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**Book of Full Articles-Volume Two-The Fifth National
Conference on English Studies and Linguistics & The Third
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Dialects and Linguistics**

Seyed Hossein Fazeli, Ph.D.

نشر ترخون

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**Exercising Eco-Linguistic Approach in Teaching English: Proposed Conventions for
TESOL/TEFL Pedagogy**

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Abstract

The linguistic ecology approach to teaching a language entails the preservation of linguistic and cultural diversity. To be legitimized as an international auxiliary language (IAL) for world communication, English should be taught with the view to protecting host cultures, distinguishing them from others. Diversity will ensure a culturally rich while united world. Thence come our proposed conventions. 1) We opt for rational language pedagogy: learning rules, doing exercises, retelling, creating texts. Immersion, influence on the unconscious through images, fascination, "stunning", should be moderate; immersion is more welcome with the first/native language to create a firm cultural identity and immunity to foreignization. 2) Foreign language curricula should primarily focus on host culture, history, values, and serve a host nation's needs, then - represent world history, cultural heritage, modernity and future. The optimal ratio is: host culture issues – 40-45%, global issues – 40-45%, English culture issues – 10-20%. 3) There should be no excessive English-culture realia and personalia branding (singers, actors, writers, etc.). Realia and personalia – real and fictitious – should be used in the same ratio as above. 4) Political correctness and tolerance should be observed in textbooks, especially concerning other-than-English cultural facts, histories, personalities. Selection of topics, facts and characters representation, statements should be unbiased. 5) Moral and ideological inferences should be traditional, values – time-honoured. 6) Intercultural comparing and interpretation should be made standard practice, a first/native language should be equal metalanguage of explanation. 7) It is advisable to write and publish English textbooks by host culture's domestic authors, albeit with the use of foreign consultants and methodologies.

Keywords: Eco-linguistics; Linguistic Ecology; Language Pedagogy; World English; TEFL; TESOL

1. Introduction

The linguistic ecology approach to teaching languages entails above all the preservation of linguistic and cultural diversity. Article 55 of the United Nations Charter recognizes international cultural cooperation, as well as universal respect for human rights without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion. Target 4.7 of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 4), on inclusive and equitable quality education, addresses promotion of sustainable development in education for global citizenship and appreciation for cultural diversity. These documents may be rightfully named as the ones that laid the groundwork for cultural and linguistic diversity. Today the UNESCO attempts to measure the linguistic diversity on global or regional scales through establishing a quantitative index of diversity. The UN seeks to safeguard cultural and linguistic diversity in the context of global citizenship. The challenge is to create balance between the urgent need to leverage cultural and linguistic diversity and to enhance intercultural dialogue and global understanding, without destroying identity and sense of belonging.

The present article will deal with the ecolinguistic principles of TESOL/TEFL, but before this we will take a general view on a global language, used as a medium of cross-cultural

communication and internationally taught as a foreign/second language. Indeed, the introduction of one international language places us in a hard dilemma: on the one hand such a language is much needed, on the other, if taken too far, it is fraught with the elimination of linguocultural diversity.

2. Literature review

Edward Sapirean international auxiliary language (IAL) for global communication is designed to make the world community more integrated and united, to enable peoples to understand each other (Sapir, 1925). At the same time, observing the ecolinguistic principle (Muhlhausler, 2003; Phillipson, Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996), a language aspiring for the IAL status should work to protect and preserve cultures of the world as diverse sets of values, customs, institutions, mentifacts, as well as material objects. The dialectical principle of unity in diversity suggests that ethnolinguistic diversity will become the basis for a more culturally rich world while ensuring its unity.

However, the usual practice so far has been to impose and accept as a language of inter/cross-cultural communication a lingua franca – a widespread language, complete with all the cultural-ideological narratives, discourses, locutions attendant to any live language, belonging to the dominant nation of the day.

Every society has a national culture, accumulated and reflected in a language. Knowledge of the language means also the initiation in cultural values, traditions, modes of thinking and modes of behaviour of a people which speaks this language.

The culture and the language, at bottom, reflect the *ontology* of different ethnic and national communities, distinguishing them one from others – the Humboldtian “*Volksgeist*”, or *an internal purport that directs a language development from tradition to innovation*. The culture and the language are necessary both for the identification as a community, including its groups, and for individual identifications - for developing and formulating one’s individual-as-societal identity. We cannot but agree with David Malouf who called the language “a machine for thinking, for feeling; and what can be thought and felt in one language—the sensibility it embodies, the range of phenomena it can take in, the activities of mind as well as the objects and sensations it can deal with—is different, both in quality and kind, from one language to the next” (Malouf, 2003, p.44).

Attempts to introduce a uniform language and culture to various ethnicities and nations without concern about the preservation and development of their diverse languages and cultures are fraught with ontological and cultural annihilation of these ethnicities and nations.

As we see today’s situation, there is an attempt to perpetuate English as a world lingua franca making it the IAL. This is done in the form of teaching it as a single foreign/second (non-native) language globally.

English as a living, culturally rich language is rather problematic as the language of cross-cultural communication – a lingua franca and even more so an IAL. This is so because of the record of dominance and expansion that this language has. In “developing” and “developed” countries, whenever English is adopted as a second language, the Anglo-National diglossia emerges, which detracts from the functional capacities of national languages. English expands both to higher social interaction domains (science, education, high culture, literature, journalism, media, even official communication), in which normally literary registers of

national languages function, and lower domains (mass culture, entertainment, youth culture, vogue, sports). It easily becomes a dominant language in a variety of areas, both high and low. This is largely due to unrestrained promotion, through which English is touted as progressive, modern, fashionable, dynamic, intellectual, efficient, promising good education and jobs, prosperity and life success. Since childhood with many nations English becomes psychologically labelled as more prestigious than a national language. Thus, part of this hegemony is cultural hegemony, in the Gramscian spirit – that is, indirect domination, when culture and language covertly transmit the ideology of the dominant elites. Being assimilated by masses and peoples, this ideology is perceived by them as their own, they defend it, even if objectively it is not in their interests (Gramsci, 1975). English exerts “soft power” cultural hegemony through specific occidentocentric and anglocentric concepts/ ideologies contained in Inner Circle narratives, among other things – in textbooks published for study. There is also direct enforcement of English usage, as special economic/financial conditions are created to make it the lingua franca in world business, science, education, cultural space. As we see it, this spells the impingement on national/ethnic and individual linguistic and cultural sovereignty, on cultural and linguistic rights.

Unlike a lingua franca, perpetuating a hierarchy (“henpecking order”) of languages, prone to create language death, intercultural stresses and confrontations, ubiquitous borderlands and partial identities, an IAL should be designed to create societies “less prone to precipitous change, more inclusive, better planned, more equitable, and more cognizant of the singular role of language in humanity’s individual and collective identity” (Meyjes, 1994).

In our view, the best solution to the dilemma “much needed – fraught with diversion elimination” would be for the world community to agree on the use of an *unattached, noone’s-and-everyone’s IAL*, which could be enriched by facts and cultural-historical realia of different peoples. Being initially a tabula rasa, pure of any specific cultural and ideological meanings inherent in living natural languages, it would presuppose democratic communication, getting one’s meaning across without the burden of Anglo concepts. And, as linguistic anthropologists and culturologists proved, together with the transmission of information, through living natural languages cultural concepts, ideologemes and mythologemes are transmitted.

Realia of different cultures, ranging from words/locutions to whole narratives and discourses, translated into an IAL, could be then included in textbooks, published in books and newspapers, put on as theatre productions and films, etc. They can be freely circulated and exchanged across ethnicities and nations. In our view, it would be logical to use an artificial language for such purposes, such as Esperanto, or a natural, but dead language, such as Latin, with simple formal signs (graphemes, phonemes, morphemes) and logical rules of word-formation and syntax. Careful consideration would prompt us perhaps that an artificial language, pure of ideology, not having embedded history and culture, is perhaps better fit for the above purposes than a dead language.

This unattached, noone’s-and-everyone’s language can enrich its vocabulary and syntax from any linguoculture without limit, replenish itself with turns and samples of speech, express complex thoughts and feelings. Literary masterpieces and any remarkable texts and efficient discourse practices from all cultures translated into such an IAL could broaden mankind’s cultural, aesthetic, scientific and spiritual scope, conceptual database and skills of interaction. Treasures of knowledge from all nations, large and small, would be authentically translated by

the speakers of different languages into an IAL, without delimiting human vision to only English-language perspectives and Anglo-Saxon cultures/ideologies. It is worthy of notice, that several hundred works of literature (actually, 351, by UNESCO data) have been already translated in Esperanto; quite a number of poetic, prosaic, journalistic etc. works have been written and published in it, too (on the darker side, most Esperanto works do not have an ISBN number).

However, from the past and recent trends we gather that English is likely to retain its status quo for a long time, and will be there to stay as the most popular language of cross-cultural communication. Currently, English dominates in science and technology, medicine, computer technology and software; book and periodicals publishing; transnational business, trade, transport and aviation; diplomacy and international organizations; entertainment industry, news agencies and journalism; youth culture and sports; education systems as the most studied foreign language. To date, the number of people who speak English as a second/foreign language is 600,000,000-1,200,000,000. According to R. Phillipson (1992), English became the worldwide *lingua economica* (business and advertising, neoliberal theories, corporate language), *lingua emotiva* (Hollywood products, popular culture, sports, the language of consumerism and hedonism), *lingua cultura* (literary texts, including those used in the study of English), *lingua academica* (scientific publications, international conferences, the language of higher education) and even *lingua divina* (Protestant missions from English-speaking countries).

We agree that an international auxiliary language – a universal language of communication of equal independent subjects – should be understood not as “the all-consuming language of disorganized and rampant globalization, but rather the opposite, <...> a language *to facilitate worldwide communication precisely without unduly impinging on humanity’s native linguistic traditions* (emphasis added). Thus understood, IAL is both a channel for global communication and a buffer to oppression from an aggressive global language such as English in this day and age” (Meyjes, 1994).

3. Method

We specify several important problems related to English and teaching it as the second language and based on their analysis propose TESOL/TEFL conventions.

1. Firstly, the ultimate goal of an international language should be *to perform the function of a code and nothing but a code* for transmitting speakers’ messages (both national-cultural and individual). At present English Proficiency Indices, to the best of our knowledge, measure speech fluency, Inner Circle grammar-pragmatic competency and Anglo popular culture competency. However, as we see it, the abilities to produce national-cultural and individual texts and meanings, translate and refer texts, perform in international formal discourses, write clearly and artistically are more important than to speak English glibly and live up to cultural-pragmatic expectations of the Inner Circle.

In general, speaking about the assessment of command of English as an IAL, we believe that *for learners of the Outer and Expanding Circles of English it should be thought sufficient to master English phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary competencies at the level of Basic English or Globish*. These learners are bound to be skilled at basic speaking/writing/listening/reading in English, but the focus of their selective development is best to be adapted to their specific needs: to read special (or perhaps imaginative) literature, to

translate or review texts, to negotiate business, to interact when travelling etc. Individuals should not be discriminated against if their pronunciation is not British RP or American Standard, if they use grammatical structures, lexis or turns of speech of their own language translated into an IAL, rather than excel in Anglo verbalities. Nor should learners be discriminated against if they are not aware of Anglo cultural realia and pragmatic expectations.

In retrospect, up until the 1970s the grammar-translation method of teaching foreign languages was dominant. This method implied that a second/foreignlanguage should be *primarily aimed at reading and translating literature in the subjects that a person chooses as their specialty (science, technology, law, humanities, etc.), and also reading classical literature, rather than speaking*. The translation method involved vast use of the first language as a metalanguage of teaching and decoding of foreign texts. Since the 1970s, however, the concept of the global language as an instrument of international communication prevailed, and the second language teaching methodology changed: a) training was restructured for teaching active (productive) skills of language competence, above all, basic *everyday speaking* (so far from classical literary language) and writing; b) a more significant component of Inner Circle *cultures and countries studies* was encouraged into the curricula; c) the method of *immersion* in the medium of a second/foreignlanguage linguoculture was introduced, complete with role-play, prefab dialogues, songs, games, visual aids, videos etc., rather than rational method of learning lexis and grammar rules, doing exercises involving translation, reading long texts.

Beginning in the 1990s – the decade of the fall of the USSR and the socialist bloc – the focus on spoken English and cultural conditioning via immersion in the Inner Circle cultural medium have become dominant. Today these are standard practice. They require other attendant things: English native speakers as teachers; subliminal techniques, such as influence on the unconscious through cultural images and narratives, fascination, "stunning" facts; English-speaking personality branding, etc. It should be said that, despite all the efforts of English teaching pedagogy, even today for most peoples of the world the English language is their passive knowledge, rather than active skill.

We hold that the focus on cultural conditioning and immersion is fundamentally fraught with the transgression of the international language function – to serve as a mere tool, a symbolic code to encode messages that an individual chooses and decode messages of foreigners. If imposed (or accepted, in the Gramscian sense, quasi-voluntarily) as a standard practice, it is seen by us as violating individual and national (ethnic) human rights. We support the unobtrusive teaching a second/foreignlanguage, not encroaching on learners' personality. And it is perfectly normal for an IAL to be stored as passive knowledge with a possibility of bringing it up to the surface and applied as required.

2. Secondly, English is very expansionist. It tends to force out local languages from "high" social domains of communication. For centuries, the English language through trade, military actions, colonial capture actively penetrated into different territories, influenced languages and the very culture of nations. In the postcolonial era, it surprisingly preserved and strengthened its status, was officially recognized as the first or second language in many dependent lands. With that, English bilingualism and trilingualism have never historically been accompanied by and, in fact, aimed at building/developing national and ethnic languages and cultures. Nor did British language policy envisage indigenization of state administration, education, science in primordial languages.

In our view, English should be blocked from transgressing certain limited social interaction niches and percentages of applications (e.g. international documents, conferences, negotiations, transactions, proceedings etc.). These social interaction niches and percentages should be fixed and regulated, because English, frequently perceived as more prestigious than national (state, ethnic) languages even by national elites, tends to invade various discourses, high and low, and may de facto dislodge national languages from their rightful domains of functioning.

In terms of language status, some scholars suggest that “with the prominence of English in higher status domains like higher education, commerce, and industry”, the position of national languages becomes threatened to the point where there is a risk of a two-tiered society in which the former is used for high status interaction and the latter for lower status, common daily interactions (Hult, 2003).

We believe that if *a two-tiered structure of communication is unavoidable, it should not concern status, but only domain of communication*. Two tiers should imply a global language for international communication and state/ethnic languages for national communications, *without encroachment of English as an LAL upon the social domains of the functioning of national (state, ethnic) languages*. Moreover, the status of English should *never be superior, but secondary, auxiliary to national (state, ethnic) languages*.

3. Thirdly, there is the problem of attrition (erosion, regression, disintegration) of native or national languages, however rich, observed with people living in conditions of English functional bilingualism or diglossia. In some countries, linguistic communities gradually switch to English and reduce the use of a native language, resulting in the latter accumulating characteristic features of linguistic attrition.

As a matter of fact, with bilinguals, knowledge of one language has an impact on the production and understanding of speech in the other language, and this effect can be twofold: a mother language can in one form or another interfere with the assimilation of a second language (L1 interference), and a language learned as the second one can also suppress an individual’s native language (L2 interference). The imbalance of language competence of the speaker in one direction or the other is a common phenomenon, while balanced bilingualism or multilingualism is rarer and more unstable.

In our view, *the imbalance of bilingual linguistic competence in favor of native or national language is normal and only just, whereas this imbalance in favor of the second language is abnormal and conducive to native/national language attrition*.

While English forces its way into higher domains of social interaction in nation-states as a functioning metalanguage, it tends to oust native words and concepts, word-building means (native morphemes) from linguistic circulation, modify syntactic structures and even sometimes phonetic and prosodic habits, making native forms archaic and Angloid forms up-to-date. Higher discourses tend to avoid genuine (native) word-building morphemes, thus reducing their productivity, lose native conceptual vocabulary with its peculiar meanings. National languages cease to translate and produce new knowledge in line with their linguistic and cultural tradition. They lose the ability to stimulate thinking for the production of new meanings in line with this tradition, to draw from the thesaurus of old cultural concepts.

In terms of linguistic synergetics, national languages lose synergy, harmony, break down into heterogeneous components and functions that are not held together by a common ontology. Ultimately, national languages cease to effectively perform their functions in higher domains

and give way to English completely.

The high rate of language attrition attested today and the loss of linguistic diversity this forebodes cooccur with the ascendancy of English and of occidental socio-cultural influence. Still, scholars of language and society “appear caught in a paradox: language death is lamented, but its relation to World English largely ignored. The advantage of local languages to support local development is much understudied – though there is increasing international evidence to supporting the relative benefit of mother-tongue instruction for achieving positive educational outcomes across the curriculum. Studies aimed at critically assessing the language-ecological impact of World English are equally rare” (Meyjes, 2011).

If we view the problem of national languages attrition from the perspective of C. Myers-Scotton’s Matrix Language Frame Model, we may assume that attrition is essentially connected with *the gradual reversal of the roles between the national language as a formerly matrix language and the lingua franca as a formerly guest language*. English taught and used as lingua franca induces National-English bilingualism. Because of the propaganda of English, sanctioning its dominance at the governmental level and its prestige in the eyes of the population, the resultant bilinguals get a motivation to markedly demonstrate their Inner Circle appurtenance or allegiance.

4. Fourthly, there is a problem of acculturation (or cultural conditioning) inextricably connected with language learning. An important thesis of modern methodology of teaching a second/foreign language is the idea that it is impossible to study a language in isolation from its cultural content, that cultural information is no less important for the understanding of a people and their picture of the world than the language itself. A foreign language, learnt on clear rational principles, involving memorization of lexis, grammatical exercises, reading and translation of texts is thought not to be conducive to fluent speaking. We have discussed above the transition from the rational grammar-translation method of language teaching to cultural conditioning via immersion method.

In-depth assimilation of any language means prolonged absorption of verbal and image material, concepts, stereotypes, symbols, styles of thinking and behavior, and ideologemes that form an integral part of one or another culture. In fact, *in-depth study of a language does not only mean acquiring “cultural competence,” but undergoing cultural conditioning*. In this we agree with the constructivist theory of ethnicity.

Linguists delineate between *enculturation* — introduction to one’s own culture, and *acculturation* — introduction to a different culture, the merging of one’s own and a different culture. The term “culture”, after J. and K. Roth, is understood as “the aggregate of subjectivizations (basic assumptions, values, norms, ideas, ideological attitudes) and objectivizations (activities, behaviors, language, artifacts) that people learn and use for the development of their living space and their everyday orientation in it. The concept of culture refers to material as well as spiritual forms of expression of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects... Culture is learned with the help of already integrated members, encultured in the way of life of a historically determined and identifiable society, which distinguishes itself from all others in their overall cultural pattern, their cultural configuration, and just because of this can be defined as something independent” (Roth & Roth, 2001: 10).

According to G.P. Meyjes, culture acts on three levels simultaneously: physical, social and ideational. The ideational level, rarely realized consciously, is comprised of values, worldview,

perceptions of others and such; it gives meaning to the aspects, actions, and experiences that uniquely define the group into to which we grow as members. But while it acts as a conduit for absorbing the attitudes of our in-group, it also constitutes a barrier that shapes our view of others in-group-particular ways and largely prevents us from recognizing this conflict because of the subconscious way in which it operates (Meyjes, 2011).

From culture stems the ideational aspect of language. A natural language, being part of culture, is always more than a simple code, a mere tool for communication. Objectively, language is the total of 1) linguistic activity (speech), 2) linguistic system (grammar, word stock, phonetics, morphology, accumulated, regulated and fixed in dictionaries, reference books etc.) and 3) linguistic material (all the texts, narratives and discourses created in this language) (Scherba, 1974). Language system and language material constitute a stable materialized substrate for the functioning of speech, they represent the language in a constant, fixed form and are the foundation of language actualization. Because of the ideational nature of historically accumulated language material – narratives, discourses, locutions (proverbs, sayings, adages, idioms, clichés), realia – a natural language is never neutral, it influences the outlook itself. It becomes the “prism” for our world outlook.

Culture and language are inextricably linked with the phenomenon of *identification*, with the process of *identity formation*. Identity can be defined as awareness of one’s belonging to one or another national-cultural community (social stratum, class, group), as well as perception of one’s personality as an aggregate of certain psychological traits and successor to certain heritage, certain experience. Identity is partly objective, and partly subjective.

Culture and language create a specific mental field of national-cultural meanings, once inside which a person perceives the world through the “prism” of this field. Caught in a strong positive linguocultural field, a person becomes its part and can change their worldview only making some effort. If this field is expressed weakly or negatively assessed, a person unconsciously rejects its meanings as valueless, uninteresting, outdated, primitive, etc., and distances oneself from negatively assessed culture.

The prestige of a language and culture and their subjective perception as superior or inferior becomes a very efficacious factor to influence individual’s identity determination. *Enhancing prestige of a national language and culture, creating their positive image, advertising them and investing resources in them become all-important for individual and national self-identification*. As shown by many scholars, e.g. (Gumperz, 1982), a choice and usage of language may introduce shifts into a person’s identity and worldview. It means that in-depth study of a second/foreign language implies not just the formation of an additional cultural competence, but acculturation, which, in turn, *is linked with the phenomenon of double cultural identity (or partial national identity)*.

As the merger of two cultures – native and foreign – acculturation presents some attendant problems.

a) As stated above, there is a regular imbalance in the mastery of languages (L1, L2 interference), balanced bilingualism is hard to achieve. In the process of acculturation, tipping the balance in favor of a foreign culture is quite frequent, especially regarding the psychological aspect – aspiration for the mental identification with a prestigious culture, imitation of its patterns of daily behavior, life patterns (clothing, eating, entertainment, reading, subcultures and other), beliefs, goals, and - the language. This brings about partial (national-cum-English-

culture) identity. *The problem is to define criteria for ascertaining whether some sort of balanced acculturation is achieved, and whether the second-language cultural competency is actually a boon.*

Critical pedagogues T.K. Ricento, G.P. Hornberger (1996) emphasize that every foreign language teacher is inevitably (perhaps, willy-nilly) involved in language policy and planning. They urge ESL professionals to recognize this involvement and approach their work morally and responsibly, basing it primarily on the interests of their students. G.P. Meyjes thinks that a way-out of the cul-de-sac is to educate TESOL professionals in intercultural competency, implementing culturally responsive pedagogy: “TESOL professionals in particular need access to culture-general knowledge, skills, and dispositions, i.e. to meta- or intercultural insights – including regarding one’s own values and worldview – that act as a master-key to negotiating the interplay between cultures... Armed with additional skills in intercultural competency <...>, with an understanding of the cultural embeddedness of their own views and assumptions, with a more skilled, as opposed to an uncritical “politically correct” approach to the multiplicity of students’ cultural vantage points, TESOL professionals can discover and create myriad teaching and learning moments in their classrooms along both the axes of cultural difference and of disparity between cultural groups. In so doing, they would contribute to a more just, stable, and inclusive community and society...” (Meyjes, 2011).

Conceding the above-mentioned measures important, we believe they are by far not enough. Alone, ad lib attempts to approach language teaching from teachers’ understanding of their learners’ good, or general education in intercultural competency are a weak remedy. Moreover, they are unlikely to play out because of the absence of any coded rules, just relying on the honor of language professionals. The codified clear-cut conventions and regulations, in our view, is what TESOL/TEFL providers and recipients really need.

b) As a superstructure of the English-language culture above the national becomes part of cultural identity, the problem of additional cultural features arises. The Anglo culture, claiming itself to be “neutral”, professing objectivity and pragmatism as its alleged values, in historical and humanitarian meanings has often manifested bias, manipulation, and double standards; its cultural mentifacts reveal subconscious suprematism, occidentocentrism, messiahship. Scholars specify other typical psychological traits and basic beliefs (as cultural concepts) in the Anglo culture which may undoubtedly influence the interpretation of reality in its textbooks: individualism; privacy; self-interest; competitiveness; “team spirit” and “fair play” (towards one’s own and one’s equals); procedural morality; class/ strata inequality, hierarchy and isolation; cultural hubris, as shown e.g. in (Malouf, 2003; Fox, 2004; Wierzbicka, 2006). Apart from the apparent dubiousness of the very fact of imposition of some cultural features on sovereign nations, there is the question of what is special or exclusive about the Inner Circle culture that can justify its worldwide imitation and assimilation.

c) With respect to acculturation, also important is the problem of second/foreign language teachers’ cultural awareness. Many Inner Circle language teachers are unaware or negligent of cultural differences and cultural bias. “The alleged cultural *neutrality* of English remains a surprising claim in light of the ethnocentric role of culture. It is difficult to imagine World English being “neutral” to any but speakers of English, especially those from Inner Circle societies who, looking out into the world through their own cultural prism, attach to World English the reflection of their own values, and however subconsciously attribute to them

universality and “neutrality.” Claims of the “neutrality” of English could thus be explained by its very use, i.e. by the particularity of the culturally-based world view combined with the intuitive tendency to justify a culture based on its own value set... Since it is normal, left to our own devices, not to wish or be able to see beyond the reality we have grown to know, TESOL professionals are likely to mistake their subject and perceptions for neutral, a-cultural, or universal – especially given their global dominance...” (Meyjes, 2011). Outer and Expanding Circles teachers are more culturally aware, but then again, they may be caught in the strong cultural field of the prestigious foreign language and therefore negligent of cultural differences. Most blindly follow the recommendations given by foreign methodologists with the only aim of ensuring their students’ language proficiency.

5. Fifthly, inclusion ignoring the Outer/Expanding Circles outlooks. Inclusion in education is the principle of the organization of educational curricula so that all students are involved as participants of the education process in definition of topical subjects and their discussion, with the projection of their inclusion in future collegiate participation of governance of their communities and world community in general. Inclusion is closely connected with the understanding of diversity, which, for its part, determines the subjects, content and focuses of textbook narratives.

If diversity is understood as a division into groups on too global or too minute principles – gender, age, institutional, partisan, geographic, or even “school culture” - subjects would concern anything ranging from minuscule to world-embracing, they can “denote virtually every aspect of human life under the sun. Rather than to include, it is even used as a smokescreen for promoting a particular group at the expense of others.” We agree that not all diversity is cultural and *the preeminent pillars of cultural self-definition are language and dialect, faith and religion, and race and ethnicity (nation)*. “We inhabit and inherit <...> a world replete with intercultural complexities and inequities where tensions may seem to rise and fall erratically and marginalized populations can sustain pressures so intense they face extinction or commit at times self-defeating violence and destruction. At the root of these costly problems are often differences of language, religion, and race/ethnicity, fundamental as they are to the construction of social meaning and identity. To many, education is the key to creating lasting change for the better” (Meyjes, 2010). Differences of individual psychology or personal choice are not entirely irrelevant to education, but *secondary, subordinate to the above*; social-psychological distinctions such as gender, institution, deaf etc. culture, lifestyle and myriad other, as well as related forms of social interaction such as “ableism,” sexism, heterosexism, classism *are also secondary and subordinate*.

In the Outer and Expanding Circles, in our view, *the basic, most complex and important problem of inclusion concerning Global English teaching is the inclusion of diverse nation-states in the development of IAL teaching principles*. Zeroing in on other distinctions (gender, age, occupation, welfare, leisure, hobbies, individual psychology) at the expense of nations/ethnicities and states is obfuscation of the basic problem of World English. The very idea of inclusion appears false if it implies ignorance or neglect of the Outer and Expanding Circles’ cultures and outlooks. The curricula of ELT unrelated to nation-states make practically all their students of English – all the world except the Inner Circle! – *excluded from the interpretation of the world and, ultimately, decision-making from their national and cultural perspectives*. Aren’t these perspectives quite on par with the Inner Circle national and cultural

perspective?! At the same time, the Inner Circle curricula *forcibly include these students in the interpretation of, the world and decision-making from the English-speaking countries' perspective.*

Thus, we specify the following major problems associated with World English:

1. World English transgressing the IAL basic function of a simple symbolic code;
2. World English encroaching as a metalanguage of communication on the domains of national languages, possibility – and trend – of English-dominated two-tier sociolinguistic structure (English for high discourses, national for everyday);
3. national languages attrition;
4. acculturation: imbalance in favor of a foreign culture, partial national identity (with added Anglo cultural features and biases), delusion of cultural neutrality;
5. inclusion with the ignorance of the Outer and Expanding Circles outlooks.

4. Results and Discussion

Below we will attempt to offer the general strategy of language policy to overcome the above-outlined problems. The main point is that, with most nation-states, such an important sphere of human social and spiritual life as *language development* is left at the mercy of elemental processes. Meanwhile, *national languages, as well as cultures and institutions need to be taken care of*, viz. regulated, developed, protected from aggressive encroachment etc. With languages, lack of care results in uncontrolled borrowing of Anglicisms, using phrases in national/native languages according to linguistic patterns of the high-status English language, foreignisation of linguistic systems, and, on the flipside, reducing the replenishment of genuine lexical and morphemic stock mainly to colloquialisms, slang, jargon and common language, foreign intercalations, simplification of genuine syntax. Official, scientific-technological, popular science and other higher discourses – up to journalistic and imaginative-literature – no longer use genuine word-building, idiomatic and syntactic potential of languages. High styles cease to develop creatively with the help of native resources.

There is a need for purposeful planning, cultivation, construction and improvement of national/native languages on certain principles of linguo-constructivist teleology: a) the principle of synergy (streamlined interaction of the system with external environment and of components within this system, optimal emergence); the synergistic language system is stable and favorable for the development of language *in line with language ontology, with linguistic and cultural tradition*; b) improving the fulfillment of all national/native language functions (communicative, cognitive-nominative, expressive, cumulative, translative, transmutative) in line with the above; c) continuous enrichment of native word-stock on the basis of genuine morphemes, rather than by borrowing from the lingua franca; development of genuine word-building means; ready creation and usage of native-morpheme neologisms, calquing important foreign ones; preserving old genuine forms and concepts, especially abstract, culturally-forming and culturally-differential; d) development of native syntax, enriching logical and rhetorical structures to express various logical relations and pragmatic attitudes; e) implementing wide usage, viz. contextual and stylistic acceptability of various genuine (native) vocabulary, including archaisms and lexical innovations; f) assessing the quality of generated native-language texts upon the criteria of high-level proficiency and performance: correctness, accuracy, consistency, purity, beauty, expressiveness, richness, diversity, relevance.

The economic factor in national language development is also very important. We can postulate the rule: *in which language we invest resources, that language develops*, and vice versa. If effort is made, time and finance spent to study a language, develop methods of teaching it, encourage creative writing (imaginative literature, journalism), official, business and scientific intercourse in it, study its literary heritage, create dictionaries and corpora in it etc., the language increases with respect to discourses, expands with respect to the number of lexical units and idioms, deepens with respect to its semantic-conceptual capacity. If no resources are invested in a language, it, on the contrary, is minimized and reduced to ordinary forms of oral communication. If we prefer to invest resources in English, diverting them from developing national languages and cultures, we contribute to its enrichment, "swelling" of discourses in it, as well as strengthening of its position in various domains of social interaction previously served by national languages. If we go against the imposed linguistic fashion and begin to invest in the development of national languages, then, accordingly, their material, system and speech (discourses) will be enriched.

To quote Joshua Fishman's book title, "Do not leave your language alone" – take care of your national/native language, do not let it slide, uphold its status, plan and develop it, preserve and enrich its traditional forms, ensure continuity of them to the posterity – and objectivate all this, among other things, in language pedagogy.

Having outlined the general strategy of language policy, let us revert to the proposals concerning specifically World English. How can we ensure that English, universally taught as a school or academic subject (second/foreign language) or serving as a metalanguage for scientific and social narratives, becomes more democratic? How can we ensure that it satisfies the general need for interethnic and intercultural communication and at the same time promotes linguistic and cultural diversity? We think that decision-makers at government level, pedagogues, methodologists, teachers of English *must at least agree on the conventions for the teaching of English with the democratic and ecolinguistic priorities underlying them*. We strongly believe, that there should be a legitimation of an IAL on the basis of democracy and linguistic ecology, and *these conventions will stipulate the IAL legitimacy*.

Thence come these conventions sketched as theses of how English should be taught as an international communication language.

I. We opt for rational language pedagogy: learning rules, doing exercises, retelling and creating texts. Immersion, influence on the unconscious through images, fascination, "stunning", should be moderate; immersion is more welcome with the first/native language to create a firm cultural identity and immunity to foreignization.

We take a fresh look at traditional rational and innovative (immersive) teaching of native and foreign languages with the view to prioritizing goals and building a teaching system on ecolinguistic principles. We opt for traditional rational language pedagogy: learning rules, doing exercises, retelling and creating texts; focus on sober facts. Concerning the modern foreign/second-language immersion techniques, subliminal influence on the unconscious through cultural images, fascination, "stunning" facts, videos, games, role-play, guided interaction etc., it should be moderate.

Immersion gained popularity in teaching a foreign/second language with the view to efficient acculturation; it presupposes a strong subliminal influence on the unconscious of trainees, including suggestion through images and emotions, fascination, stunning with unusual

information, entertainment, thereby forming certain feelings and attitudes. In ELT suggestive methods regularly inspire subliminal images of glamour, greatness, significance, fascination, “coolness” and utmost captivation of the English culture, engendering interest in it and the English language.

Let us reiterate that a foreign/second language as a language of international communication should be only a code and nothing more than a code for transmitting speakers’ messages. Therefore, there should be no/minimal cultural and ideological surplus in textbooks of a world foreign language. To avoid excessive encroachment on the unconscious of recipients, prescription of values and allegiances, the methodological and pedagogical foundations of teaching languages in our view should remain to a large extent rational, involving facts priming, reflection, thinking, analysis, as well as formal exercises and memorization. Students should learn rules, perform exercises, retell texts, compose stories, etc. Rational methods, which are less manipulative and encroaching on learners’ personalities, should predominate in TESOL/TEFL.

On the other hand, learning a first/native language in many countries appears rather a dull procedure, as methods have remained predominantly traditional, rational. It may seem laborious to learners of language, too. All this puts national/native language teaching at a disadvantage compared with English language teaching and hampers national/native enculturation. In our view, this situation should be reversed. Teaching a national/native language should leave more space for methods of immersion – subliminal suggestion through images and emotions is quite welcome here. Immersion will help create a firm cultural identity and immunity to foreignization in learners. A child must be introduced to the cultural heritage of his people. Reading national/native literature, tales, exposure to artistic and musical pieces, theatre production, films, cartoons, learning poetry and songs, proverbs and sayings, even painting and playing games in a national/native framework will help create a reliable cultural immunity in children. Particularly, reading national/native literature and stimulating creative writing are necessary, children should create their own literary pieces in their national/native languages. *National/native language pedagogy narratives should be bright, intelligent, inspiring, competitive* (remaining at core traditionalist) to be able to compete with and outperform the English-language pedagogy.

II. Foreign language curricula should primarily serve the needs of host cultures and focus on their history, culture, values, then - represent world history, cultural heritage, modernity and futurity, last of all – represent Inner Circle realia. The optimal ratio is: national cultures issues – 40-45%, global issues – 40-45%, Inner Circle issues – 10-20%.

To legitimize its international-communication status, English as an educational subject should not accentuate the cultural identity and ideological values of its own speakers or do it last of all. If a natural world language is adopted by all nations and ethnicities as a means of global communication, it *should be stripped of its inherent cultural-specific historical, ideological, institutional, behavioural, phraseological, discourse/narrative features.*

Foreign/second language curricula should, in the first place, focus on a particular target national audience, perform the functions for and serve the needs of this culture, bringing out its historical and cultural realia, values and cultural spirit. In the second place, they should serve as a tool for the representation of the heritage of mankind, the world history and culture, as well as for the depiction of modernity and futurity of humanity. This should be done on the world scale, rather

than in a narrowly national perspective. In the third place, as a homage to the source language and culture, the curricula should represent realia of the Inner Circle. The three-way directions/components of foreign/second language curricula should be carefully balanced.

Continuing the Quirk-Kachru argument about the Inner-&-Outer-Circles entitlement to the development of norms and standards of English as the second language, let us ask ourselves whether the Expanding Circle is entitled to it too? Can it freely introduce its realia into their foreign/second language? Is the competency in the Inner Circle cultural and everyday realia crucial for evaluating English-language skills?

In our view, the answer to the first two questions should be yes, and the answer to the last one – no.

This is so, if we accept that in the world of equal rights and cultural diversity *the countries of the Inner Circle are no longer a privileged metropolis. They stand on an equal footing as linguocultural donors with the countries of the Outer and Expanding Circles.* If a second/foreign language becomes mandatory at school and college; if it becomes a metalanguage in functional domains of international and sometimes even national communication; if it is recognized as the World Language, we strongly believe that *countries of the Expanding Circle should be entitled to developing norms of this language alongside the Inner and Outer Circles.*

The teaching of a foreign/second language in this respect can be adequately described in terms of a bargain, and English teaching and learning actors' relationship for this matter can be rightfully likened to *a seller-client relationship.* Once people of other nations appropriate a second language as a tool of international communication, they become its owners. They are entitled to developing (arguably also creating) norms on an equal footing with the representatives of the Inner Circle. They can use this language to their avail to encode their world vision; they can replenish it, be donors to it, introduce mentifacts, realia and discourses of their own cultures into it, calque native narratives, texts, idioms and locutions etc.

Today methodologists claim the principle of representativeness underlying textbook writing, implying representations of social reality with the focus on modernity (Gray, 2010). However, in most cases English textbooks published in Britain and USA present an image of the world in the perspective of the Inner Circle cultures, rather than represent it objectively. In fact, more than 90% of realia in English-language textbooks relate to English-speaking countries, besides, there is a sufficiently clearly traced system of recurrence of topics for discussion, evaluations, interpretations. It would be more reasonable to say that narratives of textbooks construct in recipients' consciousness reality as perceived by the Inner Circle.

In our view, the fuzzy principle of representativeness should be enlarged by the principles of *symmetry and proportion.* It means that representation of facts in textbooks should be symmetrical - proportionate to their occurrence and topicality in the actual life of a foreign/second language recipients. Symmetry and proportion are easily assessed. We believe that the optimal ratio is: host culture issues – 40-45%, global issues, world history and culture – 40-45%, source culture issues – 10-20%.

III. There should be no excessive English-culture realia and personalia branding. The focus should shift from brands of Inner-Circle historical events, literature, art, cultural facts, places and other realia to particular-national ones (dependent of the nation of learners), and international, global brands, unrelated to English-speaking countries. There should be no predominance of English-culture personalia either – no excessive representation of Inner-Circle

people of notice, singers, actors, writers, politicians, scientists, etc. or fictitious personages from folklore and literature. Realia and personalia branding should be proportionate to their occurrence and topicality in the actual life of a learner: host cultural brands – 40-45%, global cultural brands – 40-45%, source cultural brands – 10-20%.

Branding in marketing means giving commodities distinct identity by imparting to them definite images, names and tokens. However, “new capitalism” and consumer society breed pervasive commodification, entailing the branding (and re-branding) of people, places, institutions or languages. In an economy “increasingly organised around attention, branding becomes necessary if commodities are to be noticed and if they are to be considered worth having” (Gray, 2010). In ELT branding is understood to operate through association and hoped for identification on the part of students with certain characters (e.g. celebrities) and certain characteristics (e.g. distinction, commitment, passion, success, enterprise, and zero drag). *Thus, in ELT branding is making realia and personalia of the English-language culture noticeable, recognizable and memorable in order to give recipients an impression of them as worth possessing or emulating.* Today ELT branding draws on neoliberal values; thus choice, individualism, spectacular professional success, repeatedly labelled by ELT publishers in interviews as ‘aspirational’, are represented through respective brands in textbooks. Neoliberal lifestyle is shown as something students might aspire to and which “would motivate them in their English-language learning” (ibid.). (In passing, this interpretation of the word ‘aspirational’ is viewed by us as equivocation: many would prioritize for this term lofty goals and missions as part of important national and global communal projects.)

Brands often accentuate national character, type, or mentality; the British are frequently represented as eccentric, polite, rational, ironic, stalwart. Narratives usually combine realia and personalia brands: in *Upstream Intermediate* (B. Obee, V. Evans, Express Publishing, 2002) in the unit “My Home is my Castle” there are a few texts about British houses as “castles”, written in a curious and respectful key, complete with subliminal techniques (aristocratic branding, stunts, grotesque, imagery, contrast, play on words), all keeping up the narrative of affluent, bright, exciting life in Britain. The main text contrasts a couple who built for themselves a castle inside a hill (“brand new with all the luxuries you would expect from a house that cost more than £350,000, including a keep, a moat and a drawbridge”) and a tree surgeon who decided to build a luxury tree house into a spruce tree six metres above the ground. On the sidelines there is however a more remarkable contrast with houses in poorer countries: a “funny-looking hut on stilts in Zimbabwe that had a thatched roof and was on stilts with steps up to the front door”, and a “really tiny little rock house in Portugal.”

In TESOL/TEFL textbooks there is especially much branding of Inner-Circle celebrities and fictitious personalia (over 90%), inculcated into learners’ minds since early age, shaping their outlooks and choices. These brands are very different – and most of them too ambiguous to act as unquestionably positive role models for young learners (and such role-modelling unconsciously occurs), the more so because they spring from foreign soil. To emulate them all too often means to have a warped idea of life success (including because their success is frequently understood as an individual accomplishment independent of (and outside of) the society).

We are confident that branding should feature realia and personalia of the recipients’ cultures in the first place and, secondly, reputed world realia and personalia. The ratio, as we have said,

should be: host cultural brands – 40-45%, global cultural brands – 40-45%, English cultural brands – 10-20%. This will serve to ensure continuity of national cultures and involvement in important global issues. Men and women of distinction, literary characters, personages, types; historical events, places, achievements etc. should be represented in not less bright and admirable way than Inner-Circle realia and personalia in today's English textbooks.

IV. For a language to become a legitimate international auxiliary language, rather than an arbitrary lingua franca, it calls for the principles of utmost balance, accuracy and tolerance in textbooks, especially as regards other cultures' facts, history, values, personalities etc. An impartial selection of topics, representation of facts and characters in language textbooks is needed. The choice of words should be accurate, phrases, idioms, clichés, texts, and dialogues - meticulously calibrated and unbiased so as not to transgress the borders of tolerance and political correctness.

Today we often observe political and ideological bias in UK- or US-published textbooks. In such cases, balanced and rational narratives should be called into play – changing perspectives, or rather re-interpreting mishandled information by also introducing an opposite perspective.

Let us give some examples. The Proficiency Masterclass, 2003 (K. Gude, M. Duckworth) may well be regarded a sample of elaborate English and fair linguodidactics, but it suggests arbitrary corollaries quite often. Thus, Unit 10 "Taking Liberties" represents in glossy and elevated wording one of the "velvet revolutions" in the post-socialist space, to name, in Czechoslovakia as it split in two countries. From today's perspective, with all the facts we know about financed, prefabricated and orchestrated "velvet" ("orange", "colour", "flower", "dignity" etc.) revolutions to depose legitimate governments, falsified evidence of regimes reprisals, unidentified snipers, flower-toting females shielding gun- and coldsteel-toting hitmen, "sacred victims" – with all this knowledge we should certainly open up a meaningful discussion on the subject.

Particularly in Czechoslovakia, mass protests began after a provocation – a student Martin Schmid was reported by radio Free Europe to have been killed by the country's leadership on November 17, 1989. However, there was no Martin Schmidt, but an intelligence agent Ludvik Zifchak, who was alive and well. During his later revelations, Zifchak repeated that the purpose was to bring the opposition movement called Charter 77, led by Vaclav Havel, to power. The events in Czechoslovakia were one of the first "velvet" ("color") revolutions - coups d'état disguised as popular uprisings. As a result, Czechoslovakia withdrew from the Warsaw Pact, an ethnic conflict between Czechs and Slovaks, surge in unemployment and poverty followed.

Frequently bias is created through falsities, put into mouths of referent personalities, for example the same student book on p. 78 through the mouth of a post WWII "displaced half-Russian woman's" daughter Mara Amats, subject of the Commonwealth, misrepresents the ethnic culture in Soviet Kazakhstan. It is falsely claimed the ethnic cultures in the USSR were non-existent: there only remained "the threads of their pre-Revolutionary skills, deliberately crushed in 70 years of 'socialist realism'. Their crafts were mummified; instead of their symbolic patterns and native decorative arts they had to make busts of Lenin or representations of people driving tractors. 'Many of these crafts survived only in the more remote areas where old people kept them going because of dowry customs and so on. The younger ones see them as living libraries of their past - please read them with us, they asked, so that we can earn our living through them again.'" The viewpoint to oppose this slighting passage should be corroborated by facts,

illustrations, references. It should be said that the central government of the USSR, despite urbanization that tends to undermine traditional arts, did develop its nationalities' arts and crafts, literatures and theatres, create film studios, art galleries, indigenized administration, education, science etc. Assiduous research was made into the history of ethnic arts (e.g. by T. Bassenov, B. G. Erzakovich, G. Sarykulova, N.-B. Nurmammedova etc.). Soviet Kazakh artists and craftsmen's works were widely exhibited.

V. Moral and ideological inferences from English textbooks narratives should be traditional, time-honored. They should comply with religious morals and humane ideologies, rather than be relativist or objectionable.

Despite the seemingly unsystematic thematic selection and content, Inner Circle English textbooks have a meaningful core, they contain recurring concepts and meanings. Conceptual, metaphysical and didactic-ideological levels of information in these textbooks are, as a rule, expressed not directly, but implicitly – mediated by thematic factual and cultural information encoded in them.

As attested by researchers of TESOL/TEFL R. Phillipson, J. Gray and others, textbooks of the Inner Circle, despite alleged universality of topics (global ecology, behavior, psychology, health etc.), are carriers of neoliberal, occidentocentric, hedonistic, individualist, consumerist ideology. They largely ignore the interests of the recipient states of the World Language, the issues raised there are frequently unrelated to the needs of most of the population in countries where English is studied as a foreign/second language. All these features continue to be reflected in British English textbooks of the 21st century (Gray, 2010; Kullman, 2013). The neoliberal ideology is accompanied in textbooks by marked representations of conspicuous consumption, implicit approval of opulence, “self-programmable” labour (refers positively to employees able to switch jobs and countries – poor or impoverished – for the rich capitalist metropolis). This stands in opposition to modesty, moderation, rational consumption, “generic” labour (e.g. employees in extracting, manufacturing industries), which are either unrepresented or represented degradingly.

There are plenty of examples of moral relativity and somehow questioning traditional moral values in English textbooks. Surprisingly they can be found in textbooks, regularly used in high schools of the Outer/Expanding Circles. For example, in Unit 1 of Gateway B1 (D. Spencer) a text reads: "What are your parents doing now? Maybe they're watching you, listening to you or finding out where you are?". “Spying” is denounced and the conclusion reads: “Adolescents need to take their own decisions and make their own mistakes. Mistakes are an important part of growing up, of passing from childhood to independence. We think it's important for parents to give their children the opportunity to do this”. Next goes the work with the song “Girls Just Want To Have Fun” by Cyndi Lauper: “She comes home in the morning light / Her mother says when you gonna live your life right / Oh mother dear you're not the fortunate ones / And girls they want to have fun...”. Since subconscious, as psychologists say, readily skips interdictions, the assignments in this textbook subliminally give youngsters images of patterns of disobedience, resistance to guardianship, improper behavior to which no evaluations are given. Unit 2 (Criminal Records) is dedicated to types of crime. Through text and pictures, types of delinquency are introduced into young minds together with a sympathetic story about the criminals Bonny and Clyde (followed by the history of the British Secret Intelligence Service). Excitement of admiration for the conspicuous lifestyle and glamour of the characters is

accompanied by an attempt to excite gloating at their miserable end (cf. also “Whatever happened to Baby Doe?”, Proficiency Masterclass).

Recently, the subjects of TESOL/TEFL textbooks are increasingly determined by globalist agenda. Technically, in addition to customer editors and consultants, publishers use item writers’ teams, each adapting several selected materials. While earlier textbooks, for example, Streamline, Headway, First Certificate Masterclass, Proficiency Masterclass assumed projective alignment of learners’ personal identities to the canons of Inner-Circle culture, now the emphasis is on concentrating on personal change and building one’s own destiny, reflecting a new, subtler strategy of educational influence in the spirit of individualism, isolation, meeting personal needs. All this reflects the ideologies of modern globalism. Global English textbooks are becoming essentially psychotherapeutic: they increasingly reify individual narratives, encourage methods of introspection, self-examination and self-assessment, accumulation of thesauruses, or dictionaries, for self-description (Kullman, 2013). Transition to new methods is allegedly designed to provide students with greater freedom of choice of materials for study, e.g. “adaptive learning” means interactive online learning, automatically tuning to trainees. Thus, a sense of voluntary choice of material for study for trainees is created. But the Western press used as a source of texts for reading: Christian Science Monitor, Grauniad (Guardian), Huffington Post, TIME etc., are controlled by corporate Western mass media, their content, cultural and ideological values are quite predictable. Consumerism being the basis of life in the West (Chaney, 1996), the above-mentioned change does not negate consumer attitudes towards life, hedonism, individualism, occidentocentrism, implicitly actualized in English textbooks.

We believe that time-honored moral concepts should be represented in English textbooks, such as collective spirit, justice, equality, duty and honor, spiritual growth, modesty, moderation, rational consumption, honest work, family values, patriotism. Core principles and values of the United Nations Organization ought to be tackled on various case studies. Time-honored moralistic, religious, national historicocultural narratives should be included in English textbooks.

VI. Comparing, explanation and interpretation of cultural/historical phenomena should be made a standard practice, mere language training should be transformed into intercultural studies, at least in senior school and colleges. In this practice the first/native language can be metalanguage of comparing, explanation and interpretation along with the foreign/second language. Sometimes it should have priority, there should be no fear of switching to it while using the arguments of native authoritative sources. Comparison should be made in a neutral and calm manner.

For example, S. Cochrane and L. Raitskaya’s “Macmillan Guide to Economics” represents planning under Soviet socialism in a picture of gloomy people lined up for food in provision shops. It should be argued that this statement is not entirely right – characteristic of the shortages of the Gorbachev times because of the mistakes of his economic policy, rather than of planning as such, which, including long-term projects, is an essential part of economy. At other times the situation with government planning and regulating the economy was different. One characteristic example is that the USSR ended the food rationing in 1947, two years after World War II, while France did it in 1949, and Britain in 1954.

As another example let us adduce “A radio interview about chavs” in Gateway B2. Apart from interpreting the messages following from the dialogue, it should be pointed out that some

authors (Owen Jones, John Gray) consider the use of the pejorative term “chav” as a sign of the conceptual demonization of the working class, stereotyping negative evaluation of it. Attitudes to the working class in other national states should be brought to light and discussed.

VII. The language-as-commodity economic concept has made turning out of English textbooks and teaching aids a multimillion-dollar industry with the Inner-Circle monopoly. Textbooks in a foreign language should be written by host culture's domestic authors and published by domestic publishing houses - if needed, with the use of foreign consultants and methodologists.

The concept of English-as-commodity was publicized in the late 1980s, when the countries of the former Soviet Union were about to apply shock therapy for the introduction of a market economy. An Economist Intelligence Unit described ELT as a 'world commodity' in a report written to promote strategies for capitalizing further on this growth industry (McCallen 1989), cited in (Phillipson, 1992). The British Council Annual Report (1989/90: 17) informed that following the disintegration of communist states, an estimated 100,000 new teachers of English were needed for 30 million learners in Central and Eastern Europe in the 1990s (ibid.). The author urged for the speedy development of private schools to satisfy the expected demand for English, timely supply of the world market with educational literature was identified as a strategic priority. Thus, teaching English and publishing English textbooks and aids became a branch of the economy and an important element of international business (ibid.). Since then there appeared *the Inner Circle monopoly in the English-as-commodity market*.

The industry of English-language textbooks published in the UK and the US can be viewed as a means of obtaining multimillion financial profits, as well as giving selective subject knowledge and a body of ideological interpretation and legitimation of reality. The common regularity is that intensive study and use of a foreign language causes unconscious assimilation of concepts, patterns of speech, the very cognitive and communicative styles of native English speakers, levelling out the public consciousness of the peoples worldwide to the Inner Circle standards.

We think this monopoly for publishing textbooks inequitable. It is expedient to learn from the experience of Inner-Circle colleagues who themselves write and publish foreign language textbooks by the efforts of their domestic authors - with the use of foreign language consultants and textbooks. English-as-commodity should benefit nation states rather than the Inner Circle countries, although this industry, as we see it, should never surpass in quantity, quality or importance the linguistic industries of nation-states: Russian-as-commodity, Farsi-as-commodity, Turkish-as-commodity, Arabic-as-commodity etc.

In addition to purely economic benefits, textbook publications by host cultures seems quite healthy as distinct from the thoughtless practice of mass purchasing of foreign textbooks and non-critical assimilation of their materials. This is consistent with the principles of ecolinguistics, presupposing the native (primordial) linguoculture to be the main code of storage and transmission of the experience and the studied linguistic culture, a new code, to be seen through the prism of the primordial.

Nationally published English textbooks will enliven the publishing industry, and nationally relevant subjects and perspectives (together with international ones) will facilitate proper cultural conditioning.

5. Conclusion and implication

As we see it, to reach a consensus and elaborate common ground concerning the above issues, joint effort of linguists and a broad spectrum of scholars is needed, and we particularly call for TESOL and TEFL specialists to participate in the discussion of the proposed conventions for the teaching of a second (non-native) and foreign language.

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From Foucault to Postcolonialism: New Outlook into the Middle East

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Abstract

This research reviews Foucault's idea about discourse and power, Said's view about the Orient and Bhabha's perception regarding stereotype. Benefitting from Foucault's ideologies, postcolonial theorists like Edward Said and Homi Bhabha illustrate how colonial discourse circulates. They insist that Western episteme on knowledge, science and understanding has empowered the Occident/ West to control and command the Orient/ East. Said's insight toward Orientalism sheds light on how the occident represent and dominate the Orient politically, sociologically, militarily, ideologically, scientifically, and imaginatively in the past centuries whose effects are still prevalent. Bhabha builds on Said's work linking Saidian and Foucauldian discursivity. This research illustrates how the discourse of marginalization is presented and how it shapes the postcolonial stereotype. The marginalization is portrayed by the colonial power over colonized nations. This research addresses one of the noticeable postcolonial issues: colonial discourse. It reveals that the representation of Middle Easterners is a continuation of Western accumulations of negative stereotypes and prejudices that are circulated for decades. It provides a detailed debate to describe postcolonial theory and colonial discourse.

1. Introduction

To better understand the relationship between post colonialism and colonial discourse, one must understand how postcolonial literature functions. In her book, *Postcolonial Theory* (1998), Leela Gandhi explains postcoloniality as a condition that "is painfully compelled to negotiate the contradictions arising from its indisputable historical belatedness, its postcoloniality, or political and chronological derivation from colonialism, on the one hand, and its cultural obligation to be meaningfully inaugural and inventive on the Other" (Gandhi 6). Postcolonial literature finds faults in regards to the Eurocentric application applied to today's text. The definition of colonial discourse is where colonization involves epistemicism determining the extent of human knowledge that someone knows something versus someone fails to know something.

This research focuses on the history recorded from roughly 1920s to present, in which colonialism is enforced by international law. There is a relationship between imperialism and international law. The law is applied to the civilizing mission; in order to take over and control the East, the imperial concept divides the cultural differences between the Western and Eastern worlds. The importance of the civilizing mission is to classify Easterners as backward, therefore in need of the Western intrusion to conquer these societies. This justifies the colonial empowerment to control and transform the so-called East. The project justifies colonialism, to rescue the backward, oppressed, undeveloped people of the Eastern world by placing them into the universal civilization of the West. In practice the concept of civilization was and is used as a form of the exclusion of Eastern values and Eastern identity. In recent years, such exploitation is called the war on terrorism, a new form of classifying the Middle East as barbarian and as enemies (Gandhi 7)

The aim to create a sovereign recognition to exclude the Eastern world as backward and uncivilized is to enforce a legal framework to justify colonization as a means of accomplishing the civilizing mission. In which this mission is disguised in imperial hunger to exploit. The

colonial discourse makes such proclamation to colonial intensions “tends to exclude statements about the exploitation of the resources of the colonized. Rather it conceals these benefits in statements about the inferiority of the colonized” (Ashcroft 43). Therefore, the obligatory imperialism is to vindicate itself in the colonial society, and to progress the civilization of the colony. Racial discrimination, cultural inferiority, imperial and economic exploitation are all part of the imperial project. The inequalities that are inherited from the colonial encounter generated people living in Third World societies to be disadvantaged and marginalized.

Creating legal laws towards the civilized the uncivilized world, forming a gap between two cultures, one as universal and civilized and another as local and uncivilized. Colonization and imperialism has taken universal ideals that have never been abandoned, whatever new forms it may have taken. The colonizer’s aim is to normalize these societies into an existing Eurocentric system by placing international law as to solve the problem of difference since Westerns have preceded Easterners. A frame is formulated that European states are sovereign while non-European states are not.

Influential theorists such as Foucault, Said, and Bhabha are advocators against colonial rule, and their legacy carrying this continuing protest to this day. Introducing their anti-colonial thoughts, they challenge the dominance of race, culture, language and class shadowing over the colonized. They outline some of the key concepts around the idea on language and culture in order to point out their anti-colonial thought and practice.

2. Sociopolitical and Historical Background

The categorization of countries based on classifying some countries as developing, Third world, oppress such countries: politically, economically, and morally. This authority of power and war in the world we live in is a cause of social inequality and of struggles for social justice. The theoretical perspectives dedicated to explore epistemology in literature in which the issue of the inequality that undergo between non-West with the West. The colonial resistance and discursive representations presents inequalities. Mocking and attacking societies using racism and stereotype to insult the region. The division and classification of human beings by physical and biological characteristics is racist. In the 18th and 19th centuries, it was often used as a pretext by Western colonial powers for slavery. Using universality, the process by which cultures or people are brought into the dominant Eurocentric/Western global society (Olaniyan 747).

The literary works that are considered representatives of the colonial discourse present the themes and topics only from the point of view of the colonizer without considering the way that individuals have been living in these spots previously. Postcolonialism is focused on the new perspective on individuals living in the former colonies. Most postcolonial theorists show traces of relation to the power balances in texts. Dividing how power structures are maintained by investigating how the discourse is polarized according West versus East. One of the procedures received to indicate control structures is social portrayal; by growing or contracting the size of portrayal to specific gatherings in particular groups in society (Velautham 42).

The discourse in the textual representations of different groups in society proclamations which are sanctioned inside a social setting and which add to the manner in which that social setting proceeds with its reality. Foundations and social settings in this manner assume an essential role in the improvement and upkeep maintenance and circulation of discourses (Velautham 44). When institutions represent individuals from other cultures their determination

of images and discourse depends on the information that they, as the representors have about the represented (Velautham 45).

3. Foucault: Discourse Circulation of the Orient

Foucault emphasizes subjectivity and language which later influences Edward Said's Oriental postcolonial studies. Every human thought, and all fields of knowledge, are organized and dictated by the laws of a specific code of knowledge. No subject is free and utterances are **predetermined. The literary text "is not created by an intention, it is produced under determinate conditions"** (Loomba 36). This view crosses with certain essential innovation in linguistics which also tested customary mindsets about human articulations (Loomba 36).

All speech is organized through "some material medium" (Loomba 100). A pattern which Foucault calls discourse. Foucault's notion of discourse recovers voices that have been deemed not worthy of social circulation. He found that literary texts were one of the places that were also not heard. This covers the thoughts and controls what is said, and the power which governs what can and cannot be said, what is incorporated as rational and what is ignored, and what is seen socially acceptable. Discourse is a space inside which dialect is utilized in certain ways. Discursive practices make it troublesome for people to consider think outside the box options practicing power and control.

The concepts of colonial discourse are the foundation to the Foucauldian concept of discourse. Foucault points out how modern Western states create normal and abnormal subjects in order to patrol both objectify and distance the East (Townley 541). Colonial discourse more than a new term for colonialism; it displays a new way of exhibiting the interaction of cultural, intellectual, economic and political processes in the colonialism. It both describes and helps to create the contradictions of capitalism and imperialism. It also seeks to offer inside-out investigations of colonial epistemologies, and connects power and colonialism together. Colonial discourse is keen on how oriental images and stereotype, and prior knowledge of colonial societies are presented and circulated. One of the sharpest criticisms of colonial discourse studies is that it presents a distorted picture of the colonized. The colonized impose rules to inflate native culture and literature by exploiting economic and political institutions to gain aim and potentially power. "It conceals these benefits in statements about the inferiority of the colonized, the primitive nature of other races, the barbaric depravity of colonized societies" (Ashcroft 38). Therefore, the duty of the colonizer is to be in power and to present itself in the colonial society and to advance the civilization of the colony through trade, administration, cultural and moral improvement.

4. Said: West Versus East

The Foucauldian understanding of power affected Edward Said's Orientalism, which calls knowledge to the learning about the Orient as it is delivered and flowed in the West an ideology that supports colonial power. This is a book not tied to non-Western societies, but rather about the Western portrayal of these societies, such as in the academic control and patrolling. Said demonstrates how this control is made close by the Western penetration into the East and how it is sustained and supported by different discipline, for example, literature.

Said and Foucault share many ideologies; like Foucault, Said connects structures of thought to power. He focuses a lens to show how the Orient is portrayed, and represented. Said contends that portrayals of the Orient in European literary text and different compositions have

influence in the formation of an extremity among Europe and its Other, an ambivalence that is vital to the creation of European culture and to the upkeep and expansion of European authority over the Middle East. Said's venture is to demonstrate how learning about non-Europeans is a part of the way toward keeping up control over them; along these lines, the status of knowledge is certain. Analyzing discourse bridges between the known and the unknown, the dominant and the marginalized, the ideas and institution. It enables us to perceive how power functions through language, writing, culture. Said's contention is that Orientalism, or the study of the Orient, "was ultimately a political vision of reality whose structure promoted a binary opposition **between the familiar (Europe, the West, "us") and the strange (the Orient, the East, "them")**" (Loomba 45). Said explains that this resistance is vital to European existence: whenever colonized individuals are irrational, Europeans are rational; if the Other is barbaric and lazy, Europe is human progress itself (Loomba 46).

Said (1978) claims that the colonized appears powerless, silent, and objectified. Objectification is incorporated within the assumption that non-European people are backward, primitive, quaint, sometimes even noble, but always different from Western civilization (Rizvi 295). Historical scholars raise cultural bias, and unrealistic facts claiming the truth for colonial exploitation. Colonial discourse is an interdisciplinary work that gathers these disciplines together. According to Edward Said (1978), when cultures interact with each other, Western colonial contact is privileged over non-Western nations (301). Postcolonial theory tends to illustrate a variety of power imbalances such as deprivation in power as to create a subaltern. These groups are the marginalized groups in society. A typical perspective of colonization which represent it as an unmitigated social catastrophe, neglects the norms by which colonial societies are invaded from supreme societies for their own benefits (Velautham .37). This argument sets a firm step towards the formation of a colony after its independence. This includes administrative, legal and educational institutions to be an identical copy from the colonial interference part of their new independent governments (Velautham 38).

Despite the fact that the colonial period is over colonial discourse is representing the East in contrast to Western standards. The West today holds power over other cultures by justifying its role as being more developed and competent (Velautham 67). The colonizer dominates land and economy of the colonized in order to fuel Western capitalism. For colonizers money and materials replaces human relations. In this quintessence, objectifying the colonized and denying them of their human rights is normalized (Yadav 94). Colonialism exploits, dehumanizes and objectifies the colonized subject. Postcolonial discourse presents ideas such as colonizer versus colonized, East versus West and center versus margin. The East are presented as backward and require the firm hand of those who are more progressive and informed. Colonial discourse is a pool of resistance against Western hegemony (Velautham 67)

Postcolonial theorists such as Bhabha states that native identity is tied to colonial discourse. Postcolonial outlook sheds light on the colonial declarations that Third World countries and the discourses of minorities within the geographical boundaries is assumed by the colonizer having power over the colonized history, language, and literature. Decision of inclusion and exclusion is proclaimed by the superiority of Western culture, history, language, art, political structures, and social conventions. In the era of post-colonial theory, epistemology has risen between: Third World and First World. The aim of Western economic success to create Third World populations and governments is to continue Western/American colonizing goals. The argument to justify such actions is the incapability of Third World nations to neither govern

themselves nor solve their own problems. Such nations choose to ignore its most critical issues. Instead use principles of trickery and deceit in taking any decision.

Location of Culture (1994), unfolds Postcolonial criticism to uncover the unequal and uneven powers of social portrayal to fulfill political and social authority within the modern world. The hostility between the colonizer and colonized and the dominance of the colonizer is noticeable. Indigenous identity is mediated through colonial representational system because of the colonial power is dominant. Bhabha added to Foucauldian politics. To Foucault "there are no relations of power without resistance"; moreover, Bhabha (1994) adds "**there are no relations of power without agency**" (44). Bhabha calls Third Space which is a position that is made possible by discursive subjection. It is a non-dialectical between orientalist representations and imperial power.

An ambivalent frame between East and West colonial discourse is a feature from nineteenth century to present day. The psyche of colonial power is a controversial matter for postcolonial studies: "**colonial power and discourse is possessed entirely by the colonizer and therefore there is no room for negotiation or change**" (Loomba 46). Said's *Orientalism* is mainly involved with how the Orient is portrayed in Western literature. Foucault's ideologies are directed towards the point that domination and resistance are intertwined.

According to the Westerners, native Eastern populations are primitive (Sium 9), **establishing the idea that the West is developed while the East is undeveloped**. Bhabha's principals on cultural difference apply to modern day situation, he says social distinction is the procedure of the articulation of culture as knowledgeable, legitimate, authoritative to the development of frameworks of social and cultural identification (Velautham 56), this is clear that cultural difference is widely spread and accepted from a number of Western politicians and leaders.

The West has fixed stereotypes towards certain racial groups. The indication of social, cultural, racial contrast in the discourse of colonialism, is a paradoxical method of portrayal: it means having rigidity nature and changing order and disorder (Velautham 67). This type of racist stereotype is circulated through the method of colonial discourse through repetition until the points wind up settled in the brains of the overall public. Such discursive strategies set Eastern people outside mainstream norm of society. Therefore, new norms are formed by the colonizer a straightforward standard is established, a standard given by the host society or prevailing society, which says that these societies are fine, yet we should have the capacity to find them inside our own framework (Velautham 67).

5. Bhabha: Ambivalence, Mimicry and Hybridity

The Easterners are presented as exotic Other by European studies and culture. This idea is elaborated in the study of Orientalism in which the West declares its superiority. Thus, one group is excluded and marginalized by another group by declaring someone as Other creates stereotypical images. In colonialism and post-colonialism, language has often become a site for both colonization and resistance. Indigenous language is frequently suppressed by colonizing forces. The use of Western languages is much more respectable.

The colonizer adopts mimicry as the technique by which the colonized adjusts to the superior culture (language, education, clothing, etc.) of the colonizer but always in the process changing it in drastic ways. Bhabha denotes that mimicry is a colonial subjection and subterfuge. The deceit used in order to **achieve one's goal through mimicry** "is its *double* vision which in

disclosing the ambivalence of colonial discourse also disrupts its authority” (Bhabha 88). Thus, hybrid forms of knowledge created by Western ideas to manipulate the culture and religion of the locals to generate conflict among subalterns. Power, according to Bhabha, is “denied knowledge” (2004). Native populations try to negotiate their identities while being controlled by ruling imperial West. However, he points out that the marginalized resists the Western ideas of authority. The discourse of mimicry is shaped around an ambivalence. The use of mimicry in discourse serves to create the Othering of the East (Velautham 67) and paradoxical representation of Arabs in colonial texts.

The oppression of the East is built on ambivalence. Exercising a psychic process where the colonized fears and distinguishes himself from, the colonizer. Bhabha coins the term hybridity to characterize this ambivalent process, arguing that “in the very practice of domination the language of the master becomes hybrid” (Bhabha 33). To analyze this furthermore, Bhabha discusses the colonial “stereotype” where he illustrates colonial authority. Stereotypes such as the “noble savage” and the “wily oriental” give the colonial power to classify the colonized as subject and justify the colonizer’s superiority and authority. Such stereotypes are formed: “both savage yet obedient... is the embodiment of rampant sexuality and yet innocent as a child; he is mystical, primitive, simple-minded and yet the most worldly and accomplished liar” (Bhabha 85). The colonizer is paradoxical in the aim of enforcing a civilizing mission by creating “mimic men,” others who are “almost the same, but not quite (Bhabha 86). This ambivalence of “same not quite” is to exploit the native. Mimicry is a camouflage for mockery, with the native threatening to deny (or denying) his master’s desire for recognition or imitation.

The colonial enlargement of the West into the rest of the world influencing social, cultural, political, and economical control ranking high Western settlers to educate the non-West as a group that is superior to the rest creating layers between the Western nations and the Eastern nations. Such system has inherited notions of racial inferiority and Otherness. Colonialism increases cultural overlap and hybridity creating ambivalence a contradicting ways in which the colonizer and colonized view one another. The colonizer often regards the colonized as both inferior and Other, meanwhile the colonized considers the colonizer as desirable yet still corrupt (Gandhi 133).

The state of being Other or different is the way by which a cultural practice is made exotic and exciting in its difference from the colonizer’s normal perspective. Ironically, as European groups educated local, indigenous cultures, schoolchildren often begin to see their native life style as exotic and the European ways as normal or typical. Hybridity is created from cross-cultural exchange. Hybridity can be social, political, linguistic, religious, etc.

6. Concluding Remarks

Colonial discourse is a set of statements, opinions, and narratives that present the colonized peoples from the view of Western colonizers. This study has become a new outlook for philosophers such as Michel Foucault and for postcolonial writers such as Edward Said and Homi Bhabha. Such theorists argue that written text today is globally dominated and validated by Western super powers. The intention of the West is to control the East using military and economic strategy of Western capitalist societies using historical colonial discourse of knowledge along with the strategy of political power to dominate the East. It is concluded that racial stereotypes and humanizing impact of the empire on the barbaric natives are constructed

to spread over the realm to legitimize the view that the colonial control is justified and even vital. In the novel, how discourse circulate in his text shows the colonizers voice representing the colonized or speaking on its behalf of it.

Last but not least, by displacing marginalized groups from their normal spectrum and assigning the powerful to take on the role of dominance, it removes any open door for significant discourse and connection between the colonizer and colonized. Colonial texts portray an image of the colonized individuals as indistinguishable and compare them to creatures. The point is to show the colonized at a dimension that is beneath the colonizer. The native of the land have no voice in the portrayal of their identity therefore the pursuer must choose between limited options however accept what is exhibited as facts.

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**Effect of Tests with Pictures and Non-Picture Strips on EFL Senior High School Students'
Writing Performance**

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of pictorial materials on enhancing the English writing performance of Iranian secondary students. The subjects selected randomly were 40 male students studying in pre-university secondary schools. For the research purpose, the researcher designed two different types of pictures- strips and non-strips. He, then, divided the participants into two main groups as high and low achievers and then each group into two subgroups, each with 10 students and tested the materials with them. For the data analysis, the statistical procedure –ANOVA- was run to compare the performances of these four groups. The results of the study showed that the pictorial materials especially the strips pictures had positive effects on the student's performance and developed the students' abilities in writing English paragraphs. Moreover, it was revealed that the students who used the program were motivated and their performance was influenced positively. Meanwhile, it was found that using picture series improved the students' quality of writing and developed an area of interest to be creative and encouraged in writing processes. Peer learning and developing learners' hand writing are another advantages of writing via pictorial materials in this research.

Keywords: Pictorial Materials, Pictorial Paragraph-Based Writing, Writing Performance, Pictures Strips, Non-Picture Strips, Developing Writing

1. Introduction

Writing is one of the most difficult skills for students to acquire and to learn. It is the last skill in language learning and teaching in which most teachers and instructors should take care of. Unfortunately, in most educational settings, writing skill is usually presented and taught as the first skill for teaching. Traditionally, language teachers considered writing the first skill for language learning and tended to teach their students how to write without making them prepared enough for the task and before teaching them the other three skills, namely, listening, speaking, and reading.

Writing in the foreign language assumes a very important place in learning a language as a means of communication. It is considered an important skill because it helps learners develop their thinking by allowing them to revisit their thoughts. In this regard, Brown (1987) believes that the communicative approach considers writing a conscious activity that requires mental effort in order to produce something meaningful and communicative.

Therefore, it is evidently true that writing abilities poses a number of problems to the students, as it is a difficult skill to master. It is believed that writing skill demands a great deal of skills and conventions such writing readiness and grammatical rules for the students to become proficient and effective writers and learners of a native or foreign language. Teachers face great challenges to teach this complicated skill to students. Often, students find writing skill confusing and difficult to master and to understand in a language like English.

Meanwhile, writing is one of the English or any other language skill playing an important role, either in formal communication or informal communication. It is also an instrument for self-expression. It seems that writing is the most difficult skill for foreign

language learners to master. The difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable text. Not only beginners but also advanced language learners do face problems when they write. They often find it difficult to put their ideas on paper because they have not acquired the necessary tools to write. They are too worried to start writing and do not know how to develop their ideas in written form.

Since, students are weak in the writing skill, and need to enhance their writing performance; they face difficulty in composing written material while they are required to produce good ideas which are arranged logically using active vocabulary items and structures including discourse markers. This difficulty lies on how to produce meaningful sentences which comprise coherent text. In this path, the teachers' role in teaching how to write a language is naturally evident and significant. Since a teacher tries to teach and to evaluate his/her learners' writing development and performance, s/he should be armed with essential writing skills including reinforcement, language development, learning style. Most important of all, a teacher should consider the fact that writing is a skill in its own right.

English teacher must be more creative in choosing materials and techniques to make the writing class more interesting, exciting and enjoyable to solve the problems mentioned above. This can be done by choosing the appropriate materials and techniques that students like based on their level of mastery and their background knowledge. Teachers should make efforts in making their class more interesting with various methods, techniques, materials and instruments in order to stimulate language learning skills effectively.

Accordingly, (Harmer, J. 2015) mentions that there are many reasons for getting students to write, both in and outside class. Mostly, writing gives them more 'thinking time' than spontaneous speaking. This allows them more opportunity for language processing-that is thinking about the language- whether they are involved in studying or activating the necessary tools in their mind.

The assessment of writing ability has recently received much attention from educators, legislators, and measurement experts, especially because, on the whole, students, now, in all disciplines and at all educational levels seem to be less proficient compared with students five or ten years ago.

There are different kinds of test forms to evaluate students' abilities and performance including writing abilities. Regarding testing learners' abilities in mastering or non-mastering specific language abilities, and performances, tests of writing ability are not exceptional ones. Language teachers usually use different types of test formats such as essay test, compositions test, fill in blanks test, close-ended and open-ended tests to evaluate their students' writing performance and abilities. Therefore, this study was conducted to examine the effect of pictures-pictures strips and non-pictures strips- on students' writing performance among junior high students. In other words, we wanted to test and evaluate students' writing performance, development through testing two kinds of material-picture strips and non-picture strips. More specifically, an attempt was made to see the effect of test formats on enhancing students' scores.

2. Literature Review

A good piece of writing requires different types of language knowledge including good knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, coherence, and cohesion, punctuation, etc on the part of the writer. Unfortunately, in the past, we, as language learners, experienced that most teachers gave

students only the title of writing a composition without preparing them in advance and without teaching them the required skills they needed to master. They expected them to be good writers unprepared. This was neither logical nor applicable and even not touchable and digestible for language learners. For decades and for many teachers, having students write compositions just through giving the title/topic was the only way to evaluate and to test their students' writing performance.

Nowadays, however, different types of testing writing abilities are available. Two examples are having students "complete uncompleted two-lines introduction to a text", and having them "look at whole story pictures to describe a scene" through writing.

Reviewing some studies on the literature of picture or storyline pictures on writing a composition, we should mention Baso (2008) who conducted a research under the title "Writing Ability through Story Pictures at SMPN 6 Makassar (Classroom Action Research)". She found that the use of story pictures improves the students' ability in learning English writing. She also found that the use of story picture technique was interesting for the students. So she motivated their subjects to write paragraphs. Her findings showed that story pictures enhanced the students' interest in studying English. It seems that when students are tested on writing paragraphs based on the provided pictures materials, their score would increase compared to the time when they take the non-picture writing test.

Mason et al. (2006) showed that, as early as second grade, the writing performance and knowledge of young struggling writers can be improved substantially when teachers teach them generally and genre-specific strategies for planning in connection with the knowledge and self-regulatory procedures needed to use these strategies effectively.

Carter et al. (1998) explained the role of pictures in enhancing the students' ability to create creative stories by saying that absence of words helps the reader create his own story by the picture he sees rather than the words he reads. As a result, it is likely that there is an evident need for using wordless picture books in order to provide students with a suitable environment to produce original creative writings. Seemingly, pictorial materials, although hard to prepare and needing a lot of time and money to produce, are useful realia to provide natural conditions for writing test takers to write better. They look at pictures and after creating simple texts in early stages they are finally able to produce more comprehensive paragraphs. Pictures help students to improve their creativity in composing new ideas in comprehensive texts and contexts and naturally. It is assumed that pictures affect writing development positively and improves students' performance in writing. They enhance their creative thinking and can create a brainstorming-flow of ideas- a situation which results in their good writing performance.

Henry (2003) explained the role of wordless picture books in stimulating students' creativity by saying that the creativity stimulated by wordless picture books encouraged older students to look more closely at story details. Students consider all story elements to understand how to organize a text and develop a story. Henry found that students who used wordless picture books were able to build their reading and writing skills and strategies to ultimately produce a unique book.

Pictorial stories help students develop their sense of story, demonstrate an understanding of sequence, practice oral or written storytelling skills and expand their cognitive abilities. Al-Shra'ah (2010) mentioned that one important way of getting students interested in learning English is through the use of various audiovisual aids.

The use of picture series can improve the students' skills in writing. It causes significant improvements in the students' writing in terms of content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and writing mechanics. The students write good descriptive paragraphs. Pictures contribute greatly to the task. Use of pictures enhances the students' vocabulary in writing performance. This is confirmed and approved by the study of Mansourzadeh (2014). He found that pictures helped students to understand the difficult words more easily by looking at the pictures.

Again in a study done by Wibowo (2013), indicated that the use of pictures enriched the process of vocabulary learning by students. It attracted students' curiosity in learning new vocabulary by utilizing words. It provided visual feedback of the objects and actions portrayed in writing.

In another study, Mansourzadeh (2016), which focused on the effect of "YouTube videos" and pictures on students' writing development reported that using pictures in teaching writing was more effective for students' writing performance than using "YouTube videos". The author's findings indicated the effectiveness of the authentic materials on students' writing ability. Based on the findings, using authentic materials resulted in students' higher grades and performance. It was supported the study and supposed by indicating that using pictures can develop students' behavior in writing well. So, in this study, regarding all the mentioned data, the following research questions had been addressed and formulated to find rational responses and evidence:

- 1- Does administrating tests with picture-strips have any significant effect on EFL learners' overall writing performance in terms of scores?
- 2- Does administrating tests with non-picture strips affect EFL learners' writing scores and performance?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

To accomplish the objectives of this study, which was to investigate the role of tests with pictures and non-picture strips on EFL senior high school students' writing performance and even scores, 40 high and low students - studying in high school- were randomly selected from 60 students, each in 20. Then, picture and non-pictures materials were provided in advance. In addition, the group divided into two subgroups each with 10 students considered as high and low achievers in writing based on their teachers' viewpoints and their score in the first semester of study. Then, the provided materials were given separately to each of the group.

3.2. Materials

The materials included pictorial materials- pictures strips (No.1) and non-pictures strips (N0.2). The two pictures were selected and copied in fine facet hard copy in order to help the subjects to be motivated and created at least a comprehensive paragraph (a short story) based on the events of both types of the pictures.



The present study had been done in a high school where the subjects were studying in the last grade (pre-university level 4) in Shoush city located in Khuzestan province, Iran. The subjects were informed that the researcher wanted to do a research to evaluate their writing level based on two forms of writing materials, namely, strip-pictures and non-strip pictures. Two classes namely, 1 & 2, were selected randomly among four classes in the same school. In each class, 20 students were selected and divided into two groups(A, B, C, and D) -high and low achievers- each in 10 subjects based on their English teachers' viewpoints and their previous grade in the first semester. The materials were prepared in advance in color hard copies (pictures No:1&2). The materials were distributed for the two groups-high and low achievers- in each class. The strips pictures were given to class 1 and the non-strips ones to class 2 to check the effects of these two types of pictures on students' grade and writing development during course study. The two classes were in the same school with the same environment so as to control the unexpected external factors such as noise, light and so on. After collecting the materials, they were given to two raters in order to increase the validity and reliability of the given grades to participants. The papers were graded from 0 to 10 for each student.

3.4. *Data Analysis*

Two inter-raters were asked to rate the papers anonymously to control/decrease somehow the raters' bias. The raters, who had been teaching English for many years in different types of schools in the city, were their English teacher and the other English teacher teaching in another remote high school. The papers were graded from 1 to 10 for each student in each group. So, there were four groups considered as high -achievers and low -achievers.

Then, because of having four different learner groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used/run to compare the four groups to find the effect of the pictures on students' performance (Mackey et al, 2005).

4. Results/Findings & Discussion

To give comprehensive results and to find the effects of pictures on students' writing ability, two different types of pictures- non-picture strips and picture strips- were provided and given to two different groups of learners. The results of each group were shown in table 1.

Table 1

NO. OF PARTICIPANTS	<i>Group 1</i> Picture strips		<i>Group 2</i> Non-picture strips	
	HIGH ACHIE.A	LOW ACHIE. B	HIGH ACHIE.C	LOW ACHIE.D
1	9	4	6	2
2	8	5	5	3
3	5	8	6	4
4	8	3	7	3
5	9	5	8	6
6	5	5	5	7
7	6	6	4	5
8	8	3	4	3
9	7	5	5	2
10	6	6	7	3
SUM:10	71	50	57	38

As the Table 2 shows, one way of analysis of variance was used in order to compare the four groups with one another to find the effect of the different picture strips on student's performance (Table 2).

Table 2
 Descriptive statistics of the ANOVA for the two groups (Descriptive statics)

Groups 1& 2		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Low-ach.	Pic. Strips(B)	10	5.0000	1.49071	3.00	8.00
	Non-p.strips(D)	10	3.8000	1.68655	2.00	7.00
High Achi.	Pic.strips(A)	10	7.1000	1.52388	5.00	9.00
	non-p.strips(C)	10	5.7000	1.33749	4.00	8.00

As it was seen in table (2), the four groups were compared separately to find the effect of each picture(s) on each group of the students. To compare the two groups (B &D), we saw that in group B- low -achievers (picture strips)- and group D – non- picture strips, the number of participants was 10 and the means of each group were 5 and 3, respectively. To compare these two groups with each other, we understood from the points of means that their means were completely different (5&3). Therefore, the picture strips had positive effects on students' scores and performance, even on low -achievers.

Besides these, in comparison the other two groups (A & C), we saw that the same thing was happened. It meant that the number was the same, but the means of the two groups with the two different materials-picture strips and non-pictures one- were different (7&5). We concluded that picture strips for both groups - high and low -achievers- had positive effects. Meanwhile, the participants in these two groups could write a comprehensive and meaningful paragraph based on the series of pictures.

Table 3
Analysis of one way variance (ANOVA)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Low Ach.	Between Groups	7.200	1	7.200	2.842	.109
	Within Groups	45.600	18	2.533		
	Total	52.800	19			
High Ach.	Between Groups	9.800	1	9.800	4.768	.042
	Within Groups	37.000	18	2.056		
	Total	46.800	19			

In comparison the four groups with one another and looking at the above data- table(3)- we indicated that the F test was calculated for poor(low achiever) students in two groups of continuous and non-continuous images (pictures) had no significant effect on student writing ability (F = 2.84, P = 0.10) an error level of 0.05. The meaningless analysis of variance indicated that there was no difference between any of the groups of continuous and non-continuous pictures on the ability to write poor (low achiever) students.

But, for the F test calculated for high achiever students in two groups of continuous and non-continuous images(pictures) was significant on the ability of students to write (F = 4.76 and P = 0.04) at the error level of 0.05. The significance of variance analysis determined that there was a difference between the groups of continuous and non-continuous images(pictures) on the ability to write strong (high achiever) students. The average performance of writing students of strong students in the group of continuous images tests (10/7) was higher than that of the strong students of the non-integrated (strips) images test group(5.70). That was, tests of picture strips had more effective effects on high achiever students than non-strip picture tests on their writing ability.

All in all, the tables (1,2,3), show that the strip pictures had positive effects both on high and low -achiever students.

The findings, we have shown and investigated theoretically and practically, indicated that our teachers' and even students' reflections and attitudes towards the main role of the pictures (images) in the writing development and performance among language learners were positive. As it was shown and indicted, pictures whether strips or no-strips, had a positive effect in comparison with giving a topic to learners and wanted them to write comprehensively and meaningfully as it was, unfortunately, used and applied in traditional methods of teaching how to write and to compose.

To answer the research questions, an ANOVA was run on the four groups of language learners to explore whether any of the groups improved significantly after applying pictures. So, to answer the first research question, we claimed that providing students with picture-strips and wanting them to write meaningfully had a positive effect on their writing performance in terms

of scores. If we looked at table 2 carefully, we could see that students' mean and scores in pictures strips were more than the other groups (non-picture strips). That is, providing learners with pictures strips helped them to follow the main idea(s) of the story in the pictures and caused them to flow their ideas meaningfully to write some comprehensive sentences and used some related connectors to relate the ideas with each other. Looking at the continuous series of pictures, the participants could create a meaningful story to help readers (teachers) understand what happened in the story.

So, based on the above information and took a glance at the tables, we concluded that picture-strips had significant effects on EFL learner's overall writing performance in terms of scores and development.

The second research question focused on the role of the administrating tests with non-picture strips in learners' writing score and performance. The results of the analysis revealed somehow an advantage for the production of some related sentences to the story of the pictures. But, in comparison with picture strips, it showed that administrating tests with such pictures (non-strips) in some cases could affect students' performance to some extent. In the analysis of the students' papers (non-picture strips) by the two raters, the researcher noticed that the students' papers were written in some short, no-logical sentences with some related sentences. Besides, the participants didn't understand the main ideas of the story and they wrote whatever came in their mind without looking to the pictures. Although in these types of the pictures, the learners could create some new sentences based on their imagination of what would happen and what would be at the end of the story, they wrote some unrelated sentences which resulted in their low performance and scores. The raters claimed and even approved that the students' performance, from the points of related sentences in the paragraph, was in ungrammatical connections and difficult to correct. So, we concluded that administrating test with non-picture strips could not affect the students' writing scores and performance as it was supposed to be.

5. Conclusions, Implications, and Limitations

The results of this qualitative and mainly quantitative study revealed that teachers and even learners generally hold positive attitudes towards using pictures to write a paragraph comprehensively.

We observed that there was a general agreement among participants and even teachers about the main effects of pictorial materials and they wholly revealed a type of deep belief in the roles of these materials to expand their writing ability and even their scores. The students warmly agreed that writing based on pictorial aids was the most suitable method for developing and expanding a language to be used as communication in their daily life. Practically and theoretically, the teachers accepted this method as a method of encouraging and assessing their students wholeheartedly because the resulted paragraph was compiled and written in a logical order and in a meaningful way.

The produced text (paragraph) was produced and considered as an original text since the pictorial materials was a good and helpful material to encourage students to create and to put their creation and imagination on paper. This claim was in line with Wibowo (2013) who found using pictures could enrich vocabulary learning and it attracted the students' curiosity in learning new vocabulary by utilizing words on papers.

It is a good suggestion for language teachers to use pictures instead of topics to help learners to develop students' grades and performance since pictures were considered as one of the authentic material to aid students to write and perform in a comprehensive way and to be good writers. This statement was in line with Mansourzadeh (2016) who reported that using pictures in teaching writing was better than using YouTube videos to help the students in writing performance because of the effectiveness of the authentic materials on students writing ability which resulted in developing their grades and performance.

Using strip or non-strip pictures could help language learners and writers to expand their ideas in a logical mood. It motivated writers and learners to create a reasonable text with a large number of connectors (conjunctions) and variety of sentences within a paragraph.

In terms of implications, this study suggested that language teachers emphasize the development of the learners' communicative competence by using the language in their daily life by using authentic materials like pictures. Also, this study showed, in order to learn/teach a new language in educational settings, the teachers should be familiar with the role of pictures strips and how to find or to make and to bring them to class. Meanwhile, language teachers should know the principles and rules to apply the pictures in language teaching processes to help the learners learn a new language warmly and actively.

The results of this study could be used by EFL teachers and teacher's centers that were being trained in language centers to be fresh English teachers in the future. Moreover, the results could be used as main sources for those who want to know the effects of the pictorial teaching aids on language teachers and learners.

The findings of this research could also be used by curriculum and syllabus designers and policymakers to examine teachers' and even students' views about the role of pictures in an educational program because the teachers were responsible for embodiment principles and techniques in the language classroom.

Meanwhile, the insights of this study could be used as the main source for those who wanted to investigate more deeply into the effects of pictorial materials and wanted to know more exactly about the attitudes of other English teachers about this effect. Therefore, it is vital to survey the perceptions and expectations of teachers to change the negative perceptions of teachers by providing more opportunity for teachers to participate in workshops about the advantages of strip pictures in helping learners to enhance their writing performance in terms of grades and scores.

Like any other researches, this type of research has some limitations to be carried out in comprehensive ways. The students, sometimes, based on their educational programs, were not available and it took some days to connect with them in order to gather them in unique classes to assemble some data about their attitudes. Besides, we tried to make an observation while the students were involving in the writing process. Attending to the class needed permission from the school managers which it took more times. Sometimes, students' attitudes towards learning English, while observing the class, were very obscure because of the teachers' attitudes towards writing process, the lack of facilities at schools to create an enjoyable setting to make the teaching and learning methodology more attractive.

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The Effect of Motivation to Read in English on Reading Strategy Use and Reading Ability in EGP and ESP

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Abstract

This study attempts to find out if level of motivation to Read in English would affect reading strategy use and reading ability in EGP and ESP, differently. For this purpose, forty university students majoring in basic sciences took a motivation to read questionnaire and were divided into two groups of high and low according to their score obtained above and below the mean. Then, the two groups were given two reading comprehension tests, one in EGP and another in ESP as well as a strategy questionnaire to be answered following the EGP and ESP reading tests. Analysis of data showed level of motivation to read did not affect strategy use in EGP and ESP reading tasks, differently. However, it was shown that motivation to read affected only the EGP reading ability differently, and no significant difference was observed between the two groups in ESP reading ability. It seems though motivation to read as an affective factors is important to be boosted in EGP reading tasks, specific knowledge in a given discipline at an academic setting makes up for low motivation to read effect.

Key words: Motivation to Read, EGP and ESP, Reading Ability, Strategy Use

1. Introduction

Reading is an active cognitive process which operates on printed material for comprehension (Chastain, 1988). It is considered as the most important activity in language classes (Rivers, 1981). Chastain (1988) in his psycholinguistic view of reading states a **reader's task is to activate background and linguistic knowledge to recreate the writer's intended meaning by going beyond the printed material.** To read effectively, effective readers relate their background experience with the text, summarize information, draw conclusions, and pose questions at the text (McNamara, 2007; Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005; Allen, 2003). Research shows that successful readers make more use of reading comprehension strategies and have a conscious control over the use of a range of different strategies while reading (McNamara, 2007).

In content-based instruction language instruction is integrated with the content areas. In content-based reading courses, reading involves both understanding content and processing strategies in order to understand content. In order to help readers in effective reading, it is very important to understand what specific problems they encounter during their reading process (Lau 2006). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ESP builds on EGP research and if ESP programs are to yield satisfactory results a solid understanding of basic EGP should precede higher-level instruction in ESP. To Chien et al. (2008) the role of EGP teachers is to create the foundation of general English skills such as skimming, scanning, and making predictions **through use of different genres of readings. The ESP teachers' role is also to activate the learners' science background knowledge in English, by introducing classifying, comparing, identifying cause and effect, hypothesizing, defining, exemplifying, giving evidence, experimenting, calculating, reporting, describing and predicting.** Talebi (2014) investigated the effect of reading product in L1 on EGP and ESP reading product and process. He found no significant relationship between the product of reading in L1 (Persian) and the process of reading in EGP and ESP as well as the product of reading in ESP. But in the product reading in EGP

there was a significant difference in the reading product for high and low groups of L1 reading ability. In an attempt to determine if ESP reading performance can be predicted by EGP reading in university entrance exams for up-to 20 different disciplines in Iran in order to get admission to PhD. Courses, Ahmadi (2003) found a positive correlation coefficient between the scores of candidates in the ESP and EGP tests. He concluded that EGP tests seem to be a good predictor for ESP competency. **Contrary to Ahmadi's findings**, Ajideh (2011) also investigated the relationship between EGP and ESP tests among students of medicine and found no systematic **relationship between the students' scores on EGP and ESP tests and that it was not safe to claim** that students who obtained higher scores in EGP test would receive higher scores in ESP test or vice versa.

According to Vandergrift (2003) guiding learners through the process of reading both provides them with the knowledge through which they can become more skilled readers, and motivates them and puts them in control of their learning. Motivation influences how and why people learn and as a result their performances (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). According to Dornyei (1998) researchers have shown that motivation directly influences how often learners use L2 learning strategies, how much input they receive in the language being learned, and how high their general proficiency level becomes. According to Nunan (1999) there is a need to develop **the learners' awareness of the process underlying their own learning strategies** as this will make them become better readers and more effective and motivated language learners. Gardner and Lambert (1972) emphasize the priority of motivation among learners as it directly affects their active personal involvement in language learning. Therefore, highly motivated learners will take up any learning opportunity offered by the classroom and involve themselves in learning the language.

In the Iranian EFL context, motivation to read as an affective factor is less considered as important as cognitive factors in reading. Therefore, nearly no attempt has been made to boost students' motivation to read. This study attempts to find out if degree of motivation to read affects reading strategy use and reading ability in both branches of ELT, namely EGP and ESP. Therefore, the following questions are formulated:

1. Does motivation to read affect EGP and ESP reading strategy use differently?
2. Does motivation to read affect EGP and ESP reading ability differently?

2. Methodology:

2.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 40 male and female university students majoring in accounting and computer sciences and basic sciences. They agreed to take part in the study after the first researcher explained the purpose and nature of the research to them. Their motivation to read level was controlled. After homogenizing the participants (see the procedure section), 22 students were selected to be in the high motivation to read group and 18 students were selected to be in the low motivation to read group.

2.2. Instrumentation

2.2.1. Test of Reading Comprehension in EGP

From the reading section of books two and three of New Interchange series (Richards 1997) five passages were selected to develop the test of reading comprehension in English. The number of words in the selected five passages ranged from 257 to 295 words. For each passage six items were developed and in all for all the five passages there were thirty items. The nature of the

items in terms of recognizing main ideas, vocabulary knowledge, and inferencing was the same for all of the passages. The reliability of the test of reading in English was also taken care of at the piloting stage using the K-R21 formula which turned out to be .85. The time allowed was 38 minutes as determined at the piloting stage.

2.2.2. Test of Reading Comprehension in ESP.

The ESP reading comprehension in English contained two passages. The first passage titled '*What is information processing?*' was adopted from the reading section of '*English for Students of Computer*', by Haghani (2001) and the second passage titled '*The Need for Accounting*' from '*English for the Students of Accounting*' by Aghvami (1996). Ten items were developed for each passage. The two passages were nearly of the same length. The number of words in the selected two passages ranged from 560 to 610 words. The reliability of the test calculated according to the K-R21 formula turned out to be 0.88. The time allowed was 40 minutes as determined at the piloting stage.

2.2.3. Questionnaire of motivation to read

In the current study, in order to explore participants' motivation to read a questionnaire was used that was a revised version of the Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) by Watkins and Coffey (2004). The original questionnaire developed by Watkins and Coffey contained 54 items that were posited to tap 11 dimensions of reading motivation. The participants of the study were required to answer the questionnaire items by choosing a number from 1 to 6 ranging from "I strongly disagree" to "I strongly agree".

2.2.4. Reading Strategy Use Questionnaire

The instrument to measure the reading strategy use in this study was from Phakiti (2006). This was a five-point Likert scale (never/sometimes/often/ usually/always) questionnaire containing 30 items. The Farsi translation of the questionnaire was employed in this study to maximize ease of administration and ensure higher accuracy of answers. In order to make sure of the internal consistency reliability of the instrument at the piloting stage, it was given to ten students taking part in this study. Based on the data gathered, the reliability alpha was calculated to be 0.91 which seemed acceptable for the aim of this study.

2.3. Procedure

Data were collected by the researchers in the General English classes in the faculty of basic sciences of the University of Mazandaran in four subsequent sessions. In the first session, the participants were given instruction the fill out the motivation to read questionnaire. The participants were divided into two groups (high and Low) based on the mean score obtained. In the second and third sessions, to find out the current reading ability of subjects in EGP and ESP reading comprehension, the EGP and ESP reading tests were administered. Immediately, after reading the passages and answering to its related questions, the participants were asked to complete the Phakiti's strategy use questionnaire. It was announced in advance that there were no right or wrong answers to the questionnaire items and their response would be used only for research purpose, without having any negative impact on their course grades or anyone's idea about them.

3. Results and Discussions

Question 1. Does motivation to read affect EGP and ESP reading strategy use differently?

Analysis of variance (Wilks' Lambda) for unrelated measures revealed a non significant main effect of the manipulation of motivation to read at an alpha of .05, Wilks' Lambda = .08, $F(2, 40) = 1.44$, $p = .250$. This means that both EGP and ESP reading strategy use is the same in high and low levels of motivation to read, and the relationship between motivation to read and EGP and ESP reading strategy use is non-significant. A measure of effect size, $\eta^2 = .074$, indicates a relatively low effect (tables 1 and 2).

Table 1
Multivariate test of motivation to read groups (high or low) on EGP/ESP reading strategy use

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Eta
Motivation to read	Wilks' Lambda	.08	1.44	2	40	.250	.074

Table 2
Mean and standard deviation of EGP/ESP reading strategy use with respect to motivation to read groups

Source	Dependent V	Index	M	SD	N
Motivation to read groups	EGP strategy use	High	172.52	26.93	22
		Low	168.68	22.38	18
	ESP strategy use	High	116.00	23.25	22
		Low	23.28	20.80	18

Question 2. Does motivation to read affect EGP and ESP reading ability differently?

Multivariate analysis of variance (Wilks' Lambda) for unrelated measures revealed a significant main effect of the manipulation motivation to read at an alpha of .05, Wilks' Lambda = .80, $F(2, 40) = 4.47$, $p = .018$. High motivation to read was exposed to high EGP and ESP reading ability in contrast to low motivation to read. A measure of effect size, $\eta^2 = .19$, indicated a relatively average effect (table 3).

Table 3
Multivariate test of motivation to read groups (high or low) on EGP/ESP reading ability

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Eta
Motivation to read	Wilks' Lambda	.80	4.47	2	40	.018	.19

To understand in which of the variables the differences lie, test of between subject effects are used. This test indicates that only in EGP reading ability there is a significant difference in motivation to read groups (high or low) and that the ESP reading ability has no significant relationship with motivation to read.(table 4).

Table 4
Between subject test of motivation to read groups (high or low) on EGP/ESP reading ability

source	Dependent variable	df	SS	MS	E-ratio	Sig.	Eta
Model	EGP	1	86.935	86.935	8.675	.006	.190
	ESP	1	5.659	5.659	.55	.461	.015
Error	EGP	37	370.655	10.018			
	ESP	37	377.264	10.196			
Total	EGP	39	4438.000				
	ESP	39	2737.00				

With respect to means differences, EGP reading ability is more in high level of motivation to read group in contrast to low level of motivation to read group (table 5).

Table 5
Mean and standard deviation of EGP/ESP reading ability with respect to motivation to read groups

Source	Dependent V	Index	M	SD	N
Motivation to read groups	EGP reading ability	High	11.34	3.24	22
		Low	8.31	3.04	18
	ESP reading ability	High	8.08	2.59	22
		Low	7.31	3.91	18

4. Conclusions and Implications

This study showed level of motivation to read did not affect strategy use in EGP and ESP reading tasks, differently. However, it was shown that motivation to read affected only the EGP reading ability differently, and no significant difference was observed between the two groups in ESP reading ability. In an attempt to determine if ESP reading performance can be predicted by EGP reading in university entrance exams for up-to 20 different disciplines in Iran in order to get admission to PhD. Courses, Ahmadi (2003) found a positive correlation coefficient between the scores of candidates in the ESP and EGP tests. He concluded that EGP tests seem to be a good predictor for ESP competency. Contrary to Ahmadi's findings, Ajideh (2011) also investigated the relationship between EGP and ESP tests among students of medicine and found no systematic relationship between the students' scores on EGP and ESP tests and that it was not safe to claim that students who obtained higher scores in EGP test would receive higher scores in ESP test or vice versa. However, these studies did not consider the effect of motivation to reading on the relationship between EGP as well as ESP reading abilities.

According to Vandergrift (2003) guiding learners through the process of reading both provides them with the knowledge through which they can become more skilled readers, and

motivates them and puts them in control of their learning. Motivation influences how and why people learn and as a result their performances (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). According to Dornyei (1998) researchers have shown that motivation directly influences how often learners use L2 learning strategies, how much input they receive in the language being learned, and how high their general proficiency level becomes. Gardner and Lambert (1972) emphasize the priority of motivation among learners as it directly affects their active personal involvement in language learning. Therefore, highly motivated learners will take up any learning opportunity offered by the classroom and involve themselves in learning the language. According to the findings of the current study, it seems motivation to read as an affective factor is more important to be boosted in EGP reading tasks, and specific knowledge in a given discipline at an academic setting seems to make up for low motivation to read effect.

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**The Relationship of L1 Reading Ability with L2 EGP and ESP Reading Ability, and
the Awareness and Use of Reading Strategies**

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Abstract

TEFL courses in Iranian ESP contexts are reading-based. This study intends to find out the relationship of L1 (Persian) general reading ability with EGP and ESP awareness and use of reading strategies, and reading ability. To this end 45 tertiary level students who were freshmen and sophomores at the University of Mazandaran and their major areas of study were Economics part in this study. They were divided into two groups of high and low reading ability based on the L1 reading test scores. Then they were given a test of reading in EGP and ESP and immediately following the reading tasks they were given the reading strategies questionnaire as a retrospective measure of their reading behavior. The obtained results indicated that there was no significant relationship between L1 reading ability (reading comprehension test score) and the strategic behavior in EGP and ESP. There was also no significant difference in ESP reading ability for high and low groups, but in EGP reading there was a significant difference in reading ability for high and low groups of L1 reading ability. Cook (2007) maintains that the cognitive processing of information is slower and less efficient in a foreign language. However, the stronger the foundation in L1, the more students will advance in L2. Therefore, it is recommended to get tertiary students more familiar with the L2 code so that they become independent in text processing of different general and specific genres.

Key words: L1 and L2 Reading, Reading Ability, Reading Strategies Awareness and Use, EGP, ESP

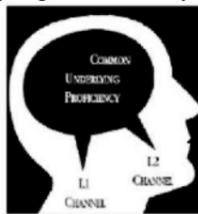
1. Introduction

Reading is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols to construct or derive meaning. It is probably the most important skill learners will need to succeed in their studies (Yorkey, 1970). Since reading is a problem-solving activity, the idea of strategic reading has become the matter of investigation in recent years. Urquhart & Weir (1998, p. 95) define strategies as “ways of getting around difficulties encountered while reading”. As Grabe (1991) mentions, fluent reading is flexible, that is, in order to read efficiently the reader, employs a range of strategies including skimming ahead, considering titles, headings, pictures and text information, anticipating information to come, and so on.

Reading in a second language is not a monolingual event and readers have access to their first language while reading in L2. There has been debates among theorists and researchers regarding the relationship between L1 reading, L2 reading and L2 proficiency. To Alderson (1984) there are two factors that might cause difficulties in L2 reading ability, namely L1 reading ability and L2 linguistic proficiency. This idea led to two hypotheses, namely, a) Clark's (1979) ‘Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis’ (LTH), also known as “short-circuit hypothesis”, and b) Cummins' (2000, 2003) ‘Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis’ (LIH). The LIH argues that certain L1 knowledge can be positively transferred to L2 during the process of L2 acquisition. This hypothesis, represented as a "dual-iceberg," posits that every language contains surface features; however, underlying those surface manifestations of language are proficiencies that are common across languages. The dimension of language used in more cognitively demanding tasks that involve more complex language is CALP, which is transferable across languages. LTH maintains that L2 learners must first gain a

certain amount of linguistic control over L2 so that they can apply their L1 reading skills to L2 reading. Clark (1979) and Cummins (1979) call this certain amount a “language ceiling”, and a “threshold level of linguistic competence” respectively. Below this level of linguistic competence, it is unlikely that L1 reading strategies can transfer to L2 reading tasks. LIH is rooted in Cummins’ (2000) Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis explaining the relationship between L1 and L2. (See figure 1)

Figure 1: the Common Underlying Proficiency Model of Bilingual proficiency



CUP supports second-language learning by transferring skills from the first language to the second. That is, knowledge of L1 and how language works transfers to L2 and enhances its acquisition. CUP claims interdependency between L1 and L2. Therefore, the stronger the foundation in L1, the more students will advance in L2, both in academics and the language itself. As an example, of two students who immigrate, the student with a strong academic background excels in English, while the student with little formal schooling struggles to learn English. In brief, LTH states that a certain threshold of L2 linguistic ability is necessary before L1 reading ability can be transferred to L2, whereas the LIH allows for transfer of any L1 reading ability from L1 to L2 regardless of L2 linguistic proficiency.

Related to the CUP is Cummins’ idea of two types of language. The first is everyday Basic Interpersonal Communication skills (BICS). BICS are language skills needed in social situations. It is the day-to-day language needed to interact socially with other people. English language learners employ BIC skills when on the playground, in the lunch room, on the school bus, at a party, playing sports or talking, the telephone, etc. Social interactions are usually context embedded. They occur in a meaningful social context. They are not very demanding cognitively and the language required is not specialized language. The second type is cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). CALP refers to formal academic learning of listening, speaking, reading, and writing about subject area content material. Learners need time and support to become proficient in academic areas. If a child has no prior schooling or has no support in native language development, it may take seven to ten years for ELLs to catch up to their native peers .

Cummins (1989) offers an “iceberg” shaped model to illustrate BICS and CALP. The part of the linguistic iceberg above the horizontal line is BISC or the surface structure of language. This includes the audible conversational language spoken and heard in everyday situations, and includes mastery of sounds, grammar, and vocabulary. The part of the “iceberg” below the horizontal line is CALP, the academic language associated with books and school, with higher order thinking skills, and with literature, math, history, and science, not apparent in normal everyday social situations. The linguistic processes in CALP are more complex and abstract than those going on in BICS. CALP occurs only in a cognitively stimulating and academically oriented environment. However, Cook (2007) maintains that the cognitive processing of information is slower and less efficient in a foreign language.

This cognitive processing deficit which is not caused by lack of language ability but by difficulties with processing information in L2, hinders immediate retention of information. Thomas and Collier (1997) confirmed that first language (L1) schooling determines how long it may take to improve reading in L2. Students who arrived in the US between ages 8 and 11, and had received at least 2-5 years of schooling in L1 in their home country, were the lucky ones who took only 5-7 years to master CALP. Those who arrived before age 8 and had had little or no schooling in their native language required 7-10 years or more to improve reading in L2. Therefore, the strongest predictor of L2 achievement is the amount of formal L1 schooling.

With regard to L2 reading comprehension ability, research design follows one of two approaches, namely product-view and process-view. In product-oriented studies reading comprehension tests are given. They are by nature quantitative in design in which scores on L1 and L2 reading comprehension tests and proficiency level might be correlated. Such studies show low to moderate correlations (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Brisbois, 1995; Lee & Shallert, 1997). However, some studies have shown that knowledge of the structure and function of L1 is an advantage for readers in comprehending L2 (See Clarke, 1979; Ailing 2006). Clarke (1979) found that good Spanish readers performed better on English reading tasks than the poor ones in reading in English. In process-oriented studies, frequencies of corresponding L1 and L2 reading strategies are correlated. Contrary to findings in product-oriented studies, Zwaan and Brown (1996) and Yamashita (1999) found moderate to high correlations in the process of reading between languages. However, they have shown that readers with high L1 reading ability can transfer their L1 ability and facilitate their L2 reading comprehension at least to a certain extent.

Taking a process and product view, this study hopes to explore the relationship of L1 reading ability with EGP and ESP reading ability and strategic reading behavior. Therefore, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

- 1- Do students of high and low level in L1 reading ability differ in EGP and ESP reading strategy use?
- 2- Do students of high and low level in L1 reading ability differ in EGP and ESP reading ability?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Thirty nine tertiary level students who were predominantly freshmen and sophomores at the University of Mazandaran participated in this study. Their major areas of study were Economics. The participants were divided into two groups based on reading in L1 (Persian). In other words, a reading comprehension test in L1 was employed to classify the participants into low and high reading ability groups. Those who scored below the mean score were considered low group and those who scored above the mean score were considered high group. Table 1 presents the number of subjects in each category. Before getting admitted to the University of Mazandaran they had already passed Persian language and literature course, general English as well as science courses through L1 medium of Instruction at high school with the passing score of 10 out of 20.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics: Mean and standard deviation of Reading in L1

Index		M	SD	N
Persian Reading	High	22.26	1.95	21
	Low	17.50	1.59	24
	Total	20.30	2.97	39

2.2. Instruments

The following instruments were employed in this study:

A: Reading strategies questionnaire

Questionnaires are the most popular tool to establish what the students are like at the start of their language course (Robinson 1991). In this study, the strategic approach was measured by means of a five-point Likert scale reading strategies questionnaire (Never/Seldom/Sometimes/ Usually/ and Always true of me) offering an immediate retrospective picture of the reading behavior. The strategies questionnaire was in Persian so that students felt more comfortable with the questionnaire while answering. They were informed that it was not a test to have effects on their final marks, and that there were no right or wrong answers. All the 33 strategy items (cognitive and metacognitive) in this study were adapted from different related questionnaires in research-validated studies (Oxford, Cho, Leung & Kim, 2004; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Taillefer & Pugh, 1998). The questionnaire was finally shown to two experts in the field for getting their opinion about strategy items to see if they suited the purpose of the study. They were also asked about the translated version of the strategies. Cognitive reading strategies are about knowing what strategy to use and how to use it; metacognitive strategies are about understanding the rationale for applying a particular strategy in a particular context, and evaluating its usefulness in terms of appropriacy and effectiveness for that context. There are two reasons why students were tested about their knowledge of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (See Fogarty, 1994). First, through cognition, good readers construct their knowledge and through metacognition they identify when they no longer understand and what they can do about it. Therefore, constructing understanding requires both cognitive and metacognitive elements. Second, teaching for metacognitive strategies assures that students will be able to successfully use and transfer these strategies well cross-linguistically (from L1 to L2) and cross-curricularly (from general areas to specific areas of knowledge) as the ultimate goal of strategy instruction is transfer. As Auerbach & Paxton (1997) state, strategic reading can only become efficient when metacognitive strategies are actively used. The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the instrument at the piloting stage was calculated to be 0.83 as it was piloted against 18 students taking part in the study .

B: Test of Reading Comprehension in Persian language

The reading comprehension test in Persian had two passages, each containing fifteen items (30 items in total) each carrying one point. The nature of the items for the two passages in terms of recognizing main ideas, vocabulary knowledge, and inferencing was the same. The two passages of the test were selected from the book 'BaharvaAdab-e-Farsi' (1971). After administering this test to a similar group of fifteen students, the reliability of the scores of this test according to the KR-21 formula at the piloting stage was calculated to be 0.75. Item characteristics were also taken care of at the piloting stage. This test was also shown to some

experts in Persian language and literature teaching in order to have their comments on the suitability of the text as well as on the nature of the test items for the students. To construct L1 reading comprehension test the following features were borne in mind:

- a) Length of texts: The length of text influences the strategies that candidates use. Too short a text is not suitable for expeditious reading. The number of words in expeditious reading is around 2000 words. The two texts were nearly of the same length.
- b) Content: Among many passages, those whose content was generally understandable to all students were chosen. In other words, the effects of background knowledge on understanding the text before reading it was controlled.
- c) Difficulty level: Since, to date, there has been no standard test of reading comprehension made in Persian language, and by implication, there exists no objective index for determining the difficulty level of Persian texts of reading, the researcher relied on the experience of Persian language teachers as colleagues, and his own experience in order to select suitable texts for the purpose of this study. In texts, the number of words was tried to be to some extent the same. In the piloting phase, in order to be sure of the clarity and appropriateness of the test those items that were ambiguous or unclear to the students were revised or discarded.
- d) Interest of students: the piloting phase showed that the texts were interesting to students.
- e) Form of the test items: A multiple-choice format was used to construct the items.
- f) Time: The time allotted for the reading test in Persian was 30 minutes. This time limit was determined at the piloting stage. Too much time allowed changes rapid expeditious reading into slow careful reading. Therefore the time factor was carefully controlled .

C: Test of Reading Comprehension in English (for general purposes)

In developing the test of reading comprehension in English five passages were selected from the reading section of books two and three of New Interchange series (Richards, 1997). The number of words in the selected five passages ranges from 257 to 295 words. Six items were developed for each passage and in all there were thirty items for all the five passages. Each item carried one point. The nature of the items in terms of recognizing main ideas, vocabulary knowledge, and inferring was the same for all the passages. These texts were selected for the following reasons:

- a) having a general content; b) being of interest to students; c) having pictures and several paragraphs to be suitable for strategy instruction as specified in the strategy questionnaire; d) being nearly of the same length; and, e) being nearly of the same difficulty in terms of structure, unknown words and cognitive processing based the experience of the researcher.
- Readability of the reading text is an objective, but not necessarily very valid, measure of the difficulty of a text. Readability formulae look at texts only as products. As Rigg (1986, p. 75) puts it, **“the basic assumption underlying any readability formula is that meaning is in the print, in the text. There is no recognition that meaning is created by each reader as the reader engages with the text.”** Even leaving aside issues of social context and individual motivation, and looking at texts as products, the criteria used by readability formulae are doubtful. Factors other than word and sentence length are not accounted for. For example, reduced clauses, which tend to shorten sentences, can create greater difficulty for the reader **than longer sentences which are easier to ‘unpack’**. Where this is not used, intuition may be relied on. If materials are perceived as boring or as too easy or too difficult, learners will be unmotivated to do the task (Scarcella & Oxford, 1990). On the one hand, a text that is too easy to comprehend furnishes few opportunities for strategy use and in this case students will probably fail to grasp the value of strategy use. On the other hand, a text that is too difficult to understand may not be comprehensible even with the employment of a variety of

strategies. "Metacognitive capabilities become operative only in reading task perceived as hard but attainable. Tasks that offer minimal challenge will not be incentive enough for readers to make extra efforts to manipulate their cognitive resources" (Koda, 2005, p. 211). The reliability of the test of reading in English was also taken care of at the piloting stage through the K-R21 formula which turned out to be .76. The time allowed was 30 minutes as determined at the piloting stage .

D: Test of Reading Comprehension in English (for specific purposes)

In developing the test of ESP reading comprehension in English two passages were selected. The first passage titled 'What is information processing?' from the reading section of 'English for Students of Computer', by Haghani (2001) and the second passage titled 'The Need for Accounting' from 'English for the Students of Accounting' by Aghvami (1996). Each passage contained 10 items. The number of words in the selected two passages ranged from 610 to 560 words. These texts were selected for the following reasons:

a) having a specific content; b) being of interest to students; c) having pictures and several paragraphs to be suitable for strategy instruction as specified in the strategy questionnaire; d) being nearly of the same length; e) being related to students content schemata; and finally, e) being nearly of the same difficulty in terms of structure, unknown words and cognitive processing as it was approved by two experts in the field. The reliability of the test of reading in English was also taken care of at the piloting stage through the K-R21 formula which turned out to be 0.79. The time allowed was 30 minutes as determined at the piloting stage .

2.3. Procedure

Students were homogenized based on their reading ability in L1. They were given L1 reading comprehension test from the very beginning of the course and during the regular class time. Students were divided into two groups (low and high) based on their scores below and above the mean. After a brief explanation of the purpose of the study, participants were given instructions on how to answer the reading strategies questionnaires and reading test batteries in EGP and ESP reading tasks. In fact, immediately after taking reading test in EGP and ESP, the participants were given the strategies questionnaire as a retrospective measure of their strategic reading. The students were also advised there was time limitation for the reading tests but not for the reading strategies questionnaire. There was a two-week interval for taking the EGP and ESP reading tests. The questionnaire was delivered in Persian as it was thought to would yield a more accurate picture of their reading strategies awareness and use. However, if students needed explanations about some items in the questionnaire the researcher would explain the item to the whole class.

3. Results and Discussions

What follows attempts to answer the following two research questions:

- 1- Do students of high level L1 reading ability differ from those of low level L1 reading ability in EGP and ESP reading strategy use?

Analysis using multivariate analysis of variance (Wilks' Lambda) for unrelated measures revealed a non-significant main effect of the L1 reading ability at an alpha of .05, Wilks' Lambda = .08, $F(2, 36) = 1.44$, $p = .250$. This means that both EGP and ESP reading strategies awareness and use is the same in both high and low level of reading ability in L1. A measure of effect size, $\eta^2 = .074$, indicated a relatively low effect (tables 1 & 2).

Table1
Mean and standard deviation of EGP and ESP reading strategy use with respect to L1 reading ability groups

Source	Dependent V	Index	M	SD	N
Reading ability groups	EGPQ	High	172.52	26.53	21
		Low	168.68	22.38	24
	ESPQ	High	116	23.25	21
		Low	23.28	20.80	24

Table 2
Multivariate test of reading ability groups (high or low) on EGP and ESP reading strategy awareness and use

Effect	value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Eta
Reading ability	0.08	1.44	2	43	0.250	0.074

- 2- Do students of high level L1 reading ability differ from those of low level L1 reading ability in EGP and ESP reading ability?

Analysis using multivariate analysis of variance (Wilks' Lambda) for unrelated measures revealed a significant main effect of the L1 reading ability at an alpha of .05, Wilks' Lambda = 0.80, $F(2, 43) = 4.47$, $p = .018$. The means that the high group showed a higher EGP and ESP reading ability in contrast to low group. A measure of effect size, $\eta^2 = .19$, indicated a relatively average effect. (Table 3)

Table 3
Multivariate test of L1 reading ability groups (high or low) on EGP and ESP reading ability

Effect	value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	sig	Eta
Reading ability	0.80	4.47	2	43	.018	.19

To find out which of the variables differed, test of between subject effects was used. This test indicated that only in EGP reading there is a significant difference in reading ability for L1 high and low groups and in ESP reading there was no significant difference in reading ability for high and low groups. (Table, 4)

Table 4
Between subjects test of reading ability groups (high or low) on EGP and ESP reading ability

Source	Dependent variable	DF	SS	MS	F-ratio	sig	Eta
Model	EGP	1	86.935	86.935	8.675	0.006	.190
	ESP	1	5.659	5.659	.55	0.461	0.015
Error	EGP	44	370.655	10.018			
	ESP	44	377.264	10.196			
Total	EGP	45	4438.000				
	ESP	45	2737.00				

With respect to means differences, EGP reading ability is more for the high group in contrast to the low group. (Table 5)

Table5
Mean and standard deviation of EGP and ESP reading ability with respect to L1 reading ability groups

Source	Dependent V	Index	M	SD	N
Reading ability group	EGPR	High	11.34	3.24	21
		Low	8.31	3.04	24
	ESPR	High	8.08	2.59	21
		Low	7.31	3.91	24

4. Conclusions and Implications

There are various factors effective for L2 reading including L1 reading ability and L2 linguistic ability (see Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995), higher-level conceptual abilities, background knowledge, and process strategies (Coady, 1979), linguistic variables, literacy variables, and knowledge variables (Bernhardt, 1991). Because of the effects of these factors we should consider both the product and the process aspects of reading in reading tasks and integrate findings about the relationships of these variables in reading. Therefore, we should see the entire (or at least a much wider scope of) mental activities involved in L1 and L2 reading. Results of this study indicated that:

- 1- a: Reported reading strategies awareness and use both in EGP and ESP is the same for both high and low groups of L1 reading ability. Actually, there is no significant relationship between L1 reading product (reading comprehension test score) and L2 process (reading strategies awareness and use);
- b: there was no significant difference in ESP reading ability for high and low groups.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, Cummins (1989) offers an “iceberg” shaped model to illustrate BICS and CALP. To Cummins the linguistic processes in CALP are more complex and abstract than those going on in BICS, as CALP occurs only in a cognitively stimulating and academically oriented environment. However, Cook (2007) maintains that the cognitive processing of information is slower and less efficient in a foreign language. This cognitive deficit which is not caused by lack of language ability but by difficulties with processing information in L2 hinders immediate retention of information.

- 2- In EGP reading there is a significant difference in reading ability for high and low groups of L1 reading ability.

This Finding is in line with LIH and CUP which support transfer of skills from the first language to the second and interdependency between L1 and L2. Therefore, the stronger the foundation in L1, the more students will advance in L2. LIH, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, allows for transfer of any L1 reading ability to L2. In addition, according to Cummins’ (1989) “iceberg” shaped model, the linguistic processes in BICS are easier than those going on in CALP. Some studies have shown that knowledge of the structure and function of L1 is an advantage for readers in comprehending L2 (See Clarke, 1979; Ailing 2006). Clarke (1979) found that good Spanish readers performed better on English reading tasks than the poor ones in reading in English. Thomas and Collier (1997) confirmed that first language (L1) schooling determines how long it may take to improve reading in L2. Students who arrived in the US between ages 8 and 11, and had received at least 2-5 years of schooling in L1 in their home country, were the lucky ones who took only 5-7 years to master CALP. Those who arrived before age 8 and had had little or no schooling in their

native language required 7-10 years or more to improve reading in L2. Therefore, the strongest predictor of L2 achievement is the amount of formal L1 schooling.

From the findings of this study it is concluded that reading teachers at tertiary levels should get students more in contact with L2 reading tasks to ensure that L2 reading performance, both in terms of product and process, can benefit L1 reading ability. It seems as students move to ESP reading there is a somewhat different cognitive processing needed as the expectations in ESP reading tasks are different from EGP reading and students need to activate both their formal schemata and content schemata. Therefore, it is advised that students become more familiar with ESP materials so that they can carry over their L1 reading ability to L2, and in particular to ESP reading tasks. It is also advised ESP courses be offered to students earlier in the educational program so that they can come up with the tasks of reading for specific purposes and finally get responsible for their own learning.

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The Effect of Collaborative Summary Writing on EFL Students' Language Development

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of Collaborative Summary Writing on EFL students' second language development. The participants of the current study were 60 EFL students in two intact classes who were passing a writing course. In the experimental group, teacher explained about the summary writing and students were supposed to write their summaries in class collaboratively by the help of their peers and teacher. All papers were checked by the teacher and they discussed about the received feedback in class. However, in the control group students wrote their summaries at home and the next session they got teacher written corrective feedback on their paper. The first summary was used as the pre-test and the last summary was used as the post-test in both groups. Writing score was determined by a holistic rating procedure that included content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. Results of the study showed that students in the experimental group who received collaborative summary writing outperformed the students in the control group in summary writing. In addition, it was observed that students' writing ability improved significantly in terms of content, organization, and vocabulary, but not for grammar or mechanics. At the end, a number of theoretical and pedagogical implications for further research have been presented.

Keywords: EFL, Collaboration, Summary Writing, Writing Development

1. Introduction

Writing is considered as one of the most important skills particularly in an academic setting. Although writing can be an enjoyable and a creative activity, the way it is taught in Iran has made it the most difficult skill to be acquired and it is a skill students like the least. There are many ways to consider the concept of writing. Authors like Goodman and Hudelson (as cited in Ruiz, 2004) defines it "as an instrument of communication that mediates personal and social learning among human beings" (p. 130). Goodman (as cited in Clavijo, 2007) states that reading and writing need to deal with the personal history of each individual, his or her culture and his or her social environment. That is why we have to devote enough time to develop this skill in our students, as not all of them share the same background. When students are not used to reading and writing, we cannot expect that they will produce texts and master their writing skills without appropriate instruction.

Lombana (2002) claims that this skill is the most difficult to master in any language and especially when learning a new one because it needs aspects such as linguistic knowledge, cognitive and socio cultural aspects (discourse and sociolinguistic features) to convey meaning, while writing influences each person's abilities which need the practice and reflection of a spoken language. Salmon (as cited in Galvis, 2004) shares the previous idea since he believes that the development of the writing skill requires practice and it is the cause of a social environment, cognitive development and psycholinguistic processes.

Therefore, we can define writing more than a skill but rather a means that helps individuals to communicate according to what influences their lives. Nonetheless, it is expected to be used formally if we write for academic purposes/at a university level. The importance of academic writing is due to our students' necessity to be part of a very competitive world in

which people with excellent competence in all areas of the language have better opportunities. Because of globalization, many companies require their employees to use oral and written English proficiently. Moreover, most universities demand that their students take and pass international exams with a high score and this includes the ability to write academically.

Thus, we highlighted what Brian (2010) points out: “**Academic writing** is essential for growth and development of important skills to be able to lead a successful life after the completion of **studies**” (p. 1). Similarly, Rodríguez (2004) noted that academic writing is focuses on higher education students. As a result, it has a definite audience such as teachers and students from the academic community. In this study I focus on Rodríguez (2004) definition of academic writing as formal writing that implies great effort to construct coherent and well argumentative texts whose production is difficult for the writer, but easier for the reader. Jordan (2001 as cited in Rodríguez, 2004) states that “**Academic writing** includes a range of approaches that requires various techniques for training students as **writers**” (p. 19). We can connect this quote to the previous idea in the sense that certainly we need to work on academic writing to bridge the gap we have had between writing and other skills in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching. We also have to become familiar with those techniques in order to train ourselves on how to teach writing at a higher level and assure students succeed in this skill.

For this study, I followed the principles of academic writing presented by Montero (2005); those principles include brainstorming, organizing, outlining, editing drafts, and reaching a consensus on the final product. It is worth mentioning that different authors in the field of academic writing like Keenan and Pavlik (1990) present these principles but give them different names. In synthesis, academic writing involves not only form and function but also rhetoric, which is the ability to use language effectively. This study is based on the “**non-linear**, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate **meaning**” (Zamel as cited in Ariza, 2005, p. 38). Therefore, it is believed that there should be a balance between content and form though what really counts is to trigger the written language ability in learners. This will help the learners grow academically and professionally in addition to providing them with an opportunity to experience peer collaboration.

2. Literature Review

Among the different genres of writing students have to undertake during the course of their academic career, summary writing seems to be one of the most difficult to master. Summary writing also can help learners to improve all four language skills. Although summarizing is a complex activity that needs an overwhelming cognitive load on students is a highly essential and necessary skill in an academic setting (Kirkland, 1991). Collaborative writing emphasizes interactive teaching and learning unlike the more traditional teacher-dominant classroom. Furthermore, Collaborative writing has great potential as a pedagogical approach, as research has shown that it encourages reflective thinking and a pooling of knowledge about language (Elola, 2012). From a sociocultural perspective, collaboration affords learners to engage in scaffolding, where they are able to guide each other through the complex process of linguistic problem solving (Donato, 1994). In collaborate summary writing, learners use language to make meaning and to deliberate about the best way to articulate that meaning (Swain, 2000).

Summary writing has been identified as a highly important and essential skill not only in language learning, **but also in most areas of a student's academic** issues. It is a highly useful and complicated skill, related to both reading and writing, contributes to academic success, and promotes thinking by forcing students to articulate ideas (Bean, 1986). However, Messer (1997) mentions that summary writing is a skill which is difficult to teach, learn and evaluate. Some of the factors affecting successful writing performance, in particular, in summary writing include L2 proficiency, content schemata, affect, formal schemata, cognitive skills, and meta-cognitive skills (Kirkland, 1991).

Summarizing in the past was considered as plagiarism since L2 learners tend to copy from source texts (Chen & Su, 2011). In addition, Nambiar (2007) claims that summarizing is a difficult and cognitively demanding task. It is not an easy skill to acquire because it involves the ability to reconceptualize material, in which the learner has to be able to move from the specific and local to the general or macro. In addition, they have to present the information they have gathered in a clear and concise manner.

Second language research on summarizing skills has largely focused on the reading component, denying the writing component (Messer, 1997). Though studies on reading comprehension are important, the output component where learners have to combine their dialectical, organizational and linguistic skills in producing a piece of written summary is also significant. Because of the difficulties in the learning and teaching of summary writing in ESL classrooms, it is thus important to examine approaches to teaching and learning the skill. Collaborative writing, which has been found to **have encouraging effects on students' ESL writing** (Storch, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Shehadeh, 2012), may possibly be a viable approach in the teaching of summary skills. However, few studies have been conducted on using collaborative summary writing, specifically in the context of the Iranian EFL classroom. Here are some research results related to collaborative summary writing.

Norisma et al (1997) found that students generally used the copy-delete strategy in summarizing whereby they copied sentences from the source text. Another finding was that the participants resorted to the sentence-combination strategy and used incorrect conjunction words to join the sentences. The researchers inferred that most of the students had failed to use the summarization rules effectively and concluded that the students were weak at summary writing. In another study Othman (2009) found that the teachers reported on students' **inability to differentiate** between main ideas and supporting ideas in the summary text. The students also had difficulty in using their own words in writing their summaries. These limitations were further compounded by the large class sizes and the emphasis on exams which served as barriers to the teachers in providing adequate feedback to students.

As a whole, summary writing in ESL classrooms is an important task to examine approaches to teaching and learning the skill. Collaborative writing has been found to have encouraging and positive effects **on students' ESL writing** (Ballester & Cabello, 2016; Handayani, 2012; Sajedi, 2014; Shehadeh, 2012). It seems that collaborative summary writing may possibly be a viable approach in the teaching of writing skills. Collaborative summary writing as a collaborator produces a shared document by engaging in substantial interaction and sharing decision-making power and responsibility for it. It is performed collectively by more than one person to produce a single text and writing is any activity that leads to a completed document, including idea generating, researching, planning and organizing, drafting, revising,

and editing. Collaborative writing is an iterative and social process that involves a group focused on a common objective that negotiates, coordinates, and communicates during the creation of a common document (Lowry et al., 2004) through mutual interactions, shared expertise and joint decision-making throughout the whole process (Yong, 2006).

Collaborative writing is related to **Vygotsky's** sociocultural theory, where social interaction is an integral component of learning. An aspect of this theory relevant to collaborative writing is the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) where group members use mediational means collaboratively to create, obtain, and communicate meaning (Moll, 1989). Scaffolding is a construct related to ZPD and the Vygotskian theory of learning as a socially constructed process. Donato (1994) notes that the learners were individually novices but collectively experts guiding each other through the complex process of linguistic problem solving. By collaborating with each other in creating and communicating meaning, learners are able to engage in the learning process.

Collaborative writing refers to the process which provides participants the opportunity to explore, discuss, cooperate and develop learning capabilities (Dobao, 2012). Vygotsky argued that **“social interaction precedes development; consciousness and cognition are the end product of socialization and social behavior”** (Heidar, 2016). The foundation of collaborative writing was built on this Vygotskian notion of having to cooperate with others by contributing ideas in order for quality learning and growth to take place (Heidar, 2016). With the advancement of technology, teaching writing to students has also evolved with time. Technology and writing have been fused together to further provide an opportunity for learning, interactive and cognitive development among students to take place (Noël & Robert, 2004; Tar, Varga & Wiwczarowski, 2009). Thus, it would be useful to examine the evolution of collaborative writing over the past ten years, and hopefully discover on how it can be further developed in years to come in the hopes of enriching both teaching and learning experiences.

Some studies were conducted to examine the usage of technology with collaborative writing (Calvo et al., 2011; Erkens, Jaspers, Prangma, & Kanselaar, 2005; Hadjerrouit, 2014; Li, 2015). These studies have suggested that technologically mediated tools, such as wikis and blogs, could be used as potentially powerful means to foster collaborative writing by drawing upon the interactions and contributions of the participants through the history function, in order to measure the value of using technology with collaborative writing tasks (Erkens, Jaspers, Prangma, & Kanselaar, 2005; Gress, Fior, Hadwin, & Winne, 2010; Hadjerrouit, 2014; Li, 2015).

Some studies were also conducted to measure the effect and development of collaborative writing and computer-supported collaborative writing on participants' performance (Dobao, 2012). In fact, most of the results have shown that the quality of work is better when completed in groups or pairs. The feedback received from students was generally positive, with most students feeling affirmative about collaborative writing tasks. Therefore, these research studies suggest that the design of the collaborative writing task is important in order to provide the maximum learning opportunity for the participants (Wang, 2009).

The focus of these earlier works was mostly on the impacts and effectiveness of collaborative writing on its participants rather than looking at how collaborative writing tasks could be further developed and enhanced with the help of tasks. There was little exploration in using tasks. Furthermore, with the continuing interest in this topic from diverse perspectives, it

is useful to try to use the available empirical research and attempt to explicate the impacts and effectiveness of collaborative writing.

To sum up, the purpose of this research paper is to extend the previous and current knowledge on this topic by uncovering how collaborative writing has developed over the recent years. Most teacher-researchers state that in reality, collaborative writing means that the student teams up with one or more peers to go through the writing process. I agree with this statement and, in addition to this, I have to mention that collaborative writing in class is a way to prepare students for future assignments where team abilities are required. Widdowson (as cited in Montero, 2005) points out that when students work together they are dialoguing and making decisions due to constant feedback. The classroom technique of collaborative learning of writing skills is strongly advised in this study where students must be the center of the class and interact as much as possible with their classmates. English teachers are also required to encourage peer and self-correction. **“Collaborative writing presents not only a highly motivating learning experience for EFL/ESL students, but also a creative pedagogical tool for teachers” (Montero, 2005, p. 38).** According to this author, who carried out this approach using poems in a university in Panama, the benefits are numerous: It promotes individual participation, increases self-confidence, encourages productivity, and makes the activities fun. Taking advantage of these benefits, written-project work was used in the intervention to collect data. Projects are **descriptions and accounts of students’ production using different skills.**

Burke (1993) states that projects can be an individual or group assignments on a topic related to the curriculum which will trigger creativity and create problem solving skills. Besides, this sort of activity provides opportunities for students to collaborate, interact, negotiate, learn, and enjoy in an EFL setting, especially in this context where people were used to working individually.

According to Cárdenas (2006), project works **strive for learners’ autonomy, self – monitoring and a capacity for responsible social action.** Written projects need to be exploited and implemented as a part of the curriculum if teachers want students to succeed in this skill and if teachers want a challenge to their methodology and resourceful capability.

In this setting, projects are almost always oral presentations gradually developed in class and linked to the aims of a lesson. **Taking advantage of our students’ need to write,** I decided to implement a written component with the kind of project students develop at the university. With collaborative writing through project work I planned to **follow Freire’s (1970) philosophy of transformation from critical pedagogy, accounting for students’ opinions** due to the fact that in this study free opinion was encouraged.

Collaborative writing can be beneficial in different language domains. For instance, Swain (1995) proposed the use of collaborative **writing tasks to direct students’ attention to grammatical accuracy.** Kuiken and Vedder (2002) found that there was a significantly strong relationship between interaction among writers on metalinguistic awareness and text quality in L2 since contemplating and discussing language forms, content, and the writing-rewriting process can work as consciousness-raising mechanisms that lead writers to notice the existing gaps in their language repertoire. However, Shehadeh (2011) did not find any significant effect of summary writing on grammar and mechanics.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the current study were 60 EFL students studying in English Institute in Tabriz who were passing essay writing course. This study consists of two intact groups one of them was assigned as a control group and the other one as an experimental group. Their age ranged between 18 and 24.

3.2 Procedure

To select homogeneous participants for the current study a modified TOEFL test from (Longman TOEFL Preparation Book) was administered. This test contained 50 items. This test consisted of reading comprehension (20 items in forms of Multiple-choice items), grammar (27 items in the form of multiple choice), and writing (3 items including three topics for writing) for homogenizing their language proficiency. The allocated time for answering the questions was 1 hour. After correcting the papers, 40 students were selected as the advanced learners out of 58 students. The score for the proficiency test was out of 100.

The English course for essay writing consisted of 3 hours per week that lasted 16 sessions. The syllabus included 16 units of reading passages that were followed by some comprehension questions (from the *How to write essays in TOEFL* book for upper intermediate levels). The syllabus required students to write a summary of the taught unit in the classroom collaboratively in pairs or in groups. Teacher tried to check their comprehension of the texts. Then they were asked to write the summary. Throughout the course, there were 16 summary writing tasks. The first summary from the first lesson was used as the pre-test. The last summary in the sixteenth session was used as the post-test. Two trained raters evaluated the summaries. The written performance was assessed based on Hughes (2005) scale. This scale consisted of content, organization, grammar, vocabulary and mechanics of the writings which was scores from 0-6. The whole of the score for this scale was out of 30.

The inter-rater reliability was found to be 0.79 for the pre-test and for the post-test was 0.85. In the first session of the course, the teacher instructed the students about how to write a summary in English since summary writing is a method used by the teacher to find out if a student has understood what has been read. Afterwards, the teacher asked students to read the passages and be sure that they could understand it. Then, the students were supposed to focus on the topic, main ideas and important details. Then, they were asked to paraphrase the original sentences. They should avoid copying the original sentences. Each session was dedicated to the teaching of reading passage, vocabulary items and grammar points, and students had 25 minutes to write their summaries in the classroom. In this case, teachers would be sure they have written the summaries themselves without cheating or coping from somewhere. Students were encouraged to paraphrase the sentences by changing the words and writing their equivalents in English or using different grammatical structure. The summaries were scored and returned back to the students the next session. Teacher and students discussed about the feedback and their errors in the written task. In the control group, on the other hand, students passed the same procedure. Unless, they wrote their summaries at home and they did not have collaborative activity. They just received teacher written error correction for their writing task and there was not any discussion part after that.

4. Results and Discussion

Table 1

Independent sample t-test for Proficiency test

group	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig(2-tailed)	F	t	df
TOEFL control	30	66.75	.01150	.02235	.840	1.783	-.234	58
experimental	30	68.61	.07624	.04377	.840		-.234	57.217

As Table 1 shows, scores in the proficiency test for the control group are (M=66.75, SD=.011) and experimental group (M=68.61 SD=.076), $t(58) = -.234$, $P > .05$. The mean score shows that two groups in the beginning of the study were homogeneous.

Table 2

Pearson Correlation of EFL learners' writing scores in two groups in the pre and post tests conducted by two raters

		Rater1	Rater2
Pre-test	Pearson correlation	1.000	.794**
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.	.000
Rater1	N	30	30
Rater2	Pearson correlation	.794**	1.000
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	30	30
		Female(mot)	Achievement
Post-test	Pearson correlation	1.000	.854**
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.	.000
Rater1	N	30	30
Rater2	Pearson correlation	.854**	1.000
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	30	30

The inter-rater reliability was found to be 0.79 for the pre-test and for the post-test was 0.85. According to the Table 2, there is a positive correlation between two raters in assessing the results of students written performance.

Table 3

Independent sample t-test for summary writing task scores in the pre-test and the post-test

group	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig(2-tailed)	F	t	df
Pre control	30	14.45	.03150	.02035	.820	1.733	-.254	58
experimental	30	15.61	.07624	.04777	.820		-.254	57.217
Post control	30	17.84	.24583	.01218	.000	25.925	-1.259	58
experimental	30	25.19	.21576	.03025	.000		-1.259	56.669

As Table 1 shows, scores in the pre-test for the control group are (M =14.45, SD =.031) and experimental group (M=15.61 SD =.076), $t(38) = -.254, P > .05$. The mean score shows that two groups writing in the pre-test were the same. In the post-test, scores for the control group (M =17.84, SD =.24) and the experimental group (M=25.19, SD = .21), $t(38) = -1.259, P = .000$. The results show that there is a significant difference between two groups in the post-test. In the post-test, the experimental group outperforms the control group in written performance. It shows that collaborative summary writing has improved the written performance.

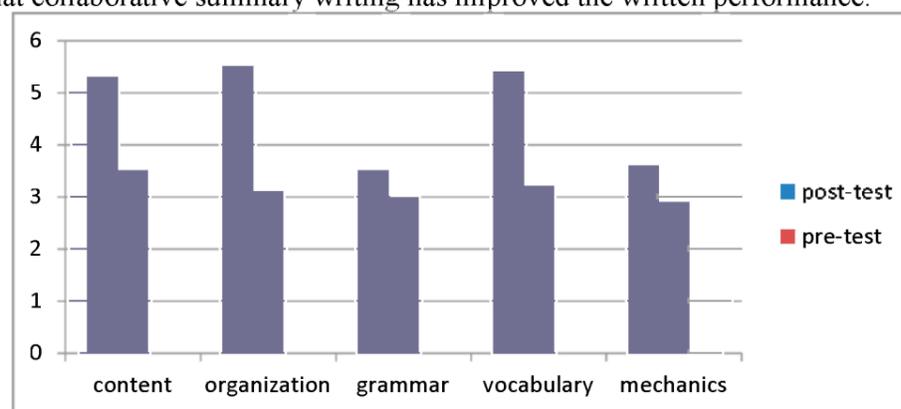


Figure1. *The Improvement of Writing performance in the Experimental Group*

According to the results in Fig.1, students in the experimental group had improvements in the post-test. Organization, vocabulary and Content improved better than the other parts in the post-test. It seems that collaborative summary writing helps learners to notice to vocabulary and the usage of linking words in the sentence.

Collaborative summary writing tasks have facilitated writing skill. Collaborative writing is a powerful tool that could help make learning more engaging. Therefore, educators have been encouraged to use collaboration as part of their instruction. Studies on the usage of collaborative writing task have provided extensive descriptions on the effectiveness of using it to facilitate learning writing skill (Brodahl, Hadjerrouit, & Hansen, 2011; Calvo et al., 2011; Kessler, Bikowski, & Boggs, 2012), therefore collaborations through group discussions in classrooms has a facilitative role on learning writing skill. Some studies demonstrated that technology has enhanced collaborative writing tasks through the usage of a software that combines “a word processor, a chat facility, access to a private notepad and online information sources” (Ballard & Ballard, 2013; Hafner, 2013; Zhou, Simpson & Domizi, 2012). With the readily available resources like summarizing, educators are able to design a collaborative writing task for teaching and learning purposes. Some studies that investigated the effectiveness of collaborative writing through the usage of writing tasks have found that the quality of the students’ products are better when working in groups and while using summarizing to assist them improve their writing (Hadjerrouit, 2014; Li, 2015; McDonough & Sunitham, 2009; Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Warschauer, 2010).

When examining discussions in a group, researchers found that the collaborative environment has helped to redefine students’ ideas of ownership (Gress, Fior, Hadwin, & Winne, 2010; Li & Kim, 2016; Morton-Standish, 2014). Using collaborative summarizing,

could help build students' authorial presence as they allow for a large number of collaborators to contribute and work together, share ideas and clarify thoughts (Kessler, 2009; Onrubia & Engel, 2009; Wollscheid, Sjaastad, Tomte & Lover, 2016), resulting an increase in critical thinking throughout the collaborative writing process (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014; Teow, 2014; Wheeler, Yeomans & Wheeler, 2008). This, however, is dependent on the task instructions as some studies highlighted that the usage of summarizing with collaborative writing could dampen the performance of the students. Hence, it is crucial for collaborative writing participants to be able to use their critical thinking skills throughout the writing process (Kessler, Bikowski & Boggs, 2012; Campbell & Pullinger, 2013; Teow, 2014).

Students should practice such critical thinking when doing reading. In summary, collaborative summary writing studies have demonstrated that collaborative writing environment that incorporates critical thinking instruction has improved students' thinking skills and literacy. Students' group discussions will also be developed towards higher levels of interaction with debates and clarifications made throughout the writing process (Aydin & Yildiz, 2014; Kavaliauskiene, 2010; Mak & Coniam, 2008), suggesting that writing has been facilitated through collaborative summary writing tasks.

Nonetheless, the task is only successful if there is an effective blend of adaptive instruction, which offers not only summarizing to be used as a platform for collaborative writing, but also opportunities for critical thinking-infused collaborative writing activities that can potentially foster both critical thinking skills and literacy outcomes (Chong, Tan, & Mardziah, 2011; King, 2015, Kuteeva, 2011; Yang, Gamble, Hung, & Lin, 2014).

Summarizing tasks through collaboration improved learners writing skill. It can be said that most students are motivated by an improvement in their writing competencies in collaborative writing tasks. Some studies over the recent years have suggested that students are motivated by an improvement in their writing competencies in collaborative writing. Motivation, in this context, refers to student's affective behavior and reaction towards the improved quality of their product. In fact, the majority of the studies pointed out that students felt motivated after participating in collaborative writing because the products that were created surpassed their expectations (Dobao & Blum, 2013; Ong & Maarof, 2013; Chen, Xie, & Looi, 2012). Students who worked in collaborative groups also reported being more satisfied with their classes and with their performance (Ong & Maarof, 2013). Many students found that the interaction that they had with their peers, especially during feedback and editing, helped them see the importance of improving their pieces. This made them motivated to apply the same set of skills to their individual work (Dobao, 2012; Ong & Maarof, 2013). Studies have also found that the products of collaborative writing have demonstrated the recommended quality of work, making this another factor as to why students are more motivated after collaborative writing tasks. When working in groups, students generally produce shorter but better texts in terms of task fulfillment, grammatical accuracy, and complexity (Prinsen, Volman, Terwel, & van den Eeden, 2009; Shehadeh, 2011; Yeh, 2014), as collaboration gave students the opportunity to gather ideas and provide each other with feedback. Studies have also found that students tend to be more positive and open to collaborative writing tasks as it could help them with language learning. This was indicated in a number of studies where students declared that collaborative writing was useful in helping them to improve their grammatical accuracy and vocabulary acquisition (Dobao, 2014; Prinsen, Volman, Terwel, & van den Eeden, 2009; Shehadeh, 2011; Yeh, 2014).

In particular, peer feedback can improve the quantity and quality of peer talk, and increase student interaction and negotiation in the writing process. Students also thought that, while discussing and interacting with their group members and with the support and guidance from their teacher, they improved their English vocabulary, gained new ideas and perspectives, and enhanced their learning about text coherence. All of which led to improvement in their writing **competencies, as indicated by students'** assessed writing performance (Storch, 2005; Ong & Maarof, 2013). In short, the above studies have shown that students are motivated by an improvement in their writing competencies in collaborative writing. When it comes to improving grammatical accuracy, students stated that it is easier to correct other **people's errors** than their own (Dobao, 2012; Yeh, 2014). Hence, providing students the opportunity to learn skills, such as **the "critical editing eye", which in return** may be useful, beneficial and applicable for use in individuals writing in the future.

It can be said that Collaborative writing is effective in improving accuracy of student writing and critical thinking. Over the recent years, some studies have documented the effectiveness of collaborative writing in applying linguistic knowledge, such as grammar, text coherence and cohesion, in writing (Chittooran, 2015; Dobao, 2012, 2014; Dowse & van Rensburg, 2015; Nixon & McClay, 2007; Sajedi, 2014). Some studies have also documented collaborative writing has **helped improve students' writing quality in terms of content**, organization, grammar and vocabulary (Dobao, 2012, 2014; Dowse & van Rensburg, 2015). Some studies found that there are no differences in terms of fluency and complexity, but the texts written in groups/pairs were significantly more accurate than those written individually (Nixon & McClay, 2007). The above studies suggest that collaborative writing helps improve **students'** work through the process of collaboration and interaction. In addition, studies have also shown that collaborative writing have helped students improve in academic achievement and test scores, higher-level thinking skills, and critical thinking (Neumann & McDonough, 2015; Tar, Varga, & Wiwczarowski, 2009; Wong, Lin, Sung, & Lin, 2011).

Moreover, studies found that collaboration with peers has been found to promote critical reflection and thinking among college students (Tar, Varga & Wiwczarowski, 2009). Therefore, studies with secondary students found that engagement with peers encouraged thought provoking activities including honest dialoguing and questioning. This collaborative writing process known as the negotiation process promoted active reflection (Latawiec, Anderson, Ma, & Nguyen-Jahiel, 2016). Collaborative writing has helped to foster language learning and writing conventions development (Silby & Watts, 2015; Suzuki, 2008, Wette, 2014). Through collaborative writing, students are **"impelled to make decisions about the language needed to express their ideas, and thus to formulate the structure in which to express those ideas as they produce a text together"** (Suzuki, 2008).

To sum up, collaborative writing and its interaction feature provide learners with opportunities to use language, and to reflect on their own language use (Nosratinia & Nikpanjeh, 2015; Suzuki, 2008). Through the act of writing collaboratively, learners engage in a dialogue that encourages them to notice gaps in their L2 production and to test assumptions regarding language and literacy acquisition. All these can help improve accuracy of student writing and sharpen their critical thinking skills.

5. Conclusion and Implications

The results of this study reveals that the experimental group who used collaborative writing summary could improve their writing skill. It can be concluded that while working in peer-review tasks, it is obligatory that learners be provided with guidelines that clearly indicate what and how to edit assignments completed outside of the classroom. Instructors should also consider in-class and out of class peer-review tasks. **In addition, Instructors' teaching practices play an important role in improving students' writing abilities. Students' attitudes towards peer-review tasks will become more positive when changes are made to facilitate the review process** (Pardo-Ballester & Cabello, 2016). The findings of this study are in line with (Lina & Maarof, 2013; Sajedi, 2014; Shehadeh, 2012; swain, 2000) who found collaborative summary writing can enhance **students' written** performance. Findings from this study suggest that further research is needed in the area of L2 collaborative summary writing and its effect on different genders with different language proficiency.

Research and empirical studies on collaborative writing have generally been very supportive of its use in the ESL classroom. Like this study, a vast number of past studies **examining students' perceptions** of collaborative writing had similarly positive responses. The findings of the many studies suggest varied advantages of collaborative writing, be it in terms of communicative skill, language proficiency, construction of knowledge, or assessment of written work.

However, much Iranian-based research has not been conducted to investigate the effects of collaborative writing **on students' writing performance, nor to examine in depth and detail students' perceptions and the problems** experienced in collaborative writing. To date, studies on collaborative writing in summary writing are scarce, the latter a highly difficult yet essential skill in academic contexts. This study elicited **students' perceptions** of using collaborative writing to write summaries. **Understanding learners' views enables teachers to tailor writing activities according to students' needs and to prepare students well before initiating any collaborative activities.**

In present day classroom, educational needs and approaches are changing and educators need to explore various approaches, methods and pedagogies to address these changing needs in their teaching and learning. Implementing a collaborative environment in the writing classroom (as opposed to mere group work) is not without its challenges. Factors such as **class size, time constraints, and teachers' ability** to facilitate and guide students in the process of collaborative summary writing are some of the concerns that would need to be addressed. A needs analysis and research on teacher training programs using the collaborative approach to summary writing should be conducted before any changes in their pedagogical practice is to be applied. Research on collaborative models of teaching writing could be disseminated to schools to foster awareness of this approach.

Although collaborative writing may not be likely to yield immediate results and transform learners into great writers, the benefits and advantages of this approach to general learning have been shown in numerous past studies. In view of the lack of interest and ability in the writing skill of the majority of Iranian students today, a more interactive pedagogy utilizing the collaborative approach is a viable alternative to the traditional method of teaching summary writing.

The research synthesized above suggest that collaborative writing can be further facilitated through the use of summarizing; most students are motivated by an improvement in

their writing competencies in collaborative writing tasks; and collaborative writing is effective in improving accuracy of student writing and critical thinking. Some studies have shown that the use of collaborative summary writing tasks has helped to enhance student writing abilities. This finding can be considered consistent with Gan's (2015) insights that writing tasks are important tools to enhance the educational experience of students and their collaborative writing curve. Collaborative writing has helped to foster critical thinking skills of the participants. Findings have shown that collaborative writing may motivate students to develop their writing skills.

However, the proficiency of the language plays a significant role in the success of collaborative writing on its participants (Wong, Chai, Aw, & King, 2015). This was demonstrated in studies where language teachers agree that the students' proficiency in the language of instruction is important in order for the students to be motivated during and after their collaborative writing tasks (Kozuh, et al., 2015; Wong, Chai, Aw, & King, 2015). In fact, research has shown that students tend to be more motivated when working in their first language as the language of instruction, compared to working with their second language (Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2005).

Some research may not support the argument that collaborative writing could help students to be motivated in developing their writing skills. For example, English as second language (ESL) students may face difficulties when writing collaboratively. This in turn may affect their level of motivation and success of the collaborative writing tasks (Dobao, 2012; Shehadeh, 2011). Their lack of proficiency might silence them and their contribution to the writing task at hand. This may offset the advantages of collaborative writing tasks as the tasks are aimed at helping students acquire the academic communicative competencies and skills that they need through interactions in order to achieve success in writing (Manathunga & Hernandez-Leo, 2015; Prinsen, Volman, Terwel, & van den Eeden, 2009; Shehadeh, 2011). In fact, some research studies suggest that students do not appreciate writing together. They are not motivated to participate in collaborative writing tasks because of continued disagreements and member incompatibility (Bremner, 2010; Meyer, 2014). Teamwork plays an important role in the success of collaborative writing. Most participants commented that it is difficult to work with people that they are not familiar with. This point is demonstrated in some studies where the products from the group of friends are of a better quality than the group of different familiarity levels (Meyer, 2014).

On the other hand, research also shows that the success of collaborative writing is dependent on the responsibility that each student takes on (Spector et al., 2016). Despite being friends, some participants felt that there could be complacency when writing with friends, as people tended to be too comfortable and avoid responsibility causing others to take up more work and more responsibilities (Meyer, 2014). Findings have also shown that both higher-proficiency learners and lower-proficiency learners benefit from collaborative writing experience (Rardin & Moan, 1971; Weinstein & Bearison, 1985). Research has shown that students with lower English proficiency managed to focus mostly on vocabulary and grammar while composing their texts; students with higher English proficiency focused more on cohesion, content, and rhetoric (Elola & Oskoz, 2010; Wang, 2009). However, when they are mixed into groups of different proficiency levels, students of the lower proficiency are able to manage and learn organizational skills from their peers with higher proficiency (Naghdi-pour, 2016; Yang, 2014; Yeh, 2014).

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The Repetition Patterns in Persian Language

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Abstract

“Repetition is encountered in every language and affects all types of linguistic units” (Inkelas & Zoll, 2009, p. 1). This study, based on Tannen’s (2007) repetition model, was conducted to uncover forms and functions of repetition patterns used by Persian speakers, and to signify the linking repetitions used to repeat themselves in specific contexts. To answer the research questions, the number frequency of different form and function of repetitions was counted. To this goal, five different Persian speakers were non-randomly selected based on six criteria; afterwards, they were recorded, transcribed, translated, analyzed quantitatively/qualitatively and the final results were introduced. The findings of the study showed that out of 13 repetition forms in 58 topics within 2:33:26 recordings, the participants used different repetition forms 129 times through their conversations. In addition, out of generally 18 linking repetition types, 57 idiosyncratic and common linking repetitions were extracted. Besides, it was found that the most and the least frequently used forms in line with functions were respectively Emphasis, and Exclamation, Gap-filling, Humor, Interrogation, and Wishing altogether. Likewise, the highest frequency within and across idiosyncratic and common linking repetitions was چیز ((some) thing) with its derivatives, and the least ones were merely the idiosyncratic words. The perspectives of the current research can provide sociolinguists with wider horizon for further replications in the realm of repetition in various linguistic aspects especially in Persian.

Keywords: Repetition, Linking Repetition, Form and Function

1. Introduction

At first sight, repetition seems to be a simplistic language phenomenon skulking under different names such as ‘*recycling*’ and ‘*reframing*’. However, delving into the very conception of repetition, a profound significance is grasped in both theory and practice. Following Inkelas and Zoll’s (2009) statement that “Repetition is encountered in every language and affects all types of linguistic units” (p. 1), we can stand on the ground that it is an inseparable component of language produced for a range of reasons including involvement, establishing relationships, coherence, etc. in ordinary conversations. To gain a sound understanding of repetition, it simply suffices to pay attention to a couple of conversations during a day. So doing, you may face a number of repeated lexical, syntactic, and semantic levels made by different language speakers in various situations. As an instance, you might listen to someone repeating himself two times in a similar way; it may even occur more than two times immediately or with delay; e.g. ‘*I overslept, I overslept, [...], yea, unfortunately, I overslept*’. Moreover, with respect to the psychological facet of repetitions, Tannen (2007) believes that repetitions are mostly automatic and spontaneous. Taking into account Tannen’s (2007) proposition, “Analysis of repetition thus sheds light on our conception of language production [both in L1 and L2], or, as Becker would say, ‘*linguaging*’ (p. 49).

Not going under the guises of superficial similarities; care should be given to distinguish repetition from reduplication. In the first stance, repetition is a syntactic process whereas reduplication is a morphological process (Gil, 2005; as cited in Hurch et al. 2008, Wang, 2005). In other words, repetition consists of two identical words while reduplication is a single word

consisting of two identical parts (Kouwenberg, 2003; as cited in Hurch et al. 2008). In this light, Hurch et al. (2008) maintain that “the distinction between reduplication and repetition may be considered straightforward in some languages, and slightly less in others, but it is also difficult to identify in some languages”, continuing that “doubling strategies are to be found on various levels of grammar”; that is, both repetition and reduplication may occur in syntactic, semantic, and lexical levels with idiosyncratic and superficial differences in their functions. To show the differences, Wang (2005, p. 510) has provided us with the following examples:

- a) *Your Daddy learnt never, never to cry in the dark.* → **Repetition**
- b) *They just let you go on buying on the never- never.* → **Reduplication**

The function of ‘never’ in these sentences are quite different. In the sentence *a*, ‘never’ plays an adverbial role separated by comma; yet, in the sentence *b* ‘never-never’ is an expression per se meaning ‘on hire purchase’.

Irrespective of pervasive presence of repetition in language among different group of people with different cultural, social, etc. backgrounds, and the existence of some researches done in different languages with various purposes on repetition in intertextual and interactional discourse and conversation analyses; still, it has received scant attention in literature especially in Persian so that to my best knowledge no study has been done concerning repetition in Persian so far. Bearing the facts in mind, the present research is investigating the discourse in Persian language used by Farsi speakers to come up with the very nature of repetition in various genres and utterances. It is worth mentioning that the current study is not concerned with specifying the distinctive strategies of rhetorical repetitions such as anadiplosis, antistasis, diacope, etc.

1.1 Repetition

To come to terms with repetition, a number of definitions and propositions are available. Tannen (1987) maintains that repetition is a spontaneous automatic feature of language used to interact and to show creativity. Similarly, Tannen (1989) asserts that repetition is a strategy and a creative device used by individuals to make meanings through interactions. “Repetitions [...] consist of the consecutive usage of the same quasi-lexical or lexical item or items” (Reiger, 2003, p. 51). McCarthy and Carter (2004) state that repetition is a sign of language production in languages. Again, Silva and Santos (2005) view repetition as an interpersonal key strategy used by speakers.

1.2 Linking repetition

Taken together, two repetition models have in general been proposed by Tannen (1987; 2007), and Norrick (1987). As Tannen (1987; 2007) maintains, repetitions follow four functions as *production, comprehension, connection, and interaction*.

‘Production’ is defined as speakers’ ability to produce language more efficiently with less energy-draining way facilitating the production of more language, more fluently, and helping to avoid silence (Tannen, 2007). One component of production is called *linking repetition* enabling “speakers to produce fluent speech while formulating what to say next” (Tannen, 2007, p. 58). This type of repetition is somehow similar to gap-fillers used to avoid silence but in a more meaningful way. Here is a transcription sample from Tannen’s (2007) study in which ‘and’ is a

linking repetition: [...] *and he knows English, and he knows French, and he knows Spanish, and he is a gentleman.*

'Comprehension', on the other hand, is the mirror of production used to provide less dense discourse. 'Connection' and 'interaction' are also used by speakers in their lexical or phonological utterances for rapport and/or imitation. In addition, Tannen (1987; 2007) provides us with five different forms of repetitions as 1) *self-repetition/allo-repetition*, 2) *Fixity/paraphrasing*, 3) *Variation* 4) *Patterned rhythmic* and 5) *Immediate/delayed*. As opposed to Tannen's (1987; 2007) categorization (*acknowledgement, concurring, accepting formulation, expressing surprise or disbelief, matching claim, contradicting, correcting, thinking aloud, playing on phrase for humor*), Norrick (1987) divides repetitions into two broad categories as *second-speaker repetition* vs. *same-speaker repetition* (*hold floor, bridge in interruption, insure precise understanding, increase coherence, repeat with stress, repeat with expansion*).

1.3 Form and function

To get the reasons behind repetitions, we have to resort to the forms and functions of repetitions. Some of the most important reasons for repeating may be *emphasis, power relations, ratification, clarification, explanation, expansion*, etc. Moreover, repetitions may be formal and functional. The former refers to discursal and referential features of linguistic meanings, the latter deals with interactional meanings (Tannen 1989). According to Johnstone (1987a) the **function of repetition is to have the hearer's attention. In fact, "The over-arching function of repetition is the establishment of coherence, interpersonal involvement in discourse"** (Tannen, 2007, p. 58). Overall, depending on particular contexts of use, repetitions are used for different purposes.

2. Literature Review

"The most significant addition to the literature on repetition is *Repetition in discourse: interdisciplinary perspectives*, Johnstone's (1994) two-volume collection of twenty-seven papers on the subject" (Tannen, 2007, p. 15). Regarding the approaches taken in repetitions, Johnstone (1987a) classifies them in four categories: 1) repetition as discourse cohesive device 2) analysis of repetition as rhetorical device 3) the semantic effects of repetition 4) repetition in language learning, linguistic socialization, and language teaching. According to Tannen's (2007) claim, these papers ensure the significance of repetition in making social connections. Likewise, a considerable number of studies have been cited in Tannen (2007), including Bolinger (1961); Hymes (1981); Becker (1984b); Schegloff (1997); Stivers (2004); Svennevig (2004); Curl (2005); and Tovares (2005) regarding various concerns of repetition. Out of these studies, Bolinger (1961), Hymes (1981), and Becker (1984b), "all suggest that repetition is at the heart not only of how a particular discourse is created, but how discourse itself is created" (Tannen, 2007, p. 49).

In figurative language, Finnegan (1977) believes that repetition is "[...] the most salient feature of poetry" (p. 90). Johnstone et al. (1987a) argue the cognitive effect of repetition, claiming the paradigmatic feature of repetition within which speakers try to avoid variation, to hesitate, to call the hearer's attention, and to clarify. McCarthy and Carter (1994) propose that repetition occurs in all conversations and different types of discourses. Garner (2002) focuses

on the importance of repetition in written English to avoid ambiguity within texts. As Tannen (2007) suggests, repetitions can influence the way people make inferences. Hurch et al. (2008) state that “Repetitions of any kind usually serve rhetorical purposes”.

As well, there turned up some cross-linguistic studies exploring to discover the similarities and differences between and among two languages. For instance, Fox et al. (1996) explored differences in English and Japanese repetitions as self-repair strategies and revealed outstanding differences between the two by saying that English speakers use repetitions in order to delay while Japanese speakers do not follow such a strategy. Likewise, Rieger (2003) in her study of repetitions as self-repair strategies of German and English speakers investigated the differences between the two and discovered some structural differences; finally she concluded that repetitions as self-repair strategies were an orderly phenomenon in languages. To name a few similar studies, Silva and Santos (2005) examined the repetitions in some Portuguese learners' discourse in three different settings of the language classroom, conversation sessions, and interviews and showed that the forms and functions are quantitatively and qualitatively context specific; most significantly, they confirmed the importance of repetition in pedagogy. In addition, Wang (2005) in a corpus-based approach to discourse in relation to repetition focused on the frequency of some repeated tokens in British National Corpus based on McCarthy's framework (1990 and later), then calculated the collocations in terms of mutual information and found the saliency of repetitions in our routines. Rieschild (2005) discussed Arabic emphatic repetition in ethnographic interviews and understanding of non-pragmatically motivated repetition in Spoken Arabic to find the intensity factors between and among them. Besides, Clark and Bernicot (2008) concentrated on repetitions as ratification to investigate the differences between parents and children in this regard and concluded that adults ratified mostly for checking on intentions and correcting errors while children applied them in order to correct what the adult said. Most recently, Knutson (2010) ran a research on repetition to seek two purposes; first he described other-repetition conversational functions, then provided evidence for embedding communicative repetition in target languages.

3. The Study

The purpose of the current research, based on Tannen's (2007) repetition model, is to uncover forms and functions of repetition patterns utilized throughout Persian speakers' recordings, and to signify some common/specific linguistic devices -*linking repetition*- coined by Tannen (2007)- used to repeat themselves in specific contexts of communication. Also, the study aims at weaving repeating patterns in Persian language by counting the number frequency of different types of repetitions. Consequently, the current research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What forms and functions do the repetitions play in the language used by Persian speakers in different contexts?
2. What are the common/specific *linking repetitions* mostly produced by Persian speakers while repeating themselves?
3. What are the most and the least frequent forms, functions, and linking repetitions used by Persian speakers?

4. Method

In order to accomplish the goals of the study, five Persian speakers with different characteristics were selected through a judgment-sampling process; afterwards, their voices were recorded, transcribed, translated into English, analyzed quantitatively/qualitatively and the final results were introduced. The reasons for such a non-randomly selection, regardless of the societal significance of people in terms of contextual differences, was the matter of more homogeneity between and among the informants to narrow-down the scope of the study as well as to ensure the patterns within and across a specific group of speakers possessing peculiar features though this study is not concerned with cross-sociolinguistic descriptions. As already observed throughout some similar studies, another reason refers back to the very fact that repetition is a universal phenomenon so that even a small sample of speakers of language can provide us with lines of evidence of such features.

4.1 Participants

The individuals who have taken part in this research consist of five adult male Persian speakers ranging in age from 25 to 60 years old with peculiar characteristics of marital status, social/educational background, and originality. Table 1 describes the participants:

Table 1: Characteristics of the participants

Informants	Age	Gender	Marital Status	Social background	Educational background	Originality
A	25	Male	Single	Tehran/Middle class/Employee	B.A./Network	Ardebil
B	31	Male	Married	Tehran/Middle class /Employee	Diploma/Humanities	Tabriz
C	36	Male	Married	Tehran/Middle class /Employee	Diploma/Humanities	Tabriz
D	40	Male	Married	Tehran/Middle class/Self-employed	Diploma/Math	Kashan
E	54	Male	Married	Tehran/Middle class /Pensioner	Diploma/Humanities	Tabriz

4.2 Instruments

Having selected the participants, the researcher embarked on recording their voices through a simple voice recorder, then they were uploaded to computer in order to be transcribed and translated. Also, a number of checklists were used to mark off the forms, functions, and the linking repetitions to be counted for further analyses.

4.3 Procedure

To answer the research questions, the present research had to delve into Persian speakers' natural conversations to extract the repetition structures as far as possible.

4.3.1 Data collection

This study generally takes seven steps to amass the data. As already mentioned, five participants were first selected non-randomly based on the six criteria described in Table 1 (*age, gender, marital status, social background, educational background, originality*) which are codified by five code-words (A, B, C, D, E) for the matter of anonymity.

To this aim, the researcher talked with every single of them on various personal, family, social, economical, religious, political, etc. issues in a way to prepare them for a kind of self-

disclosure so as to gain as many natural information as possible. Therefore, they were as naturally as possible audio-taped indoors (B,C,E), outdoors (A), and both indoors and outdoors (D) on 58 topics in totally more than two and half an hour (2:33:26). In addition, not to be hit by the double-sword of naturalness and ethicality of the data, the researcher **didn't let them** know about recording their voices except one of them by the time we were talking with each other, but after the recordings finished, they were informed about the fact. Facing the only participant who was aware of the recording, another strategies were taken to maintain and elicit the natural data from him. Ultimately, the recorded voices of each individual were uploaded to computer. Next, the researcher in three different times carefully listened to the recordings to concentrate on repetition structures. The fourth step began with transcribing the elicited structures produced by every single of the informants separately. Furthermore, the repetition structures were topically classified based upon the situations they occurred. Simply put, the transcripts of this study are topic-based carrying a couple of sentences (not sentence-based). Then, the repeated constructs (words, phrases, clauses, sentences) were highlighted, bolded, and italicized according to the study questions and requirements. For instance, the synonymous and/or paraphrased expressions were highlighted, the repeated structures were bolded, and the linking repetitions were italicized. Finally, the determined transcripts were translated into English in harmony with the organizing principles embodied in the aforementioned steps. (See Appendix)

4.3.2 Data analysis

The researcher set out to examine the gathered data qualitatively and quantitatively based upon the research framework and questions to obtain the answers.

Regarding the first research question, the researcher concentrated on the highlighted and bolded nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. to identify the nature of them to see what forms they had and what functions they played in specific situations. So doing, they were codified and jotted down on the checklists separately. Having been codified, they were categorized and their frequencies were also counted individually.

With respect to the second question, the researcher zoomed in on the italicized words and interpreted them to see whether they were commonly used by different speakers or they were idiosyncratic to discover a kind of pattern, strategy, or technique to which Persian speakers mostly resort in particular situations with particular purposes. In other words, the study is seeking to find a sort of common feature between and among the participants. To suit this purpose, the words were listed on the checklists, then they were separately categorized and also counted.

Accordingly, the researcher based on the obtained frequencies and categories of the forms, functions, and the words which lubricated the repetitions (linking repetition), addressed the third question to receive a reasonable answer throughout the study.

5. Results and Discussion

As already mentioned, the whole recordings were two and half an hour on 58 different topics. Table 2 gives us an overview of the spent time on various topics by each participant:

Table 2: The amount of time and the number of topics elicited from the participants

Participants	Time	Topic
A	33:23	13
B	38:16	14
C	46:25	10
D	14:41	8
E	20:41	13
Total	2:33:26	58

As illustrated in Table 2, the longest and shortest spent time are respectively dedicated to C (46:25) and D (14:41) depending on the conditions under which the recordings were done. Likewise, the most and the least topics are in order B (14) and D (8). Besides, A and E possess the same number of topics (each 13). Interestingly, although C has spent the longest time, he has not used the most topics showing that his topic switching is less than, say, B who has the **most number of topics though his spent time is less than C's**.

Thus, as experience shows, more time does not necessarily cause more topics since topic switching mostly depends on the ways, and cognitive/affective reasons behind which someone moves from one topic to another and they may not necessarily be related to each other. Below two samples of 10 unrelated topics switched by each participant have been given:

A) *Within these economical texts. / Everyone can have one.*

(A) *نوابین متنایی که اقتصادی بود. / هر فردی بدون میثونه داشته باشه.*

B) *She'll go out again with someone who is familiar. / They stopped the vehicles.*

(B) *با کسیکه بلده مبره بیرون. / ماشینو نگه میداشتن.*

C) *He is frequently going and coming. / He is not appreciative.*

(C) *هی برو بیا، برو بیا. / قدر شناس نیست.*

D) *Everyone only dies once. / I'll give you what you want.*

(D) *آدم که یه جون که بیشتر نداره. / هر چی که بخواین من بهتون میدم.*

E) *These are all true. / The guy gave me the cold shoulder.*

(E) *واقعا اینا بوده / مرد سرد مزاجه.*

Now, in order to show the frequency of repetitions within and across each topic used by each individual, the forms and functions of repetitions should be delineated in the first place.

5.1 Forms and functions

Analyzing the repeated structures, some sentences containing more than just one function and/or forms. Also, there were totally found only three *delayed repetitions* so that the rest of the repetitions were among *immediate repetitions*. These two are among Tannen's (1987; 2007) categorization of forms in which delayed repetitions refers to those repetitions occurred after a considerable intervals between the sentences, and in immediate repetitions no of such intervals are observed. To come to grips with delayed and immediate repetitions some samples are found from the recordings:

Immediate repetitions

a) original transcript:

(1) در حد نظر خواهی فرماشو دادن، در حد نظر خواهی فرماشو دادن.

(2) ماشینو نگه می داشتن، ماشینو نگه میداشتن.

(3) از چی میترسی؟ از چی میترسی؟

b) translated transcript:

1) **They've merely given the opinionnaires.** they've merely given the opinionnaires.

2) **They stopped the vehicles.** they stopped the vehicles.

3) I asked him **why he feared.** why he feared?

Delayed repetitions

a) original transcript:

(1) مهریه شو گذاشته اجرا، آره، بعد اون مهریه شو گذاشته اجرا؛ از اینورم بابای این گفته باشه شما مهرتونو گذاشتین، منم مهریه دختر خودمو میذارم اجرا، ... ازین میگیرم میدم به اون؛ فهمیدی چوری شده؟ گفته من مهر دخترمو میذارم، از این میگیرم میدم به شما. الان دیدن که یارو گفته: باشه شما مهرتونو گذاشتین، منم مهریه دختر خودمو میذارم اجرا، گفته من مهر دخترمو میذارم، از این میگیرم میدم به شما.

(2) بعضیا فکر میکنن که اگر خونه به میلیاردی باشه، نلویزبونه؛ ص، اینچی داشته باشی، یخچال سایید بای سایید داشته باشی دیگه همه جیت تکمیله، نه بابا به این چیزا نیست که، انسان خیلی باید خونه فکر باشه که فکر کنه اگر خونه نو میلیاردی داشته باشه، نلویزبونه شصت اینچی داشته باشه، یخچال سایید بای سایید داشته باشه ...

(3) کنترل شده، یعنی شیطونو درس میده این، کنترل شده، ... کنترل شده.

b) translated transcript:

1) She has annulled her marriage vow, yea, she has **annulled her marriage vow** [...] and at the same time, her father-in-law also **did the same thing**, tit for tat; you see? [...] He **did the same thing; tit for tat.** He has also **annulled his son's marriage vow, tit for tat.**

2) Some think if they **have an expensive house, TV, refrigerator**, everything is ok; but that's not right; a person might be narrow-minded to think if he **has an expensive house, TV, refrigerator** [...]

3) **Controlled**, she has devious cunning, she **controls** her husband, **controlled**.

Taking into account the above-mentioned points, 13 different forms (types) of repetitions were identified within and across 58 topics shown in Table 3:

Table 3: Frequency of repetition forms used by each participant

Forms	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Acknowledgement	2	1	1	1	1	3
Clarification	4	2	1	3	2	12
Downgrading	1	1	1	1	1	2
Emphasis	8	23	12	14	21	78
Exclamation	1	1	1	1	1	1
Frequency	1	1	1	1	1	2
Gap-filling/Hesitation	1	1	1	1	1	1
Humor	1	1	1	1	1	1
Intensification	1	2	1	1	1	2
Interrogation	1	1	1	1	1	1
Paraphrasing	3	1	5	3	3	12
Rhetorical questions	1	1	3	1	8	13
Wishing	1	1	1	1	1	1
<i>13 repetition forms</i>	20	30	25	19	35	129*

The results described in Table 3 reveal that out of 13 repetition forms found in 58 topics, repetitions have 129 times been used by the participants. As shown, *Emphasis* is the most frequent (78) forms of repetitions, and is the only form of repetitions commonly used by all the participants. Also, participant B (23 times) has used this form more than the other participants, and participant A (8) has used the form less than the other participants. Similarly, the least frequent forms of repetitions are commonly *Exclamation*, *Gap-filling*, *Humor*, *Interrogation*, *Wishing* (per 1). Again, three forms of *Downgrading*, *Intensification*, and *Frequency* have the same number of occurrence (per 2), also, per *Clarification* and *Paraphrasing* has equally occurred 12 times. Moreover, participant E possesses the most frequent use of repetitions within and across the forms; on the contrary, participant D has generally the least frequent of repetitions. On the whole, *Emphasis*, *Clarification*, and *Paraphrasing* are respectively the most frequent forms of repetitions. Besides, Table 4 shows a sample for each of the identified forms:

Table 4: Instances of the extracted samples

Forms	Samples
Acknowledgement	Everyone can have one , yea .can have one .
Clarification	It was about economics, economics based upon, say, something like web services .
Downgrading	They are nothing but hollow slogans , they are just a fistful of slogans .
Emphasis	They've merely given the opinionnaires, they've merely given the opinionnaires .
Exclamation	What's going on, what's going on!
Frequency	He is frequently going and coming, going and coming,
Gap-filling	Anyway, anyway, he told me the fact just honestly.
Humor	They keep giving ideas, keep giving ideas!
Intensification	I carried 25 million money by bus, you see, 25 million .
Interrogation	You know Mrs. Maliheh? , one of Sarah's relatives; Mrs. Maliheh?
Paraphrasing	You did well in translation of <i>Pardaxte online</i> , you did a miracle on it.
Rhetorical questions	He is not appreciative, he is not appreciative ; how isn't he appreciative?
Wishing	May disasters be away from my daughter, may disasters be away from my daughter!

As shown, *Intensification* is very similar to *Emphasis*, as well as *Gap-filling/Hesitation* which resembles *Attention-getters* since the ultimate functions are the same. *Downgrading* is the same as *indifference reduplication* used with /KE/(that) in Persian language. Furthermore, the functions of repetitions used by the participants cannot be separated from their forms because they complement each other so that the meanings and the conceptions of the forms can lead us into the functions as well; thus, we should not be led astray by the functions in and of themselves.

In reality, this study implicitly/explicitly found most of the forms addressed by Tannen (1987; 2007) and Norrick (1987) except *Wishing*, *Frequency*, and *Downgrading*. As well, the present research found not **more than Tannen's (2007) functional categorization of repetitions (Production, Connection, Comprehension, Interaction)**. As the spirit of emphasis existed within all the forms, the soul of functions also exists within forms so that they are closely interwoven with each other. For instance, *Acknowledgements* are used to keep up the spirit of interactions by means of more *productions* so as to ensure *comprehension* to maintain the conversations for an *interpersonal communicative* enhancement. Such findings are also in line with Johnstone (1984; 1987a), Norrick (1987), and Knutson's (2010) statements regarding the significance and ubiquity of social connections and communicative aspects of repetitions in languages.

5.2 Linking repetitions

As already cited by Tannen (2007), one component of production is called *linking repetition* enabling "speakers to produce fluent speech while formulating what to say next." Simply put, linking repetitions play the role of repetition lubricators in order to prepare the speakers for outlining the reasons for further repetitions. Such being the case, 57 frequent idiosyncratic and common use of Persian repetition linking (cliché) words were taken out of the transcripts. Table

5 reveals the type and the frequency of the linking repetitions mostly used by Farsi speakers throughout this study.

Table 5: Participants' idiosyncratic and common use of linking repetitions

Linking repetitions	Idiosyncratic	Common
بابا	■	2
نه (نه بابا، نه اینکه، نه ولی)	■	4
آره (آره ولی)	■	4
اصلا (دیگه اصلا، اصلا دیگه)	■	5
دیگه (اصلا دیگه، دیگه اصلا)	■	6
چیز (چیز، اوں) چیزیکه، چیزاش)	■	8
که (اونا که)	■	2
اینا (هم)	■	4
اونا، اونم	■	4
همین، همون (چیز، جور)	■	6
بعد (بعدش، بعدشم)	■	5
فعلا (حالا فعلا، هیجی فعلا)	1	■
باز(م)	1	■
مثلا	1	■
اتفاقا	1	■
(پس) نگو	1	■
آقا	1	■
هی	1	■
18 L-Rs	7	50 = 57*

Note: L-Rs.=Linking Repetitions

According to the Table 5, and regardless of the derivations, out of generally 18 linking repetition types, totally 57 L-Rs were extracted seven of which have idiosyncratically been used by the individuals so that they have not been utilized by the others; on the other hand, 50 commonly used L-Rs were also found. Moreover, as illustrated, چیز (something) with its derivatives has the highest frequency (8), and بابا (an attention-getter) is the lowest L-R (2). Likewise, آره، نه اونا، اینا (yea, no, those, these) equally have the same frequency (4) as well as دیگه (no more, just the same) (6) اصلا، بعد، (afterwards, anyway-never) with their derivatives (5).

The idiosyncratic cliché words may also be used commonly and vice versa. Put it another way, the words used with high frequency by someone in somewhere may have low frequency when are used by another person in another context and vice versa. Put the facts aside, the findings of the linking repetitions throughout this study indicate that the mostly used L-Rs applied by Farsi speakers are respectively چیز ((some)things) and همین، همون، دیگه with their

specific functions and derivatives. Likewise, the least frequent ones are the idiosyncratic words affirming that they are more context-specific.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The current research discovered the forms, types, and functions of repetition with specific frequencies and characteristics used mostly by Farsi speakers. Actually, showing such interesting patterns in Persian language once more lends support to **Inkelas and Zoll's (2009)** claim with respect to the ubiquity of repetition in every language. Besides, on the basis of what was observed throughout this research, we can rely on Hurch et al. (2008) concerning the existence of doubling strategies in various lexical, syntactic and even semantic levels of language.

With respect to the generalizability of the findings, again, we should take into account the exceptions and probabilities they may have within and across different individuals, cultures, societies, psychological behaviors, topics and time saliency. All in all, the least contribution of this research goes for disclosing such a concept among Farsi speakers and to raise further questions for those who are fond of language studies. As an instance, a similar study should be done to **investigate men and women's repetition usages to see** if there is any difference, or to focus on the linking repetitions and forms/functions of repetitions between two languages.

Although this research has trodden on an untrodden land of the most under-researched area at least in Persian language, its perspective can provide us with wider horizon for further replications within which exist profound gaps. The study can also help linguists and interpreters on multifaceted issues in sociolinguistics, (cross)linguistics, and even psycholinguistics so as to do discourse analyses regarding the hidden syntactic, semantic, phonological, morphological, pragmatic, etc. features pertaining to the constructs of repetitions.

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Appendix

The Persian transcripts with their translations (from participant A-E)

- A
1. [...] بابا من فکر کردم اصلا چیزه مجازی سازه، نگه افتمنت بود، اقتصاد اوم رو پایه مثلاً سرویسهای چیز، نحت وب؛ این Cloud computing همون رابانش ابریه خودمونه... آره همون رابانش ابریه
- 1) [...] *Uh huh* I thought it was something like virtualization, but, it was about economics, economics based upon, say, something like web services; its cloud computing is the same as our own *Rayaneshe Abri*, yeah, it is the same as cloud computing.
2. [...] من اولش فکر میکردم چیزه، داشتم به جور دیگه اصلا editش میکردم؛ داشتم طبق اون چیزانیکه خودم میدونستم editش میکردم.
- 2) [...] First I thought *himm*, I was editing it in another way; I was editing it based on what I knew.
3. [...] هیچ، فعلاً بچوندمش تا بعد از عاشورا، بچوندمش، آره، تا بعد از عاشورا.
- 3) Nothing now, I goofed around it till Ashura finishes. I goofed around it, yea, till Ashura finishes.
4. [...] حالا فعلاً در حد نظر خواهی فرمائشو دادن، در حد نظر خواهی فرمائشو دادن.
- 4) [...] They've merely given the opinionnaires, they've merely given the opinionnaires.
5. [...] نظر میدنا، نظر میدن.
- 5) [...] They keep giving ideas, keep giving ideas!
6. [...] اونا که همش حرفه، حرفه اونا همش.
- 6) [...] They are nothing but hollow slogans, they are just a fistful of slogans.
7. [...] همین منطقه خودمون عین خارجه، عین خارجه.
- 7) [...] Just our own area is like a foreign country, just like a foreign country.
8. [...] VPN تعطیل، VPN تعطیل، نه، فیلتر نداریم اصلا دیگه، دیگه فیلترینگ نداریم، کلا فیلترینگو ورمبارن.
- 8) [...] VPN is out of use, VPN is out of use, no, there isn't filtering anymore, no more filtering, it will be completely unusable.
9. [...] steal به چه معناست؟ نه، steal به چه معناست؟
- 9) [...] What does *steal* mean? No (please tell me), what does *steal* mean?

[...] 10. نه، ولی بعضی چیزاش قشنگه برای گفتن، بعضی چیزاییکه مثلا تبدیل شده خوبه برا گفتن، اما مثلا همون پیامک و اینا قشنگ بود، آره، ولی پیامک بنظر من قشنگه، پیامک باز بهتر از اس ام اسه.

10) [...] *No, but some of them are good, some of them which, say, have been converted are pretty, but, for example, Payamak (sms) and the like were nice, yea, but, to my view Payamak is good, Payamak is still better than sms.*

[...] 11. تو این متنی که اقتصادی بود، تو این متنی اقتصادی بود.

11) [...] *Within these economical texts, within these economical texts.*

[...] 12. برداخت آنلاین خوب ترجمه کردی، اتفاقا برداخت آنلاین قشنگ اومدی.

12) [...] *You did well in translation of Pardaxte online, you did a miracle on it.*

[...] 13. هر فردی بدون میثونه داشته باشه، بدون میثونه داشته باشه.

13) [...] *Everyone can have one, can have one.*

B

[...] 1. من 25 میلیون پولو با اتوبوس بردم، 25 میلیون بولا.

1) [...] *I carried 25 million money by bus, you see, 25 million.*

[...] 2. دانی گفت: پدر خانومت هم اومده؟ گفتم آره، دانی علی میگفت: پدر خانومت هم اومده؟ گفتم آره.

2) [...] *The uncle asked me whether my father-in-law had come, I said yes; the uncle asked me whether my father-in-law had come, I said yes.*

[...] 3. دیروز میگفت، یه بنده خدانی دیروز به ما میگفت: فقط با تجربه، میگفت فقط اولاد آدمو پیر میکنه، یه بنده خدانی داشت به ما اینو میگفت، گفت یا تجربه میگفتا، فقط اولاد آدمو پیر میکنه، هیچی آدمو پیر نمیکنه، با تجربه داشت این حرفو میزد، یعنی رو چیز حرف نمیزد، میگفت پدر خانومت میخنت منو صدا کرد گفت اکبر فقط اولاد آدمو پیر میکنه، میگفت من آگه پیر شدم اولاد پیرم کرده هیچکس آدمو پیر نمیکنه.

3) [...] *Yesterday someone said, he said to me, only, he said based on his experience, he said only human's own children make him old before his time, someone was saying this fact to me yesterday by experience, only human's own children make him old before his time, no one can make humans this much old but his own children, he was saying it by experience, not something else; he said that his father-in-law told him it is only human's own children who can make him old before his time, and said, if you see me this much old, that's due to my children, no one can make humans this much old.*

[...] 4. چون وقتی مبره تازه شروع میشه؛ بارو میگه بجمو بدم بره درست میشه، بارو میگه بجمو دادم رفت؛ بجمو دادم رفت؛ همون دادم رفت پشت سرش چقدر مشکله؟

4) [...] *Because when they go, that's just the beginning; most people think if they see their children's wedding days, everything will be ok, and they become happy, then, saying they got married, they got married; but they don't know how difficult it is to make a child bride or groom and scarcely meet them.*

[...] 5. دانه، هم منظورش این بود پدرش خردن نیگه، پیرش کردن.

5) [...] *The uncle also meant that they had made him old before his time, they had made him old before his time.*

[...] 6. نه اونجا بریبه پرن، بر به بر میشد نیگه.

6) [...] *No, just tit for tat, tit for tat.*

[...] 7. میگم این فامیل سارانبیا ملیحه خانم هست؟ ملیحه خانم؛ ملیحه خانمو؛ بشناسی که؟

7) [...] *You know Mrs. Maliheh?, one of Sarah's relatives; Mrs. Maliheh?*

[...] 8. مهریه شو گذاشته اجرا، آره، بعد اون مهریه شو گذاشته اجرا؛ از اینورم بابای این گفته باشه شما مهرتونو گذاشتن، منم مهریه دختر خودمو میدارم اجرا، ازین میگیرم میدم به اون؛ فهمیدی چجوری شده؟ گفته من مهر دخترمو میدارم، از این میگیرم میدم به شما (با تأخیر) الان دیدن که یارو گفته: باشه شما مهرتونو گذاشتن، منم مهریه دختر خودمو میدارم اجرا، گفته من مهر دخترمو میدارم، از این میگیرم میدم به شما.

8) [...] *She has annulled her marriage vow, yea, she has annulled her marriage vow; and at the same time, her father-in-law also did the same thing, tit for tat; you see? (delayed) He did the same thing; tit for tat. He has also annulled his son's marriage vow, tit for tat.*

9 [...] قدیمیا میگفتن، قدیمیا - یگفتن دوست به کشتن، نگاه میکنه، دشمن به صورتت نگاه میکنه، فهمیدی چی میگم، وگرنه دوست به صورتت نگاه نمیکنه که، دشمن به صورتت نگاه میکنه.

- 9) [...] In the old days, in the old days people used to say, "A friend in need is a friend indeed", they said, "A friend in need is a friend indeed", you see, "A friend in need is a friend indeed".
- 10 [...] قدر شناس نیست، قدر شناس نیست، حالا چجوری قدر شناس نیست؟! ...
- 10) [...] He is not appreciative, he is not appreciative; how **isn't he appreciative?**

D

- 1 [...] خدا/صلا، یعنی خدا به انسان گفته، گفته برو تفکر کن، نو قرآن داره میگه، میگه گفته برو تفکر کن.
- 1) [...] God, God has invited human beings to thinking, he has told them to think; in the holy Quran He is **inviting** everyone to thinking.
- 2 [...] الان موشک درست میکنند سه هزار متر اونورو مبرته؛ به قول [...] به سیم خاردار نمی دادن بهمون، به سیم خاردار چیه؟ بله بنه، همون به قول [...] به سیم خاردار نمی دادن بهمون، الان موشک درست میکنند سه هزار متر اونورو میزنه.
- 2) [...] Nowadays, they are making missiles targeting at miles away; even we were not given barbed wire, you see, barbed wire; we **weren't** given barbed wire; but now they are making missiles targeting at miles away.
- 3 [...] به خنوریه متن نهران، میخفت به کشته ریه مثل تهرانو در نظر بگیر، مثل تهران.
- 3) [...] It's a country like Tehran, he said it was a country like Tehran, you see, Tehran.
- 4 [...] چون ادم که به جون که بیشتر نداره [...]، به جون که بیشتر نداره.
- 4) [...] Because everyone only dies once, everyone only dies once.
- 5 [...] این فقط میدونه که، میدونه که بازی کنه، چی میدونه.
- 5) [...] What do children know? They **only know**, they **only know** playing, not more.
- 6 [...] بعضیا فکر میکنن که اگر خونه به میلیاردی داشته باشی، تلویزیونه شصت اینچی داشته باشی، یخچال ساید بای ساید داشته باشی دیگه همه چیت نکمینه، نه بابا به این چیزا نیست؛ که، (با تاخیر)، انسان خیلی باید کوله فکر باشه که فکر کنه اگر خونه دو میلیاردی داشته باشی، تلویزیونه شصت اینچی داشته باشی، یخچال ساید بای ساید داشته باشی دیگه همه چیزش حلّه، اما لطف کرشم که باشه، لطف و کرشم باشه.
- 6) [...] Some think if they have an expensive house, TV, refrigerator, everything is ok; but that's not right, (*delayed*), a person might be narrow-minded to think if he has an expensive house, TV, refrigerator, he won't have any problems in life. But, when there exist **God's blessings**, **God's blessings**.
- 7 [...] گفت آگه هر چی بخواین من بهتون میدم، هر چی که بخواین من بهتون میدم.
- 7) [...] He said, "I'll give you what you want, I'll give you what you want."
- 8 [...] تو قرآن میگه من به بعضیا بی حساب میدم، بی حساب میدم/صلا، این به واقعیت، قبول داری؟ میگه من به بعضیا بی حساب میدم.
- 8) [...] God in the holy Quran has said that he grants some people unimaginable wealth, **unimaginable wealth**; this is a fact, you agree? He says that he grants some people **unimaginable wealth**.

E

- 1 [...] چه خبره، چه خبره! به پدری که، به پدری که، فقط فکرش، فقط فکرش این باشه که شکم بچه بر شه، لباس بپوشه مانکن بشه، توبه این بچه چی دادی؟ تو باید به این بچه راه بدی، راه نشون بدی، اون چیزیکه بعدا در زندگی ادم، اون چیزیکه بعدا، اون چیزیکه ماندگار، اون اخلاقیات به ادمه، تربیت به ادمه، صداقت، درست، صداقت.
- 1) [...] **What's going on, what's going on!** A father who, a father who is just preoccupied, only preoccupied with gluttony and dressing his children, so what has he taught them in reality? He should **guide**, **guide** them in life; the things, the things, the things will be useful once in life are ethics, manner, honesty, trustworthy, honesty.
- 2 [...] گفتم این چه حرفیه؟ به من چه؟ به من چه؟ آقا پسر شما با مائسن چهارصد میلیون نومی مبره دانشگاه، به پسر شما چه؟ به پسر شما چه ربطی داره که فلانی اینکارو میکنه.

- 2) [...] I said, "what do you mean, **that's your won business, your won business.**" Imagine your son has a 400 million Toman car, so what should my son do, then? What should he do? Why do you say that?
[...] 3. به بچه ای که نمونه تشخص بده که، اگر این بسر شما نتونه تشخیص بده که، اینو نمیتونه تشخیص بده بره بمره.
- 3) [...] If a child **couldn't realize it, could not realize it, he'd better die.**
[...] 4. اینا بوده، واقعا بوده، نه اینکه دروغ میگه نه واقعا اینا بوده.
- 4) [...] **These are all true, all of them are true, they aren't lies.**
[...] 5. بعد زندگی دست چی، به آدمه نادان، نادان.
- 5) [...] You think who manages their life, **an ignorant man, ignorant man.**
[...] 6. بعد دروغی، همش دروغیکه.
- 6) [...] You see, all he told me **was a lie, was a lie.**
[...] 7. ببین فکر میکنی برای چی نیومد، برای چی نیومد؟
- 7) [...] You think **why he didn't come; why didn't he come?**
[...] 8. بعدش هم، بعدش هم، روراست به من گفت.
- 8) [...] **Anyway, anyway, he told me the fact just honestly.**
[...] 9. کنترل شده، یعنی شیطونو درس میده این، کنترل شده، (با تاخیر) کنترل شده.
- 9) [...] **Controlled, she has devious cunning, (delayed) she controls her husband, controlled.**
[...] 10. گفتم از چی میترسی؟ از چی میترسی؟
- 10) [...] I asked him **why he feared; I asked him why he feared?**
[...] 11. شمانیکه چند سال با هم تو به ایارتیمان نشستین، چند سال، شمانیکه چند سال با هم به جا زندگی میکردین.
- 11) [...] Now **you're living with each other** in a shared apartment **for years, for years you're living with each other for years.**
- [...] 12. اگر راست بگین که اون مشکل داره، اگر راست بگین، اگر این حرفون راسته، اگر میدونستی، چرا بچتو انداختی تو آتیش، چرا انداختی تو آتیش؟
- 12) [...] **If you were right, if you're right, if you're right** about his inefficiency, if you knew the fact, **why would you let your daughter get married? Why would you let her get married, then?**
- [...] 13. گفتم چرا؟ میگه مرد سرد مزاجه، مرد سرد مزاجه.
- 13) I asked why? She said that **the guy gave me the cold shoulder, he gave me the cold shoulder.**

The Effect of Using Metatalk Activity on Grammar Learning of Iranian Advanced EFL Learners

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Abstract

The aim of the present study is to investigate the effect of metatalk activity on Iranian Advanced EFL Learners' knowledge of passive tenses. 60 advanced level institute learners who participated in this study, were randomly selected via a language proficiency test (TOEFL). Those who got $\pm 1SD$ in the test were chosen. They were randomly assigned into two experimental and control groups with 20 participants in every group. An English grammar test related to the usage of passive tenses was administered to both groups in the pre and post-tests. Treatment sessions lasted for 8 sessions but with different methodologies. Teacher in both groups explained about different passive tenses in every treatment sessions. However, learners in the experimental group were treated with metatalk activity and they tried to complete exercises collaboratively with their peers and teachers. They have to complete a dictogloss task with the help of their peers due to focus on learning passive verb tenses. While the control group did not received dictogloss as a metatalk activity and completed the exercises at home and the next session checked the answers. A posttest of grammar was then administered to both groups. The data of the study were analyzed using the independent samples t-test to compare the means of grammar knowledge in both groups. The results revealed that Iranian EFL learners in the experimental group received higher score in the grammar test after being treated with metatalk activity for 8 sessions. It can be conclude that metatalk is an effective method for teaching grammatical knowledge and teachers can use it in their classes.

Key Words: EFL learners, Grammar Learning, Metatalk, Passive Tense

1. Introduction

Swain's (2001, p. 50) defines metatalk as "the metalinguistic function of her output hypothesis: a learner uses language to indicate an awareness of something about their own, or their interlocutor's use of language". Similarly, Vanderheijden (2010) mentions that an example of metatalk could be asking the partner a simple question like, —Shouldn't that word have X ending? Swain did not mention of L1 or L2 use in metatalk; it means that the language of expression is also irrelevant. Another assumption made by Swain is that metatalk is a cognitive tool. She characterizes metatalk as problem-solving language process. Accordingly, it not only helps learners in language learning, but also serves researchers in cognitive processes. Metatalk in this way is related to sociocultural learning. Typically, many skills that we master become easier as our mastery increases, in terms of both physical and cognitive skills – for example, riding a bike, doing long division, or decoding phonemes into words. However, writing is atypical in that the demands of writing increase as writers' mastery of writing grows. While the more basic skills of handwriting and spelling do indeed become easier with maturity, 'as writers mature and gain expertise, they invest more effort and reflective thought in the task' (Kellogg, 1994, p. 204). As our capacity to create text on the page develops, so too does our expectations of what that text can achieve. These increased cognitive and social demands on developing writers require, among other things, increasing metalinguistic understanding about writing to

inform the choices they make in composing written text. Yet, theoretical consideration of metalinguistic understanding has rarely addressed the issue in the context of writing, other than in relation to early years writing development where there is a substantial body of work. Unlike oral development which occurs naturally through social interaction, writing is a learned process, and has to be taught; thus, a particular instructional issue is the role of the teacher in supporting the development of metalinguistic understanding. Critical to the development of this **metalinguistic understanding is how teachers manage ‘metatalk’, talk about language in writing**, during instructional interactions around writing. This paper reports on data from a study investigating a pedagogical intervention linking the teaching of writing with the teaching of grammar, in which teacher facilitation of high-quality talk about language choices was a key pedagogical principle. The paper will show **how teachers’ management of discussion about metalinguistic choices in writing frames students’ capacity to think metalinguistically about their writing**, and will argue that constructive metatalk in writing occurs in dialogic spaces **created by the teachers’ adoption of open dialogic discourse roles**.

Initially, Swain (1985) introduced the term metatalk (MT) in relation to the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. She mentioned the **Krashen’s (1982) Input Hypothesis** and concluded that input is not sufficient for achieving native-like proficiency in the L2. She focused on output. Swain mentioned three functions of output in L2 learning: noticing, hypothesis-testing, and metalinguistic reflection (or metatalk). She concluded that in output production, L2 learners may notice the gaps between what they want to say and what they can actually say, they may experiment with the language and test their own hypotheses, and may engage in metalinguistic reflections on their use and knowledge of the target language (Swain, 1998). Our view of the central role of metalinguistic understanding in writing is underpinned by a social cultural view of grammar represented by Hallidayian functional linguistics. This framework adopts a meaning-oriented theorisation of grammar, concerned to explore the relationship between text and context, and looking not simply at lexical or syntactical aspects of grammar but also the discourse elements of organization, development and cohesion (Halliday, 1994). It regards language as basically **a social semiotic system, as ‘abstract semiosis’** (Halliday, 2004, p.5): the concern is with understanding how language works to make meaning. Halliday argues that any act of communication requires the making of choices and that 'the power of language resides in its organization as a huge network of interrelated choices' (2003, p.8). Accordingly, grammar and grammatical meta language are conceptualized as resources to assist students in learning how to shape meaning. This stands in stark contrast to traditional views of grammar with their emphasis on identification and labelling of grammatical features and their preoccupation with error eradication and notional rules (Marenbon, 1994; Macdonald, 1995). Instead a functional approach draws attention to the possibilities of language choice in shaping **meanings and nuances. Developing learners’ understanding of how language shapes meaning is at the heart of our thinking about metalinguistic understanding in writing**, and the role that dialogic talk plays in supporting metalinguistic thinking. Gombert (1992) distinguishes between declarative and procedural metalinguistic knowledge: declarative knowledge being the knowledge of and ability to state rules and principles, whilst procedural knowledge is the ability to put this knowledge into action (1992, p.191). **Bialystok’s distinction (1994) between analysis and control** develops this further. She argues that analysis and control are key cognitive functions in language development. The process of analysis involves the transformation of

everyday, informal knowledge about meanings into ‘explicit representations that are organized around formal structures’, in particular how meanings are signified (1994, p.159). Relevant to the argument in this paper, she notes that analysis is more difficult and complex for written language than for oral language because mental representations of meaning in writing involve ‘such symbolic relations as the connection between letters and sounds’ (1994, p.159). The process of control is the execution of selective attention, a ‘processing choice about where attention should best be spent’ (1994, p.160) for a given task. As control develops to a higher level, learners are able to make better use of their knowledge and understanding to fulfill language tasks. In the context of writing and consistent with a Hallidayan theorization of language, declarative metalinguistic knowledge relates both to the knowledge of the grammatical system itself, and to how it shapes and creates meaning in written text, whilst procedural knowledge relates to the capacity to draw on and execute that knowledge in the process of writing. It is important to acknowledge at this point that learners can demonstrate declarative metalinguistic knowledge without the use of grammatical terminology, using their own everyday language. However, our primary interest in this paper is the role of the teacher’s talk in scaffolding and enabling explicit grammatical metalinguistic understanding. This concern for the facilitating capacity of teachers’ talk in the context of teaching writing draws on contemporary theories of talk as a socially constructed tool for meaning-making (Wells, 1999; Mercer & Littleton, 2007; Wegerif, 2011). Specifically, it draws on Vygotsky’s argument that moving from thought to written language requires ‘deliberate semantics—deliberate structuring of the web of meaning’ (Vygotsky, 1986, p.182): the repetition of deliberate is salient here, as it signals the importance of explicitness and thus of metalinguistic understanding in writing development. Our own argument is that learners’ capacity to think metalinguistically about writing and to enact that thinking in the composing of text is enabled through high-quality classroom talk. Vygotsky (1986) also maintained that talk is both a cultural tool that allows knowledge to be shared and developed within communities, and a psychological tool that structures the processes and content of individual thought. In other words, potentially, classroom talk can be the cultural tool which supports the construction of shared declarative metalinguistic knowledge and the psychological tool which supports writers’ cognitive capacities to use that knowledge procedurally in the shaping of their own written texts. One element of such classroom metalinguistic talk is metatalk. The origin of the concept of metatalk is usually ascribed to Swain (1995, 1998), who identified three kinds of output in second language (L2) learning: noticing, hypothesis testing, and metalinguistic reflection, which she termed metatalk. Fundamentally, metatalk involves learning using language to reflect on language use. Swain describes it as ‘a surfacing of language used in problem solving; that is, language used for cognitive purposes’ (Swain, 1998, p. 69) and argues that giving learners’ opportunities for metatalk is a purposeful method for supporting language learning. Swain also emphasises the importance of metatalk occurring ‘in contexts where learners are engaged in meaning-making, that is, where the language being used and reflected upon through metatalk is serving a communicative function’ (Swain, 1998, p.69). Thus metatalk is more than recognising and understanding the form of language; it is a ‘deeper level of attention’ which supports learners’ developing knowledge about the relationship ‘between meaning, form and function’ (Storch, 2008, p.96). Roehr and Gutierrez (2013) argue that the value of metatalk lies in permitting ‘the examination of the nature of ... the mental representations that learners resort to’ (Roehr

&Gutierrez 2013), signalling the place of metatalk in allowing teachers to see how learners are thinking about language.

2. Literature review

Moreover, Kuiken and Vedder (2005) discussed about metacognition and its facilitative effect on L2 acquisition as it helps learners understand relations between meaning, form, and function. In addition, metacognition is facilitated by interaction. Language production has been described as enabling learners to deepen their awareness of grammatical and lexical matters, test hypotheses with others, receive feedback and reprocess their output. In this manner, learners engage in co-constructing their L2. Furthermore, Ellis (2000) discussed the nature of tasks and interaction in connection with metacognition. She addressed production tasks in which learners are prompted in problem solving tasks. It is in these settings that metacognitive verbalization arises as learners are engaged in meaningful interactions. Such verbalizations may lead learners to understand the relationship between meaning, form, and function. At the same time, these verbalizations allow researchers to observe learners working with hypotheses as they experience the language learning process. Like other forms of speech, MT can serve individuals first and foremost by mediating knowledge as they negotiate with an interlocutor. Even if language is used for mediation in a social context, individuals take advantage of it differently and will organize their own thoughts in a unique manner, as compared to their peers in the same social task. **Grammar is 'a difficult term to define', because of the diversity of phenomena it refers to** and the disagreements among grammarians concerning its nature (Byram, 2000; p. 248). It is defined as "That department of the study of a language which deals with its inflectional forms or their equivalents, and with the rules for employing these correctly; usually treating also of the phonetic system of the language and its representation in writing" (Little et al., 1985; p. 878). Within communicative language teaching theory, as language learning is considered a social and cognitive process, learners must acquire both knowledge of grammatical structures and the knowledge of how to use the grammatical structures in discourse interaction (Widdowson, 1978). A useful pedagogical grammar, developed according to the principles of the language teaching theory it refers to, and its critical assumptions about the nature of language and its relationship to language learning, is needed by language teachers to access to details the regularities of linguistic aspects in native speaker discourse (Tomlin, 1994). VanPatten and Benati (2010) argue that the meaning of the term grammar depends on the users and the contexts where it is used. In instructional settings, grammar refers to the rules and formal traits of language that learners must master as part of coursework.

This kind of grammar is often called pedagogical grammar and the focus tends to be on supporting accurate use of grammatical structures in speech and writing. Linguistics is concerned with providing an explanation about the language structure and function in the process of human communication. In this respect, "grammarians account for sentences which are well-formed or grammatical (formally correct), acceptable (meaningful) and, in some models, contextually appropriate" (Byram, 2000; p. 248). Linguistics illustrates **how grammar is subdivided in morphology and syntax, and that it is "one of four 'levels' of language, [with] phonology, lexis and semantics. In Linguistics, 'grammar is often used to refer to the mental representation of language that native speakers possess regarding the formal aspects of language' (VanPatten & Benati, 2010; p. 91). Grammar as such is the representation**

of native speaker's competence; it refers to abstract features of language and how they are manifested in the actual language. This difference in thinking about grammar is, in essence, about the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar. Descriptive grammar refers to 'how people actually use language'; prescriptive grammar instead wants to be connected with the imposition of 'good language use' on others' 'bad grammar' (VanPatten & Benati, 2010; p. 91). Myhill (2011a; pp. 9-10) observed the following:

"Modern linguists all operate with a conceptualization of grammar as descriptive: a way of describing how language works. They analyze and examine language in order to describe language structures and patterns of language use. Descriptive linguists do not attempt to determine what 'correct' usage is or to make judgments of language use. In contrast, many non-linguists hold a prescriptive view of grammar: that there is a set of rules for how language should be used which are outlined and set down for common reference. A prescriptive grammar establishes a norm and sets a value on that norm, and critiques, as inherently inferior, usages which do not conform to that norm. Just as different understandings of the word 'standard' are at the heart of the Standard English debate, so too is the difference between descriptive and prescriptive perspectives at the heart of the grammar debate. One way to look at the language debate about Standard English and grammar is to see it as a fundamental difference in understanding between academic linguistic discourses and political and public discourses".

With regard to descriptive/prescriptive views of grammar and standard language varieties are contrasting views of grammar as fixed or changing. Myhill (2000; p. 155) noted that "There exists a belief that grammar is a monolithic entity; just as many non-linguists find it hard to appreciate that Standard English and dialects each have their own equally systematic and organised grammar, so many non-linguists are also unaware that grammars vary from one language to another". Likewise, Bybee (2012; p. 61) stresses the constant flux of grammar, noticing that while the 'Language Police always deplore the loss of grammar', it is 'barely noticed that languages also develop new grammar'.

There is a considerable impact of grammar instruction on noticing and the grammatical points and using them accurately and creatively, inhibiting fossilization, and encouraging classroom participation actively. Initially, Hinkel and Fotos (2002, pp. 6-7) state that if learners are continuously exposed to a certain grammatical structure in formal instruction, they are more likely to notice the structure and realize the difference between grammatically correct speech and their current speech. Thus, the students' observation will help them to use the structure in communication automatically (Cited in Yu, 2013).

Another benefit of grammar instruction is to hinder fossilization. CelceMuricia and Hills (1988; p. 149, cited in Yule, 2013) define fossilization as using "a broken, ungrammatical, and pidginized form of a language". Moreover, they comment that purely meaning-based instruction, which does not focus on grammar, can facilitate this fossilization because some complicated structures cannot be acquired by natural conversation (Cited in Yu, 2013). Furthermore, Vasilopoulos (2012; p. 8, cited in Yule, 2013) in his essay titled *Adapting Communicative Language Instruction in Korean Universities* mentioned that "Korean EFL students may have difficulty developing grammatical form through an unfocused approach, especially if a large part of their exposure to L2 comes in the form of their classmates' production of L2, which may contain many errors". In other words, Korean students' exposure to English is insufficient for language fluency; this environmental limitation inhibits their ability

to self-correct their own grammatical errors. Due to this, teaching grammar hinders the fossilization of students' language use.

In spite of the mentioned points regarding teaching grammar, it also helps learners to use language more accurately and innovatively. Littlewood (1981; p. 172, cited in Yule, 2013) also argues that if EFL students learn grammar in CLT classes, "they can not only use set phrases or insert alternative words into fixed patterns, but also make choices within the grammatical system itself". All in all, teaching grammar is beneficial for EFL students' actively classroom participation. In this respect, Vasilopoulos (2012; p. 3) comments that "EFL learners who are already familiar with grammar instruction can speak English with confidence only when they are convinced that their speech is grammatically correct. Specifically, EFL learners can be strongly motivated when they can prepare notes before inviting oral responses" (cited in Yule, 2013).

Verb tense as an aspect of grammar receives a great deal of attention in English instruction. The tense, as a primary feature of the English verb, is generally identified as the inflectional affix of the verb and also causes the syntactic or morphological change of the verb in expressing time relation (Jacobs & Rosenbaum, 1970; Lester, 1976, cited in Mardani & Azizifar, 2014). Mardani and Azizifar (2014) mentioned that this inflection or morphological change also characterizes modals and aspect. They added Tense errors are the most common ones that students make and teachers of English find it difficult to solve it among students. According to Mardani and Azizi (2014, p. 418) "Verbs in English have two parts: the time and the aspect, or way of looking at that time". Time, as a universal concept, is realized variously as past, present, future. Although in most languages it has not been claimed yet about relationship between time and tense, in English it has been, i.e., time and tense bear explicit relation, especially, the past time (VáclavNovák, 2008, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014).

The notion of tense is syntactic while that of time is semantic. The definition of the term 'tense' can be found in many dictionaries or grammar books. "The verb- Forms which show differences in time are called tenses" (Swain, 1992; p.605, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). "Tense is any of the forms of a verb that show the time, continuance, or completion of an action or state that is expressed by the verb" (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2000, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). Based on Carter and McCarthy (2007; p. 405, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014) "tense gives information about time while aspect gives information about the speaker's perspective on time. Thus it could be said that aspect expresses how the speaker views an action." "Aspect is a grammatical category that reflects the way which the action of a verb is viewed with respect to time" (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990; p. 51, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). According to Mardani and Azizi. Swain (1992) emphasizes the fact that when we want to express whether the action is continuing or a past situation is connected with the present moment, we speak about changes in verb-forms. "Changes of this kind are often called changes of aspect" (Swain, 1992, p. 605, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014).

This study aims to investigate the effects of using Metatalk Activity on Iranian advanced EFL learners' knowledge of tense. The main question for this study is as follows.

1. Does students' knowledge of passive tense change according to the using of metatalk?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The sample of this study included 40 learners studying EFL at the advanced level in a language institute. They were selected based on a modified TOEFL test. The participants whose scores were at least one standard deviation below or above the mean score were selected. Then, the participants were divided into two groups, one the experimental (N= 20) and the other the control (N=20). All of the participants were males and their ages varied from 14 to 25. Their first language was Turkish.

3.2. The Instruments

To select homogeneous participants for the current study a modified TOEFL test from (Barron TOEFL Preparation Book) was administered. This test contained 50 items. This test consisted of reading comprehension (20 items in forms of Multiple-choice items), grammar (27 items in the form of multiple choice), and writing (3 items including three topics for writing) for homogenizing their language proficiency. The allocated time for answering the questions was 1 hour. After correcting the papers, 40 students were selected as the advanced learners out of 58 students. The score for the proficiency test was out of 100. The dictogloss was used as another instrument of data collection. The dictogloss is an activity where learners are introduced to a topic and are supposed to work through the reconstruction of a text on the same topic with a partner. A grammar test was used as both for the pretest and the posttest.

3.3. Procedure

To do this research, the researcher selected two classes at advance level to do the research. A proficiency test was administered to be sure of the homogeneity of the participants. A grammar test as a pretest was administered to measure students' grammar knowledge before the treatment. In the treatment, some selective tenses including all types of passives were taught during eight sessions in one month. In each of the 8 sessions, one special passive tense was instructed. This paper set out to compare the performance of EFL learners of advance proficiency on completing grammatical sentences either in the form of multiple choice or cloze test. Each task in the experimental group was completed collaboratively. It means that students in the experimental group after getting the grammar explanation by the teacher; they were supposed to complete the exercises collaboratively by the help of their peers or even the teacher. Students in the experimental group received a dictogloss activity. It is a text passage of approximately 250 words which contained the special instances of the L2 structure in this study. The focus was on passive tenses to be reconstructed in the experimental group. The texts were selected from Cambridge TOEFL book. The teacher read the passage at normal speed twice. The first time students just listened, the second time they made notes. Students had to share what they remembered and attempted to reconstruct the text in pairs or small groups. The instructor reminded the participants to pay attention to the usage of the L2 forms especially passive tenses in the text. The purpose of this metatalk task was working together with the partner in reconstructing a text. These learners were encouraged to notice linguistic problems and then engage in discussing language forms so that the structure could be made correct. They discussed the content and shared their ideas in order to reconstruct the text. The time allocated to the task performance was 25 minutes in each session. At the end of the dictogloss activity, teacher collected their papers and tried to review the papers and gave feedback about the correct use of the passive verb forms which was the intention of the language learning. In control group

teacher as the researcher explained the selected grammatical items on the board. After the instruction, students had to answer the exercises individually at home or in the class. The next session they reviewed the answers in the class. Finally, the same grammar test in the pre-test was administered to both groups of the study in the posttest to find out the possible effect of metatalk activity as the independent variable on the learners' **grammar knowledge as the dependent variable**. This grammar test included 60 items. There were 30 items in the multiple choice form and 30 items in the fill in the blank form. The focus of the test was passive verbs. The grammar test was selected from a Cambridge TOEFL Preparation book for the pretest and the posttest. The scores of the posttest were compared with the pretest scores through independent t-test analysis.

4. Results and Discussion

The data in this study was obtained through calculating the descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistical method of independent samples T-test for determining the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable and the degree of progress of the participants from the pretest to the posttest. The results of t-test on TOEFL test for homogenizing two groups are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Independent sample t-test for TOEFL scores

group	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig(2-tailed)	F	t	df
control	20	64.75	.01350	.04235	.810	1.583	-	38
experimental	20	65.61	.07624	.04377	.810		-.244	37.217

As Table 1 shows, scores in the TOEFL test for the control group are (M =64.75, SD =.013) and experimental group (M=65.61 SD =.076), t (38) =-.244, P>.05. The results show that **there isn't a significant difference between two groups** in the beginning of the study.

Table 2
Independent Sample t-test for the Grammar Test in the Pre and Post Tests

group	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig(2-tailed)	F	t	df
Pre control	20	24.65	.09150	.02135	.750	1.383	-.194	38
experimental	20	23.61	.07624	.04177	.750		-.194	37.236
Post control	20	30.84	.24583	.01218	.000	25.925	-	38
experimental	20	51.19	.26576	.03325	.000		-	36.669
							1.259	1.259

As Table 2 shows, scores in the pre-test for the control group are (M =24.65, SD =.091) and experimental group (M=23.61 SD =.076), $t(38) = -.194$, $P > .05$. The mean score shows that two groups grammar knowledge in the pre-test were the same. In the post-test, scores for the control group (M =30.84, SD =.24) and the experimental group (M=51.19, SD = .26), $t(38) = -1.259$, $P = .000$. The results show that there is a significant difference between two groups in the post-test. In the post-test, the experimental group outperforms the control group in the grammar test. It seems that Meta talk can be helpful for teaching grammar and should be considered in teacher's curriculum.

5. Conclusion and implication(s)

The present study aims to investigate the effect of metatalk activity on improving knowledge of passive verbs. The results revealed the effectiveness of the metatalk activity over the traditional method in teaching the grammar structures. The results showed that there was a **significant difference between the students' performance before and after raising the L2 learners' awareness about English passive verb tenses**. In other words, metatalk can be influential in acquiring passive tenses. It can be concluded that the metatalk activity could positively affect L2 learning when they had a specific linguistic focus. The results in the posttest scores revealed that in the experimental group participants improved their production of the L2 forms better than the control group. It might be because of the reception of immediate feedback from their peers on their linguistic choices. In the framing article for this Special Issue, dialogic space is defined as one 'where multiple meanings are explored and developed' (Jesson et al: this issue) and in the context of the study reported here, our interest is in how teachers create these dialogic spaces which enable and facilitate the exploration of the multiplicity of meanings available to writers in making language choices and support them in thinking metalinguistically about written text. While L2 research on metatalk has shown its learning benefit (eg., Ishakawa 2015; Schaeffer-Lacroix 2016), the data generated by this study offers a detailed understanding of the nature of such metatalk in L1 classrooms, and of the notion of dialogic space in this context. The analysis presents teachers involved in this study actively engaged in trying to use metatalk productively. Results show that students were modelling metatalk through signalling explicit connections between grammar and writing, and regarding thinking around writer

choices and reader awareness. This kind of metatalk most strongly represents ‘the space of possibilities that opens up in dialogue’ (Wegerif 2013:32) and is most closely oriented towards developing metalinguistic understanding about writing. It sets out to make visible to learners the linguistic choices they can make in writing and encourages learners to see themselves as writers with access to a repertoire of choices, and to consider their potential readers. The interactions do not steer towards pre-determined right answers but towards consideration of authorial possibilities and explicit understanding of how grammatical choices are part of the ‘huge network of interrelated choices’ (Halliday 2003:8) which enable meaning creation in written text.

The teacher talk which was concerned with word choice and vocabulary, or which made non grammatical connections, or initiated a talk sequence but did not develop it was arguably less successful in creating dialogic space. Nonetheless, in general, the metatalk in these interactions did not steer towards ‘right’ answers; they represent interactions where opportunities were missed for making connections between language choices and authorial intentions or possibilities. They may be important, however, as interactions which offer clear potential for opening up dialogic space for developing metalinguistic talk about writing. The opportunity for exploring multiple meanings as a community of writers was obvious, but not exploited: what was missing was the questioning and feedback which ‘build into coherent and expanding chains of enquiry and understanding’ (Alexander 2003:36). It is possible that the metatalk here was constrained because these teachers were on a professional learning curve themselves, mastering a new pedagogical approach. On the other hand, the metatalk which encouraged writers to ‘deploy’ grammar represent interactions which did not open up dialogic space for developing metalinguistic talk about writing. It did not enable learners to develop understanding of the linguistic choices they could make in writing, and tended to close down responses, strongly geared towards right answers, and to a norms-driven, formulaic view of writing choices. This kind of metatalk is a more monologic discourse, which is ‘authoritative’, and which is ‘not open to question or alternative perspectives’ (Wells 2007:256), thus narrowing the space for metalinguistic thinking about writing. teacher’s role in orchestrating classroom talk is a crucial one and one, indeed, which has been a sustained focus for pedagogical research (Alexander, 2008; Cazden 1988; Edwards & Westgate 1994; Galton et al., 1999).

However, what is important in the context of this study is the role that teachers play in the creation of dialogic spaces for the exploration of semiotic mediation in writing, and how they initiate and develop metalinguistic talk about writing. There is a tendency in the broader field of research into dialogic talk to contrast and counterpoint monologic and dialogic discourses as binary opposites. While it is possible to explain the interaction patterns revealed in this study as a contrast between high-quality metatalk, characterized by an open dialogic discourse, and less effective metatalk, characterized by more controlled, monologic closed discourse around writing, such dichotomies may be unhelpful, and miss some of the subtleties of what is happening. Firstly, they play into a value-laden view of the dialogic as inherently ‘better’ talk, ‘where direct instruction or unidirectional transmission of knowledge is often pitted against open-ended, student centered inquiry’ (O’Connor & Michaels, 2007, p.276). Although, Wells (2007) argues that there is a need for both the monologic and the dialogic in classroom discourse, and in metatalk about correct decision-making, there is sometimes a need for the teacher to be authoritative, for example, around the identification of a particular grammatical

construction. Similarly, in the context of Science classrooms, Scott, Mortimore, & Aguiar (2006) position ‘transitions between dialogic and authoritative interactions as being fundamental to supporting meaningful learning of disciplinary knowledge as different teaching purposes are addressed’ (2006, p.623). More significantly, however, binary oppositions can over-simplify the complexity of leading metatalk.

One strand of analysis of the data in this study indicated that individual teachers were scarcely always dialogic, or always monologic, and were more likely to exhibit both characteristics across the discourse of one lesson (Myhill, et al., 2016). Lefstein (2010) has cautioned against such binary oppositions and idealized models of talk, proposing instead a situated model of dialogue, sensitive to the tensions inherent in dialogic interaction and appropriate to contemporary school contexts. The teacher as the researcher in this study was working within contextual constraints, and classroom talk is heavily improvised in the pedagogical moment, thus perhaps particularly amenable to the influence of other factors. The influence of high-stakes national assessments, noted earlier in this article, constitutes a powerful force which drives writing instruction towards the perceived requirements of an assessment regime with apparently prescriptive expectations. At the same time, specific to this intervention, **teachers’ grammatical subject knowledge in England is not strong (Myhill, et al., 2013)** which, despite the support of the teaching materials, may have influenced their confidence in handling this kind of metalinguistic discussion and precipitated narrowing of discussion. Greater grammatical assurance might have supported more open-ended discourse, where teachers were **confident in responding to ‘everyday ideas in attempting to move along the students’ ways of talking and thinking’ (Scott, Mortimore, & Aguiar, 2006)**. Besides, the nature of talk promoted in the intervention is a new and unfamiliar kind of language talk for most teachers, and the **spectrum of interactions may reflect teachers’ own professional learning about how to lead this kind of metatalk**. In conclusion, then, teachers themselves may not be monologic or dialogic, and metatalk may be positioned at different points of a continuum from monologic to dialogic, sometimes because an authoritative initiation or response is needed, sometimes because other constraints acts as inhibitors. **If effective metatalk involves ‘a surfacing of language used in problem solving’ (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p.69)**, and recognizing that metalinguistic understanding is a more complex activity in writing because of its symbolic nature (Bialystok, 1994), generating classroom talk which enables analysis of how grammatical choices create meanings in written text and which enables writer control through selective attention to their own decision-making makes high pedagogical demands on teachers. This paper has outlined **how teachers’ management of discussion about metalinguistic choices in writing frames students’ capacity to think metalinguistically about their writing, and has argued that dialogic spaces for metatalk about writing are created by the teachers’ adoption of more open dialogic discourse roles**. As a relatively new area of inquiry, though, further research is needed which explores in detail how dialogic spaces can be opened, widened or deepened (Wegerif, 2013) to enhance metalinguistic thinking about writing and correctly decision-making, and which takes **account of teachers’ own professional and pedagogical positioning**.

The findings of the present study are in line with Watanabe and Swain’s (2007) claim that when involved in the collaborative dialog, the learners are more probably to get higher posttest scores. This study showed the superiority of the collaborative output task in doing language activities since it promotes noticing to meaning or form. Moreover, metatalk is

expected to happen especially during the reconstruction period. Furthermore, Metatalk can raise awareness and promote noticing (Swain, 1998). In addition, metatalk could have a positive effect on the development of learners' interlanguage. Collaboration which happens in metatalk process directs learners' attention towards certain linguistic features through reflection and discussion (Kowal & Swain, 1994). As a whole, it seems that using metatalk can be helpful in grammar teaching. Teachers should include this approach in their curriculum designing. In addition, it is recommended to repeat this study for different gender and different levels of language proficiency.

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Exploring EFL Instructors' Self-Efficacy in Implementing Self-Regulation Strategies

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to investigate the self-efficacy of EFL teachers to self-regulate language learners. This study was conducted with 90 Iranian EFL teachers, including both males and females at the Iran University of Science and Technology. In this study teacher self-efficacy scale to implement self-regulated learning was administered in both paper and online formats to the participants of the study. Descriptive statistics were the main statistical analyses computing the most frequent responses to the items and categories of the questionnaire. The results of the data analysis revealed that teachers were found to be familiar with and reported to be moderately to certainly capable of implementing self-regulation learning strategies.

Key Words: EFL Instructor, Self-Regulation, Teacher Self-Efficacy

1. Introduction

Education is a lifelong process, and its purpose is to help learners to be able to cope in a changing world (Williams & Burden, 1997). During the current century, schools have to deal with the challenge of not only teaching the students the required subject matters but also the process of learning itself (James & McCormick, 2009). As Zimmerman and Schunk (2001) state, teaching students to use learning strategies can be done through self-regulated learning. According to Zimmerman (as cited in Zimmerman & Schunk, 1989), self-regulated learners are those who metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally participate in their own learning process. Boekaerts (1999) argues that the major goal of formal education should be to teach students self-regulation learning skills. Self-regulation learning skills are considered as vital, not only to help learners with their own learning during formal education, but also to add further knowledge and information after graduation (Boekaerts, 1999). Since self-regulation learning skills are essential for lifelong learning (e.g., Boekaerts, 1999; Cornford, 2002), the implementation of self-regulated learning should play a prominent role in classroom practice (Boekaerts, 1999). In this regard, the main purpose of the present study was to investigate the ability of EFL/ESL teachers to self-regulate learners and to help them use self-regulation learning strategies in the process of their learning. Although some studies have been carried out regarding the implementation of self-regulation learning, it seems there is no study investigating the self-regulatory strategy use by Iranian EFL teachers in language classes. In this study the following research question was formulated:

1. To what extent are EFL instructors efficacious to implement self-regulation learning strategies?

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Self-Regulation Learning

In recent years, the concept of self-regulation learning has been the focus of attention in educational research and practice (Boekaerts, 1997; Bolhuis, 2003). Therefore, numerous studies (e.g., Aksan, 2009; Berger & Karabenick, 2010; Boekaerts & Cascallar, 2006; Breuer & Eugestre, 2006; Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004; Kitsantas & Zimmerman, 2006; Liew & Mctigue, 2008; Ning & Downing, 2010; Perry, Hutchinson, & Thauberger, 2008; Pintrich, 2000; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Wolters, 1998; Zimmerman, 2000, 2001) have been recently conducted on self-regulation. Three key components of self-regulation learning are

metacognition, motivation, and cognition (e.g., Schraw, Crippen, & Hartley, 2006; Vermunt & Verloop, 1999; Zimmerman, 1986, 2002). The metacognitive component is considered as the awareness of and the knowledge about the process of learning (Williams & Burden, 1997). The metacognitive component has to do with some learning activities such as planning (i.e., using appropriate strategies), monitoring (i.e., testing one's comprehension), and evaluation (i.e., assessing the learning process and the ultimate learning outcomes) (Williams & Burden, 1997). Self-regulated learners, who are metacognitively engaged in their own learning process, are able to manage and to consciously decide to use the appropriate learning strategies under different circumstances (Williams & Burden, 1997). In other words, according to Williams and Burden (1997), metacognition is when learners look at their learning from outside.

The motivational component of self-regulation learning is an essential factor in successful language learning (Ur, 2012). Motivation can be defined as the attitudes, which influence **the learners'** learning process (Perry, 2013; Schraw et al., 2006). Self-efficacy, self-motivation, and volition are the three motivation strategies (Harris, Lindner, & Pina, 2011). According to Harris et al. (2011), **self-efficacy is "students' confidence about their ability to perform a task"** (p. 135). Self-motivation can be accomplished by students through reminding themselves of past successes and of internal or external rewards (Harris et al., 2011). **Volition refers to "a learner's degree of resolving in accomplishing goals"** (Harris et al., 2011, p. 136).

Finally, the cognitive component, as Cornford (2002) pointed out, refers to learning strategies that effectively help learners in processing, using, and manipulating information. Controlling the learning environment; organizational strategies, and elaboration strategies are three cognitive processing strategies (Harris et al., 2011). Self-regulated learners are able to control their learning environment; that is, they are capable of establishing an effective distraction-free study environment (Harris et al., 2011). Organizational strategies such as outlining and concept mapping are required to promote deeper understanding (Harris et al., 2011). Developing a graphic organizer is an example of the organizational strategies, which helps students with deeper understanding (Harris et al., 2011). Elaboration strategies, however, require learners to expand on the information presented in their materials (Harris et al., 2011).

The teachers' role in enhancing self-regulation learning is extremely important (Costa-Ferreira & Veiga-Simao, 2012) as self-regulation strategies cannot be automatically mastered in all students (De Smul, Heirweg, Van Keer, Devos, & Vandeveld, 2018), so teachers can provide the students with essential trainings (Boekaerts, 1997; Dignath & Büttner, 2008; Zimmerman, 2002). In this regard, researchers (e.g. Dignath-van Ewijk, Dickhauser, & Büttner, 2013; Kramarski, Desoete, Bannert, Narciss, & Perry, 2013; Zimmerman, 2002) have argued that the three key components of self-regulation learning should be integrated into **teachers'** instruction. Teachers can directly instruct learning strategies by means of implicit and explicit instruction (Kistner, Rakoczy, Otto, Klieme, & Büttner, 2015). Implicit instruction refers to addressing the strategic aspect of the behavior without informing the learners (Dignath-van Ewijk et al., 2013). Explicit instruction, on the other hand, is to explain or demonstrate why, how, and when to use strategies (Kistner et al., 2015, 2010; Paris & Newman, 1990).

Self-regulation is considered as a complex skill which takes time and practice to be acquired (Harris et al., 2011). According to Harris et al., self-regulation becomes normative for a learner when considerable practice is accompanied by supportive feedback. Therefore, **teachers are required to pay attention to students' work in order to be able to give them**

different opportunities to develop self-regulation learning strategies (De Smul et al., 2018). Teachers seldom integrate the instruction of learning strategies into their classroom, mostly because they face the problem of implementing theory into practice (Kistner et al., 2010; Spruce & Bol, 2014). Bandura (1997) notes that **teachers' feelings of competence are connected to their performance**, so lacking of the feeling of competence to effectively help students promote the self-regulation learning can be considered as a daunting challenge of EFL/ESL teachers (Peeters, De Backer, Reina, Kindekens, Buffel, & Lombaerts, 2014). **Teachers' feeling of competence can be investigated through examining their self-efficacy beliefs** (De Smul et al., 2018). **Self-efficacy can be defined as belief in one's own capabilities to effectively perform an activity** (Brown, 2014). Therefore, it can be noted that **self-efficacy is the cognitive assessment of one's own ability to pursue an outcome** (Choi, 2005). In this respect, the aim of this study was to gain insight into how capable teachers feel of implementing the self-regulation learning strategies.

2.2. Teacher Self-efficacy

Examining teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is a way of investigating their feeling of competence in implementing self-regulation learning strategies (De Smul et al., 2018). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy beliefs are those that individuals have about the skills and competencies in order to **pursue a specific task**. **Teachers' self-efficacy**, then, is defined as **"teachers' individual beliefs about their own abilities to successfully perform specific teaching and learning tasks within the context of their own classrooms"** (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellett, 2008, p. 751). **Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can influence their feeling about their job** (De Smul et al., 2018). It is highly related to teacher behavior and their acceptance of new practices and experiences in classroom (Bandura, 1997; Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990). **Teachers' self-efficacy can also positively influence students' learning** (Dellinger et al., 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 1998). The implementation of self-regulation learning strategies can be successfully done when teachers change their way of teaching (Bakkenes, Vermunt, & Wubbels, 2010). Providing teachers with opportunities to incorporate self-efficacy beliefs can be considered as a way to help them change their way of teaching (Ertmer, 2005). **Therefore, teachers' self-efficacy is determined as a prominent variable in the implementation of self-regulation learning strategies** (De Smul et al., 2018).

3. Method

3.1. Participants

This study was conducted with 90 Iranian EFL teachers at the Iran University of Science and Technology. The sample included both male and female teachers; however, the most frequent participants were female teachers. The average age was 31.28 years, ranging from 22 to 49 years. **Teachers' average experience in teaching English was 5.26 years**, ranging from 0 to 30 years. **The participants' levels of teaching were mostly elementary and intermediate.**

3.2. Instruments

Self-Efficacy Scale to implement Self-Regulated Learning (TSES-SRL) questionnaire developed by De Smul et al. (2018) was used in this study.

3.3. Procedure

The Persian version of the questionnaire was developed and then administered in both paper and online format to the participants of the study. Respondents were asked to rate 21

items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = cannot do at all, 2 = can do limitedly, 3 = can do moderately, 4 = can do certainly, 5 = highly certain can do)

3.4. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were run to compute the percentage of participants' frequent responses to the items of the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics was also used to calculate means and standard deviation for the categories of the teacher self-efficacy scale.

4. Results

4.1. Teachers' Belief to Implement Self-Regulated Learning

In order to investigate teachers' beliefs to implement self-regulated learning, a questionnaire developed by De Smul at al. (2018) was administered in this study. The percentage of participants' frequent responses to the items of the questionnaire are provided in Table 1. It is important to note that "can do certainly" and "highly certain can do" categories are considered as the positive responses and "cannot do at all" and "can do limitedly" categories are considered as the negative responses.

Table 1

Percentage of Participants' Responses to the Items of the Questionnaire

Items	Cannot do at all	Can do limitedly	Can do moderately	Can do certainly	Highly certain can do
1. How well can you demonstrate self-regulated learning strategies (i.e., without for example explicitly explaining the how and the why of the strategy)?	-	11.1	38.9	36.7	13.3
2. How well can you express your thought process aloud when demonstrating self-regulated learning strategies?	-	3.3	33.3	45.6	17.8
3. How well can you encourage your students to use self-regulated learning strategies (for instance by asking open-ended questions)?	-	2.2	22.2	52.2	23.3
4. How well can you teach your students which self-regulated learning strategies exist?	-	3.3	37.8	47.8	11.1
5. How well can you inform your students about the importance and usefulness of self-regulated learning strategies?	-	4.4	18.9	56.7	20.0

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6. How well can you teach your students how to use and apply different self-regulated learning strategies?	-	6.7	37.8	41.1	14.4
7. How well can you teach your students when and in what situations they can use and apply self-regulated learning strategies?	1.1	4.4	46.7	37.8	10.0
8. How well can you make decisions with your students about what they learn?	1.1	10.0	25.6	45.6	17.8
9. How well can you allow your students to make their own choices about the goals and expectations they set for themselves?	1.1	8.9	23.3	50.0	16.7
10. How well can you make decisions with your students about with whom they learn?	1.1	8.9	20.0	52.2	17.8
11. How well can you make decisions with your students about where they learn?	1.1	16.7	30.0	34.4	17.8
12. How well can you make decisions with your students about when they learn?	2.2	14.4	30.0	34.4	18.9
13. How well can you provide your students just enough support so they can work independently?	1.1	4.4	35.6	45.6	13.3
14. How well can you challenge your students to achieve more than they initially thought (e.g., by determining with what additional help they can solve an exercise)?	-	4.4	24.4	47.8	23.3
15. How well can you adapt tasks and learning	-	8.9	27.8	42.2	21.1

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content so that they are sufficiently challenging for individual students?					
16. How well can you present challenging exercises that can be solved in different ways?	-	7.8	36.7	32.2	23.3
17. How well can you apply new learning content in a meaningful, authentic context?	-	6.7	35.6	43.3	14.4
18. How well can you present new learning content in different contexts, so students can look at it from different angles?	-	12.2	36.7	35.6	15.6
19. How well can you let your students evaluate their own tasks?	-	4.4	28.9	50.0	16.7
20. How well can you let your students reflect on their own learning process?	-	1.1	30.0	50.0	18.9
21. How well can you let your students give feedback on the work of others?	1.1	5.6	25.6	48.9	18.9

As shown in Table 1, the highest capabilities were obtained by the following items: “*How well can you inform your students about the importance and usefulness of self-regulated learning strategies?*” (76.7%); “*How well can you encourage your students to use self-regulated learning strategies (for instance by asking open-ended questions)?*” (75.5%); “*How well can you challenge your students to achieve more than they initially thought (e.g., by determining with what additional help they can solve an exercise)?*” (71.1%); and “*How well can you make decisions with your students about with whom they learn?*” (70.0%).

Table 1 also indicates that the participants were mostly incapable of doing the following items: “*How well can you make decisions with your students about where they learn?*” (17.8%); “*How well can you make decisions with your students about when they learn?*” (16.6%); “*How well can you present new learning content in different contexts, so students can look at it from different angles?*” (12.2%); and “*How well can you demonstrate self-regulated learning strategies (i.e., without for example explicitly explaining the how and the why of the strategy)?*” (11.1%). As Table 1 shows, for all items except for items 7, 16, and 18, the most frequent option was “*can do certainly*”.

4.2. Teachers' belief in categories of implementing self-regulated learning

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Categories of Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale to implement Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (N=90)

Categories	M	SD
Teacher self- efficacy for direct instruction	3.71	.53
Teacher self- efficacy for providing choices (indirect instruction)	3.64	.78
Teacher self-efficacy for providing challenges and complex tasks (indirect instruction)	3.70	.62
Teacher self-efficacy for building in evaluation (indirect instruction)	3.81	.56

As Table 2 shows, the fourth category, *the teacher self-efficacy for building in evaluation (indirect instruction)* was more frequent than the others and received the highest mean score ($M = 3.81$), whereas the second category, *the teacher self- efficacy for providing choices (indirect instruction)* received the lowest mean score ($M = 3.64$). Table 2 also indicates that **the participants' responses to the fourth category, the teacher self- efficacy for direct instruction**, were the most homogenous ($SD = .53$), while the responses to the second category, *teacher self- efficacy for providing choices (indirect instruction)* were the most heterogeneous ($SD = .78$).

Conclusion

The concept of self-regulation learning is determined as a prominent educational goal by researchers (De Smul et al., 2018). In this respect, the main purpose of the current study was to investigate the ability of EFL/ESL teachers to self-regulate learners and to help them use self-regulation learning strategies in the process of their learning. As to the objective, a self-reported questionnaire regarding the implementation of self-regulation learning was administered. This questionnaire measured the capability of teaching students how to learn, which is considered a new way of teaching (Oostdam et al., 2006). Given the responses to the questionnaire items, teachers were found to be familiar with and feel moderately to certainly capable of implementing self-regulation learning strategies. For further research, researchers can conduct an interview with teachers and ask them to explain the most frequent strategies they use in order to self-regulate their students. EFL teachers can receive instruction on the implementation of self-regulation learning strategies, and then future researchers can investigate the effect of the given treatment on the students' learning development.

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Teachers' Perception of WTC Encouraging Strategies: Their Class Practices, Learners' Interaction and WTC

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Abstract

Inappropriate strategies used by teachers based on erroneous perceptions or diagnosis may decrease learners' Willingness To Communicate (WTC) rather than strengthen it. This study aimed to investigate teachers' perception of willingness to communicate encouraging strategies with observing their practices during the class, learners' interactions and the amount of their WTC. The present study is an experimental research with comparative method adopting a qualitative experimental design with supplementary quantitative analyses. Five Iranian EFL teachers and 31 students from three private language institutes in Tehran participated randomly in this study. The data were collected through questionnaires and observation. The teachers' and learners' behaviors were observed by utilizing two checklists. The analysis of data was performed through independent One Samples t-test and Pearson correlations. Finally, it was concluded that WTC of Iranian EFL learners was more effective under the supervision of high-level teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies compared with that of low-level teachers. In teachers' perception of WTC and their actual practices, correlation between high-level teachers and high-level learners and also, between low-level teachers and low-level learners had a positive linear relationship. It is assumed that the actual learners' interaction was more effective in the high-level learners' group.

Key words: Willingness To Communicate (WTC), Teachers' Perception of WTC Encouraging Strategies, Learners' Interaction

1. Introduction

Oral communication of language learners has a vital role in language classes (Abebe & Deneke, 2015). The more involvement in communication result in better communicative competence. There is a common belief that communication leads to enhance the vocabulary and structures which they have exposed during preceding lessons and what they have learnt in different contexts (Liu, 2005). This means that regardless of students' backgrounds, some internal and external variables have influence on willingness to communicate of learners in the class. Therefore, investigation into the strategies that teachers uses, also their classroom practices to promote learners' willingness to communicate have received much attention in recent years (Khanh, 2016). Then WTC in L2 learning is an important variable leading to communication practice that can promote L2 learning (MacIntyre, 1998). Teachers play a vital role in encouraging learners' WTC. MacIntyre et al. (1998) mentioned the importance of opportunity and maintained that students' intention must coincide with opportunity to produce communicative behavior. As Walsh (2011) stressed Teachers' WTC encouraging strategies in the class depend on the extent to which teachers raise or block opportunities for learner engagement.

1.1. Significance of the study

As Allahyar (2015) states, the growing concern in educational literature and other fields (e.g., sports) is that inappropriate instructions, interaction patterns and strategies, exacerbate the

challenges, particularly when teachers' intervention is based on the wrong diagnosis or erroneous perceptions. These challenges have led to failure in many ingenious teaching projects which have been developed to implement changes in teaching methods in order to improve students' WTC (Sleegers, Van den Berg, & Geijsel, 2000). For example, inappropriate strategies used by teachers based on erroneous perceptions or diagnosis may decrease students' initial level of WTC rather than strengthen it (Allahyar, 2015). Also, Empirical research on teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies and their interaction patterns is scarce, especially in whole class settings which is where most students learn English (Ohta & Nakaone, 2004). Due to the lack of empirical data upon which to build policy changes, teachers face problems in bridging the gap between theory and practice (Farhady et al., 2010).

It is expected that this article offers a more insight view of the strategies that teachers can employ in order to foster learners' WTC. Moreover, the finding of the present study by doing questionnaires and observation revealed a number of teachers' perception about the WTC encouraging strategies and the effectiveness of those strategies by observing teachers' classes and also some practical practices for increasing learners WTC.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

At first Burgoon (1976, p.60) defined unwillingness to communicate as the predisposition which "represents a chronic tendency to avoid/or devalue oral communication". She mentioned that people with predisposition of anomie, alienation, introversion, low self-esteem and high communication apprehension tend to be unwilling to communicate. The term "Willingness to Communicate" (WTC) was represented by McCroskey and Baer (1985) in first language (L1) communication literature as the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so. Then, since its appearance in second language (L2) teaching and learning literature, WTC has been defined as "a readiness to speak in the L2 at a particular time with specific person, and as such, is the final psychological step to the initiation of L2 communication" (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010, p.162). WTC has been characterized into the two most discrepant perspectives: WTC as a personality trait, and WTC as a situational construct (Khanh, 2016). Willingness to communicate (WTC) has been proposed as an important variable underlying the interpersonal communication process. It has been suggested that WTC functions as a personality trait, showing stable individual differences over time and across situations (MacIntyre, 1994). While willingness to communicate can largely depend on situational or environmental factors, McCroskey was able to pinpoint a personality characteristic that causes people in the same situations or environments to act differently (McCroskey & Richmond, 1986). The construct of L2 WTC has been speculated to possess both trait and state characteristics (Do"myei 2005). The trait-level WTC reflects an individual learner's general disposition when confronted with choices to speak the L2, while the state-level WTC is subject to momentary situational influences. Kang (2005, p.288) divided the situational variables affecting situational WTC into categories of topic, interlocutors and conversational context.

2.2. Previous Studies

Research into (WTC) has been increased since 1990s in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) and the concept of WTC derived from first language (L1) communication research (Peng, 2013). MacInyre et al. (1998) states that WTC consist of two ways; trait like and situational properties and it represents the last step before overt behavior. Learners with the high level of WTC tend to engage in more communication than those with low levels. MacCroskey and associates (1985) have shown that WTC is related to such attributes as

communication apprehension, perceived communication competence, introversion – extraversion, self-esteem and so forth. They conceptualized WTC as a personality trait rather than as a situation-based variable. MacIntyre (1998) treat is as a situational variable with both transient and enduring influences. There are many variables that have the potential to change **and individuals' WTC. The degree of acquaintance between communicators the number of people present, the formality of the situation, the degree of evaluation of the speaker, the topic of discussion, and other factors can influence a person's WTC.** Cao and Philip (2006) concluded that, the effect of group size, interlocutor familiarity and interlocutor participation on occurring WTC could be explained by the situational nature of WTC. Cao (2013) considered three dimensions: individual characteristic such as self-confidence, personality, emotion and perceived opportunity to communicative, classroom environmental condition such as topic, task interlocutor, teacher and group size; linguistic factors then she concluded these three factors should combined together. Maftoon and Najaf (2012) conducted a research on WTC among kids in Iranian setting. They came to these conclusion that WTC was a personality characteristic that influenced L2 development in kids. Allahyar (2015) conducted a research to investigate **Teachers' perceptions, interactions patterns and strategies towards Iranian EFL students' willingness to communicate or reticence. The result showed that teachers' differential use of interaction patterns and strategies in relation to WTC and reticent students in a whole class setting.** Overall, teachers interacted less frequently with the reticent. Teachers allowed more volunteered turns for the WTC while designating the reticent twice as many turns as the WTC. In addition, teachers extended their transactions with the WTC for longer turns which led to **WTC students' dominance in classroom interactions.** Vongsila & Reiders (2016) conducted a **research to investigate teachers' perceptions of their role in fostering WTC. The result showed that teachers do believe WTC is important that they have significant role to play in encouraging it and teachers employ a wide range of strategies to do so. They also concluded that there was a mismatch between teachers' perceptions and their classroom practice.**

2.3. Statement of the Problem

A common problem faced by many language teachers is the students' unwillingness to speak and participate in classroom activities (Riasati, 2014). As a logical prerequisite to communication practice, learners need to have Willingness to Communicate (WTC) before they engage in L2 interaction (Macintyre et al., 1998). Teachers can encourage **students' participation** in the classroom through more appropriate interactional patterns and strategies. To circumvent the willingness to communicate in learners, the teachers have recently been called upon to revisit their language use and strategies (Shamsipour & Allami, 2012). For all these reasons, having a low rate of willingness to communicate and later developing negative senses of self can be a huge hindrance for EFL learners to advance their academic and further their professional development in the long term.

The present study figured out teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies by observing activities and practices in their classes, also by observing learners' interactions; this study observed learners' WTC and the effectiveness of those strategies that have been used by teachers to increase learners' WTC (Both trait-like and situational WTC). These strategies have been clarified by comparison between learners' WTC and teachers' perceptions and their classroom practices.

2.4. Research Questions

1. Does teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies have statistically significant effect on the WTC of Iranian EFL learners?

2. Is there statistically significant relationship between teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies and their actual practices of WTC encouraging strategies?
3. Does teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies have statistically significant effect on the actual learners' interaction?

2.5. Research Null Hypotheses

1. Teachers use of different WTC encouraging strategies have no statistically significant effect on the learners' WTC differently.
2. There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' perception of WTC and their actual practices of WTC encouraging strategies.
3. Teachers use of different WTC encouraging strategies have no statistically significant effect on the actual learners' interaction differently.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

For the purpose of this study, 31 Iranian EFL learners (males) and 5 teachers (males and females) selected randomly from three English Language Institute in Tehran, Iran. The age range of learners was between 12-40 years old and the age range of teachers was 25-50 years old. The learners had intermediate up to advanced level of proficiency from different classes and the experience level of teachers for teaching was more than one year of teaching.

3.2. Instrument

This study carried out the Willingness to Communicate (WTC) questionnaire for the learners in order to collect the necessary data about their WTC (see appendix A). This questionnaire is adopted from Simic (2014) master thesis with some changes on it. Another questionnaire used for measuring and identifying teachers' WTC encouraging strategies (see appendix B). This questionnaire is adopted from Vongsila & Reinders (2016). This study also used a checklist for observing learners' interactions during the class (see appendix C); this checklist is designed by the researcher. Another checklist for observing teachers' practices in the class (see appendix D); this checklist is designed by the researcher. It is necessary to say that the validity of all questionnaires and checklists are confirmed by the procedure of approving expert opinion of two professors of faculty.

3.3. Procedures

First, the researcher observed 5 classes of three different private language institute in Tehran by sitting in the class without any interferences during the class time. All 31 learners and 5 teachers in the program fulfilled the questionnaires at the end of the class. The researcher observed their classes while he was completing two checklists. Teachers and learners divided into high-level and low-level then a comparison between two groups occurred. Finally, observation form the classes compared with the datum from questionnaires in order to understand that teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies can be practicable or not and these strategies can be used in the class or not.

3.4. Data Analysis

Data analysis involved mainly two stages. First, data collected from the questionnaires were processed by using SPSS software. Quantitative data from questionnaires were also factor analyzed. These factors then became themes that were compared with themes analyzed from the qualitative observation data. Secondly, Descriptive statistics were used to analyze classroom WTC behavior. Measures of frequency were chosen because they indicate how often a particular behavior or phenomenon occurs and they are obtained by counting the number of occurrences.

Finally, a comparison between these data and those observation that have been recorded on the checklists had been done by the researcher.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1. Testing Normality of Data

All three null-hypotheses of the study will be explored through assuming the normality of the data besides its specific assumptions. (Table 1) displays the skewness and kurtosis statistics and their ratios over the standard errors:

Table 1.
Test of normality

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis		
							Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Low-Level Students	19	22.00	60.00	36.0500	9.42268	.840	.512	.799	.992
High-Level Students	12	12.00	31.00	21.0000	4.89898	-.042	.512	-.484	.992
High-Level Teachers	3	3.00	11.00	7.0500	2.18789	.063	.512	-.843	.992
Low-Level Teachers	2	2.00	9.00	4.3000	2.00263	1.157	.512	1.428	.992
Valid (listwise)	N 36								

Since all the ratios were within ± 1.96 , the data were considered normally distributed enough to allow running Independent One-Sample T-Test for the first and the third question and Pearson Product Moment correlation for the second question as parametric tests.

4.2. Investigating First Null-Hypothesis

Independent One Samples t-test was used in order to reveal the effects of **teachers'** perception of WTC encouraging strategies on the WTC of Iranian EFL learners. Besides, application of parametric statistical analyses is acceptable if a number of assumptions are recognized. The assumption of normality of the analyzed data was tested through the skewness and kurtosis statistics (Table 2) in the present study; it was required to verify homogeneity of variances of the data sets.

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Perception of WTC Encouraging Strategies on the WTC of Iranian EFL learners

	Teachers' Perception WTC	of N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Mean	Error
Score	High-Level Teachers	3	7.0500 E	2.18789	.48923	
	Low-Level Teachers	2	4.3000 E	2.00263	.44780	

The actual difference in the mean scores between high-level teachers in comparison with the low-level teachers is quite large. As (Table 2) indicates the mean score for the high-level teachers (M=7.05, SD=2.18) was significantly different from that of the low-level teachers (M=4.3, SD=2).

Table 3.
Independent Samples Test of Teachers' Perception of WTC Encouraging Strategies on the WTC of Iranian EFL learners

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score Equal variances assumed	1.064	.309	4.146	38	.000	2.75000	.66323	1.40737	4.09263
Equal variances not assumed			4.146	3.771E1	.000	2.75000	.66323	1.40703	4.09297

Moreover, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores of the two groups (Table 3). Briefly, the mean difference between the two groups was significant, and it is assumed that WTC of Iranian EFL learners was more effective under the supervision of high-level teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies compared with that of low-level teachers.

4.3. Investigating Second Null-Hypothesis

Tables below contain the findings obtained from performing Pearson correlations between the total scores of teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies and their actual practices of WTC encouraging strategies. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

It assumes that the relationship between the two variables should be a linear one. As shown in Scatter Plot in (Figure 1 and 2), the majority of the dots fell on the diagonal, indicating that the relationship was a positive linear relationship between the first and the second figures:

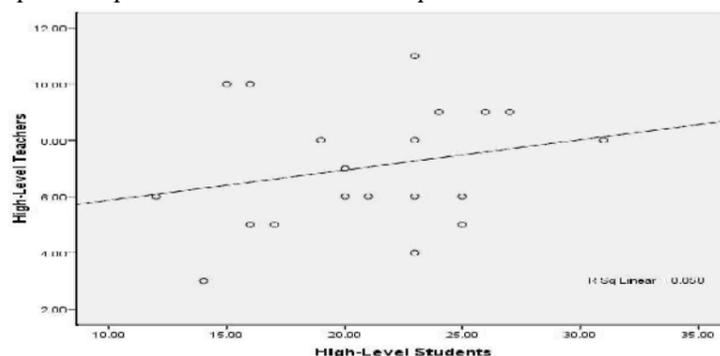


Figure 1. Scatter Plot Relationship between High-Level Teachers and High-Level Students

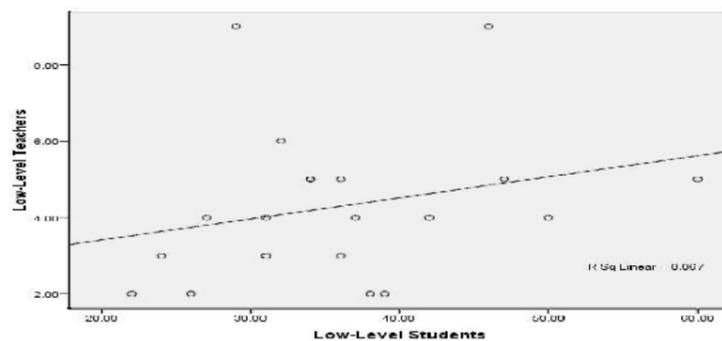


Figure 2. Scatter Plot Relationship between Low-Level Teachers and Low-Level Students

The spread of dots (Figures 1 and 2) did not form a funnel shape; i.e. They were not wide at one end and narrow at the other end. Thus, it can be claimed that the assumption of homoscedasticity was met, and finally, the results displayed in (Tables 4 and 5), can be used to build the correlation as follows:

Table 4.
Correlation between the High-Level Teachers and Students

		High-Level Teachers	High-Level Students
High-Level Teachers	Pearson Correlation	1	.241
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.307
	N	3	15
High-Level Students	Pearson Correlation	.241	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.307	
	N	15	12

As it is reported in (Table 4), findings of the data analysis in terms of Pearson correlation showed us that there is not a strong positive linear correlation between the results of the high-level teachers and learners, $r = .241$, $p > .05$.

Table 5.
Correlation between the Low-Level Teachers and Students

		Low-Level Teachers	Low-Level Students
Low-Level Teachers	Pearson Correlation	1	.259
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.271
	N	2	21
Low-Level Students	Pearson Correlation	.259	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.271	
	N	21	19

As it is shown in (Table 5), findings of the data analysis in terms of Pearson correlation showed us that there is not a strong positive linear correlation between the results of the low-level teachers and learners, $r = .259$, $p > .05$.

4.4. Investigating Third Null-Hypothesis

Independent One Samples t-test was used in order to reveal the effects of **teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies on the actual learners' interaction**. Besides, application of parametric statistical analyses is acceptable if a number of assumptions are recognized. The assumption of normality of the analyzed data was tested through the skewness and kurtosis statistics (Table 1) in the present study; it was required to verify homogeneity of variances of the data sets.

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Perception of WTC Encouraging Strategies on the actual students' interaction

Learners	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores High-Level Students	12	2.1000	4.89898	1.09545
Low-Level Students	19	3.6050	9.42268	2.10697

The actual difference in the mean scores between high-level students in comparison with the low-level students is quite large. As (Table 6) indicates the mean score for the high-level students ($M=2.1$, $SD=4.89$) was significantly different from that of the low-level students ($M=3.6$, $SD=9.42$).

Table 7
Independent Samples Test of Teacher' Perception of WTC Encouraging Strategies on the actual students' interaction

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df				Lower	Upper
Scores Equal variances assumed	4.307	.045	-6.338E0	38	.00000	-15.05000	2.37473	-19.85739	-10.24261
Equal variances not assumed			-6.338E0	2.857E1	.00000	-15.05000	2.37473	-19.91003	-10.18997

Moreover, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores of the two groups (Table 7). Briefly, the mean difference between the two groups was significant, and it is assumed that **the actual students' interaction** was more effective in the high-level students' group.

4.5. Interpretation

Despite of the complexity of the Communicative Approach to language teaching, this paper deals with speaking as one of its expected outcomes. Rather than trying to identify new **factors which influence learner's willingness to communicate, in this study I have focused on determining whether and to what extent the currently discussed factors are relevant to the teachers' perception. Moreover, due to the fact that this study included participants from two settings, high-level and low-level in teachers and learners, we can also view it through the perspective of a comparative study.**

Within the first part of this study, it became apparent that certain factors are, generally speaking, seen as most influential by the majority of the participants. As this study is dealing with speaking, Confidence in my speaking skills was chosen by altogether 74.19% of the participants. Wish to practice speaking of the participants ranked second. However, regardless of how confident the participants are during speaking, their wish to practice their speaking skills could help them override their potential inhibition. Personality of learners can help them to speak, shy person has some inhibition in his/her speaking because of that it is in third place of rank. Two additional factors that were ranked fourth and fifth were get a good grade and **classroom atmosphere. So, fear of teachers' evaluation and fear of class moods have specially effect on learners' WTC.**

Although preparation is crucial for both high and low-level learners but high-level learners tend to speak more voluntarily and without preparation. They do acknowledge its importance in successful speaking to some extent (MacIntyre et al. 1998). So, teachers should pay attention to the **low-level learners' preparation and they should force low-level learners to be prepared before the class.**

The majority of the learners especially low-level learners tend to speak about their **interest but most of the teachers didn't pay attention to their learners' interest. All the teachers selected the topic by themselves and low-level teachers changed the topic more than high-level teachers.** Riasati (2014) states that for learners, topic familiarity, topic interest, and topic preparations are the essential features of a particular topic. So, it can show that teachers should keep the interest of the learners and they should pay more attention to the interest of learners about the topic, while widening their personal teaching repertoire at the same time and low-level teachers should have more constancy in their topics.

Result showed that High-level learners felt more self-confident, because of that, they expressed their opinion more than low-level learners and they felt more confident in their speaking than low-level learners. Also, **high-level teachers' encouragement was more than low-level teachers.** According to Cao & Philip (2006), Lack of self-confidence in the whole class situation can reduce WTC, so with lack of self-confidence, participation in the whole class interaction could be comparatively low. So, teachers should give low-level learners more self-confidence by encouraging and praising them. Low-level learners needed more supporting from their teacher than high-level learners and low-level teachers should support their learners more by **helping them and giving some words and information for learners' sentences.**

All the teachers in the research believed that interruption of learners during speaking can **reduce learners' ease of speaking and self-confidence.** All teachers corrected their learners during speaking a lot. Low-level teachers tended toward interruption more than high-level **teachers and they stopped learners' speaking more than high-level teachers.** According to Meng (2009), Encouragement can give learners self-confidence and are more important than constant correction in the speaking class. So, teachers, especially low-level teachers should not interrupt learners during their speech and they should correct them after speaking. They should give self-

confidence to shy person in their speaking **also, teachers should pay attention to the learners' personality and they should give time of speaking equally to the all learners.**

Learners in the research felt completely agree about feeling comfortable in speaking with their close friends and speaking with close friend may be assigned to a good relationship between interlocutors. Also, Familiarity of teachers with learners in high-level teachers was more than low-level teachers and **high-level teachers paid more attention to learners' cultural background.** Cao & Philip (2006) stress that Learners feel comfortable with their classmates and WTC may differ during the time depending on the familiarity of learners with each other. According to Vongsila & Reinders (2016), familiarity of teachers with interlocutors have influence on WTC positively whereas new peers have the opposite effect. So, teachers should group learners in pair or group working in a familiar group but teachers rarely use pair and group working in their teaching and low-level teachers should be more familiar with the learners and their cultural background.

High-level learners' proficiency had effect on their speaking and most proficient learners spoke more than the others and High-level teachers let their learners more to speak in the class. Baghaei and Dourakhshan (2012) concluded that there is a moderate correlation between **learners' WTC and their proficiency in English as a foreign language. So, teachers should let low-level learners to speak more than high-level learners in the class and more proficiency lead to more WTC and for speaking more in the class, learners should increase their level of proficiency.** Lack of proficiency should not be a barrier in front of low-level learners for speaking. Also, low-level teachers should reduce their amount of talk time and they should let their learners to speak more.

Speaking in a group could only foster learners' willingness to communicate in that given moment and low-level learners feel ease in group speaking. According to Riasati (2014), researches indicate that learners prefer to speak in pairs and group rather than speaking individually, because of same proficiency level of learners, they feel more comfortable to speaking with learners who know about each other. So, teachers should let more to the low-level learners to speak in the group or pair working.

All the learners in the research believed that mistakes are a sign of learning. Low-level learners have some fear about their mistakes but **high-level learners didn't pay attention to their mistakes.** According to Cutrone (2009), overt correction discourages learners from speaking and will increase anxiety in the classroom. So, teachers should not correct learners immediately and they should let them to speak, after speaking correction in errors but not in mistakes can reduce learners fear about correction.

The majority of learners told that to feel relaxed is important for WTC and low-level learners need more relaxing atmosphere than high-level learners. Also, high-level teachers are more willing to **reduce learners' anxiety than low-level teachers.** High-level teachers cared more about class atmosphere by reducing stress and grouping learners in a familiar group, while **low-level teachers didn't care about friendliness of learners in order to group them and they didn't pay attention to removing stress from the learners.** As Riasati (2014) states that relaxed situation can lead to better acquaintance and trustworthiness of learners to each other. Nagy and Nikolov (2007) propose that a student-friendly and supportive environment can lead to more WTC. So, teachers should create friendly, relaxed and stress-free atmosphere but it was not observed in all classes and **low-level teachers should pay more attention into learners' anxiety and they should encourage them more than high-level learners also, teachers should encourage learners to reduce their shyness for speaking.** Low-level teachers should pay more attention to the atmosphere of the class.

High-level learners felt less embarrassment and they spoke more voluntarily than low-level learners and totally the amount of talk time for high-level learners was more than low-level learners but high-level learners cared more about their speaking when nobody laugh at them. Also, low-level learners spoke more in group than high-level learners. High-level learners were more volunteer to answer the question. According to Vongsila & Reinders (2016) **Increasing students' talk time can lead to encourage WTC through interaction with peers rather than with their teachers.** So, teachers should let their low-level learners to speak more than high-level learners and they should control the class for ridiculing each other's in the class. Teachers should let their low-level learners speak more in pair and group working rather than speaking in front of the class.

High-level teachers' perception of WTC tended to learner-centered class but low-level teachers tended to teacher-centered class but it was not observed during the class. According to Meng (2009), Language teachers should always keep in mind that in any situation, students should always be the center of the classroom and the center of learning and cultivating students' communicative competence depends greatly on the practical use as the language and the frequent interaction with the peers. So, teachers should create learner-centered class and low-level teachers should pay more attention to that.

Low-level teachers changed their language from L2 to L1 or L1 to L2 more than high-level teachers and high-level learners changed more than low-level learners. According to Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008), in L1 to L2 transfer, older learners transfer more than younger learners in the area of phonology, not in the areas of lexis or morphology. But in L2 to L1 transfer, older learners transfer less than younger learners. So, teachers should pay more attention to their low-level learners for transferring from L2 to L1 in their language and they should pay more attention to their high-level learners for transferring from L1 to L2.

The researcher compared data analysis and observation and it is concluded that teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies have statistically significant effect on the learners' interaction and WTC of Iranian EFL learners in 7 factors from 10 factors in whole and it shows that 70% of teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies have significant effect on learners' interaction and WTC. So, there is a positive effect between teachers' perception and learners' interaction and their WTC. In data analysis, it was proved that WTC of Iranian EFL learners was more effective under the supervision of high-level teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies compared with that of low-level teachers and also, the actual learners' interaction was more effective in the high-level learners' group.

There was a positive correspondent between teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies and their actual practices of WTC encouraging strategies in 6 factors from 11 factors in whole. It showed that 54% of teachers' perception of WTC and their actual practices have correspondence with each other. So, it has a positive linear correlation with each other, as in data analysis proved that there is not a strong positive linear correlation between teachers' perception and their actual practices.

5. Conclusions and Implications

It is assumed that teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies have statistically significant effect on the learners' interaction and it showed that 70% of teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies have significant effect on learners' interaction and WTC. So, there is a positive effect between teachers' perception and learners' interaction and their WTC. In data analysis, it was proved that WTC of Iranian EFL learners was more effective under the supervision of high-level teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies compared with

that of low-level teachers and the actual learners' interaction was more effective in the high-level learners' group. There was a positive correspondent between teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies and their actual practices of WTC encouraging strategies in 6 factors from 11 factors in whole. It showed that 54% of teachers' perception of WTC and their actual practices have correspondence with each other. So, it has a positive linear correlation with each other, as in data analysis proved that there is not a strong positive linear correlation between teachers' perception and their actual practices.

As a result of the statistical analyses all three null hypotheses of the study were rejected. Teachers use of different WTC encouraging strategies have statistically significant effect on the learners' WTC differently and WTC of Iranian EFL learners was more effective under the supervision of high-level teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies compared with that of low-level teachers. Also, there was a positive linear relationship between teachers' perception of WTC and their actual practices of WTC encouraging strategies and finally, teachers use of different WTC encouraging strategies have statistically significant effect on the actual learners' interaction differently and it was more effective in the high-level learners' group.

Although there have been extensive research studies in the literature regarding teachers' perception of WTC encouraging strategies, for instance, Allahyar (2015) conducted a research to investigate Teachers' perceptions, interactions patterns and strategies towards Iranian EFL students' willingness to communicate or reticence, and, Vongsila & Reiders (2016) conducted a research to investigate teachers' perceptions of their role in fostering WTC, The present study can add another dimension to the field of considering WTC encouraging strategies. Eventually, it needs to be mentioned that most of the teachers don't use WTC encouraging strategies in their teaching and they use old and false technics for making conversation.

5.1. Pedagogical Implications

Learners should feel confidence in their speaking for communication. Preparation is crucial in communication. Teachers should reduce their talk time in their class. Asking open question instead of closed question for continuation of speaking. Learners' interest in topic is important for WTC. Error correction should occur after speaking. Teachers should support the learners for continuation. Teachers should encourage learners for speaking. Teachers should reduce learners' anxiety. Classes should be learner-centered but all classes are teacher-centered. Learner's familiarity should be high in interlocutors. Class atmosphere should be friendly, relaxed and stress free. Teachers familiarity with the learners should be high.

Some delimitation of the study is: All of the students were Iranian and in Tehran province. The focus of this study was only on the speaking skill in the class. The study only focused on intermediate and Advanced level of proficiency of learners. This study was carried out on the participant over the age 12, so the results could not be generalized to students below this age. Future research can be specialized on fewer strategies that teachers use in their class. Participants of learners can be extended to male and female and the number of learners and teachers can increase for getting better results. This study could be replicated with learners at higher and lower levels of language proficiency.

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Appendices:

Appendix A

Learners' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is completely anonymous and all the data collected will be used for the purposes of writing a Master research paper about language learning experience. Thank you for your time and effort!

Part I. Age: ____ Gender: Male Female

How long have you been studying English? ____

What level are you now: Beginner, Lower intermediate, Upper-intermediate, Advanced

Do you speak any other foreign language, apart from English? Yes No

If your answer is yes, please state which language(s) you speak, and what level you are at:

_____ beginner, lower intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced

_____ beginner, lower intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced

_____ beginner, lower intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced

In your opinion, which of the following factors make you willing to speak during your English classes? Choose 5 factors and grade them (1= most important).

- Confidence in my speaking abilities
- Wish to practice speaking
- Wish to make a good impression on the teacher
- Wish to get a good grade
- My personality
- Mood
- Interest in the topic
- Pair work
- Group work
- Relationship with my fellow students
- Relationship with my teacher
- Classroom atmosphere
- Other: _____

Part II. Please circle the number which best describes your feel:

Table 8

Learners' Questionnaire table

No.	Statements	Completely Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Completely Disagree
1.	I need to feel prepared to speak freely.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I like to talk about a topic if I am interested in it.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am confident when speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I like to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I like to speak English with foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I feel comfortable speaking to native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I like to do presentations on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I need to feel relaxed to speak freely in class.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am more willing to speak when I know nobody will laugh at me.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I think mistakes are a sign of learning.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	For me, preparation is the key for successful speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I think an interesting topic is important for speaking skill.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I am satisfied with my speaking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I feel at ease when speaking in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I feel confident when I speak to my peers.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I enjoy speaking in groups.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I enjoy speaking in a relaxing atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I see the classroom as a place to practice my speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I like to speak even if I make mistakes occasionally.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I feel comfortable speaking with my close friends.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for helping us with our research. If you have any comments about this questionnaire, please type them in the below

.....

19.	I let the learners speak in front of the class	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I think, learners should speak more than the teacher	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for helping us with our research. If you have any comments about this questionnaire, please type them in the box below.

.....

Appendix C

Table 10.

Learners' checklist table

No.	Statement	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
1.	Number of times to Present own <i>opinion</i>						
2.	Number of times to be <i>Volunteer to answer</i> the question						
3.	Number of times to be <i>volunteer to speak</i> in the class						
4.	Number of asking <i>question</i> from the teacher						
5.	Number of asking the teacher for <i>clarification</i>						
6.	Number of times to <i>respond</i> to other opinion						
7.	Change from <i>L2 to L1</i>						
8.	<i>Support</i> other opinion						
9.	<i>Supporting</i> by the other						
10.	The amount of <i>group speaking</i>						
11.	Number of <i>Changing the topic</i> of discussion						
12.	Number of answering to the <i>closed question</i>						
13.	Number of answering to the <i>open question</i>						
14.	The amount of <i>Talk time</i>						

Appendix D
Table 11.
Teachers' checklist table

No.	Statement	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
1.	The amount of <i>Talk time</i>					
2.	Number of <i>question</i>					
3.	Number of <i>topic change</i> by the teacher					
4.	Number of <i>Error correction</i> during speaking					
5.	Number of <i>Error correction</i> after speaking					
6.	Number of <i>interrupting</i>					
7.	Number of <i>supporting</i> the learners					
8.	Number of <i>open questions</i>					
9.	Number of <i>closed questions</i>					
10.	Number of times to <i>encourage</i> learners WTC					
11.	Number of times to reduce <i>anxiety</i> of learners					
12.	<i>Learner centered</i> or <i>teacher centered</i>					
13.	The amount of <i>intimacy</i> (High, middle, low)					
14.	Class <i>atmosphere</i> (friendly, relax, stress free)					
15.	<i>Group size</i>					
16.	<i>Familiarity</i> with the learners (High, middle, low)					
17.	Pay attention to <i>cultural background</i> (high, middle, low)					

Strategies:

Practices:

**A Cross Cultural Approach to Courtesy: A Sociolinguistic Study of Differences
between Native and Non-Native Speakers of English**

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Abstract

Courtesy is a matter of significant importance in the study of the different cultures, and how to be courteous in a certain culture depends, to a great extent, on the social norms and behaviors of that culture (or social group). Therefore, what could be taken as 'courteous' in one society may be frowned upon as 'discourteous' in another. The current study approaches this topic in a twofold way: on the one hand, it highlights the erroneous uses of courtesy by Iraqi students of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth, EFL) as compared to courtesy norms adhered to by the native speakers of English, as well as draw a dividing line between the ways in which courtesy is used by female and male students of EFL in Iraq. It is hypothesized that there are remarkable differences between the courtesy rules by the native speakers of English and those of the non-native; and, that there are differences between male and female non-native speakers of English for the favour of the females. To achieve its purpose, the current study relies on sociolinguistic concepts, such as Cultural Knowledge, Gender Differences, Variance, etc. It also depends on a questionnaire which is distributed to Iraq EFL students at the University of Babylon to test the proposed hypotheses. The study finds out that, due to the transfer from their first language's cultural norms, the non-native speakers of English use the courtesy norms of English erroneously; and that female non-native EFL speakers rely more on courteous norms than males do.

Key Words: Courtesy, Culture, Gender, Sociolinguistics, Norms

1. Introduction

Learning a certain language entails learning not only its vocabulary, rules of lexical organization, pronunciation, etc., but it is a must that its cultural knowledge is made comprehensible to the learner of that language. As such, the learners of the language need to keep the social rules in mind whenever they communicate in that foreign language if that want to be understood clearly and accurately.

However, each linguistic community has its own social restrictions in terms of what is polite (or courteous) and what is not. As a result, language learners need to be acquainted with those rules of communication. English, being the language which is mostly used in the world nowadays, is a perfect example for such a topic. Often, learners of English do not get ample teaching of the formal social norms which are used by the native speakers of English which, consequently, leads to misunderstanding when they are face with a relevant situation with a native speaker.

2. Culture and Language

The term culture has been dealt with sufficiently in the field of sociology as well as sociolinguistics, with, to some extent, varying definition. Yet, the common thing among those definitions is the shared knowledge by the individuals of a certain society. For instance, Goodenough (19957) defines it as 'whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its [the society's] members'.

Moreover, Hudson (1996) on his part, signifies three types of knowledge in relation to culture

1. Cultural knowledge, which is learned from other people.
2. Shared non-cultural knowledge, which is shared by people in the same society or in the world, yet it is not learned from each other.
3. Non-shared, non-cultural knowledge, which is distinctive of the individual. That is, knowledge which results from the personal experiences.

He (Ibid) indicates that language, since it must be learned from the individuals in the same speech group; therefore, it initiates from the 'cultural knowledge'. That is to say that language is an undividable part of the system of culture, and in order to communicate in a language of a specific community, that community's culture must be made clear to the new speakers. The following two sections are devoted to briefly show the differences of the case study languages in terms of addressing, greeting, and methods of showing gratitude.

3. Courtesy in English and Arabic

This section deals with the differences between English and Arabic courteous language in terms of three main points: forms of address, greetings, and appreciations. The aim is to shed the light on how members of the two cultures communicate among each another in a respectful way. This will be the background against which the results of the questionnaire will be viewed.

3.1 Terms of Address

Term of address is the title telling the interrelation between one and the other, as well as of the other's status or career. A particular way of address must take culture, society, education, belief, age, gender, etc. into consideration.

The English linguistic ways of addressing people are various; however, as a general rule, the English men prefer not to use the headship terms on constant basis when there is a relation between the interlocutors. In fact, except for some terms like: *premier, president, professor, chairman*, etc., the Englishmen prefer to call one another by the first name usually. Nevertheless, address terms like *doctor* and *waiter* are used to a great extent. When the conversation is between two individuals who do not know each other, unless told to call the other person by their first name, the addressing term is the last name of the addressee preceded by 'Mr.' For the most part headship terms are used in formal situations such as the army, the royal family, etc. For example: *President Obama, Prince Williams, Judge James, Professor Adams*, etc.

In Arabic, the first name is usually used as a way of addressing among people of the same social status. Often times, when people are married and have children, the usual way of addressing is by using the oldest child's name preceded by 'father of X' for the males and 'mother of X' for the females. For instance, if a man's oldest son's name is 'Ahmed' he would be called 'Abo Ahmed', and that man's wife would be called 'Um Ahmed'. In more formal situations, however, a headship term is often used with the first name of the addressee, unlike English which uses it with the last name. For example, *Mr. Adam, Miss Sarah, Doctor Abass, Professor Zeena*, etc.

3.2 Greetings

Greetings in English and Arabic differ in their content. For, there are two types of greeting: formal and informal. For the former, 'hello' is usually used as a form of greeting someone the speaker does not have a close connection with, or someone who is superior,

like, a boss, a manager, a headmaster, etc. Regarding the informal greeting, the words 'hi', 'what's up', 'how is it going', etc. serve as means of greeting people who are from the same social class and among the members of family and friends.

Moreover, if an English man wants to start a conversation with some he does not know, he would usually ask about the weather, a strategy called 'phatic communication'. The addresser in this case does not really seek an answer for, say, 'a beautiful weather today, isn't it?' but it is just a way to break the ice between the speaker and the listener (James, 1980). This is so because English people do not ask other about personal issues with people they are not acquainted with, so they adhere to this kind of communication instead.

In Arabic, however, there is usually one constant form of addressing which is 'asalamualaikum'. This form is often used in both formal and informal situations. Nevertheless, there are other forms of greeting which can also be used in all situations, like 'marhaba', 'kaifalaha', and the like.

3.3 Appreciations

According to the Western culture, a 'thank you' is always a must no matter how trivial the thing achieved is. This is because of the social norms which result from the fear of the other's negative face violation as well as the social distance (or the so-called 'my space'). For instance:

- 1) "Did you sleep well?" "Not bad, thank you."
- 2) "You are a pretty girl." "Thank you." "Thank you"

may be used between a father and his son/daughter, between a senior and the junior, and so on.

In the Arabic culture, however, a 'thank you' is not always necessary, though not uncommon. This is reflected through the fact that Arab people are so generous that some errands done for other are considered as normal and not worthy of thanking for. Instead, a praying for the person who did something is more common. In Iraq, for example, a praying which asks mercy for the other's parents is so common ('May God show mercy upon your parents'). The greeting and appreciation is strongly connected to the religious nature of the people of the Arabic culture; therefore, it can be found prevailing in this culture.

4. Politeness Theories

The definition of politeness depends on a certain society because it is a culturally defined phenomenon, so that different things are considered to be polite in different societies; it represents social standards of how to behave or of what kind of conduct is considered 'right' (Marmaridou, Nikiforidou and Antonopoulou, 2005: 349).

For instance, it has been defined as a set of conversational strategies aimed to uphold and improve social bonds (Maria and Pastor, 2001:18). Further, politeness is an observable way of appropriate behavior through which the speaker is interested in showing respect for the addressee who would comprehend it as polite (LPRG, 2011: 37).

The theories of politeness begun after Grice introduced his 'Cooperative Principle' which comprises a number of maxims, the violation of which leads to 'implicatures'. The maxims are: quantity, quality, relation, and manner. Later, Grice added that the Cooperative Principle may need to be increased by the addition of more maxims, one of which, he proposed, is the maxim of Politeness (Watts, 2003: 58). The following sections introduce briefly the most prominent politeness theories.

Lakoff (1973), through pragmatics, highlighted Grice's maxim of politeness (Elen, 1999: 10). She states that every communicative situation has 'pragmatic competence'; therefore, utterances are evaluated as 'pragmatically appropriate' (Watts, 2003:59). In her theory, Lakoff proposes two rules for pragmatic competence:

1. Be clear (based on Grice's Cooperative Principle Maxims).
2. Be polite.

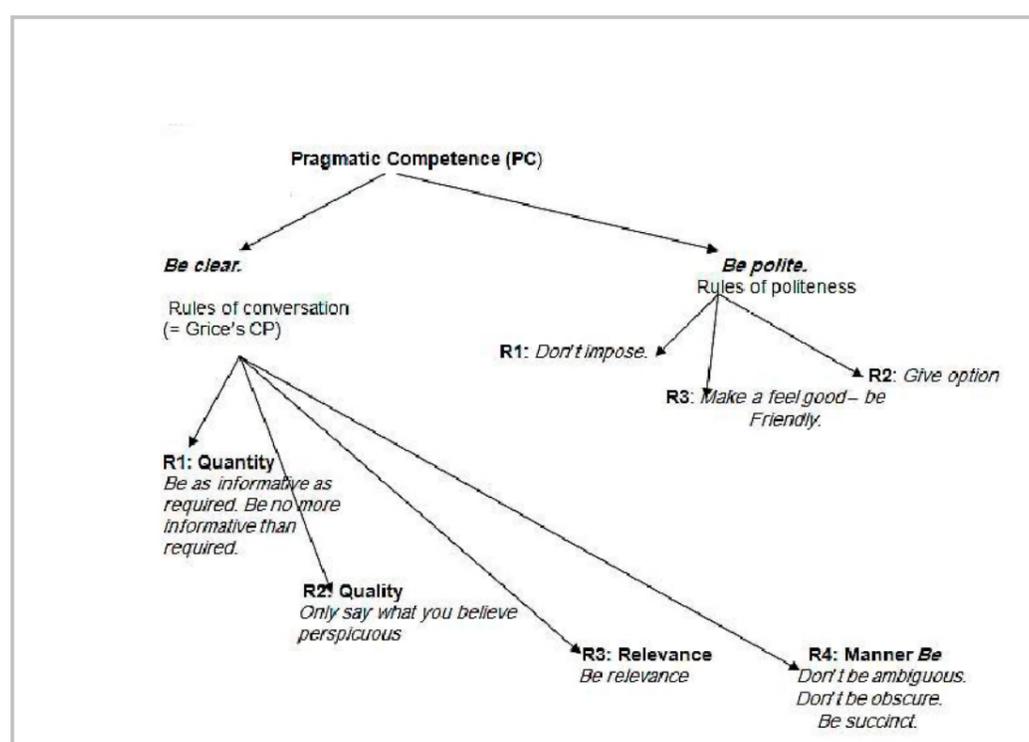


Figure 1 Lakoff's rules of pragmatic competence

The first principle (Be clear) is derived from Grice's CP and maxims; it indicates that individuals should say what they desire to say clearly and properly in their communication, while the second principle focuses on the using the rules of politeness to give the addressee a respectful communication (Lakoff, 1993:298). The following is an elaboration of each maxim.

1. Don't impose: Principle of Distance or Formality is often used in power-marked interactions, where formality, mitigation, avoidance, asking permission.
2. Give options: Principle of Deference, it means to state a request as a question, allow the addressee to control the topic of discourse so that he or she can choose what to talk about and allow yourself to be interrupted but don't interrupt your partner .
3. Make A feel good: be friendly (Principle of Camaraderie) is used between intimates and close friends. By giving your addressee as much eye contact as you can, this shows that you are interested in your addressee's topic; smile is most important way to indicate your linking for your partner (Perry, Turner and Sterk, 1992: 132).

Lakoff designed the rules of politeness to make people easily understand each other when they a conversation.

In his approach, Leech (1983) demonstrates the idea of 'how language is used in communication'. Just like his predecessor, Leech draws on Grice's maxims in his explanation of politeness which, in his view, aims to control the 'social balance and the friendly relations which enable us to assume that our interlocutors are being cooperative' (Watts, 2003:65). In other words, it maintains positive emotions amongst the social groups. Mainly, Leech's proposition is that the CP alone seems to break down certain utterances, like:

A: *We'll all miss Bill and Agatha, won't we.*

B: *Well, we'll all miss BILL. (original emphasis)*

B fails to abide by the maxim of Quantity. When asked to respond to A's opinion B only replies to part of it. This suggests that they "will not miss Agatha". Leech adds that if B said "but not Agatha," so as to abide by the maxim of Quantity, the expression would still be correct, pertinent and clear. Then, why did B neglect the cooperative Principle? It appears that B "suppressed the desired information in order to support the politeness principle" Leech (1983: 80). Therefore, Leech presents three pragmatics scales which impact "the degree of tact appropriate to a given speech situation";

1- The cost-benefit scale: "according to which a speaker has to weigh the amount of cost to her/himself and the amount of benefit his utterance will bring the hearer (Benefit to other. Benefit to self)."

2- The optionality scale: "the amount of choice of the addressee to perform a proposed action. (e.g. *You know, I really do think you ought to sell that old car, its costing more and more money in repairs and it uses up far too much fuel*). the addressee is left with a wide degree of choice to accept or reject the advice. (More choice. More polite)"

3- The indirectness scale: "how much inference is involved in the proposed action. e.g. *could you open the door?* is more polite than *Open the door.*"

Peel these potatoes	↑ Cost to hearer ↓ Benefit to hearer	↑ Less polite ↓ More polite
Hand me the newspaper		
Sit down		
Look at that		
Enjoy your holiday Have another sandwich		

Figure 2. The cost-benefit scale

Answer the phone.	↓	↓ Less polite ↓ More polite
I want you to answer the phone.		
Will you answer the phone?		
Can you answer the phone?		
Would you mind answering the phone? Could you possibly answer the phone?		

Figure 3. The indirectness scale

Then he add two more scales; the authority scale and the social distance scale. These scales clarify why some utterances are not acceptable in certain conditions because of the relationship between the partners. e.g *Make me a cup of coffee* might be suitable for an employer to say to his or her assistant but not the opposite (Locher,2004:63). The fundamental **concept in Leech's model is that of a cost--benefit** scale of politeness related to both the speaker and the hearer. Politeness, according to Leech, involves minimizing the cost and maximizing the benefit to speaker/hearer.

The PP thus consists of six maxims, all of which are related to the notion of cost and benefit:

1- The Tact Maxim: this maxim aims at minimizing costs to the speaker and maximizing benefits to the audience.

2-Generosity Maxim: this maxim aims at maximizing the benefits for others and minimizing benefits for self.

3-Approbation/Praise Maxim: this maxim aims at minimizing dispraise of the audience and maximizing praise/approval of the audience.

4-Modesty Maxim: this maxim aims at minimizing praise of self and maximizing dispraise of self.

5-The Agreement Maxim: this maxim aims at minimizing disagreement with the audience and maximizing agreement.

6-Sympathy Maxim: this maxim aims at minimizing antipathy towards the audience and maximizing sympathy.

5. Politeness and culture

Brown and Levinson (1987) state that the politeness principle may be universal across all cultures. Cultures differ, however, in how they define politeness and in how important politeness is in comparison with, say, openness or honesty. For instance, saying **"please" and "thank you," maintaining a focused** communication with proper eye contact, and/or not evaluating someone negatively in public are all examples of polite behaviours but their significance differs from one culture to another.

Every human being has a dignity of face but this image differs among cultures in terms of when and how it could be threatened or saved. That is to say, each culture has a face threatening act, but the difference is which utterance can be distinguished as face threatening act and which is not. (Elen, 2001:159)

The norms of politeness in English might interfere with other cultures. For example, as mentioned earlier, English has **certain speech acts that can be used only for "phatic communication" which do not require a certain answer**. Other example include rhetorical questions, like **"How are you" and "Can I help you"**. Other cultures, however, may not have such features which, if interfered, may lead to misunderstanding and/or miscommunication, and to, in extreme cases, to appearing impolite (Bengsch, 2010: 17).

6. Politeness and the Cooperative Principle

The concept of politeness springs from Grice's Cooperative Principle. According to Lakoff (Cited in Fasold, 1990: 159), who associates it with indirectness, the cooperative principle clarifies how a receiver can understand more than is actually said from an utterance by abiding by or flouting certain maxims. These maxims are: quality, quantity, relevance, and manner. Violating any of these maxims leads to implicature. When conversational implicature is violated, politeness will arise.

A-Jim has just borrowed your car.

B- Well, I like that.

The previous example shows a violation of the quality maxim because what B says untrue, yet this is not stated directly. B tries to be polite towards A. However, his utterance implies that he is not. Cook (1989: 83) states that the principle of politeness is mutually incompatible, such as how one can tell his friend that his haircut is bad.

A- I am sorry. The carrots are overdone.

B- No they are exactly right.

Here, A assumes that B is pretending to be polite. Her interpretation of B's utterance is a lie motivated by politeness (Kallia, 2004: 152).

A- Are you coming to the party this morning?

B- I have much work to do.

B's replay is a form of polite refusal. It is not literally related to A's utterance, but by observing the context, the speaker may create an implicature that addressee is not coming since he is busy.

Leech says that unless you are polite to the addressee, the channel of communication breaks down, therefore, Grice suggested that 'be polite' must be added to his maxims.

7. Politeness and Gender

In terms of politeness, Holmes, (1995) states that gender differences (as well as similarities) in the expression of politeness are numerous. On a general scale, studies from several different cultures demonstrate that women use more polite forms than men do (Brown, 1980; Wetzel, 1988; Holmes, 1995). In both informal conversation and in engagement situations, women tend to pursue more areas of agreement than do men. For instance, young girls are keener in terms of modify expressions of disagreement, whereas young boys try to express more "bald disagreements" (Holmes, 1995).

Regarding similarity between the two genders, both men and women in the United States and New Zealand appear to pay praises in similar ways (Manes and Wolfson, 1981; Holmes, 1986, 1995). Further, both men and women use politeness strategies when communicating bad news in an organization (Lee, 1993). However, in which aspect(s) do men and women differ? Coates (1998:23) declares that lexical difference is the most common dissimilarity between males and females. Moreover, women tend to use more compliments than men do, since these maximize the degree of friendliness, and are used to show bond as shown in the following example that is between two friends:

A-Hi! How are you? You are looking amazing!

B-Thanks! How are things with you? That is a wonderful bag!

8. Case Study

In this section, a group of (30) EFL students was chosen to fill out a questionnaire form which contains certain situations about courtesy. The aim is to test their ability to choose appropriate forms of speech in the situations of addressing, greeting, and gratitude. Their answers are compared with those of the native speakers in order to show to which extent they differ from or similar to them. The selected group consists of (15) male and (15) female EFL students so as to highlight the second aim which is to observe whether there are any differences between the male and female courteous choice of speech.

9. Results

The results of the research show that most of the examined students were affected by their first language's culture to varying extents. That is, the terms of address were the most

affected, followed by the greetings, and finally, the appreciation terms were the least affected.

In terms of percentage, the results showed that (70%) of the students were affected by their first language culture in terms of addressing others, with varying social status. The examinees were also affected by their own culture when came to greeting, since the students used answers similar to those found in their native language's culture. Finally, the terms of appreciation are found to be the least affected by the behavioural norms of the students' first language culture, because answers contained similarities to those of the Arabic culture. The reason for the latter is believed to be due to the somehow similar terms and cultural behaviours of the cultures of both languages.

Finally, regarding the differences between male and female politeness strategies, the females were found to be more polite in their dealings than the males. That is, most of the female students used more polite speech than the male students who used regular everyday expressions.

10. Conclusions

What may be concluded from the above mentioned results is that, for the most part, students of EFL in Iraqi academic institutes are affected to a great extent by their native culture when they speak English. This is because the lack of exposure to the target language's culture, life styles, and social norms, etc. Moreover, female, in general, are found to be more polite in their daily bases conversations than the males, which probably springs from genetic reasons. Therefore, EFL students in Iraq must be aware of the cultural differences which exist between the Western and Eastern cultures in order for them to converse appropriately when they use the target language, especially in authentic settings.

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Appendix: A Questionnaire

1. PERSONAL INFORMATION

1.1. Gender: male female

1.2. Age:

1.3. Place of birth: _____

1.4. Mother tongue: _____

1.5. What other languages do you speak?

2. Language/Culture Effect

2.1 Terms of Address

I. You are walking in London and the person in front of you drops his/her wallet, how would you address him/her?

II. How would you address a colleague who works with you in the same company?

III. If you lived in an American neighborhood, would you call your older neighbor by his first name?

Yes or No

IV. Suppose you were studying at an English college, how would you address your professor whose name is Adam Laveen?

V. You are at an English restaurant, how would you call the waiter?

2.2 Greeting

I. How would you greet someone you know for a long time but with whom you do not have a close relation?

II. How would you respond to the following?

X. Hi! How are you doing today?
Y.

III. How would you respond to the following?

X. Great weather today, isn't it?
Y. _____

IV. You are in a waiting room with someone, how would you start a conversation with him/her?

V. You are in the market and you meet your manager, how would you greet him/her?

2.3 Appreciation

I. Would you thank your best friend who picks up your key from the floor?

Yes _____ or No _____

II. What would your response be to a friend who asks "how was your night?"

III. Your best friend invites you to lunch at his house, would you thank him?

Yes _____ or No _____

IV. What would your response be to your friend who says "you look great today!"?

An overview of Triangulation and its effect in Language Assessment

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Abstract

Triangulation is defined as using more than one method of data collection and analysis when studying a social phenomenon so as to seek convergence and corroboration between the results obtained from different methods, therefore, eliminating the bias inherent in the use of a single method (Denzin, 2012). Moreover, he believes triangulation originally refers to the use of multiple forms of qualitative research methods, not the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. Triangulation is a tool or a strategy for validation; triangulation is an alternative to validation, reflecting and it is an attempt to secure understanding of the phenomenon which was under study. Through triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research methods one can reach a complementarity. Since different data types and analysis are appropriate for different research questions and processes. In this way, quantitative and qualitative results may be used to interpret different aspects of the phenomenon. The basic logic for complementarity relies on viewing social phenomena as multi-layered. This complementarity is best achieved by performing each method interactively/interdependently and concurrently, to focus on all possible complexity of the phenomena under study. Furthermore, it seems that teachers for achieving a correct criteria for **assessing students'** performance should use mixed approaches method or triangulation of qualitative and quantitative data assessment for reaching a correct answer in assessing and strengthening the research.

Keywords: Language Assessment, Quantitative Methods, Qualitative Methods, Triangulation

1. Introduction

Appropriate standard for assessment is very essential for analyzing students' performance. Sometimes some assessments show high scores for students, on the other hand, the same students may fail in another standard assessment. So, it seems that teachers for **achieving a correct criteria for assessing students' performance should use mixed approaches** method or triangulation of qualitative and quantitative data assessment for reaching a correct answer in assessing and strengthening the research.

1.1 Classroom Assessment

Assessment involves gathering information about students' performance to be sure of what they have learned. It's done to gain evidence on student learning to be sure of improvement in students' performance. (Smith, Teemant, & Pinnegar, 2004). There are two kinds of assessment: qualitative and quantitative assessments

a. Qualitative Methods

Qualitative methods are a good starting point when you begin your assessment. These methods can be useful for describing a situation and can provide insight for your intervention approach. It can include observation, management meeting for discussion, focus group, one and one interview, and expert consultations.

b. Quantitative Methods

Quantitative methods are useful in that they often take less time to administer than qualitative methods. They are also easier to evaluate and may produce clearer, more objective results. It includes Pre-existing Records, Self-report Surveys, and treatment.

1.2 Multiple modes of assessment

Wiggins and McTighe (2005) mention that students ought to be assessed using three modes of assessment:

1. Performance task
2. Knowledge and skill
3. Criteria referenced assessment

In this view, students represent their learning by performing a task which show that they have mastered the content under study. They may also represent their learning through explanation, writing, or discussion to show their knowledge and skill of the content. Finally, the students may also demonstrate their learning through criterion-referenced assessments such as standardized assessments.

Smith, Teemant, and Pinnegar (2004) believe that teachers should gather data regarding student learning through classroom observation by observing what students do. They should also listen to what students say or write, so orally or in writing, in order to know what content or **skill students have mastered. Finally, teachers need to examine students' production that show** what skills, knowledge, and understandings they have learned.

2. Literature review

2.1 Triangulation

It's a common teaching method in qualitative research which relies on multiple sources of data (Cresswell, 1998). According to Denzin (1979) there are four types of triangulation techniques for strengthening the qualitative research.

1. Data triangulation, in which the researcher uses a variety of sources to collect data.
2. Investigator triangulation, in which more than one researcher is investigating the phenomenon.
3. Theory triangulation, in which the researcher applies multiple theories, perspectives for interpreting the data.
4. Methodological triangulation, in which the researcher uses multiple methods to study the problem.

Triangulation is suggested in qualitative research to increase the trustworthiness of analysis for inclusive and complete narratives (Mason, 1994). It also reduces the bias and limitations of one methodology compensating with the strengths of other methods. In addition, using multiple methods, sources of data, theories or researchers and multiple methods which lead to the same results, increase the validity of the interpretation of the data. Moreover, such multiple perspectives add richness and new perspectives to the data collection (Brannon, 1992). In addition, not only triangulation increases the validity and data interpretation but also it is required in the study of language culture and complex phenomena like age, gender, etc. (Perlesz & Lindsay, 2003). Besides, combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods of inquiry can lead to the confirmation of the argument either through divergence (especially when multiple methods lead to similar conclusion, also when the results are not the same, it can open a pathway to a new theory and a new area for further exploration and research (Perlesz & Lindsay, 2003)

The concept of triangulation was first initiated in the social sciences field when Campbell and Fiske published a paper in 1952 that discussed the application of a multi-method matrix procedure to assess the validity of measures and traits in the psychological repertoire (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). However, the use of this method as an assessment methodology is relatively recent and, therefore, has needed various types of scientific research and literature evaluation to affirm its validity.

The main features of triangulation in the assessment process are its utility as a method or tool to enhance the credibility of research work, eliminate bias, and to illustrate the differences between results to establish a valid well-reasoned proposition. As detailed by Mathison, the concept of triangulation is carried out through four different processes: a) data triangulation including time, space, and person; b) investigator triangulation; c) theory triangulation; and d) methodological triangulation (Mathison, 1988).

First, the data triangulation method consists of using several data sources to evaluate the same outcomes. Obviously, convergence to same outcomes establishes the validity of those outcomes. The data acquisition process may involve multiple human interventions in addition to spatial and temporal factors. This aspect addresses the multi sources conditions and effects of a single phenomenon. An example discussed by Mathison to illustrate this evaluation approach is if observations were made at different times of the day and at different times of the year to evaluate the learning outcomes in a school classroom setting (Mathison, 1988). If the outcomes were similar irrespective of the time and day, it could be concluded that the learning outcomes were valid.

In addition, the other form of triangulation used in research is investigator triangulation, which requires more than one investigator to be involved in the research process and fulfill the requirements of adequate data collection. This type of triangulation is subject to many questions regarding the choice of people designated to accomplish the investigation task and their assigned roles. In addition, it is essential to question the investigation process and to determine how much hands-on data collecting the principal investigator needs to do in order to analyze the data, and how much data analysis is relegated to field workers because much of the analysis occurs as data are collected (Mathison, 1988). On the other hand, the concept of triangulation theory refers to a simple, yet essential, component of studies and research assessment. The theoretical triangulation is nothing more than the statement of the necessary presence of theory perspectives in any performed study or research work (Turner & Turner, 2011).

Finally, methodological triangulation remains as one of the most prominent forms of triangulation and its value resides in the fact that it utilizes different methods in the evaluation of scientific statements, research and proposals. Several research articles and publications have emphasized and supported the effectiveness of this approach in the assessment process and the establishment of valid and accurate statements and results. Denzin, in his book *The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods* highlights the benefits of using multi methodological triangulation by stating that The rationale for this strategy is that the flaws of one method are often the strengths of another: and by combining methods, observers can achieve the best of each while overcoming their unique deficiencies (Denzin, 1978). The research substantiates that triangulation is a pertinent tool and strategy in the assessment and evaluation of research work. The value of triangulation resides in its effective methodologies, which permit

the use of multiple data sources, measures and investigations throughout to cancel out the inherent bias and establish a convergent proposition (Mathison, 1988).

Under the strict ABET (Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology) accreditation criteria; many engineering colleges and programs are seeking pertinent methods and tools to assess specific engineering disciplines outcomes continuously. Triangulation can be used as one of the best and most effective approaches in engineering programs and curriculum evaluation to provide multiple measures for a particular program and establish valid and reliable outcomes (Brent & Felder, 2003). For instance, the assessment of an engineering education learning application such as the ability to work in multi-disciplinary teams can be evaluated using the **methodological triangulation approach through: 1) the student's self-assessment** of their enjoyment of working on teams via closed-form questionnaires; **2) ratings by a student's peers** on the team; or 3) the direct observation of a team by a trained evaluator. In this case, the triangulation process would enable the assessor to evaluate the accuracy of the methodologies chosen and the validity and accuracy of the outcome using that methodology. Once the results are obtained from the triangulation process, statistical methods may be used to investigate the relationship and patterns that exist among the measurements. Furthermore, after carrying out the statistical analysis and in the presence of strong correlation between variables and outcomes, the accuracy of the results can then be verified easily. Contrary to some beliefs, over-assessment using multiple triangulation measures is deemed unnecessary (Besterfield-Sacre, Shuman, & Wolfe, 2000). Engineering departments usually rely on at least two assessment tools (such as multi-source feedback systems and closed form surveys), to investigate the quality and outcomes of a specific program or curriculum. In engineering curriculum assessment, the multisource feedback experience is implemented in a classroom setting using students to provide evaluation of peers for team-based projects, in addition to inputs from faculty members **to determine the students' overall learning experience and interpersonal performance** (Ghrayeb, Damodaran & Vohra, 2011). From historical trends, this approach has proven to be both an effective feedback tool and it has helped to improve engineering learning outcomes to a greater extent (Besterfield-Sacre, Shuman, & Wolfe, 2000). Besides, it is considered that closed form questionnaires serve as a classical method for obtaining feedback from individuals. This type of assessment source is **used in engineering courses to evaluate the student's perspective and attitude** toward the various engineering educational aspects, as well as obtaining a self-assessment of individual abilities and competencies (Besterfield-Sacre, Shuman, & Wolfe, 2000). In the above mentioned engineering program assessment, triangulation can be used to evaluate and compare the results of the two traits used in the process to find the method that gains more accurate results and consequently can be used to improve the engineering program outcomes by completing the feedback loop.

A non-traditional application of triangulation as an assessment tool may be used in some capstone design courses where unlike the conventional classroom environment, students are exposed to hands-on team work, through design projects in their specific fields of study assigned by academic and industrial partnerships.

In this case, the assessment process relies on the effective use of triangulation to evaluate the feedback and results obtained from three major sources (Turner & Turner, 2011). First, from the industrial mentors assigned to each team to serve as an external source of evaluation of technical and engineering skills from a potential employer professional perspective; second,

from the faculty advisors designated to work closely with small teams on sequential semesters of design project courses, and third, from the self-rating of the students. All three sources are critical in assessing the learning process and are used to determine student competence. In order to sustain coherence and validity of the results, the triangulation process may be used to assess outcomes from the several rating sources mentioned above to determine the learning outcomes associated with the capstone design course. Assessment of the capstone course is important as it establishes the claim that engineering students are *exiting the curriculum with the skills that match program objectives* (Knight, Kotys-Schwartz, & Pawlas, 2010). The data from the three sources may be used to converge to the final determination using the triangulation process. In an implementation of the method, the students participating in the evaluation process were the ones enrolled in the course and were rated on technical knowledge, oral writing communicational skills, team work and project management skills. The analysis of the triangulation outcomes was processed in three different phases.

The first step involved the investigation of commonalities among the three different raters. The second phase of the triangulation results assessment resided in finding similarities between the open comments and additional explanations provided by raters from the surveys. Finally, the third step consisted of finding the inter-rating disagreements by looking up the differences in ratings. Eventually, statistical analysis was performed on the data using the *ANOVA Procedure*, which could test the ratings of one specific aspect of the design project and evaluate if the rating diverged significantly among feedback providers (Knight, Kotys-Schwartz, & Pawlas, 2010). The results from the triangulation method were found to be an efficient way to determine the deficiencies in the course layout and illustrate the specific areas where personal and technical skills for students were lacking. In addition, they provided valid and reliable proposals and recommendations for rebuilding the course in order to assure **improvement in students' skills and abilities, and achievement of academic objectives.**

In most publications and articles, using triangulation as an assessment tool was considered a concept or tool to eliminate bias and improve the convergence of outcomes (Miles & Huberman, 1984). However, this approach is criticized by Mathison and categorized as being far from realistic. On a more practical stand as suggested by Mathison, triangulation provides evidence for the researcher to make sense of some social phenomenon, but that the triangulation strategy does not, in and of itself, do this (Mathison, 1988). The conventional approaches claim that the outcomes of a triangulation assessment would result solely in the convergence of results. In addition, metrics investigated through several methods and sources would all support one proposal. On the other hand, a new practical perspective of triangulation as an assessment strategy would expect there to be inconsistency and contradiction between results. The presence of inconsistency in outcomes, while using different methods for the purpose of triangulation assessment, is a somewhat naturally expected result. It is possible that different approaches will lead to inconsistent and ambiguous perspectives instead of supporting a single source of evidence. The third possible outcome of triangulation is to end up with contradictory data. Not only can inconsistency exist in results and provide ambiguous perspectives, but serious contradictions can also arise from using different methods. In some cases, triangulation may lead to contradictory statements, which may require further investigation to reach a reasonable conclusion. Inconsistencies and contradictions in the results should not affect the validity of the research or theory under question. Restricting the outcomes of triangulation to the convergent

outcomes approach lessens the potential and effectiveness of the research in progress. It is, therefore, deemed necessary to expect inconsistencies and contradictions to be present in the results of a triangulation assessment strategy. After all, triangulation is a tool to provide evidence and better explanations of social phenomena and not a mathematical process that allows room for only one solution as the ultimate truth (Turner & Turner, 2011).

2.2. *Different types of Triangulation*

The term triangulation itself is infrequently used in presence research, instances of explicit use predominantly occurring in studies with an emphasis on social presence. Most approaches to triangulation, whether or not using the specific term, appear to have the “soft” intent of providing as complete a picture as possible, or to better understand data obtained from different sources, this latter point being a common justification for the use of qualitative methods. However “harder” exemplars can be found. We present a sample of both styles of triangulation below. Illustrations are drawn from across the body of presence literature, but predominantly from later sources in order to focus our discussion on the current state-of-the-art (Turner & Turner, 2011).

a. *Data triangulation*

Data triangulation entails obtaining data from different sources, or at different times or under different conditions, but would not include studies where these comprise the independent variables in an experiment. That being said, data triangulation is commonplace in presence research although rarely explicitly commented upon. For example, both Bailenson and Yee (2006) and Mark and Kobsa (2005), discussed below in the context of investigator triangulation, use multiple groups of participants as do very many other studies. To take just one illustrative example of triangulation of data sources, the analysis of social presence in a pedagogic computer conferencing application discussed in Rourke *et al.* (2001) takes data from two different graduate-level conferences. While the main thrust of their argument is methodological, the authors identify differences in the degree of social presence between the conferences, leading them to suggest that an unexpectedly low density of social presence indicators may relate to a high degree of familiarity among participants. Further, the sensitivity to such differences is taken to be an indicator of the robustness of the coding instrument. In an instance of temporal data collaboration, a technique which is less widely adopted outside explicitly longitudinal studies, Bouchard and colleagues (Bouchard *et al.*, 2007) examined data at different stages of the therapeutic process in their investigation of the comparative efficacy of therapy administered face-to-face or by video link.

b. *Methodological Triangulation*

Methodological triangulation which involves using more than one method to gather data is ready-to-hand in the literature. Perhaps the most common approach is to combine qualitative and quantitative measures. Edmondson (2007) is typical here, and states an explicit aim of triangulating qualitative and quantitative data in a multi-methods approach exploring the potential of tele-presence technologies in of teacher professional development. Groups of teachers undertook training in traditional and online training.

Quantitative methods employed comprised the collection of data from a “concerns based” measure of how far teachers had adopted the instructional strategies which were the subject of the training -- and the results of a mathematics test which again assessed aspects of training content. Qualitative data was obtained from a grounded, thematic analysis of video

of the online training sessions and interviews which formed part of the concerns based assessment. It is observed that, taking into account practical limitations, the triangulation produced “corroborating evidence” for the conclusions drawn about the effectiveness of the training. A particularly comprehensive application of multiple methods is described in Di Bias and Poggi (2007), who report a large scale collaborative learning project mediated through virtual reality learning spaces and other collaborative spaces. “Social virtual presence” was identified as the key factor in the project’s success. Data was gathered through a combination of surveys, interviews, focus groups, chat logs, video of class interactions, written reports from tutors, student-produced artifacts, forum posts, capture of tutors’ screens in online sessions and expert review. Analysis methods included quantitative analysis of closed questions, thematic coding and classification of open-ended responses, identification of explanatory or illustrative examples, and visualization using graphs. As stated, the aim and subsequent results of this panoply of methods was “to provide a picture as complete as possible of the learning experience.” rather than to challenge or contest findings.

From the early years of the field, presence researchers have advocated the corroboration of subjective reports by physiological data (IJsselsteijn, *et al.* 2000). Among the more recent and rigorously reported examples of this genre, Garau *et al.* (2004) and later Slater *et al.* (2006) present results from a study conducted using a ‘CAVE-like environment’ – a virtual bar - to investigate the relationship between physiological responses, breaks in presence and the behavior of virtual characters towards the participants. The Garau report focuses on a range of qualitative measures – an immediate post-experience question, a longer semi-structured interview, subjected to thematic analysis, and a graphical representation by participants of temporal variations in sense of presence. Discussion of the results notes that subjective responses mirrored the experimentally-induced break in presence, while in overall consideration of the methods employed the authors note that the qualitative work provided insights regarding temporal variations and produced the unexpected finding of spatial variations in presence within the same environment. Slater *et al.* consider the results of the physiological measures - galvanic skin response, heart rate, heart rate variability, and event-related heart rate changes. Changes in heart rate, heart rate variability and galvanic skin response were shown to be responsive to induce breaks in presence and utterances by virtual characters. Many other presence studies combine physiological and subjective, self-report measures of presence. While in some cases these are simply reported as complementary measures, in others discrepancies between the results of different measures are carefully interrogated. Callan and Ando (2007), for example, in an investigation of sound, imagery and presence, used discrepancies in correlations between fMRI measures of neural activity and subjective estimates of strength of imagery as a basis for a discussion of underlying mechanisms and relationships.

c. *Investigator triangulation*

Most instances of investigator triangulation lie in studies using qualitative methods, usually where coding of data is required, and are broadly self-similar. Triangulation here is confirmatory in nature and a means of demonstrating the reliability of the coding instrument rather than challenging conclusions. (Indeed, it is difficult to imagine how this might be otherwise unless the aim of the work is to highlight differences in researchers’ interpretive

frames.) Two or more coders/raters categorize the data and a reliability index is calculated and reported. Among the sizeable body of studies relating to social presence in collaborative learning media, for example, Rourke *et al.* (2001) provide a detailed description of the development of a scheme for coding social presence in computer conferencing transcripts together with inter-rater reliability in the scheme's **application**. Three researchers initially worked together to establish coding procedures which were then applied in coding the transcripts by two coders. Reliability was, as expected, higher for 'manifest' indicators such as addressing by name than for 'latent' indicators such as humor.

Another typical use of multiple raters is in scoring task performance. Mark and Kobsa (2005), for example, investigated the effects of system transparency and differing modes of collaboration in a collaborative information visualization environment, using two coders to score the quality of responses to collaborative tasks. Coders first coded a sample of results as a means of calibration, and then worked independently, achieving a high degree of reliability. Discrepancies were discussed and resolved between the coders. Similarly, in their longitudinal study of collaboration in an immersive CVE (collaborative virtual environment), Bailenson and Yee (2006) had two raters score collaborative verbal tasks requiring creativity with acceptable levels of reliability. (The study is also an instance of method triangulation, combining analysis of non-verbal behavior and subjective ratings of presence, co-presence, simulator sickness and cohesion- with task performance). Triangulation of coder results is not limited to verbal media: Patel *et al.* (2006) report on the relative efficacy of learning tai chi moves in 2D video and 3D immersive applications. Participants' moves, knowledge of tai chi and overall performance were blind-coded by two coders, albeit with relatively modest degrees of reliability.

d. Theory triangulation

Theory triangulation, which involves using more than one theoretical framework in the interpretation of the data is relatively infrequently encountered in presence research. However, the results of studies adopting this mode of triangulation are generally rigorously discussed and produce rewarding conclusions. A strong element of theoretical triangulation can be found in the development of questionnaire instruments. Most components closely paralleled each other, while apparent divergencies could be attributed to the scope of the questions included in the different instruments. A further hard instance of theoretical triangulation can be found in de Kort *et al.* (2007), who report the development of a Social Presence in Gaming questionnaire. Using focus group data, the scale was developed through factor analysis and the results discussed in the light of the Biocca *et al.* (2001) conceptualization of social presence as operationalized in the Networked Minds instrument. The authors note, in contrast to Biocca and colleagues, the absence of co-presence as a distinct dimension in the gaming scale, while the Psychological Involvement dimension only partially coincides. The differences are discussed and attributed to the varying degrees of interdependence engendered by the application domains of gaming and telecommunication.

Work in social presence provides a number of further instances of theoretical triangulation. These include Hwang and Lombard (2006), whose study used both social presence theory and uses and gratifications theory to explore predictors of instant messaging use. Their analysis provides suggestions for the further refinement of both theories. Taking a similarly robust approach, Abeele *et al.* (2007) foreground triangulation

in their investigation of the relationship between social presence, connectedness and perceptual awareness. Social facilitation (presence) theory (Zajonc, 1965) is invoked, the authors arguing that “If the social facilitation framework can be successfully applied, this would provide us with extra evidence that perceptual presence is a prerequisite property of social presence.” (p.217) Participants completed tasks in the real presence or ‘symbolic’ presence (in the form of an image) of either friends or strangers. Only a partial correspondence between measures of social presence and mere presence was established, leading the authors to question aspects of task and experimental design. It is argued that this theory is a valuable tool in the triangulation of social presence data.

2.3 The reasons for using Triangulation

Standardized assessments as one source of data teachers may use in assessing student learning, have several shortcomings. Since standardized tests demonstrate only general estimates of learners’ abilities. They also have some problems of validity and reliability in outcome assessment of different skills. The reliability of standardized tests is under question for several reasons:

1. the health, mood, motivation, test-taking skills, or general abilities of students,
2. the quality of directions and the ambiguities of language,
3. distracting conditions in the environment and interruptions during test administration,
4. biases of the observer, errors on the scoring sheet, or even bad luck
5. variations in the way tests are designed, rated, administered, and conditions of testing that may influence outcomes (e.g., interlocutor behavior may influence outcomes of task assessments)
6. speech rate, length of passage, syntactic complexity, vocabulary, noise level, accent, register, amount of redundancy, amount of context provided, clarity of instructions, response format, availability of question preview, listener memory, listener interest, prior background knowledge of listener, motivation of listener may all influence outcomes of assessments (Brindley & Slatyer, 2002).

Furthermore, English language learning is a complex process and using one method for its assessing can’t be useful. For learning English one should master oral speaking, listening, comprehension, reading comprehension, and writing.

Triangulated data approach is used to assess learners knowledge based on information gathered from multiple sources to be sure of the proficiency level of the English language learners. This approach includes:

1. An in-classroom observational protocol to assess the speaking and listening proficiency of the students,
2. Analysis of the students’ standardized test scores in English, and
3. Formal test(s) of English proficiency (Switzer, 2006)

In this study a Case study by the writer of this article is considered.

This study focuses on the results of previous studies done by the same researcher. For conducting this study two assessments were used to be sure of the results.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 40 EFL students from Islamic Azad University-Tabriz Branch in Tabriz, Iran. They were chosen after assigning a writing task for having homogeneous groups. Students were all at intermediate level. The researcher randomly assigned them as the experimental and the control group. Teacher as the researcher completed a critical thinking questionnaire for two groups in the pre-test and the post-test.

3.2. Instrumentation

Different instruments used in the present study involve two argumentative writing tasks in the pre-test and the post-test. Also, there was a critical thinking questionnaire.

3.3. Procedure

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of instructing critical reading and critical writing on developing writing skill. The researcher used a quasi-experimental research design with a sample of forty Iranian college learners from Tabriz Azad university-Tabriz Branch, who were passing General English courses. After assessing the groups' homogeneity by using a writing task as a pre-test, the researcher randomly assigned them as the experimental and control groups. The control group was supposed to write about different topics at home and they got teacher feedback in class for their writing. However, in the experimental group, teacher in class explained about critical reading and critical writing. They read the text in class critically with students and they wrote about the same topics as control group wrote. Teacher helped the learners in every stage both in reading critically and writing critically. Learners wrote their essays in class while they received feedback from teacher and peers at the same time. The critical reading and writing process that teacher explained and conducted it in class was as follows:

The researcher used critical thinking questionnaire from www.criticalthinkin.org. The questionnaire was scored from 1 to 4 for each item. The researcher added up all the items score. The results showed that students in the experimental group who received critical reading and critical writing instruction, their writing improved better than students in the control group. The researcher scored students writing based on Hughes's(2003) holistic approach.

4. Results and Discussion

After assessing the homogeneity of students through a proficiency test, Students first writing task was considered as the pre-test and their last writing task was considered as the post-test. In the pre-test, there was not any significant difference between two groups. However, the results of the post-test revealed that there is a significant difference between two groups in the post-test. In the post-test, the experimental group outperforms the control group in using critical thinking and improving writing skill (sahebkhair, 2016). Teacher first considered the whole writing score through Hughes (2005) scoring system and also tried to assess the different items of writing separately. Through using two writing assessment complete view of students' improvement was revealed.

5. Conclusion and implication(s)

More reliable and valid assessment of ELL proficiency will have a positive effect on the placement and annual monitoring of students. A careful monitoring of student progress during the course of a semester or a year can yield valuable data regarding the student's English

proficiency.

The techniques of triangulating data in qualitative research are appropriate to assessing progress of learners because English language learning is a complex and multi-varied process that require multiple perspectives to fully comprehend the process.

Moreover, multiple methods of assessment allow students the opportunity to represent their knowledge in ways that any one single assessment, a standardized test, might not capture. Furthermore, the use of multiple modes of assessment/triangulation allows students to show learning and to receive comprehensive feedback to improve the quality of their learning as part of the process of assessment. It also promotes equal opportunities for learners to progress and develop their language production. Finally, the “triangulated data” approach encourages improvements in teaching to support each student’s learning. (Smith, Teemant, & Pinnegar, 2004)

There has been some new research about the positive effect of triangulation on improving reliability and validity of tests (e.g., Aydin, 2016; Riazi & Candlin, 2014). It seems that teachers should try to use triangulation for getting a correct score in assessing students’ language production.

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The Effect of Using metacognitive Vocabulary Learning Strategies on Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Size

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Abstract

The aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of using metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies on the vocabulary size among a group of intermediate Iranian EFL students. For that purpose, sixty students at Islamic Azad University of Dezful in Iran were randomly selected and assigned in two intact classes as the participants of the study. By considering total sixty participants, randomly thirty participants were assigned to control group and thirty participants to experimental group. Metacognitive Strategy Test (designed by the current researcher) for measuring the percentage in which participants were familiar with metacognitive strategies as the treatment of the study was the first instrument and Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) as the other instrument for measuring the vocabulary size was administered before (as pre-test) and after (as post-test) the treatment of the study. Both groups worked on the same reading passages and textbooks. In addition, the students in experimental group were also taught in metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies while the students in control group received traditional teaching without any treatment for 12 sessions. The result of one-way ANCOVA indicated that applying metacognitive vocabulary strategies was **beneficial in increasing the students' vocabulary size**.

Keywords: Strategy-Based Instruction, Metacognitive Vocabulary Learning Strategies, Vocabulary Size, EFL students, Vocabulary Levels Test

1. Introduction

In this regard, after introducing the theoretical and methodical assumptions related to this study, the major issues bounded with vocabulary learning in general, vocabulary learning strategies and the notion of vocabulary size will be stated. Afterwards, those characteristics which make this study significant from other relevant studies in this field will be explained briefly. Based on the previous mentioned background, a research question is raised which is addressed in the following chapters. Then the hypothesis will be discussed lack or existence of the effect of metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies on learners' vocabulary size. After that, key terms with a brief definitions of each one related to the study will be covered. At last, limitations and delimitations related to the study will be mentioned.

2. Background of the Study

The knowledge of vocabulary is the backbone of language learning. All skills related to language learning directly and indirectly are interconnected with vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2001). Vocabulary plays an essential role in communication than the other components of language. Obviously, the lack of vocabulary used in routine conversation and communication is the most common source and origin of students' incapacity to express what they want to say and write during their communication activities. It is supposed that introducing relevant vocabulary is prior to any other communication activity. Vocabulary or lexical item, as Chastain (1988) holds, plays a more important role than the other components of language. Without it, language would no longer exist. In the history of language teaching a little care was taken to the "vocabulary learning". It was wrongly assumed that learning and teaching vocabulary is not as important as other issues in language

learning. Some scholars Mior and Paul Nation (2008) directly stated their idea of less necessity of vocabulary learning among other aspects of language learning. This idea was dominant during that time till gradually linguists proved the significant value of vocabulary in communication and certain interactions. Nowadays the importance of this issue arrived to this domain that Wilkins (1972) claimed that without grammar very little can be conveyed, but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. According to Hatch (1983), “**basic communicative competence is largely concerned with the strategies the learners use to solicit the vocabulary they need in order to get meaning across**”. It is being a long time that teaching vocabulary considered as memorizing some list of new words that most of the learners have to do their best in a very short period of time and it is unfortunately rarely seen that a teacher advises students to guess the word, paraphrase, or focus on synonyms and antonyms (M. Hashemi, 2011). As mentioned above, paraphrasing, guessing and etc. can be very effective in vocabulary learning (Finochairo, 1973:p 122). According to Pulston (1976), the neglected area of all language teaching, with no doubt is vocabulary learning. All in all for having a better job, better pay and eventually a better life, we need more and more vocabulary (Saif, 1995).

Vocabulary is now a current focus in ESL pedagogy and research and has been increasingly recognized as essential to language use because inadequate vocabulary can lead **to the learners’ difficulty in language reception and production (Wei, 2007)**. Also Vocabulary knowledge is important because it encompasses all the words we must know to access our background knowledge, express our ideas, communicate effectively, and learn about new concepts.

However, it is useless if the students learn a lot of words or possess a large number of **vocabularies but they can’t remember or retain in their long-term memories**. Wei (2007) stated that nowadays long-term retention has received wide attention as one of the greatest problems in learning new words. Quinn and Irving (1997) mentioned that the hardest way to learn the new words is to try to memorize a list of unrelated words and their meanings. The students need not only learn a lot of words, but to remember them. Unlike the learning of grammar which is essentially a rule-based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items. The important point is that the students must be able to store and retrieve the vocabularies when they read for comprehension (Thornbury, 2008). Similarly, the inability to recall the known words adversely affects not only reading comprehension but also spoken and written discourse (Wei, 2007). Therefore, the problem of remembering a large number of vocabularies is common for the English learners around the world.

Having inadequate vocabulary hampers learners’ reading comprehension in a way that makes it more likely that the learners will face difficulties in the path of academic achievement. As such, vocabulary learning and teaching is a central activity in the L2 classroom. One way in which vocabulary learning can be fostered is through the use of learning strategies. These strategies are consciously or unconsciously learned techniques for processing information in order to enhance learning, comprehension and retention (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990).

In order to investigate learning vocabulary, applied by EFL learners, many different studies around this issue is done so far. Naiman, Frohlich, and Todesco (1975) made a list of strategies used by successful L2 learners, adding that they learn to think in the language and address the affective aspects of language acquisition as well.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990), for instance, have divided the strategies into three main branches: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective, each of which includes lots of

sub-strategies such as rehearsal, organization, summarizing, deducing, and imagery. On the other hand, Oxford (1990a) has proposed a more comprehensive model in which six categories, classified into two groups of direct and indirect exist. The direct strategies include memory, cognitive, and compensation while indirect strategies include metacognitive, affective, and social. As Oxford (1990b) mentions, the social and affective strategies are found less often in L2 research. This is, perhaps, because these behaviors are not studied frequently by L2 researchers, and because learners are not familiar with paying attention to their own feelings and social relationships as part of the L2 learning process. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), cognitive (e.g., translating, analyzing) and metacognitive (e.g., planning, organizing) strategies are often used together, supporting each other. In the present study first Metacognitive strategies will come in focus and then their possible effect or effects on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary size will be investigated.

3. Research Methodology

The sample drawn from the population must be representative so as the researcher is allowed to make inferences or generalization from sample statistics to population (Maleske, 1995). In this way, 60 male and female subjects who were studying in the second semester of Islamic Azad university of Dezfoul were invited randomly to take part in this study. They were all native speakers of Persian. Their age range varied from 18 to 24. The average age of the participant was 20.83. They had already passed their second semester. The participants were randomly assigned to two classes and were regarded as intermediate level of language proficiency. One of the classes was randomly selected as the experimental group and the other class as control group. The number of the students in both groups of experimental and control group were 30. After the selection of the participants, the PET was administered to the participants of the study. The purpose of the administration of the PET test was to ensure the homogeneity of the students in terms of general language proficiency prior to the treatment. The result of an independent sample T-test for the mean score of the PET test for both groups (Table 1) indicated that the scores of the two groups were not statistically different.

Table 1: Independent sample t-test for pet score

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t*	Sig
Experimental	30	49.33	5.50	0.429	0.67
Control	30	48.66	6.49		

3.1. Instruments

The following instruments were used by the researcher:

3.3.1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

A retired version of PET exam (2004), as an internationally valid proficiency test, was utilized in this study as a measure of general language proficiency of the participants of this study. Based on the PET Handbook (2004), the test is developed to assess the use of language in real life. PET is based on the communicative approach to learning English while considering the need for accuracy. As for content, the test requires understanding public notices and signs; reading and understanding of short written texts incorporating factual information; understanding of grammar as utilized to express language notions such as time, space, possession, etc. The reliability of the test as estimated against Kudar-Richardson Formula (KR-21) turned out to be 0.84.

4. Statistical Analysis

In order to investigate the aims of the study, the collected data were computed by means of SPSS package. In the following section the analysis of the results of the current study will be discussed in details.

4.1 Inferential statistics

In order to answer the research question of the study, the gathered data were statistically analyzed. In so doing, first the normality of distribution for the scores was investigated. To check the normality assumption, one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was conducted on both pre-test and post-test scores. In one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, if the significance level is larger than .05, it shows that the data are normally distributed. As it is indicated in Table 2, the results of one-sample K-S test revealed that the data was normally distributed. Table 2 indicates the normal distribution of data in the present study.

Table 2: Results of one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test for showing Normal distribution

Sig. level	Z -Scores	Variable
0/879	0/589	Vocabulary size

Results of the test indicates that data in all levels is normally distributed. Because all calculated Z-scores of all variables are not significant in level $P \leq 05/0$. In order to answer the research question of the study which dealt with the comparison of the two groups in terms of breadth of the vocabulary knowledge, a one way ANCOVA was run. According to Pallant (2007), ANCOVA can be used when you have a pre-test/post-test design (e.g. comparing the impact of two different interventions, taking before and after measures for each group). The scores on the pre-test are treated as a covariate to 'control' for pre-existing differences between the groups.

For the use of ANCOVA, one important assumption which is the homogeneity of regression slopes must be met first. This assumption concerns the relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable for each of the groups (Pallant, 2007). What should be checked is that there should be no interaction between the covariate and the treatment or experimental manipulation. Table 3 indicates that this assumption has not been violated; If the Sig. level for the interaction is less than or equal to .05, the interaction is statistically significant, indicating that we have violated the assumption. As the table indicates the Sig. level for group pretest is .083 which suggests that this assumption has not been violated. Then, a one-way between-group analysis of covariance was run to investigate the effectiveness of the intervention which was meta-cognitive vocabulary strategy training on the breadth of the vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL students. The independent variable was meta-cognitive vocabulary strategy training, and the dependent variable consisted of scores on VLT administered after the treatment. Participants' scores on the pre-test administration of the VLT were used as the covariate in this analysis.

In table 3, the mean and standard deviation of the pre-test and post-test variable with regard to the control and experimental groups will be presented.

Table 3. Mean and Standard deviation of pre test and post test

Post test				Pre test				Groups
Deviation	Stan	ean	M	Deviation	Stan	ean	M	
4	1/32	78/3	10	18	1/45	60/0	5	Experimental group
4	1/67	70/3	40	17	1/77	66/6	20	Control group

Results of the table shows that the average scores in the experimental group than the control group for breadth of vocabulary was noticeably increased. As discussed before for comparison of two groups performance in vocabulary size by considering the homogeneity of both control and experimental group and also to decrease the level of other effective factors on participants' vocabulary size, One-way ANCOVA was used in this study. To search for the same assumption variances (Homogeneity of variance) in the groups studied is that of default by analysis of covariance Levene test (Levene Test) were used, the results of which are presented in the following Table 4.

Table 4: Levene test for evaluating the assumption of "homogeneity of variance"

Sig. level	df2	df1	F	Dependent Variable
0/094	59	1	2/88	Post test

The results of this test indicate that the amount of "F" is not significant and the assumption of homogeneity of variance is established. The results of univariate analysis of covariance between-group effects (Between- subjects Effects) by removing the effect of pre-test and post-test shows that the mean of two experimental and control groups in post test scores ($F = 22/37, p \leq 0/01, \eta^2 = 0/344$) are of significant differences. And by considering pointed averages in Table 2, it is indicated that these differences are more in post test in experimental group. And by respect to Cohen criterion (1988), this effect is more than mediocre level. The results of the table indicates using metacognitive vocabulary learning has a significant effect on learning vocabulary and those students who were using metacognitive strategies in language learning in contrast with control group, experience a better learning. These results established the significant effects on teaching metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies among Iranian EFL learners.

Table 5: The univariate analysis of one-way ANCOVA on pretest and post test scores by considering control and experimental group as dependent variable.

Effect amount (Eta square)	Sig.	F	Mean Square	DF	Sum of square	Source
0/691	0/000	127/51	8427/67	1	8427/67	Pre test
0/344	0/000	29/87	1974/65	1	1974/65	group
			66/09	57	3767/15	error
				60	344165/00	total

Figure 4 also shows the effectiveness of learning vocabulary by using metacognitive strategies on vocabulary size of experimental group in contrast with the control group.

The finding of this research revealed the inevitable and significant effect of using metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies on Iranian EFL learners. However, many

scholars have focused on using metacognitive learning strategies. For instance, According to results from three landmark studies on L2 vocabulary acquisition conducted in the 1980s by Cohen and Apeh (1981), O'Malley et al. (1985) and Ahmed (1989), researchers developed some hypotheses on the VLS most commonly used by L2 learners. These authors argued that memorization, dictionary use, note-taking, and visual and oral repetition are the most common learning strategies among L2 learners. The results of these studies also support the idea that many beginning-level L2 learners prefer mechanical, less cognitively-demanding VLS over more complex meta-cognitive ones (Schmitt, 1997). These studies also led to more systematic research into VLS, although questions still remain today over which type of VLS, or combination of such strategies, are more effective in acquiring a large L2 vocabulary (Takač, 2008).

Many other Researches show that metacognitive skills can be taught to students to improve their learning (Nietfeld & Shraw, 2002; Thiede, Anderson, & Therriault, 2003). They believed that constructing understanding requires both cognitive and metacognitive elements. Learners “construct knowledge” using cognitive strategies and they guide, regulate, and evaluate their learning using metacognitive strategies. It is through this “thinking about thinking,” this use of metacognitive strategies, that real learning occurs. As students become more skilled at using metacognitive strategies, they gain confidence and become more independent as learners.

Stoffer (1995) carried out a large-scale vocabulary-learning study using Russian, Japanese, German, and Spanish FL students at a large university in the United States. Stoffer designed a questionnaire—the Vocabulary Learning Strategy Inventory (VOLSI)—to determine the most commonly used VLS among the participants. The VOLSI consisted of 53 strategies grouped into nine categories: 1) strategies involving authentic language use, 2) strategies involving creative activities, 3) strategies used for self-motivation, 4) strategies used to create mental linkages, 5) memory strategies, 6) (visual and auditory strategies, 7) strategies involving physical action, 8) strategies used to overcome anxiety, and 9) strategies used to organize words. Among the findings in Stoffer’s study was the fact that metacognitive strategies used to create mental linkages were the most frequently used type of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Students who score high in this factor were the ones who used strategies such as linking L2 words to their native language (either by sound or by spelling), learning words group in related topics, linking new words to already known concepts, or using natural associations (opposites). Another interesting finding was the fact that experienced language learners, those who had previously studied a FL, used significantly more strategies than novice FL learners, those learning a FL for the first time. Stoffer also found that students learning a language more lexically distant from English (such as Russian and Japanese) use VLS more frequently than those who were learning a language less distant such as Spanish.

Many other researchers focused on the notion of Metacognition and metacognitive strategies as an inevitable way to facilitate learning. Metacognition enables students to benefit from instruction (Carr, Kurtz, Schneider, Turner & Borkowski, 1989; Van Zile-Tamsen, 1996) and influences the use and maintenance of cognitive strategies. While there are several approaches to metacognitive instruction, the most effective involve providing the learner with both knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies (to be used as metacognitive knowledge), and experience or practice in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and evaluating the outcomes of their efforts (develops metacognitive regulation).

Chamot (1987) found that high school ESL learners reported more strategy use for vocabulary learning than for any other language learning activity, including listening comprehension, oral presentation, and social communication. This might be due to the relatively discrete nature of vocabulary learning compared to more integrated language activities, like giving oral presentations, making it easier to apply strategies effectively.

Among many other researchers we also have some idea of which vocabulary strategies are most commonly used. In a longitudinal experiment, Cohen and Apeh (1981) found that most students simply tried to memorize the words which they did not know. Ahmed (1989) described different types of learners and found that most took notes on vocabulary, or wrote notes in the margins of their books. O'Malley et al. (1985), found that repetition was the most commonly mentioned strategy, with strategies requiring more active manipulation of information (imagery, inference, Keyword Method) being much less frequent. So it seems that more mechanical strategies are often favoured over more complex ones.

Nation (1982) surveyed research into word lists, and concluded they are an effective way for learning a great deal of vocabulary in a short time. Even rote repetition can be effective if students are accustomed to using it (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). If a generalization can be made, shallower activities may be more suitable for beginners, because they contain less material which may only distract a novice, while intermediate or advanced learners can benefit from the context usually included in deeper activities (Cohen and Apeh, 1981).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that Hispanics who had strategy training improved their vocabulary scores compared to the Hispanic control group, but Asians in the strategy training groups (who resisted training) performed worse than the Asian control group who used their familiar rote repetition strategy. In addition, a study by Schmitt et al. (in press) showed that learners from different culture groups sometimes have quite different opinions about the usefulness of various vocabulary learning strategies. Language proficiency may play an even greater role in determining a vocabulary strategy's effectiveness. For example, word lists proved better for beginning students, but more advanced students benefitted more from contextualized words (Cohen and Apeh, 1981). Cohen and Apeh (1980) found that if students were more proficient initially, they were better able to use associations in recall tasks.

5. The Study in One Glance

Learning vocabulary among many other components of language learning is of great importance. It can be reckoned as the backbone of language learning that without which all other aspects of language seems incomplete and the purposeful communications would not occur. Many different studies have been proposed around the issue of vocabulary learning. In order to discuss vocabulary learning and teaching, the first issue which popped into any researcher's head would be **vocabulary learning strategies (VLS)**. **Vocabulary learning strategies** are those strategies method and techniques which learners and instructors apply in **order to facilitate one's learning**.

The main strategies which are applied by learners can be summarized as social, memory, cognitive and finally metacognitive strategies. All above mentioned strategies had been discussed in detail in chapter 2 of this study. Among all strategies applied by learners and teachers, this study aims put its emphasis on metacognitive vocabulary strategies. This study tries to investigate whether using metacognitive strategies affects on Iranian EFL learners vocabulary size or not. For this aim, the researcher administered VLT test to test **learners' vocabulary** size after teaching metacognitive strategies to experimental group of

study. The other group or control group had been taught by regular method and completely without metacognitive strategies.

Based on aforementioned ideas about learning metacognitive strategies and its possible effects on learners' vocabulary size the following null hypothesis was formulated: H0: Using metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies has no effect on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary size?

In order to investigate the above mentioned hypothesis 60 participants were randomly invited to the study. All participants were in the second semester at Islamic Azad university of Dezful. They were both male and female and their age ranged between 18-23. What follows is a brief description of the steps taken for data collection:

First of all, the students of two intact classes of English translation major at the Islamic Azad University of Dezful were selected randomly as the participants of the study. Then the PET test was administered to the participants of the study. The purpose of the administration of the PET test was to ensure the homogeneity of the students in terms of general language proficiency prior to the treatment. The result of an independent sample T-test for the mean score of the PET test for both groups indicated that the scores of the two groups were not statistically different. After that the standard metacognitive strategies test was administered between all participants to see if or to what extent participants were familiar with considered metacognitive strategies. Based on self reports from students the researcher recognized that **these strategies were in dark side of participants, it means they almost didn't know anything** about these strategies. Therefore these strategies were chosen as the treatments for the study. Then the VLT was administered to two groups as the pre-test of the study. After the administration of the pre-test, the control group was taught conventionally without any metacognitive vocabulary strategy training while the experimental group received meta-cognitive vocabulary strategy instruction.

According to the analyzed data, it was concluded that using metacognitive strategies has a significant effect on Iranian learners' vocabulary size and the above mentioned hypothesis was rejected.

Many researchers' studies support this result. They believe that metacognitive skills can be taught to students to improve their learning (Nietfeld & Shraw, 2002; Thiede, Anderson, & Therriault, 2003). They believed that constructing understanding requires both cognitive and metacognitive elements. Learners "construct knowledge" using cognitive strategies and they guide, regulate, and evaluate their learning using metacognitive strategies. It is through this "thinking about thinking," this use of metacognitive strategies, that real learning occurs. As students become more skilled at using metacognitive strategies, they gain confidence and become more independent as learners.

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6. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the present study, using metacognitive vocabulary learning strategies can affect learners' vocabulary size. In other words language learners are able to enhance the breath of their vocabulary by applying metacognitive method and trainings. By using these strategies the needs of learners to the teacher will be decreased and consequently they can be reckoning as independent learners. In so doing, learners will be taught to think about their thinking. They monitor what they have learnt and at the end they evaluate their own procedure.

The contact heat-transfer coefficient between the work-piece and the roll is set as 23 kW/(m²°C). The initial temperature of the work-piece, the ambient temperature and roll temperature is set as 860 °C, 20 °C and 200 °C, respectively. The conversion factor from plastic work to heat was set as 0.9 [8] and [9]. 3-D thermo-mechanical coupled elasto-plastic heat capacity and thermal expanding coefficient at different temperature were directly input on the software windows, and the thermo-physical parameters at high temperature can be extrapolated based on.

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Nature of Swearing in Iraqi Arabic Society: A Sociolinguistic Study

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Abstract

There are no argument that swearing is a universal linguistic and psychological phenomenon. Many studies proved that people all over the world and in different times used to swear while talking. Of course, each society has its own way in talking the oath, whether in the expressions used or by some body movements that accompanied swearing. Regardless these differences, swearing almost always is used to achieve a common purpose. The current study sheds the light on this aspect linguistically in Iraqi Arabic society. There would sometimes be a reference to Arab people in general for the similarity between Iraqi and other Arab countries in many respects. Taking into account some shared features with other foreign communities. Religious oaths, swearing by holy people (alive or dead), shrines, times in addition to dear persons were the most elements to be sworn by according to the findings of the study.

Key words: Holy, Iraqi, Oath-Taking, Society, Swearing

History and Meaning of Swearing

Swearing has been a frequent speech act adopted in daily people's conversation as a part of their style. People of different social levels: writers, poets, religious orators, politicians and men in the streets use swearing. They all swear to give more trust and confidence to their speech. Historically, swearing extends back to many centuries and that was recognized in the holy books as Bible and Quran; and also in the verses of ancient poets. This is, in fact, what made this phenomenon to be transferred from one generation to another, from the antecedents to their sons. Thus, it is considered as one of the properties that goes to the heirs. Iraqi society is not exception from this natural human linguistic behavior, especially if we know that Iraqis have one of the most ancient civilization. Moreover, Mesopotamia was the cradle of the culture, science, heaven messages, prophets, etc., accordingly people used to swear as an emphasis to show legitimacy of one's saying (Hudson 2000:24). This does not mean that there are always limited expressions for oath-taking. On the contrary, several factors are involved such as age, education, gender, social class, and so on. Since roots of this phenomenon goes back to many centuries, then it would be preferable to cite some instances of such resources. General, Holy Quran is considered as the best reference to cite from for Arabs due to the great majority are Muslims. This is not restricted to our topic in question, but also to all other linguistic phenomena, where people depend upon in their interpretation. Incidentally, even in pre-Islamic era most people swears were religious expressions. Thus, at that time where people were living in a pagan community, they swear by their idols gods like Hubal, Allat, Al-Eza, Wid, Sewaa, etc.

Oath-taking is found indifferent languages like Hebrew and other Semitic languages. This indicates that swearing is a cultural heritage was passed from the antecedents. In Greek civilization the rebellion orator Demosthenes who headed the opposition against the King Philip made a historical speech that implied oaths as in " By the generous souls of ancient times who endangered their lives in the field of Marathon! By those who encountered the fleets at Salamis! By those who fought at Artemisium! By those courageous warriors who stood arrayed at Plataea! O Æschines, the sons of Athens did not pay homage only to those who prevailed, not only those who were victorious."(Kottak 2006: 93).

Methodology of the Study

1- The Tool

In order to get spontaneous reactions (speech), a sample comprising of (100) Iraqi persons was exposed to natural situations by the researchers. Those people belong to altered ages (young – old), genders (male – female), social status (single – married), education (educated – laymen), social class (poor – rich), etc.

2- The procedures

To achieve the aims of the current study, the researchers have followed the steps below:

1- Passing the (100) selected people in conversations where they have to emphasize, defend, insist, ensure, and convince their rightness, authenticity, or claim. Of course, their responses were accompanied with certain intonation, stress, and pitch to reinforce their stands. Several situations have been created and conducted by the researchers to find out people's reactions; some of these situations are mentioned here:

A. The researchers claimed that the goods is not alright – though this is not correct -, so, the seller tries to prove the reverse and to convince the researcher (as a buyer) through swearing.

B. The researchers denied that they have been told an issue by somebody (though the last told them). So, he replied supporting his answer with swearing.

C. The researchers pretended that they have already informed a person a case (of course they have not). Therefore, the person denied their claim with swearing.

2- Tape recording the conversations via a hidden means and analyzing the data.

3- Investigating the common similarities or any significant variances among them.

Meaning of Swearing

Generally, there are two different senses for the word 'swearing'. The first which is represented by using socially unaccepted expressions in certain situations, when for instance hitting one's finger with a hammer, or burning with small fire or by hot materials. This type includes expressions for cursing (eg. Eat shit, die), profanity (Jesus Christ!, blasphemy, taboo or obscenity (damn). Vulgarisms (wow, look after), expletives (shit). Psychologically, all these expressions are said spontaneously to give a sort of relief mechanism (Labov 1972: 121).

The second meaning of 'swearing' that we are about to in this study has a synonyms to oath-taking. Certain expressions- single words or phrases- are uttered to confirm the truth of one's saying or to give another implications like threat warning, and promise. Such expressions mostly have a shared sense of respect and dignity between the speaker and the listener(s) in spoken language and between the writer and the reader(s) in written language. Therefore swearing and oath-taking will be used as synonyms whenever they are mentioned in this study (Malmkjar 2005: 88).

Purpose of swearing

No human behavior linguistically or non-linguistically occurs in vain unless what comes from insane or drunk people. Therefore, there are aims behind using any discourse and swearing is not excluded. Kiani (1992: 51) mentions more than twenty aims for swearing. To him most important aims are: emphasize a subject, prove the guiltiness and exoneration, make a speech believable, prove claim, assure others, warn and threat others, and excite and encourage others.

As far as our aim of this study is concerned, Arabs often swear to ratify a statement by introducing what guarantees their claim. So, they try to use a common valuable or

respectable character or a thing among them. They usually resort to Islamic values and symbols believing that any break of an oath would be dishonor. Nothing than God, the Holy Quran and the prophet Muhammad can unite all Arabs' swearing. What reinforces this orientation that God himself took oaths in Quran many times for several purposes. In fact, God uses oath-taking to confirm his unity and absolute power, and to warn and threat people who do not obey Islamic instructions, otherwise, they will face great punishment. This what make Arabs keep their words and promises when they swear and attempt to convince their audience and/or readers in their claims or speech (Labov 1966: 49).

Types of Swearing

Form and content of swearing depends mostly upon the relationship between the speaker and hearer(s) as well as the social situation. Apparently, all societies perform oath as a requirement for affirmation or taking responsibility and it may be considered a treason or a high crime to betray a sworn oath. In this respect, we try to quote swears from various cultures where necessary. However, swearing can be classified into two main types, formal and informal.

Formal Swearing

Though there are several types of formal swearing, we are going to focus on the most important ones.

1. The Hippocratic Oath: This oath is taken by the physicians in the beginning of practicing their practical career. Historically, this oath goes back to the fourth century B.C. most agree that this oath was written by the father of medicine, the Greek Hippocrates. He witnesses the gods and goddess of the Greek that he will practice his job honestly and faithfully, and to deal with all patients equally, regardless their color, sex, nation, etc. (Eckert and Ginet 2003: 64), it is somehow a long swearing, so we are going to quote the main part of it:

I swear by Apollo, Asclepius, Hygieia, and Panacea, and I took to witness All the gods,
all the goddesses, to keep according to my ability and my judgment, the following oath.
To consider dear to me, as my parents, him who taught me this art; to live in common with
him and, if necessary, to share my gods with him, to look upon his children as my own brothers,
to teach them this art. I will prescribe regiments for the good of my patients according to my
ability and my judgment and never do harm to anyone. To please no one will prescribe a deadly
drug nor give advice which may cause his death. Nor will I give a women a pessary to procure
abortion.

2. A Pauper's Oath: This oath is restricted to the prisoners who are completely destitute, that is without any money. They take this oath so that the court find a lawyer to defend them and it pays the costs. The following is a sample of a Pauper's oath used in United States when establishing indigent status:

I do solemnly swear that I have not any property, real or personal, exceeding \$20, except such as is by law exempt from being taken on civil process for debt; and that I have no property in any way conveyed or concealed, or in any way

3. The Prophets: Among the huge number of prophets and messengers whom sent by Allah to humanity along the history, Iraqis almost always swear by the last prophet, Muhammad. This, definitely does not mean that those people discriminate prophets from each other. Those people often add an attribute to this prophet whenever they mention or swear by showing more respect as in: by the life of the prophet, the messenger of Allah, by the Majesty of Muhammad. It has been observed that Christians in Iraq also swear by Jesus the Christ when they are in need.

4. Shia Imams: Iraq is a heterogeneous community. It has various religions and castes, which means different cultures. According to formal estimation, Shia Muslim caste forms the majority. This caste believes in twelve Imams (infallible ideal leaders). Some Imams were characterizes be a distinctive attribute. So, this large number of people swear by those Imams each according to his own attribute (prisoner, killed thirsty or poisonous, died in strangeness, etc.). Iraqis also swear by Imams' faithful relatives (son, brother, etc.) especially by those who dignity, courage, religious knowledge, and science. Imam Hussein's brother. Al-Abbas is the most figure that people swear by.

5. The Chaste Women: Arabic history is rich with women that most of them are relative to the Shia Imams. Incidentally, here we refer to Arab history, for those women lived in an era where all Arab countries were one state and there were no political boundaries like nowadays. The most familiar of those women are prophet Muhammad's daughter (Fatima), his wife (Khadijah), Jesus Christ's mother (Mary), wife of Pharoh of Egypt (Asya Bint Muzahim), Imam Ali's wife (Ommolbanin), and others. It is worth to mention that respect and dignity of those women do not spring from their relation to great people, but to their faith and sacrifice's to their religions and God. It is noticeable that Iraqi women swear by those women more than swearing by other holy figures. It may be a kind of solidarity to their gender and social life.

6. Important people: A lot of people in rural areas and remote distance from city center believe highly in the descendants of the prophet Muhammad. People swear in their spirits, even after death. Some of those descendants are women who got great dignity and faith. People had experience with them. In other words, when someone is in trouble, he or she asks god for the sake of those persons to solve the problem or to reduce its bad effect. Through his request most of their demands were answered. Another group of people who use this swear is the uneducated who are too innocents to respect blindly whatever relates to their prophet.

7. Dear Persons and their Moral Values: It is known that the more sincere relation among family members, the more strength relation would be. This love and intimacy evoke them to swear by life of each other, present or absent, dead or alive. It seems that oath-taking within the family is mutual. To say it differently, parents swear by their children's life and children swear by their parents' life and honor.

8. Holy Places and Times: House of God, Al Ka'aba is the holies place to all Muslims all over the world ever found. This surely encourages Iraqis to swear by this sacred place. They also consider shrines of Imams and their relatives no less than their real body and soul, so they treat them as if they are alive. This belief, in fact, does not come from nothing, but due to the Allah's speech. Indeed, there are evidences (verses) from Quran which say that anyone is killed for the sake of god is alive to God's view but ordinary people cannot apprehend this fact (and do not speak of those who are slain in Allah's way as dead, (they are) alive, but you do not perceive, Q2:154). Arab Muslims have their own yearly calendar. In this calendar certain times (hours, days, months) are considered holier than others. For example, month of Ramadan (fasting month) is more honest than other months; The Grand Night (The angels

and Jibreel descend in it by the permission of their Lord, Q97:4) is better than other nights – even better than thousand months; the early morning hour (dawn) is better than other hours of the day. This calls people to choose the holies time for their swearing in order to get more support for their claims and promises (Abdel- Jawad 2000: 83).

9. Food and water: People in Iraq regard food as great blessing denoted from God. So, they wish and work to increase this blessing and at the same time they are aware of losing it. That is why they do not swear by the food unless they are totally satisfied with what they say. Mostly they use salt and bread as representatives of all other types of food. This may be because any food without salt has no taste and also one can hardly do without bread or its derivatives (cake, biscuits, etc.), then, bread is a symbol of all baked goods.

Water has nearly the same value of food to Iraqis. Indeed, water is the origin of every alive creature; this truth was emphasized in the Holy Quran and we made every living thing of water? it is sometimes connected with their third Imam (Al Hussein) who was killed thirsty in the historical famous Kerbala battle.

Swearing and Gender

Many studies in different societies proved that women have language expressions different from men. These differences varies from one society to another relating to several factors like social class, education, prestige, age, and so on. For instance, women are more influenced by the fashion and cosmetics industries, and they recognize color terms better than men. Nevertheless, women language are understood by their fellow men citizen. Women language can be reflected through emphasis on specific linguistic aspects such as more use of polite expressions or through avoiding other linguistic aspects like less use of taboo or profane words. That is simply due to their nature and what society expect from them. Some linguists and psychiatrists go beyond this and claim that women can implement their intentions by bursting into tears or weeping.

It has been noticed that vocabulary differences are the most explicit than other linguistic aspects such as grammar, phonology, etc., women use for their distinctive expressions sometimes accompanied by some body stances and movements when they swear.

Syntactic Structure of Oath Expressions

Though this study is devoted to oath-taking culturally and sociolinguistically, it is necessary to give an idea about the grammatical structure of this linguistic aspect. Often two main expressions are used for swearing 'I swear...!' and 'by.....!'. These expressions mostly occur initially and are followed by what the speaker swears by to support his or her claim or to give an evidence. The following two examples clarify this view:

By God, this meal is good.

I swear by this food.

It is obvious that the first swearing expression 'by God' is considered expletive, since it is possible to delete it without influence on the basic sentence structure, as in:

This meal is good.

While it is difficult to delete the second swearing expression, that is 'I swear by' without distorting the sentence structure, as in:

This food.

The first deletion does not affect the sentence structure while the second one changed it into a noun phrase, which it may grammatically be acceptable in some languages as in Arabic where the verb is not always necessary in constructing a sentence, but this in turn is unacceptable in other languages like English.

Choosing either form of swearing is a stylistic and personal matter. Going back to our main measurement in oath-taking, that is the Holy Quran, two translated samples into English were taken as examples. Shakir (2009) adopts 'I swear by' expression in his translation for the verse that contains swearing, while the expression 'by' is adopted in the electronic translation (www.E-Quran.com). The following are samples of some oath-taking verses:

- I swear by the time. (والعصر) (103:1)
- By the afternoon.
- I swear by the fig and the olive. (والتين والزيتون) (95:1)
- By the fig and the olive.
- I swear by the early hour of the day. (والضحى) (93:1)
- By the midmorning.
- I swear by the night when it draw a veil. (والليل اذا يعشى) (92:1)
- By the night when it envelops.
- I swear by the sun and its brilliance. (والشمس وضحاها) (91:1)
- By the sun and its midmorning.
- I swear by the day break (والفجر) (89:1)
- By the dawn.
- I swear by the heaven and the comer by night. (والسما والطارق) (86:1)
- By the sky and the nightly comer.
- I swear by the mansions of the stars. (والسما ذات البروج) (85:1)
- By the heaven of the constellations.

It is clear that there is an obvious difference between the two translations in vocabulary. This difference sometimes affect the grammatical structure. This can be seen in translating the word (يعشى), where it is to Shakir (draw) which is a transitive verb and requires an object (a veil), while in the electronic translation is an intransitive verb (envelop) which may take a complement or not.

Is Swearing desirable or not?

Like other human behavior, this linguistic conduct is bound to social factors. Since it is prohibited to use, for example, taboo words in front of children or telling jokes in funeral, taking oath in some situations is not desirable. Rassin and Moris (2005: 34) express this point of view when they regard that swearing is a considerable social behavior which is forbidden under some conditions while it is quite common on others.

From a religious point of view, Islam has already emphasized this orientation through the Quran "do not yield to any mean oath-monger, 86:10). This verse condemns swearing implicitly. In other place God warns believers to avoid swearing explicitly "and do not use God's name as an excuse in your oath, 2:224). In fact, avoiding swearing was mentioned many times in Quran and also by the prophet Muhammad unless there is a necessity. Christianity has the same attitude in this respect, for Jesus forbade taking an oath altogether. This is clear when he says to his followers "let your 'yes' be 'es' and your 'no' be 'no', never swear an oath, Mathew 5:37". Jesus Christ does not address his followers only, but he asks all not to swear when he says "nor shall we swear by our head, because you cannot make one hair white or black, Mathew 5:36".

Nevertheless, Arabs used to swear too much as long as they are telling the truth. At the same time they feel frightening of false oaths. They believe that false oaths cause adversities to strike them, their lands would be barren, their blessing will be lost. The Iraqi oath-taker puts his owner and religion (of what he swears by) on stake. So, it is advisable either to swear truly or to keep silent. Socially, Iraqis think that the one who takes an oath in every pretty

matter proves to be an unserious person and puts himself down no matter he swears by God or anything else. In brief, forbidding swearing is in order to put one's faith in danger. Incidentally, some studies proved that societies vary in range and times of swearing, and the Japanese were the less people using swearing in their daily conversations.

Conclusion

At the end of this analytical study of swearing as a universal phenomenon in general and as a cultural aspect in the Iraqi community in particular, the following points can be drawn:

1. Oath-taking as a linguistic behavior is adopted in daily conversation in all communities with different levels due to several variables like moral and respectable values that certain people admire.
2. Swearing can be classified into three groups: judicial oaths which are taken in the court of law; loyalty, constitutional, or office oaths; and conversational that uttered by people in their daily interactions.
3. Iraqi people are among communities that use swearing too much in their dealings, while some communities rarely or even do not use it, considering it as undesirable linguistic conduct.
4. The highest respectable source of swearing is Allah the creator. Though Allah himself warns people in the Holy Quran to use oath-taking unless necessary. Swearing nowadays is a common place phenomenon in Iraqi community.
5. People often respect informal oath more than formal one, for they believe that breaking informal swearing results in simultaneous punishment.
6. These situations and the researchers' daily observations complete the presupposition that Iraqi community mostly use certain types of swearing in their speech.

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On the Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Professional Development (PD) and Their Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT): A Case of Fars Province

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationship between EFL, teachers' professional development (PD) and their teaching knowledge (TKT). Hence, the professional development test and teaching knowledge test questionnaires were distributed to 100 EFL teachers selected based on a convenience sampling from different English language institutes in Fars province (Shiraz), a city in south-west Iran. Both males and females (58males and 42 females) participated in the study. Their age ranged from 24 to 44. In this study both tests enjoy a relatively high reliability index ($\alpha=.83$ for TKT; $\alpha=.70$ for PD). Following the test of reliability and the null-hypothesis of this test indicates that there is normality of the data distribution. The p-value for TKT ($p=.16>.05$) and PD ($p=.48>.05$) is more than .05, and then the data follow a normal distribution. the findings of the study shows that the TKT is significantly ($r=.275$, $sig=.006<.05$) correlated with pd. as a result, the research null-hypothesis is rejected asserting that Iranian EFL teachers' teaching knowledge test is significantly correlated with their professional development at the .01 level of significance. the results of the regression shows r^2 is .84 meaning that independent variables account for a significant amount of variation in the dependent variable, teaching knowledge, among EFL teachers ($r^2=.84$, $p < 0.01$).

Keywords: EFL Teachers, Professional Development (PD), Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)

1. Introduction

The professional development (PD) of teachers is a continuous concern in TESOL research (Richards, 1990, 1998; Richards and Farrell, 2005; Freeman, 1989). According to Johnson (2000) stated that **teachers'** knowledge as a permanent process that starts when they are students in schools and classrooms, and continues when they learn from their experience teaching in their own schools and when they are participants in teacher development programs. Diaz-Maggioli (2003) states it as a stable process in which teachers participate voluntarily in learning to modify **their teaching to their students' needs**. Professional development (PD) is any effort to increase **teachers' professional knowledge both during and after the original preparatory steps** (Craft, 1996; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). However, it is believed that professional development involves of career-building activities that are started by experts after they complete their teacher training (Shawer, 2010). Professional development (PD) is an accredited issue within the English language teaching area, where many teachers do not have the chance to continue to improve their skills after achievement their initial professional qualification.

1.1 Purpose of this study:

The purpose of the present study, teacher training and professional development are not expected to be one and the same. On the other hand, by increasing the global claim for learning English as a foreign language, the need for highly experienced English teachers has been

dramatically heightened. Among the different effective factors that affect EFL teacher professionalism and feature, teaching knowledge test (TKT), due to their significant parts in teacher professional development (PD), have produced much more attention. Although there is a wealth of evidence about the effect of each of these variables distinctly, there is little evidence about the connection between these two variables in educational setting, in general, and in Teaching English as Foreign Language, in specific. Moreover, to account for both theoretical and methodological variations discussed above, this study tries to use a much more general research methodology.

1.2 Research Question

The present study aims at addressing the following research question:

1. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' teaching knowledge and their professional development (PD)?

1.3 Research Null-hypothesis:

Accordingly the following research null-hypotheses will be tested to come up with national findings:

1. There is not any significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' teaching knowledge test and their professional development.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The use of the TKT

The Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), designed by the University of Cambridge, was used in 2005 and 2006 as part of this national evaluation (Cely, 2007). The extensive use of the TKT among teachers and future teachers is not only incorrect, but also in no way comforting. This instrument helps alien discourses that need to be mastered, involves of fixed answers, and is created by foreign views on English teaching. In short, the use of the TKT extends our environments of difference in the knowledge of teaching as it does not measure what we certainly know. The teaching knowledge test (TKT) is a trained qualification that motivations on core teaching concepts for teachers of English as a foreign language. It should not be compared to the CELTA because it does not have a practical teaching module and attentions more on the particular language and abstracted theories of ELT than on the real application of ELT theories in lesson planning and delivery. Teaching knowledge test (TKT) assessment takes the form of a multiple choice test, made up of three modules, which can be taken together, or alone in any order.

Teaching knowledge test (TKT) tests knowledge about English language teaching. The tests are designed to promote teachers in their professional development (PD) and provide a step in their development on the Cambridge English Teaching Framework. Candidates can also use teaching knowledge test (TKT) to contact more training and develop occupation opportunities. Teaching knowledge test (TKT) is divided into separate modules. Candidates can take them all, or choose the modules that meet their needs. A certificate is received for each module completed.

2.2 Teacher professional development (PD)

According to Richards, J and Farrell, T (2005, p. 1) "Professional Development for Language Teachers examines ten different techniques that can be used to facilitate professional development in language teaching. These effective teaching tools are: self-monitoring, support

groups, journal writing, classroom observation, teaching portfolios, analysis of critical incidents, case analysis, peer coaching, team teaching, and action research". The professional development (PD) was based on the values that teachers develop themselves if they are actively complicated in the recognition of their own weaknesses and strengths in their teaching practice (Richards & Farrell, 2005; Burns, 2010). That is, it was assumed that the teachers need to systematically perceive their teaching, understand what happens in their classrooms, perceive problems, and find solutions (Roux & Valladares, 2014, p. 22). The plan of all the in-class sessions professional development (PD) was in the form of workshops and conferences, which provided opportunities for a follow-up group or whole class discussions on the afresh presented ideas and the afresh gained understandings.

The professional development (PD) consisted of three cyclic components. In the first component of the PD, the teachers were provided with input on topics such as human learning (Mahar & Harford, 2004); the social constructivist approach (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010); reflective teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Larrivee & Cooper, 2006); teacher development (Edge, 1992; Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Calderhead & Gates 1993; Birello, 2012); teacher learning strategies (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Professional development (PD) using reflective writing presents a number of benefits to the ESL instructional community. First, it gives teachers flexibility in place, time, and degree of work for each development. Second, it is often informal to manage in terms of logistics and funding while still providing a perceptible produce for assessment of products. Third, cooperation among teachers or programs in reflective writing can help decrease the isolation that often attends ESL teaching in large institutions (Orem, 2001).

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Participants and Setting

The participants of the study (N=100) were selected from among 14 English institutes in Kazeroun, Shiraz and Marvdasht, Fars Province, Iran. Both males and females (58 males and 42 females) participated in the study. Their age ranged from 24 to 34. All participants were non-native English teachers and had B.A or M.A degree and some of them were Ph.D. candidates. The participants' educational degrees were 40.7 % BA, 34.3% MA, 25.0% Ph.D. in Translation and English Language Teaching. All participants had experienced English teaching either at public or private schools. Concerning teaching experience, those participants with less than five years of teaching were considered novice teachers (N=30), and those whose experience was more than 15 years were regarded as experienced ones (N=70).

3.2. Instrumentation

The following instruments were used by the researcher to collect the required data:

3.2.1. Professional development (PD) Questionnaire

To measure participants' professional development (PD), the above questionnaire developed by, Ayyoobi, Pourshafei, Asgari (2010) was employed. The professional development (PD) questionnaire consisted of 47 questions with 5 choices of 'Very Much, 'Much, 'Average, 'Small, 'Very small. The time allotted to answering the professional development (PD) was 45 minutes. The questionnaire involved five specific groups each embracing five Likert scale items. The teachers were asked to mark their opinions about a

professional development on the questionnaire within 45 minutes. The reliability of the questionnaire was found to be .70

3.2.2 Teaching knowledge test (TKT) Questionnaire

In addition to teaching knowledge test (TKT) questionnaire, teaching knowledge test (TKT) questionnaire developed by, University of Cambridge ESOL examinations English for speakers of other Languages teaching knowledge test, module (1999) was administered to the participants. The teaching knowledge test (TKT) questionnaire contained 80 items that were answered on "A" to "I" and fill in the blank score.

3.2.3. Data collection and data analysis procedures

The data analyzed were completed the 19th version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). All participants were familiarized to the purpose of the study previous to managing the instruments. Having the teachers introduced with the tests and provided some guidance on how to complete them, the researchers controlled the tests to them. The professional development (PD) was given to the teachers. It contained 47 questions for reflective teaching and takes 45 minutes to answer them. Each answer has its point ranging from 1 to 5. Also, teaching knowledge test (TKT) questionnaire was given to the teachers. It contained 80 items that were answered on a 5-point Likert scale. However, the English version was used with some **oral briefing in order to avoid the teachers' misunderstandings**. The researcher explained each part of the questionnaire that was difficult for the teachers to understand. The data collection started in July 2016 and middle summer at the institutes in Fars Province (Iran). The instrument was administered to EFL teachers from some English Language Institutes in Fars Province, Iran which were particular based on the availability of the researchers. For this purpose, Pearson Correlation Coefficient and regression was used for both hypotheses.

4. Results and Discussion

The present study touched on the relationship between EFL teachers' professional development (PD) and their teaching knowledge test (TKT). To test the null-hypotheses proposed by the researchers an analysis of the data obtained from the instruments was carried out by using SPSS (19.0). The followings are findings derived after conducting relevant statistical tests.

4.1 Results of Reliability

To make sure that the tests are reliable, Chronbach's Alpha was computed in SPSS. Table 1 shows the results.

Table 1
Results of Chronbach's Alpha

Instrument	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
TKT	.833	80
PD	.703	47

As Table 1 shows, both tests enjoy a relatively high reliability index ($\alpha=.83$ for TKT; $\alpha=.70$ for PD). Following the test of reliability, normality of the data was checked as below.

4.2 Results of Normality

To make sure that the data distribution is normal, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was employed. The null-hypothesis of this test indicates that there is normality of the data distribution. If p-value is more than .05 ($p > .05$) then the data follow a normal distribution, and a parametric test is warranted. Table 2 shows the results derived from the test of the normality.

Table 2
Results of normalizing test

		TKT	PD
N		100	100
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	46.5200	1.5776E2
	Std. Deviation	1.04731E	1.59432E
Most Extreme Differences		1	1
	Absolute	.112	.084
	Positive	.062	.084
	Negative	-.112	-.036
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.120	.840
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.163	.481

a. Test distribution is Normal.

As Table 2 shows, p-value for TKT ($p = .16 > .05$) and PD ($p = .48 > .05$) is more than .05, and then the data follow a normal distribution.

After ensuring reliability and normality, the null-hypothesis of the study was tested.

4.3 Results of Correlation

To test the null-hypothesis of the study "There is not any significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' teaching knowledge test and their professional development", Pearson correlation analysis was conducted.

Table 3
Results of correlation

		TKT	PD
TKT	Pearson Correlation	1	.275**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006
PD	N	100	100
	Pearson Correlation	.275**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	
	N	100	100

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As Table 2 shows, TKT is significantly ($r = .275$, $sig = .006 < .05$) correlated with PD. As a result, the research null-hypothesis is rejected asserting that Iranian EFL teachers' teaching knowledge test is significantly correlated with their professional development at the .01 level of significance.

After conducting correlation test stepwise regression was done to see if any subscales of professional development would predict participants' performance in TKT.

4.4 Results of Regression

The followings show results derived from regression.

Table 4 Results of descriptive statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TKT	46.52	10.473	100
TK	17.36	4.389	100
LEE	21.92	3.401	100
COO	18.48	3.439	100
EDUT	22.23	3.944	100
RB	22.11	3.615	100
EDUP	17.48	3.743	100
EVA	18.90	3.080	100
DEV	19.28	3.473	100

Table 4 shows mean scores of participants (N=100) in TKT and subscales of PD. According to Table 1 their mean in TKT is 46.52 (SD=10.47). Their mean scores in TK, LEE, COO, EDUT, RB, EDUP, EVA, and DEV are 17.36 (SD=4.38), 21.92(SD=3.40), 18.48 (SD=3.43), 22.23 (SD=3.94), 22.11 (SD=3.61), 17.48 (SD=3.74), 18.90 (SD=3.08), and 19.28 (SD=3.47), respectively.

4.5 Results of Regression

Table 5 shows results of model summary.

Table 5

Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.918 ^a	.843	.829	4.332	.843	60.963	8	91	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), DEV, TK, LEE, EVA, EDUT, COO, RB, EDUP

As Table 5 shows, R^2 is .84 meaning that independent variables account for a significant amount of variation in the dependent variable, teaching knowledge, among EFL teachers ($R^2=.84$, $P < 0.01$).

Table 6 shows results related to ANOVA.

Table 6

Results of ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9151.414	8	1143.927	60.963	.000 ^a
	Residual	1707.546	91	18.764		
	Total	10858.960	99			

a. Predictors: (Constant), DEV, TK, LEE, EVA, EDUT, COO, RB, EDUP

b. Dependent Variable: TKT

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As Table 6 shows the p-values for the F statistics is less than .05 (sig=.000) meaning that at least one of the independent variables can significantly predict variation of the dependent variable, teaching knowledge. The p-values shown in Table 7 (results of coefficients) show which variables are significant.

Table 8
Results of coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	4.377	4.606		.950	.345			
	TK	2.198	.100	.921	21.872	.000	.912	.917	.909
	LEE	-.110	.155	-.036	-.712	.478	.060	-.074	-.030
	COO	.155	.154	.051	1.004	.318	.007	.105	.042
	EDUT	-.118	.134	-.044	-.879	.382	-.035	-.092	-.037
	RB	.342	.147	.118	2.319	.023	.029	.236	.096
	EDUP	-.018	.144	-.006	-.123	.902	.096	-.013	-.005
	EVA	-.026	.161	-.008	-.159	.874	-.011	-.017	-.007
	DEV	-.031	.156	-.010	-.201	.841	-.040	-.021	-.008

a. Dependent Variable: TKT

Table 8 shows that TK (sig=.000) and RB (sig=.023) are significant predictors of the dependent variable, teaching knowledge. The prediction equation is based on the unstandardized coefficients, as follows:

$$\text{Teaching knowledge} = 4.377 + 2.198 + .342$$

The present study sought to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' professional development and their teaching knowledge test. To achieve the objectives of the study two instruments, e.g. Professional Development Questionnaire and Teaching Knowledge Test, were administered to 100 EFL teachers in Fars providence (Shiraz, Marvdasht, Kazeroun), Iran. Results of correlation indicated a statistically significant direct correlation between the two variables ($p < .05$). The present finding regarding the direct significant correlation between participants' professional development and their teaching knowledge lent support to that found by Zhao (2012). Zhao (2012) investigated the significance of building student teacher's knowledge structure and concluded that student teacher's knowledge structure was correlated with their professional development.

Similarly, Golob (2012) views teacher knowledge as the result of any professional development as well as the fundamental factor which influences the integration of professional development and enhances student learning. Also, results of regression showed that only two subscales of professional development such as thematic knowledge and research base were significant predictors of teaching knowledge among Iranian EFL teachers. The rest of subscales were not found to significantly predict variations of the dependent variable, teaching knowledge.

5. Conclusion

According to the findings of the present study it can be concluded that Iranian EFL teachers' professional development was significantly correlated with their teaching knowledge. Leung (2009, as cited in Richards, 2011) considers two dimensions to professionalism, e.g. institutionally prescribed professionalism which represents the views of ministries of education, teaching organizations, regulatory bodies, school principals, and so on which determine what teachers are expected to know and what constitutes quality teaching practices, and independent professionalism, that is, teachers' own views of teaching and the process by which teachers connect in reflection on their individual ideals, beliefs, and practices. Therefore, according to the above mentioned, EFL teachers and educational practitioners and agencies need to attempt to achieve a fundamental professional development. Concerning Iranian EFL settings, Safaie Asl et al. (2014, p. 1600) state "The concept of professionalism on behalf of (English) teachers in the context of Iran's pedagogical context is simple: if students' grades in the final exams are good, the teachers become good teachers".

Iranian EFL teachers, recently, are recommended to develop their teaching profession and teaching knowledge through modern technology. Thanks to recent advances in computer and digital devices and the advent of virtual educational contexts, it seems that this is not very tiring for EFL teachers to enhance their teaching. Teaching knowledge may be enhanced following improvements in all subscales of professional development proposed by Ayyoobi, Pourshafei and Asgari (2016) including Thematic knowledge, Learning Environment, Cooperation, Educational technology, Research base, Educational planning, Evaluation, and Development of human resources, however, the present findings indicated that thematic knowledge and research base could significantly predict variations in teaching knowledge.

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**A Discourse Analysis of American Political Articles Pertinent to Iran's Atomic Issue
Published Before and After the Geneva Accord (A CDA Approach)**

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Abstract

Van Dijk (1993) believes that critical discourse analysis (CDA) seeks to find and reveal the role of discourse in producing power, abusing it, and finally creating the inequality which is seen as “negative effect of power”. This study aimed to investigate the effect of Geneva Accord on representation of Iranian and Western social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue in five famous American newspapers based on one main category of Van Leeuwen model, inclusion, and its four morpho-syntactic categories of activation, passivation, personalization, and impersonalization. The results of the study showed that there was a shift in ways through which social actors were represented. However this shift was not deep and significant, the reasons behind any use of these strategies is not random but very intentional revealing too many creeping ideas. These ideas are not seen, and even felt, by the readers leading them to some specific and politically needed ideologies.

Keywords: Discourse analysis; Critical discourse analysis; Social actors; Inclusion

1. Introduction

Discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary field of study that has emerged out of several other disciplines of humanities and the social sciences, such as linguistics, literary studies, anthropology, semiotics, sociology, psychology, and speech communication (Van Dijk, 1988). Generally, discourse analysis (DA) is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the context (situation) in which language is used. Discourse analysts believe that “discourse usually means actual instances of communicative action in the medium of language, although some define the term more broadly as meaningful symbolic behavior in any mode” (Johnstone, 2008, p.2).

Critical discourse analysis, (CDA) as its name suggests, is a critical device. Although it is not attached to any special theory and philosophy, it calls itself merely as a method of analyzing the text (Wodak & Mayer, 2003). It mainly deals with the questions of inequality and power, power institutes and the relation of language and power; so it is natural to conclude that it has a political attitude (Stubbe, Hilder, Marra and Weatherall, 2003).

Today's politics is a field in which many people are interested. Numerous political articles are being written, edited, published, republished (sometimes), read, and judged by interested writers, editors, publishers, and readers respectively. The main purpose of political article writing is to inform the readers directly and to convince the readers about different political issues indirectly. The article writers inject their ideas, their tendencies, their will, their supports and rejections, and their attitudes toward selected topics into the readers' mind by using some psycho-oriented strategies trying to indoctrinate whatever they want and whatever they need. How this happens lies generally in the realm of discourse analysis and more specifically in the realm of critical discourse analysis.

In accordance to Herman and Chomsky (2002), the hidden ideologies, penetrated into texts by discourse makers (language users), and their sociopolitical tendencies are of great salience. Among those features underpinning the language and discourse, social actors and the ways

through which they are represented in different discourses are of great importance. Social actors are defined as those who are involved in social practice. In social practices they can be the doer of the action involved actively or the patient or receiver of the practice involved passively. Sometimes, the roles they play in social practices however, of not great importance, are deliberately and meaningfully highlighted in different discourses like newspapers making their roles, positive or negative, believed as very important (including them in “in group”) and the reverse situation is possible too (excluding them to “out group”). No need to say, news is not a natural phenomenon mirroring just facts in real life, but it is socially (politically) and culturally determined (Caldas & Coulthard, 2003).

In this study, in order to reveal and unpack the underpinnings of news pertinent to Iran’s atomic issue, the ways by which social actors involved in Iran’s atomic issue (Iranians and foreigners) are included (in group) was scrutinized in two series of Western articles (those articles published before and after the Geneva Accord) and brought to the arena of contrast. This study tended to read between the lines to get the ideologies hidden in the words and structures. To make the study manageable, just one main category of Van Leeuwen model, inclusion, and four morpho-syntactic categories of activation, passivation, personalization, and impersonalization were selected to be traced and contrasted in the selected articles. The study aimed to understand whether the Geneva Accord had some effect on the use of these morpho-syntactic categories when representing the social actors in some political articles published in Western newspapers or not.

1.1. Research questions

Based on the general aim of the study stated above, the following specific questions were formulated:

1. Is the activation rate of Western and Iranian social actors represented in American newspapers changed after the Geneva accord?
2. Is the passivation rate of Western and Iranian social actors represented in American newspapers changed after the Geneva accord?
3. Is the personalisation rate of Western and Iranian social actors represented in American newspapers changed after the Geneva accord?
4. Is the impersonalisation rate of Western and Iranian social actors represented in American newspapers changed after the Geneva accord?
5. Is the inclusion rate of Western and Iranian social actors represented in American newspapers changed after the Geneva accord?

2. Literature Review

The origin of discourse analysis can be traced back to 1960s and 1970s. Harris (1952) published a paper titled “discourse analysis”. In this paper he assured that discourse analysis tries to study the organization of language above the sentence and above the clause. He states that this field of linguistics attempts to study larger linguistic units such as “conversational exchanges and written texts” (Zarei & Azizinia, 2006). Van Dijk (1988) believes that many disciplines such as literary studies, anthropology, semiotics, sociology, psychology, and speech communication play pivotal roles in shaping discourse analysis, however, he meant critical discourse analysis more specifically. Later, Fairclough (1989) defines discourse analysis “as a new cross-discipline, to

which many established disciplines (linguistics, anthropology, cognitive psychology, among others) have contributed” (p. 11).

Yule (2010) believes that in the study of language some of the most interesting observations are made not only in the components of language but in terms of the way(s) language is used. To Yule, discourse analysis is the study of language above the sentence level (Yule, 2010). He believes that the analysis of discourse is “typically concerned with the study of language in texts and conversations” (Yule, 2010. P.142).

Van Leeuwen (2008) believes that discourse analysis is “the analysis of an extended text, or type of text” (p. 94). He asserts that the definition provided by Foucault in 1977 is worthy to adore. In (1977) Foucault defined discourse analysis as “socially constructed knowledges of some aspect of reality” (Van Leeuwen, 2008, p.94). Brown and Yule (1983) consider discourse analysis as “a wide range of meanings which cover a wide range of activities” (p. viii). They believe that discourse analysis is used to describe activities involving “sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophic linguistics, and computational linguistics” (Zarei & Azizinia, 2006, p.12).

2.1. Critical Discourse Analysis

Van Dijk (1998) believes that “critical discourse analysis is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality, and bias”. Later, Van Dijk (2001) redefines critical discourse analysis (CDA) as “Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (p.352). Rahimi and Sahragard (2007) believe that CDA scrutinizes the power relations, ideological manipulations, and hegemony. They believe that CDA focuses on the role of discourse on modifying the prevalent ideologies and power relation. CDA, they add, “shares a lot of common grounds with Critical approaches in their endeavors for people’s awareness and ultimate emancipation” (2007, p.7). Moreover, they believe that CDA is an effort to expound the convoluted network of language, society, ideology, and power (2007, 11). Hence, CDA is an attempt to uncover the implicit ideologies in text. It tries to unearth the underlying ideological prejudices and therefore the exercise of power in texts (Widdowson, 2000).

Wodak and Meyer (2001) define CDA as “CDA may be defined as fundamentally concerned with analyzing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language. Van Dijk is one of well-known figures in the realm of CDA whose ideas and studies are thought as very valuable and worthwhile. He has done remarkable studies regarding the racism in the news, representation of minorities and defining the notion of “Us” and “Other” or “ingroups” and “outgroups” when he explains the models in ideologies. The much known characteristic of his studies is that he revolutionized the analysis of discourse and made it something more than the mere analysis of structures and determining the possible interpretations of the text – by the structural analysis of text, we mean the analysis of the grammatical component of the text. Rather he dealt with the production and reception process of the news (discourses) (Boyd-Barrett, 1994). also determinative for the major policies of the institute, which produces news.

2.2. *The Van Leeuwen Model*

Van Leeuwen studied film and television production as well as Hallidayan linguistics. His principal publications are concerned with topics such as the intonation of disc jockeys and newsreaders, the language of television interviews and newspaper reporting, and more recently, the semiotics of visual communication and music. His approach has increasingly led him into the field of education. Van Leeuwen distinguishes two kinds of relations between discourses and social practices: “discourse itself [as] a social practice, discourse as a form of action”, as something people do with each other. And, Van Leeuwen adds, there is discourse in the Foucaultian sense, “discourse as a way of representing social practice(s)”, as a form of knowledge, as the things people say about social practice(s) (1996). Critical discourse analysis, according to Van Leeuwen, is concerned with both these aspects, with discourse as the instrument of power and control as well as with discourse as the instrument of the social construction of reality.

Van Leeuwen by studying the representation of social actors in “system network” tried to find and introduce not only the ways through which social actor can be represented in English discourse, but also choices English language gives its user for referring to people and social actors, “the array of choices” to use his own terms (1996, 2008; Zarei & Azizinia, 2006). The network system he introduced (see table 2.1) shows that the social actor(s) can be purposefully and meaningfully included in or excluded from discourses. His model comes in 2 main categories of exclusion and inclusion; since the present study dealt with inclusion, it is introduced below.

2.3. *Inclusion*

Inclusion is the process of representing the social actors in a way that they (discourse makers) get their interests and purposes in relation to the reader for whom they are intended (van Leeuwen, 1996; 2008). Van Leeuwen sees inclusion strategies as role reallocators. He believes that some social actors involved in an activity or their role can be “dramatically” changed and, in turn, reallocated (2008). He is considered about the roles that social actors are given to play in representations, an aspect of representation which also plays a significant part in the work of many critical linguists. He continues “who is represented as ‘agent’ (‘Actor’), who as ‘patient’ (‘Goal’) with respect to a given action? This question remains important, for there need not be congruence between the roles that social actors actually play in social practices and the grammatical roles they are given in texts. Representations can reallocate roles, rearrange the social relations between the participants” (1996, p.43). Representation, van Leeuwen assures, can reallocate the roles, rearrange the social relations between the participants. Zarei and Aziznia (2006), referring to role reallocation, believe that “giving active and passive roles deal in the end with the same reality but which of them corresponds best to that reality is of course a problem that text analysis cannot solve” (p.38). The only solution to this problem is to find, “investigate”, and know the options given by the language itself, chosen, then, by the language users (discourse makers) to represent the social actors in different contexts. When these ways (strategies) are known to the discourse analyst, the real role played by the social actors cannot be convoluted and, as a result, misunderstood by (mis)using the ideological and discursive structures. All the inclusion strategies are pointed out briefly here.

2.3.1 Activation vs. Passivation

Representation can (re)allocate social actors with either active or passive roles (Van Leeuwen, 1996; 2008). When social actors are represented as the active and dynamic forces in an activity, the strategy used is “activation” but, on the other hand, whenever they are represented as having passive role, it is “passivation” or, as Van Leeuwen says, “they are represented as “undergoing” the activity, or as being “at the receiving end of it” (2008, p.46). These processes can be realized by grammatical participant roles, by transitivity structures in which activated social actors are coded as actor in material processes, behavior in behavioral processes, sener in mental processes, sayer in verbal processes, or assigner in relational processes (Halliday,1985). The included passivated social actors can be represented by “subjection and beneficialization”.

2.3.2 Personalization vs. Impersonalization

Personalization is the process of showing and representing the actors as human being. It can be realized by using personal or possessive pronouns, proper names, nouns, and adjectives whose meaning include “human being or features of human being” (Van Leeuwen, 1996; 2008). Impersonalization, on the other hand, is the process of representing the social actors as if they are not human beings (ibid). Social actors can be represented as impersonalized by using abstract and concrete nouns whose meaning does not include “human being or features of human being”. Impersonalization is of two kinds. It can be realized through "abstraction and objectivation". Other important techniques which are subcategorized under this category include “genericisation vs specification”, “Individualization vs. Assimilation”, “Determination vs. Indetermination”, “Association vs. Dissociation”, “Differentiation vs. Indifferentiation”, “Categorization”, “Functionalization”, “Identification”, “Appraisalment”, “Nomination” and “Overdetermination”.

2.4. Similar studies

Rashidi and Rasti (2012) in a study, using Van Leeuwen model (1996), investigated the representation of Iranian social actors implicated in Iran nuclear activities in four Western newspapers. Using five sets of Van Leeuwen model categories, they showed that Iran, as an example, as a social actor, got more passivized than activated in their discourse. It is passivized, they say, with regard to sanctions and pressures, thus giving force to the effectiveness of sanctions against Iran. Then, when the personalization and impersonalization are concerned, they revealed that the Iranian government is represented as impersonalized (88.5 %) more than the Western authorities (66 %). Van Leeuwen (1996) believes that impersonalization serves different purposes in discourse: it can background the identity and/or role of social actors; it can lend impersonal authority or force to an activity or quality of a social actor; and it can add positive or negative connotations to an activity or utterance of a social actor.

Zarei and Azizinia (2006) using Van Leeuwen model, contrasted the socio-semantic feature existing in American, British, Iranian English, and Persian cultures. They focused on Iran atomic issue too. They tried to investigate the applicability of Van Leeuwen’s model (1996) to American, British, Iranian English, and Persian discourses. To do so, they selected 20 pertinent articles from well-known newspapers. Their result showed that there are some particular orientations and bias towards the issue in question, Iran atomic issue. They result, also, proved that “in four cultures under investigation, the same socio-semantic features are implemented by journalists to achieve certain purposes with respect to the dominant political environment in their relevant states” (p. 229). Moreover, their study showed considerable variations between four different cultures in using explicit and implicit strategies for referring social actors. They

believed that these variations are caused by journalistic views rather than political ones. They, too, said that there is a meaningful difference between Western and Iranian culture in selecting and using explicit and implicit (inclusion and exclusion) strategies used in texts.

3. Method

3.1. Data Selection

This study sought to investigate the exclusion and inclusion strategies used by five reputable American newspapers (**Washington Post, USA Today, Los Angeles Times, New York Times, and Washington Times**) in representing the social actors in the case of Iran's atomic issue before and after the Geneva Accord. As the study tried to test the effect of Geneva accord on representing social actors involved in Iran's nuclear program in American newspapers, five top, famous, and broadly published American newspapers were selected. Two articles were selected from each newspaper respectively; one of which was selected from the date "before" the Geneva accord and the other one was selected from the date "after" the above mentioned accord which made ten articles in sum, all pertinent to the previously agreed issue, Iran's nuclear program. When selecting the articles, attempts were made to choose those articles which historically are closer to the date of Geneva accord, October 18, 2015.

The reasons behind selecting newspaper articles were, firstly, the authenticity of the text. They were real discourses in real societies being read and discussed by real people. They were valuable resources because they show ideological underpinnings, cultural and political points of view or "stance", to put it differently. Every article is a representative of American society. Fairclough (1989) believes that a language can, to some extent, be understood by even one single sentence and a society can be represented by a single discourse. Secondly, the topic discussed in these articles and the reason for analyzing it lies in the "very" realm of CDA. Table 3.1 shows some more specified information about the articles.

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Table 1
Articles' specified information

Newspaper	Number of articles	Number of words	Number of sentences	Date	Writer(s)
Los Angeles Times (before)	1	477	17	October 12, 2015	Paul Richter
New York Times (before)	1	828	33	October 13, 2015	Micheal R. Gordon
USA Today (before)	1	612	24	October 17, 2015	Oren Dorell
Washington Times (before)	1	949	32	October 10, 2015	Guy Taylor
Washington Post (before)	1	851	28	October 16, 2015	Warrick, Joby
Newspaper	Number of articles	Number of words	Number of sentences	Date	Writer(s)
Los Angeles Times (after)	1	1400	59	October 27, 2015	Paul Richter
New York Times (after)	1	1246	45	October 29, 2015	Micheal R. Gordon
USA Today (after)	1	502	21	November 12, 2015	David Jackson
Washington Times (after)	1	615	25	October 29, 2015	Dave Boyer
Washington Post (after)	1	1547	61	November 2, 2015	Warrick, Joby

Note: titles are not counted and considered in this study.

3.2. Quantitative Analysis

The data were quantitatively analyzed. The strategies used by the writers to represent the social actors involved in Iran's nuclear program were extracted out. This process was done by using Van Leeuwen's model (1996, 2008). Two selected article series (before and after the Geneva Accord) were analyzed and compared in three phases too. Firstly, each article was analyzed based on Van Leeuwen's model (1996, 2008) to see how social actors were represented.

The way they were represented and the strategies (inclusion and four morpho-syntactic categories of activation, passivation, personalization, and impersonalization) through which they are represented are statistically and respectively given. Their frequency and percentage are provided (by using SPSS software). Secondly, the obtained information of each two articles selected from the same newspaper was contrasted to see whether there was a shift or change in representing the social actors after the Geneva accord or not. Needless to say, to have reliable results, attempts were made to select the articles from each newspaper written by the same writer; if not possible, their political wings were of the researcher's concern. Thirdly, the results of analyzing two series of articles (published before and after the Geneva accord) were contrasted to see the effect of Geneva accord in representing social actors.

4. Results and Discussion

This part, based on Van Leeuwen's model 1996, investigates the quantitative and statistical values of the data taken from political articles written and published in the United States of America. First of all, the ways in which Iranian and Western social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue are enumerated and, then, their frequency and their percentage are given respectively. Information pertinent to articles published "before" and "after" the Geneva Accord are given respectively too. Table 2 shows the frequency and percentage of strategies used by the political article writers to represent the Western social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue before the Geneva Accord.

Table 2

Strategies used to represent the Western social actors before the Geneva Accord

N	NP	Activation		Passivation		Personalization		Impersonalization		Total
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	
1	L A T	4	9	3	6.8	27	61.4	0	0	34
2	N Y T	1	2.2	0	0	33	73.3	1	2.2	35
3	USA T	0	0	1	2.2	31	69	5	11	37
4	W T	7	13.3	3	5.6	31	58.5	2	3.8	43
5	W P	0	0	1	1.9	35	66	3	5.7	39

Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage of strategies used by the political article writers to

Note: LAT stands for Los Angeles Times, NYT for New York Times, USA T, for USA Today, WT for Washington Today, and WP for Washington Post.

represent the Iranian social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue before the Geneva Accord.

Table 3

Strategies used to represent the Iranian social actors before the Geneva Accord

N	NP	Activation		Passivation		Personalization		Impersonalization		Total
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	
1	L A T	1	6.2	8	50	4	25	3	18.7	16
2	N Y T	2	6.2	6	18.7	20	62.5	4	12.5	32
3	USA T	1	4	8	32	9	36	6	24	24
4	W T	1	3.7	7	26	15	55.5	3	11.1	26
5	W P	2	5.7	8	22.9	19	54.3	6	7.1	35

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Table 4 shows the frequency and percentage of exclusive and inclusive strategies used by political article writers to represent the Western social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue before the Geneva Accord.

Table 4

Inclusion rate of Western social actors before the Geneva Accord.

N	NP	Inclusion	
		F	P
1	LA T	34	77.2
2	NY T	35	77.7
3	USA T	37	82.2
4	W T	43	81.2
5	W P	39	73.6

Table 5 shows the frequency and percentage of inclusive strategies used by political article writers to represent the Iranian social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue before the Geneva Accord.

Table 5

Inclusion rate of Iranian social actors before the Geneva Accord

N	NP	Inclusion	
		F	P
1	LA T	16	100
2	NY T	32	100
3	USA T	24	96
4	W T	26	96.3
5	W P	35	100

Table 6 shows the frequency and percentage of strategies used by the political article writers to represent the Western social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue after the Geneva Accord.

Table 6

Strategies used to represent the Western social actors after the Geneva Accord

N	NP	Activation		Passivation		Personalization		Impersonalization		Total
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	
1	LA T	1	1	0	0	62	66.5	4	4.4	67
2	NY T	1	1.9	0	0	37	69.8	3	5.6	41
3	USA T	0	0	0	0	34	85	2	5	36
4	W T	0	0	0	0	19	59.4	3	9.4	22
5	W P	0	0	1	1	64	70.4	2	2.2	67

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Table 7 shows the frequency and percentage of strategies used by the political article writers to represent the Iranian social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue after the Geneva Accord.

Table 7
Strategies used to represent the Iranian social actors after the Geneva Accord

	N	NP	Activation		Passivation		Personalization		Impersonalization		Total		
			F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P			
1	L	A	T	2	3.4	21	35.6	25	42.4	9	15.2	57	
2	N	Y	T	4	8.1	14	28.6	22	44.9	9	18.4	49	
3	U	S	A	T	2	9.5	4	19	6	28.5	5	24	58
4	W	T		2	6.7	11	36.7	16	53.3	1	3.3	30	
5	W	P		3	5	16	27.1	29	49.2	11	18.7	59	

4.1. Comparing the Articles with Their Counterparts

In this part every "before" article is compared with its "after" counterpart selected from the same newspaper. It should be noticed that "WSA" stands for Western social actors and "ISA" stands for Iranian social actors.

4.1.1. Los Angeles Times

1. The activation rate of WSA is decreased (B: %9, A: %1).
2. The passivation rate of WSA is decreased and zeroed (B: %6.8, A: %0).
3. The personalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %61.4, A: %66.5).
4. The impersonalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %0, A: %4.4).
5. The inclusion rate of WSA is decreased (B: %77.2, A: %71.9).
6. The activation rate of ISA is decreased (B: %6.2, A: %3.4).
7. The passivation rate of ISA is decreased (B: %50, A: %35.6).
8. The personalization rate of ISA is increased (B: %25, A: %42.4).
9. The impersonalization rate of ISA is decreased (B: %18.7, A: %15.2).
10. The inclusion rate of ISA is decreased (B: %100, A: %96.6).

4.1.2. New York Times

1. The personalization rate of WSA is decreased (B: %73.3, A: %69.8).
2. The impersonalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %2.2, A: %5.6).
3. The activation rate of ISA is increased (B: %6.2, A: %8.1).
4. The passivation rate of ISA is increased (B: %18.7, A: %28.6).
5. The personalization rate of ISA is decreased (B: %62.5, A: %44.9).
6. The impersonalization rate of ISA is increased (B: %12.5, A: %18.4).

4.1.3. USA Today

1. The passivation rate of WSA is decreased (B: %2.2, A: %0).
2. The personalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %69, A: %85).
3. The impersonalization rate of WSA is decreased (B: %11, A: %5).
4. The inclusion rate of WSA is increased (B: %77.2, A: %90).

5. The suppression rate of ISA is increased (B: %0, A: %4.7).
6. The backgrounding rate of ISA is increased (B: %4, A: %14.3).
7. The activation rate of ISA is increased (B: %4, A: %9.5).
8. The passivation rate of ISA is decreased (B: %32, A: %19).
9. The personalization rate of ISA is decreased (B: %36, A: %28.5).
10. The exclusion rate of ISA is increased (B: %4, A: %10).
11. The inclusion rate of ISA is decreased (B: %96, A: %90).

4.1.4. Washington Times

1. The activation rate of WSA is decreased and zeroed (B: %13.3, A: %0).
2. The passivation rate of WSA is decreased and zeroed (B: %5.6, A: %0).
3. The personalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %58.5, A: %59.4).
4. The impersonalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %3.8, A: %9.4).
5. The inclusion rate of WSA is decreased (B: %81.2, A: %68.8).
6. The backgrounding rate of ISA is decreased and zeroed (B: %3.7, A: %0).
7. The activation rate of ISA is increased (B: %3.7, A: %6.7).
8. The passivation rate of ISA is increased (B: %26, A: %36.7).
9. The personalization rate of ISA is decreased (B: %55.5, A: %53.3).
10. The impersonalization rate of ISA is decreased (B: %11.1, A: %3.3).
11. The inclusion rate of ISA is increased (B: %96.3, A: %100).

4.1.5. Washington Post

1. The personalization rate of WSA is increased (B: %66, A: %70.4).
2. The impersonalization rate of WSA is decreased (B: %5.7, A: %2.2).
3. The passivation rate of ISA is increased (B: %22.9, A: 27.1).
4. The personalization rate of ISA is decreased (B: %54.3, A: %49.2).
5. The impersonalization rate of ISA is increased (B: %7.1, A: %18.7).

4.2. The Effect of Geneva Accord

To see whether the effect of Geneva accord on representing social actor in these two series of articles was significant or not, the SPSS software was used. A paired-sample T-test for each category (inclusion, activation, passivation, personalisation, and impersonalisation) was used and, then, their eta squared were calculated to evaluate the effect of Geneva Accord on the rate of these categories used for representing western and Iranian social actors. (Needless to mention, in some cases the obtained data were too small to be computed by the SPSS which shows they experienced no significant change).

$$\text{Cohen's Eta squared formula} = \frac{\eta^2}{\eta^2 + N - 1}$$

4.3. The passivation strategies representing Iranians

A paired-sample T-test was conducted to evaluate the effect of Geneva Accord on passivation rate of Iranian social actor represented in American newspapers after the above mentioned accord. Statistically, there was an increase in their passivation rate from Time 1 (before the accord) (M=7.40, SD=.894) to Time 2 (after the accord) (M 13.20, SD 6.30, t= -2.046). The mean

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increase of Iranian passivation rate was 5.8 with 95% confidence interval ranging from -13.20 to 7.40. The eta squared statistic (0.50) indicated a very small effect size of Geneva accord.

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics for passivation representing Iranians

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	passivation strategies before the Geneva Accord	7.40	5	.894
	passivation strategies after the Geneva Accord	13.2000	5	6.30079

Table 9
Paired-samples T-test for passivation representing Iranians

		Paired Differences				T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	passivation strategies before the Geneva Accord passivation strategies after the Geneva Accord	5.80000	6.34035	2.83549	-13.67258	5.62518	2.046	4	.110

4.4. The personalisation strategies representing Iranians

Results also proved that there was an increase in personalisation rate of Iranian social actors from Time 1 (M=13.40, SD=6.80) to Time 2 (M=19.60, SD=8.96, $t=-1.456$). The mean increase of Iranian personalisation rate was 6.2 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -18.02 to 2.07. The eta squared statistic (0.34) indicated a very small effect size of Geneva accord.

Table 10
Descriptive Statistics for personalisation representing Iranians

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	Personalisation strategies before the Geneva Accord	13.4000	5	6.80441
	Personalisation strategies after the Geneva Accord	19.6000	5	8.96103

Table 11
Paired-samples T-test for personalisation representing Iranians

		Paired Differences				T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	Personalisation strategies before the Geneva Accord Personalisation strategies after the Geneva Accord	6.20000	9.52365	4.25911	-18.02518	2.07258	1.456	4	.219

4.5. The impersonalisation strategies representing Iranians

The data pertinent to impersonalisation strategies used to represent Iranian social actors were analyzed by the SPSS and the result showed that there was an increase in Iranian impersonalisation rate from Time 1 (M=4.400, SD=1.516) to Time 2 (M=7, SD=4, t=-1.537). The Iranian impersonalisation rate increase was 2.6 with 95% confidence interval ranging from -7.29 to 2.09. The eta squared statistic (0.36) indicated a very small effect size of Geneva accord.

Table 12
Descriptive Statistics for impersonalisation representing Iranians

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	Impersonalisation strategies before the Geneva Accord	4.4000	5	1.51658
	Impersonalisation strategies after the Geneva Accord	7.0000	5	4.00000

Table 13
Paired-samples T-test for impersonalisation representing Iranians

		Paired Differences				t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	Impersonalisation strategies before the Geneva Accord Impersonalisation strategies after the Geneva Accord	2.60000	3.78153	1.69115	-7.29539	2.09539	1.537	4	.199

4.6. The inclusion strategies representing Iranians

The result also showed that the Geneva Accord had no significant effect on the inclusion rate of Iranian social actors. There was an increase in Iranian inclusion rate from Time 1 (M=26.60, SD=7.40) to Time 2 (M=42.80, SD=18.66, t=-1.892). The mean increase was 16.20 with 95%

confidence interval ranging from -39.97 to 7.57. The eta squared statistic (0.47) indicated a very small effect size of Geneva accord.

Table 14
Descriptive Statistics for inclusion representing Iranians

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	Inclusion strategies before the Geneva Accord	26.6000	5	7.40270
	Inclusion strategies after the Geneva Accord	42.8000	5	18.66012

Table 15
Paired-samples T-test for inclusion representing Iranians

		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Inclusion strategies before the Geneva Accord Inclusion strategies after the Geneva Accord	-16.20000	19.14941	8.56388	-39.97714	7.57714	-1.892	4	.131

4.7. The personalization strategies representing Westerns

When analyzing the data pertinent to personalisation of western social actors, result showed that the rate increased from Time 1 (M=31.40, SD=2.96) to Time 2 (M=43.20, SD=19.33). ITS mean increase was 11.80 with 95% confidence interval ranging from -36.15 to 12.55. The eta squared statistic (0.30) indicated a very small effect size of Geneva accord.

Table 16
Descriptive Statistics for personalisation representing Westerns

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1	Personalization strategies before the Geneva Accord	31.4000	5	2.96648
	Personalization strategies after the Geneva Accord	43.2000	5	19.33132

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Table 17
Paired-samples T-test for personalisation representing Westerners

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		
			Mean	Std. Error				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Pair 1 Personalization strategies before the Geneva Accord Personalization strategies after the Geneva Accord	-11.80000	19.61377	8.77154	-36.15371	12.55371	-1.345	4	.250	

The result, too, showed that the Geneva Accord had no significant effect on the inclusion rate of western social actors. There was an increase in western inclusion rate from Time 1 (M=37.60, SD=3.57) to Time 2 (M=46.60, SD=19.88, t=-912). The mean increase was 9 with 95% confidence interval ranging from -36.38 to 18.38. The eta squared statistic (0.17) indicated a very small effect size of Geneva accord.

Table 18
Descriptive Statistics for inclusion representing Westerners

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Pair 1 Inclusion strategies before the Geneva Accord	37.6000	5	3.57771
Inclusion strategies after the Geneva Accord	46.6000	5	19.88215

Table 19
Paired-samples T-test for inclusion representing Westerners

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Paired Differences		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)		
				Mean	Std. Error				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pair 1 Inclusion strategies before the Geneva Accord Inclusion strategies after the Geneva Accord	-9.0000	22.05675	9.86408	-36.38707	18.38707	-912	4	.413		

The data related to some factors were too small to be computed by the SPSS software. Suppression, backgrounding, and activation rates of Iranian social actors and suppression, backgrounding, activation, and passivation rates of Western social actors were too small and, consequently, incomputable with the SPSS. The smallness of these data proved that the Geneva Accord had no effect on them.

5. Conclusion(s), and Implication(s)

5.1. Addressing the First Question

The writers use the activation strategy to show that some actors play an important role in some issue. Western social actors were %4.88 activated in 'before' series. The columnists aimed to show that Western, specifically American, social actors play an important role in negotiations. After the accord their activation rate decreased to %0.58 which shows that they wanted their nation to know that this is the time when Iranian social actors should make important decisions to hold this interim accord and, moreover, to gain a comprehensive and fully accepted accord. The results of this study proved that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on activating Western social actors.

The same story holds true for representing Iranian social actors. The activation rate of Iranian social actors in 'before' and 'after' series are %5.16 and %6.54 respectively which shows an increase. The writers, again, wanted to show that after reaching the interim accord Iranians are the ones who should make determining decisions. However there is an increase in their activation rate, the SPSS showed that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on activating Iranian social actors.

5.2. Addressing the Second Question

Passivation strategy is used when the discourse maker (writer) wants to show that an actor has no active role but he/she receives the action. Some thing, to put it differently, is happening for the actor in passivation. Iran, for instance, threatens the world, hence, something is happening for the Western nations. Passivation rates of Western social actors in 'before' and 'after' series are %3.3 and %0.2 respectively. As it is obvious, there is a decrease in their passivation rate. What the reader gets is 'there is a country named Iran threatening the world' and he/she receives the state of being 'threatened'. American political writers wanted to connote that Western political stance is more active after the accord. They wanted to show that before the accord Iran was a nuke-mighty enemy which could be a real danger to the world. They provoked this idea by giving a more passivated role to the Western countries. When the Geneva Accord is agreed and signed, they tried to give a more activated and, consequently, less passivated role to the Western social actors. Just one case of passivation was seen for Westerns in Washington Post newspaper in after series. This way of representing conveys a more powerful situation for the Western governments. The result showed that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on passivation rate of Western social actors.

On the other hand, there was no meaningful change in passivation rate of Iranian social actors. They were passivated %29.92 and %29.40 in two series of articles. A very interesting point is that whenever the Western social actors were suppressed or backgrounded (excluded from the text); Iranian social actors experienced a kind of passivation immediately in the same or the next sentence. The writers used this strategy to show that, first, this is not we, Western governments, who deprive Iranian people of their right (suppressing or backgrounding Western social actors), peaceful nuclear energy, and, second, they won't be a threat to the world any more, we have the ability to disarm them (passivating Iranian social actors). The results of this study confirmed that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on passivation rate of Iranian social actors.

5.3. Addressing the Third Question

The personalisation rate of Western social actor before the accord was %65.64 which increased to %70.22 after the accord. The writers increased personalising Western social actor after the accord to show that the newly reached accord was a result of their political negotiators. The result of study showed that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on personalisation rate of Western social actors.

The writers, also, used personalisation strategies to represent Iranian social actors in their articles. Iranian social actors were personalised in two series of articles by the rate of %46.66 and %43.66 respectively. The American columnists decreased personalizing Iranian social actors to connote that the Iranian government should be responsible for the agreement not the ones negotiating with Western negotiators. However there was a decrease, the results of the study proved that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on personalisation rate of Iranian social actors.

5.4. Addressing the Fourth Question

Everyone who reads the Geneva Accord sees that some limitations are considered for Iranian government to have nuclear program and for Iranian people supporting this program. Since most of the readers of these published articles are Americans, the writers tried to make sure that their reader know that this is the political system of Western countries which sets these limitations not their politicians. They wanted to **provoke this 'idea' that President Obama, for instance, did not set these limitations, but "the White House" forced the limitations. Western social actors were impersonalized** by the rate of %4.54 and %5.32 in two series of articles. The results of the study showed that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on impersonalisation rate of Western social actors. The impersonalisation rate of Iranian social actors in two series of articles were %16.68 and %15.92 which means the Geneva Accord, too, had **no** significant effect on impersonalisation rate of Iranian social actors.

5.5. Addressing the Fifth Question

Since the exclusion rates of Western and Iranian social actors increased, their inclusion rates decreased. The inclusion rates of Western social actors in two series of articles were %78.38 and %76.32 respectively. **Iranian's inclusion rates were %98.46 and %95.52 in two series of articles.** The results of the study showed that the Geneva Accord had **no** significant effect on inclusion rates of Western and Iranian social actors.

5.6. Conclusions

This study aimed to investigate the effect of Geneva Accord on representation of Iranian and **Western social actors involved in Iran's atomic issue. The results of the study showed that there was a shift in ways through which social actors were represented.** However this shift was not deep and significant, the reasons behind any use of these strategies were very interesting and worthy to notice. Using these strategies is not random but very intentional revealing too many creeping ideas. These ideas are not seen, and even felt, by the readers leading them to some specific and politically needed ideologies.

The American political columnists tried to provoke the unseen ties and political interests between Western countries negotiating with Iran. They, also, made some effort to show that some countries, like Israel, **the first ally of U.S. in the region, stands against Iran's nuclear program, however, it is not 'directly' involved in the negotiations.** They did so to assure that **'however they set the negotiation table with Iran' they never forget their political and financial interests with Israel'.**

They also associated Iran with some countries like 'North Korea' and 'Iraq' to represent Iran as a supporter of terrorism and disobedience. When Iran is associated with a country like North Korea, the first concept coming to the readers' mind is the political isolation of Iran. They used these strategies to represent Iran, and Iranian people, as a country jeopardizing the peace in the world. Birdviewing this issue, we can say they used this strategy to represent Iran, as a well-recognized representative of Islamic country, as an isolated country which has nothing to say about policy and negotiation. This way of representation **can change the readers'** view toward Islam too.

When some new bi/multilateral sanctions against Iran were set, the common strategy to represent Western social actors was suppression. The writers intentionally and radically excluded the country(s) setting these sanctions from the text leaving no trace for the readers to know them. When suppression was impossible, the writers tried to background or impersonalize them. They used the political position of sanction settersto mask their name. When new series of sanctions is popped by some figures, as an example, and approved by Senate, the writers tried to **impersonalize them referring them as "the Congress"**. By impersonalizing the actors, the writers, first, tried to save the positive face of senators, and, second, to legitimize the newly set sanctions. A very interesting point, as previously mentioned, is when the Western social actors were excluded from the text, Iran experienced a kind of passivation; negatively beneficialized or subjected. Another point to consider is when some new sanctions are set, Iranian people were radically excluded from the text. The writers ideologically aimed to show that these sanctions were set against Iranian regime or, at least, the hard-liners not for common people living in Iran. When excluding Iranian people was not possible, they preferred to impersonalize them by using **some terms like 'Iranian nation' and 'Tehran'**.

5.7. Implications

Discourse analysis seems to be an inseparable part of language teaching and learning in **academic levels. Any study taking CDA approach tries to answer too many questions and 'whys'** which cannot be seen at first glance when reading a text(discourse). In any done CDA research, **researcher tries to awake the 'critical language awareness'** of the reader. CDA researcher wants his/her reader to be aware with what is going in and with the text and language. They want their reader to read between the lines and to see behind the words.

The results of this study can be fruitfully used in two realms of theory and practice. Theoretically, the findings of this and the same studies can be used when designing different English courses for different students. The findings, for instance, can be used when designing an ESP course for politicians specifically for those who are working overseas. When they get familiar with different ways of representing social actors, they will be more efficient politicians. Moreover, the result promises implications for ESP material development and EAP courses for the students of journalism and translation.

Practically, the findings of this study can be used in general and more specified English classes at different academic levels. When students of more specified courses like politicians and translators are familiar with CDA notions, social actor network, and different strategies to exclude on include them from/in different discourses, they will be able to see any reason behind any used strategy which, consequently, gives them a more realized attitude.

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The Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Empowerment and Burnout

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Abstract

The concepts of teachers' empowerment and burnout, as two important variables in the field of language teaching, have been proved to have considerable effect on teaching environment, students' achievement, and some other issues related to language teaching and learning. This study aimed to investigate the relationship between teachers' empowerment and their burnout and their relationship regarding gender. Moreover, another aim of this study was to examine which of the three components of burnout has the highest relationship with empowerment. To this end, 110 Iranian EFL teachers (44 males and 66 females), holding B.A. or M.A. degrees, with an age range of 20 to 45 years old from some language institutes in Bandar Abbas and Zahedan participated in this study. The modified version of School Participant Empowerment Scale (Short & Rinehart, 1992) and Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001) were used to gather data. The results of the Spearman's correlation and Fisher's Z comparison revealed that there was no significant relationship between teachers' empowerment and their burnout. All of the correlations between empowerment and components of burnout were statistically significant, albeit negative and reduced personal accomplishment had the highest correlation with empowerment. Moreover, there was no significant relationship between empowerment and burnout regarding gender. The study has some implications for EFL and language institute administrators to consider the effective characteristics of empowerment and burnout on their decision making processes and how to lower the symptoms of burnout in English language teachers.

Keywords: Empowerment; Burnout; Gender; Iranian EFL Teachers

1. Introduction

In an era in which changes are so rapid, education has become increasingly important for the success of all societies. In this regard, teachers should raise their levels of power and achievement in educational system in order to meet the high standards of teaching. **Consideration of teachers' role is important because teachers' implementation in the educational process increases the quality of human and social resources of society (Zlatkovic & Petrovic, 2011). The quality of teachers' professional activities is influenced by plenty of factors.** Some authors focus on the descriptive power of internal factors such as abilities, personality traits, and motivation. (Bernard, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 1987) while some others emphasize external factors such as school policy and equipment, and legislation. Since teaching is one of the most significant professions of the world, persistent change and challenges of the past two decades in the field of education have resulted in an increasing workload for teachers and administrators. One of the best ways to take notice of English language teachers is doing more research on different variables related to them. This study includes two variables which are important in the world of language teaching, empowerment and burnout.

The evolution of the construct known as empowerment began with the human relations movement, which focused attention on the individual worker and his or her interactions with other workers and colleagues (Short & Greer, 1997). Research on teacher empowerment began to appear in the literature in the late 1980s (Edwards, Green, & Lyons,

2002). During the past decade, a great deal of attention was paid to teachers in terms of their relationship with various organizational outcomes. Murray (2010, p. 3) defines empowerment as “the process through which teachers become capable of engaging in, sharing control of, and influencing events and institutions that affect their lives”.

The construct of teacher empowerment is viewed by researchers as holding promise for improving the educational setting for both teachers and students. A teacher’s sense of empowerment is an important variable in school improvement efforts of today’s operational school’s movement. Short and Rinehart (1992) believed that school improvement will occur if administrators allow teachers more access to school decision making processes. Vroom (1964) abridged the research on participative decision making and concluded that the more satisfied workers with their job have more opportunities to influence decisions which impacted their work environment. According to Wynne (2001), the aim of teacher empowerment is to improved student achievement.

Burnout was first introduced as a concept in the literature by Freudenberger (1974). Burnout has been identified as an affective chronic reaction due to prolonged exposure to work stress (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Capel, 1987). The phenomenon of burnout arose because of intense interactions in working with people, and has been studied in a variety of human service occupations, including health care and mental health care professionals, social welfare workers, lawyers, and business organization employees (e.g., Freudenberger, 1974; Golembiewski, Munzenrider, & Carter, 1983; Maslach & Jackson, 1978, 1982; Pines & Maslach, 1978; Raquepaw & Miller, 1989; Stevens & O’Neill, 1983). Burnout phenomenon is considered to be most common among human service professionals whose main role is to help and interact with others in emotionally demanding contexts over time (Maslach, 1982). The studies of burnout have examined the destructive effect of this syndrome on productivity, work efficacy, health, and quality of life (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Any professional can be a candidate for burnout if he/she does not know how to avoid and manage daily stressors. High levels of occupational stress often lead to job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, turnover and burnout. Burnout is a pathological syndrome in which emotional depletion and maladaptive detachment develop in response to prolonged occupational stress (Niku, 2004).

In identifying sources of teacher stress, different investigators in different settings have come up with a variety of stressors that include students’ misbehaviors and discipline problems, students’ poor motivation for work, heavy workload and time pressure, role conflict and role ambiguity, conflicting staff relationships in school management and administration, and pressure and criticisms from parents and the wider community (Dunham, 1992; Travers & Cooper, 1996). According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009), the lack of support from the school leadership, conflicts in cooperating with colleagues, increased workload, students with behavioral problems, problem in the parent–teacher relationship, and lack of autonomy are reasons of stress. A negative perception of the profession can lead to progressive absenteeism and, finally, to departure from work (Hall, Villeme & Phillippy, 1988).

Bateman (1999) believed that in addition to completing the myriad of instructional tasks, teachers must be more involved in decisions as they relate to all levels of the school organization. Bateman asserted that teachers will have an effect on an organization if they feel that they have the power to resolve problems, institute change, and share responsibility for organizational outcomes. The findings of the study may tend to support an empowerment role for teachers because it will identify whether or not a focus on teacher empowerment is

warranted. Burnout might have serious negative repercussions not only on the teacher's well-being but also on the teaching-learning processes. Prior studies show the negative influences on student performance and quality of teaching. Thus, efforts in teacher education to help teachers manage work stress and prevent burnout should warrant support and investigations.

There are many good reasons for being interested in research on teacher burnout, **since burnout might have serious consequences for teachers' wellbeing, their teaching careers, and achievement of their students.** Specifically, teacher burnout might harm the quality of teaching, and might also lead to job dissatisfaction, work alienation, physical and emotional ill-health, and teachers' leaving the profession (Vandenberghe & Huberman, 1999). The empowerment of teachers might be a solution for decreasing burnout.

This study explored the relationship between Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' empowerment and burnout, the greatest relationship between the components of burnout and empowerment, and the difference in the relationships between these two constructs regarding gender. Regarding the significant role of empowerment and burnout of teachers in teacher education, the researcher had focused on these two concepts because empowerment may reduce the symptoms of burnout or teachers with low burnout problems can be empowered and act successfully in it. Teacher empowerment and burnout have been the subjects which have been the focus of attention recently but there is a paucity of research about the relationship between these two constructs specially in teaching fields.

In order to fill this gap, three research questions were posed in this study:

- Q₁**. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' empowerment and their burnout?
- Q₂**. Which component of Iranian EFL teachers' burnout has the greatest relationship with their empowerment?
- Q₃**. Does the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' empowerment and burnout differ regarding their gender?

2. Literature review

2.1 Teacher's Empowerment

Research on teacher empowerment started in the late 1980s (Edwards et al., 2002). Due to previous researches, teacher empowerment is a field that shows teachers should have enough authorities in the decision making processes to have self-efficacy. Short (1992) identified that teacher empowerment is a professional development process including professional knowledge base, higher teaching efficacy, and promoting decision-making to meet the necessity of education.

Teacher empowerment was one of the facts that appeared important with the rise of post-method. The autonomous teacher was the heart of post-method pedagogy. According to Freeman (1991, p. 35), "method-based pedagogy overlooked the fund of experience and tacit knowledge about teaching which the teachers already have by virtue of their lives as students". Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 178) stated that

Post-method pedagogy, on the other hand, recognizes the teachers' prior knowledge as well as their potential to know not only how to teach but also promotes the ability of teachers to know how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks.

Although empowerment was a subject found in many organizations during the 1980's, the idea of empowering teachers entered education in the 1990s (Rinehart & Short, 1994; Short & Rinehart, 1993). Since 1990, researchers have begun to shift their attention to leadership models that are more consistent with educational reform such as empowerment,

shared leadership, and organizational learning with the understanding that the role of the principal advances with the changing trends in educational reform (Leithwood & Duke, 1998). Research shows us that if principals set the stage for teacher empowerment, teachers will be more effective and student achievement, responsiveness to student conflict, teacher satisfaction, and the school environment tends to be improved (Blasé & Blasé, 2001; Gonzales & Short, 1996; Short & Johnson, 1994).

2.1.1 Dimensions of Empowerment

Based on three studies, Short and Rinehart (1992) identified six dimensions of empowerment: decision making, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, autonomy and impact (Short, 1994; Short & Rinehart, 1992).

The decision-making, involves teachers' participation in serious decisions that directly affect their work. *Impact* refers to teachers' perceptions that they have an effect and influence on school life (Short, 1994). *Professional growth* refers to teachers' perception that the school in which they work provides them with opportunities to grow and develop professionally, to learn continuously, and to expand one's own skills through the work life of the school (Short & Johnson, 1994). The *status* attribute of empowerment refers to the sense of respect, and admiration attributed by students, parents, community members, colleagues, and superiors to the profession of teaching (Short & Johnson, 1994). *Self-efficacy* refers to teachers' perceptions that they have the skills and ability to help students learn, and they are competent in constructing effective programs for students, and can effect changes in student learning. *Autonomy* refers to teachers' believing that they have control over certain aspects of their working life, including scheduling, curriculum development, selection of textbooks and planning instruction; autonomy is directly related to decision making (Gonzales & Lambert, 2001; Short, 1994; Short & Johnson, 1994; Short & Rinehart, 1992). *Impact* refers to teachers' perceptions that they have an effect and influence on school life (Short, 1994).

2.1.2 Reasons for Teacher Empowerment

Empowerment brings about useful school change (Whitaker & Moses, 1990). The empowerment of teachers is essential for schools to reach their full potential (Barth, 1990). Teacher empowerment improves decision making power of the teachers who are the closest to the students. **Teachers' sense of empowerment grows when they have opportunities to grow, become life-long learners, develop professionally, believe they have an impact on student learning, have decision-making opportunities, and have a sense of status** (Briley, 2004; Short, 1998).

Whitaker and Moses (1990) proposed reasons why teachers should be empowered. Empowerment provides teachers with the opportunities to achieve their fullest abilities, and creates a sense of ownership in their work environments. Empowerment liberates teachers. Although teachers are often asked their opinions, it seldom makes a difference in the decisions that are made. Whitaker and Moses (1990) believed that teacher empowerment prevents mindless bureaucracy. Many schools still remain the model where decisions are on the principal and conformity is expected from teachers. Empowered teachers want to generate action that will benefit students and successful school reform depends on bringing out the full potential of teachers to make decisions that affect students (Whitaker & Moses, 1990). Empowerment is a great source for teachers for the inspiration to grow as professionals. Growth and creativity occur when teachers have autonomy to think, interact, and innovate. Teacher empowerment is the foundation for growth, conscious decision making and reflection. As Wallace (1991) stated, it promotes the ability to develop reflective

approach to teaching. And the last reason is that empowerment causes collaboration among educators (Barth, 1990; Whitaker & Moses, 1990).

Several studies have been conducted on teacher empowerment. Baleghizadeh and Goldouz (2016) studied the relationship between collective efficacy perceptions of EFL teachers and their perception of teacher empowerment. The researchers found out a significant, though rather weak correlation between the two constructs and they observed that there was no significant difference between experienced and inexperienced teachers in terms of their collective efficacy beliefs. Pearson and Moomaw (2005) examined the relationship between teacher autonomy, stress, work satisfaction, empowerment, and professionalism. It was demonstrated that as general teacher autonomy increased so did empowerment and professionalism. Also, as job satisfaction, perceived empowerment, and professionalism increased stress decreased, and greater job satisfaction was associated with a high degree of professionalism and empowerment.

2.2 *Burnout*

The phenomenon of burnout appeared as a major social issue in the United States in the mid-1970s, and its importance has grown considerably over the past thirty years. Burnout is a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. The use of burnout was reported by a clinical psychologist, Herbert Freudenberger (1974), in articles about free clinics. His description of burnout described idealistic young men and women who, while working harder and harder, sacrificed their own health in the process of meeting ideals larger than themselves and gained few rewards for their efforts. At that same time, a social psychologist, Christina Maslach, was conducting exploratory research with workers in healthcare and human service occupations, studying how they managed strong emotional arousal on the job. During the course of the interviews, some of the workers termed their **psychological difficulties as “burnout,”** and Maslach (1976) shifted her focus to describe this phenomenon. For both Freudenberger and Maslach, burnout was rooted within caregiving and service occupations, in which the core of the job is the relationship between provider and recipient. The clear definition is that burnout is a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. The three key dimensions of this response are an overwhelming exhaustion; feelings of suspicion and detachment from the job; and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment.

2.2.1 *Dimensions of Burnout*

Following Freudenberger's (1980) lead, Maslach (1982) managed to frame an elaborated and knowledgeable conceptualization of burnout, which still continues to feature as an incomparable model. According to Maslach et al. (2001), burnout consists of three dimensions: (a) emotional exhaustion (EE), involves feelings of being exhausted of one's emotional and physical resources, as a consequence of intense physical, affective and cognitive strain, i.e. as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job stresses. (b) depersonalization (DP), originally refers to distancing oneself emotionally from service recipients, it is a state of detachment from students, parents, and other teachers that **disturbs a teacher's personal and professional life,** and (c) a reduced personal accomplishment (PA) which is described as a person's negative self-evaluation regarding his or her job performance.

There are many studies which have been conducted about teachers' burnout. The following examples are the important studies in this field. Mashhady, Fallah and Lotfi Gaskaree (2012) investigated the relationship between burnout and self-efficacy among EFL teachers. The results revealed that self-efficacy was negatively correlated with burnout, and it could be a potent predictor of burnout among EFL teachers. It was also shown that age

and teaching experience were significantly correlated with self-efficacy and burnout. Heydari and Abbasian (2016) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' professional development and their job burnout. The findings, then, bear the message that necessary measures should be taken to foster professional development and prevent burnout at certain period of organizational life and in relation to educational degree. Mardani, Baghelani and Azizi (2015) explored possible relationships among English language teachers' sense of efficacy, burnout with respect to their demographic variables. The result showed that enhancing burnout tends to have a negative influence on diminishing teachers' self-efficacy. In addition, a significant relationship was observed between teachers' age, gender, years of experiences and reports of burnout.

Rasekh and safaaei (2016) examined the relationship between job burnout and empowerment. The results showed that there was a significant negative relationship between empowerment and burnout. Furthermore, there was a significant negative relationship between empowerment and emotional exhaustion, between empowerment and depersonalization, and between empowerment and reduced personal accomplishment.

The review of literature showed the importance of empowerment and burnout and there was no study focusing on relationship between empowerment and burnout in teacher education. So, this study aims at finding the relationship between these two concepts in English language institutes and filling this gap.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 110 (44 males, 66 females) EFL teachers with the bachelors or master's degree, 1 to 25 five years teaching experience and age of 20 to 45 years' old which gathered after distributing 190 questionnaires in Zahedan and Bandar Abbas English language institutes. The data gathered based on availability sampling and there was no randomization.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

The following instruments were used in the present study:

A modified version of School Participant Empowerment Scale (SPES) was used to assess the teachers' level of empowerment perceptions that has been developed by Short and Rinehart (1992). The instrument contained 38 items that require participants to select their answers from among 5-point Likert-type scale categories ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The modified version went through a pilot study and was administered to 40 English language institute teachers. At the end, the reliability of the questionnaire was found to be .96.

Teacher burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey (MBI-ES) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The scale was a 22-item self-report instrument consisting of three subscales: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Participants responded a seven-point frequency rating scale, ranging from never (0) to every day (6). In this research the questionnaire went through a pilot study and was distributed to 40 English language institute teachers. The reliability of questionnaire was found to be .85.

3.3 Data analysis Procedure

The researcher distributed modified version of school participant empowerment scale and Maslach burnout inventory-educator's survey questionnaires in Bandar Abbas and Zahedan language institutes in July 2017 to gather the quantitative data. The researcher explained the institutes' administrators about the purpose of the study and obtained their permission then

informed the participants about the purpose of the study and explained to them how to fill in the questionnaires. They were allowed to take the questionnaires home and bring them in two or more days. Moreover, the demographic information (the degree, age, gender and years of the teaching experience) was gathered. Totally 190 teachers received the questionnaires but 110 of them were sent back. The results of the questionnaires were analyzed through Spearman's correlation and Fisher's Z comparison.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Results

Before testing the research questions of the study, the data were tested using Shapiro-Wilk's test of normality to determine whether the assumption of normality had been violated or not.

Table 1 presents the results of normality testing.

Table 1

Shapiro-Wilk's Test of Normality

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
<i>Empowerment</i>	0.97	110	0.02
<i>Burnout</i>	0.99	110	0.96
<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>	0.97	110	0.01
<i>Depersonalization</i>	0.89	110	0.00
<i>Reduced Personal Accomplishment</i>	0.92	110	0.00

According to Table 1, the p values for empowerment ($p=.02$), emotional exhaustion ($p=.01$), depersonalization ($p=.00$), and reduced personal accomplishment ($p=.00$) are below .05. Accordingly, it can be stated that the assumption of normality for data related to these variables had been violated. Nevertheless, for burnout, the p value is .96 which is higher than .05, which indicates that there is no violation of the assumption of normality for the data related to this variable. Table 4.4 shows the results of Shapiro-Wilk's test of normality for the data related to burnout and empowerment among the female and male teachers.

Table 2 shows the results of Shapiro-Wilk's test of normality for data related to burnout and empowerment among female and male teachers.

Table 2

Shapiro-Wilk's Test of Normality (Data Separated for Female & Male Groups)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>P</i>
<i>Empowerment (Female)</i>	0.93	66	0.00
<i>Burnout (Female)</i>	0.99	66	0.94
<i>Empowerment (Male)</i>	0.96	44	0.16
<i>Burnout (Male)</i>	0.96	44	0.21

According to Table 2, the only p value which is below .05 is related to empowerment among female teachers ($p=.00$). Hence, with the exception of data related to female teachers' empowerment, data related to all other variables had not violated the assumption of normality. Given the fact that the assumption of normality was violated for most of the variables of the study, it is necessary to use non-parametric tests for all of the analyses related to the three research questions of the study.

To test the first research question, Spearman's correlation was used. Based on the fact that the assumptions of normality were violated for the data related this analysis, it was necessary to use Spearman's correlation as the non-parametric alternative to Pearson's

correlation. Table 3 presents the results of Spearman's correlation between teachers' empowerment and their burnout.

Table 3
Results of Spearman's Correlation between Empowerment and Burnout

Variables	Empowerment		
	N	Rho	P
Burnout	110	-0.16	0.09

According to Table 3, rho value is -.16 which shows that there is a negative relationship between teachers' empowerment and their burnout. However, since the p value ($p=.09$) is above the alpha level (.05), this relationship is not statistically significant. As a result, it can be stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between teachers' empowerment and their burnout.

For the purpose of testing the second research question, first, Spearman's correlations were used. Table 4 presents the results of Spearman's correlation.

Table 4
Results of Spearman's Correlation between Empowerment and Components of Burnout

Variables	Empowerment		
	N	Rho	P
Emotional Exhaustion	110	-0.33	0.00
Depersonalization	110	-0.43	0.00
Reduced Personal Accomplishment	110	-0.55	0.00

According to Table 4, all of the p values for the correlations are .00 which is below the alpha level .05, as a result the correlations are statistically significant, albeit negative. For the correlation between empowerment and reduced personal accomplishment, the rho value is -.55 which is the greatest correlation.

Fisher's Z comparisons were used to compare pairs of correlations that calculated in the previous section in Table 4 and find any statistically significant differences between the pairs. Table 5 presents the results of Fisher's Z comparisons.

Table 5
Fisher's Z Comparisons for Finding Significance between Each Correlation

Comparisons		Z	p (two-tailed)
Pair 1	Pair 2		
Empowerment – Depersonalization	Empowerment – Reduced Personal Accomplishment	1.13	0.25
Empowerment – Depersonalization	Empowerment – Emotional Exhaustion	-0.91	0.36
Empowerment – Reduced Personal Accomplishment	Empowerment – Emotional Exhaustion	-2.04	0.04

According to Table 5, the comparison between the correlation for empowerment and depersonalization and the correlation for empowerment and reduced personal accomplishment have produced a Z value of 1.13, with a p value of .25. Since the p value is above .05, the difference between the correlations is not statistically significant.

For the comparison between the correlation for empowerment and depersonalization and the correlation for empowerment and emotional exhaustion, according to Table 5, the Z value is -0.91, with a *p* value of .36, which is higher than .05. Again, this comparison is not statistically significant.

Finally, in case of the comparison between the correlation for empowerment and reduced personal accomplishment and the correlation for empowerment and emotional exhaustion, according to Table 5, the Z value is -2.04, with a *p* value of .04, which is below the alpha level .05. Since this *p* value is below the alpha level, it can be stated that there is a statistically significant difference between the correlation coefficients of the relations between empowerment and reduced personal accomplishment on the one hand and empowerment and emotional exhaustion on the other hand.

According to Table 4, the correlation coefficient for the relationship between empowerment and reduced personal accomplishment is -0.55, while the correlation coefficient for the relationship between empowerment and emotional exhaustion is -0.33. Hence, reduced personal accomplishment has the greatest correlation with empowerment.

To test the third research question, Spearman's correlation was used to measure the degree of relatedness between teachers' empowerment and their burnout for male and female separately. Table 6 presents the results of Spearman's correlation for the relationship between female teachers' empowerment and their burnout.

Table 6

Variables	Empowerment		
	N	Rho	P
Burnout	66	-0.10	0.41

According to Table 6, the *p* value (*p*=.41) is above .05, which indicates that this relationship is not statistically significant.

Table 7, presents the results of Spearman's correlation for the relationship between male teachers' empowerment and their burnout.

Table 7

Variables	Empowerment		
	N	Rho	P
Burnout	44	-0.20	0.18

As it can be seen in Table 7, the *p* value is .18, which is higher than the pre-determined alpha level .05; it indicates that the relationship is not statistically significant. In order to compare the two correlations, Fisher's Z comparison was used to find out any significant difference between the pairs. Table 8 shows the results of this comparison.

Table 8

Fisher's Z Comparison for Finding the Significant Difference between Male and Female in the Relationship between Empowerment and Burnout

Comparison		Z	p (two-tailed)
Pair 1	Pair 2		
Empowerment – Burnout (Male Teachers)	Empowerment – Burnout (Female Teachers)	-0.53	0.59

According to Table 8, the Z value is -.53 and the p value is .59. Since the p value is above .05, it can be stated that the difference between the two correlation coefficients is not statistically significant. Hence, **the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' empowerment and burnout does not differ regarding their gender.**

4.2 Discussion

The results of first research question showed that there was a negative relationship between **teachers' empowerment and their burnout** ($\rho = -.16$). However, this relationship was not statistically significant ($p = .09$). Different reasons can be based on the obtained results and the limitations of our study. The evidence shows that there is a little sense of empowerment in Iranian teachers and they are not allowed to take part in decision making processes and they just follow the orders. There is a little opportunity in professional development between Iranian EFL teachers and most of them have a second job which makes them not concentrate on their job as an English teacher. There are no courses about teaching empowerment and most of them are not even familiar with the concept. Another reason is that Iranian EFL teachers participated in this study mostly did not have a positive feeling toward their jobs and had extreme psychological frustration and they might not agree with taking part in decision makings and have more responsibility. Their low payment and delayed salaries do not make them enjoy teaching or have more duties. Many English teachers participating in this study did not fill the questionnaires carefully and might have filled the items by chance. Many of the participants had B.A. degrees and might not know the value of taking part in researches and being loyal to their responsibility as a participant of the study to fill the questionnaires frankly. The findings of the first research question of this study are not consistent with Rasekh and Safaei's (2016) study, who found a significant negative ($r = -.27$) relationship between empowerment and burnout. The results of this study are not consistent with the researches of Bahrami (2014), Beykzadeh, Marzbani, and Severi (2007), Hanson (2001), Wu and Shoot (1996), Rouhollahi (1993), and Davoudabadi Farahani (1994), all cited in Rasekh and Safaei (2016). The result of these studies are exactly the same as Rasekh and Safaei's study. The results of this study are not consistent with the results of Yusof, Yunus and Mujahid Ghouri's (2013) study, who examined teachers' burnout and its relationship with empowerment, internal service quality and perceived inequality in public sector university. Their results showed that burnout of teachers was negatively and significantly correlated to empowerment. The results of this study are not in line with O'Brien (2010). His research concluded that there was a statistically significant negative relationship between psychological empowerment and burnout. The results are not consistent with Sarmiento, Laschinger, and Iwasiw's (2004) study, who found that empowerment was significantly related to burnout in nurses.

The results of the second research question indicated that reduced personal accomplishment has the greatest correlation with empowerment. The findings of the study are in line with Rasekh and Safaei' (2016) study which examined the relationship between empowerment and the components of burnout. All of the three components had negative significant relationship with empowerment and the results showed that reduced personal accomplishment had the greatest correlation. The results are in line with the research results of Bahrami (2014), Payami Busari (1995), and Beygifar (1999), all cited in Rasekh and Safaei (2016). Their results showed that the components of burnout had negative significant relationship with empowerment. The results are in line with Brown (1996), who stated three major reasons of why teachers leave their profession. These are the need for personal growth,

the desire for a philosophy of education, and a lack of respect and recognition for their efforts. With regard to autonomy as one of the important components of empowerment, the results are in line with the studies which show that there is a relationship between components of autonomy and components of burnout. According to Khezerlou (2013), there is a significant relationship between the three dimensions of autonomy and the EE, DP and PA subscales among both Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers.

The results of the third research question showed that relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' empowerment and burnout does not differ regarding gender. The reasons for this finding can be the unequal number of male and female teachers in this study. Because of the extremely low payment in this profession especially in English language institutes and no extra bonus or promotion, the number of male teachers were low and finding them was so hard. Most of the English teachers are female and because of low expectancy of women in salaries most of the administrators choose women over men. The other reason would be teachers' reluctance to fill in the questionnaires and careless attention in answering the items. According to the review of literature, there were no previous researches that examined the relationship between these variables regarding gender in an EFL context but there were some researches in other fields. The results of this study are not in line with Zani and Pietrantonio (2001), who studied gender differences in burnout, empowerment and somatic symptoms among health professionals. Their results showed that women reported significantly lower levels of burnout and higher feelings of empowerment in their work, and higher levels of somatic symptoms. The results of the present study are not in line with Rawana (2001), who showed that several empowerment-burnout associations were moderated by gender role.

According to the limitations of this study, the results of this study cannot be generalized to other settings such as Ministry of Education and universities.

5. Conclusion and implications

This study examined the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' empowerment and burnout. The results suggested that there was no significant relationship between empowerment and burnout. However, it found out the significant relationship between empowerment and components of burnout and reduced personal accomplishment had the greatest correlation with burnout. In conclusion, the findings of the present study generated valuable information about the relationship between the variables and have new information for more research. Administrators can apply appropriate leadership and suitable plans about empowerment to reduce burnout symptoms and improve personal accomplishment in teachers. Furthermore, the results of this study showed that consideration of gender is not essential in policy making about empowerment.

This study has some implications for administrators. They are highly recommended to improve environment in favor of teachers to cooperate with them in decision making and increase their status and count them valuable in their working life. Administrators should strive to create a work environment that provides opportunities for teachers to decrease their emotional exhaustion, the negative thought of depersonalization, and improve personal accomplishment which has the greatest relationship with burnout. The findings of this study indicated that more empowerment about EFL teachers would cause less symptoms of burnout. The results of this study are useful for students because of the role of teacher burnout on students' motivation and achievements. Lower burnout definitely has direct relation with students' achievement (Shen et al., 2015; Klusmann, Richter, & Lüdtke, 2016). Finally, the result of this study may be useful for English language teachers, learners, policy-

makers, material providers, school administrators, teacher trainers, course designers, and researchers

Regarding the constraints and limitations of the study the following suggestions for further research should be considered. This study was done in two cities of Bandar Abbas and Zahedan, so it can be recommended to replicate it in some other cities of Iran. Furthermore, the study can be expanded to include teachers in schools or some professors at universities. Further research studies can be done using both quantitative and qualitative research tools, such as interviews, observations and case studies. For further research this study can be expanded to consider components of empowerment and their relationship with burnout and its three components. In addition, research can be done about the relationship between teachers' empowerment and students' achievement because there is a gap in this issue.

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A Comparison between 'Right Path to English' and 'Prospect' series based on Iranian English Teachers' Attitudes: Concerning the Representation of Vocabulary, Grammar, and Pronunciation

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the representation of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation as a language sub skills in the old (Right Path to English) and new (Prospect) **junior high school book series based on the teachers' attitudes. To this end, 50 Iranian EFL school teachers (24 males and 26 females) from two provinces (Fras and Bushehr) were selected through convenience sampling. The researchers used a modified version of a book evaluation checklist developed by Abdel Wahab (2013) and a set of semi-structured interviews as the instruments of the study. The descriptive statistics and the paired samples *t*-test were used to analyze the data. The results showed that the participants held significantly more favorable attitudes towards the representation of vocabulary and pronunciation in the new series compared with the old series. Furthermore, based on the teachers' attitudes, there was not any significant difference between the representations of grammar in the new series compared to the old ones. The results of the interviews also supported the quantitative findings.**

Keywords: Prospect; Right Path to English; sub skills; Teacher's attitudes; Textbook Evaluation

1. Introduction

Learning a new language rely on a lot of factors like the learners, the teachers, the context in which the learning event is occurred, the objectives of learning, and more significantly the textbooks. Undoubtedly, textbooks are important sources for instructors in assisting learners to learn a language. They are the basis of school instruction and the major source of information both for learners and teachers. In addition, materials and textbooks are considered as one of the most important tools for shaping knowledge, attitudes, and principles of the learners (Nooreen& Arshad, 2010). Thus, it is a fact that selecting and evaluating textbooks in EFL context is of paramount importance. According to Salehi and Amini (2016), materials evaluation is one of the educational necessities because it reveals that how a textbook should be improved or justified. One of the factors which have straight effect on the process of learning and teaching is teaching materials.

Arabloo (2015) believes that textbooks are of enormous worth and effect in the process of teaching and learning. According to (Zohrabi, Sabouri, and Kheradmand, 2014, p.95), "textbooks are one of the elements that may promote or discourage learners depending on their materials. They are a kind of support for both teachers and learners. Textbooks provide students a kind of consistency". They had a great effect on the instructional process. Besides, (Sheldon, 1988, p.237) mentions that "textbooks represent the visible heart of any ELT program". In other words, textbooks are an almost worldwide ingredient of English language teaching. Thus, Cunningsworth (1995) argues that a textbook can be considered as a source of activities, a syllabus for pushing the pedagogical process toward systematization, and as a scaffold for apprentice instructors. Because of considerable function that textbooks play

and integral component of language teaching profession materials evaluation is an educational requirements since it reveals how textbook can be improved or satisfied.

According to Abdollahi-Guilani, MohdYasin, and Kim Hua (2011), in Iran, textbooks serve as the foundation for more than language input that students receive and the language practice that occur in the classroom. For most teacher's, textbooks supply the basis for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught as well as the kinds of language practice the learners involve in during class activities. For the EFL students, the text gets the main sources of contact they have with the language regardless of the input supplied by the teachers.

It is worth to mention here that "English for Schools" is the newly developed Junior high school English textbook which is taught in schools now. It is based on the CLT approach. While the previous series, "Right Path to English" was based on RM, the teachers used GTM. Therefore, school teachers from all over the country have different perceptions and view points toward its content. But there is not any investigation that compares two series with each other and analyzes and discusses their skills separately to gather. There are four skills in English language. One is the receptive which is pre requisite for productive skills and another is the productive skills. Receptive skill consists of two skills, listening and reading and productive skill includes speaking and writing. Receptive skills (Listening and Reading) considered as passive skills because the learner is passive during these skills. Although Mundhe (2015) believes that listening is an important skill, teachers overlook this skill in English classes improperly. Teachers think that the skill of listening will develop automatically. "When the learners hear English spoken in the classes it is not true when we speak in the class our learners hear us most of the time, and if we want to develop their listening skills, we have to use activities that encourage these skills" (Mundhe, 2015, p.2). According to Mundhe (2015), reading is not as many still claim a passive activity in which readers just move their eyes through the printed page in linear order. "It is interactive the reader brings his personal knowledge to the text in front of him. The interactivity is triangular between the reader, the text, and the message. The goal is specific to engage the thoughts, facts, and view point; bias etc. the writer has to put together on the page in order to arrive at the best personal meaning. Reading is the most favored and the most practical skills in English classes" (Mundhe, 2015, p.4). Thus, the current study is an attempt to evaluate the teachers' attitudes towards the both series of English books in terms of emphasizing on the receptive language skills.

1.2. Aim of Study

The present study intended to investigate the representation of language sub skills in the old (Right Path to English) and new (Prospect) junior high school book series based on the **teachers' attitudes**. Therefore, this study aims at providing answers to the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there any difference between the representation of pronunciation as a language sub skill in the old (Right Path to English) and new (Prospect) junior high school book series **based on the teachers' attitudes?**

RQ 2: Is there any difference between the representation of vocabulary as a language sub skills in the old (Right Path to English) and new (Prospect) junior high school book series **based on the teachers' attitudes?**

RQ 3: Is there any difference between the representation of grammar of language as a sub skill in the old 'Right Path to English) and new (Prospect) junior high school book series **based on the teachers' attitudes?**

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Theoretical frame Works

Borjian (2013) investigates the roots and backgrounds of English education in Iran much before this time, many investigators claims that the history of formal teaching English in Iran dates back to 1938-1939 (1317-1318). According to (Foroozandeh, 2011, p.68), "this history of formal teaching of English in Iran dates from 1939 (1318) when the high school English series was published and put to use in high school classes. The series included 6 books for the 6 years of the compulsory high school education at the time. The series developer were Iranian and English speaking educators who launched and implemented this joint project under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Culture (Vezerat-e Farhang). The series followed the Direct Method (DM) and Reading Method (RM) with a wide variety of topics introduced in each book". Therefore, Foroozandeh (2011) states a list of shortcomings of the 1939 series as following:

1. the series did not follow the same design and procedure in all the lessons.
2. lacking work book
3. lacking teachers guide
4. following Direct Method and Reading Method principles and overlooking the communicative skills.

Kheirabadi and Alavi Moghaddam (2014) believe that evidently the 1939 series lasted for about 25 years and the second phase of preparing English textbooks goes back to 1964 when a new famous series known as "Graded English Series" was presented to the educational system of Iran and was in education circle for nearly fifteen years, up to the Islamic Revolution in 1979. As Foroozandeh (2011) discusses, the Iranian high school English course books during 1964-1978 (1343-1357) were declared to have followed overall direction of the time (1960s to early 1970s), especially the SLT. They were improved in a way that the learners would attain a strong fundamental knowledge of English compulsory for future proficiency. The reading passages were chosen based on learned vocabulary. The lesson and grammar points followed a principled sequencing and grading, and because of this the revised series is called "Graded English".

"The Graded English" consists of 6 books each comprising a clear set of objectives and goals, defined syllabus, delineate activities and procedures with a step by step illustration in the teachers' manual supplied for each book and accessible to teachers for free. The manual supplies more information such as:

- "1. An overview of the whole book including structural patterns, new words, etc.;
2. List of references in Linguistics and Methodology (from 1954 to 1965) that the authors used in writing the books; and
3. The procedures that should be followed in teaching the whole book in general and teaching each lesson in particular. Details on this part are presented in the preface" (Foroozandeh, 2011, p.67).

Teaching English in post-revolutionary Iran has been the subject matter of research for some investigators and Borjian (2013) is only one of them. Borjian (2013, p. 64) in her socio-politically driven analysis of the history of English education in post-revolutionary Iran defines 4 phases:

- "Phase 1: The Revolutionary Period (1979-1988)
Phase2: The Period of Reconstruction and Privatization (1989-1997)
Phase 3: The Period of Global Outlook (1997-2005)
Phase 4: Returning to Revolutionary Roots (2005-Present)".

The situation of English textbooks in Iran after the Islamic Revolution is summarized by Kheirabadi and Alavi Moghaddam (2013). They concluded "the Grade English Series stayed in circulation of formal education system up until the Islamic Revolution of 1979, when it was completely removed from the schools and replaced by other series, the most well-known one is "Right Path to English" which is still serving the education system and is planned to be replaced by the newly designed "English for School" series in the coming academic year of commencing October 2013" (Kheirabadi & Alavi Moghaddam, 2013, p.894).

The teaching methodology recommended by this manuscript is titled as "interactive self-reliance communicative approach" which is a localized edition of Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT). A new English series for Iranian students of grade 7th was introduced by the Organization for Educational Research and Planning organization (OERP) that is the official body responsible for textbook preparation nation. The recent series is called 'English for schools' is planned to consists of 6 volumes for grade 7 to 12 within two three-year phase of Junior and Senior high school level (Kheirabadi & Alavi Moghaddam, 2014).

The New Series "English for Schools"

As Kheirabadi and Alavi Moghaddam (2016) state, the ministry of education of Islamic republic of Iran has declared a so-called basic reorganization of education system since 2010 and the most important step toward shaping this restructuring was the preparation and ratification of "National Curriculum of Islamic Republic of Iran" eventually confirmed in late 2012. Thus national curriculum is composed of 12 educational spheres and the 11th sphere is offered to teaching foreign languages. Thus for the first time in formal education system of country a set of goals for teaching foreign languages is selected and formally declared by the ministry of education. On its 11th educational domain, the national curriculum of Iran mentions the goals of teaching foreign languages in formal educational system as the following:

"1 -Teaching foreign languages should pave the way for reception, perception and transmitting cultural messages and human science achievements within linguistic means of communication.

2- Besides the interpersonal and intercultural functions, teaching foreign languages should play an active role in economic developments such as tourism industry, IT technology science development and so on so forth.

3- The education of foreign languages initiates from the 7th grades and lasts for 6 years and its main objective is educating four basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing and making the students familiar with the communicative approaches." (Kheirabadi & Alavi Moghaddam, 2014b, p.227).

The new English series are planned to have 6 books and are called "English for Schools". It is divided into two three year phase of junior "Prospect 1 to 3" and senior "vision 1 to 3" high school level. The first volume of the series were published and distributed by OERP to use in 2013-2014 Academic year in all 7th grade of junior high school classes covering more than 1 million students annually all over the country. The series were developed by Curriculum Development Center (CDC) of Organization for Educational Research and Planning (OERP) of Islamic Republic of Iran and the authors were a group of Iranian specialists. Prospect series are thematically designed and each lesson of the series is expanded around a central idea or them. The author referred to CEFR in Teachers Guide of the series and it seems that, in selecting the themes of the books this European Framework has been a foundation of motivation (Kheirabadi & Alavi Moghaddam, 2016).

2.2. *Empirical Works*

Alipour, Mohebzade, Gholamhosseinzadeh, and Mirzapour (2016) conducted a study to explore Iranian EFL teachers' perspective towards the Junior high school textbook Prospect 3. The study finding provided the evidence that the most EFL teachers were satisfied with the general theme, appearance, explanations, and supplementary materials while approximately half of them were not satisfied with dialogues, vocabularies, structures, exercises, and activities.

Tayyebi, Sohrabi, and Zarnejad (2015) designed a study to recognize a comparison between the new and the old series of English textbooks of secondary schools in Iran. Results of the study indicated that based on the teachers attitudes, there were significant differences between old and new series textbooks. Regarding all provided categories the new series were evaluated more preferable than the old ones while the learners held an opposite viewpoint. They evaluate Right Path to English better than English for Schools.

Abedi and Salehi (2015) investigated critical discourse analysis approach by comparing English textbook of seventh grade of Iranian high school with English textbook of second grade of guidance school. The findings clearly demonstrated that teachers mostly agreed that the new English textbooks, which is recently applied in Iranian schools, is highly improved considering to different textbook evaluation items. They also claimed that previous English textbook was not as suitable as the new series. In addition, learners believe that there were significant differences between the two series of English textbooks.

Kamyabi Gol and Baghaeeyan (2015) explored critical analysis and teachers perspectives on Prospect one. As the study proved the syllabus has made great improvement in language teaching methodology in Iran and has been able to partially fulfill both the learners and the teachers' needs. Although it has some shortcomings such as lack of suitable recycling of vocabularies, lack of phonetic transcription of new words, and use of unauthentic contexts.

Kia- Ahmadi and Arabmorad (2015) attempted to determine an analysis of first grade Junior high schools English textbooks in the light of multiple intelligence theory, the comparison between newly published Prospect one and the old one Right Path to English. The findings of the study imply that the activities in the two textbooks basically supply two intelligences in both textbooks followed by visual spatial. Even so, naturalistic, musical and logical intelligence were discovered as less common intelligence.

Janfeshan and Nsrati (2014) designed a study to do a quick look to English language training in Iranian guidance schools through Prospect method and CLT with a book analytic approach. Results of the research reveal the success of the current method in real classroom experiences.

Kheirabadi and Alavi Moghaddam (2014) conducted a study on the meta analysis of the researchers on revealing English textbooks in Iran. Findings of the study indicated that the most frequently quoted and stated shortcoming of previous series of English textbooks in ignoring the "the communication" as the most fundamental factor of language teaching-learning process.

3. Method

3.1. *Participants*

The participants of this study were comprised of 50 Iranian EFL school teachers from two provinces: Fras (21 participants) and Bushehr (29 participants). All the participants were Persian native speakers, teaching English as a foreign language at different schools. Among the total number of participants, 24 members were males, and 26 females. The participants' English language teaching experience ranged between 5 to 20 years. All the participants had

the experience of teaching the two textbook series for at least two years. Sampling of the present study was mostly based on the availability of the participants. Concerning the ethical issues, information about the study including the aim of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, and the opportunity to withdraw at any time without cause or notice, was provided to the participants orally.

3.2. Data Collection Methods

Data needed for this study was mostly collected in one semester. A book evaluation checklist was used to evaluate the old and new English series based on the teachers' points of view. The researcher explained the purpose of the study to the participants. The participants were also informed about the questionnaire and how to respond to it. The participants answered the questionnaire two times, first to evaluate the old textbook series (Right Path to English) and then, to evaluate the second ones (Prospect). Afterwards, the data obtained from the questionnaires was analyzed and used to compare teachers' attitudes towards the old and new English textbooks.

In addition, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with 5 teachers to determine their attitudes towards the representation of the language skills in the old and new junior high school textbooks. The researcher set up a general structure for the interviews by providing a list of questions about the topic. More detailed questions were asked as when they emerged during the interview.

3.2.1. Instrument

3.2.2. Book Evaluation Checklist

The first instrument used in this study was a 27-item checklist developed by Abdel Wahab (2013) and modified by the researchers. This book evaluation checklist consisted of four parts: Listening (seven items), Speaking (six items), Reading (six items), and Writing (eight items). It adapted 5 point Likert scales ranging from "Strongly disagree =1" to "Strongly agree =5".

The reliability as measured by Cronbach's alpha for the checklist, in general, was .92. The reliability coefficients of four parts of the checklist were as follows: listening ($r=.80$), speaking ($r=.78$), reading ($r=.83$), and writing ($r=.72$). The data provided strong evidence that the text book evaluation checklist, in general, and the four parts of questionnaire were reliable. The validity of the instrument was also checked and confirmed by two university professors.

3.2.3. Semi-structured Interviews

The researcher also interviewed five junior high school English teachers from Shiraz to explore their attitudes towards the representation of the language skills in the old (Right Path to English) and new (Prospect) junior high school textbooks. The interviews were held immediately after administering the questionnaires. All the interviewees had the experience of teaching the two book series (Prospect and Right Path to English). Depending on the interviewees' preferences, the interviews were held in classrooms.

The interviews were semi-structured. Each interview lasted about 15 minutes. The researchers, as the interviewers, used an interview guide to focus on (1) teacher's personal background, (2) their experiences of teaching, and (3) their attitudes towards the two textbook series. The interviews were all conducted in Persian. They were audio taped. Then, the researcher transcribed the tapes. All participants gave their consent orally, which was recorded along with the interview.

3.3. Data Analysis Procedure

The researchers fed the data into the computer and analyzed the data by SPSS (version 21) software. Then, the paired samples *t*-tests were run to compare the teachers' attitudes towards

the representation of three language sub skills in the two series. Regarding the interviews, data were analyzed qualitatively. First, the participants' answers to the interview questions were recorded and transcribed. Then, the written documents were examined based on the issues asked in the research questions. Finally, the major themes which emerged in the data were reported.

4. Results and Discussion

The researcher used the descriptive statistics to evaluate the two textbook series. As the responses were coded as "Strongly agree =5" to "Strongly disagree =1", a participant's response to any item fell between the highest possible score (5) and the lowest possible score (1). Therefore the average score for each item as well as the whole questionnaire fell between 1 to 5, and 3 was considered as the neutral point. Table 1 shows the results of the descriptive statistics of the teachers' attitudes.

Table 1
 Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Vocabulary1	2.6764	50	.76484	.10816
Pair 1 Vocabulary2	3.3382	50	.57585	.08144
Pair 2 Grammar1	2.7818	50	.76259	.10785
Pair 2 Grammar2	3.0764	50	.72712	.10283
Pair 3 Pronunciation1	2.4400	50	.90891	.12854
Pair 3 Pronunciation2	3.4960	50	.74750	.10571

The results indicate that the mean scores of the teachers' attitudes toward the new series in are higher than mid-point (vocabulary (mean=3.33), grammar (mean=3.07), and pronunciation (mean=3.49)). It shows that the teachers had favorable attitudes towards the representation of the language sub skills in the new series. The results also revealed that the teachers held unfavorable attitudes toward the representation of the language sub skills in the first series (vocabulary (mean=2.67), grammar (mean=2.78), and pronunciation (mean=2.44)). For a better understanding, Figure 1 depicts the bar graph of mean scores.

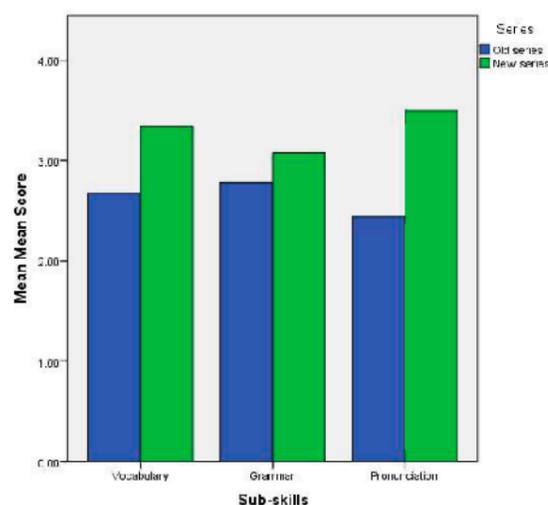


Figure 1 Bar Graph of Mean Scores for Old and New Series

Paired samples *t*-tests were computed using the mean scores to compare teachers' attitudes towards the representation of three language sub skills in the two series. An acceptable significance level was deemed to be $p < .05$. Table 2 presents the pertaining results.

Table 2
Paired Samples t-test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Vocabulary1 - Vocabulary2	-.66182	.94494	.13363	-.93037	-.39327	-4.952	49	.000
Pair 2 Grammar1 - Grammar2	-.29455	1.07637	.15222	-.60045	.01135	-1.935	49	.059
Pair 3 Pronunciation1 - Pronunciation2	-1.05600	1.17598	.16631	-1.39021	-.72179	-6.350	49	.000

The analysis of paired samples *t*-tests revealed that the teachers held significantly more favorable attitudes towards the representation of vocabulary and pronunciation in the new series compared with the old series (vocabulary (sig=.00), pronunciation (sig=.00)). Based on the mean scores presented in Table 1, the participants had more favorable attitudes towards the representation of vocabulary (mean=3.33) and pronunciation (mean=3.49) in the new series compared with the old series (vocabulary (mean=2.67) and pronunciation (mean=2.44)). The results also revealed that there was not any significant difference between the teachers' attitudes towards the representation of grammar in the new series compared to the old ones.

In the next step, the interview data were qualitatively analyzed. As mentioned earlier, the researcher also conducted a semi-structured interview to investigate teachers' attitudes towards the representation of language sub-skills in the old and new junior high school textbooks. In reviewing the teachers' responses, the following notable answers emerged:

- Regarding the pronunciation, the sounds of letters were mostly contextualized in the new series (Prospect).
- In Prospect series, the pronunciation was taught through conversations. It means that some letters were purposefully included in the conversations. It provided the opportunity for the learners to not only spell the words but also present the sound of the letter.
- In Prospect series, the presence of contextualized language especially vocabulary appears to facilitate students' learning.
- In the old series, grammar was presented deductively. In fact, the teachers were required to teach the grammar explicitly and then, ask students to make it specific with their examples. While, in Prospect series, grammar was mostly presented inductively. I as a teacher believe that the inductive presentation of grammar improved students' noticing and awareness.
- My students achieved greater phonological success with production in Prospect series compared with the Right path to English series.

5. Conclusion and Implication

The results showed that concerning the representation of vocabulary and pronunciation, the teachers' held significantly more favorable attitudes towards the new series of the junior high school text books (Prospect) compared to the old ones (Right Path to English). It shows

that in terms of the representation of vocabulary and pronunciation the new series of the junior high school text books were more acceptable and preferable to teachers than the old series. The results of the interviews also confirmed the quantitative results.

The results of the current study are in line with the results of the study conducted by Tayyebi et al. (2015). Employing a different instrument (Alamri, 2008) and recruiting two different sample groups (teachers, school students), they also concluded that teachers evaluated the new series (Prospect) as more preferable than the old ones (Right Path to English).

The results of the current study also confirmed the results of the study conducted by Golpour (2012) who evaluated the old junior high school English book series (Right Path to English). He also concluded that the Right Path to English series were inefficient. Mahdzade (2005), in his paper about the evaluation of secondary schools textbooks, also indicated that the content of English guidance schools books were not adequately compiled and designed.

5.1. Limitation of the Study

Limitations of the Study

This research like many other studies suffered from some limitations, for instance, the study is confined to explore the viewpoint of teachers of English as a foreign language in two provinces of Iran namely- Bushehr and Fars , and the number of males was less than females as well.

5.2. Suggestion for Further Research

In future studies, researchers can expand the number of participants, especially the number of males. They can also conduct study in different province of Iran.

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Appendix A Interview Guide

A.	Background information Where are you from? How long have you been teaching English? Have you ever taught these two books, (Prospect 1 and Right Path to English)?
B.	Attitudes towards the representation of language skills in the old and new books Are four language skills emphasized equally in these books? If not, what skills are emphasized more? Is the representation of language skills efficient? What do you think are the challenges of the two books (in terms of the representation of language skills)? Was the language included in these books for presenting language skills realistic and authentic?

Appendix B

Questionnaire of book evaluation

English Prospect and Right Path to way

Male Female Gender: Age

Teaching Experience: Less than 5 years 5-10 years 10-15 years 15-20 years More than 20 years

شماره محلّ تدریس:

استاد گرامر:

باسلام. پرسشنامه زیر در راستای انجام پروژه ای تحقیقاتی فراهم شده است و اطلاعات مندرج در آن به صورت بی نام و امانت نزد پژوهنده باقی خواهد ماند. لذا خواهشمندم در هنگام پاسخ به پرسش ها دقت کافی را مبذول فرمایید.
لطفا هر عبارت را با «» بخوانید و یکی از پنج گزینه (بسیار موافقم، موافقم، نظر خاصی ندارم، مخالفم، بسیار مخالفم) را در مورد هر دو سری از کتابهای مورد نظر را انتخاب کنید.

Previous Series: path to English

Prospect Recent Series:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Language Skills						
A. Listening						
1. The textbook has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
2. The listening passages help students develop their listening comprehension skills.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
3. The cassettes expose the students to the voices and pronunciation of the native speakers of English	Series 1					
	Series 2					
4. Listening material is well recorded, as authentic as possible.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
5. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity from literary, inferential to critical listening skills.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
7. The listening exercises focus on linguistic competence such as stress, intonation and form.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
B. Speaking						
1. Activities are developed to encourage student-student and student-teacher oral communication.	Series 1					

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(WWW.ELTL.IR), 31 January-1February 2019, Iran-Ahwaz, Book of Articles, Volume Two**

	Series 2					
2. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
3. Activities help students become a more confident English speaker.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
4. Speech exercises invite students to talk about their concerns and interests.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
5. The situations in the dialogues sound natural.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
6. There is sufficient material for spoken English (e.g. dialogues, role-plays, etc.) that help to de-emphasize teacher's talk.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
C. Reading						
1. There is sufficient reading material. (There is a range of varied and interesting reading text that can engage students cognitively and effectively.)	Series 1					
	Series 2					
2. The content helps students develop reading comprehension skills.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
3. Many of the reading passages are up-to-date, interesting and meaningful.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
4. Some reading passages are easy for most of the students to deal with.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
5. The Length of the reading texts is appropriate.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
6. The textbook uses authentic (real world) reading material at an appropriate level.	Series 1					
	Series 2					

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D. Writing						
1. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learners' capabilities.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
2. Writing Tasks are interesting.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
3. The writing tasks enhances free writing opportunities.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
4. The time allotted for teaching the material is sufficient.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
5. Some writings are easy for most of the students to deal with.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
6. Writings in the textbook are guided and controlled.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
7. The textbook leads students from simple controlled writing activities to guided writing activities.	Series 1					
	Series 2					
8. Writing activities are suitable in terms of length, degree of accuracy, and amount of guidance.	Series 1					
	Series 2					

If you have any comment on the two book series under investigation that is not included in the questionnaire, the researchers would be grateful to share with them.

Different approaches to Develop Learner Autonomy in Vocabulary Learning in Classroom

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Abstract

Vocabulary learning is one of the most challenging skills that EFL learners deal with it. Traditionally learners rely on their teachers but new approaches towards teaching encourage learner autonomy. In an academic level, learners should become more autonomous in learning foreign language vocabulary and try to find different ways of how to become more successful learners. They are forced to become autonomous and make conscious efforts to learn vocabulary outside of the classroom simply because exposure to target language is limited in classrooms. Therefore, the autonomy of the learner plays an important role in developing and enhancing their vocabulary. The aim of this study is exploring the application of learner autonomy in the context of vocabulary learning for English language students. In addition, it mentions the importance of learner's autonomy in vocabulary learning and learning strategies. Besides, it clarifies why teachers should enhance learner autonomy in vocabulary learning by exploring the role of both the teachers and learners. It also tries to find out how teachers can enhance learner autonomy in vocabulary learning and what is the expected effects of learner autonomy in vocabulary learning. The results of this study revealed that extensive reading could be one of the best approaches to develop vocabulary and lexicon in EFL learners. Teachers should try to include extensive reading in their curriculum for improving vocabulary skill.

Keywords: Autonomy, EFL, Learning Strategies, Vocabulary Learning

1.Introduction

Vocabulary learning is an important skill for English language acquisition. It is impossible for a learner to communicate without the required vocabulary. Successful second language acquisition needs active involvement of the learner. Teachers should try to enhance the strategic teaching of new language. Vocabulary, or word meaning, is one of the keys to understand a comprehension or paragraph or statements, so without understanding of words meaning, comprehension will not occur. One way students can develop vocabulary is indirectly through **reading, listening, and speaking**. A student's **background knowledge** and prior experiences can play a large role in vocabulary development. As students build connections between known words and unknown words, they develop a deeper understanding of their reading. Holec (1981) and Benson (2003) mentioned the necessity of autonomy in education. They stated that students who think and work strategically are more motivated to learn and have a higher sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their own learning ability. Then students who rely on themselves in learning vocabulary are more able to succeed academically. In addition, they are more motivated than those who do not have effective strategies in learning by themselves. Vocabulary is the basis of English language teaching because without enough vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. Wilkins (1972) believes that without grammar very little can be conveyed. However, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. In this paper, I want to focus on why teachers should focus on learner autonomy in vocabulary learning.

1.1. Definition of autonomy

Holec (1981, p.3) defines learner autonomy as the “ability to take charge of one’s own learning”, “it is not inborn but must be acquired either by ‘natural’ means or (as most often happens) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way”, and “To take charge of one’s learning is to have the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning. Autonomous learning is a kind of active learning which is often addressed in learning in various subject domains. Many educators assert that all learning is inherently active and that students are therefore actively involved while listening to class presentations. However, holistic learning occurs only when students are engaged not only in reading, writing, discussing, and reflecting on what they learn, but also in actively participating in higher-order thinking tasks such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Weimer, 2013). Autonomous learning derives from **individuals’** interests, and motivates self-exploration into knowledge and skills (Clegg, 2004). Improvements in the experiential knowledge base are also the result of the self-monitored learning approach. Autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning by utilizing a self-learning and reflection process. This deepens individuals thoughts and ideas, and leads to a reflective process in knowledge construction and skill development (Clegg, 2004) Within this context, it is suggested that strategies promoting active learning should be defined as activities in which students are doing things and thinking about what they are doing (Bonwell & Eison, 1991).

Reflective learning provides a learning experience for students to record and reflect deeply on their thoughts and feelings on issues and events that are basic part of their learning (Le & Le, 2007). The reflective process in vocabulary learning involves:

(1) Individuals are actively engaged in a given task, (2) Reflection is triggered by interesting, strange or perplexing situations or experiences, (3) Individuals re-examine their assumptions, presuppositions, and world views, and (4) Individuals develop a new understanding as the result of reflection (Roger, 2001). As argued by Boud et al. (1985), reflection during learning refers intellectual and affective activities in which learners explore their experiences in order to develop new understandings and appreciations.

1.2. Vocabulary learning

The following are some weakness' reasons students deal with learning vocabulary.

- a. Lacks the awareness to the objectives of learning vocabulary.
- b. Has a very limited experience of practicing conversation with native speaker.
- c. Has a serious problem in spelling.
- d. Lacks the motivation to learn the English Language.
- e. Lives in an environment where higher level vocabulary are not used.
- f. Has a Phobia of English language as a foreign language.
- g. Has a lower education level.
- h. Does not read much or has a reading problem.
- i. Has an auditory perception problem which makes it difficult to hear the subtle differences in words.
- j. Does not have a good understanding of the structure of language including parts of speech and word parts, prefixes, suffixes and word roots (Haddad, 2016).

Students cannot develop their autonomy alone; they should coordinate with their teachers in order to achieve the desired results. Little (1991) defines autonomy as follows:

1. Students should take responsibility for their own learning.

2. Taking responsibility involves learners in taking ownership (partial or total) of many processes which have traditionally belonged to the teacher, such as deciding on learning objectives, selecting learning methods and evaluating progress.

He further mentions that Learner autonomy is the product of an interactive process in which the **teacher gradually enlarges the scope of her learners' autonomy by gradually allowing them to take more control of the process and content of their learning.** Little wood (1996) stated that the goal of teaching is to produce learners that can act and think more independently and more autonomously. In addition, a strategy for developing autonomy is the main target of language teaching. Holec (1981) focuses on self-directed process of learning as follows:

- a. fixing the objectives
- b. defining the content and progressions
- c. selecting the methods and techniques to be used
- d. monitoring the acquisition procedure

1.3. Improving autonomy in vocabulary learning

Learning any foreign language requires learning words of that language. The words are stored and retrieved in the human brain. The learners should repeat the words if they aim to remember them and use them for communication. Language learning strategies are crucial in teaching and learning, especially in encouraging learner autonomy. Learning all language vocabulary is difficult, so, learners should find other ways to learn vocabulary. Learner autonomy has many advantages as follows:

- a. Learner autonomy enhances the learner's motivation and leads to more effective vocabulary learning.
- b. Learner autonomy provides learners with more free opportunities for English communication in a non-native environment.
- c. Learner autonomy focuses on the individual needs of learners at all levels.
- d. Learner autonomy supports self-confidence.
- e. Learner autonomy enhances the learner's willingness towards active learning.

Boud (1995) believes that an autonomous learner is the one who is prepared to take some significant responsibility for his own learning. An autonomous learner should make decisions about his/her own learning, he/she should be able to set realistic goals, plan program of work, develop strategies for coping with new and unforeseen situations, evaluate and assess his/her own work and generally to learn how to learn from his/her own successes and failures in ways which will help his/her to be more efficient learners in the future. Autonomous learners participate in learning, and are reflective about their own learning.

1.4. Strategies to improve vocabulary learning

Ruutemets (2005) believes that vocabulary learning strategies contains knowledge about what learners do to find out the meaning of new words, retain them in long-term memory, recall them when needed in comprehension and use them in language production. Discovery strategies are used for gaining initial information about a new word (Schmitt, 2000). The most common strategies in this area take the form of memorizing, repetition and note -taking. It is believed that the strategies seem to be self-independent; learners work out the meaning of the new words by themselves socially based on interaction with other people. The latter may also mean that learners get the word meaning by asking other people or through their interaction with others as well as through dictionaries. Whilst, consolidation strategies is used to reinforce and remember a word

once it has been introduced (Schmitt, 2000). These strategies include a more in-depth look at the meaning which employs tactics such as inference, imagery, active manipulation and key-word technique. It is also classified into four main strategy groups; memory, cognitive, metacognitive and social. Memory strategy includes memorization techniques such as grouping a word with its association, using key words, semantic mapping and reviewing in a structured way. While cognitive strategies are repetition and using mechanical means to study vocabulary, for example keeping of vocabulary notebooks. Furthermore, metacognitive strategies are used by learners to control and evaluate their learning. Among the many activities that can be used by learners, such strategies may include planning, monitoring and evaluating. Learners as well can consolidate the word learnt by studying and practicing in groups, with peers or a method of teaching that require social strategies (Haddad, 2016).

1.5. Factors affecting vocabulary learning

Vocabulary learning is affected by many factors which can be broadly categorized into two groups: words and learners. (Ellis, 2002) mentioned that high frequencies words are more easily recognized than words at low frequencies. This means that the more often the words are come upon; the higher the chance learners are able to being an autonomous learner means using different learning strategies. Nation (1997) states that learners need to be able to use vocabulary strategies to cope with unknown vocabulary met in listening or reading texts, to make up for gaps in productive vocabulary in speaking and writing, to gain fluency in using known vocabulary and to learn new words in isolation. Most of the strategies can begin to be developed in the earliest English classes. Rubin (1987) mentions the strategies for improving vocabulary learning:

- a. Develop word awareness and love of words through increasing motivation. Develop explicit, rich instruction to build vocabulary.
- b. Build strategies for independence.

Haddad (2016) found some strategies to build student vocabularies by focusing on these practices. Here are strategies that teachers use in their classrooms for teaching vocabulary.

Table 1: What is involved in knowing a word?

Aspect	Component	Receptive knowledge	Productive knowledge
Form	spoken written word parts	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
		What does the word look like?	How is the word written and spelled?
		What parts are recognizable in this word?	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	form and meaning concepts and referents	What meaning does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
		What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
Use	grammatical functions collocations	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
		What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?

There are lots of different ways for improving autonomous vocabulary learning. However, it seems that the key issue for student's support in developing autonomy in classroom is engagement, which completely relies on both instructor and student. Student's Engagement will be highly reflected in their behavioural intensity, emotional quality, and personal interaction that will be reflected in their behaviour during a learning activity. Student's behaviour is represented in different action and reaction that shows students interest and motivation to develop their autonomy. The extent of student's behaviour is presented as follows:

- **Attention: Concentration and on-task focus.**
- **Effort: abilities and capacities in what they are doing.** (Their own interpretation in finding the meaning of a word)
- **Persistence: intensive efforts over time, even facing difficulties.**

Engagement gives teachers the moment-to-moment feedback they need to identify how well their efforts to motivate students to develop their autonomy are working (Haddad, 2016).

1.6. Teacher's role in learner's autonomous ability

In learner autonomous vocabulary learning the teacher's role is reduced and they become facilitators. But this does not mean that teachers become passive in learning process; teachers still have various roles: they can teach vocabulary relevant to tasks in hand, judge and give instruction in strategies which help retention. Teachers should improve autonomous learning because it is important for their students. Also they should teach strategies to learn vocabulary autonomously. Deep vocabulary learning strategies take more time but ensure greater retention and ease from memory (Haddad, 2016). Reading a variety of texts on the same theme will ensure multiple exposure to relevant items. Making extensive use of dictionaries, building up deep knowledge through word associations and revising to ensure retention are different ways for learning vocabulary. Teachers have an ongoing role both in using deep strategies in class work and in

training learners in their use. This is especially true for weaker learners, who tend to use even shallow strategies ineffectively: they guess inaccurately from context and do not later modify wrong guesses, and they do not read widely enough. But it is the teacher responsibility to foster the student's ability of autonomous learning by designing class activities and create positive atmosphere, a language context and make students want to learn and know how to learn. Teachers should develop autonomy because vocabulary learning is unique to each student. In addition, the class time for vocabulary is extremely limited compared with the immense number of vocabulary items that learners need to acquire. All these points demonstrate that studying vocabulary on their own is a must for all learners, the best preparation the teacher can provide is to " help them become more autonomous" (Scharle , 2000, Haddad,2016).

When trying to find an answer to this question the following ideas can be considered:

1. It is not straightforward process.
2. Teachers need stimulus and encouragement to create pedagogy for autonomy.
3. Teachers must realize by themselves that they can do what at first seemed impossible.
4. Teachers should be able to work on a collaborative basis.
5. Teachers must be autonomous themselves to be able to develop their learner's autonomy. If teachers themselves are autonomous and motivated they can promote greater autonomy in their students(Scharle , 2000).

Omaggio (1997) states some strategies for improving autonomy in students:

1. Encourage students to be interdependent and work collectively. Explain student's roles from the outset. Asking students to give their opinions on the issue of roles could be beneficial.
2. Give the students projects to do outside the classroom to increase motivation.
3. Give the students non-lesson classroom duties to perform (taking roll, writing instructions, etc.)
4. Have the students design lessons or materials to be used in class.
5. Instruct student on how to use the university's resource centers.
6. Emphasize the importance of peer editing, corrections and follow-up questioning in the classroom.
7. Encourage the students to use only English in class, Stress fluency rather than accuracy.

Learner has crucial role in developing their autonomy in vocabulary learning, they should:

- a. Decide which words are worth learning.
- b. Learn to use the context, phrases, and hints provided in sentences (Haddad, 2016).

1.7. The Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary mentioned by Alqahtani(2015) :

a. Using Objects

Using this technique includes the use of realia, visual aids, and demonstration. They can function to help learners in remembering vocabulary better, because our memory for objects and pictures is very reliable and visual techniques can act as cues for remembering words

b. Drawing Objects can either be drawn on the blackboard or drawn on flash cards.

The latter can be used again and again in different contexts if they are made with cards and covered in plastic. They can help young learners easily understand and realize the main points that they have learned in the classroom.

c.Using Illustrations and Pictures

Pictures connect students' prior knowledge to a new story, and in the process, help them learn new words. There are plenty of vocabularies that can be introduced by using illustrations or pictures. They are excellent means of making the meaning of unknown words clear. The list of

pictures includes: posters, flashcards, wall charts, magazine pictures, board drawings, stick figures and photographs.

d. Contrast

Some words are easily explained to learners by contrasting it with its opposite, for instance, the word "good" contrasted with the word "bad". But some words are not. It is almost impossible to contrast the words whose opposite is the gradable one. When the word "white" is contrasted with the word "black", there is an "in between" word "grey".

e. Enumeration

An enumeration is a collection of items that is a complete, ordered listing of all of the items in that collection. It can be used to present meaning. In other words, this technique helps when any word is difficult to explain visually. We can say "clothes" and explain this by enumerating or listing various items. Teacher may list a number of clothes e.g., a dress, a skirt, trousers etc., then the meaning of the word "clothes" will become clear. The same is true of 'vegetable' or "furniture". (Harmer 1991).

f. Mime, Expressions and Gestures

Klippel (1994) implies that "mime or gesture is useful if it emphasizes the importance of gestures and facial expression on communication. Many words can be introduced through mime, expressions, and gestures. For example, adjectives: "sad", "happy"; mime and taking a hat off your head to teach hat and so on.

g. Guessing from Context

Guessing from context as a way of dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary in unedited selections has been suggested widely by L1 and L2 reading specialists (Dubin, 1993). Nation and Coady (1988) claim that there are two types of contexts. The first type is the context within the text, which includes morphological, semantic and syntactic information in a specific text, while the second one is the general context, or non-textual context, which is the background knowledge the reader has about the subjects.

H. Eliciting

This technique is more motivating and memorable by simply giving pupils a list of words to learn.

I. Translation

Even though translation does not create a need or motivation of the learners to think about word meaning (Cameron, 2001), in some situations translation could be effective for teachers, such as **when dealing with incidental vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002), checking students' comprehension,** and pointing out similarities or differences between first and second language, when these are **likely to cause errors (Takač, 2008). There are always some words that need to be translated and** this technique can save a lot of time.

J. Drilling

Drilling is employed to make learners get accustomed to the word form especially to how it sounds. To make learners more familiar with the word, drilling should be clear and natural (Thornbury, 2002). Drilling is very necessary since learners need to say the word to themselves as they learn it to recall the words from memory (Ellis & Beaton, 1993, in Read, 2000).

k. Spelling the Word

The primary means of spelling is actually memorizing words (Reed, 2012). Word spelling needs to be considered since spelling forms of English words is not always inferred by the pronunciation.

k. Learners' Active Involvement

Employing this technique, the teacher encourages the students to find out word's meaning by elicitation (Takač, 2008). Elicitation maximizes learners' speaking opportunities, and acts as a way of checking learners' understanding (Thornbury, 2002). This technique also includes personalization, which is using the word by learners in a context or sentence that is related to their life. Related to the above techniques, Pinter (2006) argues that teachers are suggested to conduct planned presentations of vocabulary as various as possible, so it is better that teachers present word meaning and form by combining more than one technique.

2. Literature review

Knowing or having the knowledge of a word in ELT depends on methods used for vocabulary teaching. Over the centuries, there have been several methods for teaching vocabulary. The aim of the first method (The Grammar Translation) was for example to prepare students to read, to understand and to write classical materials. Grammar-Translation Method did not include direct vocabulary instruction unless a word illustrated a grammatical rule or without providing any definition, the explanations depended mostly on etymology. Although it had been the dominant method that was used from eighteenth to twentieth century, in 1880's, under the name of "The Reform Movement", another method was propounded by Henry Sweet. The emphasis was on the spoken language and phonetic training. His system consisted of five stages. (Mechanical stage, grammatical stage, Idiomatic Stage, Literary Stage, and Archaic stage.) Each stage serves for different controlled purposes of spoken language. The most remarkable point of this method was to avoid isolated sentences or separated words throughout the study. The next major method, in terms of vocabulary improvement, is Michael West's The Reading Method/Situational Language Teaching, in which he stressed the need to facilitate reading skill by improving vocabulary skills. In the mid 90's with the appearance of new teaching methods such as audio-lingual teaching and, following the former, communicative approach and Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach in which vocabulary was mainstay of meaning and key to clear comprehension of the message. Current research into corpus analysis represent prominent theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past and all four of them challenge traditional views of word boundaries by emphasizing the collocation and lexis patterns (Alqahtani, 2015).

Choosing to read based on your taste, which is called free voluntary reading, is a way to achieve second language proficiency. Moreover, the book the reader is interested in facilitates readers' concentration on the book and enables them to take advantage of background information that facilitates comprehension (Cho & Krashen, 1994). Krashen (2003) believes in the power of reading for the development of first, second or foreign language competence. He displays some case studies to support his claim of the power of recreational reading for progress. Extensive reading leads learners to acquire the language if they are sufficiently exposed to the language and if they have the materials that are interesting for them. Krashen (2004) brings in the term "narrow reading" for the extensive reading the learners do on the areas of their own interest. Reading can broaden learners' language competence by providing automaticity of recognizing and decoding words and written symbols of a printed message (Grabe, 1991). Moreover, it can increase the learners' exposure to the language. However, the quality of exposure to language is very important to their motivation to acquire new forms from the input. This exposure to language is more likely to reduce the gap between L1 and L2.

Extensive reading can cause an increase in the range of vocabulary the learner possesses. Unlike direct vocabulary instruction, children between three and twelve grades can learn up to 3000 words a year (Nagy & Herman, 1987) if they do extensive reading.

A number of L1 studies that appear to show the positive effect of reading on subjects' writing skills (Stotsky, 1983; Krashen, 1984). **Reading materials should fulfill students' needs and it should be interesting in order to motivate them to read.** Extensive reading is important in consolidation of previously learned knowledge as they support new language forms by repeating adequately (Wodinsky & Nation, 1988). In addition, since background knowledge is activated during reading process it facilitates the development of prediction skills.

Writers and researches have not agreed on a common definition what extensive reading is and different meanings have been attributed to extensive reading in language teaching (Hedge, 2000). For instance, Bamford & Day (1998, p.5) defines it as "real-world reading but for pedagogical purpose." Intensive reading is an explicit way of learning and it involves the preselected texts which the students study word by word whereas the extensive reading aims the contrary. It also involves the texts that are chosen deliberately and short usually about 300-500 words long. In this type, reading the focus is on language features such as grammar, discourse and vocabulary. Unlike extensive reading, analyzing sentence structures in terms of grammatical elements and looking up every unknown word is the primary aim of intensive reading. By using term, "intensive reading" Palmer (1921/1964, p.111) meant "take a text, study it line by line, referring at every moment to our dictionary and our grammar, comparing, analyzing, translating, and retaining every expression that it contains." For Palmer (1964) extensive reading is reading book after book rapidly, and the goal is not language, but the meaning. The purpose is to read for ordinary reasons such as pleasure or information; however, he saw the pedagogic value of both types of reading. Extensive reading requires large amount of reading in the second language. The reading texts in integrated course books are highly controlled and there is that risk of encountering uninteresting or insufficient texts in terms of variety. These books are useful to teach structure of the target language; however, the reading parts are deprived of interesting texts or new vocabulary. On the other hand, the words enter the readers' sight vocabulary since the readers' encounter multiple words while reading graded readers (Williams, 1996). Graded readers are books for English language learners who have limited lexis and syntax and the primary purpose of graded readers is to provide text for extensive reading. According to the issues mentioned here, the following questions were asked:

1. What is the effect of extensive reading on improving vocabulary skill of learners?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The sample of this study included 40 learners studying EFL at the intermediate level in a language institute in Tabriz. They were selected based on a modified PET test. The participants whose scores were at least one standard deviation below or above the mean score were selected. Then, the participants were divided into two groups, one the experimental (N= 20) and the other the control (N=20). All of the participants were females and their ages varied from 14 to 25. Their first language was Turkish. Tabriz is a city with bilingual people. The mother tongue of people is Turkish and second language is Farsi. The foreign language taught in classrooms is English.

3.2. The Instruments

To select homogeneous participants for the current study a modified PET test from was administered. This test contained 50 items. This test consisted of reading comprehension (20 items in forms of Multiple-choice items), grammar (27 items in the form of multiple choice), and writing (3 items including three topics for writing) for homogenizing their language proficiency. The allocated time for answering the questions was 1 hour. After correcting the papers, 40 students were selected as the intermediate learners out of 58 students. The score for the proficiency test was out of 100. The books taught in the classrooms were TOP NOTCH books 2A. These books were taught in both classes and the teacher was the instructor of both classes. Students in the experimental group were supposed to use simplified reading stories from website <https://www.fluentu.com>. However, the other students in the control group just studied the usual books of the English institute. Students in both classes were supposed to summarize the reading parts in their books. Their first summary was considered as the pre-test and the last summary was considered as the post-test.

3.3. Procedure

To do this research, the researcher selected two classes at intermediate level to do the research. A proficiency test was administered to be sure of the homogeneity of the participants. In the treatment, the usual book of the English institute was taught during eight sessions in one month. In each of the 8 sessions, students were supposed to write the summaries of the reading part of their book. Students in the experimental group received simplified short stories. These learners were encouraged to notice linguistic items while reading the short stories. In the control group, students just studied the books provided by the institute and they did not have access to simplified short stories. The first summary of reading part of the books were used as the pre-test and the last summary as post-test. The researcher used Hughes (2005) writing to score their writing. This scale consisted of content, organization, grammar, vocabulary and mechanics of the writings which was scored from 0-6. The whole of the score for this scale was out of 30.

4. Results and Discussion

The data in this study was obtained through calculating the descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistical method of independent samples T-test for determining the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable and the degree of progress of the participants from the pretest to the posttest. The results of t-test on PET test for homogenizing two groups are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Independent sample t-test for PET scores

group	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig(2-tailed)	F	t	df
control	20	65.75	.01350	.04235	.810	1.583	-.244	38
experimental	20	64.61	.07624	.04377	.810		-.244	37.217

As Table 1 shows, scores in the PET test for the control group are (M =65.75, SD =.013) and experimental group (M=64.61 SD =.076), t (38) =-.244, P>.05. The results show that there isn't a significant difference between two groups in the beginning of the study.

Table 2
Independent Sample t-test in the Pre and Post Tests

group	N	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig(2-tailed)	F	t	df
Pre control	20	22.65	.09150	.02135	.760	1.373	-.194	38
experimental	20	24.61	.07624	.04177	.760		-.194	37.236
Post control	20	32.84	.24583	.01218	.000	25.925	-1.259	38
experimental	20	50.19	.26576	.03325	.000		-1.259	36.669

As Table 2 shows, scores in the pre-test for the control group are (M =22.65, SD =.091) and experimental group (M=24.61 SD =.076), $t(38) = -.194$, $P > .05$. The mean score shows that two groups grammar knowledge in the pre-test were the same. In the post-test, scores for the control group (M =32.84, SD =.24) and the experimental group (M=50.19, SD = .26), $t(38) = -1.259$, $P = .000$. The results show that there is a significant difference between two groups in the post-test. In the post-test, the experimental group outperforms the control group in the summary writing. It seems that extensive reading can be helpful for language achievement and should be considered in teacher's curriculum.

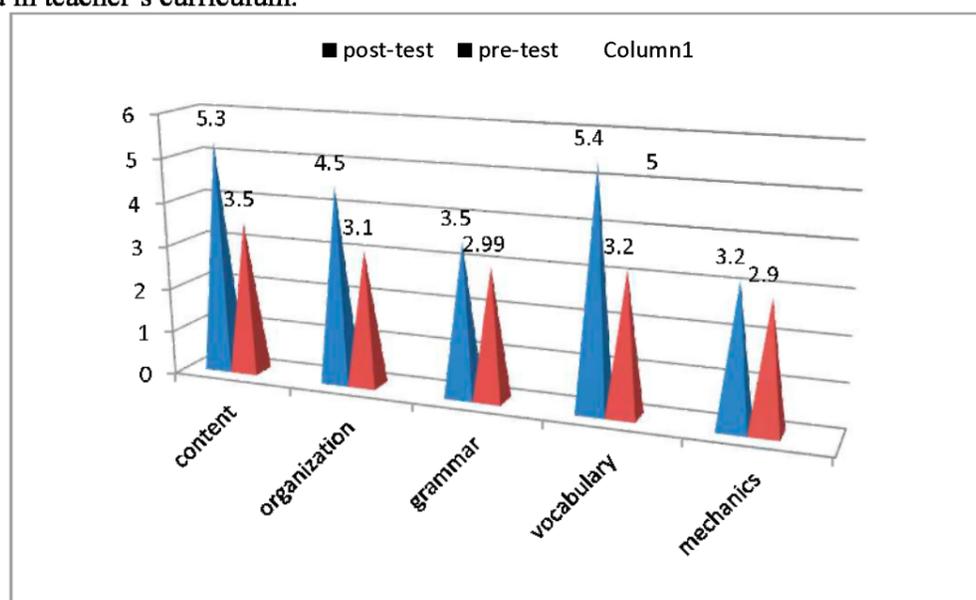


Figure1. *The Improvement of Writing performance in the Experimental Group*

According to the results in Fig. 1, students in the experimental group had improvements in the post-test. vocabulary and Content improved better than the other parts in the post-test. It seems that extensive reading helps learners to notice to vocabulary and learn using new vocabulary in their writing.

5. Conclusion and implication(s)

Research has shown that second language readers rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge and the lack of that knowledge is the main and the largest obstacle for L2 readers to overcome (Huckin, 1995). In production, when we have a meaning or concept that we wish to express, we need to have a store of words from which we can select to express this meaning or concept. “When students travel, they don’t carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries” (Krashen, as cited in Lewis, 1993, p.25). Many researchers argue that vocabulary is one of the most important-if not the most important- components in learning a foreign language and foreign language curricula must reflect this. Wilkins (1972) states that: “There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say ... While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” p.97). Other scholars such as Richards (1980) and Krashen (1989), as cited in Maximo (2000) state many reasons for devoting attention to vocabulary. “First, a large vocabulary is of course essential for mastery of a language. Second language acquirers know this; they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that the lack of vocabulary is a major problem”. On the other hand, vocabulary has been acknowledged as L2 learners’ greatest single source of problems (Meara, 1980). This remark may possibly reflect that the open endedness of a vocabulary system is perceived to be a cause of difficulty by learners. Another possible reason is that, unlike syntax and phonology, vocabulary does not have rules the learners may follow to acquire and develop their knowledge. In other words, it is not clear in L2 vocabulary learning what rules apply or which vocabulary items should be learned first. Oxford (1990) also claims that vocabulary is “by far the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language, whether a foreign or one’s mother tongue, because of tens of thousands of different meanings” Despite these difficulties that language learners face in L2 vocabulary, they still have to deal with it in their examinations as “vocabulary has traditionally been one of the language components measured in language tests” (Schmitt, 1999, 189). Furthermore, many learners see second language acquisition (SLA) as essentially a matter of learning vocabulary and therefore they spend a great deal of time on memorizing lists of L2 words and rely on their bilingual dictionary as a basic communicative resource. As a result, language teachers and applied linguists now generally recognize the importance of vocabulary learning and are exploring ways of promoting it more effectively. Some of this research takes the form of investigation of strategies learners use specifically for vocabulary (VLS), which is our focus of attention. Recent research indicates that teaching vocabulary may be problematic because many teachers are not confident about the best practice in vocabulary teaching and at times do not know where to begin to form an instructional emphasis on word learning (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). Teaching words is a crucial aspect in learning a language as languages are based on words (Thornbury, 2002). It is almost impossible to learn a language without words; even communication between human beings is based on words.

Both teachers and students agree that acquisition of the vocabulary is a central factor in teaching a language (Walters, 2004). Teaching vocabulary is one of the most discussed parts of teaching English as a foreign language. When the teaching and learning process take place, problems would appear to the teachers. They have problems of how to teach students in order to gain satisfying results. The teacher should prepare and find out the appropriate techniques, which will be implemented to the students. A good teacher should prepare himself or herself with various

and up-to-date techniques. Teachers need to be able to master the material in order to be understood by students, and make them interested and happy in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. The teachers should be concerned that teaching vocabulary is something new and **different from student's native language. They also have to take into account that** teaching English for young learners is different from adults. The teachers have to know the characteristics of his/her learners. They more need to prepare good techniques and suitable material in order to gain the target of language teaching. Vocabulary can be defined as " words we must know to communicate effectively; words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary)" (Neuman & Dwyer, 2009, p. 385). Hornby (1995) defines vocabulary as words in a **language; vocabulary is a list of words with their meanings". While Ur (1998) states "Vocabulary** can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than just a single word: for example, post office, and mother-in-law, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary "items" rather than "words." In addition, Burns (1972) defines vocabulary as " the stock of words which is used by a person, class or profession. According to Zimmerman cited in Coady and Huckin (1998) '**vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learning. Furthermore, Diamond and Gutlohn (2006) in www.readingrockets.org/article state that vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings."** From the definitions above, it can be concluded that vocabulary is the total number of words that are needed to communicate ideas and express the speakers' meaning. That is the reason why it is important to learn vocabulary. This small-scale research investigated whether extensive reading plays an important role on vocabulary development of elementary level EFL learners. The interaction between vocabulary development and reading, as it was mentioned in the literature review above, is notably important.

This research revealed **that extensive reading affects positively EFL learners' vocabulary** development and it ensures more word learning even though the subjects were reluctant to learn English at school. The results of the data analysis demonstrate that extensive reading improved the range of the words of the reluctant learners in the experimental group who were asked to read graded readers.

Further research is needed to insert extensive reading to the EFL curricula. **Extensive reading might be effective on students' writing skills.** Therefore, the authors of this study would like to attract the attention of the scholars for a research on the relationship of extensive reading and the development of writing skills in terms of the format. The paper discusses the importance of learner autonomy in learning vocabulary. The use of language learning strategies can improve learner autonomy because they are steps taken by the learners themselves and the students should not rely on a teacher to learn new words. Learner autonomy is crucial especially in academic situation. Learner autonomy can be improved by the teachers through the use of different approaches which need to be considered based on the **students' needs, interests and motivation.** extensive reading plays a critical role in developing knowledge, and teachers accelerate this process by teaching strategies for learning words independently, including the use of dictionaries and other reference works, and exploring the link between spelling and learning words. To conclude, it is not teacher's responsibility to teach all vocabulary to the learners. Learners should rely on themselves by adopting strategies that suit their abilities in learning vocabulary. Vocabulary learning is not an easy task. But with practice and time, learners should find out that

they are developing. Learners should study items that appear in many contexts. Learning in rich contexts is valuable for vocabulary learning (Haddad, 2016). When vocabulary items are derived from content learning materials, the learner will be better equipped to deal with specific reading matter in content areas. Learners will feel that vocabulary learning is effective when it consists of active engagement in learning tasks. Autonomous learners in learning vocabulary should have a continuous desire of learning vocabulary and they should develop their strategic ways of learning.

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The Effect of Social Media on Improving EFL Students' Vocabulary

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Abstract

Social media has a vital role in language acquisition. The development of social media has become a global phenomenon. Recently, people spend most of their time on Internet programmes such as social media. These social media provide students with a suitable learning environment such as automaticity of learning and visualization technique. Learning English through social media is interesting and motivating. This study concentrates on how social media make it possible to learn English fluently and automatically or unconsciously. Through the use of Facebook and YouTube, students share knowledge and information between them; leading to cooperative students. Technology facilitates the process of learning English unconsciously. Social media become an indispensable part of our life, they are available and easy to handle or use by people. So, there is a direct connection between the use of these social media and the learning of English language. The population of the present study covers all the second-year students of Al-Kadhumi University College, college of Arts, Department of English, Missan, Iraq, for the academic year 2017-2018. The college has two classes, A, B, with 62 students in the first, 62 students in the second. Class A was randomly chosen to be the experimental group. Students at the EG were taught through using social media application; Facebook. As for the CG, students were taught using the techniques recommended by the prescribed textbook; English Vocabulary in Use. Both the EG and the CG were taught by the researcher. The results of the current study indicate that Iraqi college students need to practise social media applications in order to use the language in communicative situations. Furthermore, social media plays a vital role in motivating college students in creating groupings among them to share information in real-life situations. Henceforth, social media provide the students with appropriate educational environment in which they participate unconsciously.

Keywords: Social Media; Learning Vocabulary; Facebook; Students'-Raising Motivation

1. Introduction

The rise of the use of Internet has permitted learning to escape from the boundaries of usual classroom environment in which learners have to attend for long hours. Development of computer technology and increase of personal computers paved the way for the use of Internet by millions of people worldwide. In language teaching and learning, social media present an ocean of information for improving language vocabulary. It is possible to find examples for every subject that is taught in classroom.

Vocabulary, the major part of any language, is undoubtedly the most perplexing and time-consuming part of learning a language. It takes time and flows like a continuous process, once you have settled the rudiments of a language (pronunciation, orthography and basic grammar). Throughout this process, learners become familiarised with the words they come across (Adrian and Mirabela, 2017, p. 123).

Our contemporary society calls 21st century: "the century of information" and they are right in this description. Social media, which is not a new concept. It is the fastest growing web application in the 21st century. Social media has impacted many aspects of human lives, thereby

impacting learning and teaching EFL. It provides EFL learners with unlimited resources of authentic written, audio, and video materials in order to supplement lessons. EFL students can find a wide and different collection of materials for learners to study in class or after class for independent learning and to encourage learner autonomy. More recently, the social media websites has created new opportunities for EFL learners to interact in reliable ways that were previously difficult to realize.

2. The Objectives of the study

There are two primary objectives of this study are to:

- Explore the theoretical background in the teaching and learning of vocabulary in Al-Kadhum university college students.
- Investigate some social media **applications that influence students' performance of vocabulary acquisition**, such as Facebook and blogging.

3. Definitions of Basic Terms

The following is concerned with definitions of the basic terms and notions mentioned here in this experimental study.

3.1 Definition of Social Media

The term 'social media' is frequently mentioned in various contexts with different meaning. Here are some definitions. The use of social media has changed people's communicative patterns over the last 10 years by enabling users "to create, distribute, share and manipulate different types of content, most of them publicly accessible".

"Social Media" is defined as online media enabling users to interact with one another online through various web applications allowing users to create, distribute, share and manipulate a variety of contents including texts, pictures, video, songs, etc. to other net-users, and these contents can be accessible publicly. Social media investigated in this study include Blogs, YouTube, Twitter, Instagram etc. (Alassiri, Muda and Ghazali 2014, p. 1)

Social media can supply the students with lots of opportunities and activities that enable them to create peer-work or group-work activities through which natural learning of vocabulary can occur. Students' engagement with English outside the classroom can be defined as how students use English to achieve a language function outside the classroom. Using English outside the class does not simply mean study more, but it refers to using English to reach the students' own goals, such as to watch cartoon with English soundtrack for their enjoyment, to use English-English dictionary to solve linguistic problems, etc. It can be noted that students' engagements with English outside the classroom can be carried out both through social media or printed and multimedia materials, For example, in the case of watching cartoon, it can be done by using social media like from websites or from CD or TV. Moreover, there are more options for using English-English dictionary, such as online or printed dictionary, and websites or application serving as a dictionary.

3.2 Definition of Vocabulary

There is no language without vocabulary, all languages consist of words. Siriwan (2007, p. 19) suggests that "Vocabulary learning is referred to as learning a collection or the total stock of words in a language that are used in particular contexts". Additionally, vocabulary can be defined as is a set of lexemes, including single words, compound words and idioms (Richards

and Schmidt, 2010, p. 629). Vocabulary knowledge is very essential for students to acquire because they enable them to interact naturally; henceforward Nation (2001, p. 22) states that vocabulary knowledge implies knowing a word in the spoken form of the word and the spoken form can be recognised and understood in and out of context rather than guessed.

3.2.1 *Types of Vocabulary*

When it comes to the taxonomy of vocabulary the matter differs variously and controversially. Many linguists divide vocabulary into two types: active and passive vocabulary. Others like Barcroft (2015, p. 118) indicates two kinds of vocabulary, namely receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary is words that learners recognize and understand when they are used in context, but which they cannot produce.

However; Productive Vocabulary is the words that the learners understand and can pronounce correctly and use constructively in speaking and writing. It involves what is needed for receptive vocabulary plus the ability to speak or write at the appropriate time. Therefore, productive vocabulary can be addressed as an active process, because the learners can produce the words to express their thoughts to others.

3.2.2 *How Many Words can be taught?*

According to Grabe (2009, p. 280), reports that to be fluent, students need vocabulary from 4000 to 6000 words. Thornbury (2002: 20) notes **that most second language learners 'will be lucky to have acquired 5,000 word families even after several years of study'**. It has been calculated that a classroom learner would need more than eighteen years of learning to supply the same amount of vocabulary input that occurs in just one year in natural settings.

Thus, **the number of words that the student needs to know depends on the learner's needs.** A learner needs a core vocabulary that will serve him in most situations; this core would be about 2,000 words. Vocabulary knowledge size must take into account productive and receptive knowledge, then there is knowledge of spelling and pronunciation, of derivative forms and of **different shades of meaning**. **Again, these different aspect of 'knowing' suggest that the task of acquiring a functional lexicon is more complicated than simply memorizing words.** The matter is controversial; many factors depend on students' **needs, interests and desired**. **But, a statistical form, the aforementioned numbers have been studied and investigated thoroughly to show the actual number the students need to communicate fluently in real-life situations.**

3.2.3 *What is involved in knowing a word?*

On the level of learning a word, it can be said that knowing a word is a complex cognitive process; it includes understanding many facets of word knowledge. Scholars have identified different types of word knowledge. Nation (2001, p. 27) declares that knowing a word involves knowing its form, meaning and use. And each category is broken down into receptive and productive knowledge. Each of these three categories can be found in table 1 the below which signifies that the word knowledge requires three main stages. Opening by the word form, the word meaning and then the word use. The word form contains the knowledge of the spoken and the written form besides its different parts. The second component is the word meaning. It is concerned with the relation between the form and the meaning of a specific word. Finally, the last stage of knowing a word is being familiar with its use. It deals with the application of the word meaning in context.

Form	Spoken	Receptive	What does the word sound like?
		Productive	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	Receptive	What does the word look like?
		Productive	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	Receptive	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		Productive	What word parts are needed to express this meaning?
Meaning	Form & meaning	Receptive	What meaning does this word form signal?
		Productive	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept & referents	Receptive	What is included in the concept?
		Productive	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	Receptive	What other words does this make us think of?
		Productive	What other words can we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	Receptive	In what patterns does this word occur?
		Productive	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	Receptive	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		Productive	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency...)	Receptive	Where, when and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		Productive	Where, when and how often can we use this word?

Table 1. What is involved in knowing a word? Nation (2001, p. 27)

3.2.4 Difficulties in teaching and learning vocabulary

Conventionally speaking, learning vocabulary is not an easy task. There are many problems occurring in learning vocabulary faced by the students. Thornbury (2002, p. 27-28) states that the difficulty of vocabulary items depends on a number of factors:

- a. Pronunciation: A wide range of research has proven that words that are difficult to pronounce are more difficult to acquire.
- b. **Spelling: the phenomenon that is called “sound-spelling mismatching” is the main source of making errors.**
- c. Length and Complexity: Long words seem to be no more difficult to acquire than short ones. But as a rule of thumb, high frequency words tend to be short ones in English, and therefore the student is likely to meet them more often, a factor favouring their learnability. In addition, variable stress in polysyllabic words- such as in word families like necessary, necessity and necessarily can add to their complexity.
- d. Grammar: the difficulty in equivalent between the L1 and L2 in word **affect students’** vocabulary learning
- e. Meaning: when two words overlap in meaning, students are likely to confuse them for example **“make” and “do”**
- f. Range, connotation and idiomaticity: Words that can be used in a wide range of contexts will **generally be perceived as easier than their synonyms with a narrower range.** Thus **“put” is a very wide-ranging verb, compared to “impose”, “place”, :position”, etc.**

4. The Position of vocabulary in English language teaching

Vocabulary has a requisite role when it comes to language learning. Vocabulary is part of the complex language system. Vocabulary is the core of a language. A large body of research has been achieved to provide overwhelming confirmation that a considerable amount of vocabulary development occurs as a result of incidental learning (unplanned or indirect learning; social media provide such kind of collaborative learning or unconscious learning of vocabulary) encounters with language. Vocabulary is the tool of thought, self-expression, translation and communication. Most students in Iraqi classrooms spend many years studying English grammar, but they still cannot speak fluent, natural English.

No doubt, knowing the grammar can help students speak and write correctly. However, more importantly, students need to have good vocabulary knowledge to speak and write naturally and effectively. Many studies have shown that vocabulary knowledge and background knowledge can help students read and comprehend better. The more vocabulary students know, the better they can decode and understand what they read. Chacon, Abello-Contesse and Torreblanca-Lopez (2010, p. 18) argue that incidental vocabulary learning is essential for language development; this is not to suggest, however, that direct instruction of vocabulary does **not play an important role. "In production, when we have a meaning or concept that we want to express, we need to have a store of words from which we can select to express this meaning or concept"** (Widad, 2016, p. 10).

5. Social Media Forms

According to Dewing (2010, p. 5), social media Web sites, such as YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook, have become extremely popular among Internet users who wish to share their ideas, videos, and other activities online. Social media covers many digital tools such as: Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, twitter, linked, MySpace. Even Email and SMS are social media tool too.

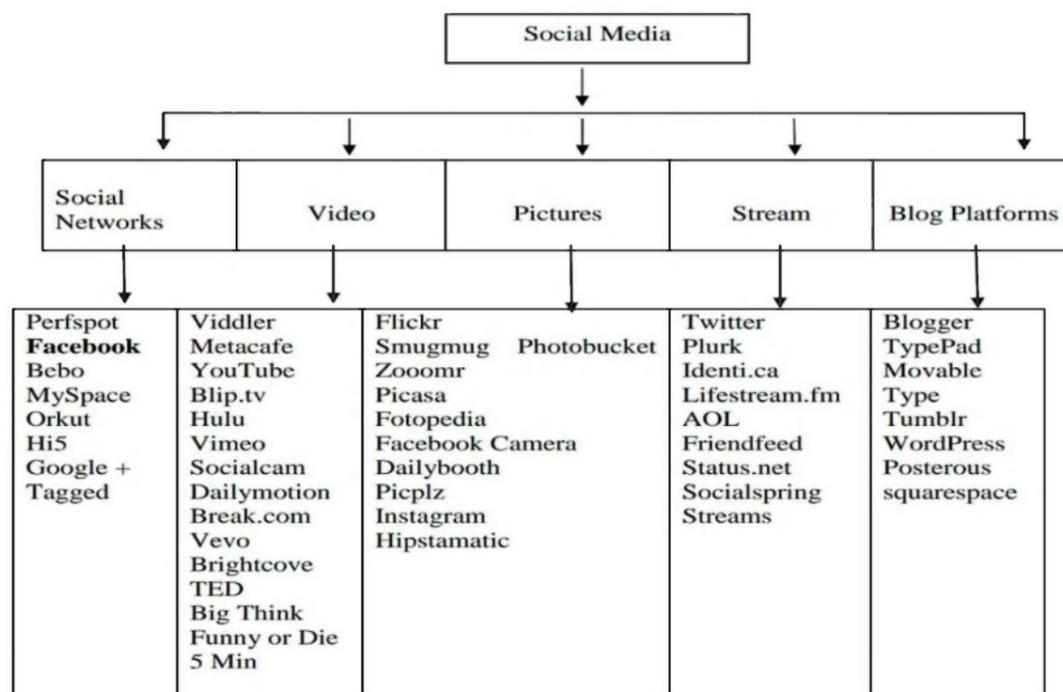


Figure (1) "Introducing the Conversation Prism,". Adopted from Solis (2012, p. 24).

5.1 Facebook

Facebook is a massive, online application that being one of the most prominent sites on the Internet, it is introduced in 2004 by "Mark Zuckerberg". Awl (2009, p. 144) states that "in a paper Facebook, you see photos and biographies of your classmates. On Facebook, you see your friend's latest photos and videos with, at times, an extensive biography". Hence, Facebook has become one of the most successful social media sites because of its features platform that set itself apart from other social media, and that made the word "social media" become well known.

Facebook can develop and improve the students' performance in vocabulary knowledge because it can provide many options through which students can access to learn English vocabulary naturally through chatting, sharing information with their peers and through creating Facebook pages; furthermore, through skimming and scanning for pages and posts available on Facebook; hence, This application provides an appropriate instructional environment through which students can learn vocabulary indirectly or unconsciously accordingly. Therefore, Adriana and Mirabela (2016, p. 128) stress that students improved in vocabulary performance and confidence (even if slightly) after being exposed vocabulary via Facebook.

5.2 Blogs

The word blog is taken from the word web log. Blogs are another exemplification of social media. According to Weber (2009, p. 36), Blogs allow students to publish and participate in a multithreaded conversations online. The use of blogging in the foreign language classroom has proven to be an authoritative tool for promoting student voice, and enhancing communication and teamwork.

Amichai-Hamburger (2013, p. 11) elucidates that blogging provides a means for students to become more expressive and creative in their vocabulary and to continuously develop confidence as they construct vocabulary items. Through feedback and reflection, they begin to see the progress they make with each post. For instructors, the ability to provide direct, personal feedback to students helps each student to focus on building the critical language skills. Recently, from a personal point of view, new and innovative ways to help students focus on specific vocabulary that they need and promote the peer collaboration should be applied.

5.3 Wikis

The word “ wiki “ comes from the Hawaiian word meaning “quick “ or “fast “ . It is a free, open content online encyclopedia. The first Wiki was developed in 1994 by Ward Cunningham. Anyone can sign in to Wikipedia, edit, delete or modify the content and many people are constantly improving Wikipedia by making thousands of changes per hour (Wihad, 2016, p. 27). Dooly (2008, p. 98) adds that Wikis can be considered as part of online collaborative language learning, he comments also that when Wikis pages use in vocabulary teaching, Wikis pages can form an essential part of collaborative materials due to its nature of simple participation that allows many students to add or comment to one familiar material.

5.4 Twitter

Spaniel, Klamma, and Lau (2009, p. 79) assert that Twitter appears to be a collaborative environment aims at supporting learning English since Twitter is effortlessly accessible from almost every student, so the students can practise whenever they want to by sharing messages. In addition, Twitter is appropriate for any students’ current level of English. Furthermore, the use of Twitter as an online student-instructor community can help to integrate students in the web-based vocabulary learning activities and Twitter helps students who could not attend the classroom lectures.

Without creating Twitter accounts, instructors can bring Twitter-like experiences into the classroom to expand vocabulary learning. To model a vocabulary-related Twitter, provide students with a target word or concepts (Kame’enui and Baumann, 2012, p. 311).

5.5 Electronic mail

It is a method of exchanging digital messages from one person to another one. The researcher depends on a suggested method, called instructor-students e-mailing, through which students can cooperate and interact using chatting or e-mailing to answer vocabulary-based questions done by the researcher. Henceforth, they are going to gain vocabulary unconsciously through engaging in such activities that require them to scan and answer finding the correct answer.

6. Topics Related to the Current Study

6.1 Social Media and Students’ Motivation

Nowadays, students are digital learners and continuously use social media to communicate with each other. Students are usually equipped with laptops, iPads, different smart phones, tablets, and all these provide them with easier access to social networks. Introducing social media in education is not an easy task, however; Jones and Shao (2011, p. 87) comment that students positively respond to the incorporation of new technologies into the teaching and learning process provided that the technology usage is well-conceived, purposeful, and properly integrated into the learning process.

Students spend as much (or more) time online in an informal learning environment--interacting with peers and receiving feedback--than they do with their instructors in the traditional classroom. Accordingly, they share ideas and feelings between them and this leads to increasingly develop their vocabulary repertoire.

6.2 Social Media in EFL Classrooms

Social media are used in the educational setting (e.g. EFL settings). Social media has grown quickly in both personal and academic use, As Chen and Bryer (2012, p. 89) mention **“Social media have grown quickly for academic use and infiltrated the education area”**. Thus, it brings the world to the classroom and enables students to communicate across the world and it breaks down time, distance and accessibility barriers and brings many opportunities for learning to happen anywhere and anytime. For this reason, many studies have been undertaken to examine the use and application of social media in classroom settings, including the English language learning (ELL). Gumpert and Chun (1999, p. 64) argue that the purpose of applying social media in the instructional environment is to increase the superiority of teaching and learning; which can be one way to augment relationship between students and their instructor.

Lewis and Candito (2012, p. 16) also claim that students use three top- used social media tools: Facebook, Wikipedia and YouTube, for social engagement, direct communication, speed of feedback, and relationship building. Aikten (2014, p. 93) goes one step further when he argues that the Internet can be used as the main aid in teaching a language and as a basic source of communication in distance.

The key factor in the instructional university environment is providing students with **motivating and effective learning; in order to seek fruitful outcomes from the students’** performance in English language in general and in acquiring vocabulary in particular. Social media supply the students with all recommended and supplementary materials to reach the objectives of the learning process. Many have pointed to the educational benefits of these social media and all agree that with the right guidance, the advantages be greater than the disadvantages. Anderson (2017, p. 97) claims also that: **“The Internet and social media train our brains to skim and scan”**.

So, social media can be used as an educational tool and to facilitate EFL learning by allowing interaction between the instructor and the learner with different tools and websites via the social media platform students can learn from each other as well as socializing with their peers and develop their communication skills. Social scientists have concluded that being involved in groups, via social networking sites, has a positive impact on health and well-being. Social media can also be a source to increase doing projects on groups .Moreover, the social media sites give EFL students the opportunity to learn about other cultures, and to communicate directly with native speakers who can help them improving their vocabulary knowledge.

6.3 Social Media on Vocabulary Improvement

In fact, less is known about the use of social media in the context of improving EFL **learners’ vocabulary**; however, it is an interesting method for students to keep in touch with each other as well as with their instructors. There are many different ways which can be used via social media to improve the English skills especially vocabulary. These could include following other users on social media websites who give daily tips and hints about English **language and vocabulary**. For example, **“English Vocabulary ”** is a good one to follow on Instagram which always provides the followers by new vocabulary with its explanation. There

is also another website which is Facebook, as discussed earlier. It is the most successful social networking site and an excellent way to communicate, it may motivate learners to share ideas and thoughts that would be very difficult to duplicate in a classroom setting. Using Facebook **may impact the students' vocabulary by joining groups that have been set up specifically for learning English and learning new vocabularies.**

Accordingly, such social media can provide the students with the natural learning process through creating informal instructional programme between the students and their instructor; this programme contains online forums and platforms such as required assignments from the students, additional questions and exercises and the secret assessment of each students. Special Facebook page is made and the students are equipped with username and secret passwords. In this page, the students can answer questions or do assignments concerning vocabulary repertoire. They find such programme very exciting and stimulating.

In addition, YouTube is another popular social media website and a vast resource for educational content, which has millions of different videos about learning English and its vocabulary. It can be a perfect tool for EFL students to improve their vocabulary competence because some students learn better by watching than reading. Through YouTube videos, EFL learners can bring scientists, professors and experts into their classroom to help them learn from great tutorials.

7. The Research Questions

Is there any relationship between using social media and Iraqi EFL university students' vocabulary learning?

8. The Research hypothesis

There is no relationship between using social media and Iraqi EFL University Students' Vocabulary Learning.

9. Method

9.1 Participants

The participants of the current study include all the second-year students of Al-Kadhumi University College, college of Arts, Department of English, Missan, Iraq, for the academic year 2017-2018. The college has two classes, A, B, with 62 students in the first, and also 62 students in the second. Class A was randomly chosen to be the experimental group (henceforth EG) and class B as the control group (henceforth CG).

9.2 Data Collection Methods

The researcher uses two important procedures in gathering data; testing and written interview with instructors.

9.2.1 The Experiment Context

The experimentation period started on 16th December, 2017 and ended on 15th March, 2018. The experiment took 10 weeks. In this study, the students had equal learning opportunities. In other words, the students of the two groups had the same conditions except one aspect; namely: the application of social media on EG.

The experimental group students were taught through using social media application; Facebook. As for the CG, students were taught using the techniques recommended in the textbook; namely, English Vocabulary in Use. Both the EG and the CG were taught by the researcher.

9.2.2 Data Analysis Procedures

The instructional context was a series of home assignments for an after-class remediation programme in which activities requiring peer-to-peer and instructor-to-peer communications via Facebook were designed. A ten-week instructional programme was designed with major emphases on vocabulary repertoire. The similar material was used for both EG and CG. Each week, an independent topic was taught with a variety of instructional strategies including discussions, explorations, and information searching/sharing. For the EG, Facebook was used as the discussion forums in which students discussing and collaborating to achieve reinforcement learning tasks, as well as sharing each own resource with other participants; Facebook is selected because it is a very common and useful social media application among the students and easy to use. For the CG, traditional drill and practices, group discussions, questions and answers were performed in the classroom. The major difference between the two groups was that for the CG, there was no Internet activity involved. The following table as adopted from Wang and Chen (2013, p. 137) shows the different activities used by the researcher.

Activity	Experimental Group	Control Group
Communication	Instructor-student dialogue	Instructor's lecture
	Student-student dialogue	Students raise questions
Collaboration	Instructor announce discussion topics	Instructor announce discussion topics
	Student online discussions	Students discussions in groups
Sharing Resource	Student uploading assignment	Instructor hand out remediation
	Instructor/student feedback	Material

Table (2) Vocabulary Learning Activities through Facebook

9.2.3 Results and Discussions

The data obtained from the achievement post-test have been analysed in order to decide whether there are any statistically significant differences between the mean scores of experimental group, who were taught vocabulary knowledge using Facebook, and that of the control group, who were taught using the textbook also by the researcher, in the total scores of the first and second post-test.

9.1.5 Vocabulary Performance of Experimental Group and Control Group on the Achievement Post-test

In the below table, the mean score of the experimental group is 59.13; while the mean score of the CG is 43.87. This shows that there is a statistically significant difference between both groups; i.e., the EG is improved better than the CG in vocabulary performance. This implies

that Facebook is more effective and fruitful than the traditional techniques concerning vocabulary instruction (see Table 3)

Group	Number of students	Mean Score
Experimental Group	62	59.13
Control Group	62	43.87

Table (3) Vocabulary Performance between the EG and CG on the Achievement Post-test

9.1.6 Performance of the Pre-test and the Achievement Post-test of the Experimental Group

After administering and applying the planned instructional material; using Facebook in teaching university level students. The mean score of the EG in the pre-test is 38.60, whereas in the achievement post-test is 53.36. This shows that there is a statistically significant difference, the achievement of the EG is higher than that of the CG. (see Table 4)

Type of Test	Number of Students	Mean Score
Pre-test	62	38.72
Post-test	62	53.45

Table (4) Performance of the Pre-test and the Achievement Post-test of the EG

9.1.7 Analysis of the results:

The results show that the adopted application; i.e., Facebook is an effective way in teaching and learning vocabulary and this may be due to the following:

1. If one returns to Table 2 and Table 3, it is clear that the performance of the EG through Facebook is superior to that of the CG. This is a logical matter due to the effectiveness of the adopted application.
2. Facebook has been to be highly effective with FL at various stages of learning. Studies that have examined the use of such application reports **substantial improvement on students' vocabulary**.
3. When conducting Facebook, **the students' vocabulary is improved better than the achievement pre-test** and this in turn indicates that their vocabulary repertoire, that enables them to communicate effectively and naturally, will be better.
4. Students can remember vocabulary well if they are taught using the social media.

5. Instructor's feedback and assessment are necessary when teaching vocabulary because such social media are very important in the improvement of students' vocabulary and this, in turn, makes students able to speak and communicate effectively because they have vocabulary repertoire.
6. Such adopted applications make students more confident, independent and motivated and this reflects their abilities to do better.

9.3 The Instructors' Interview

9.3.1 Sample Description

This written interview is devoted to EFL instructors. The seven instructors, who responded to the interview, were chosen among all the EFL instructors at Al-Kadhumi University College. The interview was conducted with only seven instructors because some instructors had apologised for not taking part in the interview due to their personal reasons.

9.3.2 Data Analysis Procedures

The instructors were asked fourteen questions in the form of written interview for the sake of getting exact and complete information about their students' vocabulary performance and the role of social media in learning vocabulary.

Question 1: Which post-graduate certificate have you completed?

The purpose of this question is to know instructors' level. Instructor respondents report that our instructor's degrees differs in that three instructor has a master degree and four instructors have a doctorate.

Question 2: How many years have you been teaching English at university campus?

This question aims to know the instructors capabilities at university level. It is clear from the answers that the longest teaching experience at university level is 15 years; however, the shortest is 2 years.

Question 3: How do you present new words in the lecture?

This question was intended to know the significance ascribed to teaching vocabulary by the selected instructors. Accordingly, four instructors had the same reply by answering "We present the new vocabulary every day". They supported their own response by asserting that learning vocabulary is the foundation for learning English language, and that they are responsible to enrich their students' vocabulary knowledge. However, four instructors showed that it depends on the lecture of the subject matter. While three instructors argues that it relates to the students' current ability because his concern is to support the students to supplement their stock of lexical items. This in turn results in the enhancement of students' creativity. The above results confirm the status that instructors give to the teaching vocabulary an important part of their teaching of the English language in the class.

Question 4: What types of difficulties do students have with vocabulary improvement? Why?

The reason behind this question is to make the instructors to get know if their students have problems with vocabulary development and all the selected instructors replied by "yes".

Three respondent instructors noted that these complications or difficulties are due to the effect of the students' first language. Two instructors assumed that they do not read much and the absence of practising the language in real-life situations; yet, the other two instructors agreed that vocabulary improvement difficulties are owing to the little exposure to language and the interruption which influences memory capacities .

Question 5: What things you do to catch up with students' difficulties?

This question was asked to know instructors ways to help students to overtake vocabulary difficulties. Instructors confirmed that they can aid their students by doing the following procedures:

- Practising English outside class with peers.
- Illuminating when teaching by using visualising, word-definition and pictures.
- Using new vocabulary in students' authentic examples.
- Requesting them to use dictionaries.
- Presenting new words in context.

Question 6: What specific strategy you intend to follow in teaching vocabulary? If "yes", which one and why?

The foremost aim for asking this question is to examine whether instructors apply several techniques or tactics in teaching vocabulary. One instructor said that he had never used a specific strategy, and six instructors answered by "yes". Three of them stated that they use debate strategy because it motivate students to share their ideas. Two argues that there are many strategies for teaching vocabulary, but they insist on using songs, games. The two other instructors share the same opinion, they claimed that reading literature, filling gaps activity and using visualisation method are the best ways to improve students' vocabulary knowledge.

Question 7: Does technology influence students' performance in learning lexical items? Justify your answer

The main goal behind this question is to know instructors belief about social media in general. All instructors approve that social media is a new developed way which can enhance students' natural learning of vocabulary items.

Question 8: Is it possible that social media can be used as a teaching-learning technique? Justify please.

The key goal of this question is to explore instructors' views headed for the social media as a teaching-learning strategy. Only one instructor believed that any teaching-learning strategy must be planned firstly and checked before using it as a learning strategy. Nonetheless, the other six instructors come to an understanding that social media is a new and good teaching-learning strategy, as it makes language learning collaborative and stimulating, besides it exposes learners to natural language.

Question 9: Do you use the social media to communicate with your students? If yes, what websites do you use the most?

The current question is asked in order to know if instructors are conscious about the benefits of social media in teaching vocabulary. Outcomes gained from instructors prove that all the respondent instructors are users of social media, E-mail, Facebook, WhatsApp, Tweeter, YouTube, Google, are the most websites used by five instructors. However, the other instructors uses only Facebook, Google and Email to communicate with the students. These results indicate that instructors are good users of social media.

Question 10: Are you capable of using the social media as a teaching tool when teaching English (outside class)? Justify.

This question was asked for knowing whether respondent instructors use social media as a tool of teaching vocabulary or not. Two instructors declared that they do not teach English outside class by using social media because there is no interaction between them and their

students. The others do by chatting with them in English, giving them homework and assignment to accomplish and other exercises.

Question 11: Can the social media be an additional teaching technique?

All instructors revealed their approval to social media as an additional teaching practice. None answered by “No”.

Question 12: Can students’ vocabulary items be enriched through the exposure to social media? Please justify your answer.

As it is expected, all instructors answered by “Yes”. Two of the instructors justify by saying that social media can help students to improve their vocabulary if their topics of discussion are interesting and academic. Two instructors share the same opinion that students can chat with each other and with natives and that may ameliorate their repertoire of English vocabulary. The other two instructors mentioned that using social media can create more opening chances to use the language naturally. The last one argues that social media has a good dimension, if the student properly use it.

Question 13: From your personal viewpoint, are social media applications allow more opportunities for students? Justify please.

All instructors agree that social media programmes can be used to enhance students’ vocabulary by making a designed social media application through which student-teacher interaction can be accomplished through answering online homework or additional exercises and students’ assignments to do. Because all instructors approve our research question. They declared that users of social media have great opportunities for practicing the language and are more motivated to learn new words. The instructors held that the more students get exposed to language, the more they expand their knowledge of it, and the more they produce it and get feedback.

Question 14: Do you have any further recommendations to improve students’ vocabulary.

Finally, this written interview, the respondent instructors were given a free space to write further suggestions and recommendations aiming to develop students’ vocabulary knowledge. Approximately all instructors’ commentaries were alike about the present-day topic. They totally agree that:

- Social media language learning can be used in syllabus design in English textbook curriculum, because it provides a motivating and natural learning environment, Wankel (2011: 50) reports that Facebook can be used as “a course tool”.
- Instructors should use a social media strategy to allow students to have the same opportunity. Students can share ideas in the Internet forums or platforms these social media provide for students.
- Reading for pleasure: is a fruitful and effective procedure for improving and developing students’ vocabulary repertoire.
- Reading literature through multimedia is greatly supportive and very stimulating.
- Social media websites such as Facebook and YouTube can be of a great importance for students’ self-expression because social media websites provides a cooperative learning environment when the filter is low (no anxiety).
- Advise students to practice English language all their free time.

9.3.3 Discussion of the Instructors' Interview Findings

The instructors' interview is designed in order to explore the instructors' attitudes towards using social media as a teaching strategy to improve the students' vocabulary knowledge. The analysis of the interview allowed us to come out with the following findings. The results obtained through the analysis of the current interview, about teaching vocabulary, showed the importance given by instructors to teaching vocabulary using different techniques. However, we explored the difficulties that students face in developing their vocabulary career, besides reasons behind these difficulties and solutions proposed by instructors to overtake it. Concerning social media, instructors are active users of this developed tool. Facebook, Email, YouTube, Blogs and Twitter are the most used websites by instructors. As a result, it is concluded that all the respondent instructors agree that social media can be an additional tool which can help students to develop their vocabulary repertoire. These results can confirm our two hypotheses.

Conclusion and Implications

The main goal of this research was to explore teaching vocabulary through the use of social media. It has been assumed that technologies or social media should be used as instructional tool for learning vocabulary. It has also been mentioned that this type of learning is beneficial for foreign language learners, as it considerably builds confidence and increases students' interest and motivation. The study showed that students improved in vocabulary performance after being exposed vocabulary via social media programme; Facebook, as compared to the case of students benefitting from traditional instruction only, as it was clarified in the test of both groups; the experimental group and the control group.

Firstly, in the experiment, the participants in both classes have been taught by the researcher the vocabulary. The participant respondents, the experimental group, were really motivated to challenge themselves to improve their English, as it was earlier mentioned by their mean scores. Moreover, the participants began commenting and sending some ideas related to the target topic to the instructor and to each other on Facebook. The lessons via Facebook seemed more appealing to students. Working on the Internet and dealing with each other through Facebook anytime and anywhere is trendy nowadays. Consequently, Facebook could become a very effective tool and medium for backing the traditional learning and for self-expression. While for Group B, the control group, submitted to the traditional techniques as used in the prescribed textbook, the vocabulary development was not apparently high and noticed.

Secondly, the study also includes written instructor interview. It aims at finding out the relationship between students' learning vocabulary and the influence of social media in that. There are some recommendations by the instructors who were written interviewed:

1. Adopting social media as a teaching strategy in universities when teaching English skills for effectiveness and better academic achievement.
2. Reading should be free and for enjoyment, and the students should make use of their own free time to read as much as possible to gain new vocabulary.

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Spiritual Survival in Daniel Defoe's Novel *Robinson Crusoe*

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Abstract

The study opens with an introduction that presents a background about the English novelist Daniel Defoe; his life and his style in writing *Robinson Crusoe* and the issues which he discusses in other novels. The introduction also tackles his remarkable achievements as he wrote about current religious causes, morals, and manners. Chapter One shows the concept of spirituality, its meanings, and its sources as far as this concept is related to religion and humanity as well. *Robinson Crusoe* consists many interpretations, one of which is that this novel should be read through a religious perspective and it should be regarded not merely as an adventurous story, but as a spiritual and moral novel in which man represented by Crusoe finds his way to God through faith and repentance. The study continues with Chapter Two which discusses spirituality in the novel by analyzing the plot including time, place, events, and characters. Crusoe's character is the key to the door of spiritual survival since he lives a turbulent life and his suffering stems from the way how he should understand spirituality. Metaphorically speaking spirituality plays an important role in Crusoe's journey of life. This journey raises several questions Crusoe's existence. Experiencing despair and poverty is the reason behind Crusoe's and people's loss of faith. They have been spiritually imprisoned due to the psychological suffering in a society neglects its people's needs. Finally, the study ends with the conclusion which sums up the ultimate result of reaching the path of spirituality. *Robinson Crusoe* is considered to be the first novel of incident. After a long journey of spiritual torture, Robinson Crusoe survives as he finds his destination and all answers that he needs. He is convinced that all of his calamities have resulted from disobeying God.

Introduction:

Paula R. Backscheider starts her biography of Defoe by saying: "few men seem to be better subjects for a biography than Daniel Defoe."¹ She refers to Defoe's life as a heroic story of constant struggle to survive. He lives a string of personal and financial disasters; he witnesses a life full of crucial political and historical events that changed the face of Europe. He also witnesses the emergence of nothing less than the modern world order. Many political and literary circumstances have surrounded his life which made him adopt a special style of writing. In fact, he has decided to reveal about himself in his writing and in his surviving letters. That correspondence consists mostly of letters to the powerful early eighteenth century politician, Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, whom he served from 1704 until 1714 as a secret agent, political operative and advisor.² Moreover, there is a clear line to his intellectual development; his wide ranging and original mind. Defoe's writings are rational, Protestant reformation of the implicit faith. Vladimir Nabokov says that "the best part of a writer's biography is not the record of his adventures but the story of his style."³ It seems that Defoe has his own story of style in writing.

Daniel Defoe may be seen as a dreadful subject for a biography. His family and social class incapable of imagining future interest in a child of the Cornhill Ward. As a person, Defoe is obscure, disgraced, or employed in jobs requiring secrecy and even subterfuge. He describes his job as "being all things to all men."³ If someone finds interest in Daniel Defoe's life, three sources will encourage this interest: his uncommon moral and material aspirations, his absorption in the great issues of his time, and his engagement

with pen and paper. The challenge of following his life and style of writing is to understand the times, the issues, and Defoe's opinions and actions without losing the sense of the private man and the dynamic creative energy that makes him a great writer. Andrew Kippis comments saying that "Another observation, suggested by the case of Defoe, is that eminent literary and intellectual merit at length finds its due place in the Temple of Fame....Though his abilities in certain respects were generally acknowledged, full justice was far from being done to his reputation, either during his life, or for a considerable time after his decease....But the world has at last become sensible of his great and various talents."⁴ After many attacks, Defoe's works and writings has been rediscovered in a positive way for the messages these works carry."Both his life and his writings lend themselves to what seems to be limitless interpretations and misinterpretations."⁵

Born in 1660, Daniel Defoe witnessed a period of darkness and despair when people hoped that the nation would be reunited after the Restoration of Charles II to the throne of England. However, the struggle for the throne continued to include not only politics but also religion. The restoration proved the reverse; a time of moral corruption and religious persecution. Hence, he longed to be a hero, a saint, or the helper of some great man. *Robinson Crusoe* came as a result to what Defoe experienced in his life.

Spirituality in *Robinson Crusoe*

Robinson Crusoe is a novel that easily lends itself to analytical discussions surrounding themes. One may think that this novel is simply a tale of adventure while it is a story of a spiritual adventure which is led by a man who decides to go through this journey alone. The novel is not simply a tale of adventure and excitement, it is "a long prose narrative about largely fictional if usually realistic characters and plausible events".⁶ There should not be a place for shallow expectations before reading the novel and understanding what lies behind the scenes. Defoe exhibits what the novel offers including wealth, natural world, family bonds, order, slavery, social class, which are all valid themes to a careful dissect within the novel itself. Having a deep reading to *Robinson Crusoe*, it appears that all of these themes are interesting, but the overarching and recurrent theme of religion proves to be the most permanent theme in the novel. Throughout the whole novel, Robinson Crusoe embarks, not only a voyage into the sea, but on a long spiritual voyage as well. At times, Crusoe is seen to devout in his faith, while other times show him as a disbeliever who viciously contradicts his faith. Crusoe fluctuates from faith to spiritual and religious denial because of the existence of the external material world which figures as a kind of projection of inner insecurity.

Carefully selected religious moments that Crusoe experiences show this character's unstable faith. At the beginning of the novel, Crusoe ignores his father's warnings regarding going out to the sea. The same warning and advice is given to him by the captain of the first ship he sails on. Both his father and the captain act as the authoritative act of God and figures of God too. It has been suggested that "Crusoe's sin is his refusal to follow the calling chosen for him by his father, and that the rationale for this action may be found in Crusoe's personal characteristics: his lack of economic prudence, his inability to follow a steady profession, his indifference to a calm bourgeois life, and his love for travel."⁷ Crusoe experiences many defects in his personal and family life which makes him transfer his anger against his faith in God. Disobeying his father, Crusoe shows his first rebellion against God:

"I consulted neither Father or Mother any more, nor so much as sent them Word of it; but leaving them to hear of it as they might," (*Robinson Crusoe*, p.4)*. His family, especially, his father stands for God, therefore, Crusoe chooses to disobey them.

He continues in showing rebellious attitudes against faith and turns his ego to have a negative spirituality towards God's Himself: "Without asking God's Blessing, or my **Father's**, without any Consideration of Circumstances or Consequences and in an ill Hour, God knows," (*Robinson Crusoe*, p.4). Defoe admits that "This defiance will later curse and haunt Crusoe. Much later in the novel, Crusoe refers to his disobedience as 'Original **Sin**'." (*Robinson Crusoe*, p.142). Crusoe is correlating the sinning against his father with the sinning against God. The novelist refers to the original sin in the Bible; the fall of Man and Adam's sin in Eden.

During his first voyage, Crusoe encounters a terrible storm at sea. This storm is a test for Crusoe's spiritual faith in God and so it evokes his spirituality and admits God's role in possibly **saving his life**: "...I **made** many vows and resolutions, that if it would please God here to spare my life this one voyage." (*Robinson Crusoe*, p.5). So, he unleashes his faith promising to repent his sin and restore his devotion to his father: "if ever I got once my foot upon dry land again, I would go directly home to my father..." (*Robinson Crusoe*, p.5). At this inevitable stage in Crusoe's spiritual life, he tends to call upon God but selfishly; he asks God's help when his life is in real danger. Yet, he is quick to forget these promises and vows to God and his father once he is out of trouble. As a motive, faith comes before obedience which is a result to faith for "without faith it is impossible to please God" and "faith without works is dead"⁸.

Crusoe is in a fit of despair at his landing on the island and wonders why Providence (i.e.) God would send him to such a place. He correlates the storms on the ocean with the will of God. His life on the island will become a test of faith:

...I had great Reason to consider it as a Determination of Heaven, that in this desolate Place, and in this desolate Manner I should end my life; the Tears would run plentifully down my Face when I made these reflections, and sometimes I would expostulate with myself, why Providence should thus completely ruin its Creatures, and render them so absolutely miserable, so without Help abandoned, so entirely depressed, that it could hardly be rational to be thankful for such a Life.

(*Robinson Crusoe*, p.47)

After Crusoe has shipwrecked on the island and is alone, a more self_aware Crusoe starts to appear. At first, he is angry and upset that God would forsake him with such a terrible set of events. However, after a vivid fever dream, he begins to realize that the storms and his shipwreck are God's will. It is not simply a punishment for Crusoe, rather, God wants him to find his way to Providence by the trials and tribulations that are to come on the island. Crusoe repents and begins his new spiritual life at this point. He recalls the captain's advice trying to contemplates a new spirituality through which he may reach survival:

However he afterwards talked very gravely to me, exhorted me to go back to my Ruin; told me I might see a visible Hand of Heaven against me, And young Man, said he, depend upon it, if you do not go back, wherever you go, you will meet with

nothing but Disasters and Disappointments till your Father's Words are fulfilled upon you. (*Robinson Crusoe*, p.10)

The curse of Crusoe's father continues, as Crusoe disobeys not only parental authority but, as the Captain implies, the authority of Providence. Crusoe, however, is determined to defy both.

It would be boring if Crusoe simply became a well-rounded Christian who never did anything wrong after his vision and repentance. Even after this transformative experience, he tends to contradict himself and his motives are not always pure.

Crusoe rationalizes why he should not engage with the cannibals. He plays it off as if it should be up to God to punish the wicked, but later in the novel he does engage them, to rescue Friday. It is fair to say that Crusoe is afraid for his life and does not want to engage with the cannibals unless he is forced to. It is believed that Crusoe, while he may have had a major repentance experience, is resorting to selfish behaviors here. He is using God when it is convenient for him. If spirituality is not fully internalized and embodied, "Crusoe's repentance and conversion are as disposable as the objects he leaves behind when he sails away with the English captain."⁹ The ultimate reason for Crusoe's conversion and repentance cannot simply be chalked up to his vision, or even his guilt regarding the disobedience of his father. Having no contact with people or real social order on an isolated island is another reason for his conversion. Feeling desperate urges Crusoe's need for God. So, any indication of comfort or guidance, real or imagined would be welcomed, by Crusoe, without resistance. This conversion has happened before Friday's coming; during that time Crusoe has been left only with his mind and pets. It seems that Crusoe's newfound outlook and relationship with God has been created by his loneliness. This would coincide with his selfish nature. His fever dream and vision could have been created by his subconscious.

Robinson Crusoe's spiritual journey is not a simple journey. There is a back-and-forth action that is never steadily consistent. Crusoe's struggle represents the spiritual battle in every one. Whether one is religious or not, remaining static is a hard thing to achieve morally and our motivations are not always as pure as one would like them to be. This novel warrants close inspection and anyone willing to take the time to go down this rabbit hole will learn a great deal.

Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, which is an adventure story of survival on a deserted island, is very precious for defining the character in the light of a Puritan perspective and writing.

The novel consists of many interpretations, one of which is that Robinson Crusoe should be read through a religious perspective and it should be regarded not merely as an adventurous story but as a spiritual autobiography or a moral story, in which Crusoe finds his way to God through faith and repentance.

Robinson Crusoe is generally based on a spiritual autobiography that means the protagonist is sinned by ignoring signs of God. He prays to God only in times of trouble; however, later he experiences God's forgiveness, wisdom, and mercy. He repents only after he has experienced a soul purifying conversation with God and achieves salvation.

Crusoe commits his original sin by ignoring his father's warnings about not to leave home and he sets his heart on going to sea. However, later he realizes that he has committed a sin against God by not getting his father's consent and blessings, and by

ignoring his father's warnings, which means that he associates his father with God just like a religious perspective that considers a father as sublime as God.

When Crusoe experiences an unfortunate shipwreck and finds himself on an isolated island, he associates his desperate situation with his not getting the blessings of God and his disobeying against the will of his father.

A voice asking the question: "Where are you?", Crusoe analyzes this voice as God's question to Adam in the Garden of Eden following his wayward action in taking the fruit. He is astonished by the voice like Adam. The voice not only magnifies Crusoe's sense of isolation, but also brings into relief Crusoe's precarious hold upon his own spiritual security.¹⁰ Essentially, Crusoe links his experience of suffering with his spiritual waywardness. He sums up his experience thus: "In a word, as my Life was a Life of sorrow, one way, so it was a Life of mercy, another; and I wanted nothing to make it a Life of Comfort, but to be able to make my Sense of God's Goodness to me, and care over me in this Condition."¹¹ After all, Crusoe releases submission to the will of God who creates life the continuity and balance of which depends upon the existence of opposites; evil and goodness, sadness and happiness. The more man submits to God, the more spiritually secured he becomes.

Conclusion

Daniel Defoe presents Robinson Crusoe as a character of spiritual struggle. Spirituality, though different from one situation into another, is overwhelming the atmosphere of the novel as a whole. The spiritual experience is following Crusoe wherever he goes. It starts with a reluctant shape to the extent that it appears as having a weak shape when Crusoe shows disobedience and arrogance to his father and to God. Later on, the experience moves to have another level; isolated on a deserted island, where Crusoe confronts isolation and fear. Here, spirituality starts instigating Crusoe to purchase survival. For him, spiritual survival is the key to the physical one. By time, Crusoe realizes a fact that having a contact with God, after sinning, is an inevitable result now. A spiritual guidance is needed and salvation depends on how much Crusoe is close to God according to the incidents that he lives on the island.

Crusoe's self realization of his guilt makes him diagnoses the problem that his denial and disobedience to his father is the reason behind all of the calamities that he faced throughout his journey. Wrestling with faith and fear is the beginning to have the spiritual survival Crusoe needs. The inner struggle against his father's advice, the shipwreck of the ship, fighting the cannibals, Friday's captivity, and living alone on a deserted island are all participate in evoking the spiritual instinct inside Crusoe's soul reaching, ultimately, to the spiritual survival that he is looking for. One concludes that, *Robinson Crusoe* as a novel gives a moral and spiritual lesson to those who might spiritually be misled and deceived by their defiance to God's order.

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Postmodernism and Clash of Culture in Ali's "*Brick Lane*"

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Abstract

This study purports to investigate the clash of cultures as encoded in Monica Ali's (2003) *Brick Lane*. The study aims at underpinning the problem of the immigration from East to the West and the human sufferings as a resultant tragic consequence. Being the first fictional of Ali as a modern British novelist, she treads the path of human situations as that of immigrant Bangladeshi milieu in a modern critical sense. So, the scope of the study will be limited to *Brick Lane* that bridges the gap between the East and the West cultures in one artistic fabric and universe. One finding of the study is that the source of the victimization of women is not always the result of the post-colonial view; it might be also the result of the traditional culture in which the characters live in. The significance of the study lies in the fact that it is the first academic analysis of the veins of Ali's novel from a critical point of view. The study is rounded up with concluding remarks elicited from the critical analysis.

Introduction

Literature, in a broadest sense, is a body of artistic works of arts. Literary works like poems, plays, novels and short stories are constructed in a foregrounded language which is different from the standard language. The texture of literary texts is deviant in the sense it treads the path of connotation rather than denotation. Still, the function of literary texts is not just to delight; literary texts are socio-cultural universes which communicate a given message. Here come modern critical trends to anatomize the nature of the message(s) transmitted by the language of the text(s).

In the history of ideas, there are always pairs of contradictory terms which allude to contradictory world views; of these terms are *modernism* and *postmodernism*. These interrelated disciplines vary in certain aspects. Abrams (2009: 201-204) delineates the two terms by saying that modernism is "is widely used to identify new and distractive features in the subjects, forms, concepts, and styles of literature and the other arts in the early decades of the twentieth century, but especially after World war I (1914-190)." This literary movement is characterized by "a deliberate and radical break with some of the traditional bases not only of Western art, but of Western culture in general"(ibid). Historically, the term *postmodernism* was applied to the literary theory after World Wide II(1939-45). Postmodernism "involves not only a continuation, sometimes carried to an extreme, of the counter traditional experiments of modernism, but also diverse attempts to break away from modernist forms which had, inevitably, become in their turn conventional, as well as to overthrow the elitism of modernist "high arts" by recourse for models to the "mass culture" in film, television, newspaper cartoons, and popular music"(ibid). The "post" in postmodern suggests "after". Postmodernism is best understood as a questioning of the ideas and values associated with a form of modernism that believes in progress and innovation. Modernism insists on a clear divide between art and popular culture.

A new dimension has been given to *postmodernism* by stating that the term refers to a more general human condition in the "late-capitalist world of the post 1950s" (Keep et al (1993). This spotlight light may give the sense that *postmodernism* is characteristic by its cultural code. But what is really *culture*?

From epistemic view, is the way in which a human group lives in the world? It consists of visible and invisible patterns of thinking. Still, the most revealing ostensive view of

culture is of Tylor (1871) who defines culture as “is that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, law, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by [a human] as a member of society” Tylor, 2019). Culture, in its essence is a symbolic communication; the symbols of which represent the human group’s knowledge, skills, values and so on. These human activities and traditions are passed from one generation to another. Culture is not the only difference between modernism and *postmodernism*. Bressler, however, makes other distinction between the two terms. The difference concerns *truth* and *reality*. For a modernist, like Franklin, “truth is to be discovered scientifically, not through the untruly and passionate imagination or through one’s feelings or intuition. Indeed, what is to be known and discovered via the scientific method is reality” (Bressler, 2007: 98-9). But while modernism stresses the objectivity of truth, postmodernism stresses its subjectivity. But like modernism, postmodernism does not designate any one style of art or culture. On the contrary, it is often associated with pluralism and an abandonment of conventional ideas of originality and authorship in favour of a pastiche of “dead” styles.

For a deconstructionist like Derrida, there is no such thing as objective reality; “all definitions and depictions of truth are subjective, simply creations of human minds. Truth itself is relative, depending on the nature and variety of cultural and social influences in one’s life” (ibid.).

In spite of the difference between these disciplines, *modernism* and *postmodernism* fundamentally deal with the complexity of human nature, the target of all literary genres, and of these genres is *novel*. There is a general consensus amongst novelists, literary historians, and men of literature that the core of novel is narrative (Cuddon 1998; Mikkagan 1984; Abrams 2009). A novel is “a fictional prose narrative of substantial length (Sengupta et al, 2004: 278). With the development of the structural movement in the twentieth century, the term *narratology* has been widely circulated in the literature of fiction. The term deals with “how a story’s meaning develops from its overall structure (its **langue**) rather than from each individual story’s isolated theme” (Bressler, 2007: 351). Narratology deals with the interpretation of the parameters or **principles underlying the structure of the narrative work of art**. Monica Ali’s *Brick Lane* falls within the scope of modern narrative. This study, therefore, is an attempt to explore the modern issues and techniques constructed by the writer to communicate her own vision. The study in its structural design construes three main parts preceded by a brief introduction on modernism, postmodernism and necessary *postmodern literature*. Part One delineates the notions of narrative and metanarrative. Part Two is a critical analysis of Ali’s selected narrative data. The critical analysis is rounded up with a set of conclusions, while Part Three concerns the worldviews encoded in the narrative fabric, in addition to the stylistic technique used in narration.

Part One: Narrative and metanarrative

The dramatic break of the modern novel from the tradition has led to the emergence of *postmodern novel* or more generally *postmodern literature*. *Postmodern literature* is “literature characterized by reliance on narrative techniques such as fragmentation, paradox, and the unreliable narrator” (Postmodern literature, 1). The most exponents of postmodern novelist are Becket, Borges, Pynchon, Acker, Ellis, etc. Postmodern novel encompasses diversity of trends. The proliferation of the novel in the modern time is because this literary genre “has proved so pliable and adaptable to a seemingly endless variety of topics and themes. No other literary form has attracted more writers and more people who

are *not* writers, and it continues to do so despite the oft-repeated cry (seldom raised by novelists themselves) that the novel is dead" (Cuddon, 1998:561). New fictional methods and techniques have been experimented during the twentieth century. These methods have violated the classical norms of fiction; they have tried to delete the prominent elements or break the normal expectation of the reader's awareness. These devices have come to be referred to as *nouvea roman* (the new novel) in France in the mid-twentieth century; sometimes they are termed as *antinovel*. By the force of such fictional techniques, the novel has displaced the other literary forms and become the art of the century.

Novel is an extended form of fiction. As an imaginative work of art, the novel penetrates the human conditions; it analyzes the complexity of human nature. So, it is no wonder a variety of narrative modes such as, epistolary novel, proletarian novel, historical novel, non-fictional novel, involute novel, and antinovel. These fictional works have witnessed various styles and devices which aesthetically distorted the norms of the traditional fiction. The most revealing form of narrative is metafiction or metanarrative. But before going a step further, it is of interest to make distinction between the tripartite expressions novel/novelette/story and novel/narrative/fiction respectively.

If *novel* is a matrix of prose narrative of a sizable length, with fictional characters, *novelette* is "a short novel" whereas *novella* is also a short story particularly applied to the early tales of Italian and French writers, such as Boccaccio's *The Decameron* (Dictionary of Literary Terms, 2007:120-1). Akin to these terms is the *story*; it is a "piece of prose, usually narrative in form, and made up of a series of incidents related to a central situation"(ibid). This relatedness among these terms can be witnessed in *novel/narrative/fiction*. A novel is a fictitious story normally in prose; a narrative is "a story, whether told in prose or verse, involving events, characters, and what the characters say and do"(Abrams,2009: 208-9). *Fiction* is "any literary *narrative*, whether in prose or verse, which is invented instead of being an account of events that actually happened." ibid: 116). Abrams, however, narrows the scope of the terms by stating that fiction denotes only narratives that are written in prose(the *novel* and *short story*), and sometimes is used simply as a synonymy for the novel(ibid.)

What is characteristic about these terms which are circulated in the novel of fiction is the two principles of *fiction* and *narration*. These works of arts are imaginatively invented; they are the products of imagination, and not purely bibliographical accounts of the writer(s). In addition, these imaginative artistic works have a construction used to give certain details to an event or episode. In postmodern narrative, the narration is deliberately broken that ultimately breaks the expectancy of the reader. This is the device of the prose form called *metafiction* or *metanarrative*. *Metafiction* is a term widely used in postmodern novel to refer to that self-referential aspect in fictional writing. Patricia Waugh (1984: 84) introduces a comprehensive definition of the term by saying that *metafiction* is a " fictional writing which self-consciously and systematically draws attention to its status as an artifact in order to pose questions about the relationship between fiction and reality." For Waugh, metafictional works are those works which "explore a theory of writing fiction through the practices of writing fiction" (ibid.).

Modern theorists specify the common metafiction devices exploited in the literature of fiction, of which are,(1) A story about a writer who creates a story,(2) A story that features itself (as a narrative or as a physical object as its own prop or MacGuffin, (3)A story containing another work of fiction within itself, (4) A story addressing the specific conventions of story, such as title, character conventions, paragraphing or plots, A novel where the narrator intentionally exposes him or herself as the author of the story, (6) A story

in which the characters are aware that they are in a story, and (7) A story in which the characters make reference to the author or his previous work (ibid). The reader, while reading this fictional story is fully aware that what s/he reads is a story and makes distinction between the dream-like world and the world of reality. In construction, metafiction breaks the traditional techniques of narration; there is an intentional violation of the story-telling. The writer who invented this term is William H. Gass a 1970 essay entitled *Philosophy and the Form of Fiction*. Unlike the antinovel, or anti-fiction, metafiction is specifically fiction about fiction, i.e. fiction which deliberately reflects upon itself (ibid). These literary devices have led to the dramatic development of the novel in the twentieth century.

Part Two: Monica Ali: Narrative Analysis

Creativity is unbound; it has nothing to do with geography, religion, race or color- it is the mental power to produce imaginatively works of arts which depict modern human situation(s). This is true to Monica Ali, the British modern novelist. Born in Dhaka, Bangladesh in 1967, Monica Ali immigrated to Britain while she was a child of a Muslim teacher and a Christian counselor. Because of the Civil War in East Pakistan in 1971, the family had to move to England for their safety and their four-year-old daughter. The family felt unease from their English relatives and strangers alike. Her father confessed that he experienced racism (Monica Ali, 1). The hard times of emigration will be of great influence on her fictional writings. Ali entered Wadham College of Oxford University, and graduated with a PPE degree, the acronym for the philosophy, politics, and economic course. She went to work in the marketing department of a small publishing house and moved to a similar job at another house before joining a branding agency (ibid.). One study comments on the multicultural biography of Ali saying that Ali is "both Bangladeshi and British and as grown up in the country of the former colonies and therefore cannot be considered to be part of one or the other, East or West. She must be considered to be part of both worlds" (Nilsson, 2010:4). This multicultural background has a great influence of dealing with the issues of the two spheres.

Brick Lane, Ali's first novel, was published in 2003. The main character is Nazneen, a Bangladeshi woman who emigrated with her husband to live in London. The novel's title is taken from a street at the heart of London's Bangladeshi Brick Lane community. *Brick Lane* was highly celebrated by journalism and literary criticism. In his review in *The New York Times*, Michael Gorra (p.2) wrote: "Monica Ali already has a sense of technical assurance and an inborn generosity that cannot be learned. *Brick Lane* inspires confidence about the career that is to come." Found her own voice with confidence, Ali wrote her second novel, *Alentejo Blue, Into the Kitchen* in 2006, and her last novel *Untold Story* (2011). If the protagonist in *Brick Lane* is a young Bengali woman setting in London, the protagonist in *Alentejo Blue* is an old peasant in Portugal. The story, in Walter's words, is "structurally piecemeal, a collection of vignettes with no forward thrust at all. All the vignettes take place in Mamarrosa, a picturesque village in Portugal. The only thing that holds together is its geographical unity" (the Guardian, 1). The characters, whether native citizens or English people, integrate socially in a tavern in this pretty village. The novel is a sort of cross-cultural domain within the European environment. But if immigration and post colonialism are the prominent thematic structure of *Brick Lane*, poverty and disparate individuality are the main themes in the poorest country in the European Union.

In her third novel, Ali has returned to her multicultural domain. In her *Into the Kitchen* (2009), Ali has projected a different trajectory, of a hotel restaurant in central London to have insights into human nature with all its expectations and contradictions. *Into*

the kitchen is a micro sphere (identity) that represents the macro sphere (life). In Ali's third novel, "the setting is the Imperial Hotel, a venerable but decaying London. The hero is Gabriel Lightfoot, a middle-aged chef on the cusp of too many changes" (Arana, 1). Ali's last novel is *Untold Story* (2011). The story is indirectly concerned with the career of Diana, Princess of Wales: it is an alternative history of the late princess. Because of that analogy between the main character and the image of Lady Diana, and because the novel portrays indirectly the British royal icon who faked her death, the novel has been highly criticized by certain British writers and journalists.

Ali's fictional works might be different in culture constraints or the minor details, but still there are certain affinities among these novels. In her first novel, the characters, the themes, and the setting are but the imaginative creation of reality. Here, language gives reality a structure; it builds up the mental image of the universe. These novels never deal with mythic characters, though myths and epics are also stories retold; the characters with their ecstasy and despair are derived from the real world. This may bring Ali's fictional works closer to Charles Dickens in portraying the London life in the mid-nineteenth century, as in his *Hard Times* and *Oliver Twist*. Moreover, Ali in her fictional writings has not entirely left the traditions of the novel craftsmanship. The sequence of episodes follows one another in a normal way.

Brick Lane discusses several topics of which are the problems of immigration, clash of cultures and drug addiction. These issues are not fictional; they are part of the problematic issues of modern communities. Dealing with such modern problems of mankind in a narrative work may give this work its modernity, especially if they are treated in modern literary style. The onset of *Brick Lane* describes Nazneen, a newly married Bangladeshi woman in her first experience of transition from her village to London. She has to experience the new culture for almost two decades. This arranged marriage leads her to Chanu, a man twice her age: though he has a good collection of books and furniture, he is a man of inaction; he says more than he performs. Chanu does not allow her young wife to leave their building alone or to work. The novel, in its earlier episode describes the traditions of the Bengali community which is purely oriental. This simplistic Eastern- Pakistani setting will be dramatically changed when Nazneen has immigrated with her husband to London, where they will start a new everyday life adventure. The Bangladeshi community in London where Nazneen lives is culturally divided into two parts: a part who tries to follow the traditions of the west, while the other wants to keep the old traditions. In addition to Nazneen and Chanu, the narrative community includes Mrs. Islam, a wealthy widow, Dr. Azad, successful professional, Karim, a Bengali young man who formed the Bengal Tigers, Razia, Nazneen's best friend, and Hasina, Nazneen's younger sister. In this divided atmosphere, Nazneen is enchanted by ice-skating, which she knows and learns from television.

The birth of Nazneen and Chanu's child, Raqib, brings a turning point to narration: the parents witness that the new Bengali generation in London is preoccupied with alcohol and drug addiction. Like some other Bangladeshi citizens, Chanu decides to go back home. The death of Raqib, the newly born baby, brings Chanu closer to his wife. Due to the narrative discourse, Chanu is in debt to Mrs. Islam who seems to be a usurer. Because of that hard time, Nazneen starts doing some sewing work at home, while Chanu accepts a job as a cab driver with Kempton Kars. The trauma event of death unmasks the hidden side of women in the eastern society through the letters corresponded between Nazneen and Hasina.

Things are not going easily; Nazneen feels the pressure of heavy life on her. She has to balance the daily cost of living and the cost of travelling home. She suffers mentally. After her nervous recovery, Nazneen has the spiritual power to stop Mrs. Islam from trapping them,

to be more determinate in her home affairs. The end of the novel witnesses an expected conclusion. While Chanu decides to go home, Nazneen refuses that decision; she decides to stay with the support of Razia, telling her husband that "the pull of the land is stronger than the pull of blood (Brick Lane, Summery & Guide, 2). The women of Bangladeshi community in London establish a sewing business with some of their other friends and they make a good living catering mainly to white women who will pay high prices for Bangladeshi/Indian style (ibid). Not only that, Nazneen fulfills her dream of ice-skating and feels free to skate, even in her traditional sari.

Immigration, fate, female empowerment, and clash of cultures are the main themes of Ali's *Brick Lane*. *Brick Lane* is not an autobiographical novel about the writer's personal life, but the echoes of immigration in her early life still have a great impact on her narrative creation. This may explain the assumption that there is an indirect link between the author and his or her creative visions. *Brick Lane* is the story of Nazneen, a young Bengali woman who is newly married and immigrates with her husband, Chanu to London. The first challenge that Nazneen has encountered as an immigrant is language. The writer (quoted in Nilsson, 2010: 2) describes the main character by stating that "Nazneen could say two things in English only: sorry and thank you. She could spend another day alone. It was only another day." Ali, according to Nilsson (ibid) establishes through Nazneen's thoughts that her absence of language is the main cause of her isolation." As a housewife living in a foreign country, Nazneen, keeps watching the ice skaters on TV; her dream is to skate on day. The image of skating becomes a symbol of free will, since it appeared several times throughout the novel. Nazneen, in his new experience, should learn, not only how to live the marital life, but also how to communicate with the new culture in London.

Chanu, the character in importance, is an elderly man who has become Nazneen's husband. She was impressed at first with her husband's credentials and his collection of books and furniture, but becomes more and more annoyed with him. Chanu talks but doesn't act. He plans a lot but he doesn't accomplish his goals, and, like most Moslem men from their part of the world, he won't allow her to leave their estate alone or to work (Brick Lane Summary and Study Guide, 12). However, the death of their first child has brought the little family close together. What is characteristic about Chanu is his contradictory charisma. Though he tried to be a part of the new culture, Chanu is strongly tied up to his tradition. Chanu (Nilsson, 2010: 11-120) answers his wife's request to go out **alone in the following manner: "Why should you go out?" said Chanu. "If you go out, ten people will say, "I saw her walking on the street." And I look like a fool. Personally, I don't mind of you go out but these people are so ignorant. What can I do?" ". Besides, I get everything for you that you need from the shops." Chanu then pompously adds, "O don't stop you from doing anything. . . If you were in Bangladesh you would not go out. Coming here you are not missing anything, only broadening your horizons"**(Ali, p. 45). In this light, Ali tried to highlight a certain Moslems' doctrine that men should stay at home while women are responsible of getting things from outside. The author enables to reveal Chanu's character through the use of Moslem Bengali traditional attitudes of Parda (ibid).

Nazneen's best friend in that foreign community is Razia Iqbal whose character has witnessed contradiction between her vision and her actual acts. So, she believes in romantic love, but when the experience of love has swept her daughter she refuses the doctrine of love and romantic relations. In addition to Razia, the other characters are: Mrs Islam, Dr Iqbal, and Hasina, and Karim. Mrs Islam is a wealthy widow. Iqbal is a successful professional, whereas Hasina is Nazneen's sister who reveals certain aspects of the social life through their

correspondences. Karim is a Bangladeshi man to whom Nazneen has been physically attracted.

Part Three: Fiction and World View

Rarely are the fictional works of art that deal seriously with the problem of immigration and the clash of cultures. Ali's sharp-witted tale explores the immigrants' dilemma of belonging. Nazneen moves to London's Bangla Town in the mid-nineteen-eighties after an arranged marriage with an older man. Seen "through Nazneen's eyes, England is at first actually baffling, but over the seventeen years of the narrative, she gradually finds her way, bringing up two daughters and eventually starting an all-female tailoring business" (Brick Lane, 1-3).

In addition to the concept of emigration, *fate* is a basic theme in *Brick Lane*. To foretell Nazneen's future life, Rupban, Nazneen's mother who has a great power on her life, has pulled some more feathers and watched them float under her toes. "Aah, " she said." Aaaaah. Aaaaah." Things occurred to her. For seven months she had been ripening, like a mango on a tree. Only seven months. She had put those things that had occurred to her aside (Brick Lane, Lane). The narrator describes Nazneen's cultural world view under the power of her mother's strong character. So, "as she heard many times this story of *How You Were Left to Your fate*. It was because of her mother's wise decision that Nazneen lived the wide-faced, watchful girl that she was. Fighting against one's Fate can weaken the blood. Sometimes, or perhaps most times, it can be fatal. Not once did Nazneen question the logic of the story of *How You Were Left to Your fate*" (ibid). The course of narration shows that Nazneen has chosen her destiny by her free will.

A related problem to the new cultural world is drug addiction. The Bengali youth turns to drug addiction. As a response, Nazneen has vowed to go back home after giving birth her child. It seems that many Bengali families have the idea of returning home because of such problems but they have no money to go back. As the drug problem in their London community gets worse, even affecting Razia's son, Tariq, and as adolescent daughters become more westernized, Chanu becomes more determined to bring his family back home. Fictitious characters reveal more about the complexity of human life than one knows in real life. These fictitious characters are not the creation of imagination on paper; they are a crucial part of the fabric of actual life and human experience. The difference between people in novels and people in real life is that the novelist reveals more about the characters than we possibly know in life. The source of the clash between the British and the Bengali communities is that misunderstanding because of the lack of comprehending each other. As a Moslem, Nazneen feels strongly tied to her pious life and to the society in which she lives and the future in which her children will live. Islam, to her, is an attitude towards life. It is significant part of her culture. Even when she fulfills her wish of skating she skates with her *sari*.

The cultural points of view are organically related to the concept of *world view*. The other term that is related to ideology is the concept of "worldview." The term is widely circulated in philosophy, anthropology, literature, and cultural studies. It is "the sum of ideas which an individual within a group or that group have of the universe in and around them" (see International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Vol.15, 1968).

Geertz (quoted in Dundes 1968:303), proceeds on the assumption that "the cognitive and existential aspects of a given culture are designated by the concept of worldview; It is "the assumed structure of reality. "He concedes to say that "people's world-view contains their most comprehensive ideas of order, of nature of self, and of a society" (ibid). The term

itself is of German etymology. In Shaw's words (1972: 399-400), world-view or "Weltansicht" is "an attitude toward life and reality."

These concepts indicate the term "world view" is synonymous to "culture" in the sense that it focuses upon human attitudes and responses towards the physical universe in which a cultural group live in. This may pave the path to deal with the central concept of the study, i.e., *Ideology*. Ideology may be defined as "a set of conscious/or unconscious ideas which constitute one's goals, expectation. An ideology is a comprehensive normative vision, a way of looking at things, and /or a set of ideas proposed by the dominant class of a society to all members of this society (a "received consciousness" or product of socialization) (see Ideology, 2)

Being organically rooted in human consciousness, ideology serves certain metafunctions in communities and cultures. Whether conscious or unconscious, the concept of ideology is viewed differently. Destutt de Tracy, the coiner of the term, sought to establish ideas of thought and actions on an empirically verified basis from which both the criticism of ideas and a science of ideas would emerge (Freedman, 2003:5). In this sense, ideology is a conscious process. The function of this process, for de Tracy, was to establish a solid and unquestionable method by which correct ideas could be scientifically identified so as to foster the use of reason in the governance of human affairs for the betterment of society as a whole (Eccleshall et al.: 2003:3). But this is not the whole thing. For Althusser, the French theorist, ideology is not merely, or even mostly, conscious; it is in great part unconscious. That is, people are largely unaware that their activities and beliefs are ideological (ibid: 227). Ideology, in this sense, is the huge storage of human group's epistemic experience and knowledge. Ideology may influence the developmental system of beliefs and values of a given cultural group. Van Dijk (1998:24) thinks that ideologies are the "axiomatic basis of the mental representations shared by the members of a social group.

Life is a journey, and by the course of her journey across the new culture Nazneen has met other characters. Those characters are at crossroad: some try to get rid of the traditions of their native society and to acquire the traditions of the new society, and some endeavor to keep these traditions and rituals. Ali's *Brick Lane* is the story of those who have immigrated to other land(s) and the problems they encounter there. Through a series of letters that span thirteen years, *Brick Lane* begins to tell the story of Nazneen's younger sister, Hasina. Hasina eloped in a *love marriage* and ran off to Dhaka, the capital city of Bangladesh (Brick Lane Summary and Study Guide Description, 1.2). Though the two women live in different countries and cultures, they have a common ground between their lives: they follow the lessons taught to them by their mother ("Amma") before her death. Of these lessons is *fate*. Amma warned her daughters not to struggle against *fate* and to treat life with the same indifference with which life would treat them (ibid). Both women decided not to follow these lessons and to create their own lives by their free wills.

Brick Lane, being a story, concentrates on that gap between cultures. Chanu, Nazneen's husband, has tried to become part of the new Bengali-British community, but he feels that the view of the *other* is unfair. Although he condemns toward other Bengalis he cannot avoid feeling the feeling of discrimination, so, he says (quoted by Nilsson, 2010: 9): "I to [white person] we [are all the same: dirty little monkeys all in the same monkey clan. . . But these white people are uneducated, illiterate, close-minded, without ambition. . . I don't look down on them, but what can you do? (Ali, 28). Chanu refers to this degradation of races by using the pronouns *we* (i.e. referring to Bengalis community) and *them* (i.e., referring to the British community). Chanu in *Brick Lane* the *white men* as racist, but by his outcries, he also expresses a sense of racism against that host community. While protesting by

the Bangladeshi leaders expressed concerns over Monica Ali's description of the main male character Chanu. They felt that he reflected negatively upon real male members of the Bengali community on *Brick Lane*. The novelist (quoted in Nilsson, p. 10) conclusively confirms that Chanu is a fictional character; his opinions are not hers. She also maintains that the leaders of the Bengali community "continue to confuse reality with fiction. They have obviously assumed that the comical traits of Chanu are borne of her private westernized opinions pertaining to Bengali male religious and social values and the result of Post-Colonial Discourse and the concept of the "othering"(ibid).

Novelists follow different narrative techniques to unlock the episodes of their letters. Ali follows the epistolary or letter-technique for that narrative purpose. Hasina's letters describe the hardship in Dhaka as she describes the political climate there. The letters, in addition, sheds more light on Hasina's private life. She runs away from her first husband, works in a garment factory, and is soon fired because of a jealous woman's lies. After a period of homelessness, Hasina finally ends up in a home for destitute women where she stays until she is rescued by Lovely Begum, a woman with a different set of problems(ibid). What is distinctive about the letter technique is that it is used, not just to proceed in the narrative progression, but also to highlight the issues of the community where the characters live and communicate with each other. Problems like environmental pollution, mob violence, child labor, child trafficking, HIV/AIDS, and domestic violence are among the issues which expose the human situations in different communities. The technique of letters reveals the hidden, and sometimes the contradictory sides of the character(s). In case of Chanu, for instance, the antagonist fancies himself a frustrated intellectual and continually expounds upon the "tragedy of immigrants" to his young wife (and anyone else who will listen), while letters from downtown Hasina provide a contrast to his idealized memories of Bangladesh(*Brick Lane*, 1)

The other witty technique that Ali has used in creating the narrative fabric of *Brick Lane* is the interference of fiction into reality. A character, like Chanu, severely criticizes the "othering" for degrading his race. Now the question is: Is this true or not? Nilsson has picked up this thread to comment on Ali's artistic creation of mixing fiction with reality. So, the confusion between fact and fiction in *Brick Lane*, confirms that Ali successfully creates her characters on two literary levels; as real Bengalis and as fictional characters, with which she attributes both western and oriental characteristics. This allows Ali to pre-determine the destiny and the direction of the characters within the boundaries of the novel, and at the same time disregard reality. . . Ali uses these techniques successfully in the novel. However, these two opposing notions of *Brick Lane*, reality versus non-reality can create confusion: The reader may be forced to question the author's reality, her reconstruction of *brick Lane* and the immigrant Bengali community or accept her view as plausible to the plot and the outcome of the novel as a fictional work.

The fiction- reality interference is not restricted to the novel as a literary genre; it can be found in poetry and drama as well. Concepts like racist discrimination, empowerment, and power abuse are circulated under the rubric of Post- colonialism or Colonial Studies. Dictionaries and encyclopedias explain this term from different stances. So, *post-colonialism* (Post-colonialism, 1) is an academic discipline featuring methods of intellectual discourse that analyze, explain, and respond to the cultural legacies of colonialism and imperialism. Postcolonialism responds towards the human consequences of controlling a country and establishing settlers for the economic exploitation of the native people and their land. Drawing from postmodern schools of thought, post- colonial studies analyze the politics of knowledge (creation, control, and dis- attribution) by analyzing the functional

relations of social and political power that sustain colonialism and neocolonialism. . . . As critical theory, post- colonialism presents, explains, and illustrates the ideology and the praxis of neocolonialism, with examples drawn from the humanities-history and political sciences, philosophy and Marxist theory, sociology, anthropology, and human geography; the cinema, religion, and theology; feminism, linguistics, and postcolonial literature, of which the anti-conquest narrative genre presents the stories of colonial subjugation of the subaltern man and woman.

In its literary construction, the relationship of post- colonialism and immigration is clear in the veins of Ali's *The Brick Lane*. But before going a step further, certain studied highlight the faculties of such immigration of Bengali people to UK in reality.

British rule in India started in 1833 after long trading relations because of the British East India Company (founded 1606) and ended in 1947 with India declaring Independence. What had come later was fatal: India was divided and Pakistan was founded in 1947, the building of the Mangla barrage, and displacement of people. The immigration wave started in the 1950s and had its peak at the beginning of the 1960s. The largest group of immigrants next to the Indians were the Pakistani and Bangladeshi, who lived in the West Midland and in Greater London. Most of them were Moslems. Until 1962, all Commonwealth citizens were allowed to immigrate to England. Still, the problems encountered by the immigrants were discrimination and racism. Moreover many Moslems stick to their original culture instead of adopting the British culture and becoming British Moslems. In addition, victim mentality is the British and the immigrants. The immigrants live in isolation and ghetto life(Post-colonial and Migration, 1-3).

In this light, it is not altogether wrong to say that Ali's *Brick Lane* is an imaginative work of art based on actualities of the Bangladeshi immigration to London. The protagonist or Nazneen is encountered by social forces: the force of the language and the force of Chanu who doesn't allow her to be free because of his Islamic restrictions. The Western Discourse, however, does not realize the deep-rooted eastern socio-cultural traditions. One thing about the relation between Monica Ali as a writer, and Nazneen as a fictional character. Ali's multiculturalism can be traced to and, reflects upon the character development of Nazneen. Initially, Nazneen is a timid and observant housewife, eventually becoming an independent and strong individual. She manifests these cultural and ethnic traits in both Eastern and Western culture, not unlike her creator Ali(*ibid.*).

Conclusion

The critical analysis of Monica Ali's *Brick Lane* has shown that the clash of cultures occurs when across-cultural domains come into opposition. The Bangladeshi culture in London, represented by Nazneen, has to choose either to keep its traditions or to acquire the traditions of the other. And because of the difference in languages and cultures amongst different communities, the motifs of suffering exist in such multicultural societies. The analysis has shown that the character can change his human situation by his or her free will. But still, the source of the victimization of women is not always the result of the post-colonial view; it might be the result of the traditional culture in which the characters live in. While the other community exercises a sort of racism against the ethnic immigrant group(s), the members of the group exercise that degradation against each other. Though fictional in form, this tragic human situation is real in actual life. In this sense, Ali's *Brick Lane* has images the human situation in a constant tragic though brave world.

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