of UK, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. must meet language proficiency requirements before starting their studies. This is usually done in several ways, but the two most common are submission of a satisfactory English language proficiency exam score (as, TOEFL, IELTS) or completion of a recognized EAP preparatory program as 'pathways' to enroll EAP courses before they study in university content courses.

In the UK, as example, this is referred to as *pre-sessional* and *in-sessional* programming. North American institutions describe these courses as *sheltered* and *adjunct* courses. Sheltered, or pre-sessional courses, are more often meant to prepare students for general academic study, whereas in-session courses may well focus on specific disciplines, with the intention of having the EAP faculty work more closely with the content faculty to deal with the specific language demands of a certain subject. (Thompson, 2005)

6. Conclusion

No matter being in which country, what medium of instruction is, or what subjects are studied, English is truly there as an integral part of the studies or education.

For internationalization of higher education, English is not only locally but globally required as source of accessing students' major knowledge in all fields, communicating with the most reputed universities worldwide, pursuing a variety of degree programs and finding high-quality jobs and positions in educational institutions and foreign companies elsewhere.

7. Recommendations

Due to the international power of English as the most common language spoken worldwide, it is favored as medium of instruction in Higher Education institutions for many reasons:

First, it is used as a source of accessing scientific knowledge in the students' major fields. Students need it when accessing the required information from English resources and data to do their assignments, researches and projects.

Second, English is very much required to be able to study in the English speaking countries. If one prefers to migrate to some other country for obtaining degree programs, then an English is chosen as a means of studying in any reputed foreign university.

Third, as means of communicating with the international world. It is very necessary for university students and graduates to follow the development of technology when learning English and communicate with the international universities over the internet especially those who could not obtain education inside their countries. All the programs of the computer and internet are based on and written in English.

Fourth, it helps graduates of universities whose medium of instruction is English and who have good understanding ability and fluent English to find high-quality jobs in foreign companies. Those will be more efficient in their jobs, because they could find information from foreign sources, use their websites, do business, and communicate with other foreign companies.

References

- Aub-buscer, G. and Bickerton, D. (2002) "*Circles: The first decade 1991-2000.*" In Ruane, M.& Meijer's, G. (eds.) *Language Centers: The promotion of quality in language learning*, 205-216. Dublin: Circles.
- Council for Cultural Co-operation. (2001): *Common European Framework of Reference: Learning, teaching and assessment*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Crystal, D. (1997) : *The Future of Global English*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Dudley-Evans, T. & St John., M. J. (1998): *Developments in English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Balan, J. (2011): *English Global Dominance and the Other Languages of Higher Education & Research*. Published Article in Columbia Global Centre. Columbia University. 2014.
- Meyer, H. J. (1997): *Language centers and the international dimension of university life*. In Little, D. & Voss, B. (eds.). *Language Centers: Planning for the new millennium*, Plymouth: Circles.

Mitchell, R. (1996): *Language education and applied linguistics in a changing world*. In T. Hickey & J. Williams (eds.). *Language, Education and Society in a Changing World*, 7-20. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Madhavaiah, G., Nagaraju, Ch. & Peter, S. (2013): *Importance of Technology in Teaching and Learning English Language*. Research article Available online www.ijssr.org ISSN: 2279-0543. International Journal of S R & Reviews. Asst. Prof., Dept. of Science & Humanities, NBKRIST, Vidyanagar, Spsr Nellore, India.

Moursund, D. & Bielefeldt, T. : *Will new teachers be prepared to teach in a digital age?* A Research study by the International Society for Technology in Education, Milken. 1999;01(01): 01-03.

Motteram, G. (2003): *Innovations in Learning Technologies for English Language Teaching*. British Council. UK.

Nomass, B. B. (2012): *The Impact of Using Technology in Teaching English as a Second Language*. English Dept., College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq Correspondence: Online Published: February 22, 2013.

Thompson, P. (2005): *Assessing the contributions of corpora to EAP practice*, in Kantaridou, Z, Papadopoulou, I and Mahili, I (eds) *Motivation in Learning Language for Specific and Academic Purposes*.

Webb, C. B. (2000): *What is Education?* A Published Paper in Goose Creek, South Carolina, USA (2004).

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education>

Storytelling in EFL Classes

Emine Bala (Ma)

Department of English Language Teaching

Ishik University

emine.bala@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

Storytelling is one of the oldest ways of education and oral tradition that is continuously being used to transfer the previous nation's cultures, tradition and customs. It constructs a bridge between the new and the old. Storytelling in EFL classes usually provides a meaningful context, interesting atmosphere and is used as a tool to highly motivate students. Although it seems to be mostly based on speaking; on the other hand, it may be utilized to enhance other components of the language like writing, grammar, and listening. Storytelling is mainly regarded to be grounded on imitation and repetition; nevertheless many creative activities can be implemented in the classroom since this method directs learners to use their imaginations. The literature review on this study indicates that the importance of storytelling as a teaching method as well as it outlines the advantages of storytelling in EFL classes.

Key words: Creative, EFL classes, Motivate, Storytelling

1. INTRODUCTION

Students need to interact with their peers to acquire and generate language and practice new structures in order to be able to function in their

society. Developing gradually in language learning requires cooperation of the people, interesting and meaningful context, peaceful classroom atmosphere and engaging in the use of language structures. Children at their preliminary learning stage develop oral language skill rather than being able to write. They repeat the words or phrases what they hear from their teachers even though they cannot recognize the format of writing; however, remarkably repetition can provoke a notable advancement in vocabulary and structures (Dujmovic, 2006).

Regarding the language development steps, Chomsky (1972) points out that especially young children are not explained language in any formality; however, they gain it instinctively. Adults should supply interesting and encouraging atmosphere for the children.

Welcome and congratulations. You are a storyteller! Each of us is a storyteller from the moment we are born and cry out our first sounds: "Here I am! Where am I?" Perhaps it is not in formal language, but it is an easily understandable communication, telling the story of life. Storytelling enables us to be both lamp and mirror at the same moment. As a storyteller, we can present stories composed by someone else and thus reflect that person's idea; as listener, we can create the story in our own minds while mirroring back to the teller our experience of listening to the story. Either way, storytelling is joyful, full of life, and incorporating the joy of both the story and the event. (Spaulding, 2011, p.14).

Regarding to other teaching methods, storytelling may provide the learners more advantages to evolve in language learning. Not only are students introduced the new form of the language but they are also stimulated to reason the events in the story or make their own endings depending on their imagination and creativity. As a storyteller in the classroom, a teacher should make a sensation amongst the students, put forth questions or deliver answers. In order not to turn the lesson to preach, a teacher should avoid putting certain borders in students' minds; also he/she should remember that entertainment is necessary to keep telling the story (Spaulding, 2011). Wright (1997) indicates the stories depend much more on vocabulary and provide a wide and stable language experience for the students.

Storytelling are categorized into three stages: *pre-story* stage which includes warm-up activities that enable students to get ready for listening through presenting target vocabulary and using some realia like posters to capture the learners' attention to the story. Next step is *in-story* part that helps the students understand the context without worrying due to the pleasure in the atmosphere. The last step is *post-story* which contains follow up activities or telling the story that promotes students' anticipation skill or creativity (Ying-Li, 2010). The most important materials for storytelling are sounds, words, and language figures. Storytellers use voice, face, hands; that is, mimes and gestures (Dujmovic, 2006).

2. WHY STORYTELLING

Storytelling is the oldest teaching method. It has been transmitted to new civilization through tales from generation to generation. It has conveyed cultural values to the new owner. It represents a bridge that blends the new and the old. As a language teaching method, storytelling is assumed to promote other skills such as listening and speaking. Since the teacher supplies a comfortable atmosphere during storytelling, there is a great possibility to catch students' interests around the story and have them focus on the new items of the language. As a next step, students can bring about new products because of the activation of the imagination. In addition to no imagination constraints, students hear new forms of the language and try to remember and operate the new items of the language with their peers. It offers an integration of the new information with what the students have learned. Eventually, they can smoothly gain the target language as a result of drilling and an effective motivation tool to maintain language acquisition.

Recently, storytelling is regarded as one of the most significant way to teach English to EFL students. Stories are estimated to supply intelligible input that facilitates language learning (Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998, cited in Hendrickson 1992). Cooper (1993) points out that storytelling is an ideal method used by educators to affect the children and draw their attention to the story with enjoyment. In addition, it is believed to augment a child's

attention span, memory retention, enriching vocabulary and introducing new items of the language.

Wright (1997) points out some reasons such as motivation, meaning, fluency, language awareness, communication, etc. account for why stories should be regarded as one of the most crucial medium in teaching a foreign language to children. Unlike native speakers, the most significant ability is to be able to follow and perceive the flow of the foreign language because non-native speakers are not familiar with the vocabulary or the structure of the target language. In order to acquire listening and reading fluency, a teacher should persuade the students that it is normal not to understand everything in the story and assist them to build up for predicting and guessing. If the students are encouraged, they release their fears and they begin to understand and make connections between the events in the story. They can sequence the events, expand their point of views and develop their social intelligence competence. Then, they may accomplish to use the target language meaningfully within different context. Thus, they can be more generative with speaking fluency and accuracy. Stories also stimulate the students to increase awareness to get the language items and sentence constructions even if they do not have ability to use them properly. Furthermore, storytelling promotes the students how to listen, how to talk, how to respond, that is how to communicate in a community.

3. ADVANTAGES of STORYTELLING in EFL CLASSES

Storytelling has many advantages for social and emotional development. The storyteller and the listener construct a strong, relaxed and happy relationship during a story time. Storytelling encourages the learners to continue acquiring the language because it affects the students positively due to the entertainment and motivating role of storytelling. It also offers the students to work out their imagination by getting involved into the stories or identifying themselves as one of the character in the story.

Teachers use stories as introduction for listening or writing comprehension tasks. After being told story, students are asked to retell the story to their peers that progress their speaking ability, empowers their

memory while recalling the details and making reasonable connections between the events and also contribute to notice the use of proper structures (Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998).

In storytelling class, they share social experience and recognize different perspectives. Especially young learners do not get bored to listen to a story more than once. This repetition causes them to acquire language items unconsciously. Moreover they desire to participate in the narrative. Teachers find an opportunity to introduce or review the new vocabulary or sentence structures in more varied, memorable and familiar context (Dujmovic, 2006).

Storytelling appeals the students into a meaningful, interactive communication context, creates a cozy atmosphere and prepares them to learn the target language naturally. "Stories tell of our similarities and differences, our strengths and weaknesses, our hopes and dreams. They have the power to teach us understanding and tolerance. This is a powerful tool" (Fitzgibbon & Wilhelm 1998, cited in Holt and Mooney 1994)

In order to build up reading competency, students significantly need to get enough auditory and spoken language ability. Storytelling supplies crucial auditory input during social narrative communication (Dyson, 1991; Grugeon & Gardner, 2000; Hall, 1987; Nelson, 1989 as cited in Huang, H. 2006). Some researches show that storytelling develops vocabulary learning and the teachers should visualize, have attempts to influence the learners to listen to the story, and 'make semantic association of the new words' (Ellis & Beaton, 1995; Hatch & Brown, 1995; Hill, 1994; Kelly, 1992; Papagno, Balentine, & Baddeley, 1991; Schouten-van Parreren, 1992 as cited in Huang, H. 2006).

Storytelling may be assumed as a vital element to present the grammatical and syntactic features in interesting and meaningful context. Teachers may draw the learners' focus on the linguistic features and different tenses of the language (Huang, H. 2006). So the students first recognize the varied types of the structures and they may contextualize what they have gained through storytelling class.

4. CONCLUSION

It is assumed that storytelling method is one of the vital medium to teach the intended language item in EFL classes enriches the educators' teaching styles and brings about ample varied classroom activities. Since the learners blend their true life experiences with the stories told in the classroom they can easily involve in the learning process and they can reveal fruitful language production. This will enable them to recall better what they have learned in the classroom. Besides, learners will be able to acquire how to organize the events in their true lives.

Stories provide a rich and meaningful vocabulary context for the learners, so they can internalize the vocabulary in the stories in a shorter time because they usually personalize the characters in the stories and they recall the phrases and structures. As the learners activate their imagination during storytelling, stories offer them different patterns and thus they may be more productive in drilling. In addition, most of the stories carry a moral message that promotes the students to build up strong personalities.

Overall, EFL students need to be supported much more to make a notable progress in their language learning while studying with authentic materials. Therefore, the teacher applies storytelling method in his/her modern language classroom to facilitate and accelerate the learning process although it requires extra loads for preparation before the course (Huang, H. 2006).

REFERENCES

- Chomsky, C. (1972). Stages in Language Development and Reading Exposure. *Harvard Educational Review*, 42, 1-33.
- Cooper, P. (1993). *When Stories Come to School*. New York: Teachers and Writers Collaborative.
- Dujmovic, M. (2006). Storytelling as a Method of EFL Teaching. *Methodological Horizons*, 1(1), 75-88.
- Fitzgibbon, H.B. & Wilhelm, K.H. (1998). Storytelling in ESL/EFL Classrooms. *TESL Reporter*, 31(2), 21-31
- Huang, H. (2006). The Effects of Storytelling on EFL Young Learners' Reading Comprehension and Word Recall. *English Teaching & Learning*, 30(3), 51-74
- Spaulding, A.E. (2011). *The Art of Storytelling*. United Kingdom: Scarecrow Press, Inc.
- Wright A. (1997). *Creating Stories with Children*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ying-Li, C. (2010) Classroom Interaction in Story-Based Lessons with Young Learners. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 12(2), 290.

An Evaluation of the Teaching of “General English for University Students” at Salahaddin University-Erbil

Prof. Fatimah Rashid Hasan

College of Languages, University of Salahaddin

fatimah.hassan@mhe-krq.org

Asst. Lecturer Yousif Ali Omer

College of Languages, University of Salahaddin

yousif_alio@yahoo.com

Asst. Lecturer Muhammad Abdulwahab Aziz

College of Education, University of Salahaddin

muhammadaaziz85@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

University of Salahaddin, a state-funded university in Kurdistan Region-Iraq, has recently reformed the English language module of university freshmen of all majors apart from English departments. General English for University Students (GEfUS), as a main course book, has been introduced to this population, which has been developed by Garnet Education in collaboration with curriculum development experts at Salahaddin University – Erbil. This paper attempts to evaluate the teaching of this text book using questionnaire to collect data from the teachers who taught this material. The questionnaire included a number of various aspects in relation to teaching and application of the book. The practitioners' specialization, class size, teaching methods, facility, teacher preparation and training

188

courses, culture and social differences are among the important aspects that have been investigated. The results show that there is a lack of teacher training for teachers who taught this module. The absence of appropriate facilities required to be used in the English classes was also among the main findings. The class size, on the other hand, was a major hindrance to achievement of the objectives of the book. Another result shows that the book, especially the first theme, does not reflect the study and social life of Kurdish university students. Adapting the student-centeredness approach to teaching GEfUS, the teachers encountered a number of obstacles namely large class size, shortage of time and the length of the text. The paper ends with presenting a number of suggestions for developing the teaching of this course.

Keyword: Context, Curriculum development, Needs analysis, SUH

1. INTRODUCTION

English language as a foreign language (EFL) has long been taught in almost all different departments of Salahaddin University – Hawler (SUH) colleges. EFL was especially introduced to all departments in the last decade. This has been because of the political and economic transformation in the early 2000s. Until 2013 there was not a prescribed textbook to be taught at all departments. This offered much leeway to the individual tutors to develop the content of this subject by themselves. In 2013 (Progressive Skills in English, Level 1) (Phillips, etl. 2012) was slightly customized and titled General English for University Students (GEfUS) by Garnet Publishing in collaboration with SUH, and it was offered to all SUH freshmen. The term General is often misinterpreted to mean everyday English. However, this material offers academic English and the word “General” is used to mean learning the basics of English Language in all departments of SUH.

GEfUS is an academic English language course (comprising course book with audio CDs and DVD, workbook with audio CD and teacher’s book)

for the first year students, freshmen, at SUH, which aims at preparing students to learn the skills required for academic life such as lectures, tutorials, reading research and written assignments in English. In this course, students are familiarized with the major types of academic spoken language, lectures and seminars, and the key patterns of academic written language, journal articles and encyclopedia entries (Phillips, et al., 2012).

GEfUS was initially taught two hours per week and later extended to four hours a week, despite all the limitations caused ahead of this extension with regards to halls, number of teachers and other facilities. The number of hours dedicated for covering this material can be sufficient provided that the freshmen start their courses in November each year.

Critical thinking and student-centeredness are two main aspects integrated in the GEfUS activities to promote them among the students. Critical thinking is developed here to encourage the students to ask and evaluate information and relate them to their own lives and the world around them. Students are aimed to be transferred from the questions *what* and *when* to *why* and *how* throughout the course. From this perspective, the learners are not only supposed to describe things but it is hoped that they will be equipped with strategies necessary for evaluating and criticizing things.

A major focus has been put on student-centeredness in this course book through enabling them to be autonomous learners. Students have to be encouraged to seek knowledge by themselves and not to regard their teachers as only sources of information. The learners have to do research and give presentation to their peers.

There are some fundamental principles as reviewed in the literature that should be taken into account when designing a course for specific population: needs analysis, situation analysis, formulation of goals and objectives, content and material, teaching methodology, teacher, assessment, and course evaluation (Hoyt-Oukada, 2003; Nation and Macalister, 2010; Richards, 2009).

Environment or situation analysis has been widely published by researchers. It has also been coined constraint analysis (Richards, 2001). The situation analysis is a base for goals and objectives of any course. It forms a foundation for teaching methodology and assessment (Nation and Macalister, 2010). Such an analysis determines whether the prospective practitioners need to be trained, and it also helps course designers to take the facilities of the context into account-without which a course is likely to fail (ibid).

According to Nunan (1988), needs analysis embraces the fundamental components of the course namely, content, methodology, length, and the duration of the course. The existing literature shows that there is a general consensus among researchers on the role of needs analysis to identify the level of the students and to take the students from what they already know to what they need to know (Richards, 2001; Nation and Macalister, 2010). Research has confirmed correlation between students' interest in enrolling language classes and understanding their perceived needs. Such an understanding promotes "a sense of self-efficacy and feelings of

accomplishment, nurturing enthusiasm, interest, and volition” (Hoyt-Oukada, 2003, p. 721).

Specifying objectives encounters setting language ideas, skills, and texts, and this makes designing and evaluating courses feasible (Nation and Macalister, 2010). Brown (1995) mentions that goals have to be interpreted into more specific objectives. Such a breaking down contributes to evaluating and assessing the learners’ achievement (Nation and Macalister, 2010). Clear description of goals brings about effective course programmes (Richards, 1991).

Content as one of a fundamental aspect of curriculum design has to be developed based on the objectives driven from the needs analysis. As far as Richards (2001) is concerned, content selection relies on “subject-matter knowledge, the learners’ proficiency levels, current views on second language learning and teaching, conventional wisdom, and convenience” (148).

2. METHODOLOGY AND CONTEXT BACKGROUND

In this section, the research question is presented. Choice of context and the research method are rationalized. There is also a consideration for participants, procedure, and issues and limitations.

This research aims at finding the applicability of “General English for University Students” (GEfUS) in the context of University of Salahaddin in Erbil, Kurdistan Region. This context has been selected as this course book has newly been introduced to freshmen of Salahaddin University. To this end, questionnaire (See Appendix I) is used to collect data from the practitioners who have taught this course. Questionnaire has widely been used in language teaching research as a main tool for gathering information from participants under scrutiny for its simplicity, ease of construction, and its efficacy of gathering huge amount of information in short periods of time (Dornyei and Taguchi, 2010). Processing data collected from questionnaire is more practical than from other tools (Denscombe, 2008).

The population of this study is Salahaddin University teachers holding Master’s or Doctorate degrees in different fields with having different years of English language teaching experience. These individuals were particularly selected to be involved in this study to find out their perspectives on adopting this new course book. The questionnaire was sent out via email message to 70 GEfUS teachers of different colleges and departments of Salahaddin University. Out of this number 30 questionnaires were completed and returned. The teachers voluntarily participated in this study, and they

were assured of their anonymity and confidentiality of their information processed.

There were ten sections in the questionnaire including the following aspects in relation to the application of GEfUS: The practitioners' specialization, class size, teaching methods, facility, teacher preparation and training courses, culture and social differences are among the important aspects that have been investigated.

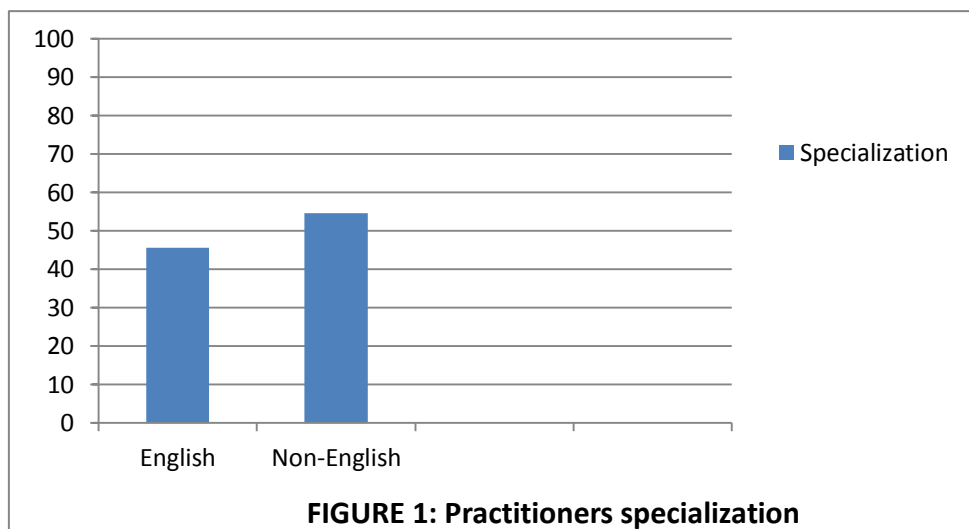
Validity and reliability of the questionnaire have been touched upon in this present study. Validity has been ensured by precise structure and clear instruction of the items to avoid biased information (Bryman, 2004; Denzin, 1970). Reliability, on the other hand, has been realized by presenting detailed information about the study procedure. Late responses from the participants and partial completion were main limitations of this study.

3. FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This section analyses and discusses the findings of this study. Analysis of the main questionnaire items will firstly be presented followed by providing their interpretations. It is worth mentioning that there are some items of the questionnaire which have neither been analyzed nor discussed in this paper. The reason behind that stems from the fact that this questionnaire was originally developed for GEfUS evaluation report upon its first year application in which the researchers were involved. Later the researchers decided to use the data of some items for writing the present paper. Below are the items that have been analyzed and discussed in this section.

3.1. TEACHERS' SPECIALIZATIONS

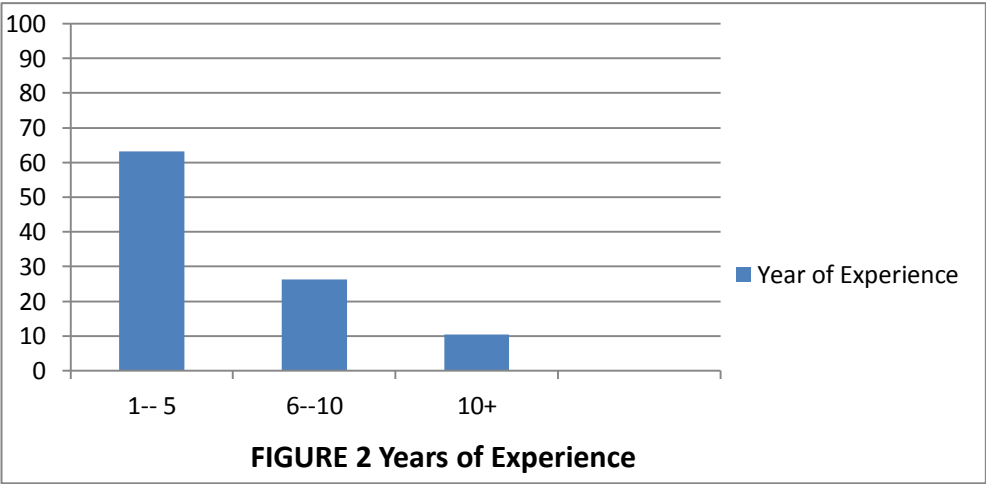
It is immediately apparent from the data that 54.5% of the practitioners were not specialized in English language, and only 45.5% were English specialists, as shown in (Figure 1) below.



This was interpreted as one of the most challenging issues in the application of this course. According to the University of Salahaddin regulations, on the other hand, teachers who are supposed to teach this new course book have to hold Master's or PhD degree in English language. However, non-English specialists who had good mastery of English language were assigned to teach this text book because of two reasons: the lack of English specialized teachers, and the large number of teachers required to teach this course in all departments. Based on this finding, the office of curriculum development in the University was prompted to institute new policy that did not allow non-English specialists to teach this module in the following years. Teachers from English language departments at SUH and recent Master graduates in English language related majors were assigned to teach this new course book.

3.2. YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Data also shows that most of the teachers 63.2% have one to five years of teaching experience; 26.3% have longer experience (6-10 years) and only 10.5% percent of the participants have wide experience of more than ten years of working in the field, see (Figure 2) below.



Approximately two-third of the participants have limited years of teaching experience which makes it extremely unlikely for the aims and objectives of a new text book in a new context, without previous training course on the methodology of that book .

3.3.COURSE BOOK OBJECTIVES

The responses to the questions asking whether the objectives are clear and achievable, almost all participants indicated that the objectives are clear. On the other hand, three-fourth of the participants showed that the objectives are achievable, see (Table 1) below.

TABLE 1.
Coursebook objectives

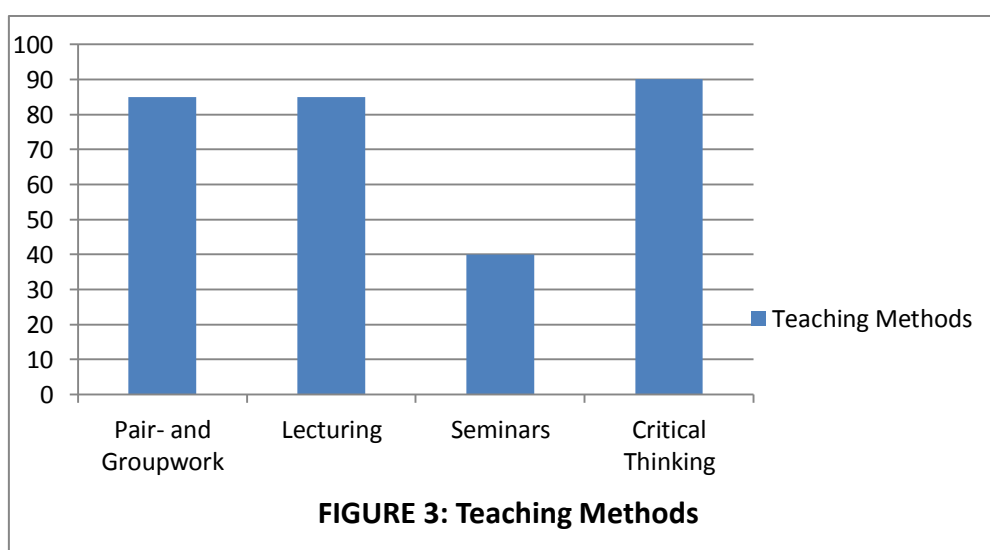
Clear	Not clear	Achievable	Not achievable
95.4 %	4.6.%	71.4%	28.6%

As can be seen, there is a modest drop between clarity and achievability percentages. In other words, a sizable portion 28.6% of the

respondents marked the objectives unachievable – clarity of the objectives seems not to have positively contributed to making them easily achievable. This can stem from the following: despite their clarity, the objectives tend to be unrealistic, that is they are unlikely to be realized in SUH context. To this end, the objectives have to be revisited and reformulated as to meet the needs of the context. Lack of teaching experience and a limited number of training courses for the practitioners can be considered as other reasons making the objectives not fully achievable. Taking this into account, more GEfUS specific teacher preparation courses should be offered to the teachers - less experienced teachers in particular.

3.4.TEACHING METHODS

This section of the questionnaire is devoted to find the teaching method adopted by the teachers. Among the respondents, 20 teachers completed this section. As seen in (Figure 3) below, 85% of the participants adopted lecturing, and pair and group work. Critical thinking, on the other hand, has been applied by 90% of the teachers. Seminars, however, has been used by 40% of the respondents.



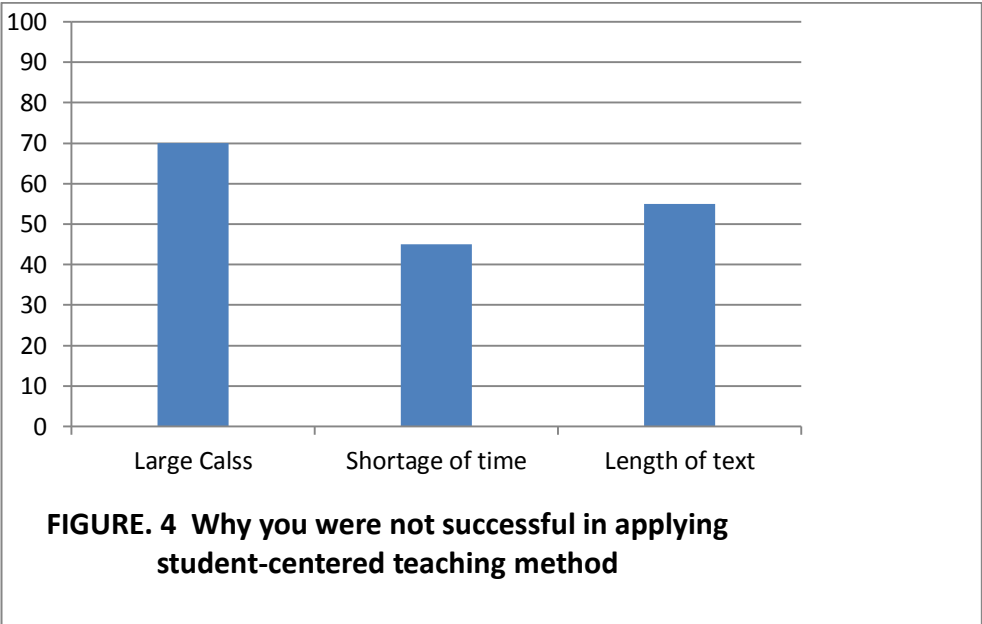
This result demonstrates that the content of this material (GEfUS) can be claimed engaging and argumentative as it allows for application of these methods. In other words, the activities are especially designed to foster pair

and group work, as well as critical thinking. Interestingly, there has to be a negative correlation between pair and group work, and lecturing but what has been found is a perfect positive correlation (+1.00) between these two variables. This can stem from the participants’ misinterpretation of this term “lecturing”, which has been used to mean “teacher-centred approach” in which pair and group work activities are less likely to be used. Thus, other terms had to be used to collect realistic data.

3.5. STUDENT CENTRED-APPROACH

The respondents were asked whether they were successful in the implementation of student-centred approach. This question was followed by another item, asking those who were not successful in applying this approach, to indicate the obstacles that lead to the failure of adopting this approach.

Among the 21 respondents who completed this section 52.3% were successful and 47.7% were not. Indicating the reasons behind their failure to adopt the approach, large classes were the most outstanding reason 70%, see (Figure 4) below. Length of the text was the second most chosen obstacle 55% confronted by the teachers to apply student-centered approach. Shortage of time was less likely 45% to be the main reason behind unsuccessfulness of implementing this approach.



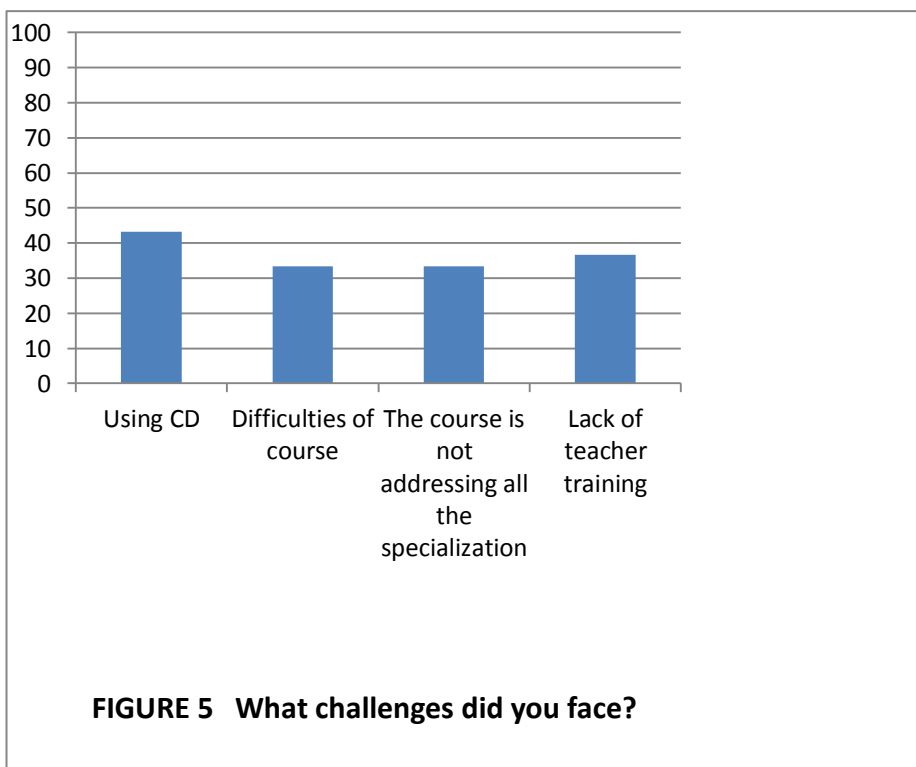
Despite the above obstacles ahead of application of student-centred method, the teachers, in an open question item, mentioned other reasons as the following:

- 1- Lack of suitable lecture hall (3 participants)
- 2- Low level of Language (5 participants)
- 3- Lack of motivation (5 participants): “*they don’t need English for their future career*”, one teacher said.
- 4- Irrelevant subjects to their major (1 participant)

Based on the data presented above, it can be realized that large number of students can be a major hindrance to make students autonomous learners, in other words, students tend to regard their teachers as only sources of knowledge. This can source from the fact that the freshmen graduate are from different schools in different areas with different levels of English proficiency, as five of the respondents clearly depicted the learners’ low language level, as some students come from different branches of secondary education apart from two major branches (literary and scientific branches) namely, fine arts and Islamic education where English language has not received a major attention. The content of this material requires equipped classrooms which are hardly found in the places where it is taught. Lack of means of technology tends to negatively impact the student-centeredness. Well-equipped classes have to be provided in order for the approach to be effectively adopted. Indicating length of the text as the second reason for not promoting independent learning might be due to the shortage of time the teachers have to complete the text book. Students’ admission process in universities in this context has been a major reason for reducing the number of weeks of First Year. The number of teaching hours per-week can be increased to tackle this obstacle.

3.6. CHALLENGES FACED BY GEFUS TEACHERS

In terms of the challenges the teachers faced in teaching GEFUS, the teachers were asked to choose among the following problems see (Figure 5): using CD (43.3%); difficulties of the course (33.3%); the course is not addressing all the specializations (33.3%), and lack of teacher training (36.6%).



The teachers indicated the following problems in an open question enabling them to mention other difficulties they had.

- Poor listening skill
- Low level of the learners' English
- Lack of students' personal computers
- Big classes
- Lack of equipment (e.g. CD player and textbook)
- Lack of language lab

Interestingly enough, most of the respondents showed that they overcome such problems. Among this population 60% demonstrated that they were able to tackle the problems, while only 33.3% were not able to do so. However, few respondents 6.7% did not complete this item.

It is apparent that most of the respondents reported having technical difficulties in teaching this material. Listening is one of the skills that has been focused on in this course book which requires the students to listen to a number of recorded conversations. To promote this skill, classes have to be

equipped with all facilities needed. Lack of language labs and large number of students can be major dilemmas in teaching this new course book.

A considerable portion of the teachers declared that the content of the book does not address all academic fields to be taught in all different departments of university. In other words, teachers teaching science departments find business and psychology themes irrelevant to be given to their students. The departments have to be able to introduce English for their specific purposes and needs (ESP) in the following stages of their department since GEfUS is for learning the basics of English Language not for ESP. There is a drastic need for more teacher training courses as demonstrated by a number of respondents. Potential GEfUS teachers should be given courses on how to teach, assess, and promote critical thinking and autonomous learning.

The last section of the questionnaire offered the chance to the teachers to present their suggestions and recommendations to enrich this new programme in the future. The following points summarize these suggestions and also show the number of the teachers who indicated the same points:

- 1- The objectives of the book need to be revised to meet the students' needs in their major in the university during their study and outside the university.
- 2- Modifying the content of the book in order to reflect the life of SUH students.
- 3- Introducing the English course in all the four years of study.
- 4- Providing enough copies of textbooks to the students.
- 5- Open pre-university language courses (foundation year or supporting language courses).
- 6- Annual revision of the course to include new developments and trends in terms of methodology of language learning and teaching
- 7- Adding another theme under the title "Law" for law students to learn basic legal terms and general information.

The suggestions above necessitate reconsideration and a revision of the text book's objectives and the selection of the content in order to meet the students' needs and expectations on one hand and reflect the social and cultural elements of the context on the other hand.

The suggestions also propose the introduction of English in all four stages of college. To this end, it can be recommended that English language can be started from a more general (first two years) English. This means, the first two years can be devoted to improve the students' academic English proficiency. The last two years can be dedicated for more major – specific English (English for Specific Purpose).

There is a strong tendency for the freshmen to be mixed level learners as they come from different schools – private and public and some of them come from other branches of tertiary education where English language is sidelined. This might raise the need for either pre-university English course or in-sessional supporting remedial language course in order to reach the language level of their peers.

4. CONCLUSION

This study sought to find out the suitability and applicability of General English for University Students (GEfUS) textbook in the context of Salahaddin University -Hawler, Kurdistan Region. The results show that the main principles required for designing a language course in a given context have not been fully taken into account. It is worth mentioning that GEfUS originates from “Progressive Skills in English, Level 1” with being slightly customized for SUH context.

Adopting Progressive Skills in English indicates that the process of situation and needs analysis have not been conducted. As such teachers and learners have not been involved in the process of developing this material (Allright, 1981). It is recommended that this course can be adapted and redesigned to embrace situation and learners’ needs, as well as other important principles needed for a course development (Nation and Macalister, 2010).

The cultural elements do not reflect the academic life and study at SUH. Students find the content irrelevant to themselves and the world surrounding them. More teacher training courses have to be offered to the teachers in order to be empowered by tools and instructions needed to teach this course.

References

- Allwright, R.L. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal*, 36 (1): 5-18.
- Brown, J. (1995). *The Elements of Language Curriculum*. New York: Newbury House.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Denscombe, M. (2008). *The Good Research Guide for small-scale social research projects* (3rd ed.). Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Denzin, N. (1970). *The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods*. Chicago: Aldine Pub. Co.
- Dornyei, Z. & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Hoyt-Oukada, K. (2003). Considering Students' Needs and Interests in Curriculum Construction. *The French Review*, 76 (4): 721-737.
- Nation, I.S.P & Macalister, J (2010). *Language Curriculum Design*. London: Routledge.
- Nunan, D (1988). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Phillips, T., Phillips, A., & Regan, N. (2012). *General English for University Students*. Reading: Garnet Publishing Ltd.
- Phillips, T., Phillips, A., & Regan, N. (2012). *General English for University Students (Teacher's Book)*. Reading: Garnet Publishing Ltd.
- Richards, J. (2001). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Third: Teaching methods and techniques

1. What specific teaching methods and techniques do you follow in teaching the subject?

a) pair and group works Yes ☐ No ☐

b) Lecturing Yes ☐ No ☐

c) Seminars Yes ☐ No ☐

d) Critical thinking activities Yes ☐ No ☐

2. Have you been successful in adopting student-centered learning methods?

Yes ☐ No ☐

a) If your answer is No, please identify the obstacles amongst the followings:

i. Large class Yes ☐ No ☐

ii. Shortage of time Yes ☐ No ☐

iii. The length of the textbook Yes ☐ No ☐

iv. Any other reason, please state below:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3. Have you been able to overcome any of the above difficulties?

Yes ☐ No ☐

a) If yes, please state below how:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

4. Did you follow the instructions of the teacher's book?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Did you use the CD and DVD with the activities?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Fourth: The course book themes:

1. Which one of the followings have you covered in your teaching?

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| a) Education | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Psychology and Sociology | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Work and business | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Science and nature | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Physical world | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. Which skill did you focus on in each theme?

- | | | |
|--------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| a) Listening | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Speaking | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Reading | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Writing | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |

3. Which of the following language areas did you focus on?

- a) Vocabulary Yes ☐ No ☐
- b) Grammar Yes ☐ No ☐
- c) Pronunciation Yes ☐ No ☐

4. Have you been able to cover all the core lessons in the course book
Yes ☐ No ☐

- a) If not, how many core lessons did you cover? Please mention them below:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

5. Did you use the Activity Book? Yes ☐ No ☐

- a. If yes, how often

- b. If not, please specify the reasons below:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Fifth: Assessment Methods:

1. Do you think the following assessment methods are appropriate?

Academic year efforts (assignments, reports, presentations, and in-class tests): 40%. And the Final Exam: 60%(20% for oral exam-reading a passage and asking general questions-, and 40% for the written exam)

☐
☐

Yes No

If your answer is No, please write your suggestions below:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. What assessment methods did you use for oral exam?

a) Rubric Yes ☐ No ☐

b) Portfolio Yes ☐ No ☐

3. Which of the following activities do you prefer to be included in the final oral exam?

a) Presentation Yes ☐ No ☐

b) Reading a passage Yes ☐ No ☐

c) Dictation (listening to a text) Yes ☐ No ☐

d) Group discussion seminar Yes ☐ No ☐

e) One to one interview Yes ☐ No ☐

Sixth: the format of the book

1. What do you think of the chapter divisions, photos, shapes, maps of the book? Please write your feedback below:

.....

Seventh: Student Number and time allowance

1. How many students are there in a class? ()students
2. How many English Language classes do you teach per week? () classes
3. What is the time of your lecture?

☐ 8:30- 10:30 ☐ 10:30- ☐ 11:30-2:30
☐ Other time

Eighth: Problems

1. What challenges did you face?

a) Using CD Yes ☐ No ☐

b) Difficulty of the course Yes ☐ No ☐

c) The course is not addressing all the specializations
 Yes ☐ No ☐

d) Lack of teacher training Yes ☐ No ☐

e) Others:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

2. How did you solve such problems?

.....
.....
.....
.....

Ninth: Please list the mistakes you have found in the book:

- a. grammatical mistakes
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
- b. scientific mistakes
.....
.....
.....
.....

Did you FIND anything inappropriate in the book:

- a. Socially
.....
- b. Culturally
.....
- c. Religiously
.....

.....

1. Please write below your suggestions and recommendations for developing and improving the English Language teaching:

[illegible]

.....
Directorate of curriculum development –Salahaddin University-Erbil

Interrogative Sentences in English and Turkish language

Fawziya Mousa Ghanim & Ibtisam Arabi Abdulah

College of languages

Fawziya.mousa40@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

In recent time, the learners of foreign language challenge the difficulties and obstacles to be acquainted or learnt more than one foreign language. While trainers and teachers are looking for simplified, inspired strategies, technical and practical methods of teaching. Students and learners of any foreign language may spend a long time and hardworking to learn a language. In fact, the structure of target language differs from the structure of native one. Hence, the learners will not be familiar with the new language, its structure and phonology. The English and Turkish languages are different and not belong to the same root. The Turkish language is a member of the Turkic branch of the Altaic family languages. Its structure is changed from Arabic script into Roman alphabet. While the English language belongs to the Anglo-Frisian sub-group of the West Germanic branch of the Germanic languages, a member of the Indo-European languages.

This Paper is concentrated on interrogative sentences in the English and Turkish language, and focuses on its differences and similarities.

The study aims at analyzing and following the structure of interrogative sentences in both languages. And how the teachers should explain them grammatically and encourage the beginners to involve in the process of learning.

One, The paper consists of three sections: The first section is an introductory, sheds light on the definitions of sentences and its types in

both languages. The second section explains the types of interrogative sentences and their structures in both languages, and how the teachers and the students should be aware of the differences and similarities. The third section is a conclusion which will pick up the structural and grammatical similarities and differences between the two languages, with focusing of how and where they will be agreed structurally and disagreed.

Keywords: Alternative questions, Interrogative Sentences, Tag questions, Wh-questions, Yes/No questions.

Introduction 1.

2.1. The definition of interrogative sentence

An interrogative sentence or a question is defined as "a sentence whose most basic use is to ask for information" (Eastwood, 2002, p.270). And also it is a term used in grammar to refer to features that form questions. An interrogative sentence whose grammatical form indicates that it is a question. Such sentence sometimes said to show as interrogative mood.

According to Angela, interrogative structures in English are of "three main types; polar, alternative, and non-polar". (2003, p.185). A polar interrogative also called Yes/No questions when it will be answered either by yes or no. Non-polar interrogative also called Wh-questions or information questions. The third is alternative question which consists of two polar joined by "or". Questions in Turkish are formed either by the insertion of the question particle *mi*, which forms **yes/no questions**, and **alternative questions**, or by using a **wh-phrase** such as *ne zaman* 'when', *kim* 'who' or *hangi* 'which'.

2.2. Methodology

The paper depends on sources which deal with interrogative sentences in both English and Turkish language. The interrogative sentences explain in both languages with referring to their structures. The study deals with exploring the structure of both languages. Therefore, the learners will be responsible to devote themselves fully to learn the structure using authentic and abstract examples. Encourage the sense of learners' awareness, showing them the absolute differences and similarities between the two languages. Motivate them by authentic experiences as learners' involvement with the

target language either by their communication with natives students or by preparing a suitable communicative method of learning. Turkish students or learners who learn English grammar concerning interrogative sentences should be studied the structure of sentences and comparing them with their native Turkish language. And also the English learners who learn Turkish language have the same role.

3.Types of Interrogative Sentences

2.

There are four types of interrogative sentences or questions and they are as follow:

2.4. Yes/No questions

Yes/No questions are defined as 'closed question' and that request a simple yes or no (Master,1996,p.130). In order to form Yes /No question in English, the auxiliary verb which appears before the main verb or a form of verb 'be' will be transformed to the position in front of the subject, and the auxiliary verb will be changed according to the tenses; for example

Do you work?

Does he work?

Did he work?

In Turkish language Yes/No questions are formed by inserting 'mi' after a sentence or phrase , or within a phrase.(Göksel &Kerslake, 2006,p.251)

Kedi-ler iki konserve-yi de **bitir-miş-ler mi**?

‘Have the cats finished both tins?’

Zehra Londra-ya **eylül-de mi** gid-ecek?

‘Is Zehra going to London in September ?’

3.5.Tag questions

Tag questions are questions 'tagged' at the end of sentences to invite confirmation as in 'She slept earlier , didn't she?'. A tag question is a short question added to the end of positive or negative statement. It is used to find out the agreement or affirmation of answer. There are two forms of tag questions in Turkish language :

1.değil mi, which is a combination of the negative particle değil 'not' and mi.

2. *öyle mi*, which is a combination of the demonstrative adverbial *öyle* ‘like that’ and **mi** .

Tiyatroya gitmeden önce yer **ayır-t-ma-mış-tı-n, değil mi?** ‘

You hadn't reserved seats before going to the theatre, had you?'
Esra **Handan-in** **abla-sı-ymış, öyle mi?**
"So Esra is Handan's elder sister, is that right?"

3.6. Wh-questions

Wh-questions are defined as open questions, and also called question-word questions. Wh-questions are used to find out more information about topics. The structure depends on asking either about the subject(question word+ verb) or predicate (question word+ auxiliary verb+ subject) of a sentence. Or it be complement, or adverbial. There is no inversion with the former , while there is inversion with later.

Wh-questions in Turkish are formed by using a question phrase such as *kim* 'who' *nerede* 'where', etc. The Wh-phrases in Turkish are the following:

kim 'who' Resimleri **kim** değerlendirecek? 'Who will evaluate the paintings?'

ne 'what' Bu kutunun içinde **ne-ler** var? 'What's in this box?'

hangi 'which' Ahmet **hangi doktora** güveniyor? 'Which doctor does Ahmed trust?'

nere 'where' En çok **nere-ler-i** görmek istiyorsun? 'What places do you most want to see?'

hani 'where' (informal)

ne zaman 'when' **Ne zaman** eve gidiyorsun? 'When are you going home?'

nasıl 'how' Semra'nın evine **nasıl** gidiliyor? 'How does one go to Semra's house?'

niye, neden, niçin 'why' Kedilere **niye/niçin/neden** doğru dürüst yemek vermiyorsun? 'Why aren't you feeding the cats properly?'

3.7. Alternative question

Alternative question is a kind of question in which two or more possible answers are given for listener to choose one of them as "You'll read or I'll read?". But in Turkish, the particle *mi* is placed after each of the alternatives presented, which can optionally be connected by *yoksa* 'or'

Cemal okula **git-ti mi**, (yoksa) **git-me-di mi**?

'Did Cemal go to school or not?'

Ankara-ya mı İstanbul-a mı gitmek istiyorsun?

'Do you want to go to Ankara or to Istanbul?'

2.8.Conclusion

The paper finds out that:

1-There are affixes of nouns which are equivalent to prepositions in English language. These affixes attached the question mark working to change the meaning and usage of the sentence .

2- There aren't adjectives , adverbs or pronouns of questions in English language.

3-There are personal affixes which attached the question mark, while in English , we can't find such affixes.

4-The particle of question (Ne) used for inanimate, and (Kim) for animate. And in English (who) for animate and (which or what) for inanimate.

5-In both languages , there is a question started by (is, are, do .does) and (mi).

6-Finding out that in Turkish , affixes for questions (mi), besides Wh-phrase. While there are particles for questions, auxiliaries formed Yes/No questions in English language.

References

- Angela, D., & Locke, P. (2003). **A University Course in English Grammar**. London: Routledge
- Eastwood, J. (2002). **Oxford Guide to English Grammar**. NewYork: Oxford University Press
- Göksel , Asli & Celia Kerslake(2006). **Turkish : A Comprehensive Grammar**. London: Routledge.
- Master, P. (1996). **System in English Grammar: An Introduction for language Teachers**. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Turning the tables: lessons for teachers

Fay Al Jibory

University of Kurdistan Hewler

f.aljibory@ukh.ac

ABSTRACT

This article explores two formative components of teacher cognition: the apprenticeship of observation and belief structure, and their impact on teacher education. It argues that for teacher education to be effective, focused analysis on teachers' lessons as data for teacher learning can be used, particularly when this involves pedagogical techniques for awareness-raising and critical reflection. The example of a teacher training programme built on a reflective pedagogy exemplifies how teachers identified areas for development from their own lessons, and recognised some of the core and peripheral beliefs that informed their instructional decisions. It concludes by asserting that due to the organisational nature of institutional education, an appropriate method of continuous professional development is to equip teachers to reflect on, and evaluate, their own learning in the areas of language knowledge and pedagogy.

Keywords: Pedagogy, reflective practice, teacher beliefs, teacher cognition, teacher development.

1. INTRODUCTION

Interest in the issue of teacher cognition has grown in recent decades. In the 1970s and 1980s, very few studies were conducted, and it was not until the 1990s that researchers began responding to some seminal works (Burns,

1992; Clark and Peterson, 1986; Shulman, 1987) with research in this area. Early research focused on attempts to identify teacher beliefs and their impact on classroom practice (Burns, 1992), the principles and effective behaviours of ‘good’ teachers (Tikunoff, 1985), beliefs and decision-making in instruction (Shavelson and Stern, 1981), and the need to define and refine the plethora of conceptualisations generated. The philosophically driven, but empirically tested, operationalisation of key terms such as beliefs, thoughts, attitudes, values and knowledge, resulted in much debate (Abelson, 1979; Fenstermacher, 1994; Pajares, 1992). Today, the construct of teacher cognition as a term embracing all teacher thought processes is the prevalent view, and research focuses on areas such as the impact of teacher cognition on teaching processes and pedagogy (Alexander, 2012), its relationship to grammar teaching and language awareness (Borg, 2009; Andrews, 2007), and teacher education and development (Andrews, 2007; Borg, 2006; 2013).

2. UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF TEACHER COGNITION

Much investment is made in the area of teacher education. From initial teacher training to continuous professional development, ministries and educationalists are concerned with improving the effectiveness of the classroom experience, teaching and learning processes, and learning outcomes. However, little time is spent on dealing with teacher cognition (thoughts, beliefs, values, attitudes, and knowledge) which powerfully mediates the effects of any training received. Lortie (1975) is credited with recognising the significance of the ‘apprenticeship of observation’: a situation in which the hours spent as a learner in the classroom, observing teachers at work becomes a default reference for their future performance as teachers. Lortie’s concept is an important factor in the historical development of teacher cognition. Teachers are obviously not ahistorical, value-free beings, but are motivated by, and act according to their own cognitions. Lortie’s observation that the average (American) student sits through 13,000 hours of school before graduation illustrates how teachers really learn their trade. During this apprenticeship, they become thoroughly versed in the subconscious learned behaviour displayed by their mentors. They are socialised into the culture of their particular classroom environments and their own learning communities. This apprenticeship takes place largely within the confinement of the classroom, in an intense,

216

spatially bound classroom environment. Interaction within this setting is based on an *affective* relationship which mediates knowledge and learning processes. This powerful apprenticeship is unparalleled in other professions.

Lortie (ibid) maintained that due to the organisation of teacher education and their subsequent work in educational institutions, teachers are often physically isolated from other colleagues and work independently within the confines of their own rooms. Much of their interaction takes place with students who only see and experience a largely unproblematic view of the classroom and are unaware of the contextual factors that lead to teachers' decisions. Novice teachers often have short periods in theoretical programmes before assuming full responsibility for classes in schools or colleges. Here many defer to the training of their apprenticeship rather than new ideas from initial teacher training programmes. This is because beliefs and values formed early in an individual's experience tend to self-perpetuate even against contradictions arising from reason, experience and time (Pajares, 1992). Whilst newly acquired beliefs and knowledge are assimilated into peripheral psychological structures, they do not easily become transferred to core beliefs. Knowledge is filtered through beliefs already held, and according to Pajares (ibid), the earlier a belief is incorporated into what he calls a *belief structure*, the more resistant it is to change. These important factors have implications for teacher education and its effectiveness.

The apprenticeship of observation, however powerful, is not the only source for the formation of teacher identity, knowledge and belief in the classroom. "Teacher beliefs form a structured set of principles that are derived from experience, school practice, personality, education theory, reading, and other sources." (Richards, 1998:66-7). Teachers essentially develop their own maxims - conscious or unconscious working principles that they refer to whilst they teach. Richards (ibid) reviewed maxims from teachers in Hong Kong, and discovered a diverse range including those that were implicit. These maxims extended to areas such as planning, classroom management, use of time and efficiency, organisation, involvement, encouragement and empowerment of learners, accuracy of output, and conformity to prescribed teaching methods. What becomes clear is that teacher cognition is a complex, psychological construction used dynamically

in specific contexts. Its beliefs structures are deeply entrenched and potentially unresponsive to teacher education programmes, as conventionally delivered, with the goal of transferring knowledge. Teacher education needs to establish what already exists in terms of teacher cognition and how it relates to practice, in order to make effective programmes, otherwise resistance to alternative modes of thinking could ensue.

3. REVIEW OF RESEARCH INTO TEACHER COGNITION

Research into the issues arising from teacher cognition and its impact in different areas of language teaching has produced interesting results. Many studies have contributed to our understanding of the impact of teachers' beliefs on classroom practices (Borg, 1999; Borg, 2001; Burns, 1992; Farrell, 1999; Kuzborska, 2011), but results have been mixed in terms of the degree of concurrence between beliefs and classroom practices (Phipp and Borg, 2009). Until Phipp and Borg's (ibid) study analysing the tensions between beliefs and practice in the context of teaching grammar, the role of core and peripheral beliefs in structuring teaching events had not been empirically generated. The study, which involved observations and interviews over an 18 month period with 3 teachers examined aspects of teaching grammar such as presentation, practice and group work for oral practice, teachers' stated beliefs, observed practice and explanations for their actions and decisions. From this interpretive approach, they found that although there were divergences between stated beliefs and practices of the teachers, interviews exposed their practices were consistent with deeper, more general beliefs about learning. Phipp and Borg (ibid) suggest that teacher education that includes a focus on the exploration of beliefs is likely to lead to more effective and longer lasting developmental changes. Research that fails to acknowledge the structure and impact of beliefs is likely to misdiagnose problems.

Borg's research (see Borg 2001; 1999a; 1999b) provides substantial evidence of teachers' rationales for their decisions, practices and instructional events in their lessons being in line with their general, core belief structures. His study of four L2 teachers' practices and decisions regarding use of grammatical terminology highlights a range of experiential, cognitive and contextual factors (such as preparation for exams) which shape

practice. The way teachers perceive their knowledge about grammar (and language in general) will impact how they view and approach classroom activities, their confidence levels, and students' attention. Teachers' own awareness of cognitions about grammar/knowledge about language in particular is important as it influences teaching practices, so he argues it should be explored in teacher education if it is to be effective.

Farrell's (1999) study of 34 student teachers in Singapore provides further insights into how teacher cognition can be understood and the role it can potentially play in teacher education. The participants were given a 3-part reflective assignment. Firstly, the student teachers had to write about their past experiences of learning English in Singapore, and their favourite approach to teaching grammar. Secondly, they had to write a detailed lesson plan on any grammar structure and teach it. Finally, they had to complete a reflection on the class. A detailed analysis of a representative group was then conducted. Farrell's results show that, through these reflective processes, all five student teachers from the representative group concluded that no one approach to the teaching of grammar will cover all situations, even though they started out with clearer ideas on what they thought would be best at the outset. These previously held beliefs about grammar were largely shaped by their own past experiences. He argues for integrating such reflective tasks in teacher education to make teacher learning more effectual.

4. REFLECTIVE PRACTICE IN TEACHER DEVELOPMENT: LEARNING FROM YOUR OWN LESSONS

Given that research suggests that teacher cognition can act as a filter to formal education and training programmes due to its deeply embedded affective, psychological and historical formation, the need for awareness-raising among teachers, and reflection as a pedagogical tool in teacher development becomes of paramount importance. This is particularly important because the influence of such cognition is usually tacit. This necessitates the use of reflection in teacher development where the opportunity to explore implicit and explicit rationales are instructive. During a teacher development programme conducted in 2013, which the author co-designed and delivered while working for the British Council, a reflective approach was taken with 11 experienced in-service teachers delivering

English at various levels. The process involved detailed initial observations, reflective discussion of detailed lesson plans, reflective input sessions, and reflective post-observation interviews. The observation reports, which were discussed in detail with participating teachers, informed the design of input sessions that incorporated focal aspects of observed lessons as the main subject matter of reflective tasks. The anonymity of teachers was protected throughout the course.

Teachers were able to revisit aspects of their own teaching, reflect on alternative routines and methods, watch and participate in role-plays to experience alternatives to their procedures, notice new aspects of teaching-learning processes, discuss changes in their awareness and what they were learning, and incorporate this into their next lesson. The organising tenet was to present lesson components to facilitate teacher learning from their own lessons. The rationale is that lessons are for all learners: students and teachers, as both parties benefit from awareness-raising, noticing and reflection, albeit through different applications. The subject domains are different but the pedagogical advantages of such methods are not limited to student experience. According to Vygotsky, (Child, 2004) whose tenet was that instructional discourse is collaboratively constructed by both teachers and students, both are involved in creating learning conditions. Assessment of performance under deliberately reflective conditions enables more informed decisions to be made about future performance and the conscious evaluation of beliefs underlying current practice.

In addition to the input sessions, teachers prepared lesson plans which were also the topic of reflective tasks. The author met with teachers to discuss in detail, aspects of lessons before they were taught, to stimulate thinking on both a content and pedagogical level. One unintended, but welcome outcome, was that confidence to talk about teaching issues, lesson plans and classes with other colleagues increased during the programme resulting in more collegial consultation. Modelling reflection in all main tasks encouraged creativity as teachers started to think about other ways of engaging their learners.

Examples of areas which were identified as important for development after reflection, and which had previously been presumed as effective were:

- Designing learner-centred lessons
- Using concept checking questions vs ‘display’ questions
- Developing ‘test-teach-test’ rather for efficient use of time and flexibility
- Developing strategies for learners who appear to have reached their threshold in learning in terms of language production
- Classroom management routines
- Analysing learner’s work from the viewpoint of error production, classifying errors, the impact of L1 or other contributions to errors/lack of progress.
- Developing critical thinking skills and re-defining the place of pre-intellectual/non-intellectual language production. Considering the effect of verbal strings implanted in the memory without any logical reasoning behind the content can produce non-intellectual speech. Relentless memorisation, rote-learning and imitation may develop non-intellectual dependencies whose natural ramifications will be plagiarism and academic illiteracy.
- Learning takes place through interaction, not the answer on the board.
- Employing different/engaging methods to teach grammar rather than those learned in school
- Sharing lesson plans for feedback
- Embedding phonology in lessons
- Using warmers, games, problem-solving tasks, competition
- Contextualising learning
- Writing SMART aims
- Planning for, and experimenting with, pedagogical variation in each session
- Improving personal knowledge base in English (phonology, lexis, grammar)
- Changing interaction patterns and designing collaborative tasks
- Using English as the medium of explanation (NNSs)

Teachers conduct much of their working lives in bounded, affective, dynamic learning environments where there is no possibility of immediate consultation or supervision. Many are intimidated by the prospect of observations and prefer to protect the closed community of the classroom.

Given that much of the raw data produced by them in conjunction with their students is in the classroom, it seems appropriate that a significant amount of teacher development be drawn from this context. It is especially pertinent to draw on 'data' from their own lessons as this largely reflects their core beliefs. Teacher development programmes are unlikely to be effective if they are not aligned with the nature of entrenched belief systems, and they fail to incorporate awareness-raising and reflective methodologies to deal with cognition which is largely unresponsive to teacher education. Research reviewed here demonstrates that in order to change behaviour, it is necessary to change beliefs. Improvements in classroom effectiveness are a corollary of improved teacher development.

5. RESTRUCTURING TEACHER EDUCATION, TRAINING, AND CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The implications of this paper indicate that teacher cognition is key to the structure of belief systems and that consequently teacher education must adopt pedagogical techniques that make the tacit explicit and enable awareness-raising and reflective tasks to enable teachers to restructure beliefs and behaviour. The example above is based on a teacher development programme which used reflection in two main ways: detailed reflection on planning, pre-interaction, observation records, and post-interaction of lessons; and reflection on pedagogical methods used in lessons and to deliver training. The material consisted of lessons from the classroom to avoid the imposition of something from 'experts' that failed to relate to their teaching context. Teachers were able to arrive at their own evaluations, and through making their own beliefs and practices explicit, beliefs are refined and action can be chosen from an informed and enlightened position. One teacher felt she had taught grammar because it was a safe body of knowledge, and that she felt more secure with this than other language knowledge bases, such as more advanced aspects of lexis or phonology which she had previously avoided. Identifying this enabled her to face the challenge of developing her knowledge in these areas despite the fact that she would have to leave her 'comfort zone'.

6. CONCLUSION

Andrews (2007) outlines three forms of knowledge essential for effective language users. Firstly, *language awareness*, founded on the idea that if users of the language can describe and analyse it, they are more likely to be more effective. Teachers who understand formal aspects of language explicitly will therefore teach more effectively. Secondly, *pedagogical content knowledge*, includes knowledge of the curriculum, learners, subject-matter cognitions, and how to make the content appropriate for the purposes of learning. Finally, language proficiency, consisting of language competence and strategic competence are necessary for communicative purposes. Teachers, like other professionals face the need for continuously improving their own knowledge base and their ability to learn from their unique contexts. Real development is not isolated from these familiar contexts, but rather fully engages with the issues they present. Teachers need to be equipped with the pedagogical apparatus that will enable them to learn from their own lessons. This may necessitate peer observations, consultations and quality time spent in reflection, but with the outcomes of improved insights into their own teaching and greater understanding of effective teaching. Teachers can re-visit lessons from a pedagogically-informed framework and an ever-developing knowledge base.

References

- Abelson, R.P. (1979). Differences between belief and knowledge systems. *Cognitive Science* 3, 355-366
- Alexander, O. (2012). Exploring teacher beliefs in teaching EAP at low proficiency levels *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 11, 99-111.
- Andrews, S. (2007). *Teacher language awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Borg, S. (2013). *Teacher research in language teaching: A critical analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. London: Continuum.

Borg, S. (2001). Self-perception and practice in teaching grammar. *ELT Journal* 55, 21-9.

Borg, S. (1999)a. Teachers' theories in grammar teaching. *ELT Journal* 53, 157-167.

Borg, S. (1999)b. The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom: A qualitative study of teachers' practices and cognitions. *Applied Linguistics* 20, 95-126

Burns, A. (1992). Teacher beliefs and their influence on classroom practice. *Prospect*, 7, 55-66.

Child, D. (2004). *Psychology and the Teacher* (7th Edn). London: Continuum

Clark, C.M. & Peterson, P.L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching*. (3rd edn., pp.255-96). New York: Macmillan.

Farrell, Thomas S.C. (1999). The reflective assignment: Unlocking pre-service English teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. *RELC Journal* 30, 1-17

Fenstermacher, G.D. (1994). The knower and the known: the nature of knowledge in research on teaching. In L. Darling Hammond, (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education*, 20, 3-56. Washington DC: American Educational Research Association.

Kuzborska, I. (2011). Teachers' decision-making processes when designing EAP reading materials in a Lithuanian university setting. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 10, 223-237.

Lortie, D. (1975) *Schoolteacher*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Pajares, M. F. (1992) Teachers' beliefs and educational research: cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62, 307-332.

Richards, J.C. (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Phipps, S. & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System* 37, 380-390.

Shavelson, R.J. and Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgments, decisions and behavior. *Review of Educational Research* 51, 455-498.

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57, 1-22

Tikunoff, W.S. (1985) *Developing Student Functional Proficiency for LEP Students*. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies Of English Language Learners In Northern Cyprus

Govand Anwar

Ishik University, Erbil
Govand.Anwar@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

The current research aims to investigate how English Language Learners help their students improve their vocabulary at private university at Northern Cyprus. Since vocabulary knowledge has a significant role in mastering the new language and in attaining total academic achievement, especially when language is used as a medium of instruction. Students in Northern Cyprus need English language practically rather than only for fulfilling the academic demand to obtain a certain degree, at the same time in order to help students be successful in practicing English language as a second language they need to gain greater knowledge of the language. Learning vocabulary is an important factor in learning English language, therefore it is very important to address the question of how students build and create their vocabularies, what kind of strategies do they employ in order to learn new vocabulary; therefore the current study is to examine the variety and range of vocabulary learning strategies among students. The findings of this study revealed that (Memory, Cognitive, metacognitive and social) strategies had positive relation with self-regulatory capacities in vocabulary learning. The highest value was for social strategy ($B=.547$), accordingly social strategy had a strong positive relationship with self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning.

Key Words: Northern Cyprus, Self-Regulatory Capacity, Vocabulary Learning Strategies

INTRODUCTION

English language is considered as a foreign language in Northern Cyprus, English is an important language for many students in private universities at Northern Cyprus as students do not have an access to English language except what they are learning in school. Students in Northern Cyprus have to attend classroom and maintain their day-to-day activities to successfully respond to their academic demands. English language should be considered as an important international language this may bring possibilities for students to give more attention and their interest to English language. This means students in Northern Cyprus need practically English language rather than only for fulfilling the academic demand to obtain a certain degree, at the same time in other students be successful in practicing English language as a second language they need to help of great knowledge of the language. Furthermore, students should be provided with available opportunities for learning English language in school through writing, reading and conversation skills and improve individual student's language skills. Vocabulary considers an essential factor in English language, without vocabulary learning the English language is almost impossible. Some of scholars think that vocabulary learning is not difficult, but vocabulary learning is very challenging for learners. This research investigates the variety and range of vocabulary learning strategies in private universities in Northern Cyprus. In order being able to understand the process of vocabulary learning, we should think outside of the box and address main factors that have influence on learning vocabulary.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of the literature review is to review related literature on strategies for vocabulary learning, the role of vocabulary in English language learning and categories based to more recent classification of strategies for learning English language.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

At the present time, there has been a huge change of concentration from the traditional education provider dominated method to a student-centered method of vocabulary acquisition (Nation, 2001). The traditional method for education providers in terms of vocabulary teaching has regularly been evaluated, concerning many other things, it is important to address the significance of the student's involvement and engagement in the process

(Oxford, 2001). The main discussion in this matter has been that students are not frequently motivated to provide their own possible for the fruitful growth of their vocabulary and other competencies. Instead, students are relying on education providers, getting whatever learning from education providers. According to (Huckin, et al., 1993), Learning vocabulary is a very challenging process in teaching second language.

Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Many academic scholars have classified learning strategies in different ways. For instance, (Skehan, 1989) suggested five broad strategy categories and some secondary categories. (Schmitt, 1979) classified learning strategies into two main groups, namely, strategies which participate straight to learning and those which participate secondarily to learning. Oxford (1990), identified three categories of strategies which they named cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective. Oxford (1990) advanced a complete taxonomy by assembling and rearranging strategies recognized in earlier researches. Oxford taxonomy collections the complete set of learning strategies into two broad categories: direct and indirect strategies.

Direct Strategies

According to the (Oxford, 1990), strategies are directly participating the learning of the language through directly linking the student in performing on the second language. Direct strategies consist of memory strategies and cognitive strategies (Oxford, 2001).

- Memory Strategies

Based on the name itself indicates, strategies assist students to recall and remember vocabulary efficiently and effectively.

Memory strategies consist of the following (Craik and Lockhart, 1972):

- Grouping - gathering the words to be educated in an expressive way (for instance, gathering words together based on parts of speech, subject relationship and dissimilarity and similarity in meaning. Etc.).
- Correlating/Elaborating- this happens by linking new vocabulary to another thing similar in mind, building connection in a meaningful way to enable memory (for example, recalling the new words through imagining the page number or location of the number in that page).

Cognitive Strategies

According to (Fowle, 2002), Cognitive strategies are used by students while directly performing on the target language. Cognitive strategies indicate two phases used in problem solving or learning that need direct examination and conversation.

The main cognitive strategies are:

- Repeating – writing or saying the new words again, listening to the same words numerous times; copying experienced users of English.
- Using Resources for Receiving Messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words.
- Reasoning deductively- determinedly using overall procedures to work out the meaning of uncommon vocabulary (for instance, working out the meaning of 'dissatisfy' from the meaning of the prefix 'dis-' and the meaning of the adjective 'satisfy').
- Translating- shifting the meaning of language, word into a comparable meaning of mother-tongue language.
- Transferring - using earlier learned information of words from one language to recognize the meaning of the new language words.
- Highlighting – coloring or highlighting the essential words while reading the text and finding their meanings.

Indirect Strategies

Indirect strategies include strategies which indirectly participate in the expansion of vocabulary. Strategies do not frequently need the students to directly effort on the target language tasks, however, they help them to achieve and enable their learning in a different ways through building for them positive learning circumstances. Indirect strategies consist of the following two groups of strategies: metacognitive and social strategies (Gu Yongqi and Johnson, 1996).

- Metacognitive Strategies

Strategies used by students to achieve themselves through controlling performance, planning and assessing general development or the consequence of their learning. Metacognitive strategies include students in (yongqi and johnson, 1996):

- Over viewing and Connecting with previously recognized Material- over viewing widely the key vocabulary matters to be learned in future vocabulary instructions and connecting them with the words previously learned.
- Paying Attention- making decision in advance to imitate to one's vocabulary learning in general and to choose and concentrate on related vocabulary tasks.
- Organizing - building satisfactory physical environment to enable student's vocabulary learning; brainwashing student's vocabulary learning.
- Self - Monitoring - classifying student's mistakes in the sequence of vocabulary learning by examining whether one is learning properly or incorrectly.
- Self-Evaluating-assessing the consequences of students' vocabulary learning by examining whether or not one has made more progress than before.

- **Social Strategies**

Social Strategies are strategies which contain of using social connections to help learning. Meanwhile language learning includes other people too; students do not usually perform it all alone.

Social strategies include learners in (Oxford 1990):

- Cooperating with Proficient Users of English – being friends with proficient speakers of English to enhance one's information of English vocabulary.
- Developing Cultural Understandings-expanding one's thoughtful of the culture and ways of living of English speaking people.

Self- regulatory capacity

Self-regulation provides new chances to students' strategic learning and assists them in order to be self-directed and independent learners. Also, it concentrates on the significance of the regulatory capacity in the students' efforts to apply specific strategy for vocabulary learning. Self-regulation is not only concentrated on the consequences students' achievement, however, essentially in the process students go through and the way that effects vocabulary learning (Tseng et al., 2006). Previous scholars believed that quantity such as applying different strategies based on learners' level of learning (Hamedani, 2013).

Conceptual framework

Research model and research hypothesis

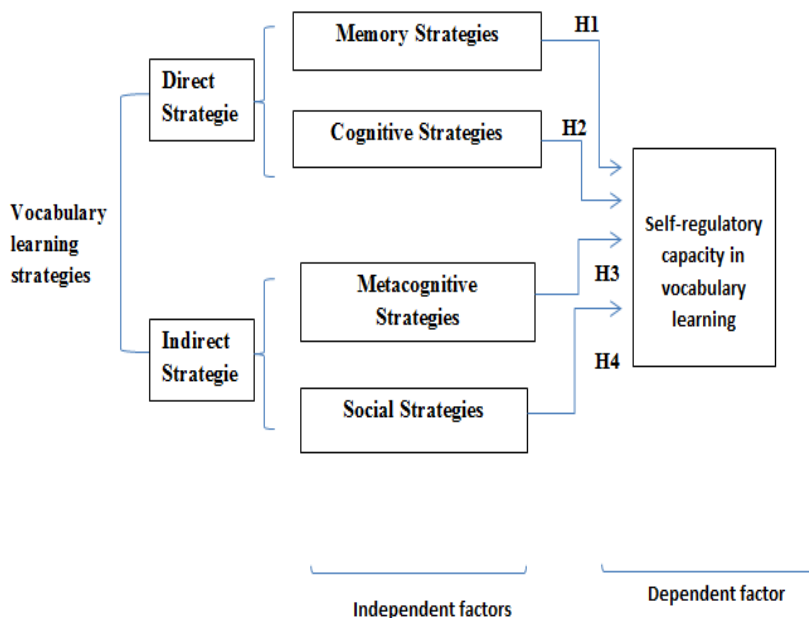


Figure (1), Created by the researcher

According to the created research model, the researcher developed the following research hypothesis:

H1: There is a positive relationship between memory strategy and self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning.

H2: There is a positive relationship between cognitive strategy and self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning.

H3: There is a positive relationship between metacognitive strategy and self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning.

H4: There is a positive relationship between social strategy and self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning.

METHODOLOGY

Quantitative method was used to analyze the data in this study, the researcher prepared questionnaire and distributed in English language department in the private university at Northern Cyprus. The survey was divided into two sections, the first section was demographic analysis which started with respondent’s age, gender, and level of education. The second section of survey consisted of 28 questions regarding strategies of vocabulary learning. A random sampling method was used in this study. The researcher, distributed 140 questionnaires, 115 questionnaires were received and being completed properly and 25 questionnaires were missing. Students were varied as for age, gender and level of education. In order to examine the students’ vocabulary learning strategies, the participants were asked to mark each item for five point ordered scale. The scale measured and evaluated on a five point Likert Scale with potential answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, this research instruments were validated by earlier researchers (Samaneh. 2012) and (Tseng,2006) to be appropriate for measuring vocabulary learning strategies in self-regulatory capacity in learning vocabulary.

Data analysis and results

Table -1-
Demographic analysis

Item	Frequency	Percent
Age	18-19	54
	20-21	36
	22-23	14
	24-25	11
Gender	Male	73
	Female	42
education	First year	39
	Second year	29
	Third year	22
	Fourth year	25

As seen in table (1), participants’ personal information. As for student’s gender; 54 students were male and 36 students were female. As for age 54 students fall into group 18-19 years old, 36 students fall into group 20-21

years old, 14 students fall into group 22-23 years old and 11 students fall into group 24-25 years old. As for level of education 39 students from first year, 29 students from second year, 22 students from third year and 25 students from fourth year.

Table -2-

Reliability analysis

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Memory strategy	.857	7
Cognitive strategy	.766	6
Metacognitive strategy	.935	7
Social strategy	.921	8
Self-regulatory capacity strategy in vocabulary learning	.973	8

As seen in table (2), the reliability analysis for vocabulary learning strategies as independent factor (memory strategy, cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy and social strategy), on the other hand self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning as a dependent factor. According to the correlation analysis, the researcher found out Cronbach's Alpha for the seven items used for memory strategy factor =.857, which is greater than .6 this means that items for memory strategy factor were reliable for this study, the Cronbach's Alpha for six items for cognitive strategy factor =.766, which is greater than .6 this means that items for cognitive strategy factor were reliable for this study, the Cronbach's Alpha for seven items of metacognitive strategy factor =.935, which is greater than .6 this means that items for metacognitive strategy factor were reliable for this study, the Cronbach's Alpha for eight items of social strategy factor =.921, which is greater than .6 this means that items for social strategy factor were reliable for this study and the Cronbach's Alpha for eight items for self-regulatory capacity strategy in vocabulary learning factor =.973, which is greater than .6 this means that items of self-regulatory capacity strategy in vocabulary learning factor were reliable for this study.

Table-3 Correlations analysis

Correlations		memo	Cogniti	Social	Metacog
Self-regulatory	Pearson	.208**	.198**	.368**	.058**
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026	.033	.000	.538
	N	115	115	115	115
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

As seen correlations test in table (3), for all vocabulary learning strategies as independent factor (memory strategy, cognitive strategy , metacognitive strategy, and social strategy) with self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning. The value of R for the memory strategy =.208 **, this indicates that memory strategy has a weak significantly correlated with self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning, The value of R for the cognitive strategy =.198 **, this indicates that cognitive strategy has a weak significantly correlated with self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning, The value of R for the social strategy =.368 **, this indicates that cognitive strategy has a weak significantly correlated with self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning, and The value of R for the metacognitive strategy =.058 **, this indicates that metacognitive strategy has a weak significantly correlated with self-regulatory capacity in vocabulary learning.

Regression analysis

Table-4-
Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.405 ^a	.164	.134	1.25505
a. Predictors: (Constant), social, memor, Metacognitive, Cognitive				

Table-4- ANOVA ^a					
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
1	Regression	34.079	4	8.520	5.409
	Residual	173.266	110	1.575	
	Total	207.345	114		
a. Dependent Variable: self-regulatory					
b. Predictors: (Constant), social, memor, Metacognitive, Cognitive					

Table-5- Coefficients						
Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standar dized Coeffici ents Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-.305	.885		-.344	.731
	Memory	.271	.148	.175	1.832	.070
	Cognitive	.024	.175	.018	.139	.889
	Metacogn itive	.019	.144	.012	.131	.896
	Social	.547	.197	.336	2.774	.006
a. Dependent Variable: self-regulatory capacity						

Table (5), shows the coefficients analysis for this study. As seen in the above table the value B for memory strategy =.271 <0.01, accordingly the first research hypothesis was supported. The value B for cognitive strategy =.024 <0.01, accordingly the second research hypothesis was supported. The value B for memory strategy =.19 <0.01, accordingly the third research hypothesis was supported and the value B for social strategy =.547 <0.01, accordingly the fourth research hypothesis was supported.

Discussions

The current study aims to investigate the vocabulary learning strategies and how students learn and adopt their vocabulary information, since vocabulary knowledge has a significant role in mastering the new language and in attaining total academic achievement when that language is used as a medium of instruction. Quantitative methods used to analyze this study, the researcher prepared a questionnaire and distributed at English language department in private university at Northern Cyprus. The researcher used multiple regression analysis, accordingly all research hypothesis were supported. The highest value was for social strategy ($B = .547$). Previous studies found the positive effect of vocabulary learning strategies (cognitive, memory, meta-cognitive and social strategy on teaching second language ((Abhakorn, 2008), (Doczi, 2011), (Folse, 2004), (Hung-Tzu, 2007), (Sedita, 2005), (Shea, 2011), (Winke and Sydorenko, 2010)).

A. Cognitive strategy:

Students prefer to use a bilingual dictionary to translate English words into their mother tongue language; this indicates that teachers should rely on cognitive strategy to teach vocabulary to their students such as using language reference resources. When students find a new word while they are in the classroom, they would ask their teacher to put that word in a sentence in order to assist them to memorize and understand the meaning of that word.

Students would like to listen to news and songs in order to enhance their English language, this indicates that teachers should use a cognitive strategy such as using Resources for Receiving Messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. Students use English magazine to learn new English vocabulary, this indicates that teacher should use a cognitive strategy such as using Resources for Receiving Messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. In case a new word comes across students would guess from context, this means the teacher should use a cognitive such as Highlighting – coloring or highlighting the essential words while reading the text and finding their meaning. When a new word comes across, while class they would refer to ask their teacher, therefore; the teacher should apply a cognitive strategy such as using

resources for receiving messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. In case a new word comes across, while they are at home, they would use bilingual dictionary, so teachers should use a cognitive strategy such as using resources for receiving messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. When a new word comes across, while students are at home, they would use an online dictionary, so teachers should use a cognitive strategy such as using resources for receiving messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. Students use an online dictionary to find out the pronunciation of new vocabulary and students learn new vocabulary from their teachers, so teachers should use cognitive strategy, according to this results teacher should use cognitive strategy such as using Resources for Receiving Messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words.

Students repeat the new word several times in their mind to memorize it and they are repeating new words loudly for several times in their mind in order to be able to memorize it. Based on this results teacher should apply a cognitive strategy such as repeating – writing or saying the new words again, listing with the same words numerous times; copying experienced users of English. Students are using the definition of new words in order to be able to understand and memorize it, in this case teacher should use cognitive strategy such as Using Resources for Receiving Messages - using language reference resources for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. Students take notes when they learn new vocabulary; TV programs help students to learn new words, Listening to radio help students to learn new words, students read English newspaper regularly, Online vocabulary learning activities helps students to learn new words and Students are not satisfied with English materials and methods in their classes, based on these results teacher should use a cognitive strategy such as using resources for receiving messages - using language reference resources, for example the dictionary or requesting someone to help with the meaning of uncommon words. Therefore, the

researcher came to conclude that research hypothesis, one has been supported, there is a positive association between cognitive strategy and vocabulary learning strategies

B. Metacognitive:

When students work as groups in their classroom, they will learn new words from their classmates, according to this result, it seems that students are comfortable working in a group, therefore teachers should use meta-cognitive strategy in order to teach their students, as mentioned that meta-cognitive strategy is organizing - building satisfactory physical environment to enable student's vocabulary learning; brainwashing student's vocabulary learning. Physical actions help students to learn new word, based on this result, teachers should use meta-cognitive strategy such as organizing - building satisfactory physical environment to enable student's vocabulary learning; brainwashing student's vocabulary learning. Students are skipping a new word that comes across while they are home, according to these results the teacher should apply metacognitive strategy such as a self - monitoring - classifying student's mistakes in the sequence of vocabulary learning by examining whether one is learning properly or incorrectly. Students learn new vocabulary when their teacher shows them their mistakes, according to this result, teachers should use a meta-cognitive strategy such as self - monitoring - classifying student's mistakes in the sequence of vocabulary learning by examining whether one is learning properly or incorrectly. Students revise new words that they have learnt in class, therefore the teacher should apply meta-cognitive strategy such as over viewing and connecting with the previously recognized material over viewing widely the key vocabulary matters to be learned in future vocabulary. Students learn new vocabulary in certain situation and they learn new vocabulary from their classmates, according to these results the teacher should apply a meta-cognitive strategy such as organizing - building satisfactory physical environment to enable student's vocabulary learning; brainwashing student's vocabulary learning. Therefore, the researcher came to conclude that research hypothesis two has been supported; there is a positive association between metacognitive strategy and vocabulary learning strategies.

C. Social:

Based on the statistical results of the questionnaire, it seems that students do not refer and speak to English speaker when they do not know a particular word, the reason could be the lack of the English speakers in northern Cyprus. At this point the teacher should encourage their students to be involved in English cultural events if it is possible, therefore the teacher should use a social strategy which means cooperating with proficient users of English – being friends with proficient speakers of English to enhance one's information of English vocabulary.

In case the new word comes across, while students are in the class they would prefer to ask their classmates, according to this result, teachers should use and encourage a social strategy, grouping students in the classroom to enhance their vocabulary and learn new vocabulary, developing cultural understandings-expanding one's thoughtful of the culture and ways of living of English speaking people. Students prefer to imitate someone's vocabulary in order to learn, consequently, teachers should use social strategy such as cooperating with proficient users of English– being friends with proficient speakers of English to enhance their information of English vocabulary. Well physical environment helps students to quick learning, this means that the teacher should apply social strategy such as developing cultural understandings and expanding their understanding of the culture and English speaking peoples ways of living. Students prefer to be involved in English culture speakers in order to learn new vocabularies, this means that the teacher should apply a social strategy, for instance; developing cultural understandings and expanding their understanding of the target culture and ways of living of English speaking people. Therefore, the researcher came to conclude that research hypothesis 3 has been supported; there is a positive association between social strategy and vocabulary learning strategies.

D. Memory:

Students would like to use images in order to demonstrate in the textbook to find the word meanings, this indicates that teachers should use memory strategy such as Correlating/Elaborating- by linking new vocabulary to another thing similar in mind, building connection in a meaningful way to

enable memory for example, recalling the new words through imagining the page number or location of the number in that page.

Students would like to put a new word into a sentence as an example to be able to memorize new words. In this case the teacher should use memory strategy such as Correlating/Elaborating- by linking new vocabulary to another thing similar in mind, building connection in a meaningful way to enable memory (for example, recalling the new words through imagining the page number or location of the number in that page. Students write down words to memorize them, they are matching example with new words in order to memorize them and students are using images and pictures to memorize new word, according to this result, teachers should use memory strategy such as correlating/Elaborating- linking new vocabulary to another thing similar in mind, building connection in a meaningful way to enable memory (for example, recalling the new words through imagining the page number or location of the number in that page. Students are trying to memorize a word and remember it through a song or a text and when they find a new word they would match it with another similar word in order to be able to memorize it; therefore, teachers should use memory strategy. Therefore, the researcher came to conclude that the research hypothesis four has been supported; there is a positive association between memory strategy and vocabulary learning strategies.

Also ,Previous studies showed evidence of the importance of vocabulary learning strategies ((Amoli and Karbalaie, 2012), (Azar, 2012), (Chen & Hsu, 2008), (Gu, 2011), (Kasmani & Bengar, 2013), (Wei shen, 2013), (Baleghizadeh & Ashoori, 2010), (Rahimi, 2014), (Mizumoto, 2013), (Prince, 2012), (Ma and Kelly, 2006), (Saunders, 2013), (The Effect of Keyword and Pictorial Methods on EFL Learners' Vocabulary and Retention, 2013), (Hong Lip, 2009), (Rahimy and Shams, 2012)

References

- Abhakorn, J., (2008). The implications of learner strategies for second or foreign language, Vol.5., *ARECLS*, pp.186-204.
- Amoli, F. A. and Karbalaeei, A., (2012). The Effect of Mnemonic Strategies Instruction on the Immediate and Delayed Information Retrieval of Vocabulary learning in EFL learners. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 17(4),, pp.458-466.
- Azar, A.S., (2012). The Effect of Games on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *International Journal of basic and applied science*, 1(2),, pp.252-256.
- Baleghizadeh, S. and Ashoori, A., (2010). The Effect of Keyword and Word List Methods on Immediate Vocabulary Retention of EFL Learners. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences*, 30(2),, pp.251-261.
- Chen, C.-M., & Hsu, S.-H., (2008). Personalized Intelligent Mobile Learning System for supporting effective english learning. *Educational Technology & Society*, 11(3),, pp.153-180.
- Craik, F. And Lockhart, R., (1972). Levels of processing: a framework for memory research. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour*, 2, pp.671-684.
- Doczi, B. (2011). Comparing the vocabulary learning strategies of high school and university students. *A pilot study, WOPALP, Vol.5*,.
- Folse K. S., (2004). Myths about Teaching and Learning Second Language Vocabulary: What recent research says. *TESL reporter*, 37(2),, pp.1-13.
- Fowle, C., (2002). Vocabulary notebooks: implementation and outcomes. *ELT Journal*, 56(4),, pp.380-388.

- Gu, Y., (2011). Learning Strategies for Vocabulary Development. *Reflections on English language Teaching*, 9(2), pp.105-118.
- Gu Yongqi and Johnson, R. K., (1996). . Vocabulary learning strategies and language learning outcomes. *Language Learning*, 46(4), pp.643-679.
- Hamedani , S.H.(2013). The Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulation in Vocabulary Acquisition of Iranian EFL Learners. *Journal of Academic and Applied Studies*, 3(1), pp. 20-31.
- Hong Lip, P., (2009). Investigating the Most Frequently Used and Most Useful Vocabulary Language Learning Strategies among Chinese EFL. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), pp.77-87.
- Huckin, T., Haynes, M. and Coady, J., (1993). *Second language reading and vocabulary learning*. Albex: Norwood,N.J.:Ablex publishing corporation .
- Hung-Tzu H., (2007). Vocabulary learning in an automated graded reading program,11(3),. *Language learning and technology*, pp.64-82.
- Kasmani, M.B. and Bengar, A.S., (2013). The effect of vocabulary learning strategies of EFL undergraduate students on their listing comprehension ability. *Asian Journal of Social Science and humanities*,2(1), pp.253-259.
- Ma, Q. and Kelly, P., (2006). Computer Assisted Vocabulary Learning: Design and evaluation. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 19(1), pp.15-45.
- Mizumoto, A., (2013). Enhancing Self-efficacy in Vocabulary Learning: A Self-regulated Learning Approach. *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*,2(1), pp.15-24.
- Nation, I.S.P., (2001). *Learning Vocabulary in language*. Cambridge University press. Cambridge .

- Oxford. (1990). *Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Oxford, R. L., (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Oxford, R. L., (2001). *Language learning strategies*. In R. Carter and D. Nunan, eds. *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge University Press, pp. 166-172.
- Prince, P. (2012). Towards an instructional program for L2 vocabulary: Can a story help? *Language Learning and Technology*, 16(3), pp. 103-120.
- Rahimi, S., (2014). The effect of vocabulary learning strategy instruction on the depth of vocabulary knowledge. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 5(4), pp. 91-102.
- Rahimi, R. And Shams, K., (2012). An Investigation of the Effectiveness of Vocabulary Learning Strategies on Iranian EFL learners' Vocabulary Test Score. *International Education Studies*, 5(5), pp. 141-152.
- Saunders, J.M., (2013). Vocabulary Study Strategies: Prevalence among L2 learners. *Polyglossia Volume 25*, pp. 19-26.
- Schmitt, N., (1979). *Vocabulary learning strategies*. In N. Schmitt, And M. McCarthy, eds. *Vocabulary: Description Acquisition and pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sedita J., (2005). Effective Vocabulary Instruction. *Insights on learning disabilities*, 2(1), pp. 33-45.
- Shea A. A., (2011). Redefining Vocabulary: The New Learning Strategy for Social Studies. *Taylor & Francis Group, LLC*, pp. 95-103.
- Skehan, P., (1989). *Individual differences in second language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.

- Wei Shen,W., (2013). Current Trends of Vocabulary Teaching and Learning Strategies for EFL Settings. *Feng Chia Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*,2(7),, pp.187-224.
- Winke P. Gas S. And Sydorenko, T., (2010). The effects of captioning videos used for foreign language listing activities. *Language learning and Technology*, 14(1),, pp.65-86.

Analysis of strategies in teaching ethics to university graduate students: Evidence from Private University in Erbil

GOVAND ANWAR NAVULUR KRISHNA SURARCHITH
OMER TERZIBASI

Ishik University, Erbil Ishik University, Erbil Ishik University, Erbil

*Govand.anwar@ishik.edu.iq Krishna.navulur@ishik.edu.iq
omer.terzibasi@ishik.edu.iq*

ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to analyze different strategies for teaching ethics course to university graduate students to identify and prevent fraud in all fields of industries as they will become part of the industry after completion of their studies from the University. There are different arguments which will oppose the idea of including ethics to university graduate students which were presented in the paper. There are many fraud incidents happen in almost every industry due to educated professionals who don't have sense of ethical values which will be combined to their profession apart from illiterate fraudsters. Every industry has set their ethical guidelines which will give directions to professionals who implement in day to day life. A study was carried out at private University. A quantitative method used to analyze this paper. A questionnaire was conducted to analyze this study. A total of 170 questionnaires were distributed in private university in Erbil, 158 questionnaires were received, but only 146 out of 158 questionnaires were valid and being completed properly. According to multiple regression analysis, the highest value was for traditional lectures. A traditional lecture is one of the strategies which can accomplish instructional aims.

Keywords: Business ethics, teaching strategies, Private University

Introduction:

Teaching ethics course to university graduate students require some strategies which make them aware of the need to be ethical apart from technical skills. The responsibility to impart ethical values in the minds of the students through course syllabus of different fields is vested by Subject Matter experts as well as faculty members who are teaching that particular course. Teaching strategies of ethics course to graduate students are traditional lectures, role play, case study and giving guidance from experts from the industry who face ethical challenges in their professional life. The research also identifies the process of teaching ethics. According to Massey and Van Hise (2009), there are benefits in utilizing ethicist who has expertise and complications of finite resources. He suggested that a faculty member in the concerned field can be trained and get prepared for role of teaching ethics. Accounting faculty member in business education is suitable person to teach ethics during the classes according to Blanthorne, Lovar, and Fisher (2007).

Organizations are not forced to take part as members in ethical organization which affects individual ethical behavior in the organization. American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA) has furnished guidelines to Certified Professional Accountants (CPA) as well as its members towards ethics. While framing the ethical guidelines by organizations who regulate the industry has taken a thought into consideration that how a particular profession and professional will be observed by decision makers and end users of the industry. According to Stephen E. Loeb, including ethics course in the curriculum to university graduate students would be possible in two ways. One way is to teach separate course which will be tailored in single class. Second way is to teach ethics in the whole curriculum which require some expertise to the faculty member who teaches that particular course.

According to Fisher, Swanson, and Schmidt (2007), academia of accounting has shrunken knowledge to teach professional code of conduct and suggested to find techniques to teach ethics. Teacher education as per Sirotnik (1990) is a process where imparting moral character is given preference than expertise and knowledge oriented skills where both are essential. It is easy to teach ethics when a student is asked to perform instead of asking him/her to memorize. There are many experiments and theories evolved on teaching students as well as bringing real worth from the students.

Literature Review:

The fields of education and the approach may be different to one another in teaching, but they all share basic common idea of making the student understand the concept, apply them in real life and follow ethical guidelines in the chosen field. According to Jane Stallings and Kaskowitz(1974), it was observed that teachers who had planned their tasks in advance yield more results than who did regular methods. The research performed by McGee and Bruce Howard stressed that traditional methods generate competitive environment and class will not be developed as a whole.

The isolated needs of the students cannot be accomplished by single method of teaching as they have many questions in their mind with regards to concepts that are taught and their focus will be divergent. The aim of any strategy to evaluate student is to make the student understand the concept instead of measuring the capacity of their memory to remember the concept as per Croker and Algina (1986).

According to Wild and Quinn (1977), the main role in finding outcomes of learning in an environment which is technology oriented will be tasks of learning which will influence different kinds of knowledge construction and the involvement of learners in the syllabus of the course.

According to Freire (1998), students, teachers affect each other's lives through education as medium whereas other people also involved in this process. A student must have critical thinking and knowledge on ethical issues which is essential for him/her during student life and when he/she become member of professional body after completion of university studies. According to Jennings (2004), Students get teaching on courses that are ethics centered which will make them ready to deal difficult alternatives and they should have interest to learn facts about dilemma.

The character that has ethics in teaching consists of action undertaken by individuals to give human beings an advantage as per As per Fenstermacher (1990). The virtue of membership by individuals to a profession will have commitment towards clients in rendering needs which are basic and needs of the clients and interests are primary than the need of the provider. According to Herrick, 2003, parents and relatives are answerable for a student's moral education at the early age which will lead to admirable conduct of the student towards parents and other individuals. Betsy Stevens (2008)

concluded that codes can be the ways to guide decision making of employees and mold their ethical behavior.

Methodology

Design of the study

The researchers used questionnaire in order to be able to analyze the current study. The questionnaire divided into two main sections, first section was demographic analysis starting with respondent's age, gender, and level of education. The second section of questionnaire was consisted of four sub-units; the first sub-unit was related to case study teaching method as dependent factor, second sub-unit was related to traditional lecture teaching method as independent variable, third sub-unit was related to assignment teaching method as well and last sub-unit was related to learning business ethics course as dependent variable.

Sampling size

Research sample was selected using a procedure of random sampling. The mentioned random sampling was carried out in private university in Erbil. A total of 170 questionnaires were distributed in private university in Erbil, 158 questionnaires were received, but only 146 out of 158 questionnaires were valid and being completed properly. The data were collected through in hard copies.

Instrument for measuring (scales)

In order to examine the aspect of learning business ethics course, this study is investigating the measuring of case study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method and their relationship with learning business ethics course. The participants were asked to rate how strongly they agree each item on five point ordered scales. The scale for learning business ethics course as dependent variable was measured and evaluated on a five point scale with potential answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, also the scales for case study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method were measured as well on a five point ordered scale which however gave possible answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly

agree. This research instruments have been validated by earlier researchers to be ideal for examining teaching strategies (Marmah, 2014) and (Ismail, 2014)

Research model

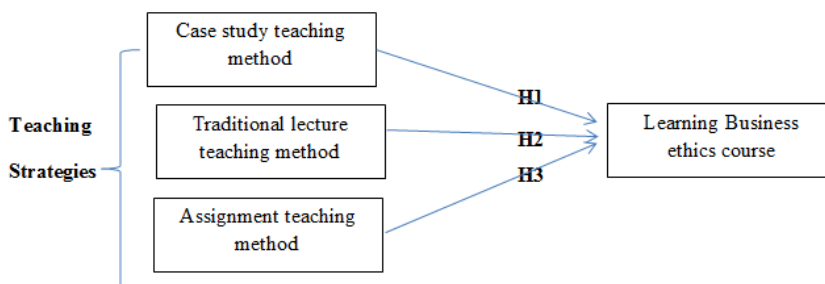


Figure (1), Research Model, created by the researchers

Research hypothesis

According to the above research model, the researchers set the following research hypothesis:

H1: There is a positive association between case study teaching method and learning business ethics course.

H2: There is a positive association between traditional lecture teaching method and learning business ethics course.

H3: There is a positive association between assignment teaching method and learning business ethics course.

Data analysis and results

The purpose of this study is to measure the relation between teaching strategies (case study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method) with learning business ethics course in private university in Erbil. As it mentioned previously total of 146 participants were involved in completing the survey. These respondents had different level of education some respondents were from first year, some from second year, third year and others from fourth year. The current study deals with learning business ethics and teaching strategies in education sectors, the teaching strategies criteria to examine were identified as case

study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method.

The participants were asked to rate how important they perceived each item on five point ordered scales. The scales for engineer performance was measured and evaluated on a five point scale with potential answers ranging from strongly disagree to strong agree. The scales for training, performance evaluation, compensation, promotion and participation were measured as well on a five point ordered scale which however gave possible answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

The following tables show the statistical results of this study using SPSS program:

Demographic analysis

TABLE 1 Demographic Analysis

Items		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	84	57.5
	Female	62	42.5
Age	20-21	13	8.9
	22-23	77	52.7
	24-25	49	33.6
	25+	7	4.8
Level of education	Second year	37	25.3
	Third year	76	52.1
	Fourth year	33	22.6

TABLE 2 Reliability analysis

Factor	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Case study method	.768	9
Traditional lecture method	.867	7
Assignment method	.608	7
Business ethics	.913	9

As seen in the table (2), the reliability analysis for case study method, traditional lecture method and assignment method as independent factors, on the other hand, business ethics course for business department students as dependent factor. According to the reliability statistics test, the researchers found out Cronbach's Alpha for case study teaching method =.768 for which is greater than .7 this means that items of case study teaching method factor was reliable for this study, Cronbach's Alpha for traditional lecture teaching method =.867 for which is greater than .7 this means that items of traditional lecture teaching method was reliable for this study, Cronbach's Alpha for assignment teaching method =.608 which is greater than .7 this means that items of assignment teaching method was reliable for this study and Cronbach's Alpha for business ethics course=.913 7 this means that items for the business ethics course was reliable for this study.

TABLE 3 Correlation analysis

Correlations		Case study method	Traditional lecture method	Assignment method
Business ethics	Pearson	.156**	.519**	.153**
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.059	.000	.066
	N	146	146	146
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

As seen in table (3), $R=.156^{**}$ for case study teaching method factor, this means that case study teaching method has weak correlated with business ethics course, $R=.519^{**}$ for traditional lecture teaching method factor, this means that traditional lecture teaching method has significantly correlated with business ethics course and $R=.153^{**}$ for assignment teaching method factor, this means that assignment teaching method has weak correlated with

business ethics course. According to the above table, the researchers concluded the strongest correlation and the highest value among all factors was traditional lecture teaching method which =.519**.

Regression analysis

TABLE 4 Model summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.524 ^a	.275	.260	.90001
a. Predictors: (Constant), assignment, traditional, case				

Regression analysis is analyzing relationships among factors. $Y=f(x_1, x_2...X_C)$. Regression analysis is to estimate the how Y will influence and change X and predict. In this research case study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method are independent variables and business ethics course is dependent. The business ethics course' overall difference could be measured by its variance. The differences are measured as the sum of the square between participant's forecasted business ethics course values and the total mean divided by the number of participants. After division it will clarify variance by the total variance of business ethics course, the researchers found out the amount or the number of total difference or variance that is accounted based on regression calculation. The number should vary between 0 -1 and is symbolized by R Square. Table (4) shows the value of R square = .275 this indicates that 27.5% of total variance has been explained.

TABLE 5 ANOVA

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	43.592	3	14.531	17.939	.000 ^b
	Residual	115.022	142	.810		
	Total	158.614	145			
a. Dependent Variable: ethics						
b. Predictors: (Constant), assignment, tradition, case						

As seen in the above table (5), F value for case study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method as independent variable =17.939, since $(17.939 > 1)$ this indicates there is a significant relation between all independent variables (case study teaching method, traditional lecture teaching method and assignment teaching method) and dependent variable which is business ethics course.

TABLE 6 Coefficients

		Coefficients ^a			
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	1.251	.431		2.905
	Case Study	-.02	.098	-.020	-.224
	Traditional Lecture	.650	.094	.511	6.912
	Assignment	.099	.102	.083	.971

a. Dependent Variable: ethics

As seen in the above table (6), the result of three hypothesis, case study has not predicted business ethics course (Beta is weight -0.20 , $p > .001$) this indicates that case study teaching method will not have any association with learning business ethics course, accordingly the first research hypothesis was rejected. According to traditional lecture teaching method has significantly predicted learning business ethics course (Beta is weight 0.511 , $p < .001$) this indicates that traditional lecture teaching method will have a direct positive association with learning business ethics course, accordingly the second research hypothesis was supported, and last research hypothesis, assignment teaching method has weak prediction with learning business ethics course (Beta is weight 0.083 , $p > .001$) this indicates that assignment teaching method will have a weak positive association with learning business ethics course, accordingly third research hypothesis was supported.

Conclusions

The study has proved the extensively held opinion that the traditional lecture method will pursue to be the principal method of teaching in education sectors. According to multiple regression analysis, the researchers found out that the highest value and the most dominant teaching method was traditional lecture method. The findings of this study proved the strongest relation between traditional lecture teaching methods with learning business ethics course. Also, based on multiple regression analysis, the researchers were able to test the research hypothesis; the first research hypothesis; case study teaching method has a positive association with learning business ethics course, the finding of this study revealed that case study teaching method has not predicted business ethics course (Beta is weight -0.20 , $p > .001$) this indicates that case study teaching method will not have any association with learning business ethics course, accordingly the first research hypothesis was rejected. The second research hypothesis; traditional lecture teaching method has positive association with learning business ethics course, the finding of this study revealed that traditional lecture teaching method has significantly predicted learning business ethics course (Beta is weight 0.511 , $p < .001$) this indicates that traditional lecture teaching method will have a direct positive association with learning business ethics course, accordingly the second research hypothesis was supported, and last research hypothesis, assignment teaching method has positive association with learning business ethics course, the finding of this study revealed that assignment teaching method has weak prediction with learning business ethics course (Beta is weight 0.083 , $p > .001$) this indicates that assignment teaching method will have a weak positive association with learning business ethics course, accordingly third research hypothesis was supported.

References:

- Blanthorne, C. K. (2007). "Accounting educators opinions about ethics in the curriculum: an extensive view. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 355-390.
- Crocker, L. a. (1986). *Introduction to Classical and Modern Test Theory*. Philadelphia: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- Fenstermacher, G. D. (1990). *Some moral considerations on teaching as a profession. The moral dimensions of teaching*.
- Fisher, D. S. (2007). Accounting Education lags CPE ethics requirements: Implications for profession and a call to action. *Accounting Education*, 345-363.
- Freire, P. (1998). *Pedagogy of freedom: Ethics, democracy and civic courage* . Maryland,: Rowman and Littlefield.
- Herrick, J. (2003). *Humanism: An Introduction* . Oldham: Rationalist Press Association.
- Ismail, S. R. (2014). Preference of teaching and learning methods in a new medical school of malaysia . *Journal of Applied Pharmacuetical Science Vol. 4 (02)*, 078-055.
- Loeb, S. E. (1988). Teaching Students Accounting Ethics: Some Crucial Issues. *Issues in Accounting Education* 3, 316-329.
- M, J. (2004). Incorporating Ethics and professionalism into accounting education and research: A discussion of voids and advocacy for training in seminal worrks in business ethics. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 7-26.
- Marmah, a. (2014). Students' perception about the lecture as a method of teaching in tertiary institutions, Views of students from college of technology education, Kumasi (Coltek). *International journal of education and research vol.2, no: 6*, 601-612.
- Massey, D. a. (2009). Walking the walk: Integrating lessons from multiple perspectives in the development of an accounting ethics capstone. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 24 (4) (November), 481-510.

- McGee, S. H. (1998, April). Evolution of academic tasks in design experiment of scientific inquiry. *Americal Educational Research Association*. San Diego, CA.
- Sirotnik, K. A., & soder, R. &. (1990). *Society, schooling, teaching, and preparing to teach.The moral dimensions of teaching*. San Fransisco: Jossy- Bass Publishers.
- Stallings, J. a. (1974). *Follow Through Classroom Observation Evaluation, 1972-1973,SRI Project URU-7370, Menlo Park, California (August 1974)*. Menlo Park, California : StanfordResearchInstitute.
- Stevens, B. (2008). Corporate ethical codes: Effective instruments for influencing behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 78, 601-609.
- Wild, M. &. (1997). Implications of educational theory for the design of instructional multimedia. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 29 (1), 73-82.

The Issue of Gender Assignment in Code Switching

Haitham Hussein Bapeer

University of Salahaddin

College of Education

Department of English language

Abstract

Bilingual speakers, and, to a lesser extent, writers, sometimes shift from one language to another either deliberately or indeliberately. When individuals attempt to learn a second language, their linguistic competencies in both languages may overlap. This linguistic phenomenon is known as code switching. i.e using words, phrases, or even sentences from the two languages in the same stretch of discourse. Strictly speaking cs sometimes may occur within the same language or in other words, when a weaker or writer resorts to using words, phrases or sentences of another dialect of that particular language.

Introduction

Code switching is a widely known linguistic phenomenon. It is observed in multilingual and multicultural communities. In second language teaching class, code switching occurs either in the teachers' or the students' stretches of discourse a habit which is criticized by many educators due to its disadvantages.

This phenomenon very often occurs amongst bilinguals of particular languages. Language change is widely seen in foreign language classrooms. Bilingual speakers alter their native or second languages at various occasions in either in the stretch of discourse or writing. Fluent second language speakers often insert words, phrases and sentences into their discourses as they code switch.

Globalization has brought about more people to learn a second language for a variety of reasons such better job opportunities, academic success, travel and so on. Learning a second language has become an indispensable necessity. Culture mosaic confirmed the inevitability of studying code switching as a significant field in linguistics.

This study will looks into some significant sub-topics in code switching like its various definitions by researchers and linguists but primarily it focuses on the significance of gender in code switching.

Code switching is a common phenomenon in multilingual and multicultural communities. Community multilingualism is a striking feature of most world countries. Linguists' interest in Code switching reflects its linguistic universality.

Code switching probably is utilized by bilingual speakers as an extension rather than language interference and the reverse is true. Situational and contextual will determine whether it is a language extension or interference.

Terminology

A distinction should be made between code switching and code mixing since they are often mixed with each other. It is significant that we define each of them separately. Hoffman (1991:110) defines code switching as 'the alternate use of two languages or linguistic varieties within the same utterance or during the same conversation' whereas Hamers and Blanc (2000: 369) define it as 'a bilingual communication strategy consisting of the alternate use of two languages in the same utterance'.

Doubt arises, however, because the two linguistic phenomena may overlap each other at the conceptual level in the same stretch of discourse. (Ibid: 2000).

According to McKay and Hornberger (1996:69) *the alternation of language within sentences, is a familiar practice of code switching, which some researchers* (Bhatia & Ritchie, 1989; Bokamba, 1988; Kachru, 1992; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1980), *label it as code mixing*. Kachru (1978: 28) defines it as: 'The term 'code-mixing' refers to the use of one or more languages for consistent transfer of linguistic units from one language into another, and by such a language mixture developing a new restricted or not so restricted code of linguistic interaction.' Hamers and Blanc (2000:369) defines code-mixing as 'a communication strategy used by bilinguals in which the speaker of one language Lx transfers elements or rules of a different language (Ly) to Lx (the base language); unlike BORROWING, however, these elements are not integrated into the linguistic system of Lx' Gardner-Chloros (2009: 13) cited in Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) and Bokamba (1980) that code mixing is utilized for alternation within the sentence whereas alterations in code-switching occur beyond the sentences borders. Code mixing is employed for the intermixture of the two grammatical systems of bilinguals. whereas he makes reference to code switching as the pragmatic competence of altering the language chosen by the interlocutor, topic, context and so on. However Wei (2000:244) argues that code-switching exists only where an overlap is in the two systems. Code-switching is generated by co-operating the two spoken or written languages. These two last two strategies (code-switching and code mixing) are not unequivocal but overlapping phenomena. The other terms should be defined which often found in this research Matrix Language (ML) which a dominant language in code switching while Embedded Language (EL) is less dominant language

Review of literature

Over the last two decades numerous studies have been conducted on code switching. Languages all over the world are not equally gendered. Some are more gendered than others. Engendering words among bilinguals have

been topic of many studies. Gender assignment in code switching can be dealt on semantic and formal criteria. Formal criteria include both phonological and morphological criteria. For example language is a semantic gendered language. In some language like Arabic and French gendered by adding some specific prefixes or suffixes for example assignment of the suitable words is not easy for English native speakers, since in English language, sentence forming is very limited to word gender relevance. (Gonzalez:241). Albeit in arabic language almost every single word of the language is gendered. Few native speakers make mistakes. Word gender may impose some confusion for new language learners. Bilinguals often mistakes while they attempt to code switch from one language to another because they may be mistaken for gender issue. Two language involved will generate code switching they are Matrix Language (ML) and Embedded Language (EL: is less dominant language in code switching). In classic code switching, the ML constructs the grammatical structure, moreover, however it is probable that matrix language structure may vary synchronically and may go beyond the EL with further continuation of bilingualism Fuller and Lehnert (2000).

Fuller and Lehnert (2000) cited in (Pfaff, 1979; Poplack, 1980, imm, 1975) that restriction on code switching of each language ML and EL have equally participate in forming the grammatical structure in intrasentential code switching. Fuller and Lehnert (2000) also cited in Poplack (1980) who claims that code switching is solely authorized at places where the structural surface of ML and EL languages are in agreement.

Types of code switching

There are several code switching classifications; however, due to lack of space, only the two most common ones are explained. Hamers and Blanc (2000: 259) assumes that intersentential code-switching, is a switch at clause or sentence boundary, one clause being uttered in one language, the other clause in another. e.g. Starting a sentence in one language and ending it in another, whereas Wei (2000:266) claims that intersentential code switching means switching between complement phrases which are monolingual, therefore illustrating INTERNAL structure of the complement phrases forming intersentential code switching regarding opposition between ML and EL is not pertinent. It is matching between syntactic rules of different

uttered or written language is more impenetrable in intrasentential code switching. The second one is intrasentential which is a type of code-switching in which switching occurs within the clause or sentence boundary. In term of linguistic significance, intrasentential is more remarkable than interasentential type since the former involves the grammar of language. Only in intrasentential code-switching, there is a grammar contact of the two spoken languages. Wei (2000: 265) claims that the two involved languages in bilingual conversation do not form the discourse equally. One language, which is called the matrix language, is more dominant in producing the language.

Many bilinguals have enough abilities to code switch from using one language for a whole discourse to another for a different discourse but they are unable to alter from one language to another within a single sentence. It is worth mentioning that in intrasentential code switching, only those with fluency in bilingualism will be able to do so with competency; however, not all bilinguals possess the necessary skill to perform it with ease. This is an aptitude that one can only acquire through practice with other code switchers. Many bilinguals have adequate abilities to code switch from one language to another within a discourse but are usually unable to alter from one language to another within a single sentence. The third type is called tag-switching. (Romaine 1995: 122) defines it as 'tag-switching which involves the insertion of a tag in one language into an utterance which is otherwise entirely in the other language, e.g. you know, I mean, etc.' As a matter of fact Hoffmann (1991: 104) generally prefers to label tag-switching as a type of intersentential code switching. Blom and Gumperz 1972 classifies two types of code switching. They classified into situational and metaphorical code-switching. In the former, speakers switch between languages, dialects, styles and accents in their discourse. This occurs due to a change in setting and a different variety is demanded. (Trask and Scotwell: 40). (Schendl and Wright:284) states in metaphorical code-switching that the situational change is insignificant, i.e the situation remains the same, the switch is generated by changing the spoken or written topic or subject matter.

Factors Shaping Code Switching

There are two factors, *structural linguistic and* extralinguistic affective factors that may generate code switching mechanism in bilinguals. Structural Linguistic Factors Javier (2007:61) cited in Weinreich (1974) that there are three distinct conditions where code-switching may occur. Firstly, when a bilingual's vocabulary inadequacy ends in failure in perpetuating the stretch of the discourse of any of the languages to name new things, people and concepts. Javier also cited in (Peraino & Thomas, 2002) exemplified some Arabic words, such as Jihad and Al Qaeda now frequently heard in the American vocabulary and came into existence by Afghanistan war. Secondly, when less common words in any of the bilingual lexicon makes it inevitable for the interlocutor to hunt for new words in the other language. Thirdly, when there is insufficient differentiation within the bilingual semantic fields Activation or deactivation in bilinguals is generated by two main factors. Vocabulary competency causes the speakers to hunt for alternatives in the other language. The example is the permanent inclusion of the German word kranz which means (wreath) in an Italian-German's lexicon to make difference between (crown) and (wreath) thus for both words the word corona is utilized. The second factor is extralinguistic factors. It is clear that code switching cannot be labeled merely as a linguistic phenomenon. Javier 2007 makes reference to the work by Greenfield and Fishman 1975 that chose forty-one hypothetical situations as samples of family focusing on some particular domain namely friendship, religion, education and employment. They asked some Spanish- English Puerto Rican subjects to visualize themselves in each of the forty- one situations and to presume that they and all others involved in the study were equally fluent in Spanish and English. Each situation is involved an 'interlocutor,' a 'location' where the communication was planned to occur, and a 'topic' of conversation. The subjects' assignment was to demonstrate their preferred language. Once again, Rubin's and Blom's results were verified by the findings in the available research. Rubin and Blom concluded that Spanish was used more frequently in intimacy-based occasions, and English language was the preferred choice when education, employment-related, people, and places were involved. In topics were correspondence elements related to religion. Furthermore Spanish language

was more common in situations consisting of parents and to a lesser extent in situations between teachers or employers. Spanish language was utilized with a moderate degree of frequency in those situations involving a priest or a friend. In this study we can clearly see that there are many factors that affect speaker's language choices in communication. The relationship that the speaker has with the person spoken to is a major factor, as well as where they are, and the circumstances of the conversation. It comes down to when, where, and with whom. The switched languages are reflected by these relationships. As the individual changes back and forth between languages, he or she makes associations with one of languages, usually to the first language, due to its emotional bearing and close interaction. Gonzalez (2008:80) assumes that as individuals achieve success in learning a second language their sociopsycholinguistic proficiency in both languages overlap, constructing a hybrid. One example in which this blend competency clarifies itself is where interlocutors utilize both languages as they switch code from one language to another. Historically, and to lesser extent even nowadays code switching has been roundly criticized due to reflection of lack of linguistic incompetence of the speaker, hence new epithets like Chinglish, Spanglish came into existence.

Overview of some recent research on gender assignment in code switching

Chirsheva (2009) conducted research on gender in Russian-English code switching. The participants of the research consisted of five groups. In Groups 1-4 spontaneous conversations were tape recorded and some notes were taken about them. Regarding who participated in group five they were classified in this way: 23 Russian students trying to learn English in a Russian university, 12 Russian adults living in Russia, 12 Russian adults staying and living in United States of America, 14 Russian children staying and living the United States of America and 35 Russian adults living in the United States of America, Russia and in some other countries.

The first, second, third and fifth groups were proficient in speaking Russian language. The first group's participants aged 20-22 years old, i.e they were senior students, majored in English philology in a Russian university. They switched codes from one language to another, Russian to English and vice

versa before, between and during short breaks and after language classes. They claimed that code switching makes them feel relaxed. They also claimed that they switch code when they give their classmates or discussing a problem.

The second group was a group of Russian adults living in Russia aged from 26-55 years old. Most of them were university lecturers teaching English and some other humanity majors. They code switched to a great extent in the same situations as students did. They claim that they felt freer when they mixed languages even sometimes in conference presentations, especially when they do not find equivalent words in their Russian native language. Sometimes as they have been observed, they switched codes when they were interested in playing on particular words just to make their listeners feel relaxed. The third group who were bilingual speakers, Russian–English was aged 26-60. All group members acquired Russian language in Russia. Most of them received their higher education at Russian-based universities. They learnt Russian like any other people living in Russia. All of them could be labeled as fluent and proficient in Russian.

Their English language proficiency varied but all of them were able to speak English as a second language either in formal or informal settings. Russian grammar of American-Russians does not demonstrate any features of attrition (weakening). They code switched from Russian into English in pragmatic settings for example when their English lexicons aided them better in expressing an idea more accurately.

The fourth group was Russian children living in the USA. They were labeled as insufficient comprehensible input. They were born in mixed Russian or American parents, some of them came to live in the USA aged three, six and eleven years old with their parents, and they switched codes only when the settings imposed on them. %29 of all participants assigned %100 animated to masculine nouns. They did not take into their considerations semantic analogy in animate nouns because of they are masculine in Russian language and % 3 of participants assigned to %100 of animate nouns to feminine-gendered ones. The average results were masculine nouns were assigned to %60 of used nouns in their conversations, whereas feminine-gendered nouns were assigned to %39 of the nouns and neutral nouns were assigned to %1 of the used nouns. Fuller and Lehnert (2000) researched two groups of German-

English bilinguals, about 10 hours of conversation one hour for each research respondent were tape recorded, transcribed and analyzed. The first collected data in bilingual conversations including ten German students who had lived in the USA, essential data for the research have been collected. They were temporarily lived in the USA. All of them passed conversational fluency skill in English language. The first group of participants has some German speakers who permanently lived in the USA and had dwelt there at least for five years at the time of data collection. All of participants were involved in casual interview. It is concluded that ML German guides the grammatical gender assignment. As a matter of fact EL, English is being used without gender in grammatical point of view. Albeit with this distinct dominance of German ML in gender assignment grammatically, but there is no available strategy from German which may be applied in all circumstances.

Conclusion

Code switching is not a random linguistic phenomenon. It occurs quite systematically but it depends on the involved interlocutors and their knowledge about the spoken language. The more fluently bilingual they are, the more accurate will be his or her language when he or she shifts from one language to another. Gender assignment in spoken language has often imposed a threat to language accuracy. Different languages have different systems for engendering words. For instance adjectives are neutral but in Arabic every adjective is either masculine or feminine. However this fact imposes a lesser degree of concern among teenagers, since in most settings where they switch code, they do it for flavouring a situation and variation and even sometimes for practicing a new word or sentence in the language he or she wants to acquire. When people code switch they should take into consideration their gender and grammatical structure of the second language because it is vital for code switching literacy.

References

Fuller, J. M., and H. Lehnert. 'Noun Phrase Structure In German-English Codeswitching: Variation In Gender Assignment And Article Use'.

International Journal of Bilingualism 4.3 (2000): 399-420.

Gardner-Chloros, Penelope. *Code-Switching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2009.

GONZALEZ, J.M. (2008). *Encyclopedia of Bilingual Education*. Los Angeles, Sage

Grosjean, François. *Studying Bilinguals*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008. Gumperz, John J. *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge [Cambridgeshire]: Cambridge University Press, 1982. Hadi-Tabassum, Samina. *Language, Space And Power*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 2006.

Hamers, Josiane F, and Michel Blanc. *Bilinguality And Bilingualism*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000. Hoffmann, Charlotte. *An Introduction To Bilingualism*. London: Longman, 1991. KACHRU, BRAJ B. 'Toward Structuring Code-Mixing: An Indian Perspective'. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 1978.16 (1978): n. pag. Web.

Li, Wei. *The Bilingualism Reader*. London: Routledge, 2000.

McKay, Sandra, and Nancy H Hornberger. *Sociolinguistics And Language Teaching*. Cambridge [England]: Cambridge University Press, 1996. Myers-Scotton, Carol. *Duelling Languages*. Oxford, Eng.: Clarendon Press, 1997. Print.

Trask, R. L, and Peter Stockwell. *Language And Linguistics*. Abingdon [England]: Routledge, 2007.

Students' Beliefs About Learning English Language As A Foreign Language At English Department College Of Basic Education Salahaddin University/ Hawler

Hazha Salih Hassan

Dept. of English, College of Basic Education, University of Salahaddin, Kurdistan Region-Iraq

haja200974@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Since students are essential part in the process of learning, it is thought that their beliefs about learning have great effect on their learning behavior as well as teachers' and teaching instructions. This study aims at exploring and investigating English language students' beliefs towards learning English language as a foreign language in college of Basic Education, English Department at Salahaddin University/ Hawler. The survey has achieved through examining five major areas of Horwitz (1987) model concerning foreign language students' beliefs about language learning inventory (BALLI). Results reveal that students have positive and realistic beliefs about learning English as a foreign language and they believe that it is important to speak English and if they learn speaking English very well they will get better job opportunities. Finally, the researcher recommends that teachers and, professionals in education should know about student's beliefs to better plan language instructions and learning environment.

Keywords: Students Beliefs, Learning Language, Beliefs and Attitudes, Language Instruction.

1- INTRODUCTION

It is generally agreed that individual language learners hold different beliefs about how language is learned. Individual beliefs about language learning may consciously or unconsciously influence learners' approaches to language learning (Mokhtaria, 2007). As Horwitz (1985, 1987 & 1999) claimed, it is important to understand learner beliefs to better understand learner approaches to language learning, and learners' use of learning strategies to better plan language instruction (Mokhtari, 2007), (cited in Bagherzadeh, 2012: pp 784).

2.1-THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Since the mid 1980s, a number of studies in second or foreign language learning were devoted to beliefs that language learners hold. Impetus for these studies was given by the pioneering research of Elaine Horwitz of the University of Texas at Austin. In 1980, Horwitz conducted her research among students and instructors by her designed instrument beliefs about language learning inventory, (BALLI) at the University of Texas at Austin (Ibid:pp785). Victori and Lockhart (1995) discuss differences between “ insightful beliefs” which successful learners hold, and the negative or limited beliefs” which poor learners hold, state that if students develop or maintain misconceptions about their own learning, if they attribute undue importance to factors that are external to their own action. They are not likely to adopt a responsible and active attitude in their approach to learning and may never become autonomous (Tercanlioglu, 2005: pp 225), (cited in Ibid).

2.2-CLASSIFICATION OF BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

According to Mokhtari (2007), among researchers, Horwitz (1987) is considered the first researcher to attempt to identify language learners' beliefs in a systematic way. Based on free-recall tasks and focus group discussions with both foreign language and ESL teachers and students, she developed a 34 Liker-scale questionnaire, called the beliefs about language

learning Inventory (BALLI) to identify student beliefs. The BALLI assesses students' beliefs in five major areas: (1) foreign language aptitude; (2) the difficulty of language learning; (3) the nature of language learning ;(4) learning and communication strategies; and (5) motivation and expectations (Horwitz, 1987), (cited in Ibid).

2.3-BELIEFS IN LEARNING ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Richardson (1996:103) defines beliefs as "Psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true"(cited in Alsamaani, 2012: pp 34). Assessing beliefs that language learners bring to the language classroom is important for both language instructors and curriculum designers because "beliefs are predispositions to action" (Rokeach, 1968, p. 113),(cited in Chang, n.d: pp 65). Puchta (1999), for instance, claimed that beliefs are "guiding principles" of people's behaviors. He elaborated that beliefs "are generalizations about cause and effect, and [that] they influence our inner representation of the world around us. They help us to make sense of that world, and they determine how we think and how we act" (pp. 68-69), (cited in Vibulphol, 2004:9). Beliefs in English language as foreign language is like a strong feeling or opinion which is differ from person to person, how to attitude towards it, in a supernatural power/s that control/s our human destiny.

3-METHODOLOGY

3.1-RESEARCH QUESTION

The study is an Endeavour to investigate English learners' beliefs about learning English as a foreign language thus by finding answer to the questions: What are the beliefs about English learning held by students (learners) of English Department at college of Basic Education? Do the students have positive or negative beliefs about learning English as a foreign Language?

3.2-PARTICIPANTS

This paper deals with the results of a research project conducted among fourth year students at college of Basic Education English Department to investigate the participants' (learners') beliefs in EFL learning in five major areas as suggested by Horwitz (1987) (the questionnaire has been taken from Vibulphol, 2004:286). All the students were invited to participate in the study, but only (20) out of 60 students volunteered to participate. They all belong to the same level of education, and they follow the same curriculum.

3.3-THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Horwitz (1987) model concerning foreign language students' beliefs about language learning inventory (BALLI) (as it is used by Vibulphol, 2004:286), is used in this study. The 34 items that was adapted from BALLI inventory were actually testing **five** major language-learning areas, which are:

- The difficulty of language learning: Items 3, 23, 32, 33, and 34.
- Aptitude for language learning: Items 1, 2, 5,9,10, 14, 17, 28, and 31.
- The nature of language learning process: Items 7, 11, 15, 21, 25 and 26.
- Learning and communication strategies: Items 6, 8, 12, 13, 16, 19,20 and 24.
- Motivations and expectations for language learning: Items 4, 18,22 ,27, 29 and 30.

All the items in the questionnaire designed based on five point Likert - scale which measures respondents' interest according to their level of agreement or disagreement from 5(strongly disagree) to 1(strongly agree), except items 4 and 15.

The statements on a Likert scale should be either expressing appositve/favorable or negative/unfavorable attitude towards the object of

interest. Although the Likert scale was originally developed to measure attitude, its scope has been extended to wider cognitive and affective variables, including beliefs (Altan, 2012; Buyukyazi, 2012; Rad, 2010; Diab, 2009; Horwitz, 1998), (cited in Alsamaani, 2014: 29).

4- DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS:

In this study, which tries to find out the students' beliefs about foreign language learning, the frequencies are analyzed, and the results are given in percentages. There are two positively words and two negatively words with neutral one, they are grouped together in order to see whether the participants had positive or negative beliefs on the items. The areas suggested by Horwitz (1987) are used for presenting data in tables.

The result of each main aspect in the questionnaire "Beliefs about English language learning" is presented in tables as follows:

Table 1. The difficulty of language learning: Items 3, 23, 32, 33, and 34.

Items	Options	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3-Some languages are easier to learn than others.	Frequency	13	4	3	0	0
	Percentage	65	20	15	0	0
23-The most important of learning English is learning the grammar.	Frequency	5	0	10	5	0
	Percentage	25	0	50	25	0
32- I would like to have friends who are native speakers of English.	Frequency	16	4	0	0	0
	Percentage	80	20	0	0	0
33- Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	Frequency	11	3	3	3	0
	Percentage	55	15	15	15	0
34-It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	Frequency	0	5	10	3	2
	Percentage	0	25	50	15	10

Table 1: is about the difficulty of language learning, it consists 5 items. Most of the students strongly agree that some languages are easier to learn than others. They neither agree nor disagree about the importance of grammar in learning language; half of them state neutral opinion. Most of them strongly desire to have native speaker friends and more than half of them belief that everyone can learn a foreign language this indicates that most of the students have or show desire to learn foreign language. They do not agree that reading and writing are easier than speaking and understanding. Half of them

are neutral; this means that to the students writing and reading are as difficult as speaking and understanding.

Table 2. Aptitude for language learning: Items 1, 2, 5,9,10, 14, 17, 28, and 31.

Items	Options	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1-It's easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	Frequency	11	9	0	0	0
	Percentage	55	45	0	0	0
2-Some people have a special ability for learning foreign language.	Frequency	7	13	0	0	0
	Percentage	35	65	0	0	0
5-I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well.	Frequency	4	12	4	0	0
	Percentage	20	60	20	0	0
9-You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	Frequency	6	0	10	4	0
	Percentage	30	0	50	20	0
10-It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another.	Frequency	2	5	0	10	3
	Percentage	10	25	0	50	15
14-It is okay to guess if you don't know a word in English.	Frequency	3	7	10	0	0
		15	35	50		

	Percentage				0	0
17-The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.	Frequency	7	13	0	0	0
	Percentage	35	65	0	0	0
28- The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.	Frequency	9	0	8	3	0
	Percentage	45	0	40	15	0
31-I want to learn to speak English well.	Frequency	17	0	0	3	0
	Percentage	85	0	0	15	0

Table 2 is about foreign language aptitude, it consists of 9 items. It provides information about the common tendency and talent of each of the participants whom they answered the items. They strongly agree that a child can learn a language more easily than adult person can. They are optimistic toward learning English even after a long period. Half of them stay neutral about not saying anything in English until one can say it correctly. They disagree toward the easiness to learn another language while a person is already speaks a foreign language. They are neutral about the point that suggests guessing if someone does not know a word in English. Approximately 2/3 of the participants agree with the importance of learning vocabulary words in learning English. They belief that learning words are the most important aspect in learning English, 45% strongly agree that the most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from their native language and 85% strongly agree on the desire to learn to speak English well. Here one can say that most of the participants are interested in having a tendency or aptitude to learn English as a foreign language since most of them choose agree option, with strongly agree.

Table 3. The nature of language learning process: Items 7, 11, 15, 21, 25 and 26.

Items	Options	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7-It is Important to speak English with excellent pronunciation.	Frequency	3	7	7	3	0
	Percentage	15	35	35	15	0
11-People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.	Frequency	0	4	0	14	2
	Percentage	0	20	0	70	10
15-If someone spent one hour a day. Learning English how long would it take then to speak English very well: 1- less than a year. 2-1-2 years 3-3-5 years 4-5-15 years 5-you can't learn a language in hour a day.	Frequency	(1) 8	(2) 12	(3) 0	(4) 0	(5) 0
	Percentage			0	0	0
21- I feel timid speaking English with other people.	Frequency	0	0	8	7	5
	Percentage	0	0	40	35	25
25- It is easier to speak than understand English.	Frequency	0	0	0	15	5
	Percentage	0	0	0	75	25
26- It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.	Frequency	5	9	6	0	0
	Percentage	25	45	30	0	0

Table 3 deals with the nature of the learning English Language, and most of the students choose disagree selection because, they think that it's not important to speak English with excellent pronunciation, or people who are good at science are not good in learning foreign languages. They do not feel shy speaking English with other people and $\frac{3}{4}$ of them disagree with the point that speaking English is easier than understanding, this means that speaking is not an easy to master. However, 60% of them agree with the idea that if someone spends an hour every day learning English, this person can learn speaking English within 1-2 years. Moreover, they do agree that practicing is important.

Table 4. Learning and communication strategies: Items 6, 8, 12, 13, 16, 19,20 and 24.

Items	Options	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6- People at my country are good at learning foreign languages.	Frequency	3	14	3	0	0
	Percentage	15	70	15	0	0
8- It is necessary to know about English speaking cultures in order to learn to speak English.	Frequency	6	9	0	5	0
	Percentage	30	45	0	25	0
12- It is best to learn English in an English speaking country.	Frequency	14	6	0	0	0
	Percentage	70	30	0	0	0
13- I enjoy practicing English with native	Frequency	12	8	0	0	0

speakers of English.	Percentage	60	40	0	0	0
16- I have a special ability for learning foreign languages beliefs about foreign language learning and foreign language anxiety.	Frequency	0	7	13	0	0
	Percentage	0	35	65	0	0
19- Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	Frequency	0	0	0	9	11
	Percentage	0	0	0	45	55
20- People in my country feel that it is important to speak English.	Frequency	8	9	3	0	0
	Percentage	40	45	15	0	0
24- I would like to learn English so that I can get to know native speakers of English better.	Frequency	0	18	0	0	2
	Percentage	0	90	0	0	10

The fourth table is about learning and communication strategies: using the language communicatively is more important than knowing its rules. The beliefs on using language communicatively revealed similarities and differences among the learners. Most of the learners choose agree selection because, they think that their colleague learners are good at learning foreign languages. Most of the participants think that in order to learn speaking English one must know about English speaking culture, and the person must be in the English speaking country. Majority of the students do agree that some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages and learners are good at learning foreign languages but they (the students) do not

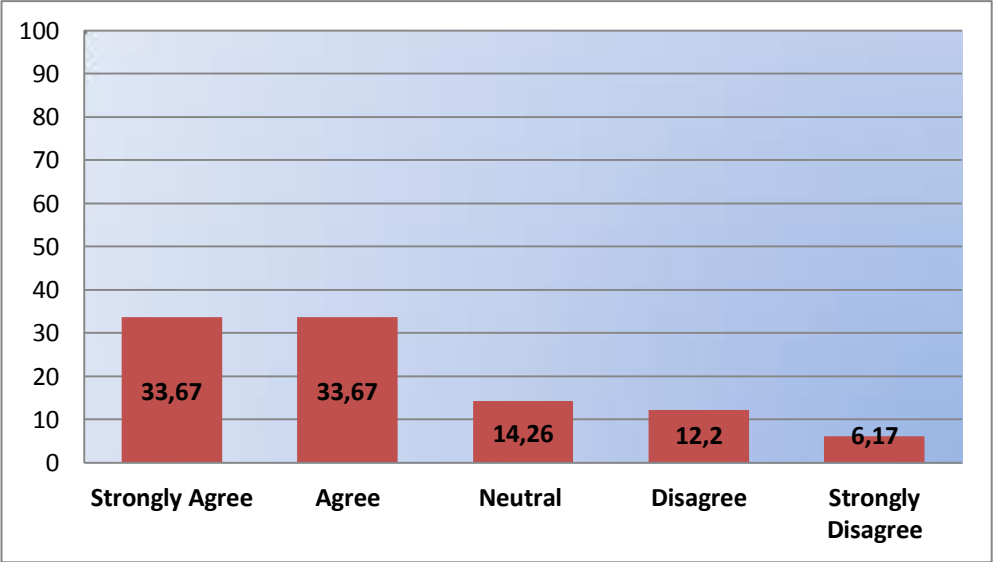
consider themselves having the special ability for learning foreign language. They neither agree nor disagree with the point concerning having a special ability for learning foreign languages beliefs about foreign language learning and foreign language anxiety and with the idea that women are better than men at learning foreign language. They do agree that people think highly toward the importance to speak English, 90% of them would like to learn English so that they can get to know native speakers of English better. To sum up, one can state that most of the participants have strong beliefs about communicative strategies that are mentioned in this area, such as being in a speaking English country, being in contact with native English speakers, knowing English speaking culture ...etc in order to learn speaking English well.

Table 5. Motivations and expectations for language learning: Items 4, 18,22 ,27, 29 and 30.

Items	Options	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
4- English is (1-a very difficult language. 2- a difficult language. 3- a language of medium difficulty.4- an easy language. 5-a very easy language.	Frequency	(1) 2	(2) 12	(3) 6	(4) 0	(5) 0
	Percentage	10	60	30	0	0
18- It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	Frequency	16	4	0	0	0
	Percentage	80	20	0	0	0
22- If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English; it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	Frequency	0	0	3	8	9
	Percentage	0	0	15	40	45

27- Learning foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.	Frequency	5	15	0	0	0
	Percentage	25	75	0	0	0
29- If I learn English very well .I will have better opportunities for a good job.	Frequency	20	0	0	0	0
	Percentage	100	0	0	0	0
30- People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.	Frequency	7	9	0	0	4
	Percentage	35	45	0	0	20

Table 5 is about Motivation and Expectations: why people try to learn a language gives insights about their motivation in learning, 60% of the learners agree that English is a difficult language and all of them agree and strongly agree with that learning foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects. Again, all of them agree and strongly agree with the importance of repeating and practicing in learning foreign language and they do not agree with correcting learner's errors by teachers every time on the contrary they do not believe that making errors will lead to having difficulty by the learners to speak English correctly later on. Yet, the majority of learners know that foreign language learning is important and most of them believe that they can have better job opportunities, if they know a foreign language. This shows that people usually are extrinsically motivated rather than intrinsically.



- Figure (1): Students Extent of Agreement in Percentage

5-CONCLUSION

From the data that are collected, the researcher finds some interesting findings regarding the five major areas that have been examined. Results reveal that students have positive and realistic beliefs about learning English as a foreign language. Examining the level of difficulty in EFL learning, It is indicated from the answers of the students to the items that most of the students have or show desire to learn foreign language. Most of the participants are interested in having a tendency or aptitude to learn English as a foreign language. Regarding the participants beliefs about the nature of the learning English Language, most of them think that it's not important to speak English with excellent pronunciation, or people who are good at science are not good in learning foreign languages.

They believe using the language communicatively is more important than knowing its rules. The beliefs on using language communicatively revealed similarities and differences among the learners. Most of the learners think that their colleague learners are good at learning foreign languages.

Finally yet importantly, the responses from participants regarding motivation and expectation for language learning, indicates that the majority of learners know that foreign language learning is important and these participants believe that people in their country feel that it is important to speak English and if they learn English very well, they will have better job opportunities.

6-RECOMMENDATION

It is highly recommended that teachers, professionals in the educational field, and curriculum designers should know about their students' belief concerning major areas of foreign language learning such as foreign language aptitude; the difficulty of language learning; the nature of language learning; learning and communication strategies; and eventually students' motivation and expectations. To help them to provide students with proper learning strategies and teaching instructions, thus to make the students better learners.

REFERENCES

- Bagherzadeh, H. (2012). Language learning Beliefs of Non-English Majors: Examining the role of English language Proficiency. *Journal of language teaching and research*. Volume, 3, No.4, pp.784-792. July 2012. Payame Noor University. <http://ojs.academypublisher.com>. doi:10.4304/jltr.3.4.784-792
- Chang, Ch. (n.d). Investigating Taiwanese technological university students' beliefs about English language learning. 國立虎尾科技大學學報 第三十一卷第一期 (民國一百一十一年九月) : pp 61-78. http://academic.nfu.edu.tw/ezfiles/11/1011/attach/59/pta_21248_2495659_83815.
- Al samaani, A. S. (2012). Assessing Saudi Learners Beliefs about English language learning. *International journal of English and education*. ISSN: 2278-4012, VOLUME: 1, Issue: 29 October ,Qassim university, Saudi Arabia.

(2014). University Students' Beliefs about English Language Learning. *Language in India*. ISSN: 1930-2940, VOLUME: 14, No.7, July, <http://www.languageinindia.com/pdf>

Vibulphol, J. (2004). *Beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand*. Unpublished Ph.D., Oklahoma State University, United States -- Oklahoma. <http://digital.library.okstate.edu/etd/umi-okstate-1041.pdf>

APPENDIX:

These are The Horwitzs, (BALLI) Inventory Questionnaire items which are about learns' Beliefs about English Language as a foreign language....

Items (Questionnaire)	Strong ly agree	Agree	Neutra l	Disagr ee	Strong ly disagr ee
1-it's easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.					
2-some people have a special ability for learning foreign language.					
3-some languages are easier to learn than others.					
4-English is 1-avery difficult language. 2- A difficult language. 3-a language of medium difficulty.4-an easy language. 5-a very easy language.					
5-I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well.					
6-people at my country are good at learning foreign languages.					
7-It is Important to speak					

English with excellent pronunciation.

8-It is necessary to know about English speaking cultures in order to learn to speak English.

9-you shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.

10-It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another.

11-people who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.

12-It is best to learn English in an English speaking country.

13-I enjoy practicing English with native speakers of English.

14-It is okay to guess if you don't know a word in English.

15-if someone spent one hour a day. Learning English how long would it take then to speak English very well: 1- less than a year.2-1-2 years 3-3-5 years 4-5-15 years 5-you can't learn a language in hour a day.

16-I have a special ability for learning foreign languages .beliefs about foreign language learning and foreign language anxiety.

17-The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.

18-It is important to repeat and practice a lot.

19-women are better than men at learning foreign languages.

20-people in my country feel that it is important to speak English.

21-I feel timid speaking English with other people.

22-if beginning students are permitted to make errors in English; it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.

23-The most important of learning English is learning the grammar.

24-I would like to learn English so that I can get to know native speakers of English better.

25-It is easier to speak than understand English.

26-It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.

27-learning foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.

28-The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.

29-If I learn English very well .I will have better opportunities for a good job.

30-people who speak more than one language are very intelligent.

31-I want to learn to speak English well.

32- I would like to have friends who are native speakers of English.

33-Every one can learn to speak a foreign language.

34- It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.

What Do Students Prefer to Do in an Extensive Reading Course?

Ibrahim Nişancı, Fatima Saadi, Niyan Said

Ishik University/Erbil

İbrahimnisanci@outlook.com, Fatima.saadi@ishik.edu.iq, Niyan.said@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

Integration of Extensive reading into language teaching programs has been highly appreciated and recommended by many ESL/EFL teachers all around the World. Most of these people agreed on the contribution of the extensive reading activities or procedures. Language curriculums are usually shaped by teacher observation and research results mainly. We can see that extensive reading programs has found their parts in most of the language curriculum in that practitioners (teachers applying these programs) and finding of previous research supported them. However, it is important to give an ear to learners. Hence, this study investigated the university level learners` preferences of extensive reading program which required them to have self-reading classes at school and to take notes of new vocabulary and language items. The mixed approach study was based on a questionnaire, which had both open ended and closed ended items. Seventy-four Iraqi university students participated in the study. The results provided insightful details about their preferences about the current implementation.

Key Words: Extensive Reading, Graded Readers, Learner Preferences

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Davis (1995) in an extensive reading program, students should be provided with enough time, encouragement, suitable materials, which they like to read, according to their levels. This study exactly aimed at reaching the preferences of learners` about current implementation of an extensive reading practice in order to evaluate if the current implementation provides these.

1.1 Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is complex phenomena to define. The descriptions that have been made are not able to explain it completely as the meaning of it changes era by era and from person to person. The date of definitions reflects the understanding of the phenomena for that time. Hence, it is more logical to go through some definitions from different times. As cited in Bamford and Day (1997), Harold Palmer (1917) is one of the first researchers in language pedagogy using the term "extensive reading". He defines extensive reading term as "rapidly reading book after book". Bamford and Day explain the reason why palmer chose the extensive reading term and dichotomy of intensive and extensive reading:

Palmer chose the term extensive reading to distinguish it from intensive reading. The dichotomy is still a useful one. Intensive reading often refers to the careful reading (or translation) of shorter, more difficult foreign language texts with the goal of complete and detailed understanding. Intensive reading is also associated with the teaching of reading in terms of its component skills. Texts are studied intensively in order to introduce and practice reading skills such as distinguishing the main idea of a text from the detail, finding pronoun referents, or guessing the meaning of unknown words (p. 6).

Hafiz and Tudor (1989, p.4) defined "extensive reading is the reading of large amounts of material in the second language (L2) over time for personal pleasure without the addition of productive tasks or follow-up language work". In 1998, Day and Bamford defined it "an approach to the teaching and learning of second language reading in which learners read large quantities of books and other materials that are well within their linguistic competence" (p. viii). Krashen (2004) calls extensive reading FVP (Free Voluntary Reading) and asserts that it is better than direct instruction in

terms of acquisition of all linguistic elements such as vocabulary, reading, grammar, and even writing. Although it is not very easy to agree on some aspects of extensive reading such as how much reading is considered extensive, or what activities are considered extensive reading, it is still quite clear from different definitions that in decades, extensive reading has been valued and found its way in approaches to teach or a foreign language.

In real practice of classroom, extensive reading may serve like a reading style or an activity, which has been underestimated by some teachers (Mason, 1980). However, research show that it has significant positive effect on learning a foreign language. In literature, it has been discussed that extensive reading has several benefits. To begin with, as Smith (1985) highlights the fact that large quantities of written material may help students “learn to read by reading”. Furthermore, it enables learners to develop their language skills in several areas including (but not limited to) vocabulary acquisition (Mason and Krashen 1997, Robb and Susser, 1989), reading - pace, comprehension, fluency- (Mason and Krashen, 1997), writing (Hafiz and Tudor, 1989), spelling (Polak and Krashen, 1988), and speaking (Dupuy, Tse & Cook, 1996) etc.

Extensive reading can be seen as a means of language development. As mentioned above some researchers considerer it not only a reading style, but also an instructional approach to the learning and teaching of a second and foreign language (Bamford and Day 1997, Day and Bamford 1998, Krashen 2004). This type of reading, as Day and Bamford (1998) point out, can be integrated in a language program as the focus of a reading course, can be included as a part of an existing reading class, or can serve as an extracurricular activity. The purpose of integrating extensive reading in a language program or a course is not only to achieve pleasure, information, and a general meaning of materials read, but it also aims to make learners attain the habit of reading.

1.2 Graded Readers

Graded readers can be useful tools for extensive reading activities as they are written in a way that it is easy to comprehend and fun to read. The ways they are presented in levels in order of difficulty from shorten texts to longer texts with more complex vocabulary makes them valuable (Cobb, 2008).

They have also facilitating role for reading extensively and are more likely to be appreciated by learners. The main purpose of graded readers is not to teach vocabulary but to help learners get reading skills and at the same time enjoy texts containing familiar vocabulary (West, 1955). Graded readers are prepared by various publishers in great variety which support the ideas that Davis (1995) argues above. On the other hand, some criticize graded readers. It is argued that simplifying original books or writing books with limited number of words etc. leads to artificiality and uninteresting texts with no communication. However, Bamford and Day (1997) clear this discussion up in certain arguments:

Bad simple texts are still written, but there are now hundreds of excellent, fully-realized books adapted or written for language learners at all levels of proficiency. The quality and variety of such writing in English and other languages is such that it deserves to be called language learner literature, just as there is children's literature and young adult literature (p.7).

1.3 About the Current Program and Significance of the Study

The current program was designed to encourage students to read more and to build awareness about the possibilities to learn alone (autonomy). The program consisted of four classes of reading every week in the first semester and two classes in the second. Students had taken a replacement test at the beginning of the semester, which informed the teachers about the level of each student. At the outset of the program, students are informed how to make use of books by taking notes and explained how to do it. Students were asked to read books that are suitable for their level and were free to take notes. The teachers' role was different from an ordinary lesson; he delivered and changed books- graded readers and some abridged books- according to students' level and maintained necessary atmosphere for reading in the classroom. He also explained any unclear point when students asked them. Additionally, according to their proficiency levels, students had exams every fortnight..

As mentioned above, the studies concerning extensive reading mostly focus on whether ER affects development of different language skills. However, the number of research that investigates into learners' insight about extensive reading practices is rare. One of the studies that asked about

learners' opinions was carryout by Çetin & Brooks-Lewis (2011). They investigated the how university level learners felt about graded readers. Some learners stated to have attained linguistic improvements. Another study in Italy done by Camiciottoli (2001) trying to probe the attitudes of 182 university students. The findings of the research revealed that even if frequency of reading was low, learners mostly favoured the extensive reading.

This study investigates the attitudes and preferences of learners toward an extensive reading approach, which is supplemented by some instructional components. Having a look from learners' perspectives can be considered not only noteworthy, but also crucial to the development of sound instructional practice. This study will add to the current implementation and hopefully provide certain picture considering what adult learners (at university level) think about such an approach and whether they like it or not and how they prefer. In other words, finding of the study can bear direct recommendation for a successful teaching strategy. Hence, the questions of the research revealed as:

1. What do students prefer to read in extensive reading classes?
2. When do they prefer extensive reading classes?
3. How do they prefer to have this lesson?

2. ABOUT THE RESEARCH

This study uses a questionnaire, which consists of open and closed ended questions, to identify their evaluations and insight about the current implementation of an extensive reading program. Questions of the research were answered through mixed methodology approach for the study, which empowers researchers with a triangulation of data analysis. This chapter discusses the methodology of the research. First setting and participants are introduced, and then data collection procedures and tools are explained.

3.1 Setting and Participants

In Northern part of Iraq -Kurdistan-, the situation about bilingualism and second language acquisition is quite multifaceted as a consequence of ethnic diversity.

In state schools there are three main divisions concerning the languages. Kurdish schools offer education in Kurdish, while Arabic language is encouraged as a second language. Some state schools still teach in Arabic language and families who wish their kids to learn Arabic better prefer these schools. Some of the graduates of these schools express themselves better in Arabic than their mother tongue-Turcoman and Kurdish-. One of them is Turcoman schools in which the medium of instruction is in Turcoman - dialect of Turkish- and in Arabic. As for Arab and Turcoman students in Arabic language-based schools, they learn Kurdish as a second language.

Things are quite different in the private schools' part. Number of private schools under university level is increasing day by day. In most of them, language of instruction is in English, nevertheless some lessons such as social sciences, other language lessons, and PE lessons etc. are in the language of the students who hold the majority. For instance, in Bilkent schools, which are run by Turcoman society, medium of instruction is in English while the lessons mentioned above are taught in Turcoman. While in private schools, which are initiated outside of Iraq (German, Lebanese, American and Turkish etc.) English is still main language for teaching; additionally, they try to teach their own languages intensively. Apart from these, they have to follow the ministry of educations' (run by Kurdistan Regional Government) regulations.

When it comes to English Language (in state schools especially), it is taught as a foreign language. Moreover, except for private schools whose medium of instruction is English, students read and write in Arabic letter system and from left to right. Earlier, learners used to study English in 4th grades; in 2008, they have started to study English at the beginning of primary school. Even some kindergartens offer education in English. They study English for 2-6 hours, which changes according to their grades, in a week until they graduate from high school.

A general entrance exam and the GPA of a student are the main determining factors to select a department. At the end of high school, students sit for exams from different subjects, which contain open-ended questions. Their final point is calculated by taking the average of the overall GPA and their score from the general exam. Then students go to universities

and apply for different departments. There are certain point prerequisites for each department, which is appointed by Ministry of Higher Education.

Students who wish to study English Department have to attain minimum an average of 60 from the exam and GPA of high school (it goes up to 75 according to university). Moreover, minimum average of 65 from high school English courses is needed. Most of the students who get higher averages than mentioned tend to choose departments that are more prestigious. As a result, some students only choose teaching when they resent attending other departments with lower positions.

In short, most of the students of ELT department are considered beginners when they start university. They are supported with extensive knowledge of language and skills in the first semester. Main impetus for organizing extensive program lies beneath this. First year students need extra scaffolding; extensive reading program gives them an idea and opportunity at the same time.

The participants were first year ELT students (n=74) who were given a questionnaire asking what, when, and how to read. Program consisted of four classes of reading every week in the first semester and two classes in the second. The study was conducted using a convenience sample with available informants. Out of 96 students in the first year, 74 of them participated in the study. The table below depicts descriptive information:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Participants

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage %
Age	18-20	40	54,1
	21-24	27	36,5
	25 and above	7	9,4
Gender	Male	28	36,8
	Female	46	62,2
Country/ Ethnicity	Kurdish	52	58, 2
	Turkish	16	21, 6
	Arab	10	13,5
	Persian	1	1.3
	Turcoman	4	5, 4
Number of year(s) he/she has studied English	0-1 year	62	83,8
	1-3 years	6	8,1
	3-5 years	6	8,1

3.2 Data Collection Procedure & Instrumentation

The students were given a proficiency exam at the very beginning of the year in order to identify their levels so that they could be matched with correct books. At the end of the year, they were given a questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher and a teacher of the extensive reading program. They included open and closed ended questions to reach triangulated data. They quantitative data was analyzed through SPSS 15.0, and descriptive analysis were given in tables. As for qualitative data, the notes of the participants were read carefully, coded, grouped and finally most relevant ones were included in the discussions. The table below shows the procedure of the study:

Table 2: Data Collection Procedure

Steps	Methods	Aims
1	Proficiency test	To identify the level of the learners.
2	Questionnaire	To identify students' (pre-service teachers') evaluations,

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings of **THE** study are presented according to order of the questions of the study. They are written in the heading of what to read, when to read, how to read. At the end of the section, there is a short evaluation of the lesson in general

3.3 What to read

Students seem to enjoy different sorts of books from different genres. It is apparent that students approve use of short stories over any other types of books. Out of 74 participants, only one student (1, 4 %) frowns on the selection of short stories. On the other hand, a huge majority 73 students (98, 6 %) favours the involvement of short stories on their reading lists by a landslide. The results indicate that the participants approximately prefer detective stories, factual books, biographies, and horror stories equally. Books containing real events and books about people are less favoured by the participants. Yet, it can be argued that especially books about people can be good alternative and appeal to most of the readers. Books about animals (or books containing animal characters) seem to be another kind that students do not mind reading. Nevertheless, 23 students (31, 1 %) do not choose to read this kind of books. Literary works are the least favored kind of book among the list; 26 participants (35, 2 %) do not express any fondness for this type. However, there are still 48 students (64, 8 %) stating that they can read literary works during extensive reading hours. Table 3 shows the preferences of participants from nine different varieties of books:

Table 3: Students' Preference on Different Types of Books

Book types	Options									
	Strongly agree		Agree		Partly agree		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1- Short stories	39	52,7	30	40,5	4	5,4	1	1,4	-	-
2- Detective stories	27	36,5	21	28,4	14	18,9	8	10,9	4	5,4
3- Factual books.	27	36,5	17	23	15	20,3	11	14,9	4	5,4
4- Horror stories.	29	39,2	11	14,9	16	21,6	6	8,1	12	16,2
5- Biographies.	22	29,7	19	25,7	17	23	9	12,2	7	9,5
6- Books containing real events.	29	39,2	16	21,6	8	10,8	8	10,8	13	17,6
7- Books about people.	18	24,3	24	32,4	20	27	9	12,2	3	4,1
8- Books about animals.	11	14,9	14	18,9	26	35,1	11	14,9	12	16,2
9- Literary works	9	12,2	15	20,3	24	32,4	13	17,6	13	17,6

3.4 When to read

Students were asked to comment about their preferences for when to have the lessons. It can be concluded from the table that they do not prefer to have it at the end of the day; only 13 (17, 6 %) of them stated that they would like to have the lesson at the end of day. Whereas, the rest preferred to have it nearly in the same ratio either in the first hours of the day or in the middle of it. Tables below display their answers.

Table 4: Timing of Daily Extensive Reading Lesson

Timing	Options					
	Beginning of the day		In the middle		At the end	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
1- Time of lesson	31	41,9	29	39,2	13	17,6

When it comes to the frequency of the extensive reading classes, students seem content with the current circumstances. Only two students out of 74 (2, 7 %) stated that they should never have extensive reading classes at all. On the other hand, 34 participants (45, 9 %) stated that they preferred to have 3-4 hours in a week. 30 of them (40, 5 %) stated that they had better have 1-2 hours in a week. Six students (8, 1 %) wanted to have 5-6 hours. Only one participant stated that they should have extensive more than six hours in a week.

Table 5: Frequency of Lessons in a Week

Timing	Options									
	6 and more		5-6		3-4		1-2		0	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Number of lesson in a week	1	1,4	6	8,1	34	45,9	30	40,5	2	2,7

Students were also asked to comment about frequency of the lesson in a day. Their opinion was equally distributed; while half of them preferred to have one hour, the other half wanted to have two hours in a day:

Table 6: Frequency of Lessons in a Day

	Options			
Timing	2		1	
	F	%	F	%
Number of lesson in a day	37	50	37	50

3.5 How to read

In order to identify what students think about the strategies and procedures that are followed, the questionnaire included some open-ended questions about how to read books during lessons. They were asked about the current implementation of note taking and whether they had any recommendation to make it better. The most frequent answer stated that most of the students believed that note taking of new vocabulary and structures such as formulaic expressions, collocations etc. on a separate notebook was very useful and it improved their English levels for a number of reasons:

Note taking is important to remember the new words and use them.
Student 46

I think it is very useful to learn new words and transfer them into daily life. By this way they become easy to remember. Student 60

It is very important because like they say; words fly so if you write you won't forget. Student 24

My opinion for extensive reading is that it is very useful. I learnt a lot of words. For two years, I had an English lesson like extensive reading in another language institution in Erbil, but in this lesson, I got a lot of important words and I used them in daily life. Student 1

Yes, because it will be beneficial for the reader, also it gives you self-esteem and knowledge when you revise the words you have written down earlier. Student 53

It is useful because I can get back to the word. Every time, if I get forget something, I can get back to it and check it. I think, I got a lot of benefits from this lesson. Student 26

It is very useful because it is teaching spelling of many words and how to look for useful structures in the story books. Student 36

This way is very useful for learning a language, it teaches also grammar and new vocabulary at the same time. Student 66

Although majority of the learners favoured the note-taking strategy, interestingly, only three participants who stated that this technique did not appeal to him/her:

Reading with note taking is not good. I would rather sit and read without stopping. Teacher can give us the same book and we read it then we speak about it. I think this is better. Student 38

It is not useful because when we write the word, I never checked the words after I completed reading the story. Students 33

I think reading should be made general and sometimes contain watching movies. Student 51

When it comes to students recommendations, participants provided different ideas. They generally made suggestions to make the lessons more interesting. Many participants stated that content of the lesson could involve movies, or videos to animate the lessons.

Continuously reading in the classroom sometimes gets boring. Because every day we have the same routine. I think it would be better if we could have the movie or video of the book we read. If it is visual, it is more beneficial for our learning. Student 61

You can show us some videos and we can all in the class watch a movie, if the story that we read has movie. Student 41

I prefer not always reading books. I think we should sometimes watch movies. Student 27

I like extensive reading lesson and I think we can watch movies sometimes with subtitles and do exam for learning words. Student 25

Some others suggested having the reading times at different locations:

It is sometimes good to have the lesson outside the class. Reading can be boring without change or we can all read it on big screen in our class. Student 37

We should sometimes go to another places such as library or outside the university. Student 19

I would prefer to have an extensive reading outside or sometimes in the library. And when we read I would prefer to have a slow music with it. Student 1

It is better to change our places it is better if we won't read in the same class we usually have our lessons. We should read at new places like library or in the garden or other places if we have. Student 24

There were some recommendations about the evaluation process of the lessons:

I think, this structure is very good one. However, it could be better if the teacher asked the students to write a summary of the book they read. Student 23

I think what we do also is ok, but everyone can read the same story and write a summary. Teachers could choose the best summary and give some certificates. Student69

From the same book students could be asked to prepare drama presentations and act them out in the classroom. If we always read books silently, and teachers keep hushing us like primary students, it gets boring. Student 62

Students writing also delivered profitable information about the effectiveness of the current practice.

It was really useful lesson for me. I learned about many new words. For example, I remember the first word was "murder". I remember this so easily. That's why it is useful and it is quite lesson, so we can get calm and relax. Student 24

Thanks to this lesson, I have learned a large number of vocabulary, sentence structure, and usage of words within sentences. I also learned how to read books. I believe it was a valuable lesson. Student 2

Extensive reading course gave me the chance of reading books. Because, despite having lots of time, I was ignoring reading books. However, attending to this course forced me to read. I enjoy reading books. This lesson taught me how to benefit from a book in order to learn the language. Student 23

I think extensive reading is a nice and good lesson. Before I came here, I did not like reading but now, I really like reading and I learnt more about reading. Student 4

4. CONCLUSION

EXTENSIVE reading is usually considered to be voluntarily done activity by learners to develop their language levels or enjoy their free time, and usually away from school. Most of the time teachers give students graded readers, and assign them various tasks. Students read these books at home or anywhere they like. There is not too much control over learners. On the other hand, the program mentioned in the study endavours to educate students how to make best use of extensive reading.

The result of the study provided bountiful data for learners, teachers, and course designers. It was important to get feedback from the learners in order to improve the implementation. The results revealed certain type of books that appeal to readers the most. Most of the students seem to like to read book s under the supervision of a teacher. However, they still want to be checked by the same authority and a kind of assessment should follow the

implementation. Furthermore, they seem to have reading lessons at different places to break the routine. They also would like to have some movies to animate the classroom. As for teachers and course designers, the results can provide factual data when they decide about which kind of books in what proportion. The timing and frequency of the lessons can be applied according to real data obtained from students. To make the lessons more interesting, it is clear that teachers sometimes change the atmosphere in the classroom. They may from time to time change the place of the lessons or bring some movies and videos related to books students read etc. Nevertheless, it can be also argued that these results can be applied for this very specific universe.

Overall, students can be encouraged to make use of extensive reading by providing them with proper strategy -keeping a special notebook for new vocabulary and linguistic structures- and skill -how to identify these structures- training. The timing and evaluation could be considered as finalizing norms for a successful implementation.

References

- Bamford, J., & Day, R. R. (1997). Extensive reading: What is it? Why bother? *Language Teacher-Kyoto-Jalt*, 21, 6-8.
- Camiciottoli, B. C. (2001). Extensive reading in English: habits and attitudes of a group of university EFL students. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 24(2), 135-155.
- Cobb, T. (2008). Commentary: response to McQuillan and Krashen (2008). *Language Learning & Technology*, 12(1), 109-114.
- Çetin, Y., & Brooks-Lewis K. A. (2011). How Do Students Feel about Graded Readers? *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2 (23), 227-231
- Davis, C. (1995). Extensive reading: an expensive extravagance?. *ELT journal*, 49(4), 329-336.

- Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Dupuy, B., Tse, L., & Cook, T. (1996). Bringing Books into the Classroom: First Steps in Turning College-Level ESL Students into Readers. *TESOL Journal*, 5(4), 10-15.
- Hafiz, F. M., & Tudor, I. (1989). Extensive reading and the development of language skills. *ELT journal*, 43(1), 4-13.
- Krashen, S. (2004). *The Power of Reading*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Mason, J. M. (1980). When do children begin to read: An exploration of four year old children's letter and word reading competencies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 203-227.
- Polak, J., & Krashen, S. (1988). Do we need to teach spelling? The relationship between spelling and voluntary reading among community college ESL students. *TESOL quarterly*, 22(1), 141-146.
- Robb, T. N., & Susser, B. (1989). Extensive reading vs. skills building in an EFL context. *Reading in a foreign language*, 5(2), 239-251.
- Smith, Frank. (1985) *Reading without Nonsense. Second edition*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Mason, B. & Krashen, S. (1997). Extensive reading in English as a foreign language. *System*, 25, 91-102.
- West, M. (1955). *Learning to read a foreign language 2 nd ed*. London: Longman.

4. Appendix: Questionnaire in English

Dear students,
This survey is part of a project that investigates what learners of English prefer and how they feel about extensive reading course. Data collected from this questionnaire will not be used for any other purposes.
Note: Answer the questions only for extensive reading lessons.
Thank you very much in advance for your contribution.

Survey about Extensive reading preferences:

What to read

- 1- From the books I have read, my favourite books are
-
-
-
- 2- Tick the option about the type of books according to your reading preferences:

Type of books	I really like	I like	I can stand reading	I can only read when I have to	I do not like at all
Short stories					
Detective stories e.g. Sherlock Holmes					
Horror Stories					
Biographies e.g. Nelson Mandela					
Books about people					
Books about animals e.g.					

White Fang					
Books containing facts about people, places, things e.g. book about Scotland, Pollution etc.					
Literary works e.g. Gulliver's Travels					
Books containing real historical stories e.g. Coldest place on Earth.					
Other:					

3- I like reading about

because.....

.....

When to read

Circle the best option for you.

- 4- I think extensive reading class should be in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th lessons.
- 5- I think we should have 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, *more* (write here)
 lesson(s) in a week for extensive reading.
- 6- I think we should have one, two lesson(s) in the same day.

How to read

Complete the sentence with your own opinion

- 7- I think reading with note taking (writing new words and useful structures down on notebooks) is
.....
.....
.....
- 8- How do you prefer to have extensive reading lesson?
.....
.....
.....
.....

Choose the best option for you.

- 9- For Evaluation (getting our marks), I think
- a. We should have story exams
 - b. We should have oral presentations about the book we've read
 - c. We should have both of them above.
 - d. We should not have neither a nor b options.

(Write your opinion, if you have something different). We should
.....
.....
.....
.....

The Reader's Profile:

- 1- Age:
- 2- Gender:
- 3- From:
- 4- I have been studying English for months/years.
- 5- I have completedbooks during the course.
- 6- I have attended hours of the course.

Write your opinion about the course in general

Designing, Implementing and Evaluating of Instructional Design That Was Developed by Using Cabri 3D, Based on ASSURE Instructional Design.

İsmail KESKİN

Dicle University Education Faculty, Mathematics Education Department

iskeskin@ymail.com

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to test the effectiveness of instructional design that was developed based on ASSURE Instructional Design Model and Cabri 3D Dynamic Geometry Software. The instructional Design covers Vertical Circular Cylinder, Vertical Circular Cone and Sphere topics in Geometry. All teaching materials used in the design were prepared using Cabri 3D Dynamic Geometry Software. The prepared instructional design was applied in Kocaköy Multi-Program High School by creating a pre-test and post-test experimental design in the 2013-2014 academic years. Before implementation pre-test was applied both experimental and control groups. After the implementation, the effectiveness of the instructional design was tested by SPSS 22 statistic software, using post-test scores. Post-test results of the experimental and control groups were analysed using the t test. Based on the statistically tested collected data and findings, significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are found among experimental groups and control group in favour of experimental groups.

Key Words: ASSURE Instructional Design Model, Cabri 3D, Teaching Geometry

1. INTRODUCTION

How far do the present curricula in Mathematics and Geometry help students understand the environment? Geometry taught in our schools is just Euclidean geometry, which cannot go beyond the basic geometric shapes drawn in course books or on the boards. Students just see the shapes and make progress by memorizing formulas; they have problems in making connections between the real world and what they learn at schools. However, there are umpteen situations and events in the universe which Euclidean geometry is unable to include (Baki, 2001).

Considering the objectives of Geometry, learning and teaching environments which provide students opportunities to classify geometric shapes by establishing similarity and identity and to make deductive inferences making use of these skills should be prepared and developed at schools. In this context, current educational technologies play a major role in the creation of such environments (Baki, 2006). While creating geometric shapes and structures in Cabri 3D or GeoGebra, students may start with basic geometric elements (points, lines, line segments, rays, angles etc ...) and build any shape step by step. Because these programs are dynamic, in other words shapes are easily manipulated; structures or shapes created are not fixed, as in the books or notebooks. They are dynamic in nature. As the position and relationship with respect to each of the basic geometric elements changes and varies, so does the structure. This feature of these programs offers incredible research for mathematicians, teachers, and students. Students improve their capacity to imagine in this way. Improvement in imagination means opening doors for creation and exploration for new things. When these doors are open, students will be able to analyze, make assumptions and generalize. This will also directly improve the student's problem-solving skills (Baki, 2001).

Today, our schools are equipped with interactive boards, and tablet computers are distributed to students within the scope of "FATIH Project in Education". However, according to the research, there are inadequacies and problems in the evaluation or efficiency of these opportunities that we have in many schools. In order to overcome these shortcomings, it seems necessary to develop an instructional design and integrate information technology into the courses.

Instructional design has been defined in different ways by different researchers. Hodell (2007) defines instructional design as "...designing, developing, implementing and analyzing any teaching experience (Hodell, 2007 :3)." Smith and Regan (1999) however propose that instructional design entails a systematic teaching process which includes teaching materials, activities, information resources and evaluation plans. Şimşek (2009) considers instructional design as an overall process including the development of functional learning systems in order to accomplish educational goals of a specific target group while Fer (2009), based on the principles put forward by the teaching science, defines it as 'planning a teaching process to succeed in both providing an efficient context to make learners learn effectively and guiding the instructors/teachers.' In a nutshell, instructional design can be defined as overall activities regarding the development of teaching tools and activities and evaluation of teaching-learning process and learners, in accordance with the training programs. Gustafson and Branch (2002) lists a number of characteristics about the nature of instructional design: (a) it is student-centered and goal-oriented, (b) it focuses on significant performance, (c) it assumes that learning outcomes are measurable, (d) it is empirical, (e) it corrects itself and (f) it is a team work.

Instructional design models are patterns that help educators create effective learning environments and have been proven the effectiveness by the studies done in the past (Andrews & Goodson, 1980). Within the scope of this research was preferred and utilized ASSURE instructional design model.

1.1 ASSURE INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN MODEL

The main reason of preferring this model is that it is frequently used by teachers in schools because it is for a few hours of instruction and for each individual. In addition, this model does not require high complexity of delivered media, deep ID knowledge, and high revision of designs (Gustafson & Branch, 2002). In this model, proposed by Heinrich, Molenda and Russell (1993), ASSURE stands for: **A**nalyze learners; **S**tate objectives; **S**elect instructional methods, media, and materials; **U**tilize media and material; **R**equire learner participation; **E**valuate and revise.

1.1.1. ANALYSIS OF THE LEARNERS

The “analyse learners” component emphasizes the importance of analysing learners’ entry characteristics, general characteristics, and learning styles (Baran, 2010). In order to use an instructional media effectively, it is necessary to match the characteristics of the student, media and the contents of materials. So the first step in the ASSURE model is to analyse learners.

Learners are not very likely to be analysed in all aspects. In contrast, several factors seem to be very critical in order to make decisions about the appropriate methods and media. These are general characteristics, input qualifications and learning styles. Here, the general characteristics may be age, grade level, job or position and cultural or socioeconomic factors. Input qualifications include knowledge and skills that learners already have; namely their pre-skills, target skills and attitudes. The last factor, learning styles, is concerned about the psychological characteristics that affect how the learners perceive and react to various stimuli such as anxiety, abilities, visual or auditory preferences, motivation and so on (Heinich, Russell, & Molenda 1999). In this stage are generally sought answers to the following questions (Ocak, 2011): What are the expected prerequisites of the students? Do students meet the content given for the first time? Is it known which students have learning disability? Is the prepared content strong enough to question the views students already have? Are the instructional approaches and instructional design components like material selections etc. used? If used, what are they and how are they expected to be used? In the first step, the overall process of the pupil recognition is performed. It is possible to summarize the information to be gathered about the students at this stage as follows (Ocak, 2011): 1-General characteristics: class, age, ethnic group, gender, existing mental, social or physical problems and socioeconomic status of the students and so on. 2. Input specifications: Prior knowledge and skills, attitudes and so on. 3- Learning styles: verbal, textual, logical, visual, musical, structured and so on.

1.1.2. DETERMINING THE LEARNING OBJECTIVES

“State objectives” relates to the outcomes of instruction. A teacher should determine the objectives in the second step of the design (Baran, 2010).

After the analysis of the learners, learning objectives and targets expected of the course should be written in detail. Generally four main components are considered while stating the learning objectives (Ocak, 2011): 1. Target group (learners), 2. The desired behavior, 3. the conditions under which the behaviour will be observed and 4- What standard the learned skills would be.

Example: Elementary 5th Grade students (target group) will be able to identify the capitals of the countries (behaviour) out of a given list (must) at least 90% success rate (standard). An answer to the questions “Do students know what is expected of them and what they should be learning?” is usually found at this stage. Specifically based on the students’ behaviours performed, it is determined how much students have changed at this stage. It is clearly indicated what kind of behaviour change and information gain of students is expected at the end of the learning. In addition, at this phase, it is decided how to measure the results and which tools will be utilized. Questions listed below are of paramount importance because they signify what is important and how the objectives will determined to make learner learn better at this stage (Ocak, 2011): Is the present learning environment adequate and appropriate for student learning? Can the present environment be changed or modified in order to provide better learning opportunities? Which can be the most appropriate media or tool to be utilized to fulfil objectives? For example, if psychomotor learning of students is expected, it will be determined which tools are appropriate. How will student performance be measured? What are the acceptable standards?

1.1.3. SELECTING METHODS, MEDIA AND MATERIALS

After the analysis of the learners and stating learning objectives and targets expected of the course (objectives and targets) comes selecting instructional methods and media which will be utilized to make learners accomplish specified objectives. Media which will be the most suitable for the selected instructional methods, characteristics of the students and objectives are determined at this stage. Media can be text, images, video, audio and computer or multimedia. In addition, materials and tools that may help students best complete the learning objectives are either purchased or selected at this stage. Design and production of materials that students can use regarding the purposes also appear at this stage. Materials may be

specific software, cassettes, videotapes, pictures or some devices such as computers, printers, scanners, television and so on (Ocak, 2011).

1.1.4. UTILIZING MEDIA AND MATERIALS

Next stage after the selection of the methods, media and materials is the preparation stage for selected technology before implementation stage. One of the best methods to do at this stage is to be aware of 'new' technologies and gather essential information and expertise. Before entering the learning environment, media and materials which will be included in teaching should be revised and prior applications and implications should be carried out. If the media or materials are very complex in nature, pre-use and trials teacher does should absolutely be recorded or observed and these recordings should be used for review and modifications of errors and missing parts. Pre-test and prior applications will also increase self-esteem of teachers.

At this stage, the second phase is to prepare learning environment. First, it should be checked if information and all necessary materials and equipment (cables, CDs, equipment, lights etc.) are easily available and accessible in that environment. If these elements are missing or malfunctioned, it will result in confusion in the learning environment and inevitably deteriorate motivation. In particular, it should be checked if everything is working properly before using electronic devices.

Finally, students should be prepared for the media and the material to be used. To do this, preparatory questions, PowerPoint presentations or videotapes will be eligible to draw their attention to the media and materials.

1.1.5. MAKING LEARNERS PARTICIPATE

In the ASSURE model, this stage can be said to be more important than the other stages of the model (Heinich, Molenda, Russell and Smaldino, 1996). In particular, considering that the materials and the media often passively used in learning environment, making learners participate and actively involve at this stage comes to the foreground. If materials used are considered to be one-way channel from the source to the receiver, receiving feedback from learners is an important step to ensure their participation. On

the other hand, in learning environments in which learners actively participate, learning seems to be better. So, It is an essential requirement that students should provide cognitive and affective feedback about the materials and information they are presented. If the media and materials are not used in a way to increase critical thinking skills of the students, it is inevitable that learning will be at the bottom level. Therefore, to benefit the presented material to get the highest level of efficiency, teachers should be careful about utilizing the materials in a way that makes learners construct their own thoughts.

Techniques to be used in learning environments such as question and answer method, discussion, group work, worksheets will help students take a more active role in the learning environment. In the classroom teachers should ensure that all students participate in learning activities. At this stage, using peer review and making students provide feedback will make them more active participants.

1.1.6. EVALUATION AND REVISION

As results of the instructional program, the impacts, efficiency of organized instructional program and information the learners participated in the course have should be evaluated. To make an overall evaluation, it is necessary to examine the whole teaching process. Evaluation stage can be done by finding answers for these questions (Uysal & Gürcan, 2004): Have learners, reached the goals of the program? Were selected media and materials helpful for learners to achieve the objectives? Could all learners use learning materials in accordance with the objectives?

At this stage will be helpful to follow the specific steps for the evaluation of the technology used. These steps begin by reviewing the teaching objectives, targets and results; and ended in the revision of the media (Ocak, 2011):1. Designing an assessment method 2- Preliminary tests on students 3- Evaluation of student performance / grades 4- Making students prepare for the instruction 5- Material presentation 6. Student performance expected 7. Evaluation of the final test / student performance 8. Comparison of the pre-test and post-test and 9. Making necessary changes / revision.

2. METHODOLOGY

This research is experimental in nature owing to the fact that it strives to evaluate the impact of an instructional design using Cabri 3D, mainly based on ASSURE model, on students’ academic success by comparing the pre-test scores and post-test scores.

2.1 DESIGN

This research which strives to evaluate the impact of an instructional design using Cabri 3D software on students’ academic success utilizes experimental design using equivalent pretest and posttest control groups. In the process of instruction, students in the experimental group were taught geometry lesson by means of an instructional program particularly covering cylinder, cone and sphere. The control group was not made any intervention in the teaching process. In both groups, the "pre-test" and "post-test" were administered.

2.2 SUBJECTS

Two Maths-Sciences classes in Kocaköy Multi-Program High School during 2014-2015 academic year as experimental and control groups were included in the study. A pre-test developed in relation to the provision of equivalence of the groups was administered in both classes. It was determined that two groups are identical and equivalent according to the analysis of the application results. Two groups were selected randomly, one as control group and one as experimental group, out of these equivalent groups of subjects. Quantitative information about the experimental and control groups is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Quantitative information about the experimental and control groups

Groups	N
Experimental	27
Control	25
Total	52

2.3 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE STEPS

1. In order to create experimental and control groups and examine students’ prior learning, a pre-test was administered to two 11th classes in Kocaköy Multi-Program High School, where experimental procedures will be carried

out. Two groups were selected randomly, one as control group and one as experimental group, out of these equivalent groups of subjects.

2. In research process was utilized an instructional design, developed in cooperation with teachers working in that school, which was limited to cylinder, *circular cone and sphere subjects in geometry* in during 2014-2015 academic year. This program was administered in experimental group while there was no intervention to the control group.
3. A posttest developed in line with the objectives of the related geometry topics – cylinder, circular cone and sphere – was administered to the experimental and control groups separately.

2.4 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE MATERIAL

The material based on ASSURE instructional design model was developed using Cabri 3D program in a way to cover geometry topics – cylinder, circular cone and sphere – by considering the outputs of the instructional program. The materials developed intend to be for the sake of the overall objectives of geometry curriculum.

2.5 DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

A 15-question pretest was developed by bearing the developmental characteristics of 11th classes. Questions prepared were reviewed by two experts in order to ensure the validity of the test. To ensure content validity, questions according to the subjects to be taught have been added to the test. Trial form was administered to 52 students in 11th classes in the same school and KR-20 reliability coefficient was determined to be 0.92. The post-test developed in order to examine students' learning consists of 15 questions and arranged in parallel to the pre-test form. This form was submitted to two experts to ensure content validity and structure validity, and necessary modifications were made regarding these experts' opinion. The final 15-question test form was administered to 65 students studying at the same school. After the test, KR-20 reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.80. Analyses regarding the validity and K-20 values indicate that this form of the test is valid and reliable, so that it can be used for the measurement.

2.6 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSES

A pre-test, developed and covered cylinder, *circular cone and sphere subjects in geometry* in during 2014-2015 academic year was administered in

both groups, and after the experimental procedure was administered a post-test only in experimental group. T-test was used to compare post-test scores corrected to the pre-test score in order to determine if there exists a significant difference in terms of success level between the post test scores of each group.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The pre-test developed was administered to two classes in Kocaköy Multi-Program High School in order to create experimental and control groups and examine students’ prior learning. The findings are presented in Table 2. As Table 2 indicates, there exists no significant difference between the mean scores of two groups ($p > .05$). The arithmetic mean scores of the first group is 38.2 and the other groups’ is 38,8. Therefore, the groups were assigned as the experimental and control groups randomly.

Table 2: Pre-test scores of the groups

Groups	N	X	SD	F	p
Group 1	27	38,2	22	-1,365	0,185
Group 2	25	38,8	21		

$p \Rightarrow .05$

Post-test scores corrected to the pre-test scores, regarding their prior knowledge before the experiment, for both experimental and control groups are presented in Table 3. According to these results, posttest mean scores were calculated as 53.23 for control group, and 41.00 for the experimental group. However, when the pre-test scores were controlled, it was observed that there exist changes in post-test scores. Corrected post-test scores were calculated as 52.23 for control group and 42.18 for the experimental group.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics about the post-test scores of the groups

Groups	N	Mean	Corrected Mean
Experimental	27	53,23	52,23
Control	25	41,00	42,18

According to the corrected mean posttest scores, it can be inferred and explained that the average score of the experimental group is higher than that of the control group; so the material used in the experiment, namely instructional design in this case, is said to be effective in the process. However, it should be analyzed if whether there is a significant difference

between the mean scores here. T-test results regarding whether the difference observed between groups is statistically significant or not are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4: T-test results according to the post-test scores of the groups

Groups	N	X	SD	df	t	p
Experimental	27	55,0	25,41	50	2,104	0,04*
Control	25	41,0	22,31			

*p = < .05

When Table 4 analysed, it is observed that there is a difference of 14 points between the arithmetic mean scores of the groups. This difference seems to be significant according to t-test results ($t_{50}=2,104$, $p<.05$). In other words, considering these findings, experimental procedures followed in this study significantly influences success level of the groups.

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research is experimental in nature and strives to evaluate the impact of an instructional design using Cabri 3D, covering cylinder, circular cone and sphere subjects in geometry lesson and mainly based on ASSURE model, on students' academic success by comparing the pre-test scores and post-test scores. Findings indicate that the material developed contributes to students' academic success in Geometry lessons. According to the results obtained as a result of comparison of experimental group and control group, it is observed that scores in the experimental group have increased significantly. Owing to the fact that there existed no significant difference between equivalent groups in pre-test scores, the findings also indicate that the significant difference in support of the experimental group's scores can be said to be a proof for the efficiency of the instructional design utilized in experimental group during the research. This finding supports studies in the literature. Cabri 3D has a positive impact on students' success (Güven & Kösa, 2008; Kösa & Karakuş, 2010; Oldknow & Tetlow, 2008).

In the lights of the research findings were presented a number of recommendations for the Ministry of Education officials, teachers and students on the use of dynamic Algebra and Geometry software Cabri 3D software in mathematics and geometry education.

- Secondary school Mathematics and Geometry programs should be conducted in the framework of computer-aided teaching in schools. The infrastructure needed for training has been prepared by FATİH Project in education.
- When both Mathematics and Geometry curriculums for secondary schools and annual plans teachers prepared are analyzed, it is apparent that Cabri 3D or similar software are not included in curricula and teachers' annual plans, with a few exceptions about teaching materials used. So, software like Cabri 3D, as a user-friendly dynamic teaching medium, should be included in curricula.
- It is a well-known fact that Ministry of Education provides in-service training courses for teachers to teach such software. However, these courses should gradually be expanded to include all middle and high school math teachers. A system should be developed to encourage the use of these kinds of educational software. After the training sessions, technical support should be provided for teachers who attended the courses.
- In order to meet lack of materials In this field/s, relevant departments of the universities and the Ministry of Education should work collaboratively to contribute, increase the materials teachers and learners can use in number, and publish guidelines or booklets for the use of these programs. In universities, it should be encouraged to conduct of scientific research on this topic and the number of teaching hours for prospective teachers should be increased.
- The use of dynamic geometry software and promotion should not only be limited by Cabri 3D; research about similar software such as GeoGebra, Cabri 2D and Geometer's Sketchpad considered to be effective in Turkey should be carried out. The Ministry of Education should motivate teachers and organize in-service training courses in this regard.

REFERENCES

- Accascina, Giuseppe, & Rogora, Enrico. (2005). *Using Cabri 3D: First impressions*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Technology in Mathematics Teaching, Bristol.
- Andrews, Dee H, & Goodson, Ludwika A. (1980). A comparative analysis of models of instructional design. *Journal of instructional development*, 3(4), 2-16.

- Baki, Adnan. (2001). Bilişim Teknolojisi Işığında Matematik Eğitiminin Değerlendirilmesi. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 149, 26-31.
- Baki, Adnan. (2006). *Kuramdan Uygulamaya Matematik Eğitimi*. Ankara: Derya Kitabevi.
- Demir, Volkan. (2010). *Cabri 3d dinamik geometri yazılımının, geometrik düşünme ve akademik başarı üzerine etkisi*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul.
- Fer, Seval. (2009). *Öğretim Tasarımı*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Gustafson, Kent L, & Branch, Robert M. (2002). What is instructional design. *Trends and issues in instructional design and technology*, 16-25.
- Güven, Bulent, & Kosa, Temel. (2008). The Effect of Dynamic Geometry Software on Student Mathematics Teachers' Spatial Visualization Skills. *Online Submission*, 7(4).
- Hodell, Chuck. (2007). *Basics of instructional systems development* (Vol. 9706): American Society for Training and Development.
- Heinich, Robert, Russell, James D, & Molenda, Michael. (1999). *Instructional Media and Technologies For Learning*. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Jones, Keith, Mackrell, Kate, & Stevenson, Ian. (2010). Designing digital technologies and learning activities for different geometries *Mathematics education and technology-Rethinking the terrain* (pp. 47-60): Springer.
- Kösa, Temel, & Karakuş, Fatih. (2010). Using dynamic geometry software Cabri 3D for teaching analytic geometry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 1385-1389.
- Mackrell, K. (2008). *Cabri 3D: an environment for creative mathematical design*. Paper presented at the Canadian Mathematics Education Study Group Proceedings 2007 Annual Meeting. Frederickton: University of Frederickton.

- Ocak, Mehmet Akif. (2011). Öğretim Tasarımı Modelleri. In M. A. Ocak (Ed.), *Öğretim Tasarımı:Kuramlar, Modeller, Uygulamalar*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Oldknow, Adrian, & Tetlow, Linda. (2008). Using dynamic geometry software to encourage 3D visualization and modelling. *The Electronic Journal of Mathematics and Technology*, 2(1), 54-61.
- Schumann, Heinz. (2005). Introduction to Conics with Cabri 3D. *EduMath*, 20(6), 2005.
- Şimşek, Ali. (2009). *Öğretim Tasarımı*. Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Uysal, Ömer, & Gürcan, Ayşen. (2004). *ASSURE Modeli ile Öğretim Tasarımı ve Örnek Bir Uygulama*. Paper presented at the Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kurultayı, İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Malatya.

The Assessment and Suitability of ‘Treasure Island’ as Literary Reader in Grade Twelve in Kurdistan Schools

Mohammad Aba-Bakir Khidhir

English language teacher- Iraqi Kurdistan

Muhammadbakir33@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This study has been conducted with the participation of students and teachers. The study has two aims. Firstly, it describes Robert Louis Stevenson’s ‘Treasure Island’ which is studied in grade 12 in Iraqi Kurdistan schools. Secondly, it illustrates the extent of suitability of the text to grade 12 students. The evidence for the latter aim has been provided by the participants of this study through delivering two questionnaires (one for twenty English language teachers who teach grade 12 and the other for one hundred grade 12 students). So, most of the findings are the English language teachers’ and grade twelve students’ point of view. The main aspects dealt with are purpose and interest, vocabulary, innovation, teaching strategies and learning strategies. It has been concluded that the text is not efficient and suitable to the students because of the following findings: the text is not of general interest and it is long, most of the students do not read the text for pleasure, but they study it to pass the exams, many students do not have the ability to read and process a text in English and the vocabulary used in the text is difficult

Keywords: Interest, Learning Strategies, Literary Reader, Teaching Strategies, Vocabulary, Size

1. INTRODUCTION

Generally, there are two types of reading: *intensive* and *extensive*. The former involves short texts which usually take place in class rooms where readers either *scan* (looking for a piece of information) or *skim* (reading for getting a general idea). The latter one usually involves longer texts in which the purpose is usually ‘for pleasure’.

Reading has to be highly valued by teachers and students alike. The intention of including the Literary Reader in the *Sunrise* curriculum is to increase students' reading skills and introduce them to the habit of extensive reading for pleasure. McKay (1991) maintains that using literature texts are useful to integrate the four skills. Reading influences student's vocabulary knowledge positively. In addition, it will be a good model for their writing.

The nature of reading varies according to the age (or level) of learners. For twelfth grade students, as high level learners, reading means reading and understanding. Ur(1996) claims that if high level learners do not understand a text, it just means "translating written symbols into corresponding sounds" (p 138).

It is true that students should be acquainted with English culture to have a better understanding of the way of life in the country (or countries) where it is spoken. There is no doubt that realizing the cultural conventions of the target language will largely help students to understand and respond to that language easily and naturally. Besides learners "enjoy reading texts from which they can learn something new". But it is safer to reject a text in case it requires too much cultural or specialist background knowledge to achieve an understanding of it (Burgess and Head, 2005, p. 37). Grabe (2002) maintains that there will be a dilemma if the second (or foreign) language contexts include "far greater diversity" as far as cultural differences are concerned (p. 278). Then lack of familiarity students may have with the foreign culture affects understanding the text.

Ur (1996) asserts that there are some points that make a text inefficient. The most important ones are the following: **Language**: if it is too difficult, **Content**: if the content is too far removed from the knowledge and experience of the learners, **Incomprehensible vocabulary**: if the learners cannot tolerate incomprehensible vocabulary items, the reading is slow, and the learners stop to look for the meaning of most words in a dictionary, **Background information**: if learners do not have background information., **Motivation**: the readers have no particular interest in reading.

This study has been conducted with the participation of students and teachers through delivering two questionnaires (one for the English language teachers who teach grade 12 and the other one for grade 12 students). So, most of the findings are the English language teachers' and students' point of view.

2. Description of the Story

Sunrise is a series of the twelve textbooks studied in Iraqi Kurdistan schools. The textbooks have been externally produced by Macmillan.

Treasure Island, as The Literary Reader activity, is included in Sunrise 12. The Literary Reader is an adaptation of Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Treasure Island'. The type of the text is narrative, and it is of story genre.

The story, comprising (8) episodes, consists of (15855) words. It is intended to increase students' reading skills and introduce them to the habit of extensive reading for pleasure (Macmillan, 2001, pp. 5-6). The text is ended with a list of the key words with their phonetic transcription and the Kurdish translation.

The theme is about terrible crimes. Frightening stories about hangings, storms and crimes are found in the text. Several people are killed in the story. The result of the story is disastrous. This may have a negative impact on learners' deeds and treatment. The theme of the story is much distant from Kurdish *culture*. Lack of familiarity students may have with the foreign culture affects understanding the text.

Concerning language, the story is a good basis for vocabulary expansion. It creates critical and creative thinking. It contributes to world knowledge. Little figurative language is used. Knowledge of language *structure* helps students understand unfamiliar words. The syntax of the text is not complex. Unfamiliar syntax causes difficulties for students.

Visual representations of the text information are used. These pictures are valuable in the sense that they assist learning. Additionally, some activities and tasks are provided in the Activity Book to encourage learning.

Concerning Psychological point of view, most of the story is told from first point of view by a character; i.e. the narrator is a character. From the Spatio-temporal point of view, the writer used past tense.

As far as gender representation is concerned, there is a gender imbalance. Nearly all the characters, with the exception of Jim's mother, are males. This is of two sides. Firstly, insincerity (unfaithfulness) is ascribed to men. Secondly the women's role seems to be absent since being a pirate is related to men.

3. Data Collection and interpretation

This section deals with the procedure, the population and the sample, construction of the questionnaires, and interpretation and analysis of the questionnaires

3.1. The Procedure

Two questionnaires have been given: the first one for the teachers who teach grade 12, and the second one for the students who are at the concerned stage.

3.2.The Population and the Samples for the Questionnaires

The study is limited to Shaqlawa District Schools in the academic year 2014-2015. The participants in this study are 20 (8 females and 12 males) English language teachers who teach grade twelve and 100 (48 females and 52 males) grade 12 students. The participants have been chosen randomly.

3.3. Construction of the Questionnaires

Most of the questions have been constructed in the light of reading the available sources dealing with language teaching and teaching English as a second or foreign language and some of them have been constructed consulting English language specialist supervisors. The rest of the questions were designed depending on the researcher's experience (teaching English for eighteen years).

3.4.1. Interpretation and Analysis of the Questionnaires

The results of the questionnaires are interpreted using percentages. Only the most outstanding results are analysed. The results are shown in tables.

3.4.2. Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of thirteen items. The questions are classified under some sub-headings as follows:

a- Interest

In answer to item number one, many teachers (which is 80%) are not interested in reading (or teaching) the text, only 10% of them like teaching the text, the others are in-between. This is of two possibilities: either the teachers themselves do not want to read such adventurous and mysterious stories, or they feel tired since the students do not prepare (or read) the text. In answer to item number two, the same proportion of the teachers agrees that the students feel bored while teaching the text.

Table 1.1. Teachers' interest

Options		1	2	3	4	5	T ot al
Number of item							
1-I like the theme of the story. (strongly agree, agree, uncertain , disagree, strongly disagree)	No. of	2	0	2	8	8	20
	Res. %	10	0	10	40	40	100
2-The -students seem to be bored while I am teaching the LR. (strongly agree, agree, uncertain , disagree, strongly disagree)	No. of	8	8	2	2	0	20
	Res. %	40	40	10	10	0	100

b- Innovation

In answer to item number three, 90% of the respondents admit that the text is long. This is in line with what the students state (see item number five of the students' questionnaire). In answer to item number four, a high proportion of the teachers (60%) agree that the text needs to be simplified and shortened; only one teacher is conservative. Most of the teachers demand replacing the text by another one. This result is also in agreement with the students' ideas (see item number four of the students' questionnaire).

Table 1.2. Innovation

Options		1	2	3	4	5	Tot al
Number of item							
3- The story is _____ for the students. , (too short, short, suitable, long, too long).	No. of	0	0	2	8	10	20
	Res. %	0	0	10	40	50	100
4- The text needs to be simplified and shortened. (strongly agree, agree, uncertain , disagree, strongly disagree)	No. of	6	6	2	5	0	20
	Res. %	30	30	10	25	0	100
5- The text needs to be replaced by another one. (strongly agree, agree, uncertain , disagree, strongly disagree)	No. of	10	4	0	2	3	20
	Res. %	50	20	0	10	15	100

c- Vocabulary

As shown in table (1-3), many teachers point out that most of the students struggle to understand the vocabulary. This is also in line with what the students confess. Harmer (2007a, p.99) asserts that the text should not be too difficult in case students are required to read for pleasure.

Table 1.3. Vocabulary

Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
6- ----students struggle to understand the vocabulary.	No. of Res.	2	4	6	6	2	20
(All, Most, Many, Some, Few)	%	10	20	30	30	10	100

d- Strategies in Teaching the LR

In answer to items number 7, 8,9,10 and 11, the teachers use multiple strategies to teach the text. Thus, teachers do not have a unique style to teach the story (see table '1-4' for percentages). This may be of several possibilities. Firstly, they aim to vary their style. Secondly, they intend to finish the text in adequate time; i.e. they may have little time. Thirdly, they want to adapt their style for as many students as possible.

Unfortunately, many teachers confess that they *translate* the text into Kurdish. While learning a language, the main aim in reading any text is learning the language not merely the content of the text. Students should not be spoon-fed readers. The teachers may have their own justification. They may intend to lessen the student's boredom.

Fortunately, most of the teachers do not encourage their students to memorize. Memorization is a good skill, but it is not suitable while reading is for 'pleasure'. Assigning some lines to be read at home is the right method that many teachers conduct.

Table 1.4. Teaching Strategies

Options		1	2	3	4	5	Total
Number of item							
<u>How do you teach the LR?</u>	No. of	2	4	6	2	6	20
7- A- I myself read the story in the classroom and explain it in English. (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	Res. %	10	20	30	10	30	100
7- B- Why? Because --- (It is the easiest way, I like it, the students request, both the students and I prefer, I do not know a better way)	No. of	4	8	4	4	0	20
	Res. %	20	40	20	20	0	100
8- A- I myself read the story in the classroom and translate it into Kurdish. (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	No. of	2	10	4	4	0	20
	Res. %	10	50	20	20	0	100
8- B- Why? Because --- (It is the easiest way, I like it, the students request, both the students and I prefer, I do not know a better way)-	No. of	8	1	10	1	0	20
	Res. %	40	5	50	5	0	100
9- A- I give students some paragraphs to memorize. (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	No. of	1	2	2	4	8	20
	Res. %	5	10	10	20	40	100
9- B: Why ? Because --- (It is the easiest way, I like it, the students request, both the students and I prefer, I do not know a better way)	No. of	4	2	4	7	0	20
	Res. %	20	10	20	35	0	100
10- A- I ask students to read silently during the classes, and (if asked) explain the difficult words. (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	No. of	0	2	8	6	4	20
	Res. %	0	10	40	30	20	100
10- B-Why? Because --- (It is the easiest way, I like it, the students request, both the students and I prefer, I do not know a better way)	No. of	0	14	4	2	0	20
	Res. %	0	70	20	10	0	
11-A: I ask students to read at home, and in the following lesson the text is discussed with the students.. (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	No. of	2	8	8	2	0	20
	Res. %	10	40	40	10	0	100
11- B- Why? Because --- (It is the easiest way, I like it, the students request, both the students and I prefer, I do not know a better way)	No. of	4	6	8	2	0	20
	Res. %	20	20	40	20	0	100

e- Teaching Learning Strategies

Deriving the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context is an ability and strategy that readers are in need of while reading for pleasure. In answer to item number twelve, most of the teachers (80%) admit that the students are unable to do so. Burgess and Head (2005) state that in a communicative approach to reading “...a key principle is ‘simplify the task, not the text’ ” (p. 123). To them, the tasks are set at an appropriate level of difficulty, while students will make sense of texts.

Table 1.5. Teaching Learning Strategies

Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
12-Students cannot guess difficult words in context.	No. of Res.	6	10	2	0	2	20
(strongly agree, agree, uncertain , disagree, strongly disagree)	%	30	50	10	0	10	100

3.4.3. Students’ Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 15 items. The questions are classified under some sub-headings as follows:

a- Purpose

Unfortunately, only 11% of the students read the text for pleasure, while a high proportion of them (45%) of the students point out that they study the story just to pass the exams and get a high mark. It seems that students have not been acquainted with the aim of the text (which is for pleasure) designed by the textbook writers. This in line with what Harmer (2007a) affirms that if students are to give feedback on a text designed for pleasure, this may take that pleasure (p.110). Thus, learners have no other clear purpose than to obey instructions.

In answer to item number two, 44% of the students show that they are not ready to read the story if it is not included in the tests. This is in agreement with their answer to the previous item.

Table 2.1. Students' Purpose

Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
1- Why do you read Literary Reader (Treasure Island)?	No. of Res.	11	45	8	4	31	100
(for pleasure, to pass the exam, for pleasure and to pass the exam, only to learn English, all of them)	%	11	45	8	4	31	100
2- If the text will not be included in the tests, do you read (or study) it in the way you do now?	No. of Res.	1	15	30	14	40	100
(always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	%	1	15	30	14	40	100

b- Interest

Researchers support another view which is interest in the topic. In answer to item number three, only 32% of the students like story, while 42% of them do not, and 26% of them are in-between. Killing and unfaithfulness in the story may make the student's focus shift away from pleasure to violence.

Concerning reading texts Harmer (1998) states that "a balance has to be struck between English on the one hand and the students' capabilities and interests on the other" (p.69). When students do not enjoy reading a passage, the whole task will become a burden. It can be concluded that the story is not of general interest.

To Chastain, the level of interest in the content is more important than the level of linguistic complexity since if students are not interested to continue reading, no reading takes place (p.231). This means that interest makes students try their best to understand the text.

In answer to item number four, 68% of the students demand replacing the text by another one, but only 22% of them agree to keep it. Advocates of extensive reading assert that "learners are more likely to adopt a positive attitude to reading" if they will be free to select the topic themselves (Johnson and Johnson, 1999, p.334).

Then, the text should be reconsidered. Students should have choice to select a theme of general interest. Some suitable themes could be bravery, nature, love, etc.

Table 2-2. Students' Interest

Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
3- I like the topic of the story. (always, usually, sometimes , rarely, never)	No. of Res.	14	18	26	12	30	100
	%	14	18	26	12	30	100
4- I prefer replacing the text by another one. (always, usually, sometimes , rarely, never)	No. of Res.	50	18	10	6	16	100
	%	50	18	10	6	16	100

c- The size (or length) of the Text

In answer to item number five, most of the students (72%) claim that the story is long. This is in line with the teacher's idea (see table 1-2). It is to be mentioned that grade 12 students are not studying only English, but they have other subjects (such as physics, biology, chemistry, mathematics, etc.) to study. So, they may have little time to finish the text.

Table 2.3.. The length of the text

Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
5-The story is _____ (too long, long, suitable, short, too short).	No. of Res.	61	11	27	0	1	100
	%	61	11	27	0	1	100

d- Background of reading

Doubtlessly, prior knowledge of the topic enhances comprehension. There are some factors that relate to the reader: Ur (1996) affirms that "understanding, which is based on prior knowledge of a type of text or story, results in successful reading" (p. 140). In answer to item number six, few students, which make 29%, have textual background to read for enjoyment. This is in line with what Johnson and Johnson (1999) demonstrate that learners may oppose reading if they do not have background to practise reading for pleasure.

Table 2.4. Background of Reading

Options Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
6- I read stories in other languages (Kurdish, Arabic, etc.) for pleasure. (always, usually, sometimes , rarely, never)	No. of Res.	11	12	52	18	7	100
	%	11	12	52	18	7	100

e- Vocabulary

Interest and text difficulty are interrelated. Johnson and Johnson (1999) claim that if the text is too difficult, the interest will diminish. Also, Harmer maintains that if students are “struggling to understand every word, they can hardly be reading for pleasure” ((2007b), p 283). In answer to item number seven, most of the students, which are 52%, demonstrate that the vocabulary is difficult, but only 11% of them show that the vocabulary is not difficult. Language difficulty in text may be included to help students learn more language and learn strategies to cope with unknown language. Also, it is true that low-level learners should encounter input language which is well above the levels of what they can produce themselves. Yet, it should be borne in mind that if it is too difficult, learners will not understand the text.

Item number eight is based on the assumption that it is important to study reading texts for the way the learners use language. Gence (2005) admits that using vocabulary (grammatical competence) is as important as using it appropriately (communicative competence). Students feel that they are overloaded since they do not get much benefit from the vocabulary of the text. Only 38% of the students admit that they use the words used in the text in their daily interaction. As a result the vocabulary does not raise the student’s ability to use English in communicative situations, which is the main objective of the Sunrise programme.

Table 2.5. Vocabulary

Number of item		1	2	3	4	5	Total
7- The vocabulary is difficult. (always, usually, sometimes , rarely, never)	No. of Res.	38	14	35	7	4	100
	%	38	14	35	7	4	100
8- I use the vocabulary (used in the text) in my daily life. (always, usually, sometimes , rarely, never)	No. of Res.	10	21	29	16	22	100
	%	10	21	29	16	22	100

f- Reading Strategies

In answer to item number nine, 41% of the students admit that the text is explained or translated by the teacher, and 17% of them say that they memorize it. Unfortunately, only 8% of the students read by themselves. It seems that the students are accustomed to spoon-feeding reading, which is not a good strategy to reading (especially if the main purpose is pleasure).

In answer to item number ten, 62% of the students use dictionaries. This shows that the vocabulary used in the story is much above the students' level. The other proportion, which is 38%, does not use a dictionary. This may be due to the fact that the teachers translate the text during classes. Ur (1996) states that students need to understand some words so as to comprehend the meaning of a text, but by no means all. Overall meaning is more important than understanding every word. So students should be encouraged to pay more attention for overall meaning.

Burgess and Head (2005) state that "misunderstanding may occur when a student focuses on isolated words rather than on the message as a whole". They think that it may be difficult to convince learners that they are not in need of reading every word of the text and to "wean them away from their dictionaries" (p. 123).

Table 2.6.. Learning Strategies

		1	2	3	4	5	Total
Number of item							
9- I study the text in this way..... (I understand it, I memorize it, it is read and explained by the teacher, it is translated by the teacher, it depends)	No. of Res.	8	17	24	41	10	100
	%	8	17	24	41	10	100
10- I use a dictionary. (always, usually, sometimes, rarely, never)	No. of Res.	20	8	34	21	17	100
	%	20	8	34	21	17	100

Conclusion

From the teachers' and students' perspectives, the following findings are arrived at:

- 1- Most of the students do not read the text for pleasure, but they study it to pass the exams.
- 2- The text is not of general interest.
- 3- Students do not have the ability to read and process a text in English.
- 4- The language used in the text is difficult. The text is not appropriate for their level.
- 5- The text is long.
- 6- The text is time-consuming to both teachers and students.
- 7- The vocabulary used is difficult and not helpful to participate in social interaction.
- 8- The atmosphere is dreadful and awful as we see crimes and murders.
- 9- Students want to be 'spoon-feeding' readers. They cannot read with ease and confidence.
- 10- Working out the meaning of unfamiliar words is a strategy that students are not acquainted with.

Recommendations

In the light of the findings arrived at, the following recommendations are proposed: The vocabulary content has to be selected and graded for interest-catching topics for young students. The text should be reconsidered carefully in terms of difficulty, theme, length, etc. There is a need to combine the idea and experience of as many teachers and the interest of students as possible with the Sunrise syllabus designers. Since the main purpose of Literary Reader is for pleasure, students' interests should be taken into consideration. This can be one by the needs analysis process.

References

- Burgess, Sally and Head, Katie (2005). *How to Teach for Exams*. Edinburgh: Pearson.
- Genc, Bilal and Bada, Erdogan (2005). *Culture in Language Learning and Teaching*. The Reading Matrix. Vol. 5, No. 1.
- Grabe, William (2002). Dilemmas for the Development of Second Language Reading Abilities. In Richards, Jack C and Willy A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (pp. 376-386). Cambridge: CUP.
- Harmer, Jeremy (2007a). *How to Teach English*. Edinburgh: Pearson-Longman.
- Harmer, Jeremy (2007b). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Edinburgh: Pearson.
- Harmer, Jeremy (1998). *How to Teach English*. Edinburgh: Longman.
- Johnson, Keith and Helen Johnson, (Eds.) (1999). *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Macfarlane, Mike (2011). *Sunrise 12: Student's Book*. Oxford: Macmillan.
- Macmillan (2011) *Sunrise 12: Teacher's Book*. Oxford: Macmillan.
- McKay, Sandra Lee (1991). Literature as Content for ESL/EFL. In Marianne Celce-Murica (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (2nd ed.)* (pp.319-332). Boston: Heinle.
- Ur, Penny (1996). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: CUP.

A New Approach To The Study Of Linguistics

Dr. Mohammad S. Mansoor

Dept. of English, College of Arts and Letters, Cihan University, Erbil.

Email: msmansoor46@yahoo.co.uk

Mobile: 07701005471

ABSRTACT

This paper tries to shed light on an initiative taken by the researcher to write an introductory textbook in Linguistics for students majoring in English. The approach adopted in writing the book is communicatively and interactively oriented. It is an approach which heavily depends on interactive teaching by employing a variety of teaching strategies and activities, such as video and picture watching (as brainstorming and edutainment facilitators), discussion groups, pair work, PowerPoint presentations, opinion-sharing, in addition to extra activities which involve report and essay writing. The main objective behind this initiative is to transfer the study of linguistics from the traditional setting which mainly depends on lecturing, as one-sided process, to a more effective one, a multi-sided process, that depends on interaction, between the teacher and students, among students themselves and between students and the textbook. This kind of interaction breaks the monotony and introduces new mechanisms instead of the stereotyped and traditional practices, a case which makes the study of linguistics a dynamic and interesting experience through the balanced combination of knowledge and entertainment (edutainment).

Keywords: approach, brainstorming communicative, edutainment, hint, interactive, picture, PowerPoint presentation, starter, video

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper tries to shed light on the author's experience in writing a textbook for third year students of English at Cihan University. Since he has started his career as a lecturer four years ago, the author has noticed that students face a serious difficulty in studying linguistics. Apart from their general weakness in English language, a logical reason seems to be attributed to the nature of sources they use as references, most of which are traditional and lack the sense of entertainment and interaction. This was an incentive for the author to start the project; the implementation of which came true when writing the textbook entitled: "Linguistics: A Practical Course for the Study of Language". Following the academic and official procedures, the book was approved by the Committee of Authorship and Sponsorship at the university and soon published in October, 2014. Now it is in practical use as a textbook in Linguistics.³

In writing this book, the author has taken many things into consideration. The students' needs were given a top priority. Students need a textbook which briefly and directly tackles the material; one which is written in an easy straightforward style and diction. Other important considerations are related to the recent trends and developments in methodology, English language teaching/learning and informatization, all of which highly emphasize the role of interaction, brainstorming and edutainment (through the inclusion of pictures, videos and PowerPoint presentations).

2. INTERACTION

Second/foreign language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communicative situations. Interaction has an important role in language teaching as it promotes active engagement with ideas and interpretation. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

³ Adopting the same approach, the author has recently completed writing another textbook in "Semantics and Pragmatics" for fourth year students.

emphasizes interaction and considers it as the key to second language teaching/learning (Richards, 2006). Thus, the main objective of CLT has always been to develop communicative competence in personally meaningful ways and situations. According to the interactionist view of language teaching, language acquisition is the result of an interaction between the learner's mental abilities and the linguistic environment (Long 1990, cited in Ellis 1994).

Interaction, as a planned classroom practice or activity, works at different levels: between teacher and student, student and student, student and text, and teacher and text. Such levels of interaction provide learning experiences that focus learners' attention on the language material and encourage processes of noticing, comparison and reflection (Scarino and Liddicoat, 2009: p.39) between learners and the language (input) provided by their teacher or textbook, between learners themselves, and the learners and the textbook, all of which result in production (output) (Ellis,1994). The more effective the input, the more effective the output will be. This highly depends on the nature of the material, the feedback, linguistic environment and the manner in which this input (language material) is delivered to the learners.

In addition to the teacher's role as an initiator of a comprehensible and effective input (Krashen, 1987), the subject matter contained in the textbook should be highly effective in the sense that it offers ample space for interactive skills through students' participation in class activity. In this textbook, I have tried to provide learners with different sources of interactive skills through the inclusion of videos, pictures, questions, in addition to a variety of tasks which include discussion questions, group and pair work, critical thinking and interpretation, self-expression and opinion-sharing. Such a variety of tasks and activities helps students progress in language acquisition and understand real language to a great extent through their interaction with the subject matter, the teacher and other learners, and be able to discuss their reaction and contribution to a certain matter or query or solve a problem or a dilemma.

Vygotsky (1978) assigns a direct and leading effective role to the teacher. According to him, teachers need to do more than just provide or

arrange the environment for learners to discover things on their own. The teacher should guide the learner by explanations, demonstrations, rephrasing and work with other learners, and provide him/her with opportunities for cooperative and interactive learning. Learners should be put in situations where they have to reach to understand, but where support from other learners or from the teacher is also available.

Creating an interactive environment in the classroom can also be achieved through questioning. In an interactive classroom, questions need to be distributed among participants in a way which allows for collaborative exploration of ideas. Teachers and the subject matter should allocate significant teaching time to asking different types of questions, most of which are display questions (in which the answer is known by the teacher, and found in the textbook) to elicit recall of information, and referential questions (in which the answer is not known by the teacher) and used to elicit a meaningful communication from the student (Scarino and Liddicoat, 2009: p.42). Other types of questions of interactive nature aim at forming opinions, investigating connections, promoting reflection and eliciting interpretations and assumptions (ibid, p. 44).

3. BRAINSTORMING

The OALD defines brainstorming as a way of making a group of people think about something at the same time in order to solve a problem or create new ideas. Brainstorming is a group or an individual creativity technique by which efforts are made to find a conclusion for a specific problem by gathering a list of ideas spontaneously contributed by its members (Osborn, 1963 cited in Wikipedia, 2015). The term was popularized by Alex F. Osborn in his book *Applied Imagination* in 1953. Brainstorming is a useful tool to develop creative solutions to a problem. It is a thinking process by which students are asked to develop ideas or thoughts about a particular issue or topic which they can define or diagnose. It is a process that contributes to the generation of creative solutions to a problem. It teaches students to break away from old patterns of reasoning to new unexplored

paths of thinking that foster interactive thinking (by working together in small groups).

Brainstorming can play a significant role to improve student's content understanding, thematic integration with real life while enhancing the confidence and communication skills in the students. It is largely due to the fact that brainstorming not only stimulates students' attention, but also encourages them to participate in the class activity in an interactive and fun-active manner while motivating them towards the topic in focus (Abdul Mateen, 2013). Brainstorming aims at creating a list of ideas that can be used as clues that guide students to make their contributions as regards the problem, while giving every student the possibility to articulate his/her ideas and share those with others and support new ideas (Al-blwi, 2006).

Brainstorming helps the teacher to conclude ideas that are broader than students' thinking solutions. It makes the teacher more democratic and respectful of views regardless of the different points of view (Humaidan, 2005 cited in Abdul Mateen, 2013). Many studies have shown the advantages of brainstorming in FLT. Richards (1990) found that students who were trained in brainstorming techniques were more efficient at generating and organizing ideas than students in a control group. Rao (2007) pointed out that students, who had been trained in brainstorming techniques and used them regularly over a twelve-month period, produced measurably higher results in writing tasks. In addition to this, an attitudinal survey showed that students who participated in a research project felt positive about the effectiveness of the brainstorming techniques (Sayed, 2009 cited in Abdul Mateen, 2013). Brainstorming helps students to solve problems, to benefit from the ideas of others and build on them, helps the cohesion of the students, builds relationships among them and assesses the views of others.

To activate brainstorming in classroom situations, the class is to be divided into two or three groups and one student is appointed as note-taker or a leader for each group. Students are given about ten minutes to do the brainstorming activity. During the brainstorming session, the following procedural steps are to be recommended (Hayes, 1989 cited in Rhalmi, 2010):

- Write the rules of successful brainstorming on the board:

All ideas are accepted and written down.

Generate as many ideas as possible.

Unusual, even seemingly irrelevant ideas are welcome.

You may use other students' idea and expand on it.

Criticism is banned at this stage.

- Encourage students to contribute ideas.
- Get feedback from students.
- Ask which group produced more ideas and which group enjoyed the activity more.
- Group leaders read out their ideas written on slips of paper.
- Students guess which group was brainstorming the right way.

When they finish, each group choose their three best ideas and write them up on the board. At last ideas are to be unified and a final version is adopted by the help and guidance of the teacher (ibid).

Brainstorming is fun. That's why it helps student-student and student-teacher relationships to get stronger as they solve problems in a positive, stress-free environment.⁴

4. EDUTAINMENT

According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary (2012), educational entertainment or edutainment is defined as any content that is designed to educate as well as to entertain. There also exists content that is primarily educational but has incidental entertainment value, as well as content that is mostly entertaining but has some educational value. It can be argued that

⁴ See Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching, Copyright © 1995-2015, Iowa State University of Science and Technology.

educational entertainment has existed from antiquity in the form of parables (Wikipedia, 2014), represented by short stories that teach a moral or a spiritual lesson like those told by Jesus Christ, and fables specially with animals as characters.

The term 'edutainment' was used as early as 1948 by The Walt Disney Company to describe the *True Life Adventures* series (ibid). The noun 'edutainment' was used by Robert Heyman in 1973 while producing documentaries for the National Geographic Society (Rey-López et al, 2006). Edutainment is the marriage or the combination of education and entertainment. Generally, edutainment refers to entertaining TV programs, videos and computer software, which are primarily meant for educational purposes. The educational purpose can be related to formal education in different schools and institutes or to informal learning in different daily life contexts without systematically organized education (Walldén and Soronen, 2004: p.4).

The rationale behind the existence and use of edutainment in teaching/learning situations is related to the need and desire to make the best of the advantages of information technology to fulfil relaxing teaching and learning and to achieve good results through lively activities. In accordance with the ideas and theories of modern education, the informatization (computerization) of curriculum gives full play to the advantages of information technology to complete the instructional design, develop teaching resources, create teaching situations, and transform abstract teaching contents into visual and vivid symbolic forms to facilitate learners' understanding and perception (Li Hongke, 2014: p.28). But all this cannot be achieved without thoughtful planning and preparation, taking into consideration the students' needs, their level and interests.

Fun is regarded as a factor in shaping the learner's own learning goals and his/her interaction with these goals, as well as the interaction of the learner with his/ her peers, who will provide feedback and aid in developing the process of understanding (Watson, 2007). A basic assumption is that instructional designs when combined with fun elements enhance learning (Lepper and Cordova, 1992). But fun for its own purpose should be avoided. What is needed is a balance of fun and seriousness. Rea (1998) comments on

this point by saying that the two elements; fun and seriousness may co-exist in a negotiated balance.

Familiarization with technology provides a whole range of pedagogical options (Forsyth *et al*, 1995; Maier *et al*, 1998) that can be incorporated in the curriculum to promote learning. It can, if integrated and used properly, encourage and support more professional delivery of teaching and learning materials and thus facilitate student learning. Due to the latest developments in science and technology, a huge amount of media with an edutaining nature is accessible via the internet at websites such as YouTube. Modern forms include computer software, which uses entertainment to attract and maintain an audience, while incorporating deliberate educational contents or messages. This is conveyed through movies, audios, videos, pictures, games, television programs and other forms of computer software. Television programs with a high degree of both education and entertainment, and games that fulfil a number of educational purposes can be a good source of edutainment. Many recent research articles postulate that education and gaming can be joined to provide academic benefits (Paraskeva, et al, 2010).

To make their teaching effective and productive, teachers have to exploit and incorporate multimedia into their teaching. Multimedia, in the form of figures, images, pictures, charts, graphs, videos and PowerPoint presentations, is a powerful tool which we need to use thoughtfully. This can be done by engaging students, who are more visual learners, in a variety of activities and tasks. We know from experience that students respond well to the use of images to stimulate their interest in a subject. Postman (1985) addresses the efforts to make classrooms more entertaining. To him, learning can take the form of entertainment, and learning and enjoyment mutually support each other and that effective teaching should make use of mentally stimulating enjoyable materials.

In this paper special attention is paid to pictures, figures, videos and PowerPoint presentations as valuable sources of edutainment which have been depended and used throughout the twelve chapters of the book under investigation.

4.1 FIGURES AND PICTURES

According to Beakes, (2003), a picture can be worth a thousand words, so use graphics to enhance your presentation and teaching. Figures and pictures can be used as effective tools of brainstorming if well and deliberately chosen and delivered to serve their own purposes. They can initiate students to be indirectly involved in the subject matter. Thus, pictures can be employed in lessons to reach conclusions that contribute to the topic being presented. Figures and pictures bring images of reality into the unnatural world of the language classroom (Hill, 1990: p.1). They create a relaxed and pleasant atmosphere through their entertaining and informative educational nature and content. Figures containing pictures can be used as stimuli for answering certain questions or conducting a discussion, as an illustration of something being read or talked about and as a background to a topic which can be used in different language areas and teaching different skills (ibid, p.2; Wright, 1990).

Pictures are used in language teaching because they are motivating and draw learners' attention, make boring activities more enjoyable, highlight learners' interest and motivation. Furthermore, they provide a sense of the context of language and give a specific reference point or stimulus (ibid: p.2), in addition to their basic role as brainstorming initiator with an edutaining nature. They are excellent tools whereby students are interactively involved in the class activities. In fact, these are the real reasons behind the inclusion of a large amount of figures and pictures in the book "Linguistics: A Practical Course for the Study of Language".⁵

⁵ Figures and pictures are generally presented in the Hint section in each chapter, but sometimes elsewhere, where necessity arises.

4.2 VIDEOS

Due to its vital role in modern life, software technology has become a necessity in many fields of knowledge, information and entertainment, and language teaching is not an exception. The video, as a practical application of this technology, is being tremendously and effectively used in classroom situations, and with positive and encouraging results. Teachers, who use instructional videos, report that their students retain more information, understand concepts more rapidly and are more enthusiastic about what they are learning. With the video as one component in a thoughtful lesson plan, students often make new connections between curriculum topics, and discover links between these topics and the world outside the classroom (www.thirteen.org/edonline/ntti/resources/video_1.html).

Video watching has many advantages for both students and teachers. It takes students around the globe to meet new people and hear their ideas, illustrates complex abstract concepts through animated images, engages students in problem-solving and investigative activities, helps students practice critical viewing skills and provides a common experience for students to discuss matters. A recent large-scale survey by Canning-Wilson 2000 (cited in Çakir, 2006: p. 67) reveals that students like learning language through the use of video, which is often used to mean quite different things in language teaching. Selinger (1994, p. 248) has also found that the use of video can “enhance student understanding of teaching”. Being a rich and valuable resource, the video is well-liked by both students and teachers (Hemei, 1997: p. 45). Students like it because video presentations are interesting, enjoyable, challenging and stimulating to watch. Videos show them how people behave in the culture whose language they are learning, by bringing into the classroom a wide range of communicative situations. As for teachers, it serves as an entertaining tool that saves both time and effort. A few minutes of video watching can spare a lot of classroom work time, or it can be used to introduce a wide range of activity. In addition, it is an important factor for teachers in that it helps to promote comprehension and creates an atmosphere of interaction with what is being watched (Çakir, 2006: p.68).

There is no doubt that the video is an obvious medium for helping non-native learners to interpret the visual clues effectively. Research has shown that language teachers prefer video displays because they motivate learners, bring the real world into the classroom, contextualize language naturally and enable learners to experience authentic language in a controlled environment. The video can give students realistic models to imitate for role-play (Arthur, 1999). It can increase awareness of other cultures, and provide authentic language input (Katchen, 2002). A great advantage related to its application in the classroom is that the video can be easily used. The teacher can step in the process whenever he wishes; he can stop, pause, play, replay and rewind and repeat it for several times where necessary. The teacher can freeze the picture (when he or she wants to explain something), make a comment, ask questions about a particular scene or to call students' attention to some points. By freezing the scene students can be asked what is going to happen next (predict). This process fires the imagination of the students by leading them into predicting and deducing further information about the content of the video.

Before watching the video, students are told that the purpose behind this activity is edutainment; a mixture of both knowledge and fun. While watching the video, students are asked to take notes of what is being watched, to be ready to answer certain questions raised by the teacher during watching or when the video is over. They may be asked to reproduce either what is being displayed, to describe what is happening, or to write or retell what has happened (either as answers to certain questions or write a report about it). Last but not least, the role of the student is not to be a passive viewer but an active participator in the activity which calls for interaction with the video content, the teacher and other students. This strategy has been strictly and effectively applied in the classroom when watching the videos attached to the textbook subject to investigation.

4.3 POWERPOINT PRESENTATIONS

PowerPoint can be an effective tool to present material in the classroom and promote student learning. It is a valuable aid to teaching provided that its use has been carefully considered in terms of technology and pedagogy. Using PowerPoint is a very positive and helpful activity. According to Jones (2003), it becomes simply an alternative form of presenting largely text-based material used to be delivered by, what he calls, 'old technology' meaning traditional teaching methods (chalk and talk).

PowerPoint Presentations (PPPs) can be used in many ways in the EFL classroom as well as in other classrooms. They can be used for initial teaching, for practice and drilling, for games, for reviews and for tests. The teacher must anticipate areas of misunderstanding and difficulty. Once the teacher knows the troubles which the students will face, he or she can create or adapt a suitable presentation for them (Fisher, 2003). Appropriate use of PowerPoint can enhance the teaching and learning experiences for both staff and students (Jones, 2003). In my course book "Linguistics", PPPs are used for two main purposes; as a tool to teach and present new material (initial teaching) and for reviewing ideas and topics which have already been presented. After the students have learned and practiced something, it is a good idea to see a presentation as a reinforcement activity.

Teachers and instructors need to know how to prepare, design and deliver their PPPs. There are two types of requirements which they have to be aware of; technical and pedagogical. Technically, they should have good knowledge of designing and displaying their PPPs; how to use the proper and suitable font, letter size, colour, bullet points, the slides, the background, and how to act if a technical failure or defect happens while displaying. The background should be clear, and the slides should also be clear to read and see and without spelling mistakes. The slides should not be dense (overcrowded) with material and not to be delivered quickly. Excessive use of colour effects, transition effects and sound effects should be avoided. Also displaying too many slides should be avoided (ibid).

Pedagogically, teachers have to prepare the slides of their PPPs in a way that meets the requirements of the course, the needs and level of their students. They have to know the 'what-how-when-why' strategy: what material to include in the slides, how to deliver it (the manner) and when to deliver it and for what purpose (as initial teaching, for practice and drilling, or for reviewing). When preparing PPPs, the following guidelines should be strictly observed:⁶

- Avoid including excessive details.
- Be careful to include only necessary information.
- Use brief points instead of long sentences or paragraphs.
- Relate PowerPoint material to course objectives.
- Avoid reading from the slide; reading the material can be perceived as though you don't know the material.

To activate the use of PPPs students should also be given the chance to make their own presentations as a part of the course activity. The use of PPPs by students undoubtedly offers the opportunity for development of a valuable transferable skill. It is vitally important to train students to be an element of peer-assessment (Prescott & Oduyemi, 2003). This can be done by encouraging students to be active participators and assessors in PPPs through their questions, discussions and comments that follow the presentations.

Despite their importance, PPPs should not be used as a substitute for the teacher. Excessive use of PPPs may minimize the opportunity for spontaneity and creative teaching. A competent professional teacher knows how, when and why to use them, and how to keep a good balance between his talents, his contributions and technology.

⁶ <http://facdev.niu.edu>, 815.753.0595. Northern Illinois University, Faculty Development and Instructional Design Center facdev@niu.edu,

5. TEXTBOOK DESCRIPTION

5.1 VERTICAL AXIS

Vertically, each chapter begins with the Starter section, followed by the Hint section, the basic material to be delivered in the chapter, then the Reminder section and ends with the Study Section.

The **Starter** introduces the basic topics and terms to be presented in the chapter as headlines. The purpose behind this section is to direct the students' attention to what is to be dealt with in the chapter.

The **Hint** section is a two-fold activity. It is either a picture or a short video. But the two have one purpose in common; they function as a brainstorming stimulus for students to be actively and indirectly involved in the topic to be presented later. Here students are required to watch the picture or the video and answer the relevant questions. The images (presented in the figures) and videos intend to prepare students for active involvement in the subject, but in an entertaining and easy manner by means of the information displayed on the video. They challenge the students' ability to recall, observe, analyse, synthesize and infer to get at the correct answer.

The **Reminder** section comes at the end of each chapter. It is a summary of the main points and basic terms introduced in the chapter. It has been devised to help students have a brief account of the subject through skimming.

The **Study Section**, which comes after the Reminder, is divided into two main parts; questions and extra activity. The questions aim at checking the students' knowledge and understanding of the main ideas and important terms presented in the chapter. The extra activity includes tasks that offer the chance to develop the students' learning strategies by means of homework assignments, interactive discussion groups, pair work, report/essay writing and PowerPoint presentations.

5.2 HORIZONTAL AXIS

Horizontally, the book contains twelve chapters that fall into two parts. Part One, which is supposed to be covered in the first semester, contains six chapters. A similar number of chapters that comprise Part Two are assigned for the second semester. The book ends with a glossary of basic terms in language and linguistics for an easy reference in case of need.

6. TEXTBOOK STRATEGY

A variety of strategies have been employed throughout the book. These aim at making the book easy to follow and handle, especially for students, and other readers who want to use it on their own as part of self-study. These strategies include: simplicity of expression, straightforward style, clarity of presentation, comprehensive coverage of fundamental linguistic issues and concepts and splitting the main topics into smaller manageable subtopics. In addition to the videos and images, which are used as brainstorming stimuli and edutainment, interactive task activities and PPPs are heavily used in the twelve chapters of the book. The main objective behind all this is to provide both the teacher and students with a useful and entertaining tool to the study of linguistics. All these strategies and activities aim at making the study of linguistics an interesting task rather than boring.

7. HOW TO USE THE BOOK

7.1 FOR THE TEACHER

For easy and effective treatment of the subject matter, the teacher is advised to follow the same method of presentation and gradation adopted in the book. The teacher has to stick to the same sequence, and proceed from the

Starter to the **Hint** and to the rest of other topics and sections (systematic gradation). The teacher's role is an organizer, a facilitator and a guide rather than a controller or a performer. The images and videos included in the Hint sections should be used as brainstorming stimuli to create an interactive atmosphere. As for the **PowerPoint Presentations**, the teacher has to effectively exploit this facility in a way that makes the teaching of Linguistics both knowledge and entertainment. The teacher has also to activate the **Extra Activity** sections through class discussions, pair and group work, report and essay writing.

7.2 FOR THE STUDENT

The approach adopted in this book gives a good chance for students to take the initiative and be actively engaged into a variety of activities. It helps students to deal with Linguistics from a new perspective which makes their study both useful and interesting. This is achieved through the edutainment factor conveyed by video watching and image capturing, brainstorming, interactive discussion groups, group/pair work, report and essay writing and PowerPoint presentations. By virtue of the PowerPoint presentation facility, which is recorded on an attached CD, students and other learners can enjoy watching them independently, and at their leisure time, as a part of self-study material.

8. CONCLUSION

When writing a textbook, an author has to put certain pedagogic considerations in mind, namely the students' needs, their linguistic background, the objectives of the course, and the latest trends and developments in language teaching/learning and informatization. Having taken these things into consideration, the author sets out to decide on the suitable methodology. The approach that I have adopted in writing this book

is an attempt to cope with all these pedagogic considerations. It is, in the first place, communicatively and interactively oriented with an edutaining flavour. This is quite obvious from the strategies and activities employed throughout the book. These include versatile use of video and image capturing which are used as brainstorming stimuli and edutainment facilitators, interactive task activities, opinion-sharing, discussion groups, essay and report writing, and heavy use of PPPs that cover the twelve chapters of the book. In addition, the use of simplicity of expression, straightforward style, clarity of presentation, comprehensive coverage of fundamental linguistic issues and concepts, splitting the main topics into smaller manageable subtopics, have made the book easy to handle and follow. To end up with, the book has been an attempt to make the study of linguistics an interesting task rather than boring through the marriage of information and entertainment.

REFERENCES

- Abdul Mateen , T. (2013). "Role of Using Brainstorming on Student Learning Outcomes during Teaching of Students at Middle Level". *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*. VOL 4, NO 9.
- Al-bwli, Q. (2006). "*The effectiveness of using brainstorming strategy in developing creative thinking in Islamic Education among third secondary students in Tabouk City*". Master Thesis. Mut'a University, Krak. Jordan.
- Arthur, P. (1999). Why use video? A teacher's perspective. *VSELT* 2 (4).
- Beakes, G. (2003). A Picture is Worth a Thousand Words. A Personal View of Using Images in the Teaching of the Biological Sciences. *BEE-j*, 1 (1) (at <http://bio.ltsn.ac.uk/journal/vol1/beej-1-3.htm>)

- Canning-Wilson, Christine. (2000). Research in Visuals. Video Special Interest Group at the *International TESOL Arabia 2000 Conference*. Arabia.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Fisher, Don L. (2003). Using PowerPoint for ESL Teaching. The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. IX, No. 4, April 2003(available at: <http://iteslj.org>)
- Forsyth, I., et al. (1995). *Delivering a Course*. London, Kogan.
- Hayes, John R. (1989). *The Complete Problem Solver*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hemei, J. (1997). Teaching with Video in an English Class, *Journal of English Teaching Forum*, vol.35-2, pp 45-47.
- Hill, David A. (1990). *Visual Impact: Creative language learning through pictures*. Essex: Longman Group UK Limited.
- Jones, Allan M. (2003). The use and abuse of PowerPoint in Teaching and Learning in the Life Sciences: *A Personal Overview, BEE-j Volume 2: November 2003* (available at: journals.heacademy.ac.uk/doi/abs/10.3108/beej)
- Katchen, J.E. (2002). Using authentic video in English language teaching: Tips for Taiwan's teachers. Taipei: The Crane Publishing Company, Ltd
- Video in ELT—Theoretical and Pedagogical Foundations. Proceedings of the 2002 KATE (The Korea Association of Teachers of English) *International Conference* (pp. 256-259).
- Krashen, S. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Lepper, Mark R. & Cordova, Diana I. (1992). A Desire to Be Taught: Instructional Consequences of Intrinsic Motivation. In *Motivation and Emotion*, Vol. 16, No. 3.

- Li Hongke (2014). A Practice Study on the Informatization of Primary School Chinese Curriculum from the Perspective of Edutainment. *Journal of Education and Learning*; Vol. 3, No. Published by Canadian Center of Science and Education.
- Long, M. H. (1990). Task, group and task-group interactions. In Anivan, S. (Ed.), *Language teaching methodology for the nineties* (pp. 31-50). Singapore: Regional English Language Centre/Singapore University Press.
- Maier, P., et al. (1998). *Using Technology in Teaching and Learning*. London: Kogan.
- Merriam-Webster. Retrieved October 16, 2012. www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/retrieve
- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. 2006 (7th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Osborn, A.F. (1963). *Applied imagination: Principles and procedures of creative problem solving* (Third Revised Edition). New York, NY: Charles Scribner's Sons.
- Paraskeva, F., et al. (2010). "Multiplayer online games as educational tools: Facing new challenges in learning. *Computers and Education*", 54, 498-505.
- Postman, N. (1985). *Amusing ourselves to death: public discourse in the age of show business*. Penguin, New York.
- Prescott, A. & Oduyemi, K. (2003). PowerPoint presentations by students. *ILTHE Newsletter* 11, Summer 2003, p14.
- Rao, Z. (2007). Training in Brainstorming and Developing Writing Skills, in *EL Journal*.
- Rea, D. (1998). Achievement motivation as a dynamical system: dancing on the "edge of chaos" with "serious fun." *Educational Resources Information Centre* (ED 415, 287).

Rhalmi, Mohammed. (2010). "Brainstorming in EFL and ESL Classes". My English Pages (Available at: www.myenglishpages.com/blog/brainstorming-in-efl-and-esl-classes).

Rey-López Marta, et al. (2006). "A Model for Personalized Learning". In: *Adaptive Hypermedia and Adaptive Web-Based Systems*. Berlin: Springer.

Richards, Jack C. (1990). "New Trends in the Teaching of Writing in ESL/ EFL in Wang Z.(ed.)

ELT in China". Papers Presented at the International Symposium on Teaching English in the

Chinese Context, Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, Beijing.

_____. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Scarino, Angela & Liddicoat, Anthony J. (2009). *Teaching and Learning Languages: A Guide:*

Commonwealth of Australia. (available on the website www.tllg.unisa.edu.au).

Selinger, M. (1994). "Responses to video in initial teacher education". In P. da Ponte & F. Matos

(Eds.), *Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education*, Vol. IV, (pp. 241–248). Lisbon, Portugal.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Walldén, Sari & Soronen, Anne. (2004). "Edutainment: From Television and Computers to Digital Television". In Tutkimusraportteja - Working Papers. (Available at: www.uta.fi/hyper/julkaisut/b/fitv03b.pdf)

Watson, W.R. (2007). "*Formative research on an instructional-design theory for educational video*

games”, doctoral thesis, Department of Instructional Systems Technology, School of Education, Indiana University, Purdue, IN.

Wright, Andrew. (1990). *Pictures for Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Websites

"<http://www.elysianworld.com>". elysianworld.com. Retrieved November 6, 2014.

"Inspirational speakers - Professional Inspirational Speaker, Performer, Songwriter & Author". edutainer.ca. Retrieved November 6, 2014.

www.uta.fi/hyper/julkaisut/b/fitv03b.pdf.

www.tllg.unisa.edu.au).

www.thirteen.org/edonline/ntti/resources/video1.html

journals.heacademy.ac.uk/doi/abs/10.3108/beej.2003.02000004 (The use and abuse)

www.myenglishpages.com/blog/brainstorming-in-efl-and-esl-classes

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Educational_entertainment

<http://facdev.niu.edu>, 815.753.0595. facdev@niu.edu

Using Role-Play Activities To Develop Speaking Skills: A Case Study In The Language Classroom

Dr. Mustafa Altun,

Ishik University, Erbil, Iraq

mustafa.altun@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

The implementation of role-play activities leads to better communication skills because students are engaged in conversational activities. Teaching English language through role-play is very influential in that it enhances students' exposure to language which is considered as the key factor to speed up the language learning process. Students via producing speech in role-play activities can have a good command of communicative competence. Moreover, conduct of role-play activities can provide a stress free learning environment where students enjoy using the language. Role-play activities will enable students to gain self-confidence and consequently they will stand a better chance of promoting their speaking skills. Students are motivated to use the language effectively through role-play activities. This study aims to explore the benefits of role-play activities in developing speaking skills. It has been found that role-play activities impact speaking skills of foreign language learners.

Key words:, Communication, Communicative-competence, Motivation, , Role-play Activities

1. INTRODUCTION

Role-play activities (RPA) are powerful language teaching methods that entail all of the learners' interactive involvement in the learning process. This study aims to prove that learners are enthusiastic about learning English

through role-play. The aim of learning through role-play is to improve their speaking, writing, reading and communicative skills. RPA fosters and encourages motivation of learners in an entertaining way and provides a rich experience of language. There are quite many reasons in high favor of the use of RPA in second language classrooms. RPA can provide motivation because they are enjoyable and entertaining for the learners. It integrates language skills in a natural way and helps learners who have never experienced such encouragement before. RPA has a huge effect on the classroom atmosphere and dynamics, thus enables learners to become aware of common mistakes in English. The use of RPA provides great opportunities for students to communicate with each other even if they have limited vocabulary. RPA encourages learners to communicate and express themselves bravely. Learners need to experience a real language environment to promote their language skills, and RPA helps learners to improve their speaking skills through teaching them some routine phrases and common words. Furthermore, learners can develop their multiple intelligences through RPA and games. It is important for students to work together in a group and interact with others. Some teachers insistently continue teaching using traditional styles and they refrain from using RPA in their lessons. They are worried about how to control class, how to organize and how to build authority during RPA. If they try and see the effectiveness of RPA, they will implement RPA in their teaching process.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Role-play is a study in which students act specific roles through saying and doing. Blank (1985, p. 55) defines role playing as an activity which “requires physical involvement on the part of students. Two or more people “act out” the part of individuals in a hypothetical situation.” The physical involvements of students in role playing in the classroom motivate them to learn the foreign language effectively. RPA is mostly conducted in the classroom; therefore it provides a stress-free environment for learners.

Communication in the second language has always been a source of frustration for language learners, yet communicative competence holds an

important place in language learning. RPA is useful for learners to promote their speaking skills. Rayhan (2014, p.2) puts forwards that ‘Speaking is significant to an individual’s living processes and experiences as are the ability of seeing and walking. Speaking is also the most natural way to communicate’. Thus, without speaking skills learners cannot convey their messages. The implementation of RPA in EFL classes enhances communicative competence of learners.

RPA has been identified as an extremely effective methodology in language teaching. A high degree of thinking, feeling and moving is engaged and at a later time it aids in the development of skills in language learning process. RPA is a tool which is flexible, variable and feasible among all areas of the EFL curriculum. Through exposure to the target language learners stand a better chance of developing their language proficiency. Dorathy and Mahalakshmi (2011, p. 2) claim that “Role play is a technique in which students are presented with a real or artificial environment and they are exposed to some kind of case or situation and they need to exhibit the same in form of roles”. The comfortable learning environment created by the use of RPA encourages learners to get involved in real life conversations.

The development of communicative competence is a major problem for language learners. Though learners have a good command of grammar and vocabulary knowledge, they may have difficulty in communication. RPA provides great encouragement for learners to communicate in the target language. Shen and Suwanthep (2011, p.6) argued that, “it (role-play) involves such speaking activities as behavioristic role-playing, recording and comparing, and listening and retelling, which require students to repeat the speaking materials over and over again”. RPA are useful in that it both enables learners to get exposed to the target language and communicate effectively. Learners need to be active in order to improve their communication skills. Luca and Heal (2006) argued that “Students played an active rather than passive role and emphasis was transferred from individual activities to communication and collaboration, which allowed flexibility in the delivery of material in terms of the number of participants, the timing and spatial location of the teaching and learning process and also how participants were taught new skills and competencies”. RPA enables learners to develop speaking skills. Learners see how language works

naturally; at the same time, they have a good opportunity to use the language they have learnt from RPA in real life situations.

3. THE BENEFITS OF USING ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITIES.

There are many benefits of using role-play activities in the language classroom. Using role-play in an EFL classroom is one of the greatest ways to improve learners' discourse. Dorathy and Mahalakshmi (2011, p.2) stated that "Role play is very important in teaching English because it gives students an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different social roles. In addition, it also allows students to be creative and to put themselves in another person's place for a while". Through RPA learners practice in the second language which fosters their communicative competence. Huang and Shan (2008) state that RPA enriches learners' vocabulary knowledge which is a crucial element to communicate in the target language. Communicative competence requires grammar and vocabulary knowledge and RPA provides learners the language knowledge they need to develop their proficiency.

4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the role of role-play activities on foreign language learning?
2. Do role-play activities impact communication skills of foreign language learners?

5. METHODOLOGY

5.1 THE AIM OF THE STUDY

This study finds out the effectiveness of using RPA on improving learners' speaking and discoursing ability. The study focuses on the value and significance of RPA and its application in language teaching. 45 learners participated in the study. The learners were all ELT third year students.

5.2 DATA COLLECTION

Quantitative research method has been employed in the study. Data has been collected through a survey. The collected data has been analyzed through SPSS. Cronbach’s Alpha reliability has been calculated as 81.3.

Table 1: Reliability Statistics

Enrollment in local colleges, 2005

College	New students	Graduating students	Change
<i>Undergraduate</i>			
Cedar University	110	103	+7
Elm College	223	214	+9
Maple Academy	197	120	+77
Pine College	134	121	+13
Oak Institute	202	210	-8
<i>Graduate</i>			
Cedar University	24	20	+4
Elm College	43	53	-10
Maple Academy	3	11	-8
Pine College	9	4	+5
Oak Institute	53	52	+1
Total	998	908	90

Source: Fictitious data, for illustration purposes only

6. FINDINGS

It has been found that RPA motivates learners to learn better in the foreign language (Q1), and learners are encouraged to achieve better. In other words, RPA develops self-confidence of learners (Q2). Motivation and self-confidence are crucial factors in improving communicative competence of learners (Q3). When learners have been substantially encouraged, their accomplishment in the foreign language will be better (Q4). It has been found that motivation, and self-confidence positively influence on foreign language learning (Q7). This study has suggested that motivation and self-confidence contributes to foreign language learning, it has been found that

29.9 % of the variations has been explained (table 2). And the significance level is ,006 which is $P < .1$, then the significance is at 90% (table 3).

Table 2: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,547 ^a	,299	,229	,688	1,924

a. Predictors: (Constant), Q4, Q2, Q1, Q3

Dependent Variable: Q7

Table 3: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8,062	4	2,016	4,262	,006 ^b
	Residual	18,915	40	,473		
	Total	26,978	44			

a. Dependent Variable: Q7

b. Predictors: (Constant), Q4, Q2, Q1, Q3

The following role-play activity is useful for learners because it aims at teaching noun clauses which has been difficult to learn for most learners. But this activity teaches noun clauses through providing an enjoyable learning environment. Learners through such activities are motivated to learn language skills.

‘DO YOU KNOW WHERE MY BOOK IS?’

Where are my pencils?

Cem : Hey Ali , do you know where my pen is?

Ali: Yes, it is on your desk.

Cem : Okay thanks. Hey Fatih, do you know where my eraser is?

Fatih : Yeah, it is on your bed.

Cem : Okay thanks. Hey Aktug, do you know where my ruler is?

Aktug : Yeah, it is between the books

Cem : Okay thanks. Hey Azra, do you know where my sharpener is?

Azra : Yeah, it is in your pencil case .

Cem : Okay thanks. I have everything I need. Now I can go to school.

Fatih: Hey Cem, do you know where your pencils are?

Cem : No. Where are they? I need them.

RPA presents language materials in a natural way to learners (Q5). Learners through repeated exposure to language elements in RPA learn the language incidentally. Furthermore, RPA provides a good opportunity for learners to learn everyday language (Q6). Constant exposure to language elements and everyday language in role-play activities enable learners to develop vocabulary knowledge (Q8) and language skills (Q7). It has been found that RPA presents the language items in a natural way so learners acquire the language with ease, and RPA contributes to language skills and vocabulary development. 59,6 % of the variations has been explained (table 4). The significance level is ,000 then the model is significant at 99 % (table 5).

Table 4: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,772 ^a	,596	,556	,660	2,553

a. Predictors: (Constant), Q7, Q5, Q8, Q6

b. Dependent Variable: Q9

Table 5: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	25,764	4	6,441	14,777	,000 ^b
	Residual	17,436	40	,436		
	Total	43,200	44			

a. Dependent Variable: Q9

b. Predictors: (Constant), Q7, Q5, Q8, Q6

Finally the study has shown that RPAs have influence on the development of speaking skills of language learners. Simply put, the study has proved that RPAs provide learners the necessary components learners need to develop their communicative competence. The study has suggested that 51,7 % of the variables has been explained (table 6) and the significance level is ,000 so the model is significant at 99%.

Table 6: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,719 ^a	,517	,425	,795	2,101

a. Predictors: (Constant), Q10, Q1, Q6, Q2, Q9, Q5, Q8

b. Dependent Variable: Q11

Table 7: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	25,037	7	3,577	5,654	,000 ^b
	Residual	23,407	37	,633		
	Total	48,444	44			

a. Dependent Variable: Q11

b. Predictors: (Constant), Q10, Q1, Q6, Q2, Q9, Q5, Q8

7. CONCLUSION

RPA is useful to learn foreign language, because language occurs in a natural way. Learners develop their motivation and self-confidence through these activities; therefore they are encouraged to achieve better in foreign language learning. RPA teaches vocabulary and everyday language to learners. These are significant elements learners need to develop their communicative competence. It can be concluded that, RPA improves learners' speaking skills.

References

- Blank, S. C. (1985). Effectiveness of role playing, case studies, and simulation games in teaching agricultural economics. *Western Agricultural Economics Association*, (10), 55-62
- Dorathy, A.A & S.N Mahalakshmi (2011) Second Language Acquisition through Task-based Approach – Role-play in English Language Teaching. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 33(1), 1-7
- Luca, J. & Heal, D. (2006). Is role-play an effective teaching approach to assist tertiary students to improve teamwork skills?,473-477 Retrieved on 24 February, 2015 from www.ascilite.org.au/conferences/sydney06/proceeding/pdf.../p136.pdf
- Rayhan, J. M. (2014). The Impact of Using Role Play Techniques on Improving Pupils' Speaking Skill for Primary School. *Journal of the College of Basic Education, university of Babil*. Vol.15, p.2
- Shen, L & J. Suwanthep (2011) “E-learning Constructive Role Plays for EFL Learners in China’s Tertiary Education,” *Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles*, (49), 4-29.
- Y. Huang & J. Shan (2008) “Role Play for ESL/EFL Children in the English Classroom.” *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. XIV, No. 2, Retrieved on 12 February, 2015 from <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Huang-RolePlay.html>

Assessing Sunrise 12 Ministerial Exam

Rawand Sabah

Ishik University Lecturer

rawandsabah@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

There is a lot of awareness of using communicative approach ever since the emergence of sunrise 12 book. More or less, teachers have tried to make use of the new system and enable the students to benefit the new system and use the target language in authentic situations. Unfortunately, all the efforts fail, at later stages due to the testing system. The study first aims to highlight the purpose of the study which is to improve the gap between the system of the book and testing system. Later, the study provides data for the study. The paper also mentions some principles and characteristics of communicative approach testing as well as some ministerial exam samples to pinpoint the huge difference between the book based on communicative approach and testing system based on multiple choices. In order to design tests to serve this purpose, test makers should bear in mind core principles and characteristics. Finally, the study provides some suggestions and conclusions to improve the system.

Keywords: Characteristics, Communicative approach, Principles, Sunrise, Testing.....etc.

1.1 Introduction

In preparing tests in Kurdistan Region most of the teachers focus on how to make students get a high score on the exams rather than improving language skills. Students think that best teachers are the ones who can teach them how to get the highest scores in the exams. As a result, the class is passive, teacher-centered, and the students do not have chance to talk to each other using English. The teacher only takes notes without asking questions or interacting with students. They just focus on the teacher's explanation about approaches to get a better score on the tests. Nobody in the classroom wonders whether or not they are on the right track with their learning because students in Kurdistan are still used to learning in this way. Actually, the teacher mainly focuses on the way of teaching students to make them get higher scores on the selecting true multiple choices and some repeated writing tasks while neglecting listening, speaking, and reading skills which are main parts of communicative approach testing. The teachers are obliged to teach in this way because of the ministerial exam questions (Samples of Ministerial Exam Questions are attached). Teachers' way of teaching reflects the exam questions. These questions drew my attention in the problem of improving oral proficiency and oral proficiency is best improved through sufficient oral communication practice. In this regard, it appears that the communicative approach might be a solution to the problem. However, it seems contradictory to think about teaching on how to prepare a class for the test with a communicative method.

1.2. The Study and Data

The main purpose of the study is to underline reasons for students' failure in not being able to master English at the high schools. Through studying ministerial exam questions it will be clarified that one of the reasons is the

system of exam. The study is carried out through comparing the book which is based on communicative approach and the system of exam. The data is mainly based on some samples of ministerial exam questions and sunrise 12 book. Sunrise 12 is a complete English course written for high school 12 year students. The course is based on communicative approach which integrates listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, with focusing on apparent grammatical structures. Littlewood states that (2000, p. x) a communicative approach unlocks a wider outlook on language. Especially, it makes us judge language not only in terms of its structures grammar and vocabulary, but also in terms of the communicative functions that it carries out. That is, communicative language teaching makes students not only use language and everyday messages and expressions but also mastering its linguistic structures. Linguistic structures and forms are also significant during the course of second language acquisition. Despite that the students have to be able to use suitable structures among what they have learned in real life context including real-life or simulated situations such as those used in tests.

2.1. Communicative Approach Testing

2.1.1. Principles

The main purpose of communicative language tests is to measure learners' ability to utilize and communicate language in real life contexts. All major skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing are covered and planned in communicative tests on the basis of communicative competence. As claimed by Canale and Swain (1980, p. 4), communicative competence requires linguistic competence (knowledge of linguistic forms), sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use language appropriately in contexts), discourse competence (coherence and cohesion), and strategic competence (knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies). Understanding the system of communicative competence is essential and cooperative for building up communicative language tests, which engages preparing test objectives and focusing on the results of the test on teaching and learning.

Fulcher and Davison (2007, p. 205-6) mention that the communicative approach goal is to integrate the grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, communication strategies, and strategic competence knowledge together. The test must be based on learners' needs. The learners must be allowed to participate in meaningful and genuine communicative interaction with highly competent speakers. Optimal use of aspects of communicative competence is to be developed through the process of acquisition. The test must provide learners with the information, practice, and the experience needed to meet their communicative needs.

Following the model of communicative competence, a team at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) has established four principles of communicative test design (Bailey, 1998). The first principle is to “start from somewhere.” Katsumasa (1997) and Wesche (1983) confirmed that when creating the test, test makers should clarify what they want from students to do in the usage of target language in a particular context. Later testers can build scales and criteria for assessing and measuring testees performances. Bailey (1998) exemplifies this principle which is understanding meaning plus maintaining accuracy are two important elements in communication, but if the teacher only considers examining test takers on meaning while neglecting the accuracy, then accuracy will not be put under measurement and scoring criteria. This negatively affects the tests validity. “Concentration on content” is the second principle in making a communicative language test. The content belongs to not only the topics but also tasks that will be applied. Contents should be suitable to test taker's age, proficiency level, interests, aims and requirements. The tests should include tasks which guide them and they can perform in their future jobs. That is, the tasks should be in accordance with their requirements (Carroll, 1983, p. 37). For instance, some tasks for children at the end of primary school may include introducing themselves and, reading traffic signs. The tasks should intend to be real and have obvious situation in actuality. These tasks equal to children's ability level and children's age. Children are believed to be able to perform the tasks since what they perform is what society (at least based on opinions of experienced teachers and advisors) anticipates of them in actual life. The third principle is “bias for best.” This means that tests should make use of

test takers' performance and ability at their best. According to Brown (2003, p. 34), "biased for best" is "a term that goes little beyond how the student views the test to a degree of strategic involvement on the part of student and teacher in preparing for, setting up, and following the test itself". "Working on wash-back" is the fourth principle of communicative language testing. This principle means the creation of obvious criteria for the sake of obtaining positive wash back. According to this principle, teachers and students should be provided by obvious criteria. In order to obtain positive wash back, test writers should create clear scoring criteria that will be provided to both teachers and test takers. Course objectives and test content are tackled with expectation of supporting positive wash back.

According to Wesche (1983), when preparing objectives, it is significant to make clear (a) the reason of the interaction about topics and the language functions that the student will require, (b) the situation that may impact language use, and (c) suitable types of discourse, and the degree of skill at test takers' levels. The explanation of these factors may have positive impact not only on wash back principle but also to facilitate for teachers to choose good stimulus material that will provide necessary language forms such as structures and vocabulary.

2.1.2. Characteristics

There are also some characteristics for communicative language testing which are regarded necessary for teachers and test makers to use them so as to create a successful test. There are five characteristics for making a communicative test. They include meaningful communication, authentic situation, unpredictable language input, creative language output, and integrated language skills (Brown, 2005, p. 21). According to the first characteristic, the test should be communicative and meaningful, that is, the test should promote, activate language in context and meet test takers' needs. Making use of authentic situations can amplify the possibility that meaningful communication will be done. More significantly "language can not be meaningful if it is devoid of context" (Weir, 1990, p. 11).

The communicative tests give the students the opportunity to face and utilize the language receptively and productively in authentic situations to display their language ability. According to Brown (2005), in mentioning “unpredictable language input” and “creative language output,” it is often unfeasible to expect what speakers will state, i.e., language input or to get ready for one’s answer, i.e., language output. This type of communication should be reflected in a test. The last feature of communicative test is that it will draw out the students’ exercise of language skills, i.e. reading, listening, writing, and speaking skills in real life situations. One of the difficulties that the test makers face in creating tests is the problem of predictability because underlining test takers requirements depend on the communicative tasks the encounter in real life situations. On the other hand, it is not clear whether the test makers can ensure that tests takers doing well in the tests reflect their well performance in real situation. One reason for this is that one of the features of real life communication is unpredictability. Studies have proved that test designers have tried to make real-world tasks, but encountered difficulties from the varied or diverse nature of contexts (Katsumasa, 1997; Brown, 2003).

The purpose of using communicative approach in testing is to develop proficiency and not just learning some structures to get high marks. The tests should be to make students ready for real, not only for tests. So as to achieve this, the teachers should depend on communicative approach and the teachers should give chances to students to exchange and discuss about ideas included in the test contents. The role of teachers is to be facilitating to promote students communications. Teaching should enable students to take part in negotiation of meaning with their classmates; the students are much more involved in learning, both for the examination and to develop their efficacy. According to Stryker and Leaver (1997, p. 3), “Learning a second language has been compared to learning to ride a bicycle, learning to play tennis, or learning to play a musical instrument”. They indicated that the best way to learn the skills is by doing, not just by studying about them. The teachers in my observation classes implemented some interesting pair and small group activities which were relevant to test content. That is, teachers can use communicative approach to encourage students to not only produce English but also acquire test-taking strategies while doing the activities.

Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 129) also offered some relevant advice. She wrote, “Students use the language a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role-plays, and problem-solving tasks”. Therefore, these communicative activities need to be used in the test preparation class. Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 129) in addition stated that “true communication is purposeful. A speaker can thus evaluate whether or not his purpose has been achieved based upon the information he receives from his listener”. That is, the activities that language teachers use for the communicative approach should be meaningful and purposeful.

3.1. Discussion

The following examples do not assess and evaluate the learner's ability to use language in a real life situation. Since all questions have been written on the basis of multiple choices, not all the skills namely listening, speaking, writing, and even reading to some extent are covered. The exam generally lacks sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Further, the exam questions have no objectives to clarify what they want from the students to do in the usage of target language in a particular context. The samples show that they have no good measure to assess test takers' performances. The samples of exam questions, to some extent, take into consideration test takers' age, proficiency level but they have no plan to shed a light on test takers' aims, interests, and requirements because the samples do not include tasks of students' performances in their future jobs. However, the multiple choices are fairly written for the best and weakest students, and there are also obvious criteria for scoring.

Concerning the characteristics of communicative language tests, the question samples are not communicative and meaningful since they are not promoting and activating language in context, and meeting test takers' needs. For example, these samples do not make use of authentic situations. All the examples are devoid of context as a result students cannot use language

productively in authentic situation to show their abilities. Unpredictable language input and creative language output are not reflecting throughout the test samples. Since all these examples can be repeated in some way or another in the coming yearly ministerial exams. Consequently, the students predict what sort of questions are in the exam papers. Because getting high scores are more important, teachers and students focus more on how to write notes for selecting the right choice, this reflects language creativity output. Teachers can even predict how and what scores some of their students get. The samples are not echoing language skills. There are no exercises on listening, writing, speaking, and even reading. Due to all these lacks and defects ministerial exam questions have, teachers lose their roles to facilitate promoting students communications. Even, if the teachers have the opportunities to carry out all recommended communicative steps in the class before twelve year's stage, but they cannot do so during their teaching of twelve year's stage because of all these reasons we have mentioned above. That is why, teachers' efforts go invain.

1-We..... Contact my brother for advice?

A- what about b-let's c-why not d- I suggest

2- This year my school was..... Than last year.

A- busy b- the busiest c-busyer d- busier

3-..... working till the end of the week?

a- will you be b- you will be c- will you being d- would you be

4- Back in grade 10 we didn't as much homework as we do now.

a- used to have b- were used to have c-use to having d- use to have

5- I will never forget this school since it was the place..... I started my education. a- when b-where c- why d-who

6- My brother worked as a volunteer in this program..... he could get extra experience. a- so as to b- in order to c-for the purpose of d-so that

4.1. Recommendations and Suggestions

Sunrise 12 is based on communicative approach, therefore the exam questions should be based on the principles and characteristics of communicative approach. Since there is no connection between exam questions and the principles or the characteristics, the questions should be reviewed with consideration of communicative approach principles and characteristics of testing.

5.1. Conclusion

The book (sunrise 12) and the testing system do not match. The exam questions do not include all basic language skills through which the students can perform productively in real life context. Despite that, the questions do not fulfill students' daily life needs, and are not based on learners' needs. So they do not provide learners with the information, practice, and the experience needed to meet their communicative needs. The communicative approach goal has not carried out to integrate the grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, communication strategies, and strategic competence knowledge together. The learners are not allowed to participate in meaningful and genuine communicative interaction with highly competent speakers.

References

- Bailey, K. M. (1998). *Learning about language assessment: Dilemmas' decisions, and directions*. Pacific Grove, CA: Heinle .
- Brown, H. D. (2003). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

- Brown, J. D. (2005). *Testing in language program*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Carroll, B. J. (1983). *Communicative language tests: Tasks, enabling skills, formats, and measurement criteria*. *World Language English*, 2(1), 37-39.
- Fulcher, G and Davison, F. (2007) *Language Testing and Assessment: An advanced resource book*. Britain: Routledge.
- Katsumasa, S. (1997). Communicative language testing. [Principles and problems].
English Review, 12, 3-24. Retrieved from [http:// ci.nii.ac.jp/naid/110004693443/en/](http://ci.nii.ac.jp/naid/110004693443/en/)
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Teaching and principles in language teaching*(2nd ed).New York,NY: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, J. F., & VanPatten, B. (1995). *Making communicative language teaching happen*. NewYork, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Littlewood, W. (2000). *Communicative language teaching* (20th ed). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Stryker, S. B., & Leaver, B. L. (1997). *Content based instruction in foreign language education*.Washington, D.C: GeorgetownUniversity Press.
- Weir, C. J. (1990). *Communicative language testing*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wesche, M. B. (1983). Communicative testing in a second language. *The Modern Language Journal*, 67(1), 41-55.

Code switching in English Language Teaching Environment

Rawand Sabah

Ishik University Lecturer

rawandsabah@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Classroom code switching is a common event nowadays in many classes. English language experts and teachers are too much concerned about it. They have been concerned about reducing or even abolishing students' use of mother tongue in order to maximize the use of target language. We need to consider class code switching as a reality which cannot be neglected in any way particularly in a country like Kurdistan where English is taught as a foreign language. This paper will explain and study code switching in a Kurdish preparatory school namely Shaqlawa Typical Preparatory School. It will reveal that there is no experimental evidence to support the idea that restricting mother language use would essentially recover learning competence. Most of the code switching in the classroom has important purpose, and related to educational goals. In ELT classrooms, code switching comes into use either in the teachers and students discourse. The main purpose of the study is to focus on the reasons of teacher's code switching and the opinion of teachers and students towards classroom code switching.

Keywords: Classroom, Code switching, Facilitate , Learning, Second language.

1.1. Introduction

Crystal (1987) suggests that code, or language, switching occurs when an individual who is bilingual alternates between two languages during his/her speech with another bilingual person. A person who is bilingual may be said to be one who is able to communicate, to varying extents, in a second language. This includes those who make irregular use of a second language, The ones who are able to use a second language but have not for some time (dormant bilingualism) or those who have considerable skill in a second language (Crystal, 1987). This type of alteration, or code switching, between languages occurs commonly amongst bilinguals and may take a number of different forms, including alteration of sentences, phrases from both languages succeeding each other and switching in a long narrative. Code switching may be briefly defined as a switching from one language to another in the same discourse (Numan and Carter, 2001, p. 275). Code switching is regarded as a controversial topic. All English language teaching approaches starting from the Grammar – Translation Method up to the Communicative Language Teaching have precise regulations concerning language practice in the class for both teachers and students. The purpose of the study is to find out:-

1-Why do the teachers use code switching in the classroom discourse?

2-What opinion do the teachers and students have about classroom code switching?

In old and modern approaches of English language learning we can find the steps of using code switching as a medium of instruction and classroom purposes (Richards and Rogers, 1986, p. 67).

1.2. The Study and Data

The purpose behind this research is to find out reasons for teacher's code switching in the class. Another aim of the study is to find out teachers and students opinion concerning classroom code switching. A survey was carried out on 15 English language teachers from Shaqlawa Directorate of Education and 40 high school students from Shqlawa Typical Preparatory School in

Shaqlawaw Educational Compound. Two different set of questionnaires were used for teachers and students. The responses are shown in percentage. Two groups of participants participated in the survey, English language teachers who teach English within Directorate of Education in Shaqlawa and students who are from Shaqlawa Preparatory School. All 15 teachers were randomly selected from different schools while all 40 students were selected from Shaqlawa Typical Preparatory School.

1.3. Data Collection

Two different sets of questionnaires were prepared and divided among two different groups. For the questionnaire designed for the teachers . Some questions are included to presuppose clear causes of teacher's code switching in the class. These questions are set to prove whether the supposed causes are true or not. Some questions are intended to analyze the kind of attitude the teachers have towards their own and students code switching. An open ended question is included to find out some more reasons for teachers' code switching which has given an extra advantage for the study.

For the questionnaire designed for the students. The questionnaire here has one aim: what is the students' attitude towards their teachers code switching. Based on the collected responds though teachers think negatively about code switching, students perceive positively. They think it helps their understanding of the target language.

2.1. Reasons for Classroom Code Switching

i. Class size and maintaining control :In Kurdistan a large class is a common occurrence. The teachers, who took part in the study ,responded to the question 1.1 "What is the average number of students in your language class ? through stating that the number of the students ranges from 25 to 50. So we can believe that the teachers have to manage with large classes. Code switching plays as an helpful aid for preserving control in a large class. In order to manage classroom control, to give

directions to the students about their sitting arrangements, to respond to students objections ,sometimes to attract students 'attention, even sometimes to scold students for their misconduct ,the teacher may use the mother language Kurdish. At times the teacher salutes the students by switching codes at the opening or closing of a class. So, in reply to the question 1.4, 67% respondents agree with the fact. Q-1.2 "Code switching is essential to uphold control in a large Class". Do you agree? Refer to table 1 for more details.

Table 1. Upholding control in large classes

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	1	7
Disagree	3	20
Undecided	1	7
Agree	5	33
Strongly Agree	5	33

In reply to question 1.3 "Do you switch codes more often in a large class than a small class"? If yes, why ? 9 teachers (60%) responded positively via stating that it is easy for teachers to interact with students in smaller classes than in larger classes. There are many things for teachers that they can do concerning speaking and listening activities with a small group which is difficult to do with a large group. Besides ,the level of education varies in a large class and the teachers cannot draw individual attention. Code switching in this situation not only saves time but also helps low level students to catch up with high proficient students, 6 teachers (%40) did not agree with this statement. See table 2 for more information.

ii. **Simplicity of communication:** To communicate more successfully with the students, the teacher often uses code switching. In answer to question

1.6, 53% respondents agreed. Q-1.4 "Code switching assists the students to understand the tricky and difficult topics easily". Do you agree?

Table 2. Code switching in large and small classes

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	3	20
Disagree	3	20
Undecided	1	7
Agree	4	27
Strongly Agree	4	27

According to Norrish (1997), teachers code-switch when the level of English used in the textbook or to be taught is beyond the learner's ability or when the teachers have exhausted the means to adjust his speech to the learner's level.

iii .Explanation and translation of unknown terms: In response to question 1.5 "Do you think that code switching is a useful tool for clarification"? (%67)of the teachers answered 'yes' and (33%) of them responded 'no '.

In question 1.6, teachers were asked "Do you switch codes in order to explain unfamiliar terms , words or expression" ? In presenting any new topic , lesson and concept the teacher should explain it in detail .For this Canagarajah (1995) reminds us several ways for explanation like reformulation , repetition , clarification , and exemplification and so on. When a teacher implements any of the ways he/she intentionally or unintentionally employs code switching from English to Kurdish.

iv. Expression of solidarity: The teacher normally employs code switching to create personal relationships, to be responsive and friendly. This affective function of code switching is defined by Gumperz (1982) .In Kurdistan and in the Boundaries of Shaqlawa Directorate of Education since many students come from surrounding areas who have low level of proficiency

feel inhibited in the classroom when a class is entirely taken in English, especially at the very beginning of the English classes. So, if and when the teacher switches codes from English to Kurdish by telling jokes, talking about personal experiences, sharing ideas with them, the students start to feel comfortable and in this way a friendly and helpful environment is made in support of learning. As an answer to question 1.9 most of the teachers answered positively (67%). Q-1.7 "Code switching can build solidarity and intimate relations with students". Do you agree? See table 3 for more explanation.

Table 3. Code switching builds solidarity

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	2	13
Disagree	2	13
Undecided	1	7
Agree	5	33
Strongly Agree	5	33

Question 1.7 tries to classify some more causes for classroom code switching. In reply to this question teachers shared their experiences ,identified and explained a number of causes and reasons that force a teacher to use code switching from English to Kurdish .Here some of the reasons and causes are explained:

1- Habitual usage: Although Kurdish is widely spoken, in Kurdistan, and in all domains of national life, code switching is an everyday occurrence and phenomenon. People from all sections of life regardless of social and economic status or educational background, habitually employs code switching between Kurdish and English instinctively and often subconsciously.

2- Explaining grammar and vocabulary: In the grammar lessons the teacher may frequently make use of the mother tongue to let students

comprehend difficult and confusing grammar topics like subject-verb agreement, clause structure, use of articles, pronoun reference etc.

3-Affinity building: Sustaining and developing good interpersonal connection between the teacher and students is effective in the environment of language learning. Being friendly with students creates affinity between the teacher and the students. In reply to question 1.8, ‘What language do you use when students come for consulting/problem solving/ counseling? 13 teachers responded that they often use switch coding (73%). Only two teachers (13%) of them use pure English.

3.1. Teachers’ Attitude towards Classroom Code Switching

It is believed that code switching is a unintentional process which means that the speaker may move from one language to another accidentally and randomly. To investigate if the same thing happens the teachers were asked whether they employ code switching consciously while taking a class. In response to question 1.9 "While taking a class do you switch codes consciously"? Refer to table 4 for the answers.

Table 4. Use of code switching consciously

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	8	53
No	6	40
No response	1	7

This answer draws another question why the teachers are careful so as not to mix up languages while code switching is usually unknowing and

subconscious . In response to questions 1.10. Is there any obvious instruction from the education authority regarding classroom language use? If yes, what is the rule ? 14 teachers replied positively that there are certain rules concerning classroom language usage and the key rule is that English should be the only language for classroom discourse. The education authority ,through educational supervisors frequently monitors if the teachers are speaking in English or not. Only 1 teacher stated that there is no compulsory rule about classroom teaching .In most of the typical schools ,however ,mother language usage is forbidden ,yet, code switching happens irregularly .Therefore the question is who initiates the code switching. In answer to question 1.11 Who starts the code switching first? 13 teachers responded that the students start it (87%) and 2 teachers (13%) answered that they themselves first use Kurdish. In response to question 12, how do your students respond to you during the class? 7 teachers (47%) said that they use switch coding, 5 said that the students use English (33%), and 2 of them said they use Kurdish (20%).

The use of code switching contrasts the rules of using English, and this leads to another query "Do you have any negative attitude towards classroom code switching"? If yes, why?" (questions 1.13) 8 responded 'yes' (53%) and 7 responded 'no' (47%). The teachers who considered classroom code switching negatively verified their response by stating that interferes and hinders the natural environment of language learning. Regular code switching is not beneficial neither for students nor for teachers. If the students are allowed to used it they will get used to employing it more frequently whenever they speak. This affects aimed fluency and skill which may never be achieved. Even teacher's fluency and proficiency may get at risk if they are not careful in using code switching and target code switching. In response to query 1.14 "Do you encourage classroom code switching initiated both by the teacher and students"? Why? 6 teachers answered 'yes' (40%) justified their answer by saying that it supports students to learn appropriately, simplifies concepts completely in a short time, builds the simple topic and the learning environment more friendly. On the contrary, 9 teachers (60%) are against the use of classroom code switching.

4.1. Students’ Attitude towards Classroom Code Switching Initiated by the Teachers.

The aim of the current study is to discover the opinion students concerning classroom code switching initiated by teachers. The second set of survey questionnaire is designed to investigate it. 40 students from Shaqlawa Typical Preparatory School took part in this study. Because most of the teachers think that code switching is an effective tool for language learning environment. Similarly it is significant to find out the attitude of students regarding it. In response to question 2.1 ' In your opinion, you could become more proficient if the teacher speaks entirely in English or switches codes frequently'?

Table 5. Teacher speaks English and Kurdish

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
speaks entirely in English	21	52
switches codes frequently	19	48

In reply to questions 2.2 "Are teachers 'code switching reduced when students become older and have higher proficiency level in the target language or remained the same"? 29 students answered 'yes' (73%) that for the low-grade level students teachers usually make use of code switching but the teachers reduces using code switching when students become more proficient. Only 11 students responded negatively that teachers' code switching (27%) remains the same. As a result ,Code switching is used as a method for facilitating and making the learning process easier. The better the students handle the target language the lesser the method of code switching is used.

In response to question 2. "Teachers' code switching facilitates learning, do you agree"? 27 students strongly agreed. Only 13 students did not decide (13%). So, students generally believed that code switching is supportive in the learning process. Question 2.4 enquires "Does your teacher encourage classroom code switching"? 10 students said 'yes (25%)' and 30 students responded 'no' (75%). This shows another fact of code switching that though the teachers do not welcome the idea of code when students use it in the class but they still themselves occasionally and consciously use it. In response to question 2.5 "Teachers' frequent code switching can create negative impact in your understanding of English". Do you agree? Most of the students (58%) viewed that teachers' code switching can negatively impact the process of learning a target language. Refer to table 6 for answers.

Table 6. Teachers' frequent code switching can create negative impact in your understanding of English

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly disagree	7	18
Disagree	5	12
Undecided	5	12
Agree	11	28
Strongly agree	12	30

Question 2.6 asked "When a teacher using code switching, he / she breaches rules of class room target language usage, do you agree"? Some students considered that teacher's code switching is a violation of class room language usage, whereas some other students regarded teacher's code switching as a facilitating method for better understanding. See table 7 for more details.

Table 7. Teacher's Code switching breaches classrooms rules

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly disagree	10	25
Disagree	11	28
Undecided	2	4
Agree	10	25
Strongly agree	7	18

In making a comparison between two attitudes of teachers and students, we reach to a point that although teachers consider code switching as an helpful way for foreign language learning but they still do not accept it as a positive phenomenon. On the other hand, students think positively concerning code switching since they think it is a simpler and supportive way to learn English as a foreign language .

5.1. Conclusion

The study analyzed the practice of teachers' code switching from different spheres in the classroom. There are many reasons which make the teachers employ code switching such reasons and causes may belong to lesson topic, teaching experience, background level of students. Though code switching can facilitate the process of learning in the class and contributes for better classroom involvement and coherence ,but it should be kept in mind that code switching must be used when required since the medium of instruction is English. Code switching assists learning environment, teachers and students might tend to misuse it and regard it as a rule rather than an exception .Because students' poor level of understanding in English

leads to the use of code switching, students proficient level should be raised at their initial level. That means, if students gained good knowledge at school and college this will finally make the teacher use code switching sporadically and targeting at the tertiary level.

References

- Canagarajah, A. S. (1995). Functions of Code switching in ESL Classrooms: Socializing Bilingualism in Jaffna. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. 16(3), 173-195.
- Crystal, D. (1987). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Cummins, J. and M. Swain. (1986). *Bilingualism in Education*. Harlow: Longman.
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Norrish, J. (1997). english or English? attitudes, local varieties and English language teaching. *TESL-EJ*, 1997 3 (1).[Online] Available:<http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/ej09/a2.html> (March 7, 2006).
- Numan, D. and Carter, D. (2001). *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- .

Education and Instruction in Ancient Sumerian School "An Educational and Comparative study"

Dr. Sattar Jabbar Haji

Lecturer in Education and Methods of Teaching History

University of Zakho, Faculty of Humanities, Department of Psychology

Abstract

The current research study aimed at identifying the educational aspects in Mesopotamia, which paved the way to other ancient civilizations, in which human could create a type of life based on foundations of advanced civilization in several areas, especially in the field of education, and particularly in the Sumerians' era. This is because of the fact that the school system, according to some historical sources, was developed and became prosperous. The current study also sheds light on the educational aspects of the Sumerians, which was a model for other ancient civilizations, and the progression of these aspects was primarily the function of Sumerian schools. The aspects that have been referred to in the present study include: the educational system, educational administration and staff, methods of teaching employed, methods of dealing with the students, the curriculum taught in schools, and other aspects.

Thus, to investigate the objective of the current study the researcher relied on many sources and historical evidence, as well as carried out in the region which are related the subject of the study. Accordingly, the researcher has investigated the data collected out of the archaeological excavations carried out in the region from An Educational and Comparative perspective to find out the extent to which ancient Sumerian school relied on educational aspects, especially those which were highlighted by modern educational theories.

Results from the current study showed that the education in Mesopotamia, especially in the Sumerians' era, was very developed and prosperous.

According to some historical sources, this was reason that helped them in building an ancient and advanced civilization in its various fields among other ancient civilizations from the same era. Moreover, schools in ancient Sumerians' era involved principles of modern schools in terms of the management, the disciplines of study, ways of teaching, policy, education and methods used in dealing with students regarding their individual differences, and the use of the principles of punishment, reward, and reinforcement, and other elements of the modern school. Not only this but also they were noticed to be more developed in fields of daily work and monitoring students' performance and helping students to choose their desired majors which fit their potentials as compared to our nowadays schools especially governmental ones. And according to many educators, these are regarded as urgent needs which are required in the educational institutions.

Key words: Instruction, Civilization, Sumer, School, Pedagogy, Comparative Study.

Introduction

The Education is regarded as the foot and the most important industry, and the most sacred professions that has gained much importance which all human societies cannot dispense, and was given attention by nations and peoples, for being the main element to the development of society and its expansion.

The school is responsible for directing the community to learn and acquire the knowledge. In other words, it is the educational institution that socially educates children. Therefore, the school is an educational institution that influences the behavior of learners in an organized way, where it is determined by the educational policy in the community, and it influences the educational goals of the stages of learning and curriculum (Mansour et al, 2001, pp. 78-79).

The Mesopotamian was a pavement for ancient civilizations, man was able to make a kind of life having an advanced civilization foundations in several areas since the first ages of the dawn of history that stretches between (6000 and 3000 B.C). Language, writing and archaeological remains are regarded as historical evidence for that. Many nations have been engaged in the

development of this life who were scattered in human groups spread between north and south, but the builders core of civilization and history in the land of Mesopotamia represented two groups of people belonging to two different originals, and these are Sumerians and Akkadians, who lived in the valley down to the rivers Tigris and Euphrates. To the south and west lies the Western Sahara and the Arabian Gulf, and probably represents the Tigris River, a natural limit on the one the east side, known as the state of Sumer and Akkad. The northern half of the east bears the name of "Akkad" and the eastern part of the west reaching Gulf Arab known as the "Sumer". Both have lived with each other where to some extent it was impossible in many cases to notice the difference in clarity between the two elements who make up the area (Ali, 1995, p. 30).

Sumerians has reached a high order of civilization and in different areas. They started to build canals and they reasonably exploited the soil, and the establishment of temples and statues. The Sumerian civilization also left direct characters in Assyria, Syria, and Egypt, (Ali, 1999, p. 113), however, for the big achievements and aspects of civilization marked by the peoples of Mesopotamia, the researcher tries to shed light on the educational side in the Sumerian era, which was a model for other ancient civilizations.

The problem of the current research:

Through educational follow-ups for research and studies related to education, the researcher noticed that the researches about the features of the educational studies in ancient civilizations have not gained their required attention and were not widely discussed, which together constitute the so-called historical studies. This in itself means ignoring the tender of civilization regarding the educational field for those civilizations, and that only focus on ideas of the Western theories despite our recognition of being tender in the center of the world, is taking part, the truth of the unilateral. It questioned the researcher over the fact that the educational achievements of ancient civilizations such as Mesopotamia civilization in general and the Sumerian civilization in particular. It formed the problem of current research by asking the following: Is there a cultural achievements of the Sumerian civilization in the educational field? The location of these educational achievements compared to contemporary ideas?

The importance of research

The importance of research lies in the following points:

1. Addressing the issue of educational researchers need to consolidate their research.
2. Highlight the role of the Sumerian civilization in the development of education systems.
3. Enlighten contemporary generations heritage to promote national identity they have.
4. The research is an attempt to consolidate the educational heritage and connect the present.

Research Goals

The research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What is the nature of Sumerian school and its goals?
2. What are characteristics of the education system in the Sumerian era? What method? Is it consistent with the contemporary education systems and theories?
3. Who are those in charge of running things in teacher education? Is it consistent with the roles of the modern school?
4. What are the most important teaching methods and techniques used in the Sumerian school? Is it compatible with the contemporary educational literature?
5. What is the nature of school buildings in the Sumerian era?
6. What are the conclusions and recommendations that could be reached in this study?

Research Methodology

The researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method for historical documents and sources and effects and clamping related to education in the Sumerian civilization, as Abu Allam refers (2004) "and the basis of analytical research is that it is descriptive desk research does not need to collect Empirical data from the field" (Abu Allam, 2004, p. 262).

Theoretical frameworks of the research

First: The emergence of the Sumerian school

The rise of the Sumerian school was a direct result of the invention of cuneiform writing and its evolution in the (5000-4500 B.C), which is one of the most important findings reached by Sumerian and contributed to the progress of civilization. Writing, along with language represent the basic material on which the educational work, they are recording legacy tool cultural and sustain itself, has revealed the first documents written in Sumerian city known as the "Uruk" *. These consisted of documents from a wide range of small clay tablets engraved picture writing, was an economic and administrative memoranda, and found among them a number of shingles which included tables recorded words for the purpose of the lesson and exercise. It is a signal that some clerks in the Mughal time in the past. Around(3000) B.C, they were using their mind and think about the mentality and methods of learning and teaching, and by the middle of the third millennium B.C, a group of schools appeared in the Sumerian land, where writing instruction was taught and on a regular basis. In the city Uruk **, a big number of schools boards were found, which was used as a means to teach children in school due almost back to the year 2500 BC. In the latter half of the third millennium BC M, the Sumerian school system was developed and became prosperous (Kramer, 1963, p. 229).

* A city its shambles knows of Uruk and its ancient Sumerian name is "Uruk" or "Uruk".

** Its shambles now knows as the "Uruk" which is close to the Uruk.

The clay tablets do not reveal how the Sumerian school system, management or the way they were going out directly by excavations. To collect information about it, we have to go to the first half of the second millennium BC, where hundreds of these panels were found embossed various types of school exercises that were made ready by the students themselves as part of their daily business school, where she was different lines from each other in terms of accuracy and skill, some are written poorly far from perfection line,

which was written by freshmen, some written a regular line, which was written by a student Advanced, which was on the verge of termination of the study (Ali, 1999, p. 128). This is evidence of the attention scribes in Sumerian schools homework duties, and still to this day, prime component of a teacher and an integral plan for the subject matter, the fact that homework increases the installation of information studied by the student in the school, whether it pertains to the lesson before. However, if the homework is a new topic, it gives an indication of a citizen of the difficulty and ambiguity in the next lesson (Mohammed and Mohammed, 1991, p. 242). The other goals for the use of teachers since ancient times to the present day is training and increasing mastery of scientific material, or excitably motivating students, examine their abilities to think. In addition to that allocated for the lesson time usually is not enough to ensure the participation of all students and for the application of the examples and exercises (Zaitoon, 2005.p. 384).

The main objective of the Sumerian school, what is true renamed specialization and vocational training, to provide various disciplines to meet the requirements of the country's economic and administrative needs, especially with regard to the temple and the palace, and over time the Sumerian school has become a worldly institution that started her on what is likely attached to the temples, and graduates in Sumerian's schools of devoted their lives to the profession of teaching and learning, and they get paid for what seems wages teaching collected from students (Kramer, 1981, p. 4).

Reference should be made to the school in its early years when the Sumerians were broken into three varieties:

1. **Temples Schools:** It was attached to the temples and managed by priests and educated clerics.
2. **The State Schools:** and was administered by the palace, the materials were only used to teach the Sumerian language and then train and prepare staff for the department of Economy and working in government departments.

3. **Private schools:** these were supervised by schools' clerks professionals proficient in the Sumerian writing, and this goes schools in its early years together in teaching the art of writing, Sumerian and Akkadian languages and then the account of language and the principles of the initial life.

The researchers also showed a series of archaeological investigations and other important school history panels that measure up to the first half of the second millennium BC, and through the study of the figure, the school was able to divide the schools in Mesopotamia into two types:

Type I: primary school: it is a school in which a student receives a language, reading, writing and arithmetic and knowledge of the language and vocabulary, music, and it is called in Sumerian the term (E.DUB. BA. A).

Type II: advanced schools: these are the schools that were teaching different scientific subjects such as: mathematics, astronomy, medicine and magic, literature, etc., and was named the school by (House of Wisdom) (bit-mumme), because these schools were as higher institutions (Jumaili ,2005, pp. 48 -50).

If we note on the whole that the Sumerians thought since ancient-style modern education, we find vocational schools are educated to practice a particular profession, and public schools of the state-sponsored, schools privacy adopted by some people, and managed by professional teaching staff as it is the case at the present time, but according educational content, in addition to the gradient in peace education from primary school to ensure that subjects are simple to advanced, and to ensure that subjects are complex, taking into account the capabilities of this age group.

Second: The education system

With regards to the education system, it was neither universal nor compulsory. Most of the students came from wealthy and ruling, priests and other families. However, it was very difficult for the poor people to save money and time, which are required for in Education. Teachers were apparently paid the wages of teaching that were collected from students.

Also there was not a document showing a name of a woman which could be a sign that education was restricted to males only (Kramer, 1981, p. 5).

Both (Kramer, 1981), and (Veldhuis, 1996) state that the curriculum of the ancient Sumerian school was composed of two main sections: The first section could be described as similar to the scientific department, whereas the second was for special creativity and literary production, and each had specific articles academic department. And it seems that the student had to choose the section you want, and carried the curriculum with it the many subjects including math, science, study materials competent names of countries and cities and villages, and other names of stones and metals, as well as insects and birds. In addition to the study of myths, stories and legends in the form of poems, short stories commending the work of the gods of the Sumerians and the heroic deeds of their heroes and religious hymns to praise the gods and kings as private creative curricula and literary production were studied as well. The school has become as a result of expansion in the curricula of science and culture the center in Sumeria (Kramer, 1957, pp. 48-49); (Veldhuis, 1996, pp. 12 -13).

This is a clear signal to pay attention to the principle of individual differences among learners by allowing the learner to choose what fit in the information commensurate with his abilities and inclinations and interests. As well as the creation of human staff to serve the society and the various aspects of Sumerian civilization, and this is indeed something marvelous in ancient human history.

With regard to the school day, the student had to take care of his lessons and subjects every day from sunrise to sunset, and many years were devoted to the study. Moreover, the student was inherent in the study from his youth until he becomes a young man (Ali, 1999, p. 131). This confirms what was expressed in a clay tablet which dates back to the (2000 B.C), which describes the student activity in the house when asked by the teacher, what would you do in school? He replies: I use to read the tablet, and prepare my food and also prepare new tablet to write it, and finished it. Then the teachers would give me the oral lesson, and in the afternoon they used to give me the writing lesson, and when school finishes, I go back to my house, enter the

house, and informed my father about my writing lesson and then show him my tablet and he becomes happy (Tinney, 1998, p. 48).

This is a signal that the school day in the ancient Sumerian schools was long was not limited to a few hours. This is what is currently the case in many developed countries, which is what we ask him today in the existing schools and schools atheist twentieth century.

A Day in the Sumerian school

One of the most historic witnesses document pertaining to humanitarian aspect, is what has been disclosed in the Near East. The Sumerian message or article about the daily activity of a student in a Sumerian School. It was found that the letter written by an anonymous teacher who lived in the range of (2000 B.C). It is also how human nature remains as it is and only changed very little during thousands of years. We find in these old message, a pupil a Sumerian school, which is no different from that of the modern school, he fears that if he is late for his school that the teacher will beat with a stick. After he wakes up he asks his mother to his lunch in a hurry. At school, we find his teacher and his colleagues and the rest of the faculty members caned him whatever mistakes he does such as: when he talks without permission, when he goes out of the door of the school during the work, and when they use the Akkadian language instead of Sumerian one, and the worst is the words of his teacher "Your handwriting is no good and unsatisfactory". On the top of these actions, they caned him. At this point, he became impatient, he asked his father to invite the teacher to his home and give him some gifts. This was the first case of **flatter** in human history. Thus the composition continues as follows:" father listened to the advice of his son, and invited the teacher to his house they seats the teacher in the best place, wash him anoint him with fine oils, and was served food and wine, and gave him some new clothes, and put a ring on his finger. The teacher was very happy with this honor and glorified the student and promised to teach him very well and lift up to advanced levels in the art of the writing (Kramer, 1981, pp. 10-11); (Tinney, 1998, p. 48).

Third: Existing educational process in the ancient Sumerian school

One indication of progress and organization in the Sumerian school, the structure of the school, and the people who were working in it. (Kramer, 1963) and (Jumaili, 2005) pointed out that the educational process in the Sumerian school was run by a group of persons. These are:

1. **Expert or specialist:** At the top of the educational pyramid and it was called the term Sumerian (UM. MI.A), which corresponds to the time being educational supervisor or specialist.
2. **Head (Director) School:** was called (AD.E.DUB.BA), and literally means (the father of the school) and has had a prominent role in education and running the school.
3. **Assistant Professor:** He was nicknamed (Big Brother), and he comes after the school principal and used to assist him in teaching and management of the school. His duties were also writing new panels for the students to copy them, checking homework, and listen to them after preparation and read the next day, and was called in Sumerian (ŠEŠ. GAL).
4. **The other faculty members:** the supervisor of the drawing, and the supervisor of the Sumerian language, and teacher of anthem or music, and other specialties.
5. **Leader:** or (man of system) he is the man driving them to be committed and to attend, as well as monitor the behavior of the student outside of school, and it was called the Sumerian term (GIŠ. HUR. RA LU.).
6. **The man in charge of whipping:** who was responsible for obedience in the school and was named as (LU. AŠ. NA. GA).
7. **Pupil:** He was named (DUMU. E. DUB. BA) any son of the school (Kramer, 1963, p. 232); (Jumaili, 2005, pp. 51-52).

It is noted from the structure of the ancient Sumerian school, their dependence on the division of labor and duties both as specialization and expertise in this area or that, and also an important signal for the privatization of teaching, through the identification of disciplines and those who teach each specialty or specific academic subject.

Fourth: Teaching methods and methods of dealing with students

About the teaching methods and means used in the Sumerian school is not known, but the bare minimum, a student when he used to come to school in the morning, he was taught that the board (to be) prepared the day before. The assistant professor examines each student's board to make sure his health, had to memorize a significant role in the progress of the student. In addition, the teachers were verbally explaining the lesson and giving clarifications to the students, until it becomes clear to all (Ali, 1999, p. 131).

It has become clear from what has been earlier mentioned about the teaching methods used in the Sumerian school, used by the existing process of teaching, is the use of the method of the lecture (Lecturing), which depends on the talk or speech by the teacher, and hear from students, perhaps punctuated by some discussion or questions posed by the teacher requested or giving them the opportunity to direct their him some questions for the purpose of inquiring about some lesson points which are unclear to them (Ali, 1992, p. 43). Today the lecturing is still the most common way of teaching, and perhaps the reason is due to they are easier than others, and the advantages could be numerous including respect to classroom teaching, especially in the rows that contain large numbers of students. In addition, they are flexible and can be used in any educational content (Ibrahim, 2010, PP. 77-78).

We also understand from the above that teaching is based on the principle of mastery learning or learning for ability (Learning for Mastery) the one who works for to find ways that enable students to master the topic that are required to be taught, and the search for ways and materials that help a greater percentage of students achieving the mastery (Mohammed and Mohammed, 1991, p. 161).

As for the dealing of the teaching staff with the students, perhaps they encourage their students to improve their work through praise and flattery, as well as they depended on stick in driving their students to correct their mistakes in cases they neglected their duties assigned to them (Ali, 1999, p. 131). This confirms their dependence on the principle of reward and punishment in dealing with students.

Usually the teacher uses the first principle (the praising principle) with the student when his behavior is desirable, which leads the student to repeat such behavior in the coming times. Whereas the second is used with the student when his behavior is not desirable or when he does not do his duties, which leads the student to avoid repeating such behavior in the future (Al askari et al, 2012, pp. 76-77).

Fifth: School Building

With regards to ancient Sumerian school building, mother-through archaeological excavations conducted in Mesopotamia, specifically in the city, "Nippur", and "ur", and Sippar, "and" Mary ", among other buildings which they appear to be buildings for schools to contain several rows of seats for students, so that one can sit on one of them or two students or four students, and places to save the panels called it (tablets House) (Kramer, 1957, p. 52); (George, 2001, p3).

Conclusions

According to what has been presented and analyzed in the theoretical frameworks the researcher concludes the following:

1. The education and instruction in the old Iraqi school, especially when the Sumerians had a large degree of sophistication and urbanization which in the construction of an ancient and advanced civilization in various fields among other ancient civilizations.
2. The ancient Sumerian school included facilities to a large extent similar to the modern school, in terms of management, specialization, teaching, and maintaining order, and use of educational methods in dealing with students, and other educational components.
3. We find that the Sumerians are more advanced in some educational aspects compared to our present time, especially with regard to their daily school as they give the freedom of choice of specialization for students in line with their abilities and inclinations which are in the eyes of many educators an urgent need to be working with in the educational and instructional institutions.

Reference

- Abu Allam, Rajaa Mahmoud. (2004). **Research Methods in psychology and education science**. Publishing of the universities press (In Arabic).
- Al askari, Kifah Yahya Saleh, Al Shammari, Mohammad Saud, Al Obeidi, Ali Mohammed. (2012). **Theories of learning and its educational applications**. 1st Ed, Tamozha press: Damascus (In Arabic).
- Ali, Saeed Ismail. (1995). **Education and civilization in the country of the ancient Near East**, the world of books, Cairo: Egypt (In Arabic).
- Ali, Saeed Ismail. (1999). **Education in the civilizations of the ancient Near East**, the world of books, Cairo: Egypt (In Arabic).
- Ali, sir al khetim Osman. (1992). **The assets of the teaching of history**. Al Shawwaf press: Cairo (In Arabic).
- George, A.R. (2001). **In search of é. dub. ba. a: the ancient Mesopotamia school in literature and reality**. <http://eprints.soas.ac.uk/1618/GeorgeEdubbaa.pdf> opened in 31-12-2014 at 8:17 p. m.
- Ibrahim, Fadhil Khalil. (2010). **The Entrance to the Methods of General instruction**. Ibn al.ether press: University of Mosul (In Arabic).
- Jumaili, Aamer Abdullah (2005). **Author in ancient Mesopotamia**, publications Arab Writers Union: Damascus (In Arabic).
- Kramer, Samuel Noah. (1957). **FROM THE TABLETS OF SUMER**. (Translation: Taha Baqer), Almothanna press, Baghdad: Iraq. (the origin work published in 1956) (In Arabic).
- Kramer, Samuel Noah. (1962). **THE SUMERIANS**. University of Chicago press: United States of America.
- Kramer, Samuel Noah. (1981). **HISTORY BEGINS AT SUMER**. 3rd Ed, university of Pennsylvania press: United States of America.
- Mansour, Abdul Majeed Sayed Ahmed, Altwaijri, Mohammed bin Abdul Mohsen, & Al Faqi, Ismail Mohammed. (2001). **Educational Psychology**, 4th Ed, Obeikan press: Riyadh (In Arabic).

- Mohammed, Dawood Maher, and Mohammed, Majid Mahdi. (1991). **Fundamentals in the general teaching methods**. University of Mosul(In Arabic).
- Tinney, Steve. (1998). **Texts, Tablets, and Teaching: scribal Education in Nippur and Ur**. *Expedition*, vol, 40, no, 2, pp. 40-50.
- Veldhuis, Neik. (1957). **The cuneiform Tablet as an Education Tool**. *Dutch studies- Nell*, vol, 2, no, 1, pp. 11-26.
- Zaitoon, Kamal Abdul Hamid. (2005). **Teaching models and skills**. 2nd Ed, the world of books: Cairo (In Arabic).

The Role of Teachers in Developing Learners' Speaking Skill

Selcuk Koran

ISHIK UNIVERSITY ERBIL, IRAQ

E-mail: selcuk.koran@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

Speaking skill is considered to be the most important skill by language learners. Learners often measure their success in language learning by the extent to which they can use their spoken English. Notwithstanding, this skill is one of the most neglected skills in language instruction. Most students do not even have the opportunity to speak in the classroom or outside it. Moreover, speaking is not a part of the examination in most language courses. As it has been discovered by many researchers, foreign language learning best occurs through interaction, teachers should provide learners with the opportunities to communicate in English at the lesson. Since many learners' goal in language learning is to be able to communicate fluently in formal and informal interaction, classroom activities should be designed to promote oral fluency. However, the ability of speaking is a complex process in its nature; many of the learners feel anxious to speak in the classroom or outside it due to different social or psychological reasons, so they keep silent. Therefore, it is necessary for language teachers to implement some natural strategies such as: role plays, group work, projects, etc. to avoid shyness and unwillingness to speak English. Thus, the primary job of a language teacher is to encourage learners to use English not only in the classroom but also in their daily interaction with their classmates, with teachers or any other English speaking people, if possible. The present study aims at exploring the role of teachers in developing students' speaking skill. It also attempts to investigate how much the language learners are aware of natural strategies and how often they experience them in their classrooms in Iraq. Moreover, this study attempts to shed light on the importance of teachers' role in establishing friendly and productive environment as an attempt to encourage students to use the language.

Keywords: Speaking skill, communicative competence, role play, group work, speaking strategies

1. INTRODUCTION

English has become a Lingua Franca in the worldwide market. From all parts of the world in all sectors, there is an enormous call for courses of spoken English. English language dominance carries on to range. The Internet, the media, and mass communication require exceptionally good command of spoken English. Everyone who wishes to benefit from the researches, information, business worldwide, knows that without a good command spoken English s/he cannot achieve higher goals in their lives.

Thus, speaking skill is considered to be the most important skill. Learners often measure their success in language 2 learning by the extent to which they can use their spoken English. Because of this enormous demand for spoken English, many researchers have suggested various methods and techniques to improve oral proficiency in the language. For many years FL/SL teachers thought making students repeat sentences was the best way to improve their speaking. Thus, learners spent hours and hours repeating after their teachers, memorizing conversations and studying grammar structures. During the end of the last century, researches revealed that no language was learned through repetition alone. Instead, just like with infants, it is acquired and learned by means of interaction.

Studies demonstrate that speaking skill is the most neglected skill in language instruction. Most students do not even have the opportunity to speak in the classroom or outside it. Moreover, speaking is not a part of the examination in most language courses. As it has been discovered by many researchers, foreign language learning best occurs through interaction, teachers should provide learners with the opportunities to communicate English at the lesson. Since many learners' goal in language learning is to be able to communicate fluently in formal and informal interactions, classroom activities should be designed to promote oral fluency. However, the ability of speaking is a complex process in its nature; many of the learners are anxious to speak in the classroom or outside to due to different social or psychological reasons so they keep silent. Therefore, it is necessary for language teachers to implement some natural strategies such as: role plays, group work, projects, etc. to avoid shyness and unwillingness of the learners so that they can participate in the speaking activities in the classroom. Moreover, the primary job of a language teacher is providing opportunities for learners by encouraging them to use English not only in the classroom but also in their daily interaction with their classmates, teachers or any other English speaking people, if possible. I think EFL/ESL teachers play the greatest role in developing students' speaking skill by implementing different strategies and techniques in the classroom which will make learning of speaking more effective. For that, I believe that the fundamental role of

teachers is to create a learning environment where learners not only learn the aspects of language and use this knowledge but also get exposure to the target language as much as possible to be able to use it naturally and fluently. In order to achieve this quality, teachers should be encouraged to use their energy, knowledge along with motivation. Thus, teachers should play various roles according to the skills and needs of the learners. The roles teachers play in ELT field are mostly of an assessor, organizer, facilitator, prompter, motivator, participant, monitor, feedback provider, model, etc.

The present study aims at exploring the role of teachers in developing students' speaking skill. It also tries to investigate how much the language learners are aware of natural strategies and how often they experience them in their classrooms in Iraq. Moreover, this study attempts to shed light on the importance of teachers' role in establishing a friendly and productive environment as an attempt to encourage students to use the language. We also try to find out strengths and weaknesses of speaking skills of Iraqi students and the best ways by means of which teachers can enhance their learning of speaking.

2. LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING

All children acquire the language naturally without putting much effort into it. Even if they are exposed to several languages they seem to learn them incredibly easily. They also tend to forget the language equally easily. Children acquire language without any conscious effort, so they never think of grammar, vocabulary or situational context. They acquire it only through exposure to the language, for that, they need to hear the language a lot. As they acquire the language the desire to be understood or fed motivates them to talk in the acquired language. However, as they move towards puberty, the language acquisition gradually seems to become harder and during the adulthood it becomes much more difficult.

Researchers argue that this method of language acquisition through exposure, like in children, can be implemented in foreign language instruction. As children acquire the language without much conscious effort only getting enough exposure to the language, teachers should concentrate on exposing the learners to the natural use of language by enabling them to listen reasonably. Krashen (1982, 1987) called this approach "comprehensible input" which is getting language input by understanding more or less even a bit more than students' own level. Nevertheless, there are some problems with this approach. Unlike children who acquire language unconsciously, adults are likely to use reasoning when they acquire the language, so they learn consciously.

Harmer (2007) asserts that learners in foreign language courses are totally in a different situation than children who get a great amount of language exposure and the situation where the language is used. Still, language exposure is the vital part of language learning. Harmer further discusses that the mere exposure is not enough for adults to learn a language; they should also pay attention to other aspects of language. For that, I believe it is crucial that teachers create a learning environment where learners not only learn the aspects of language and use this knowledge but also get adequate exposure to the target language to be able to use it naturally and fluently.

To wrap up, language learning has been the target of many debates and discussions for many years. Over the past decades, different methods have gone in and out fashion, all of which have had a significant influence on modern language instruction. Even some of the practical techniques which used to be popular in the past can be found in modern language teaching methodology.

3. SPEAKING

Speaking is defined as an interactive process of building meaning that includes producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997; Luoma, 2004; 2). Speaking is an interactive process of getting and evaluation of information in order to produce meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols in a variety of contexts (Chaney, 1998; 13). Similarly, Tarone (2005:p. 485) states that speaking is the most difficult and complex language skill to master. The act of speaking incorporates listening and comprehending simultaneously and it relies on communicative competence and the situational context. Thus, speaking is thought to be the complex system because it includes the ability of using the grammar, sound, vocabulary and even cultural knowledge of the language. Speaking is the way how learners express themselves not just orally but also coherently and appropriately in a sensible manner.

Literature demonstrates that speaking can be either transactional or interactional, both have some linguistic differences in their usage. The transactional discourse involves mainly passing on information and this type of language is “message-oriented” rather than listener-oriented (Nunan; 1989 p.27). Such speaking discourse is usually long, clear, comprehensible and planned beforehand, for example, news, instructions, documentary programs, etc (Richards;1990). In contrast, interactional discourse involves interpersonal use of conversations like: small talks, greetings, etc. which is listener-oriented. Interactional speaking happens face to face which lets speakers receive an immediate response. This kind of communication

involves facial expressions, movements of the lips and the body such as gestures, mimics, etc., and in some cases even silence is thought to have a role in facilitating comprehension. It is interactive, that is: participants involved in such communication contribute to it at appropriate moments. Turn-taking is one of the features of interactive communication which happens unconsciously and differently in different cultures. Sometimes, turn-taking might be a source of communication problems for people who are from different cultures and languages (Kim McDonough, Alison Mackey, 2013). While discussing speaking, another important distinction can also be made between dialogue and monologue. The ability to give incessant oral presentation is totally different from interacting and communicating in interactional and transactional situations. Even the native speakers might experience some difficulties talking about a subject to an audience. This specific skill should also be addressed to in language instruction. Monologic talks always include a recognizable format and are similar to written language. Brown G. & Yule G. (1983) discuss that it is important that teachers should focus on having students practice in producing speeches such as public talks, public announcements, along with short turns. Because practising to produce dialogues in interactional situation might not guarantee that students can yield satisfactory results from long talks to a group of listeners.

3.1. TEACHING SPEAKING

In traditional language instruction, teachers mainly focused on reading and writing whereas little attention was given to the speaking and listening skills. Only after the communicative approach had been introduced to language teaching/learning, speaking attracted more significance in language courses. Since then many language programs prioritize speaking skill over others since mastering speaking might indicate that other language skills have also been mastered. In order to find out whether somebody knows a language we often ask “do you speak English?” Thus, knowing a language is always associated with speaking in it. Celce-Marcia (2001: p. 103) states that “the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language since speech is the most basic means of communication”. Teaching speaking is also crucial because it can also help improve other language skills; it can help learners build vocabulary, improve grammar, listening and writing as well.

Undoubtedly, learning to communicate in the foreign language requires a lot of time and efforts. Since students already know one or sometimes more than one language, they might have some expectations about how a language

works consciously and unconsciously in the human mind. Although this knowledge can help students acquire another language easier, some studies show that for language learners knowing another language can get in their way as they try to speak in the new language. Considering this, teachers should encourage learners to use their own cognitive abilities to help them activate the conscious process of learning another language.

As for the language learners, speaking skill is considered to be the most important skill. For many years FL/SL teachers thought making students repeat sentences was the best way to improve their speaking. This approach, called audio-lingual method, aims to teach the target language by practicing and repeating structural patterns in conversations (Nunan, 2003). It was based on behaviorism, that is, language learning is considered as habit formation and with a great deal of repetition, students learn the language. In order to form good habits the errors in the language are immediately treated by teachers. Thus, learners spend hours and hours repeating after their teachers, memorizing conversations and studying grammar structures. However, “actual conversation did not sound like the textbook dialogues” (Nunan, 2003; p. 50). During the last century, researches revealed that no language was learned through repetition alone. Instead, just like with infants, it is acquired and learned by means of interaction. The belief that people learn languages by means of interaction lead to a new approach to language teaching and learning called Communicative Language Teaching. This method suggests that learners can best learn English through interaction, thus it is necessary for teachers to have this crucial role, which is to provide learners with the opportunities to communicate in English during the lesson.

Similarly, according to Ur (2012) communicating orally and fluently in informal interaction is the primary goal for many language learners. For that purpose, designing classroom activities to improve students’ ability to promote oral fluency is of great importance. Ur (2012) states that getting students to talk is much more difficult than to make them read, write or listen during language courses. Thus, teachers should promote student talk activities; however, most of the lesson time is allocated for teachers to talk, instruct and manage the classroom. Harmer (2010) states that there are three primary reasons why students must be encouraged to speak in the classroom. First, students can have the opportunities to practice real-life speaking in the classroom atmosphere where they are likely to feel less anxiety. Second, speaking activities can provide teachers and classmates with the knowledge of how well learners can speak English, what kind of mistakes are being made so that the teachers can have the chance to focus on specific speaking features to foster. Finally, the acquired language knowledge can be activated as long as the learners speak English in the classroom; moreover, some

linguistic elements can become automatic resulting in the learners' ability to use them unconsciously, and in this way the fluency can be improved.

Although EF learners have to be exposed to English as much as possible, the use of English in the classroom is limited. Thus, another important function of teachers is to provide opportunities for learners by encouraging them to use English not only in the classroom but also in their daily interaction with their classmates, with English teachers or just English speaking people, if possible. According to Huda (1999, p.158), the main source of success, in language learning, is the exposure to the language. As we have discussed earlier, spoken language has many different functions like: interactions, transactions and also performance talk or monolog (Richards, 2008). According to their frequency, they are casual conversation, monologs of different kinds, telephone conversation, conversations in shops, cafes, etc., instructions, interviews, classroom talks, etc. Thus, speakers have to adjust the type of the language according to the psychological and social role they play in their daily communications. Native speakers are usually conscious of turn-taking, how/when to speak and how/when to listen. Thus, EFL teachers should teach learners to become conscious of such nuances of discourse in order to avoid misunderstanding and offending the people they are talking to. This ability to adjust and accommodate one's language to the context is called Communicative Competence (Hymes, 1971).

In spite of many studies which postulate that listening helps students build new vocabulary, improve grammar and even speaking, many other studies confirm that speaking in the target language significantly helps learners to acquire the language. Researches demonstrate that the most successful learners are the ones who use English to communicate with native speakers at least about an hour in a week (Noonan, 2014). Although comprehensible input is of great significance, many researchers believe it can be best acquired through interaction. It is because, during the interactional communications with other speakers, that they use situational context, repetition, clarification in order to understand better, and this input, which is beyond their present level of English, will help them acquire the language better (Ellis, 1997).

Since the knowledge of language is more complex than syntax or lexis, teachers are expected to expose language learners to the linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competencies. To wrap up, learners should be made aware of how to construct language to have a coherent language use, to be conscious of the importance of the social context and to be able to use alternative or non-verbal means of communication when they fail in words.

3.1.2. THE ROLE OF EFL/ESL TEACHERS IN TEACHING SPEAKING

According to Harmer (2007; 107) a teacher is like “a gardener, because he/she plants the seeds and watches them grow”. Students are the field and the seed is seen as the knowledge planted by educators. As a gardener takes very good care of the roses, flowers, waters them when necessary, the teacher also plays different roles in the lives of the students not only by planting knowledge in them but also acting as a model in the classroom and outside it with their personal lives. According to Vilar (2003), teachers have two primary functions in education: the managerial and the instructional functions. The latter refers to the conditions that teachers create for learning to take place and the other is the knowledge that the teachers impart in the classrooms. Teachers should carry out these functions simultaneously for efficient language instruction because they cannot be separated.

In ELT classes teachers are expected to teach effectively, to guide students and to keep order in the classroom. However, the most crucial role teachers are expected to play is providing and maintaining a good quality of education (Leu, 2005). In order to achieve this quality, teachers should be encouraged to use their energy, knowledge along with motivation. Thus, teachers should play various roles according to the skills and needs of the learners. The roles teachers play in ELT field are mostly of an assessor, organizer, facilitator, prompter, motivator, participant, monitor, model, etc.

A good teacher is the one who assesses their students speaking skill by means of both observations and quizzes or exams designed to evaluate oral proficiency of the learners. However, in most language instruction courses, assessment of the students’ speaking skill is usually ignored. For perfecting students’ speaking skill the teachers have the role of an assessor (R M. Harden & J. Crosby, 2000). Organizer is one of the most important roles of teachers during speaking activities. This is more than just explaining or doing some oral exercises. Teacher should know what kind of activity to use at first or what to do after that. This role includes different aspects of teaching contexts. For example: what kind of method and materials the students need, how to organize an activity and how long to should last or to have alternative activities if something goes wrong with the current activity.

According to Harmer (2001:275-6) there are three important roles that teachers can play if they want to get their learners to speak fluently. One of them is the prompter. It is when students are not sure about how to do a task, teachers often play the role as a prompter. During the speaking tasks, learners might demonstrate a kind of struggling when they try to express themselves. In this case, the teacher usually gives hints, suggests phrases or vocabulary. However, the teacher should be careful when he/she gives prompts to students during oral tasks because the primary purpose of prompting is to give the right amount of motivation and encouragement. We

should not “take the initiative away from the students” (Harmer, 2007: 109). One more role is that of the participant. This is when teachers participate in discussions not as teachers but as peers of L2 learners. The teacher usually assigns students to perform a speaking activity and from time to time intervenes to give feedback or corrects mistakes only when necessary. This role enables teachers to understand difficulties learners face during speaking activities. When giving any task to the students, the teachers can actually do the task themselves so that they can anticipate the difficulties that the students might encounter and better equip them with the strategies for that task. As a participant, the teacher can also make sure that students participate and are involved in the task. On the other hand, he/she shouldn't dominate the discussion. The next role according to Harmer is a “feedback provider”. This is when teachers give feedback after the oral activity. Teachers should be very careful when they give feedback since over-correction might hinder students' motivation to talk. But encouraging responses may drive students to carry out the oral tasks with self-confidence which will in turn improve their speaking ability.

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The current study aims to investigate EFL teachers' role and perception in developing L2 speaking skill, and to analyze the most effective way to improve this skill. We also aim to investigate the reasons behind students' reluctance to speak English and to demonstrate the role of English language teachers in providing possibilities in enhancing speaking skill of the students learning English in Iraqi Kurdistan. This study incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods and it was supported by the observation of the writer as the English language teacher himself for 10 years in the country. The research population is comprised of students at Universities in Erbil. The participants consist of 60 EFL learners. The data was collected through students' questionnaire, the author's observation and interviews with the students.

5. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In the literature review we have presented studies carried out in language learning especially in learning speaking. At this stage, we will move on to the practical part of this study. For collecting the data instruments such as observations, tests, interviews and questionnaires were used. Without a doubt, a questionnaire is the most used method for collecting information

from the target population concerning their background and attitudes. For this study, we prepared students' questionnaire which was carefully designed to enable them to contribute data relevant to this study.

Students' survey is primarily designed to analyze the importance of speaking skill, the difficulties they experience and their perception and awareness of teachers' role in improving their speaking.

Q. Which one is the most important skill that you want to improve?

Table 1: The most important skill in students' perception

Skills	Respondents
Reading	8
Writing	7
Listening	15
Speaking	30
Total	60

For this question, we asked the students to choose the skill they want to improve most. Thirty of the participants chose speaking, while 8 of them picked reading. The writing skill is considered to be the first by the 7 respondents, while listening by fifteen. Table 2 shows that the speaking skill is the first, the listening skill is the second, the reading skill is the third and the writing skill is the fourth. The purpose of this question was to find out the participants' needs in language learning. So, we found out that speaking is considered to be the skill that learners want to develop most.

Q. Do you feel afraid of talking in English?

Table 2: fear of communicating in English

answer	Respondents
Yes	42
No	13
Don't know	5
Total	60

This question aims to discover how many of the respondents feel scared to speak English. And this table reveals that the majority of them (n, 42) feel afraid to talk in English, whereas, 13 of them say they don't feel any anxiety to talk English so they participate in the most speaking activities.

And if “yes” why?-was the next question.

Table 3: respondents are afraid to talk because of:

1. fear of making mistakes	16
2. lacking in vocabulary	6
3. fear of teachers' negative feedback	8
4. lack of self-confidence	12
Total	42

For the previous questions, respondents are provided with the choices why they don't talk English in the classroom and it reveals that 16 of them don't speak because they are afraid of making mistakes, while 12 of them mention that they lack self-confidence. As for the fear of teachers' negative feedback, we have recorded eight respondents and the other six respondents have indicated that the lack of vocabulary is the reason why they don't talk in English. For that, I believe it is the role of teachers to create a relaxed and friendly learning environment where learners are encouraged and feel free to use English.

Q. Which of the method do you like best for the speaking activities?

Table 4: speaking activities preferred by the students

options	respondents
Role plays	13
Group work	12
Discussions	17
Problem solving	8
Story telling	9
Other	1
Total	60

In the present table, we intended to find out the techniques that the learners like most. It demonstrates the techniques that teachers can use in speaking activities. It can be seen in this table that there are no great differences between role-plays (n, 13), group work (n, 12) and discussions (n, 17). However, learners consider the discussion as being the best activity in learning speaking. This finding also supports other researches which postulate that English is best learnt through interaction. As it can be seen nine of the respondents consider storytelling as the most enjoyable technique while eight of them prefer problem-solving best. These findings indicate that respondents already know those methods and teachers should be aware of those activities that the learners prefer most for the optimal participation.

Table 5: Perceptions of students on the role of their teachers in leaning/teaching speaking in English

Statements	Respondents	Mean value
There are enough speaking activities during English lessons.	60	2.75
Teachers help us in many ways during speaking.	60	3
Activities outside the classroom are more effective for improving English speaking skills.	60	3.75
I can learn speaking English without a teacher, on my own.	60	2.5
I can learn speaking English without a teacher, on my own.	60	2.25
English teacher is skilled to plan and implement speaking activities	60	3.5
	60	3.75
During speaking activities English teacher acts as:	60	2.75
Observer	60	3.5
Feedback provider	60	3.25
Organizer	60	3
Assessor	60	3
Motivator	60	3.75
Prompter		
Participant		
Monitor		

Scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree or disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

The above table demonstrates that most students think that speaking activities in their classroom are insufficient, with the mean of 2.75, while

“activities outside the classroom are more effective” got the mean of 3.75. “I can learn English without a teacher” got the least mean of 2.5 with “English teacher is skilled to plan and implement speaking activities”. As for the statement “teachers help us in many ways during speaking”, we recorded the mean of 3. As for the roles of teachers, respondents agreed that teachers act as an observer with the mean of 3.5, as a feedback provider with the mean of 3.75, as a monitor with the mean of 3.75, as a motivator 3.25, as an assessor 3.5, as a prompter and participant with the mean of both 3 and organizer with the mean of 2.75.

6. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Since English has become the international language for communication in different spheres of people’s lives, people spent a lot of time and money to be able to communicate in it. The desire to communicate in English is the primary reason why speaking is considered to be the most important skill to improve. One of the purposes of this study was to find out participants’ needs in language learning. The findings of this study demonstrate that the majority of the respondents express that they want to improve speaking most, so speaking skill is the most desired language skill to improve by English learners. Thus, language courses should focus on speaking activities and this will also enable language learners to improve other skills as well. Literature demonstrates that teaching speaking is also crucial because it can also help improve other language skills; it can help learners build vocabulary, improve grammar, listening and writing as well. This study supports the view that it is the teachers’ job to expose the learners to the spoken discourses so that they can adjust the type of the language according to the psychological and social role they play in their daily communications. Native speakers are usually conscious of turn-taking, how/when to speak and how/when to listen. Thus, EFL teachers should teach learners to become conscious of such discourses in order to avoid misunderstanding and offending the people they are talking to. The best way to do that is to encourage learners to practice and to have more verbal interaction in the classroom because they don’t have the chance to use it outside the classroom. Keeping this need in mind, teachers can motivate students to reinforce other language skills by implementing various speaking activities. Since students don’t only need English for communication, they also need to read course books, to understand lectures etc. it should be developed along with other skills

This study also reveals that one of the obstacles speaking aspects is the reluctance to communicate in English by the learners due to some reasons

including: fear of making mistakes, lack of self-confidence, fear of teachers' negative feedback and insufficient vocabulary. Another reason why students keep silent is when they fear of losing face in case they make mistakes. The aforementioned reasons cause learners to experience stress and anxiety which hinder learners' confidence to speak in front of their classmates. The interview revealed that another cause of students' reluctance to speak is when teachers choose a topic that is known very little by the students, so they have nothing to say about it nor is it interesting to them, as a result, they seem to have no motivation to talk. Taking the mentioned obstacles into account, language teachers should motivate and encourage learners to speak English about interesting topics by providing them with a relaxed atmosphere where learners are not afraid to take risks to use English with their teachers and with their classmates as well. Another important function of teachers is providing opportunities for learners by encouraging them to use English not only in the classroom but also in their daily interaction with their classmates, with English teachers or just English speaking people, if possible. As the literature demonstrates, language development can best occur through interaction. It can be understood that more interaction can lead to more language learning. It is because, during the interactional communications with other speakers, they use situational contexts, repetition, clarification in order to understand better, and this input, which is beyond their present level of English, will help them acquire the language better (Ellis 1999).

According to Ur (2012) communicating orally and fluently in formal and informal interaction is the primary goal for many language learners. For that purpose, teachers should design classroom activities to improve students' ability to promote oral fluency. Thus, teachers should promote student talk activities; however, most of the lesson time is allocated for teachers to talk, instruct and manage the classroom. This study reveals that students have different opinions regarding various speaking activities. Most of them prefer participating in discussions or debates, role play and group work in the classroom. It is one of the crucial roles of teachers to help students build communicative skills by being creative and using various modern teaching techniques including role play, group work, discussions, group presentation, storytelling, picture description, etc. These activities are essential to language development because they can activate some linguistic elements to become automatic causing the learners to use them unconsciously, and in this way the fluency can be improved. Through these kinds of activities, teachers can help learners overcome fear of communication and feel more confident when they speak English. Among them discussions or debates are

the best that develop learners' communication skills, because they enable learners to develop convincing arguments and learn from one another, etc.

Once again we have found that teachers play a significant role in developing students' speaking skill. Their primary role is to help learners overcome their communication obstacles and motivate them to actively participate in speaking activities. As a result of the students' survey and the interview, we can note that foreign language learning is a process that requires teachers to consider demonstrating different roles in the classroom. In ELT classes, teachers are expected to teach effectively, to guide students and to keep order in the classroom. Another crucial role teachers are expected to play is providing and maintaining a good quality of education (Leu, 2005). In order to achieve this quality, teachers should be encouraged to use their energy, knowledge along with motivation. Thus, teachers should play various roles according to the skills and needs of the learners. As teachers of English, it's our duty to play a pivotal role to improve a speaking skill in the English language with other skills among the Iraqi students. We can conclude that teachers play a significant role in learning speaking by students and overcoming their language obstacles by playing various roles including: a feedback provider organizer, facilitator, prompter, motivator and participant. Moreover, they have to be aware of the traditional and modern techniques and methods of language teaching, and specialization in their own field that meet the needs of the learners through which speaking proficiency can be improved.

References

- Banya K. and Cheng M. (1997, March 11-15). Beliefs about foreign language learning: A study of beliefs of teachers' and students' cross-cultural settings. Orlando, FL: Paper presented at the 31st TESOL Convention.
- Brown G. & Yule G. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, D. H. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: An interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Burkart, G. S. (1998). *Spoken Language: What It Is and How To Teach It*. Washington DC.: Center for Applied Linguistics 12/98.
- Ellis R. & Fotos S. (1999). *Learning a Second Language through interaction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Essex: Longman Press.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (4th ed.). London: Pearson Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2010). *How to Teach English* (6th ed.). Harlow, Essex, England: Pearson Longman.
- Huda, N. (1999). *Language Learning and Teaching: Issues and Trends*. Malang: IKIP Malang Publisher.
- Hymes, D. H. (1971). On communicative competence. In C. J. Johnson, *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching* (1981) (pp. 5-26). Oxford: OUP.
- Kim McDonough, Alison Mackey. (2013). *Second Language Interaction in Diverse Educational Contexts*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Publishing Company.
- Koran, S. (2015). Analyzing EFL teachers' initial job motivation and factors effecting their motivatiob in Fezalar Educational Institution in Iraq. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 6(1), 72-80.
- Krashen, S. (1987). *Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Oxford.
- Leu, E. (2005). *The role of teachers, schools and Communities in Quality of Education: A review of the Literature*. Washington, DC: Global Education Center.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing task for communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English Language Teaching*. Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- R M. Harden & J. Crosby. (2000). The good teacher is more than a lecturer- the twelve roles of the teacher. *Med Teach*, 334-347.
- Reddy B. B. & Gobi M. M. (2013). The role of English language teacher in developing communication skills among the students of engineering

and technology. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 2(4), 29-31.

Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. (2012). *A Course in English Language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Vilar, E. (2003). *Roles of teachers a case study based on: Diary of a language teacher*. Retrieved from <http://www.uji.es/bin/publ/edicions/jfi6/teachers.pdf>

Considering the Foreign Language (English) Teachers as School Counsellors

Suleyman CELIK

Ishik University Arbil/IRAQ

suleyman.celik@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

The need for the Psychological counselling and guidance in the schools is increasing rapidly nowadays due to occurring many problems caused by a lot of reasons in the schools. The main duty of the counsellors in the schools is to prevent students' problems by using preventives. To use the right preventives among the students, the counsellors have to use the right ones which can be used appropriately by knowing the students deeply. Yet, the counsellors do not have any lessons and cannot devote enough time with the students as a result they may not use the right solutions to the problems. At this point the English language teachers can be the helpers of the counsellors to prevent the problems and find solutions for the problems because they spend much time with the students, as a result of devoting time with the students English Language teachers may know the students more than the others. This study was to find out whether the ELT teachers know the students better and can help the school counsellors. A survey was applied to 1300 students which teacher(s) know them better and it was seen that English Language teachers were the answer. In summary, English language teachers can see and handle with the problems in corporation with Psychological Counselling and Guidance Teachers.

Key words: education, school counselling, English teachers, schools.

Introduction

Since the humans are social beings, living in a social atmosphere, naturally places the social relationships just at the centre of his life. Human beings try to behave according to the expectations of their environment. After a while these behaviours are repeated automatically and unconsciously. Some behaviour is acquired accidentally and some are taught consciously by the elders. The process of making the person behave in a way that approved by society is called “education”. The mentioned process is done at school in a formal systematic way.

Every person has a natural tendency of fulfilling his/her needs and inner demands. Education is the process of shaping these needs and demands according to the society’s expectations and approvals. That’s way education can be described as a pre-planned and conscious assistance to a person for enabling him/her to fulfil himself/herself to be a beneficial citizen to his/her society. Considering the description of education, it can be easily said that education and society are just like inseparable twins. Education provides the needs of society and at the same time society is shaped according to the given education.

The 21st century is called the age of space by some and the age of technology by others. However different these names are, there is one prevailing rule for the 21st century which is the fact that it is a competition-based one. The main philosophy of our current age is expressed as “win, win, win”. This inevitably results in a ruthless competition. People of this age keep studying as to how to reach more efficiency in a shortest time in order to adapt to the competition conditions that get heavier and heavier every day. Consequently, technology is developing on a daily basis and brings new conveniences to the people’s lives every day. Distances have disappeared thanks to the convenience brought by technology and time started to be used more efficiently. The amount of work performed in a unit of time has increased and so production has increased exponentially. The daily living quality has improved and now it is as if the technology is the only one with a say at every step of life. It is because of such a rapid change in life that students have more difficulties in adapting to life and school as well. Students are more complicated than ever to deal with. In these days students face many problems than ever such as academic situations, emotional or behavior or family problems, addictive disorders and many other ones. (Dickson & Derevensky, 2006; Medina-Mora & Real, 2008).Due to this reality, most students have dilemmas and difficulties in many issues related to their academic, personal, family and emotional life. When

the students face such kind of problems mentioned above, they create their coping skills which help them to overcome those obstacles. It is impossible for all students to have skills to guide them while coping with problems they face day by day. Some of the students get help from their elders, friends, teachers and etc. individuals can manage their problems with the role modelling of their parents, teachers and their community (Scarborough and Luke, 2008). In some cases students mirror their role models and figures to admired adults. These role models may or may not provide them a quality support that the students need.

As Fredericks, Blumenfeld and Paris (2004) mentioned academic achievement and psychological stability depends on the quality help from their supporters. If the support is not enough there is nothing to speak about their achievements and these students then need additional support to have achieve in every aspects of their lives. What if their teachers aren't able to support them or are ill-equipped for such a support? At this point, some experts and some professional help are needed to help students in adapting to school and life. These experts are called school counsellors and help is school counselling.

School Counselling

School counsellors are the ones who are responsible for school counselling. School Counselling is a service which is for students to enable them to see their both weak and strong sides and give them a variety of solutions to choose in solving his/her own problems. School counselling is one of the most beneficial and best practical way of helping students (Scarborough & Luke: 2008) . School counselling has been described by many scientists by using different words or ways of sayings. According to Mathewson (1962:p 141) school counselling is a professional assistance to a person to realize his/her hidden abilities and use them according to the needs of society in such a way that will enable him to comment on what is good or vice versa on his own after a while. In Mathewson's description hidden abilities are strongly mentioned and it is also stated that a person cannot explore his/her own abilities without any professional help. For example a shepherd may be good musician or artist. It is not something beyond imagination but he/she should be explored with the help of professionals. Otherwise, the mentioned shepherd will remain as a shepherd until he/she dies. So the professional help is vital for exploring hidden treasures. Grant (1960:p 5) describes school counselling as helping him/her for adapting life, solving problems and being a matured one for life. In Grant's description we again see the

word “help”. As it is mentioned in daily life, to give someone fish for every day is not a favour for that person because the person giving fish to the man is not doing favour for him/her. He/she is making him/her lazy by giving readymade food. If someone wants to do a real favour to someone else he/she should teach him/her how to fish. It is because of this reality that the main focus on school counselling is such a help that gives a torch for lighting the path to walk on. No one can carry any other person during his/her life but can teach him/her how to walk. That is the main point of understanding of school counselling. Peters and Shertzer (1969:p 35) describes counselling as a process of helping a person to realize his/her environment and himself/herself and by doing this to use his/her hidden abilities. In Peters and Shertzer’s description help is mentioned once more. Kuzgun (1988: p 3) adds “person’s being enthusiastic and using his effort for demanding help” in her description. Kuzgun says that counselling is a systematic and professional help. In Kuzgun’s description person’s effort and being eager for help is at the centre.

The Role of School Counsellors

According to American School Counsellor Association (ASCA) school counsellors are described as the following: “Professional school counsellors are certified/licensed educators with a minimum of a master’s degree in school counselling making them uniquely qualified to address all students’ academic, personal/social and career development needs by designing, implementing, evaluating and enhancing a comprehensive school counselling program that promotes and enhances student success”. Professional school counsellor is the one who tries to creates a positive learning environment and build up bridges among the all members of the school community (Sandhu, 2000) and runs different programs to prevent problems of the students that are faced more often. (Lee, 2001). There is no doubt that Professional school counsellors have an important role in maximizing student success (Lapan, Gysbers, & Kayson, 2007; Stone & Dahir, 2006) . As it is mentioned by U.S. Department of Education (2002), to prevent the children at school form the alcohol, drugs, harassments, and violence, a quality counselling has long term effects. Besides these kind of quality services have positive effects both on students’ academic achievements and help teachers to control and manage the classrooms as well.

School counsellors also can help the students by creating a positive and culturally sense of belonging by showing respect and sensitiveness to the students’ feelings and their uniqueness. Counsellors need, of course, teachers

and parents' help to create the environment and also they are expected to adapt the students to the school environment by considering the students' interests. According to the Education Trust criteria (1997) school counsellors must be aware of three traditional C's": counselling, coordination of services and consultation. Counselling is showing students all ways of something that is considered as a problem for students. Counselling doesn't mean to force students to choose the correct option. In counselling process the counsellor puts all aspects of a problem with its variety of solution. The decision is up to students. Students are the one who will decide. In counselling process there is no interference by counsellor. He/she is just the referee or facilitator in counselling process.

The second "C" is coordination of services. School counsellors are responsible for creating a good cooperation circle among the all groups, societies and staff related to education and students.

The third "C" is consultation. School counsellors are expected to be good consultants for students. Since students may have some difficulties in both real and academic life, they need professional help. This help is provided by school counsellors. In consultation process the school counsellor is a good listener. He/she never blames students for their mistakes or faults. In consultation process, school counsellor is a blind reviewer. He/she is neither for nor against student who is taking consultation service.

English Language Teachers in Turkey

Foreign language teachers are the teachers who are responsible for teaching a foreign language with its sub skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking. Foreign language teachers teach a language to residents of a country for whom the language they have been learning is not their mother tongue. These languages may vary but for Turkey especially this foreign language is English. In Turkey, to become an English language teacher all candidates have to pass an exam called university entrance exam. After passing the exam students choose a university according to their points they got from the entrance exam. Here it is necessary to mention that being an English language teacher is as difficult as being a doctor or engineer. Since the top score at university entrance exam is 550, to become an English language teacher a candidate has to get minimum 475 points in exam. English Language Teaching faculties are 1 year preparation class plus 4 years methodology and other studies. After graduation from university, a formal exam has to be taken by graduates to be a teacher in public schools.

Almost in all countries, teachers- after the parents- are the first person when the students have problems regardless of the type of the problems. Since students spend more time at school with their teachers more than they do with their parents, sometimes teachers are one step ahead in knowing students better compared their parents. In Turkey, school counsellors are really busy due to the existence of many high-risk students who need emotional and academic help. Since the counsellors are busy with the risky students, they cannot devote time to the other students. Many of the students cannot meet with the counsellors even once in an academic year. Especially in crowded schools school counsellors are almost incapable of knowing students because of the mentioned reasons. Under such circumstances school counsellors aren't able to fulfil their tasks which are vital for both school and student development in many aspects. As it is impossible to employ more than needed school counsellors in a school, another way is needed to deal with problems related to counsellors' field. The reality that school counsellors aren't sufficient enough in dealing with students oriented problems or issues make it necessary to find a new approach. For Turkey, English language teachers are the ones who can help school counsellors in many ways regarding knowing students, informing counsellors about upcoming problems, data gathering, etc.

Why English Language Teachers?

In Turkish Educational System some lessons are compulsory for all grade students in high schools. While some students take some lessons in 9th grade, some take some lessons in 10th, 11th or 12th grades. For example, Turkish Revolution History is a compulsory lesson for high school students but it has to be taken at just 11th grades as 2 hours a week even if the field of interest of students is science or social sciences. There are many lessons like Turkish Revolution History lesson. When table-1 is examined it is obviously seen that just foreign language lesson, 99% English, has to be taken in all years with high ratio hours compared to others. Although Language and Expression lesson is the most important lesson to finish one academic term, it is just 2 hours for all grades but foreign language (English) is 6 hours for 9th grades and for the following grades it is 4 hours. Here it has to be mentioned that these hours are more than mentioned in table-1 in private schools. Whether it is public school or private school English language lesson has the highest ratio hours in Turkey. Being together for a long time requires knowing each other better so English language teachers know students better. Another point about English Language teachers in Turkey is that they get a modern and western oriented education at universities compared to all other branches. It may be because of this reason that English

Language teachers at Turkey are more open-minded and ready to welcome new ideas.

Table-1: Subject Hours

COMMON SUBJECTS	9. GRADE	10.GRADE	11.GRADE	12.GRADE
LANGUAGE AND EXPRESSION	2	2	2	2
TURKISH LITERATURE	3	3	3	3
MORAL VALUES EDUCATION	1	1	1	1
HISTORY	2	2	0	—
T.R. REVOLUTION HISTORY	0	0	2	—
GEOGRAPHY	2	2	—	—
MATHS	4	—	—	—
GEOMETRY	2	—	—	—
PHYSICS	2	—	—	—
CHEMISTRY	2	—	—	—
BIOLOGY	2	—	—	—
HEALTH INFORMATION	1	—	—	—
PHILOSOPHY	0	—	2	—
<i>FOREIGN LANGUAGE</i>	6	4	4	4
2nd FOREIGN LANGUAGE	2	2	2	2
PE	2	2	2	2
ART/MUSIC	1	1	1	1
NATIONAL SECURITY	—	1	—	—
TRAFFIC AND FIRST AID	—	—	—	1
TOTAL (HOUR)	34	20	19	16

Are English Teachers Qualified to Provide Such Counselling?

Like the other teachers, English Language teachers are on the students' side to help them with their problems although they do not have professional training as the counsellors have. Since they have many teaching hours in the classrooms, they are more aware of the students' characteristics. Besides they have more daily interaction and thus they have more opportunities to provide support and can direct the students. Within the daily interactions the English Language teachers can behave but not as professional as the counsellors like a guide. They have abilities to distinguish the individual differences which results a chance to put bridges with everyone in the school. Also they provide positive group interaction and can develop strong

relationships not only with the students but also with their parents. As a result English Language teachers are one of the big partners of the counsellors in the schools.

What Kind of Assistance Can Be Given to Counsellors By English Teachers?

The English Language teachers can cooperate in organizing the units in the course book based on the school counsellor agenda and academic calendar of the school. Within the units, subconsciously with the help of counsellor the teachers can send messages to prevent bad behaviours. It is an essential part of teaching to make students work in pairs. In pair work sessions, English Language teachers may witness their students whether they're able work with a friend/group or not. Another teaching methodology in English Language Teaching (ELT) is role play activities. Role play activities give a chance to ELT teachers to measure their students' self-confidence and shyness level. ELT requires many activities which are based on active participation. What is expected from English Language teachers is to monitor his/her students and report unwanted or undesired cases to school counsellors. For doing this, as mentioned above, English Language teachers can do some adaptations in course books. Since ELT is full of many activities based on self-expression which gives many clues about per person's personality, such a support to counsellors wouldn't be so difficult or time consuming.

Conclusion

All new approaches may be seen nonsense at first sight as it had been for wheel once but time gives many opportunities to shape new approaches or inventions. None of the approaches or inventions was presented to public in a wonderful way. Time made human beings realize the advantages and disadvantages of that approach or invention naturally. Considering English Language teachers as school counsellors' assistants may be a rough idea at first sight but if it lights a new point of view on its field, then it means that something useful has been done. It is obvious that English Language teachers in Turkey have more than 25 hours in a week so at the beginning such an assistance demand for counsellors will not be welcomed by all teachers but by seeing the benefits of such an effortless assistance, English Language teachers will accept assisting to counsellors voluntarily. It is an undeniable reality that English language teachers are the ones who are with students more than other teachers so they know their students better. School counsellors do not take any classes so especially for crowded schools it is

impossible to be aware of the unwanted events. While there is such a source in Turkey, it should be benefitted. To be successful, a Teacher Advisor Program must therefore have a clearly defined purpose, reflected in a well-conceived curriculum, and it must enlist the full support of administrators, teachers, and counsellors alike. There is no waste of both time and money to try such a new model. Who knows it may work.

References

- ASCA,2012,The Role of the Professional School Counselor,<http://www.schoolcounselor.org/content.asp?pl=325&sl=133&contentid=240>
- Dickson, L., & Derevensky, J. (2006). Equipping school psychologists to address another risky behavior:The case for understanding youth problem gambling. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 21, 59-72.
- Fredericks, J., Blumenfeld, P., Paris, A. School Engagement: Potential of the Concept, and State of the Evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, Spring 2004, Vol. 74, No. 1, pp 59-109.
- Grant, W.C. (1960), The Teacher-Student Relationship in Not Counseling, *Journal of Counselling ' Psychology*, 7, 2, 148_149.
- Lapan, R. T., Gysbers, N. C., & Kayson, M. A. (2007). Missouri school counselors benefit all students. Jefferson City, MO: Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.
- Lee, C. (2001). Culturally responsive school counselors and programs: Addressing the needs of all students. *Professional School Counseling*, 4, 163-171.
- Medina-Mora, M., & Real,T. (2008). Epidemiology of inhalant use. *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*, 2 I, 247-251.
- Peters, Herman & Shertzer, Bruce "1969". *Guidance: Program Development and Management "2nd Ed."*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles Merrill. - Petty, J. C. "1971".
- Robert H. Mathewson. *Guidance Policy and Practice*. (3rd edition.) New York: Harper & Row, 1962. p. 141.

- Scarborough, J. L., & Luke, M. (2008). School Counselors Walking the Walk and Talking the Talk: A Grounded Theory of Effective Program Implementation. *Professional School Counseling*, 11(6), 404-416.
- Scarborough, J. L., & Luke, M. (2008). School counselors walking the walk and talking the talk: A grounded theory of effective program implementation. *Professional School Counseling*, 11(6), 404-416.
- Sandhu, D. S. (2000). Alienated students: Counseling strategies to curb school violence. *Professional School Counseling*, 4, 81-85.
- Stone, C. B. & Dahir, C. A. (2006). *The transformed school counselor*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Managing the Classes by Using Multiple Intelligence Instruction

Suleyman CELIK

Ishik University- Arbil/Iraq

suleyman.celik@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

Classroom management is one of the challenging and difficult tasks to achieve for many of the foreign language teachers and they confront different types of classroom management problems every day such as disobeying the school and classroom rules, misbehaving during the lessons, using obscene words and gestures, and showing disrespect. Unless the FL teachers overcome those classroom management problems, it is hard to teach effectively. This study examines some high school EFL teachers who use multiple intelligence instruction methods in their lessons in Duhok city in IRAQ. A questionnaire and interviews were used to collect data about how the teachers control their classes, their attitudes toward managing the classes and assumptions about multiple intelligence instruction. The preliminary results of the study show that teachers who use different types of teaching activities can control their classes easier than the way they used traditional teaching approaches and the students' engagement to the lessons are so high. However, those who use the same teaching way all the time have difficulties in managing the classes or the lessons are so boring. As a result, using different types of activities which are related to learners' intelligence can foster a positive climate and help the teachers to control their classes.

Key words: classroom management, multiple intelligence, students' engagement, positive climate

Introduction

Classrooms can be seen as the micro society of that nation with the broad range of different degrees of education proficiency, and some may have disabling conditions (Armstrong, 2009). There may be a wide range of ethnic characteristics, and various socio economic levels may be represented. Borich(2011) states that due to not all learners alike to each other, their learning styles are different. They may prefer to learn in pairs, in small groups or independently. Some may prefer written work, others may learn best when performing an activity. Our classrooms consist of with these different learners who bring different needs to their learning environment. In addition, teachers may find that their classroom has a range of ability levels or achievement, groups of students with skills below grade level, and students with special needs. All of these factors contribute to the diversity of the classroom. Consequently, learners who have different characteristics in the classroom affect classroom management and instruction. In such kinds of classrooms, managing the learning environment is one of the tough issues that teachers face.

Creating a positive community where students are actively engaged in their own learning and the management of those classrooms is not as easy as all the teachers can do. In a diversity learner's classroom, the physical environment should be organized, students' behaviors should be managed, and a peaceful and respectful environment should be created. In Glasser's (1998) cooperative learning approach if the students are actively engaged to the learning community in their classrooms, problems with students' misbehavior would be minimized. In their study (Levin& Nolan, 2007) states that a learning community is designed to help all students to feel safe, respected and valued to learn new skills. Many aspects of classroom management help to promote learning communities.

Besides instructions should be facilitated, safety and wellness should be promoted among the different learners inside the classroom and an interaction should be established with the others when needed (Charles, 2005). All these issues related to classroom management and successful teachers use multiple intelligence teaching strategies to manage their classrooms effectively.

Theoretical foundations

In the early 1980s Howard Gardner announced that rather than just one intelligence there are multiple intelligence called multiple intelligence theory which emerged with seven different types of intelligences, later the eighth was added and now the ninth has been discussed among the psychologist. Gardner (1983) suggests that in his theory there is a plurality concept of intelligence that is the followers of the previous psychologists' theories. Gardner (1983) suggests that implying Multiple Intelligence theory in education field will promote many different avenues to help the meaning of teaching. Each intelligence represents two major focuses: the ability to solve problems and create products or outcomes that are valued by a culture. The nine intelligences are: *Linguistic Intelligence*, *Logical-Mathematical Intelligence*, *Spatial Intelligence*, *Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence*, *Musical Intelligence*, *Interpersonal Intelligence*, *Intrapersonal Intelligence*, *Naturalistic Intelligence*, *Existential intelligence*.

As Armstrong (2009) declared that the multiple intelligence theory offers a new point of view on the different types of management strategies that have been used by the EFL teachers to ensure a running learning environment.

The multiple intelligence teaching strategies open many different types of teaching activities that foster the motivation, students' involvement to the courses, and develop active teaching environment where all the students feel that they belong to that classroom in different ranks (Gardner, 1993b). Multiple intelligence activities foster the students' actively engagement because every learner finds attractive activities related to their interests. The primary objective of this study was to find out whether implementing multiple intelligence teaching activities decreases the classroom management problems in an educational setting by conducting an action research which has been done in, 8th and 9th grade classrooms in Duhok city.

Research questions

In the previous section we have seen that there is a close relationship between multiple intelligence teaching strategies and gaining the students' interests as a result managing the classroom with least problems. Based on this literature review of Multiple intelligence theory and classroom management, two research questions concerning with this relationship was emerged:

- 1- To what extent do Multiple Intelligence teaching activities increase students' engagement actively to the lessons?
- 2- Does students' actively engagement to the lessons decrease the classroom management problems?

Subjects

Thirty 8th grade students from Duhok Ishik Girls' College and, forty-five 9th grade students from Duhok Ishik Boys' College participated in the experiment. These students were at the age of 15 years old and enrolled 14 weeks English courses in the spring semester of 2012-2013 academic year. Those students were chosen purposefully because many of the teachers were complaining about their attitudes towards the lessons, and it was very hard to manage the classes. Many of the students in those mentioned classes were acting as if they were in the street and were not caring about the school and class rules.

The students were not told that they had participated in a research in order not to affect the neutrality of the study. In some cases, if the participants know that they are taking part in a study they might not behave in the natural way. Not telling them about what exactly is being studied avoids the possibility that participants would make an extra effort to help the researcher to achieve the aim of the study.

Data Analysis Processes

With the aim of gathering data, first relevant literature was reviewed. Many of the books, articles, interviews about multiple intelligence theory have been collected, examined and read carefully. Many of the experts' ideas were asked. Before starting the action research, first Walter McKenzie's MI Inventory survey was used to find out students' dominant intelligent. Then to check the validity of the survey result those students' behaviors were asked their other teachers. Because as Gardner (1983) states, the most important tool is to identify individuals' dominant intelligence is observation. Also, a meeting with the parents was held to compare their ideas, teachers' observation and the survey result. All those results were coinciding. After figuring out the students' dominant intelligence, thematic weekly lesson plans were prepared including different types of teaching activities to different intelligences. At the beginning of the study four EFL teachers, who were teaching English to those students, were interviewed about the

classroom management problems in those classes. After implementing the Multiple Intelligence Teaching activities the same interview was done to the same teachers to demonstrate if their assumptions have been changed during the study or not.

Findings and Discussion

There were two 8th and two 9th grades participating to the study. The subjects' overall MI distributions according to McKenzie's test in the both grades were analyzed by SPSS 19.0. The analytical results of SPSS 19.0 shows the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.748, and p is <0.0001. Therefore the results of the survey were acceptable.

The total participants of the 8th grade were 30 and all of them were female. As Gardner states (1983), individuals can have more than one dominant intelligence; generally females showed the intrapersonal intelligences dominantly in the first or second rank among their MI. Below the table gives the general statistical information about the frequencies of distribution of the MI in the 8th grade.

		NATURAL ISTIC	MUSICAL	LOGICAL	INTER PERSONAL	KINESTHETIC	VERBAL	INTRA PERSONAL	VISUAL
N	Valid	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		63.2	60.8	69.2	57.2	61.6	58.4	74.8	62
Mode		60	60	60	60	50	60	80	70
Std. Deviation		14.1	19.1	15.25	17.45	22.49	19.72	20.6	18.93
Minimum		40	30	50	30	10	10	10	20
Maximum		90	100	100	90	100	90	100	90
Percentiles	25	55	40	60	40	50	45	65	50
	50	60	60	70	60	60	60	80	60
	75	70	75	80	70	80	70	90	70

There were 40 participants in this 9th grade between the ages of 15-16 and all of the students were male. As it is seen in the table below, among the 40 participants, intrapersonal intelligence (m=76.52) and logical mathematical (m=73.91) were the most two dominant intelligences. Naturalistic (54.35) and musical intelligences (56.09) were the least dominant.

		NATU RALA STIC	MUS ICA L	LOG ICA L	INT ERP ERS ON AL	KINE STHE TIC	VER BAL	INT RAP ERS ONA L	VISU AL
N	Valid	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
	Missi ng	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		54.35	56.09	73.91	60.8 7	60.43	55.65	76.52	57.39
Mode		30	60	90	70	60	70	70	70 ^a
Std. Deviation		23.321	13.05	16.98	17.8 2	19.88	15.32	14.01 6	21.578
Minimum		20	30	40	20	20	30	30	20
Maximum		100	80	100	90	100	80	100	90

All four groups were taught by different teachers who had taught in the fall semester. Apart from the first term, the experimental classes were given projects, assignments and homework corresponding to their dominant intelligence. This program focused on seeking how Multiple-Intelligence-focused teaching program influenced the students' attitudes, motivation and classroom management. Different teaching techniques and methods were adopted based on their different intelligences. In contrast, for the first term, the traditional method (without any emphasis on MI dominant type) was used. The students, in the first term, just continued to precede ordinary studying methods: reading the texts, trying to find out the unknown vocabulary and doing the comprehension questions and the other ordinary ways of teaching.

According to the results of the survey the teacher created four groups but since every learner has all the intelligences in some amount, it was believed that there should be eight learning centers which each of them representing

different intelligences. Consequently there were eight learning centers inside the classroom. Each center had a name such as Logic Smart (Logical Mathematical intelligence), Body Smart (Bodily Kinesthetic Intelligence), The Independents (Intrapersonal Intelligence), The Reporters (Verbal Linguistic intelligence), Easygoing (Interpersonal Intelligence), Music Smart (Musical Intelligence), Visual Smart (Visual-spatial intelligence) and Naturalists (Natural Intelligence). In those learning centers different learning activities and different learning processes which corresponded to their intelligence type took place during the study.

At the beginning of the experiment the groups (Logical, Kinesthetic, Intrapersonal and Visual) started by staying at their relevant intelligence learning center. Each group stayed in their centers for one week and continued their learning with center-related activities. The following weeks they moved to another center with different learning activities. As a result, the teachers rotated the groups center by center in a clockwise manner until every group gained some experience in all eight learning centers in developing reading comprehension (students were permitted to skip some center if they felt they wouldn't benefit at all). Later students stayed mainly in the center adequate to their dominant intelligence.

The Results of the Case Study

An action research project was conducted in those classrooms to assess the effects of this multimodal learning format on classroom management. At the end of the research the same interview was done to the teachers and the following results were gained from the teachers' observation and interview.

- Multiple intelligence teaching activities build up a positive teacher-student relationship. Many of the research studies on classroom management highlight the importance of having positive teacher-student relationship in promoting appropriate student behavior (Marzano, 1998). At the beginning of the experiment students observed that it was a totally different teaching strategy that they have never met before. It was difficult to take their attention at first, but later on when the activities were enjoyable and met students' interests the teachers gained students' attention as a result
- The teachers kept the class moving from activity to activity and interject fun activities throughout the class period. During the multiple intelligence teaching activities the students engaged with

never a dull moment, the time flew and the students did not have long stretches of time to start misbehaving. There was noise during the lessons but that was the sign of how busy they were about Language learning.

- Teachers could communicate the school and classroom rules for proper conduct through multiple intelligence approach.
- Another application of MI theory to classroom management was in the forming small groups. EFL Teachers were aware of the value of heterogeneous groups working cooperatively. Multiple intelligence teaching activities promote many types of group and pair working based on relevant intelligences.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Multiple intelligence theory provides many different ways of understanding the human cognitive abilities which makes the learning enjoyable and effective for the individuals. In addition Multiple intelligence teaching activities gives ways of learning opportunities to the students (Arnold & Fonseca, 2004). Multiple intelligence theory is worthy because many of the teachers are benefitted with the means to sort through many a broad range of behavioral discipline strategies. Besides it also offers guidelines for selecting a limited number of interventions to try out based upon the students' individual differences (Armstrong, 2009). By point of this view, Multiple Intelligence theory can greatly affect the students' behaviors in the classroom simply by creating a positive environment where individual needs are recognized and met during the school year. In such kind of a positive environment students are less likely to be frustrated, misbehave, confused or break the school rules. As a result there is no need for behavioral tricks, or elaborate discipline system. Multiple intelligence theory gives a chance to the teachers to permit and encourage their students to use their brains actively to learn, therefore, if there is learning there won't be discipline problems.

References

- Armstrong, T. (2009). *Multiple Intelligence in the classroom*. Virginia: ACSD
- Arnold, J & Fonseca C. (2004). Multiple intelligence theory and foreign language learning: A brain based Perspective. *International journal of English studies*. 4, (1), 119-136
- Borich, G. (2011). *Effective Teaching Method: research-based practice*. Boston: Pearson
- Charles, C. M. (2005). *Building classroom discipline*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: theory of multiple intelligence*. New York: Basic Books
- Gardner, H. (1993a). *Frames of mind: theory of multiple intelligences- 10th anniversary edition*. New York: Basic Books
- Gardner, H. (1993b). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice*. New York: Basic Books
- Glasser, W. (1998). *Choice theory in the classroom*. New York: HarperPerennial
- Levin, J., & Nolan, J. F. (2007) *Principles of classroom management: A professional decision-making model*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon
- Marzano, R. J. (2003). *Classroom management that works: Research-based strategies for every teacher*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervisoin and Curriculum Development
- McKenzie, W. (2005). *Multiple intelligences and instructional technology (2nd ed.)*. Washington DC: International Society for Technology in Education

Mobile Social Media in Higher Education & Implementation of “EDMODO” in reading classes

Tahsin YAGCI

Ishik University

e-mail: tahsinyagci@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Most of the students and educators have developed technology. Unfortunately we were pushed to integrate mobile and wireless innovations to all parts of our lives. As educators we have to take into consideration that blended learning is the next step in educational environment. Augmented and Pervasive implementation of social media such as Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Instagram, Bloggers etc. forced educators consider integrating social educational platforms into their educational plan.

“Furthermore the advancement in mobile device technologies with internet connectivity made mobile blended learning inevitable” (Yagci, 2014). Thus, teachers are using mobile learning in their lessons. Teaching became 7/24 through mobile platforms. (Kukulkska-Hulme, Mobile Teaching And Learning, 2005)

In this study I will emphasize how to implement social mobile media and devices in EFL reading classes. Advantages and disadvantages of mobile learning will be discussed in my paper. We will discuss learners’ behaviors about social media and mobile learning tools. What type of reading tasks could be delivered through on Edmodo? Some other important issues will be touched in this study.

Key Words: Blended learning, mobile devices, social mobile media, reading comprehension skills, student centered approach.

INTRODUCTION

The 21st century will be recorded to educational history as the start point of blended learning (Wexler, et al., 2007). The recent developments in both mobile smart devices and internet accessibility forced educators to engage these tools into their education system. On the other hand web 2.0 program developers designed many educational software programs beside personal computer programs (Moreillon, 2007). Nowadays there is nearly no one who has got one of those social media platforms. Facebook has the first rate among them. It is widely used in any fields in the real life as well as educational environments. Generally it is used as Facebook groups or pages among students. They share with each other course notes, home assignments and additional information and comments. They are connected to each other through these kinds of platforms. New generation which is called digital natives by Pesky have their smart mobile devices such as smart mobile phones, tablet pcs, netbooks etc. They are always connected to internet via GSM operators or special internet suppliers. Sometimes they share their sources with their friends. Most of the universities or educational institutions provide their students free internet accessibility. It will not surprise you whenever you notice internet provides on school busses even in car washers. However the young generation prefers to use this giant source for entertainment. If as educators we can encourage them to use this opportunity for educational purposes, it will be a new age for learning teaching process.

The other viewpoint is reading through mobile social platforms. Actually reading is a social practice throughout constructivist aspect. Social networks provide lots of opportunities to interact with people and their ideas as well as the global changings all over the world (Cobb, 2007). Learners can interact not only with their classmates, but also with the other students or people on the different sides on the earth via social mobile media platforms. In the past students were receptive learners who cannot interact very much with each other on reading parts. However today's readers are encouraged to construct their own learning circumstances. They are not any more isolated learners because blended learning and educational social platform tools broke down all those walls around the classroom. They became an active and contributor members of world society (Pachler, Bachmair, & Cook, 2010). That is why we examine here the specificities of social media tools and especially emphasize on Edmodo.

How to integrate social networking platforms into reading comprehension

Social networking platforms such as Twitter, Blogging, Facebook and Edmodo are the platforms which involve individuals or group of people to interact and share the knowledge via micro blogging software (Facebook Statistics, 2014). They could have educational, personal or business purposes. Micro blogging is sharing ones ideas or information with limited size of text or document. On the other hand blogging is a kind of website which allows you to share large amount of information. Users not only post text, but also their comments, descriptions and audio visual materials or graphics. They can send messages directly to individuals or groups. In this way they build their own social network.

Social networking platforms such as Edmodo, Blackboard, and Moodle etc. are really advised to educator by many scholars to enrich their learning and teaching environment (Simyo and Ahead of Time, 2009). These educational platforms allow learners to initiate discussions and sharing outside the classroom. Especially if the teachers have lack of contact time with the students, it's better to communicate with them through social educational tools. Social media platforms make teaching learning process 7/24.

Specificities and Peculiarities of Edmodo and its role in reading classes.

Edmodo is one of the popular and most preferred educational social platforms which have approximately 48 million users all around the world (National Center for Education Statistics, 2008). Because of its user friendly menu makes it point of attraction among teachers and students. Its mission is to connect all students with the teachers and resources they want to reach their full potential. Edmodo has a distinguishing design which attracts students` excitement about learning as teachers can easily create a blended learning experience and environment. In Edmodo educators and teachers are at the origin of a powerful social network which joins them to learners, parents, school administrators and publishers. Edmodo is engaging and attracting user friendly educational platform. It has not only pc web-site, but also tablet pc and android applications (Froyd, J; Simpson, N, 2008). It is student centered software. Learners can follow their improvements through the assessment reports. They can see their results and get feedback from their

teachers. Teachers can easily hold the pulse of students. They can make groups in their classroom (Ally , 2009). It's very convenient to send and receive data or assignment either individually or in groups. Your students are there where you can touch to Edmodo. In any time you can send text or reading parts to your connection. Teachers may communicate with other colleagues and they can cooperate with each other. Shortly Edmodo is a motivating platform which encourages learners to study out of contact time.

Methodology

To achieve the objective of study, the data and the information were collected from interviews, observation and impressions of researcher. An experimental study was established in 2nd grade ELT students' class. In the reading course Cover to Cover 2 text book was studied. During the studies the class had a special closed Facebook group. They registered to Edmodo classes and some extra reading materials were delivered through social media. Through this experimental study we had some interviews and observation. The impressions of researcher were inevitable.

Participants

There were 26 students in Elt second grade reading class. According to gender of students; sixteen of the students were female and eight of them were males. The level of the participants was intermediate level. According to CEFR it was B2 level. And some of them had several social media accounts. Most of them had Facebook account however they had not met with Edmodo. Four students were chosen as a member of Social media team in the classroom. Their duty was to inform and guide students with the registration of social media accounts.

Initial Findings

All the students had at least one different type of smart mobile phone. 90% of the participants had laptop or desktop computers. 78% of the participants had internet access. 62% of the participants had mobile internet accessibility. At the beginning of the study the social media team which was established by the researcher made all the participants to have Facebook and Edmodo account. We shared our Edmodo class joining code and the students became

members of virtual class. We studied in the class in classical way and then we supported our participants with extra reading materials on Facebook group at the same time in Edmodo. Most of the reading materials were related to the topics which we studied during the classical lessons. We shared the links of some related videos on Edmodo. Before coming to class students were watching and studying the given materials. They were like warming up activities. In some lessons we were online in the classroom and we took some quizzes through Edmodo. It was very encouraging for students to take online quiz because they had the opportunity to have feedback simultaneously. As students read more reading text both in real classes and in virtual classes through social media, their reading comprehension skills improved. We are going to discuss those results in another study. But as far as I observed during the lesson, student's attitudes to the reading class increased. Because before coming to class they had enough prior knowledge to understand and discuss the issues and topics in the classroom. Using social media tools such as Facebook and Edmodo had really encouraged and motivated them to have reading classes. They started reading a lot through their mobile devices. Using Edmodo not only developed their reading skill but also increased their listening skill. The participants were frequently exposure to listen audio tracks of some texts in the textbook. As they read a lot through different means, they also developed their grammar structures.

Conclusions

In conclusion, In Iraq Erbil all the students have some type of mobile devices. Most of them have internet access. They like using Facebook and some other social media tools such as twitter and Instagram. According to the social, cultural and climatic issues majority of the students are reluctant to study in traditional way, as a consequent it is a must to gather these together and change the disadvantage of mobile media and social platforms into advantage for the sake of education.

As educators we should discuss and establish the benefits of social mobile devices and their usage in educational environment. All around the world there have been many researches about blended learning, it's inevitable to implement in Iraqi regions. In this study we just aimed to discover the potential energy of mobile learning in a territory. As a result we

have seen that there is a great source to establish and implement Edmodo kind virtual schools. The students are ready for new innovations. Just they need a start point.

REFERENCES

- Ally , M. (2009). *Mobile learning: Transforming the delivery of education and training*. Edmonton, Canada: Athabasca University Press.
- Cobb, T. (2007, October). Computing the Vocabulary Demands of L2 Reading. *Language Learning & Technology*, 11(3), 38-63.
- Facebook Statistics. (2014, July 1). Retrieved from <http://Facebook%20Statistics%20%20%20Statistic%20Brain.htm>
- Froyd, J; Simpson, N. (2008). *Student-centered learning: Addressing faculty question about*. Retrieved from The Course, Curriculum, Labor, and Improvement: www.ccliconference.com/2008.../Froyd_Stu-CenteredLearning.pdf
- Kukulska-Hulme, A. (2005). Mobile Teaching And Learning. In A. Kukulska-Hulme, & J. Traxler, *Mobile Learning: A handbook for educators and trainers* (pp. 25-45). London: Routledge.
- Moreillon, J. (2007). *Collaborative Strategies For Teaching Reading Comprehension: Mazximizing Your Impact*. Chicago: American Library Association.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2008). *Educational technology in U.S. public schools*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2010034>
- Pachler, N., Bachmair, B., & Cook, J. (2010). *Mobile Learning:Structures,Agency,Practices* . London: Springer.

- Simyo and Ahead of Time. (2009, May 5). *Mocom 2020-The Future of Mobile Media and Communication*. Retrieved from You Tube: http://www.youtube.com/results?search_query=mocom+2020
- Wexler, S., Schlenker, B., Brown, J., Metcalf, D., Quinn, C., Thor, E., et al. (2007). *360 research report mobile learning: What it is, why it matters, and how to incorporate it into your learning strategy*. In Santa Rosa CA: eLearning Guild.
- Yagci, T. (2014, November). Mobile Social Media Challenges Digital Natives In EFL Learning. (Z. Kaya, U. Demiray, & M. Hismanoglu, Eds.) *Journal Of Educational And Instructional Studies*, 4(4), 49-53.

Utilization Media & Technologies for Distance Education

Dr.Eng. Wassan Adnan. Hashim*, Mr. Omar Abdulmaged Hammood*

** Computer Science\Bayan University\Erbil*
wassanhashim@gmail.com omer_almajeed@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The technology has revolutionized the world of education. The role of teachers has been changed from merely delivering information to guiding students in their discovery of knowledge. Innovative technologies have enhanced distance learning. The term distance education has been applied to a tremendous variety of programs serving numerous audiences via a wide variety of media. Distance education is one of the tools that promises to remove the barrier of geographic location, because it increases time and place flexibility, provides just-in-time learning, reduces costs, and has quicker time development than traditional material development. The technologies used for distance education fall into two categories: telecommunications technologies that connect instructors to distant learners and classroom technologies that record, present, and display instructional information.

This paper, thus, describes common media selection models and suggests strategies for the design of media combinations for a better learning. Indeed, the paper is concluded with the media design implementation in a distance education and showed some questions to consider when selecting media such as- how accessible is a particular technology for learners?; what are the best technologies for supporting this teaching and learning. The result is information and decision making model that assists in the selection of appropriate teaching technologies to enhance student learning.

Keywords: design, distance education, media selection, technology

INTRODUCTION

In this fast growing world, it is very difficult to assume that anyone would be able to live without communication technologies (radios, televisions, telephones, and the latest forms of communication such as computers and cell phones). Educational systems are changing at great speed and the technology is changing rapidly. Older technology is replaced by new technological phenomena and the new ones are being adopted and these are affecting the educational systems.

Generally, Distance learning and education, is a field of education that focuses on technology and instructional systems design incorporated in delivering education to students who are NOT physically "on site" to receive their education. The historical evolution of distance education has been in four main phases, each with its own organizational form derived from the main form of communication. These are in summary Correspondence systems are originated at the end of the 19th

Century, and is still the most widely used form of distance education in less developed countries. Based around a study guide in printed text and often accompanied by audio and video components such as records and slides, interaction in the correspondence method is by letters and other written or printed documents sent through postal systems (Ugur, 2010).

Another advantage of distance education is that it can provide students with the opportunity to move through course material at a self-set pace, which increases meaning for them. If students are able to construct their own meaning, the content will be more relevant. An advantage of using modalities such as chat rooms and e-mail aids students who are apprehensive about participating in large-group settings. These no threatening environments allow those students to be less self-conscious and more apt to participate and communicate their ideas and questions (Alhalabi, 2000).

In order to understand new coming technology and media, distance education researchers so often run media comparison studies. They mainly ask research questions such as "Which media or technology is better for learning?" or "What media or technology type is superior to traditional learning?" or "Is a new media or technology is really working better than others?" Or "which media type has superiority to others or if one new media (and related technologies) type shows more benefits than the others?" In many articles researchers; who are discussing the media; try to answer these questions. They want to if a specific media type works properly and if this

media have some significant learning outcomes over the students learning (Ilker Yengin, 2010).

DEFINING DISTANCE EDUCATION

Distance education was as institution-based, formal education where the learning group is separated, and where interactive telecommunications systems are used to connect learners, resources, and instructor's definition has gained wide acceptance. While Figure 1 presents a timeline of distance learning, Figure 2 traces the —genealogy of distance learning by depicting its early origins to the application of communication media (technology enabled) to computer mediated and electronically assisted learning throughout the past 120 years (Jolly, 2009; Michael Simonson, 2013). For an activity to be considered distance education it should include—at minimum—the following (Jolly, Philip, 2010, p 7):

- Physical distance between the student and the teacher – the most obvious element
- An organization that provides the content – in contrast to purely self-directed learning
- A curriculum – learning must have an objective and therefore must have structure
- Measurement of learning – without which no learning can be observed to have taken place

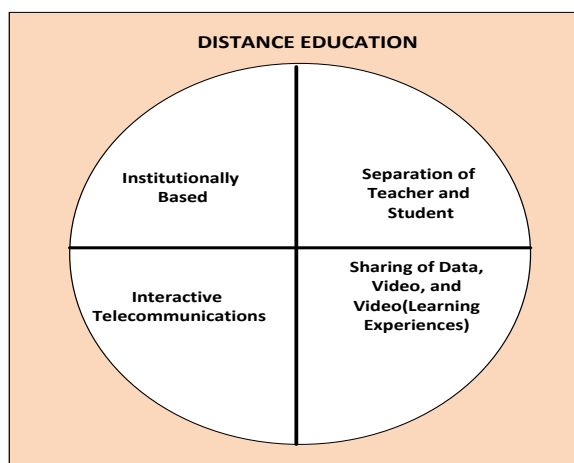


FIGURE 1: A timeline of Distance Learning (Michael Simonson, 2013)



FIGURE 2. Traces the —Genealogy of Distance Learning (Jolly, Philip, 2010)

STRENGTHS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION SYSTEMS

In any system, as well as distance education systems, there are some advantages over weaknesses and disadvantages. Strengths are described as follow (Tang, 2009):

1. Class sessions are smoother.
2. Texts and graphics are presented more effectively.
3. More courses are offered.
4. An opportunity to deliver instructional materials and teaching strategies through different media is provided.
5. More diverse groups of learners are gathered.
6. Easier chance of accessibility is given to the learner.

7. Independent learning is granted to the learner.
8. More control over instructional materials is produced.
9. An opportunity to improve pedagogic qualities is given.
10. Staff development results.
11. In the long term, more money is saved.
12. More enjoyment is elicited in learning by learner.

TYPES OF MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGIES IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

According to Bates, “medium is a form of communication associated with particular ways of representing knowledge”. Every media presents knowledge and/or information differently. However, each new medium makes the media selectors’ job harder. How should educators and trainers go about selecting media? A number of media selection models have been developed in an attempt to answer this question. In the 1970s to 1980s there was a rapid development of media selection models. Since the designing of media selection models was nearly simultaneous, according to Romiszowski (1988), there are many similarities among the models. Some of the main differences, however, between these models are the methodology of task analysis to define the instructional objectives of the lesson, and the instrumentation and type of job aids used in the selection process.

Media Selection Models

Media selection analysis must evaluate general and specific criteria, including instructional, student, and cost aspects for each delivery technology (or instructional medium) to ensure that the most appropriate media are selected for specific education or training objective. Tony Bates’s ACTIONS model is one of the clearest criteria for selection of media (Bates, 1995). ACTIONS is an acronym for access, costs, teaching and learning, interactivity and user-friendliness, organizational issues, novelty, and speed. Table 1 shows Bates's ACTIONS model for selecting media (Susan Lambert, 1999)

Table 1. Bates's ACTIONS model for selecting Media (Susan Lambert, 1999).

Accessibility	Is the equipment your program requires available to the learners? Where will they be learning? At home? In the workplace? At a learning center?
Cost	Are the costs of production, delivery, and maintenance using this technology affordable? Are the costs appropriate to the number of learners who will be enrolled?
Teaching ability	Does the technology convey the level of facts, attitudes and skills your program requires? Is it suited to the kinds of learning required?
Interactivity and user-friendliness	Is the technology user -friendly? Can it convey adequate and timely feedback to the learner?
Organization	How open is your organization to change and the introduction of new media
Novelty	Is it important to your organization to be 'leading edge'? Is this a technology that learners will want to try?
Speed	How fast can your program implement this technology? How much training do staff and students need in order to be able to use it? Will its use enable you to revise your materials as quickly as you need to?

The methods of presenting knowledge and the types of media in distance education are (Medeja, Matja, 2001):

- Textual presentation → worded media (printed material)
- Audio presentation → sonic media
- Video presentation → video media
- Computer presentation → combined media and multimedia

No one aspect of the media is more effective or more suitable than another. The combinations of media used define the quality of the presented study material. An appropriate media for distance education must have the following criteria:

1. Media, which can be used by all students and to which they have assured access.

2. Adaptability, which means that the media can be used in the place and in at the time best suited to the student.
3. Media, which enables a student's active participation in distance education.
4. Possibility to connect any particular media with others, thus enabling an assessment of the nonverbal diction of the distance education participants to take place.

This communication process between participants in distance education simulates near reality. At the same time geographic and time differences in their communication becomes insignificant during the study process.

The role of technologies in distance education

That it is to enable the media activity and to enable the transmission and presentation of knowledge and information. There are several technologies that enable media activity such as: Audio presentation of knowledge can be performed using audiocassettes, radio and telephone. Video presentation can be performed using television transmission, videocassettes, CD-ROM, satellite transmission, cable transmission, microwaves.

- ✓ One way transmission: These technologies do not enable student interaction, which means that the student is a passive participant in distance education These kinds of technologies are radio and television
- ✓ Tow way transmission: These technologies enable student interaction, which means that the student is an active participant in distance education. These kinds of technologies are videoconference, computer communication and interactive television.

In regard to the time differences in communication between the student and the teacher or among students, the technologies that enable two-way transmission of information can be:

- Asynchronous ("time-delayed") - technologies where the teacher or the student can take part in the communication process whenever they wish. For example: e-mail.
- Synchronous ("real-time") – technologies where the teacher or the student takes part in the process of communication in stantaneously at the time of communication, where there are no time differences between the information and return information. For example: teleconference, chat-room and telephone. Table 2 show Distance education technologies in regard to time and place

Table 2. Distance Education Technologies in regard to Time and Place
(Medeja, Matja, 2001)

PLACE		
TIME	The same	Different
The same	Synchronous technologies	
	1. Interaction assured- example: study material projecting	2. Interaction assured-example: teleconference, telephone.
		Interaction not assured - example: television, radio,..
Different	Asynchronous technologies	
	3. Interaction assured- example: electronic mail, WBT,...	4. Interaction assured-example: electronic mail, newsgroups, WBT,...
	Interaction not assured - example: video, audio recordings	Interaction not assured example: printed material, video and audio recordings, CDs, DVDs

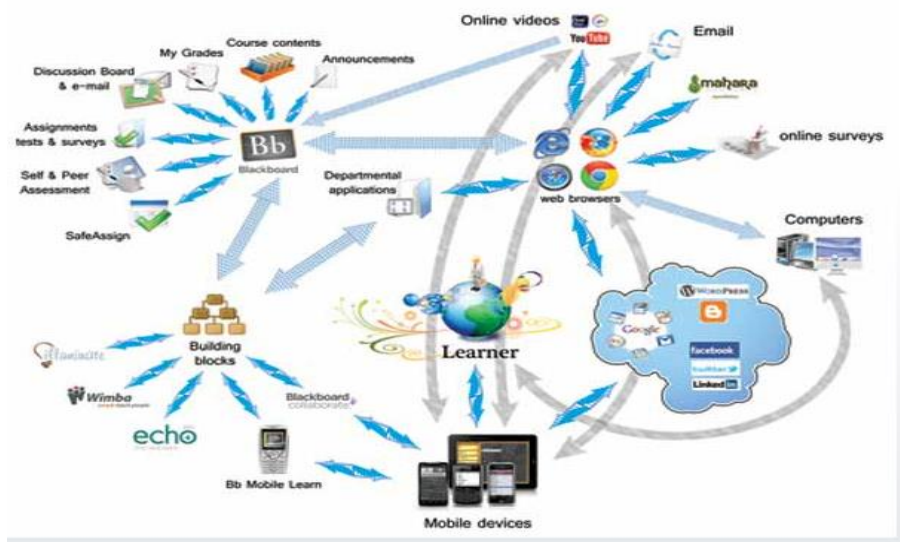


FIGURE 3. Technical Environment (Medeja, Matja, 2001).

INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION

The adoption of appropriate instructional media can also be seen as an effective way to ensure learners' independence where greater responsibility for learning is placed on the learners. As instructional designers of distance education courses or programs, it is important to know the strengths and weaknesses of instructional media for distance education. It is important also that we take a system view of how instructional media technologies we choose impact all components of distance education delivery system (Mario Eliezer, 2011).

Table 3. Asynchronous Instructional Media (Mario Eliezer, 2011)

Factors				
Media	Learner	Interaction	Access	Cost
Asynchronous	Autonomy/Control			
	Print	Can be read in a linear fashion or in a self-designated pattern High comfort level	Little or no interactivity	Availability of existing content Low set up and operating costs
	Recorded video	Can be used at learner's own pace and time, full control	little interaction	Easy access Self-paced instruction Inexpensive Easily duplicate
	Recorded audio	Can be used at learner's own pace and time, full control	little interaction	Self-paced instruction Inexpensive Easily duplicate
	Computer-based instruction	self-pacing and a high degree of learner control over the learning process	High levels of interactivity	Self-paced instruction Convenient in time, flexible Inexpensive
	Asynchronous Web-based instruction	Full control of learning experience Can be used at learner's own pace and time	Immediate feedback to learners More collaboration	Worldwide access Convenient in time, flexible Inexpensive if the learner has access to the necessary infrastructure
	Instructional television	Very little learner control (VCR)	No real immediacy of interaction	Ease of access Inexpensive

Table 4. Synchronous Instructional Media (Mario Eliezer, 2011)

	Factors				
	Media	Learner Autonomy/Control	Interaction	Access	Cost
	Audio conferencing	No learner autonomy/control	No interaction	Easily accessible	Inexpensive
	Instructional television	Self-learning, learner can retrieve materials remotely	High level of Interaction	Instantaneous high quality access to digital information	Inexpensive
	Satellite e-learning	Can be used at learner's own pace and time, full control	little interaction	Easy access Self-paced Instruction	The technology and infrastructure required to sustain satellite e-learning is very costly Learner equipment is relatively low cost
Synchronous	Video teleconferencing	No learner autonomy/control	Best suited for collaboration Enable	Ease of access	Less expensive with the move of voIP and video-over-

		high- level of interaction		IP
Synchronous Web-based Instruction	Less learner control	Immediate feedback to learners More collaborati on	Convenient in time, flexible	Inexpensiv e if the learner has access to the necessary infrastructu re Can be cost effective for student
Audio graphics	Little learner control pace and time	Immediate feedback to learners Medium level of interaction	Ease of access	Cost- effective Low set-up and operating costs;

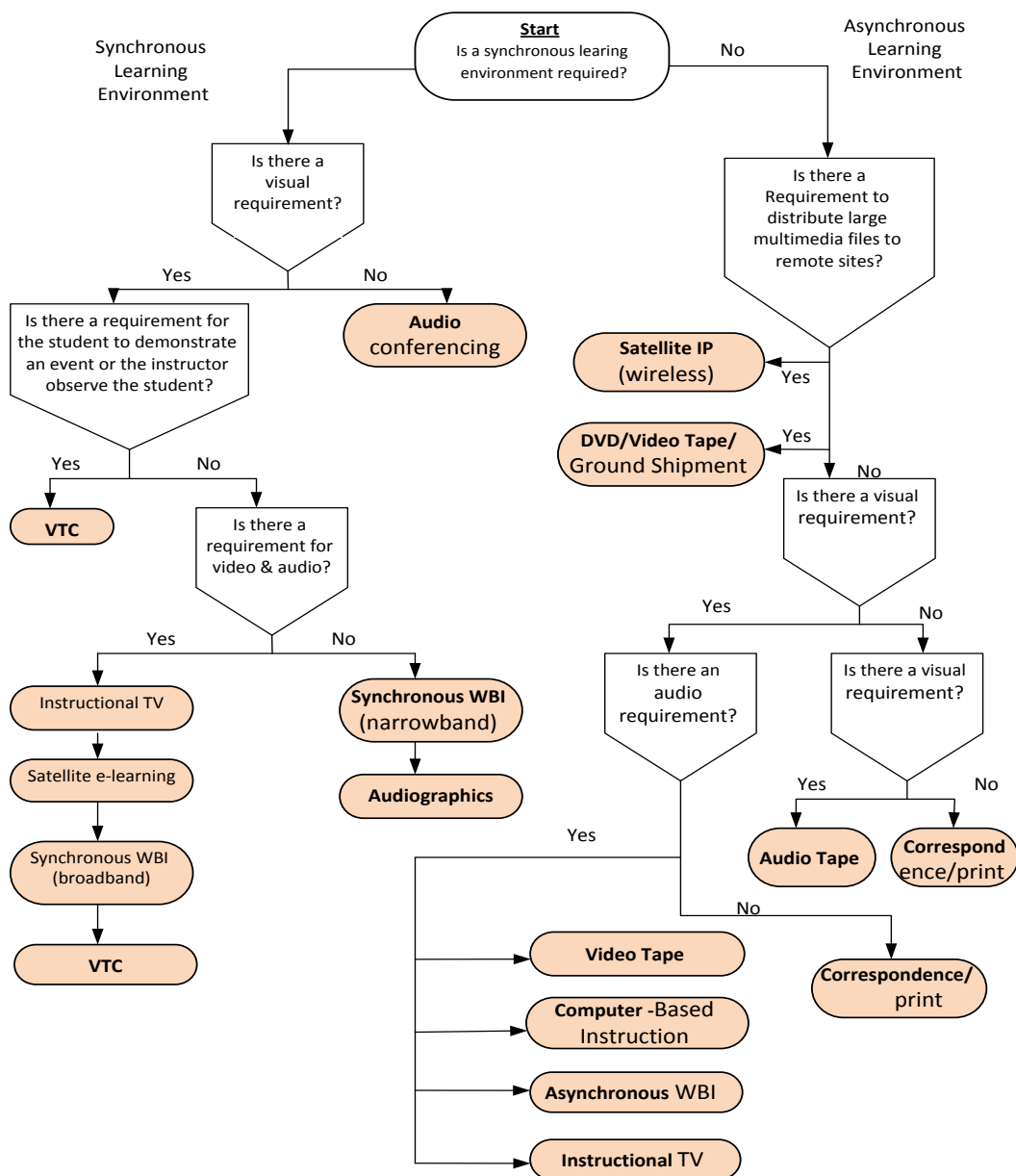


FIGURE 7: Distance Learning Instructional Media Selection Matrix (Jolly,2009)

THE LATEST TECHNIQUES EMPLOYED FOR DISTANCE LEARNING The Virtual Class Room System CENTRA¹

Virtual classrooms provide lectures on the Internet based on the smart classroom environment and essential elements needed by both teacher and student. One of the main instruments in the system of Open Interactive distance education, a technique that is the most advanced in the world and future training and education in general.

The Features of Virtual Class Room System (CENTRA):

1. Live Interaction [Face to Face]: It enables the teacher to begin a Live open discussion by engaging various tools, such as Video and Virtual Whiteboard.
2. Multipurpose Interactive Web pages can be saved for future referencing.
3. Text Messaging and Screen shots.
4. Voting by Yes /No, instant Surveys, Hand raising for answering, Text Chat and Voice Messaging.

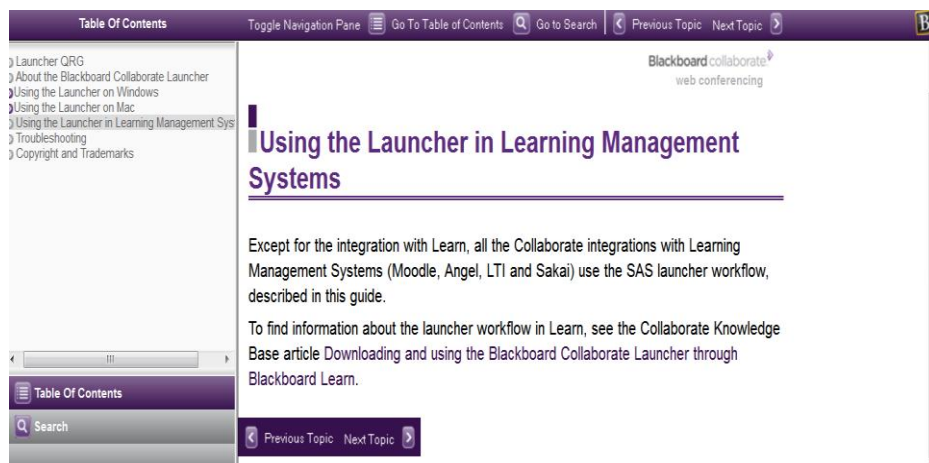
The System requirements for Virtual Class Room System (CENTRA):

- Personal Computer System [with Sound Card and Modem]
- Windows Operating System
- Web Browser
- Web Camera
- Speakers and Microphone
 - CENTRA Client Program (The file available on Deanship of Distance Learning official web site.)

The E-Learning Management Electronic System / EMES²

An integrated computer system that manages the educational process sensing where this system aims to facilitate the process of interaction between student and faculty member.

Since studies have shown that the best module for distance education is an example of the diverse methods and called Blended Solution. This module requires the provision of management systems of distance education provides interaction between student and faculty article as shown in Figure 8.

FIGURE 8: Blackboard (Web Conferencing)²

CONCLUSION

Distance education is a kind of education in which teacher and learner are separated and instructional materials are carried through telecommunication systems. Many universities across the world have used this system of learning and have had successful experiences with it. While using distance education, there are limitations, strengths, and affecting variables that should be considered in advance. This paper presented the different factors and elements impacting the selection and use of instructional media in distance education from the learners' perspective.

The paper showed that in the design of distance education there is no one best instructional media. Usually to produce the best distance education courses a combination of instructional media is always the best approach to take in order to meet the learning objectives. The quality and effectiveness of distance learning are determined by instructional design and technique, the selection of appropriate technologies, and the quality of interaction afforded to learners.

REFERENCES

- Alhalabi, B., Hamza, M., Marcovitz, D., & Petrie, M. (2000). REMOTE LABS: AN INNOVATIVE LEAP IN ENGINEERING DISTANCE EDUCATION. Paper presented at *the IFAC/IEEE Symposium on Advances in Control Education*, Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia.
- Arafeh, S. (Ed.) (2004). THE IMPLICATIONS OF INFORMATION & COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION: LOOKING TOWARD THE FUTURE (Final Report). Retrieved from http://www.sri.com/policy/csted/reports/sandt/it/Distance_Ed_Lit_Review_FINAL_6-9-04.pdf
- Ilker Yengin, Adem Karahoca, Dilek Karahoca, Hüseyin Uzunboylu(2010). DECIDING WHICH TECHNOLOGY IS THE BEST FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION: *Issues in media/technology comparisons studies*. Procedia Computer Science 3 (2011) 1388–1395
- Jolly T. Holden, Philip J.-L. Westfall(2010). *AN INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA SELECTION GUIDE FOR DISTANCE LEARNING*. 2nd edition. Publisher, National distance learning week, United States Distance Learning Association USDLA
- Mario Eliezer Calixte (2011). *INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA SELECTION AND USAGE IN DISTANCE EDUCATION DESIGN*. Instructional Design for Distance Learning Professor Barbara Lockee.
- Medeja Brglez, Matja Debevc, Ivan Gerliè, Brane Šmitek, Dean Korosec(2001). *INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATION OF DISTANCE EDUCATION*. Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science. University of Maribor
- Michael Simonson, Sharon Smaldino, Michael Albright, Susan Zvacek (2013). *TEACHING AND LEARNING AT A DISTANCE FOUNDATIONS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION*. Fourth ed., ISBN-13: 978-0-13-513776-5, from www.pearsonhighered.com
- Susan Lambert, Rhys Williams, (1999). A MODEL FOR SELECTING EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGIES TO IMPROVE STUDENT LEARNING. *HERDSA Annual International Conference, Melbourne*, 12-15 July
- Tang, Y. (2009). PLACING THEORY INTO PRACTICE: AN EXPLORATION OF LIBRARY SERVICES TO DISTANCE LEARNERS AT JACKSONVILLE STATE UNIVERSITY. *Journal of Library & Information Services in Distance Learning*, 3(3-4):p173-181. ERIC (EJ870594).

Ugur DEMIRAY (2010). CASES ON CHALLENGES FACING E-LEARNING AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: *Institutional Studies and Practices*. Vol1, Anadolu University, Eskisehir-Turkey

¹ Virtual Class Room System, user guided. From website
<http://centra.kau.edu.sa>

² Website <http://emes.kau.edu.sa>

Problems of Acquiring Academic Skills in Children with Learning Disability

Widad S. Shakir (Instructor)

Lana I. Abdullah (Instructor)

Salahaddin University –Erbil

Salahaddin University -Erbil

e-mail: sewda98@rocketmail.com

e-mail: lanamufty@ymail.com

ABSTRACT

This paper investigated problems of acquiring academic skills in children with learning disability. Children having learning disabilities do not acquire academics skills as fast as normal children. The learning disabilities dealt with include dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia and dyspraxia. The researchers predicted that learning disabled children fail in acquiring academic skills, and that heredity and social/or family problems contribute to learning disability and also that the rate of learning disability is not the same among the two genders. The researchers carried out a field research in selected public basic schools that offer special education in Erbil city. The aim was to investigate closely the kinds of disability each child manifested and the factors that increased the degree of disability and also to find out which of the two genders is more liable to manifest learning disability. The results of the research supported the predictions; Learning disabled children are unable to acquire academic skills properly. Cases of the influence of heredity and social problems were detected. The study also revealed that boys are more liable than girls to manifest learning disability.

Keywords: Learning Disability, Special Education, Dyslexia, Invisible Disabilities.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is noticed that children do not have the same ability in learning i.e. one can learn faster than another while there are children who are slow in learning and acquiring knowledge. These children are said to be having some kind of learning disability (LD) (Hetherington, Parke, Gauvain & Lacke, 2006, pp. 447, 448). There are different kinds of LD such as dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia, dyspraxia, autism and sight problems (Types of Learning Disabilities, 2009, para.1, 5, 4, 6, 7). The researchers investigated these learning disabilities (LDs) discarding those that result from physical impairment or mental retardation (blindness or autism) in selected public basic schools that offer special education and have teachers and rooms for this purpose in Erbil city. The aim was to detect the LDs children in those schools manifested.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA] defined LD (as cited in Cunningham, n. d., "What's the Difference", para.2), as "a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes that manifests itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, spell or to do mathematical calculations". LD can also influence individuals' lives, thinking, as well as family life and behavior with peers. (Learning Disabilities Association [LDA], 2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.2). Myklebust (1964) (as cited in Williams, 1974, p.1-22) stated that LDs are the result of improper function of the brain. He continued saying that children with LDs though are diagnosed as having "neurological impairment", this impairment is not proved in some of those having LDs.

Researches proved that learning disabled children do not have any problems in their brains but their nervous system functions differently and most of those children have Attention-Deficit/ Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) besides having social and family troubles (Silver, 2005, pp.1- 22). Though ADHD is not a kind of LD, it is proved that 30- 50% of individuals having ADHD suffer from some kind of LD and this contributes to the complicating of the learning process more and more (LDA, 2015, "Types of Learning disabilities", para.15).

In children with LDs there seems to be a "gap" between what is expected from them to achieve, as they seem normal individuals, and what they really achieve. This made experts refer to such children as having "hidden" or "invisible" disabilities. (LDA, 2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.4 & Logsdon, 2013, para.1). Yet; those individuals can "blend with the crowd" (Logsdon, 2013, para.3) without being identified as learning disabled and they may feel happy as they join "non-academic activities" more successfully than normal ones (para.3).

Children having LD stay learning disabled throughout their life (Logsdon 2014, para.1, 3), because Hetherington et.al (2006, p. 448) stated that LDs are of different kinds and this makes experts face difficulty in finding the exact way to improve the disability in those children. The symptoms of LDs can be diagnosed by parents and teachers when children seem unable to achieve and acquire knowledge (Logsdon 2014, para.1, 3), but if those children are supported, they can read and write and develop their academic and social life (Lexicon Reading Center [LRC], n. d. c, "Do You Know?" & Silver, 2005, pp. 1-22) and even their memory can be improved "but they lag two to four years behind" (Alloy, Riskind and Manos, 2005, p.475).

In the United States, the number of "disabled" children outnumber five million half of whom suffer from LDs. These LDs are of different kinds (Hetherington et.al, 2006, p. 448). Among the different kinds of LDs only the ones that children manifest in regard to acquiring academic skills are focused in this paper and these include the following:

1. Dyscalculia: Though the degree of inability in math is not the same in all children, children suffering from dyscalculia have difficulty in understanding, writing and saying in their correct order numbers and mathematical signs, in solving problems correctly and also failure in knowing time (Alloy et.al, 2005, p.474, Types of Learning Disabilities, 2009, para.5 & LDA, 2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.9).
2. Dysgraphia: Dysgraphia causes children problems in writing and "fine motor skills". These children also have unreadable writing, use uneven spaces between words and letters and have bad spelling (LDA, 2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.10).
3. Dyslexia: Dyslexia influences children's reading. These children are not fluent in reading, and are bad in remembering, writing, and spelling. It may also influence the articulation of words. This disorder is called "Language Based Learning Disability" (LDA, 2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.11). Dyslexic children are also slow, do not understand what they are reading and they omit, deform words or they replace them by others (Alloy et.al, 2005, p.474). The percentage of individuals with dyslexia ranges between 5%- 17% in the US but diagnosing children with dyslexia cannot be decided until children start school (LRC, n. d. a, "Do you know?" para.1).
4. Dyspraxia: Dyspraxia disorder causes problems in "muscle control" or "motor tasks" such as troubles in moving, walking, balancing oneself, holding pencil, speaking and learning. Despite not being a kind of LD, it accompanies dyslexia, dyscalculia or ADHD (LDA, 2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.16 & Types of learning Disabilities, 2009, para.7).

Silver (2005, pp.1-22) and Logsdon (2014, para10) stated that LDs are inherited so learning disabled children have parents or family members having LDs. Types of Learning Disorders (2009, para15) attributed the causes of LD, besides heredity, to problems during pregnancy or birth, accidents after birth, social environment factors and gender confirming that boys are more liable than girls to have LDs (para.15).

LDA (2015, "Types of Learning Disabilities", para.2, 3) stated that children can be identified to be having LD at school age. After attending school teachers can realize those children as having problems as they notice the way children read, write, and/ or do math. Sometimes children with LDs are not identified as having such problems until late or in other cases they are never diagnosed with LDs. This makes them and their families not recognize the reason for their failure in their academic and sometimes also in their social life but though LDs differ from problems of learning that pertain to physical impairment, Alloy et.al (2005, p.474) stated that the most outstanding problem of children in this group is sight impairment.

Some parents do not recognize or admit that their children have LDs and some think if their children worked harder, they could achieve better but it is important for parents to know their children's strong and weak points and if parents do not recognize their children's trouble, another problem will arise (Silver, 2005, pp. 1-22)

All children are given the chance of learning and there is also a need for society to enable children with disabilities to achieve well in their learning (Arends, 2007, pp. 10, 11, 54). But it is noticed that one among five children with LDs give up school because first they have no hope to learn and second because of "preconceived" opinion people have about LDs (LRC, n. d. b, "Five Myths about Learning Disabilities", para.1). Children with LD undergo schooling in a different way. So those children are to be provided with different curriculum to cope with their abilities that are below the normal level and the "activities" that are devoted to them should be within their abilities (Arends, 2007, pp. 10, 11, 54).

Experts hold two different viewpoints regarding children with LDs; some hold the idea of "inclusion" (Hetherington et.al, 2006, p. 449). While others are against this view and ask for separating those children from normal ones because inclusion may harm them psychologically.

Arends (2007) made a compromise. He supported the idea of inclusion for learners who do not have serious LDs but children with more serious LDs should spend part of their time with normal children, at the same time "special educator" has to be assigned inside or outside of regular classroom, and the children have to be educated in special classrooms (p. 53).

Parents will be worried about their learning disabled children and their future and the way they do schooling. They must know that their children are as intelligent as others but their teaching should be in a way that suits their "learning styles" (Learning Disabilities and Disorders, n. d., para.4, 5), but parents have to know about the kind of disability their children have and be comforted if treated early, their children can perform successfully (Types of Learning Disabilities, 2009, para.1). Teachers trained in special education, using special programs for this purpose and programs devoted for teaching those children individually can be of great help to this group of children (Logsdon, 2014, para.4). Therefore; parents should not refrain from asking for Individualized Education Plan (IEP). IPE will help their children be normal learners and have good social relations with peers and family members (Types of Learning Disabilities, 2009, para.11).

IEP is necessary for children with LDs. In order to develop IEP, it is recommended that there should exist a committee comprising "the regular classroom teacher, the child's parents, the special education teacher, and other staff who may be helpful, such as psychologists, speech therapists...." (Arends, 2007, p.53).

Before learners are assigned to special education, several things are needed; several kinds of test should be given and the learners' background and language should be taken into consideration, parents should be informed about their children's disabilities and their assent should be taken before taking any action and teachers should always have contact with parents of learning disabled children (Arends, 2007, pp. 54, 56).

The researchers carried out a field research to investigate the children that are identified with LDs to find out the area of LDs each one manifests, the degree of the disability, factors such as heredity and social/or family problems that increase LD and the difference in its rate in regard of the two genders in selected public basic schools offering special education in Erbil city.

2. THEORY

The researchers predicted that children with LD are not able to acquire academic skills as normal children; they have problem in acquiring one or more of those skills. The researchers also predicted that there are factors that increase LD such as heredity or social/or family problems and also to be difference in the rate of LD among the two genders.

3. METHODOLOGY

To collect data, the researchers chose two public basic primary schools which offer special education. The researchers got the assent of the Deanery of the College of Languages, The Directorate General of Education and the schools concerned before visiting the schools. The researchers visited the schools (7) times to observe the children and test their areas of difficulty. The schools chosen were Basic Zaniary Primary School and Basic Hawar Primary School. These schools are qualified for offering special education (the second one being more qualified) in having special rooms, specialized teachers and adequate system for special education.. The study was done in winter 2014- 2015. Fourteen children (eleven boys and three girls) were the data for the study. Their ages range from (6- 13). The researchers observed learning disabilities in those children examining their comprehension, reading ability, writing ability, and math level. Children with LDs are classified into two groups; children with mild LDs and children with severe LDs. The teachers of special education and the managers of the mentioned schools were a great help for the researchers in offering information about each single child (Table 1).

Table1. Information on children with LDs

Case	Gender	Age	LD severity
1	Female	12	Mild
2	Male	11	Mild
3	Male	13	Severe
4	Male	11	Severe
5	Male	11	Mild
6	Male	12	Severe
7	Male	10	Mild
8	Male	13	Severe
9	Male	8	Severe
10	Male	9	Severe
11	Female	9	Severe
12	Male	11	Severe
13	Female	9	Severe
14	Male	6	Mild

3. RESULT

The researchers predicted that learning disabled children fail in acquiring academic skills properly, that heredity and social/or family problems contribute to have LD and that there is difference in the rate of having LD regarding the two genders. The results of the research supported the researches' predictions; children with LDs are unable to acquire academic skills. The study also revealed that heredity (Silver, 2005, pp.1-22 & Logsdon, 2014, para10) and social/or family problems have role in having LD and that boys are more liable than girls to have LDs(Types of Learning Disorders, 2009, para15). Those children have no problems with social relationships. They can build up friendship, communicate with others, and even cooperate in special situations (Logsdon, 2013, para.3).

Children with LDs have problems in reading (dyslexia) and writing (dysgraphia). These children are unable to recognize letters well. They can hardly combine letters to make words. They know most of the words from the pictures drawn next to them. The miss recognition of letters leads to misspelling of words.

Children with dyscalculia face problems in recognizing numbers and symbols and also in estimating time, shape, and distance. Mathematical operations and counting are considered as big problems in learning math (Table 2).

The researchers did not observe dyspraxia in the chosen data. All the children can hold pen. The children can play football, catch and bounce a ball. Balance in walking and sitting was also observed. Thus, the children could act and move normally.

4. DISCUSSION

Children with severe and mild LDs have a normal comprehension level in social life but the problem arises when it is related to comprehending and understanding school subjects. This supports the researchers' prediction. Concerning dyslexia, the researchers observed that all children with severe LDs (nine children with the rate 64.28%) cannot read words. They have poor recognition of words (Table 2). Four of these children (No.8,9 10 and 11) have poor recognition of letters while the rest have very poor recognition of letters. Most of these children recognize words from the pictures drawn next to them, except child No. 4 who even finds difficulties in recognizing the pictures which are next to the words. Three children with mild LDs

Table 2 areas of disability in children with LD'

C	Dyslexia		Dysgraphia		Dyscalculia
a	Recognizing letters	Reading	Writing letters	Writing	Recognizing digits, counting, mathematical operations
s	words		words		
e					
1	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor in all
2	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair in all
3	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor in first and third, poor in second
4	Very poor	Very poor	poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
5	Fair	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor in all
6	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
7	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Fair in first and poor in second and third
8	Poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Poor in first and very poor in second and third
9	Poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
10	Poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
11	Poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
12	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
13	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor	Very poor in all
14	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor in all

(No. 2, 7 and 14) have poor recognition of letters and reading words, while two of them (No.1 and 5) have fair ability of recognizing letters and poor recognition of words. All children with mild LDs know words if pictures drawn next to them. Concerning dysgraphia, all of the children with severe LDs have a very poor ability to spell out words. Five of them (No.3, 6, 8, 12 and 13) have a very poor ability to write letters while the rest (No.9, 10 and 11) have poor ability of writing letters. All the children with mild LDs have poor ability of writing words and letters except No.1 and 5 who have fair ability of writing letters. Children with dyscalculia have problems in math. The majority of children with severe LD in math are very poor at recognizing digits, counting, and doing mathematical operations. Nearly all children with mild LD in math have poor ability in all the mentioned items. The researchers observed that children with dyscalculia feel frustrated and anxious whenever a math question is addressed to them. Holding interviews with teachers, the researchers were informed that most of those children are underestimated by their parents. They are insulted for being dumb and useless. In fact, the majority of parents are unaware of their children's LDs and they consider them as being unintelligent. Some of these children live in difficult circumstances. Child No. 4 is deprived from his mother. The mother has been divorced and not allowed to see her son. Child No.2 is an orphan and lives with his father and step mother. He is imprisoned at home, used by the step mother for house work. Thus, the environments these children live in make them stay learning disabled. Teachers of the two mentioned schools

suggest that one way of helping these children is to cooperate with their families to improve the learning disabilities. They also insist in having modern equipment in teaching them, like using PowerPoint and sound system since beautiful pictures and nice tones of voice will lead to better understanding (LRC, n. d. c, "Do You Know?" & Silver, 2005, pp. 1-22). Not only environmental factors affect these children but also the genetic one (Silver, 2005, pp.1-22 & Logsdon, 2014, para10) which was supported by the result of the study. Observing the data, the researchers found that child No.3 and 5 are brothers, child No. 7 and 9 are cousins while child No.1 has a twin sister who is also learning disabled. The results also supported the prediction that boys are more liable than girls to be learning disabled (three girls with the rate of 21.42% and 11 boys with the rate of 78.57). Patience is needed in treating these children. Even if a child messes up the whole class, the child should not be treated with sarcasm. LD though is not curable and it is lifelong, special treatments can help to a limited extent (Types of Learning Disabilities, 2009, para.11).

5. CONCLUSION

To conclude, children with learning disabilities have problems in reading, writing, math, and comprehending school subjects but the problem is doubled in the case of children with severe LDs. Children with LDs, whether severe or mild have normal social life. They have friends and share group playing. Environmental, social, family and genetic factors are responsible for having or increasing the rate of LD. Learning disabilities are not curable but cooperation between parents and school with the help of modern technology might lessen these disabilities to some extent.

6. RECOMMENDATION

To minimize the problems of children with LD in acquiring academic skills, it is recommended:

1. starting special departments in related colleges to graduate teachers specialized in this area,
- 2 providing special schools and programs for studying and testing children with LD or
3. separating learning disabled children from normal ones till they end primary stage.

References

- Alloy L. B., Riskind J. H. & Manos M. J. (2005). *Abnormal psychology: Current prosoectives*. 9th ed. New York. NY: McGrawHill
- Arends R. I. (2007). *Learning to Teach*. 7th ed. NY: McGraw-Hill Online Resources
- Cunningham B. (2014, October 7). "What's the difference between learning disabilities and learning and attention issues?" *Understood for learning and attention issues*. Retrieved from [https://www.understood.org/en/learning-attention-issues/getting-started/what-you-need-to-now/difference-between-learning-disabilities-and-learning-and-attentionissues](https://www.understood.org/en/learning-attention-issues/getting-started/what-you-need-to-know/difference-between-learning-disabilities-and-learning-and-attentionissues). Accessed 13/12/2014
- Learning Disabilities and Disorders (n. d.). Retrieved from <http://www.helpguide.org/articles/learning-disabilities>. Accessed 15/12/2014
- Hetherington E.M., Parke R.D., Gauvain M. & Locke V.O. (2006). *Child Psychology: A Contemporary Viewpoint*. 6th ed. NY: McGraw- Hill Online Resources
- Learning Disabilities Association of America (2015). "Types of learning disabilities" Retrieved from <http://ldaamerica.org/typesoflearningdisabilities>. Accessed 2/1/2015
- Lexicon Reading Center (n. d. a). "Do you know"? Retrieved from <http://www.lexiconreadingcenter.org/about>. Accessed 5-1-2015
- Lexicon Reading Center (n. d. b). "Five mythes about learning disabilities". Retrieved from <http://www.lexiconreadingcenter.org/five-mythes>. Accessed 5-1- 2015
- Lexicon Reading Center (n. d. c). "Do you know?" Retrieved from <http://www.lexiconreadingcenter.org/services>. Accessed 5-1-2015
- Logsdon A. (Updated May12, 2013). "What is an Invisible Disability?". Retrieved from <http://learningdisabilities.about.com/od/learningdisabilitybasics/qt/invisibledisab.htm> Accessed 12/12/2014
- Logsdon A.(Updated December 15, 2014). "What are learning disabilities?" Retrieved from <http://learningdisabilities.about.com/whatisld/> Accessed 24/12/2014
- Silver L. B. (2005). "The role of family in helping the child or adolescent with learning disabilities" from *Learning Disabilities: Contemporary Viewpoints* edited by B. J Gratty & R. L. Goldman. Retrieved from <http://gen.lib.rus.ec>. Accessed 25/12/2014

- Types of Learning Disabilities (2009). Retrieved from http://www.understanding_specialeducation.com/types-of-learning-disabilities Accessed 2/1/2015
- Types of Learning Disorders (2009). Retrieved from http://www.understanding_specialeducation.com/types-of-learning-disorders. Accessed 2/1/2015
- Williams J. F. (1974). *Children with Specific Learning Disabilities: The effect of neurodevelopmental learning disorders on children of normal intelligence*. 2nd ed. England: PERGAMON PRESS

Evaluating the Role of Counselors and Counseling in High School Learners' Life in Erbil City- A Field Research

Widad S. Shakir

College of Languages- Salahaddin University-Erbil

e-mail:- sewda98@rocketmail.com

ABSTRACT

The paper investigated the role of counselors and counseling in high school learners' life. It is obvious that learners at this age face lots of problems which influence their life in general and their academic performance in particular. The researcher predicted that learners are in need of counselors and counseling to minimize their problems. The researcher also predicted to be difference(s) between male and female learners' evaluation of the role of counselors and counseling in their lives. The researcher investigated this role of the counselor and also the difference between male and female learners' need to counselors and counseling in public high schools in Erbil city. The researcher conducted a questionnaire to get the data. The results of the questionnaire supported the researcher's predictions and showed that generally learners think it is important to have counselor at school but female learners are more in need of counselors and counseling than males.

Keywords: Achievement, Guidance And Counseling, High School, School Counselor

1. INTRODUCTION

Students at high school are undergoing a period of instability in different areas: in their feelings, in making decisions, and in their behavior. This period of life is a transitional one; it can affect their future life positively or negatively and at this period students try to copy their friends without reason (Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d, b, "High School", para.1, 2). Counseling in this period is necessary to influence students' life, and help them have brighter future by encouraging them to develop their academic achievement (Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d, d, "School Counseling", para.1, 2). The researcher found it interesting to investigate this topic in some public high schools to find if the importance of counseling is true of high school learners' lives in Erbil city.

The society nowadays has become heterogeneous and of full of excitement. This changing society which is due to technology and development has influence on adolescents as they grow and face variety of problems, personal and developmental, which ultimately influence their performance academically. All this necessitates counseling and guidance at this age of learners in order to guide them and be good individuals of the future, be it parents, employees or others (American School Counselor Association ASCA, 2015, "Why Secondary....?" para.1)

Students' life at high school is a period between childhood and maturity. Students are on the verge of being independent individuals trying to look for their identity. At this period, they plan their future; they either start work or join university. They want to be accepted by their fellows and in society as a whole and they are influenced by their friends and their behaviors. They may have problems regarding their emotion and/or using drugs. They also feel that they have become matured and they themselves have to face their financial problems. Besides all these troubles, they have to care for their academic achievement and compete their peers, so guidance and counseling in this period of their life is necessary for them, (ASCA, 2015, "Why Secondary.....?", para.2).

The existence of school counselor is very necessary in education staff. Counselors generally provide support to students in order to enhance their performance academically and develop personally and/ or socially because students at high school are excited and their life is mixture of different kinds of feeling. They look forward to getting their aims and they soon find what is hidden for them when they end high school. Programs for counseling is very necessary for improving students' achievement and getting principles in order to be successful members in society

(LIVINGSTON, May 8, 2013, "Why School ...?", para.1,7). Shanebongay (October 19, 2011) defines guidance and counseling as "a process of helping individuals to understand themselves by discovering their own needs, interests and capabilities in order to formulate their own goals and make plans for realizing those goals" (p. 1).

Counselors at high school are required to give different services among them are developing students' skills academically, preparing them for their life after high school and how to cope with their new life, developing the program of guidance and counseling, working with parents and school teaching members to facilitate their help of the students, counseling individually and in group to develop academic achievement and finally there is another important task and that is how to make students sociable and be able to involve in society (Rex, 2008, p. 27 & Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d. b, "High School", para. 8, 9, 10).

The programs that are associated to guidance and counseling focus on different things among them helping students in their choices after high school, i.e. choices that appeal to them, preparing students for placement tests and supporting them to find jobs (OCTAE, n.d., "College and Career", para. 2). "The overall aim is to provide an opportunity to work towards living more satisfying and reasonable" (Hornby, Hall & Hall, 2003, pp.1- 12).

ASCA states (as cited in Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d. b, "High School", para.4) that the duty of guidance at high school should tackle the problems learners face during their academic life. Therefore, the job of counselors would be to think and look for social and academic problems that influence the learners' ability in performing their academic goals.

For the above reasons, counseling at high school is very hard and also of great importance and counselors may find themselves in troubles and have clashes with staff members (Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d. b, "High School", para.12). Resultantly, the counselor at high school seems to be burdened with lots of responsibilities. So this job of the counselor seems to be "a highly demanding one with expertise needed in psychology, counseling methods and career guidance" (para.3). But at the same time the job of counseling seems to be interesting and enjoyable in the sense that helping students in this critical period to overcome their problems and succeed in their life gives counselors satisfaction and makes them believe that their job is worthy (para.3).

Schools started, besides teaching and learning, the duty of counseling to help learners psychologically, but in the past this job was carried out by the family (Arends, 2007, p.7). Hornby, Hall and Hall (2003, pp. 1-12) state

that besides the counselor, teachers in any school should possess the ability of counseling but one of them should be specialized in counseling.

School counselors know a lot about the learners at their schools and what they know must be kept secret and not tell staff members. The counselor can have information on different aspects of the learners' life, among them are: their interests, the goal of their study, behavioral problems and home life. Yet, there are certain things which counselors can discuss with staff members when students need help and in this way the counselor can help the student as well as the teacher (TenBrink, 1974, pp. 130,131 & Aukerman, 1972, p.319)

Counseling can be individual or in group. As for individual counseling, counselors can point out the problems students have depending on their knowledge and they have to try to find solutions for the problems and if counselors find themselves unable to solve the problems, they can ask staff members for help. (Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d. c, "Individual Counseling", para.1, 2). While group counseling is important for certain reasons; first is saves time because students of the same age having the same problems can be gathered and dealt with their problems to arrive at the same aim. The second reason is that it helps the members to respect each other and behave properly with each other and finally in group counseling the students admit that they share the same problems and this helps students be self-confident and improve their academic achievement. Therefore; the specialist of group counseling must be skillful to bring about this meeting with learners of the similar age. The specialists' skill requires them to try to help unsociable students to participate in what is being discussed and prevent skillfully any member to dominate the discussion (Counseling Education and Career Information, n. d. a "Group Counseling", para.2, 3, 4, 10, 12)

Counselors are specialists in counseling psychology who belong to the educational staff and they can comprehend adolescents' lives, problems and challenges. They do not behave independently. Their job is to help students perform successfully and enhance their achievement to make them adapt to school environment but their i.e. counselors' decisions are within the "educational program" (Smith, Nolen-Hoeksema, Fredrickson, Loftus, Bem & Maren, 2003, p.573 & ASCA, 2015, "Why Secondary....?", para.2).

The researcher predicted that high school learners are highly in need of counseling in order that the problems they face would not influence them and hinder their academic achievement. But what attracted the researcher's attention was that the sources consulted and those conducted in writing the research referred to the importance of counseling in high school learners' lives without referring to the difference in the need to counselor and

counseling between male and female students. The researcher predicted that there should be difference(s) between male and female students in their need to counselors and counseling and also to be difference in the role counselors play in the life of male and female student at high schools. The researcher investigated these two predictions i.e. learners' need to counselor and the difference in the need of male and female learners to counselors. To carry out this investigation, the researcher conducted a questionnaire in four public secondary schools; two for boys and two girls to find whether the two predictions are supported by the results.

2. THEORY

It is predicted that learners at high school are in need of counselors and counseling because they are in a critical age and they are undergoing a period of uncertainty but male and female students differ in their need to counselors and guidance and counseling.

3. METHDOLOGY

To collect data on the role of counselors and counseling in high school learners' lives, an eight-item questionnaire was conducted to measure students' need to counselors and counseling which was filled in by the students as students themselves can decide that; not counselors, teachers or others. The questionnaire was conducted in four public secondary schools in Erbil city; two for boys and two for girls (discarding the questionnaire filled in in Kurdistan Secondary School for boys after knowing that there was no counselor in that school.

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

Two hundred scientific and literary branch students grade (12) participated in filling in the questionnaire. They were from, Rizgary Secondary School for boys, Ahmadi Khani Secondary School for boys, Chiman Secondary School for girls and Hawler Secondary School for girls in Erbil city. In each school (50) students were chosen randomly to fill in the questionnaire. The mean age of the students ranged between (18-20).

3.2. MEASURES

The researcher obtained the data from the questionnaire that was conducted. Eight items were listed on the questionnaire and it included a 5-scale response starting from (strongly agree) to (strongly disagree).

3.3. PROCEDURE

To carry out the questionnaire, the researcher obtained the assent of the Deanery of College of Languages, Directorate of Education and the schools in which the questionnaire was filled in. The students were grouped in study halls and the researcher distributed the questionnaire sheets with the help of the counselors and head assistants in the schools selected. Under each item of the questionnaire, a Kurdish version was provided. Students' questions were explained and they were asked to fill in the questionnaire honestly. Filling in the questionnaire took about (5-12) minutes.

4. RESULTS

The researcher predicted that counselor and counseling is very important in high school students' lives but the importance of this role differs comparing male and female students. The results of the questionnaire that was conducted in, Rizgary Secondary School for boys, Ahmadi Khani Secondary School for boys Chiman Secondary School for girls and Hawler Secondary School for girls revealed this and also the difference in the role counselors and counseling play in the life of both male and female students. What should be taken into consideration is that the participants are grade (12) and they are in need of every minute to be prepared for ministerial examination, but despite that the results supported the researcher's prediction about the importance of counselor in high school learners' lives (ASCA, 2015, "Why Secondary....?", para.1). In general (Table 1), the results in respect to the need to counselor and the usefulness of counseling was satisfactory but the results of female students in this regard were more consistent with what was stated in the sources than the results of male ones (Table 2). In analyzing the results, the researcher depended on the percentages of the students in responding to each item. The results manifested that counselors are more important in female students' lives but less important in male students' lives. The results also showed that students did not receive counseling equally as in the results of the items 4 and 6 but the results of the items 2, 3, 7, and 8 showed that the counselors were doing

their jobs properly and the low rates do not indicate failure but healthy percentages.

Table 1 Questionnaire results for male and female students

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The counselor has a great role in high school students' life.	21.5 %	37%	12.5%	10%	19%
2. Whenever I have a problem, I ask the counselor to advise me and solve my problem.	9%	19.5%	28.5%	17.5%	25.5%
3. The counselor has helped me to go on my study.	5.5%	14.5%	18.5%	22%	39.5%
4. The counselor prepares us for our life at university.	15.5%	24.5%	14.5%	20%	25.5%
5. Guidance and counseling is useful for students.	33%	37.5%	12%	6%	11.5%
6. The counselor talks about social, family and academic problems.	20%	34%	12%	13%	21%
7. The counselor has helped me how to behave with my friends, family members and individuals in the society.	15%	20%	19%	15.5%	30.5%
8. The counselor encourages me to achieve better.	20.5%	31%	16%	13.5%	19%

Table 2 Questionnaire results for male and female students separately

	Variable	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The counselor has a great role in high school students' life.	Male Female	18% 25%	30% 44%	12% 13%	12% 8%	28% 10%
2. Whenever I have a problem, I ask the counselor to advise me and solve my problem.	Male Female	11% 7%	22% 17%	19% 38%	15% 20%	33% 18%
3. The counselor has helped me to go on my study.	Male Female	6 % 5%	8% 21%	18% 19%	24% 20%	44% 35%
4. The counselor prepares us for our life at university.	Male Female	13% 18%	16% 33%	16% 13%	20% 20%	35% 16%
5. Guidance and counseling is useful for students.	Male Female	36% 30%	22% 53%	13% 11%	11% 1%	18% 5%
6. The counselor talks about social, family and academic problems.	Male Female	23% 17%	25% 43%	13% 11%	14% 12%	25% 17%
7. The counselor has helped me how to behave with my friends, family members and individuals in the society.	Male Female	14% 16%	15% 25%	14% 24%	12% 19%	45% 16%
8. The counselor encourages me to achieve better.	Male Female	23% 18%	18% 44%	19% 13%	11% 16%	29% 9%

5. DISCUSSION

The researcher predicted that counselor and counseling has a very important role in the lives of high school students but the importance of this role is different comparing male and female students. In general, the result of the research (Table 1) showed that 58.5% of the students agreed that the counselor has an important role in their live at this stage (ASCA, 2015, "Why Secondary....?", para.1) and 70.5% of them agreed on the usefulness of the counseling they get. This result supports the researcher's prediction to a considerable degree. Counseling on social, family and academic problems, received 54% of the total number. The percentage of the students who agreed on the counselor's encouragement of the students for better achievement was 51.5%. Sixty-one and a half percent of the students disagreed on being helped by the counselor in going on their study. The

remainder percentages were below 50% and the rate of disagreement scale on the items each was higher than agreement scale (Table 1).

Comparing questionnaire results for male and female students separately (Table 2), it is noticed that 69% of female students compared to 48% of male students agreed that the counselor has an important role in high school students' lives. This supported the researcher's prediction in existing difference in the importance of the counselor in the lives of the two genders. The highest positive percentage of female students was on the usefulness of counseling for students and it received 83% while the percentage of male students for the same item was 58% which is the highest percentage of agreement for male students. Concerning enhancing academic achievement, discussing students' social, academic and family problems and preparing students for their life at university received 62%, 60% and 51% respectively from female students while male students agreed to the same items with the percentages of 41%, 48% and 29% respectively and this manifests the difference in the role of counselor in the lives of male and female students. These percentages also support the researcher's prediction. The results also showed that 14% of male students and 26% of female students agreed that the counselor helped them to continue their study. Receiving counseling for future life at university manifests a big difference between the two genders' percentages which received 51% by female students and 29% by male students. These percentages and the percentages for counseling on social and academic problems lead us to believe that there is lack of plan for counseling and also receiving counseling on these topics is not the same in schools for male learners and in those for female ones.

6. CONCLUSION

The result of the research supported the researcher's prediction that the existence of counselor and counseling is important in high school learners' lives and the result also showed the difference between male and female students in their need to counselor and counseling as it was predicted. We can conclude that male students are more dependent on themselves than on the counselor; they can solve their problems with their peers away from school. The smallness of percentages should not lead us to believe that counselor and counseling is a failure in high school students' life in regard to the schools selected. The result presents healthy percentages i.e. if the percentages were higher than those stated, it would have meant that those learners do not live in a normal society and are not experiencing normal schooling. This is on one side; on the other side we can conclude that

students did not receive counseling equally due to the lack of fixed plan for counseling.

7. RECOMMENDATIONS

In order counselors undertake their responsibilities more sincerely, it is recommended that:-

1. related colleges start departments that graduate individuals specialized in counseling,
2. preferably counselors have to have weekly or monthly schedules for counseling not only giving counseling when a member of the staff is not present and,
3. further researches are necessary to investigate whether counselors are satisfied with their job or the pay and/or the long holiday is what matters and also to point out the problems that counselors have with staff members at school due to underestimating their job.

References

- American School Counselor Association ASCA (2015). "Why secondary school counselors?". Retrieved from <http://schoolcounselor.org/school-counselors-members/care>. Accessed 19/1/2015.
- Arends, R.I. (2007). *Learning to teach*. U.S.: McGraw-Hill Online Resources
- Aukerman, R. C.(1972). *Reading in the secondary school classroom*. New York NY:McGraw Hill Book Company
- Counseling Education and Career Information(n.d. a). "Group counseling in a school setting". Retrieved from <http://www.school-counselor.org/topics/group-counseling.html>. Accessed 8/12/2014
- Counseling Education and Career Information (n.d. b) "High school guidance counseling". Retrieved from <http://www.school-counselor.org/high-school-counseling.html>. Accessed 24/12/2014
- Counseling Education and Career Information (n.d. c). "Individual counseling in a school setting". Retrieved from <http://www.school-counselor.org/topics/individual-counseling.html>. Accessed 8/12/2014.

- Counseling Education and Career Information . (n.d. d) "School counseling topics and theories." Retrieved from <http://www.school-counselor.org/topics-html>. Accessed 8/12/2014.
- Hornby G., Hall, C. & Hall, E. (2003). Teachers and counseling. In G. Hornby, C. Hall and E. Hall Counseling pupils in schools: Skills and strategies for teaching. Britain: Routledge Falmer Taylor & Francis Group, 1-12
- LIVINGSTON (May 8, 2013). "Why school counselors?." Retrieved from <http://www.livingston.org/Page/265>. Accessed 23/1/2015
- OCTAE U.S. Department of Education (n.d.). "College and career guidance and counseling". Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ovae/pi/cte/>. Accessed 23/1/2013
- Rex,J (1999). *The south carolina comprehensive developmental guidance and counseling program model:A guide for school counseling programs,prekindergarten through grade twelve*. Revised February 2008. Colombia,South Carolina:Department of Education. Retrieved from <https://ed.sc.gov/agency/programs-services/174/documents/SCCDGCPM06-23-08Final.pdf>
- Shanebongay (October 19, 2011). "Guidance and counseling". Retrieved from <http://www.studymode.com/essays/Guidance-And-Counseling-811100.html>. Accessed 27/12/2014.
- Smith, E. E., Nolen-Hoeksema, S. , Fredrickson, B. L. , Loftus, G. R. , Bem, D. J. & Maren, S. (2003). *Atkinson & Hilgard's Introduction to psycho:log* . 14th ed. U.S. : Thomson learning, Inc.
- TenBrink T. D. (1974). Evaluation: A practical guide for teachers. US: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Definition Of Horyat In Iraqi Turkmen Folk Poetry And Its Etymological Analysis

Zeynel Polat, Başar Batur

PhD, Ishik University MA, Ishik University
zeynel.polat@ishik.edu.iq basar.batur@ishik.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

Horyat is a kind of poetry which is passed generation to the next and written and told as puns and stanzas. Although it is known with different names in different places in the world, it is called horyat among Iraqi Turkmen by functioning as a media to transfer language and culture. It is not needed to be educated to tell and write horyat. Horyat is a national gratification used to carry language and culture of people generation to the next. Generally, it has 4 lines and 7 syllable. There can be change with additional words called “miyan” at the beginning, in the mid or at the end of lines. The aim of this is to point the pun. Horyats are the most important type of Iraqi Turkmen oral folk literature. People who tell horyat are called “horyat ııran” (horyat yeller), “horyat sazlıyan” (horyat player). This type of folk poetry can be found in different names in Iraq.

In this research, we mentioned different variations of horyat in different cultures of Turkish speaking people and ideas of contemporary Turkmen poets and masters of horyat such as Ziyad Akkoyunlu and Ata Terzibasi. Data collection for this research was done with interviews with people who are related with horyat in the region and literature review. This poetry type belongs to Iraqi Turkmen is shown with its function under the influence of dialects of “v” and “y” group; and etymologic varieties of the word are discussed. Our primary aim is not to insist on that the word is hoyrat, horyat, koryat or xoryat etc, but to prefer the correct usage in its meaningful context and to show regional use.

Keywords: Horyat, hoyrat, folk poetry, Iraqi Turkmen literature.

INTRODUCTION

Mankind has been using words to communicate by blending it with oral artistry. Oral literature came before the written one and got the duty to transfer traditions, customs and antiquities from past to present.

Iraqi Turkmens with a rooted history lived under the rule of strong states and seigniories named Buveyhis, Seljuks, Atabeyis, Ilhans, Celayiris, Karakoyunlus, Akkoyunlus, Persians and Ottomans. Turks came to Iraq in 674 (54 in Muslim Calender) (Saatçi, 2007, p.20). Iraqi Turkmens saved their traditions they brought from Oghuzs by carrying them from generation to generations. A nation's language, history, literature, social and political structure, traditions, customs, beliefs and their practices are all consistent with oral products of this nation. Turkish clans sharing the same geography, language and history saved most of their traditions and customs and carried to today (Köse,2003, p.92).

DEFINITION OF HORYAT

Horyat (Gre. Khoriates) is the name of a traditional Turkish quatrain form, mani, among Iraqi Turkmens especially among Kirkuki Turkmens. Horyat, a quatrain form with pun, is one of the poetical forms commonly used in folk literature (Ayverdi, 2008, p.1309). It is mostly told in 4 lines and free style. In Çayırbayır's comprehensive Turkish dictionary, horyat is described as the name of manis which are the shortest poetical type of folk literature in South East Anatolian and Kirkuk Turks. Mani with pun (cinaslı mani) is described as the mani told by men in Sanliurfa (Çağbayır, 2007, p.1992). Horyat means poor, indigent, idle. There is another use of it as koryat meaning "bad, rude, ugly". This is derived from a place named Korya in Kirkuk. But this usage belongs to nations in the area other than Turkmens. In our interviews, Turkmens are rejecting this usage because they claim that horyat is an art and told by educated people who are loyal to their culture. In the original horyat, a mood of bravery is dominating words and tune. It is common among Iraqi Turkmens especially around Kirkuk and in Kirkuk; in Anatolia especially in Şanlıurfa, Elazığ, Erzurum and Kars.

Horyat has a tendency to be with pun. It mostly consists of 7 syllables. In order to get attention, to make some additions and to make it easy to start horyat, there can be some words at the beginning that are called "miyan". Miyans are not convenient with the normal horyat meter. In Turkish folk literature, horyat is mostly called as "broken mani (kesik mani)". When the number of verses is increased, it is called winged horyat (kanatlı horyat) while it is called legged mani (ayaklı mani) with its

increased number of verses. A person who performs horyat is called “horyat yeller (horyat çağıran)” while he is called “horyat crier” (sazlayan or sızlayan) if the horyat is about mourning a dead person.

Horyat can be also described as Turkmen folk poetry and folk music made of this poetry with its 7 syllable and 4 lines - can be increased-structure. In horyats, caesuras are changeable with “miyan” additions. 7 syllable horyats, the most common ones, have caesuras as 4+3, 3+4, 5+2, and 2+5. When horyats with four lines are considered, 1st, 2nd and 4th lines are rhymed, 3rd line is free. If the number of lines are increased, 6th, 8th and 10th lines can be also rhymed. Here are some examples of horyats:

“Meyde ne var
Kim bilir meýde ne var
Namarda meydan virme
Sen atıl meydana var”

“Var dağlar
Var tepeler var dağlar
Kimini yox dağlıyıb
Kimini de yox dağlar”

“Yüzdü yar
Suya endi yüzdü yar
Yurdumun dadın virmez
İster dolaş yüz diyar”

(Retold by Fazıl (Kaleli) Muhammed (Mehmet) Hıdır, Horyat teller, retired teacher/Kirkuk)

DIFFERENT VERSIONS OF HORYAT

Horyat was called with different names among different Turkish speaking communities. Iraqi Turkmen belonging to Oghuz clan, Irani Turks, Gagauzs and some parts of Anatolia called “horyat-hoyrat, mani, türkü, aşule” while Azerbaijani Turks called it “bayatı”. Some other names are as the following:

Turkish in Turkey: Hoyrat
Iraqi Turkmen Turkish: Horyat, Koryat
Azerbaijani Turkish: Saligasiz
Bashkurt Turkish: İgtibarhız, arama yataya’ya tupas
Kazakh Turkish: Kolay bolsa solay
Kirghiz Turkish: Kopol, oldoksan
Uzbek Turkish: E’tibarsız pala partiş, kors
Tatar Turkish: Topas, cıynaksız

Turkmenistan Turkish: Harsal

Uygur Turkish: Parvasız kopal (Ercilasun,1991, pp.348-349)

According to Pasayev, by considering their functions, horyats are called “bayati” in Azerbaijan, “mani” in Gagavuzs, “Ashula and kushik” among Uzbeks, “horyat, ayaklı mani, kesik mani” in Turkey. (Paşayev, 1998, p.119)

In his Arabic article titled “Altun Kopru”, Tevfik Vehbi, one of the most important linguists of Iraq, wrote that horyat has the same root with “kor” in Uygur language, and the same root with “her” in some other Turkish dialect and new Iranian language. All these words mean love in plains, low, worthless, croaked and etc (cited in Sarıkaya, 2006). Since horyats are in syllabic meter, we understand that they were also told before Islamic period and affected Divan Literature after Islamic Period (Sarıkaya, 2006).

ETYMOLOGY AND HISTORY OF HORYAT

Some of the different versions of the word and meanings are these:

Horyad = hor - yâd; horı - yâd

Koryat = kor - yâd

Koryat = kara = yâd < kor – a – k

Hor = worthless,

Horı = idle, trifler

Kor = small piece of burning coal or wool

Kora (koruk) = unripe grape

Ziyad Akkoyunlu (1992) claims that the word “horyat” was turned into “hoyrat” because of the “ $r \geq y$ ” and “ $r \geq p$ ” changes among the community similar to changes of “avrat” into “arvat”, and “yaprak” into “yar pag”. “hor” is “hoy” while the rest “yad” means memory.

We are going to discuss his prove of his theory in details. In one of his articles in Journal of National Folklor, Akkoyunlu (1992) tried to prove that the original word for “hoyrat” is “horyat” with four explanations.

The first one is about metathesis in Kirkuk accent of Turkish and the change in “horyat” as “hoyrat”. It is the change we exemplified above within some letters. To make it more understandable we need to add that there are two common branches of Iraqi Turkmen accent; group “v” accent and group “y” accent. Examples for “v” group can be “eliviz: eliniz”, “gördüv: gördün” and “baxsavız: baksanız”. In “y” group, some changes are also seen such as “bacıyız: bacınız”, “aldıy: aldınız”, and “seniy: senin”.

The second explanation is that when the root is considered as “hoy” to be a reflection and similarity between “hoyrat” and “koyrat” is considered, it is not the same with “koyrat” when analyzed with its structural construction.

The third one explains that when it is considered to have a conjugate structure, the second part “yad” means “remember”. “Hor” is worthless, low, simple but “hoy” doesn’t have a such meaning. The lack of a meaningful root as “hoy” also shows that the original word is “horyat”.

His forth explanation is different from the above analyses. There is a neighborhood called “Korya” in Kirkuk where Turkmen are dominant. The songs sang in this neighborhood are called “korya” as well. Thus the possibility that the origins of the word coming from here and changed as “koryat- horyat” is also high. Some of the people living in Kirkuk supports this approach with defining the word as “koruyad” which means remembering of bad memories.

According to Nail Tan, this letter change between hoyrat and horyat is because of the metathesis in Azerbaijani Turkish as it is between “toprak” and “torpaq” (Tan, 2013; interview in Antalya).

Kasim Sarikaya accepting horyat as the first oral Turkmen folk literature explains that it emerged after nomadic Turkmen tribes in Middle Asia expressed their love, fight, missing, heroism and etc. with it (Sarıkaya, 2006, p. 20).

In some Turkish dictionaries, hoyrat is described as a Greek word. Hoyrat comes from Greek word “hoyratis” which means rude, harsh, maltreating (Turkce Sozluk, 1998, p.1006).

İbrahim Dakuklu tells the story of horyat: “the need of invention of some poems –sentences- convenient with the walk of camels and beginning of Arabic poetry and the need of invention of a kind of poetry sang by nomadic Turkic tribes were the similar. These first trials of Turkmen poetry can be accepted as the beginning. These songs were quiet simple. After the improvement of Turkmen poetry, these were called “hor şiir, kor şiir” meaning simple and worthless poem in order to differentiate old and new poetry. When these became common, the word “şiir” (poem) was neglected and “hor” or “kor” was left. Later on, they were turned into “horyat” and “koryat” with the pluralization rule of Turkish.” (Dakuklu, 1970, p. 98-99)

Faruk Sumer claims that “horyat” is produced from “Oyrat” the name of one of the Mongol tribes settled into Iraq in 14th century (cited in Terzibaşı, 1975, p.51).

In his introduction of the book “Kerkuk Horyats”, Osman Mazlum quoted from Hicri Dede about the origin of horyat: “It is not yet certain why this type was called “horyat” in our literature. Once some of the teenagers belonging to an old Christian family called “Hori” living in the castle were

singing some poems by walking drunk around the city at night. This situation not reprovved became common around and these poems were called “horyat” after the name of this Christian family. People in Kirkuk still call the people who are drunk and walking in the streets naughty and unmannerly as “hori” ” (Mazlum, 1975, p.3).

According to Ata Terzibasi, “hoyrat” is a word used for toughness and belligerency. He explained the birth and spread of horyat in the Journal of Kardaslik. He thinks that horyat is the one of the best types of folk literature. According to him, this type of literature was born among the Turkmens lived in Iraq in ancient times and was improved in literary and musical way during the reign of Akkoyunlu, Karakoyunlu and Seljuk Turkish states and transferred to Ottoman state. Horyat born in Iraq spread to Turkey, Tebriz and Azerbaijan (Terzibasi, 2013: interview in Kirkuk).

He claims that horyat with its numerous functions and meanings was first born in Turkmen tribe of Bayat and spread towards other regions. According to him, the reason for common use of the name “bayat” can be understood when it is considered that this tribe adopted the horyat the most. For example:

“Çağırdım bayat bayat
Zülfüy üzüyden yanat
Oyadıram oyanmaz
Yatarsay ha yat ha yat” (Anonymous)

People in Azerbaijan name horyat as “bayati”. Thus, Muhammed Bayat and some others base horyat to Bayat tribe. Memmedov also connects “bayati” to Bayat tribe (Memmedov,1988, p.6). Bayat tribe began settling in Azerbaijan at the end of 16th century. Karaagac also cited from Faruk Sumer that bayati was common orally among Bayat community when they were a nomadic tribe and became written when they settled (Karaağaç, 1998).

In Turkey, horyat is not widespread and known as legged mani (ayaklı mani). The reason for its widespread in Azerbaijan is that both nations came from Oghuz tribe and have similar dialects.

There are some other approaches to the origins of horyat. One of these is Ali Marufoglu’s approach. He claims that horyat is the equivalence of “heyriyyat” used by common people. The origins of this word come from the death ceremonies of Shiite Turkmens since times of old according to Marufoglu. They are telling verses during the charity for the deaths on the 40th day of their loses. Thus, Marufoglu claims, the original “heyriyyat” was turned into “horyat” in time. He is also arguing that the reason for naming horyat as bayati in Azerbaijan is from the same reason. The term bayati was

emerged as a result of ceremonies for the 40th day of death in Bayati tribe (Marufoğlu, 2013; interview in Kirkuk–Tuzhurmatu).

When we consider different usages and etymological explanations, the use of “horyat or horyat” variations are in the center of all approaches. When we consider all the approaches, the use of the word in Kirkuk and Ziyad Akkoyunlu’s description, we strongly agree with the horyat as the origin of the word.

CONCLUSION

To sum up we can say that horyats were named and defined in various ways as it is to some other literary types. There are different stories about history and origin of them as well although none of them are certain. As a result of the explanations in this article, it seems that the term “horyat” is in the center of approaches. People, who interested in this literary type intensively such as Ata Terzibasi and his followers, used the term as “horyat”. “Hoyrat” can be neglected because of its unsuitability to a highly valued literary type of Iraqi Turkmens with its meaning as “poor, indigent and idle”.

References

- Akkoyunlu, Ziyat (1992), “Kerkük Ağzı’nda Mani ve Hoyrat’a Dair”, Milli Folklor Dergisi, Yaz 14, 2-6
- Ayverdi, İlhan, (2008), *Asırlar Boyu Tarihi Seyri İçinde Misalli Büyük Türkçe*
- Çağbayır, Yaşar, (2007) *Orhun Yazıtlarından Günümüze Türkiye Türkçesinin Söz Varlığı*, Ötüken Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Dakuklu, İbrahim, (1970), *Irak Türkleri Diller Tarihi ve Edebiyat*, Ankara.
- Ercilasun, Ahmet Bican Ve Komisyon, (1991), *Karşılaştırmalı Türk Lehçeleri Sözlüğü*, Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları, Ankara.
- Karaağaç, Günay, AÇIKGÖZ, H. (1998) *Azerbaycan Bayatıları*, Atatürk Kültür, Dil ve Tarih Yüksek Kurumu Yayınları:706, Ankara.
- Köse, Nerin, (2003) “*Türk Düşünlerinde Gerdek Sonrası Duvak Geleneği*” Milli Folklor Dergisi, Sayı: 60. Feryal Matbaası Ankara.
- Mazlum, Osman, (1975), *Hoyratlar*, Bağdad.
- Memmedov, Elxan (Tertip eden), (1988) *Azerbaycan Edebiyatı İncileri* (Bayatı-Goşma- Tecnis), Yazıcı Neşriyyat, Bakü.
- Paşayev, Gazanfer, (1987, 2. Baskı 1990) *Kerkük Folklor Antologiyası*, Azerneşr, Bakü.

- Saatçi, Suphi, (2007), *Tarihten Günümüze Irak Türkmenleri*, Ötüken Neşriyat, Ankara.
- Sarıkaya, Kasım, (2006), *Irak Türkmen Edebiyatı'nda Hoyratlar*, Irak Türkmen Cephesi Kültür Müdürlüğü Yayınları, Ankara.
- Terzibaşı, Ata, (1975), *Kerkük Hoyratları ve Manileri*, 1. ve 2. cilt, Ötüken Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Türk Dil Kurumu, (1998) *Türkçe Sözlük*, Türk Tarih Kurumu Basımevi, Ankara.