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IMPACT OF CONSISTENT AND SUSTAINED ORAL INTERACTION WITH NATIVE SPEAKERS OF THE TARGET LANGUAGE ON MACRO-LINGUISTIC SKILLS IN L2 SPANISH

Laurie A. Massery, Doctor of Philosophy, assistant professor, Department of Modern Languages, Randolph-Macon College, 202 Henry St., Ashland, Virginia, 23005, United States.

Kelly Merrill, Doctor of Higher Education Administration, assistant professor, Department of communication studies, Randolph-Macon College, 202 Henry St., Ashland, Virginia, 23005, United States.

Abstract
The following study measures the impact of consistent and sustained oral interaction with native speakers of the target language via remote interaction on macro-linguistic skills of adult learners studying Spanish as a second language at intermediate stages of acquisition. This investigation overcomes deficiencies in previous and current research that focuses primarily on individual learners, acquisition of one grammar point or the use of specific micro-behaviors, as opposed to looking holistically at the impact that interaction with native speakers of the target language has on learners' reading, writing, speaking and listening skills at intermediate stages of acquisition.
Participants of this study belonged to either the TalkAbroad-7 group ($TA\text{-}7_G$) or the TalkAbroad-2 group ($TA\text{-}2_G$). Using the Avant Stamp Test, learners' macro-language skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking) were quantitatively measured before and after treatment, following a pre/posttest design. Results of the data suggest that consistent and sustained oral interaction with native speakers of the target language significantly impacted learners' listening skills, while also contributing to the development of other macro-linguistic skills.

The pedagogical implications of our research, combined with those available in earlier investigations, suggest that a greater focus be placed on listening tasks that build learners' aural skills. Educators and administrators alike should consider curricular changes that require learners to use interactive programs that allow them (i.e., learners) to engage in consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL in order to cultivate this fundamental ability.

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1. Introduction.

In order to increase proficiency in a foreign language, learners need exposure to the target language (Hinkel, 2006, p.113). One of the best ways to expose learners to the target language is to provide them with opportunities to engage in conversation with native speakers of the language in question. Communicating with native speakers of the target language (NSTL) forces learners to simultaneously call upon a variety of linguistic features and cultural information introduced in the classroom (see Call & Sotillo, 1995). It is during conversation that learners begin to incorporate

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skills that help push their interlanguage (i.e., developing) systems forward. Learners' ability to negotiate meaning (Gass, 1997), comprehend and absorb linguistic and cultural content, apply phonetic and structural patterns in live conversation, as well as work through breakdowns in communication using the target language (see Hinkel, 2006, p.114), are all factors that contribute to students' acquisition.

Therefore, it is not uncommon to assume that exposure to native speakers of the target language (NSTL) has the capacity to improve oral ability through consistent and sustained verbal interaction – which we define here as repeated, concentrated, focused, organic, face-to-face conversation with NSTL for an extended length of time. Although such interaction is undoubtedly beneficial for learners, gaining access to NSTL is frequently difficult for foreign language students, which is why they (i.e., students) are often encouraged by advisors, instructors and/or administrators to study abroad in a country where the target language is spoken (see Lafford, 2006) - usually for a minimum of one semester. Consequently, many investigations have measured the development of fundamental linguistic skills in study abroad settings during a traditional college year or semester (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Hernández, 2010; Pinar, 2016; among others). The collective results of such studies suggest that "frequent and sustained interaction is an important predictor of language improvement in a study abroad context", as noted by Hernández (2010, p. 601). The idea that 'frequent (i.e., consistent) and sustained' interaction is paramount for increased L2 proficiency is important in what follows, and we return to this notion regularly throughout our work.

In a study abroad setting, language learners have ample opportunities to speak with NSTL in organic settings, including homes, classes, restaurants, bars and coffee shops, for example, unlike At Home (AH[1]) environments where intervention by the instructor or facilitator is often required - frequently resulting in contrived conditions for learners. Fortunately, in modern times, technological advances allow learners to engage with NSTL via remote interaction, including chatrooms, IPads, Skype, webcams and videoconferencing, among others. Mediums such as these create a platform where learners have opportunities to practice their language skills (verbal and non-verbal), continuously and attentively, with each other and/or NSTL.

Despite the array of new and advanced technologies though, studies that measure the impact of learner / NSTL consistent and sustained oral interaction are sparse. In fact, over the last two decades, relatively few investigations have focused exclusively on the impact of learners' oral interaction with NSTL at all, with or without the use of technology in AH settings. The studies that do tackle this multi-faceted topic (see Braidi, 2002; Brouwer, 2003; Call & Sotillo, 1995; Gardner, 2008 and He, 2004 for examples) often analyze micro behaviors, social interactions or the use of specific grammar points, as opposed to taking a holistic look at L2[2] development.

Even fewer still have taken fully-objective quantitative approaches to their analyses, and to our knowledge, no study has taken a quantitative holistic approach to learner / NSTL consistent and sustained oral interaction - which we operationalize here as the numerical measurement of all four macro-linguistic skills simultaneously in foreign language development (i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking). To summarize, previous research first and foremost lacks studies that center on the impact of learner / NSTL consistent and sustained oral interaction, especially in AH environments. We also find non-objectivity in studies that aim to analyze learner / NSTL interaction, both holistically and impartially, as most of the analyses reviewed here required interpretation and subjective categorization on the part of the researcher prior to numerical measurement and statistical analysis. And finally, earlier and current research alike are missing studies that investigate the impact of learner / NSTL consistent and sustained oral interaction using

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advanced technologies, such as Skype, webcams and videoconferencing, all of which allow students to verbally communicate with NSTL via remote interaction. As a result of these gaps, the goal of our study is to measure the impact of consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL via remote interaction on all four macro-linguistic skills targeted in L2 classrooms (i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking) using objective-quantitative statistical analyses.

The organization of this paper is as follows: in sections two and three of our work we discuss previous studies that have researched the effects of oral interaction with NSTL on the L2 development of specific language skills and micro-behaviors. In doing so, we review both technologically facilitated and non-technologically facilitated studies that center on learner / NSTL consistent and sustained oral interaction. In section four, we introduce the methodology we used to carry out our study, along with the research question that guided our investigation. In section five, we present the results of our data, followed by a discussion of these results in section six. In section seven, we acknowledge the limitations of our study and provide recommendations for future research. Finally in section eight, we briefly summarize and conclude our work.

2. Previous research on the impact of oral interaction between learners and NSTL

Previous research conducted on the impact of sustained oral interaction with NSTL on L2[2] development often employs conversation analysis: an exploratory method that requires researchers to record and transcribe interactions among learners and/or NSTL (see Braidi, 2002; Brouwer, 2003; Call & Sotillo, 1995; Gardner, 2008; He, 2004 and Kasper, 2004; Markee, 2004 and Mori, 2004 for examples). Conversation analysis is able to look at L2 development through both qualitative and quantitative analyses of turn-taking, sequencing and the effectiveness of implicit error correction on specific grammar points, among other micro-social components. Some studies that employ conversation analysis, like those of Call & Sotillo (1995) and Braidi (2002), for example, recruited relatively large groups of students for a quantitative approach. Other studies, including those of Mori (2004), and Kasper (2004), however, focused on one specific interaction between interlocutors, or followed the development of a single learner. In what follows, we examine only those studies that are most closely related to the present research and discuss

[1] term used in Lafford (2006)
[2] Second Language Acquisition

their findings. Subsequently, we identify contributions made by earlier investigations involving learners' prolonged oral interaction with NSTL, while also pointing to areas that need further exploration.

For their study, Call & Sotillo (1995) recruited twenty six L1[3] English speakers with L2 Spanish. All participants were enrolled in intermediate classes at the time of the study and belonged to either the experimental group (n = 15) or the control group (n = 11). Throughout the semester, the experimental group met with NSTL once a week for sixty minute intervals to converse in the target language, unlike the control group, which completed unilateral communicative activities in the laboratory – also for sixty minutes throughout the semester. A pretest and posttest were used to elicit information about learners' understanding of past-tense verbs. Results show that learners who participated regularly in sustained oral interactions with NSTL performed significantly ($p = .031$) better on tasks that required recognition of difficult past-tense nuances than those who completed autonomous tasks in the laboratory.

Like Call & Sotillo (1995), Braidi (2002) analyzed data from participants enrolled in either beginner or intermediate courses. For her research, a total of twenty adults were recruited: ten L1 speakers of English and ten L1 Japanese speakers with L2 English (Braidi, 2002, p.17). Each L1 Japanese speaker learning English met with a native English speaker and was asked to talk for one hour (i.e., sixty minutes of sustained conversation in L2). The sixty minute interaction included four specific tasks. The types of negotiations (i.e., micro-behaviors) that occurred in each conversation were classified by trained raters, ultimately disclosing a high interrater reliability (94.5%). All interactions between partners were audio-recorded and transcribed in order to analyze the role of *recasts*[4] in L1/L2 interaction. Results of the data show that learners who met consistently with NSTL were able to use the implicit error corrections to improve their oral output, suggesting that the use of *recasts* can be an effective learning strategy.

3. Previous research on the impact of oral interaction between learners and NSTL via remote interaction.

Research conducted by Tudini (2003), Jepson (2005), and more recently, Schenker & Kraemer (2017) have used new technologies that provide learners with opportunities to interact with NSTL via remote interaction. Similar to Braidi (2002), Tudini (2003) conducted a study that centered on micro-behaviors, or rather the use of recasts (corrective feedback), repairs (structural, grammatical or lexical alterations made by learners) and negotiations[5] (linguistic alterations that exist as a result of adjustments made during conversation to facilitate comprehension) that occur in chatrooms: a medium that allows for synchronous communication through written text via a computer or other compatible device. Although Tudini (2003) did not specifically address the effects of sustained *oral* interaction, the chat sessions were highly conversational and included similar features available in face-to-face conversation; some of these characteristics were comprised of continuous, uninterrupted interaction with NSTL, exclusive use of the target language, inclusion of a wide range of topics, stimulating discourse and instantaneous dialogue that forced learners to comprehend messages quickly and respond accordingly in real-time (see Tudini, 2003, pp. 148, 154). Upon analyzing data taken from forty nine native speakers of Italian, and nine learners of the language, Tudini (2003) found that negotiation was a feature that occurred regularly in chatroom sessions, even in unsupervised settings with unfamiliar partners (Tudini, 2003, 152). With this said, however, Tudini (2003) noted that only a small percent of the negotiations yielded linguistic adjustment. The most common of these linguistic adjustments, however, were lexical in nature, although morphosyntactic errors were also addressed with relative frequency by native speakers.

Similar to Tudini (2003), Jepson (2005) investigated the impact of conversation via remote interaction on L2 development, focusing primarily on the role of negotiation in both text and voice chatrooms. Jepson (2005) reported that clarification requests, which occurred when learners did not understand oral or written context provided by the native speaker, were the most popular types of message repair in both chatroom and voice chat environments. The voice chats, however, were very successful in providing learners with pronunciation repair, which is a clear benefit of verbal interaction, as learners have opportunities to apply speaking and listening skills simultaneously.

In a very recent study, Schenker & Kraemer (2017), much like Tudini (2003) and Jepson (2005), investigated the benefits of using remote technology for increased L2 proficiency. For their study, data were obtained from a total of fifty two participants; thirteen of the participants belonged to the IPad group, which we refer to here as IP_G, while thirty nine were allocated to the Non-IPad Group - referred to here as N-IP_G. The IP_G regularly completed recordings for additional speaking practice outside the classroom using the IPad app Adobe Voice, a program often employed for storytelling (Schenker & Kraemer, 2017, p.3). The N-IP_G, however, did not carry out the same oral exercises.

Data were collected using pre and posttest SOPI (Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview) scores, which were used to measure learners' ability in speaking, fluency and structural complexity (p.1). The posttest SOPI scores revealed that participants belonging to the IP_G scored higher overall in the area of speaking (4.923) than those who belonged to the N-IP_G

[3] First Language Acqusition
[4] *Recasts* are defined as "a more target like reformulation of a learner's non-target like utterance" (Fasgold & Connor-Linton, 2006, p.512)
[5] See Long (1996) for full discussion and explanation.

(4.513). An Independent Samples t-test revealed that the difference between the two groups was statistically significant, suggesting that the increase in speaking skills, as a result of the additional oral practice outside of class, brought about important changes in L2
ability. With this said, however, both groups showed gains in oral speed, although the N-IP_G scored higher than the IP_G in the area of syntactic complexity; neither of these variables proved to be significant, however.

Taken together, these studies strongly contribute to second language acquisition research in that they have explored the role of consistent and sustained conversation with NSTL in L2 development. Recall that Call and Sotillo (1995) found that learners who conversed regularly with NSTL had a better grasp of past-tense nuances than those who did not have the same kind of exposure. Furthermore, Braidi (2002) reported that interaction with NSTL produced positive results at novice and intermediate levels. More importantly though, these results suggest that even minimal, sustained oral interaction with NSTL can make significant contributions to L2 development during early stages of acquisition. Call to mind that learners were able to successfully use *recasts* made by NSTL to improve their speech after only one hour of sustained oral interaction.

More recent studies that incorporate technology as part of their research design (Tudini, 2003; Jepson, 2005; and Schenker & Kraemer 2017, for example) report similar findings to those of earlier investigations (Call & Sotillo, 2005; Braidi, 2002; Mori 2004 and Kasper, 2004, among others) that use conversation analysis. Notice that collectively, all of these studies demonstrate that consistent and/or sustained oral interaction with NSTL bring about important changes in L2 performance. Recall that that the results of the data presented in Tudini (2003) suggest that learner / NSTL interaction in chatrooms promotes both lexical and morphosyntactic awareness, while Jepson (2005) explains that clarification requests are abundant in both text and voice chatrooms. The results of the data reported in Jepson (2005) also suggest that voice chats contribute to phonetic development, most-likely as a result of aural exposure to NSTL. Finally, Schenker & Kraemer (2017) demonstrate that through the use of IPads, learners significantly improved oral speech due to the consistent and sustained oral practice experienced outside the classroom.

And while these studies have made substantial contributions to L2 research, especially as they relate to learner / NSTL oral exchanges, small group interaction, progress of individual learners, specific grammar points and micro-behaviors, most of them do not look at language development as a whole. Furthermore, even though Schenker & Kraemer (2017) do include a more holistic approach in their study design, at least in comparison to the other studies mentioned in our work, they focus on speaking accuracy, and subcategories thereof; they do not, however, include participants' performance of other macro-skills, such as the reading, writing and listening. What's more, some studies fail to measure the development of any macro-linguistic ability as a result of

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consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL; instead, they focus on specific micro-behaviors or the accuracy of precise grammar points. Bear in mind that Call & Sotillo (1995), Braidi (2002), Tudini (2003) and Jepson (2005) all review specific micro-behaviors that occur in a variety of interactive environments, although little or no mention of holistic development of language skills is available.

4. Research Methodology

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the goal of this research is to measure the impact of consistent and sustained oral interaction between learners and NSTL through advanced technology – and more specifically, remote interaction - using a quantitative-holistic approach for measurement. In order to carry out our research, we used the following question to guide our study: what impact does consistent and sustained oral interaction between learners and NSTL via remote interaction have on macro-linguistic skills in L2?

At the start of the fall semester of 2014, we piloted the present study with ten students enrolled in an intermediate level conversation course in Spanish. In doing so, we were able to practice administering the Avant Stamp Test (www.avantassessment.com/index.html) and familiarize ourselves with the general design of the study. Prior to their participation, learners were required to sign the personal consent form in compliance with the Institutional Review Board. Once the consent forms were submitted, learners joined either the TalkAbroad-7 Group (n = 7), referred to here as TA-7_G, or the TalkAbroad-2 Group (n = 3), referred to as TA-2_G. TA-7_G was required to complete a total of seven, biweekly conversations using TalkAbroad (www.talkabroad.com) throughout the semester. TA-2_G, however, was asked to complete a maximum of two sessions: one halfway through the semester and another during the last week of classes. Participants of the pilot study were assigned to either TA-7_G or TA-2_G based on availability and preference. All other assignments[6], including online homework activities, orally recorded journal entries (submitted weekly), textbook readings, short answer questions, partial exams (oral and written sections) and multiple oral presentations, were the same for all students in the class. The results of the data collected in

[6] Assignments for both groups included online homework exercises, orally recorded journal entries that were recorded weekly using the *Vistas* Supersite Voice boards feature, textbook readings, short answer questions, partial exams that included both oral and written sections, along with multiple oral presentations.

the pilot study revealed that there were no significant differences between TA-7_G and TA-2_G in any of the four skills tested (i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking), although the posttest did show that overall scores for TA-7_G were higher than those of TA-2_G, indicating increased interlanguage development in all four skills.

Data for the present study were collected at the beginning of the spring 2015 semester. For our investigation, we recruited fifteen participants, all of whom were L2 learners of Spanish with L1 English whose ages ranged from eighteen to twenty-two.The participants were allocated to either TA-2_G (n = 7) or TA-7_G (n = 8), following the same procedures as the pilot study. Participants' group allocation was based on their availability during the study and overall preference. Participants allocated to TA-2_G were required to complete a maximum of two TalkAbroad conversations throughout the semester, while TA-7_G was required to complete seven – consequently resulting in bi-weekly (i.e., regularly scheduled and consistent) sessions; all other assignments and instruction were the same for both groups (see footnote #6).

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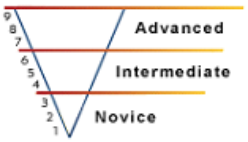
Similar to the research designs followed by Tudini (2003) and Jepson (2005), learners and NSTL were able to discuss freely, as no specific parameters or topics - grammar or otherwise - had been established or prescribed ahead of time in preparation for the
conversations. The general topics covered by participants and their partners included culture, politics, cinema, education, holiday celebrations, current events, family life, monetary issues, the job market, professions, family, hobbies, nightlife, and travel (among others) – many of these topics fall within the range of themes normally discussed by learners at the intermediate level (see ACTFL proficiency guidelines) as a result of their evolving linguistic ability. Furthermore, the topics listed here align with those mentioned in previous research, including Tudini (2003), Jepson (2005) and Schenker & Kraemer (2017).

5. Results

Comparable to the more holistic approach presented in Schenker & Kraemer (2017), we used the Avant Stamp Test[5] as a pre- and posttest measure of the learners' Spanish language skills at the beginning and end of the semester; all tests were scored by Avant's trained raters, thereby ensuring objectivity. By looking at figure 1, and aligning it with the scores presented in table 1, we notice that all of the participants in our study fell into the general category of intermediate-high in the area of reading, while they were collectively ranked as intermediate-low in the areas of writing, listening and speaking; scores reported for the latter of these skills are highly analogous to those presented in Schenker & Kraemer (2017), in addition to falling within, or slightly above, the national averages for university-level Spanish courses in the United States (see figure 2).



READING & LISTENING			WRITING & SPEAKING		
NOVICE	INTER-MEDIATE	ADVANCED	NOVICE	INTER-MEDIATE	ADVANCED
1 Novice-Low	**4** Inter-Low	**7** Adv-Low	**1** Novice-Low	**4** Inter-Low	**7** Adv-Low
2 Novice-Mid	**5** Inter-Mid	**8** Adv-Mid	**2** Novice-Mid	**5** Inter-Mid	**8** Adv-Mid / High
3 Novice-High	**6** Inter-High	**9** Adv-High	**3** Novice-High	**6** Inter-High	

Fig. 1. Benchmark Scale used by Avant Stamp Test (Both graphics in fig. 1. have been taken from the Avant Assessment website;
see footnote #6)

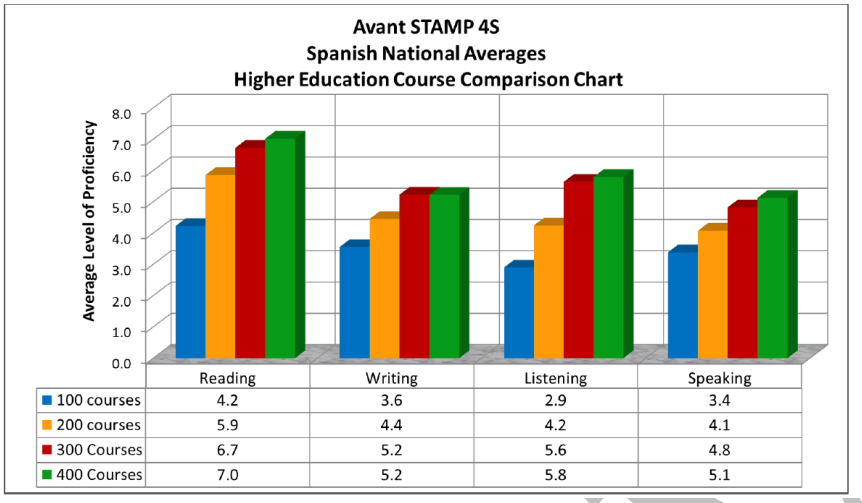


Fig. 2. Avant Stamp 4s Spanish National Averages – Higher Education Course Comparison Chart (The graphic found in fig. 2 can be found using the following link: https://avantassessment.com/blog/2016/avant-stamp-results-national-averages-2016

All statistical testing was performed using SPSS. The mean pre- and posttest scores (see Table 1) indicate some difference between the pretest and posttest scores for each Spanish language skill for TA-7_G and TA-2_G. For each skill measured during the pretest administration, TA-7_G had a *lower* mean score than TA-2_G. And, with one exception (reading), for each skill measured during the posttest administration, TA-7_G had a *higher* mean score than TA-2_G. We should point out, however, that the posttest did demonstrate growth in reading (0.25) for TA-7_G, even though the scores were not higher than those of TA-2_G. In fact, TA-2_G experienced no change in writing or speaking skills and regressed in listening skills (-0.43), while TA-7_G demonstrated higher posttest scores than pretest scores for every language skill measured (see Table 1).

Table 1. Mean Avant Stamp Test Spanish Skill Scores for Experimental and Control Groups

Skill	Pretest	Posttest	Difference
Reading			
Overall mean	6.07 (1.58)	6.27 (1.33)	0.20
TA-2G	6.14 (1.95)	6.29 (1.38)	0.15
TA-7G	6.00 (1.31)	6.25 (1.39)	0.25
Writing			
Overall mean	4.20 (0.56)	4.47 (0.64)	0.27
TA-2G	4.29 (0.49)	4.29 (0.49)	0.00
TA-7G	4.13 (0.64)	4.63 (0.74)	0.50
Listening			
Overall mean	4.47 (1.46)	4.67 (1.76)	0.20
TA-2G	4.86 (1.57)	4.43 (1.81)	-0.43
TA-7G	4.13 (1.36)	4.88 (1.81)	0.75
Speaking			
Overall mean	4.20 (0.56)	4.47 (0.52)	0.27
TA-2G	4.29 (0.49)	4.29 (0.49)	0.00
TA-7G	4.13 (0.64)	4.62 (0.52)	0.49

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Table 1 provides us with mean scores for participants' performance on the Avant Stamp Test. However, in order to find out which of the four macro-skills presented significant differences between pre and posttests, we conducted independent t-tests on the change scores, similar to the work of Schenker & Kraemer (2017). We used the change score (between pre and posttest) for each student as the dependent variable, and used a dummy coded grouping variable for the TA-2_G to run the independent t-test. We did this for each macro-skill and discovered that *listening* was the only skill that presented a significant difference between the two groups (i.e., TA-2_G and TA-7_G). (see Table 2).

Table 2. P-value of Mean Difference Scores Between TalkAbroad-2 (TA-2_G) and TalkAbroad-7 (TA-7_G) groups' measures for L2 macro-skills

Scale	Mean Change TA-2G / TA-7G	P-Value
Reading	.15, .25	0.86
Writing	.00, .50	0.11
Listening	-.43, .75	0.03*
Speaking	.00, .49	0.11

*p≤ 0.05

6. Discussion

In this section of our work, we return to the research question that guided our study: what impact does consistent and sustained oral interaction between learners and NSTL via remote interaction have on macro-linguistic skills in L2? Recall that the results of our data suggest that *listening* was the skill most impacted by the consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL. Although both the TA-7_G and TA-2_G improved in the area of reading, only TA-7_G improved in the areas of speaking and listening. Unlike TA-7_G, TA-2_G showed no improvement on the posttest in the areas of writing and speaking, and actually decreased in listening. Based on these results, we may deduce that the learners who belonged to TA-7_G and engaged in consistent and sustained oral interactions with NSTL throughout the semester, actually improved in all four skills, while TA-2_G, who spoke with NSTL twice throughout the semester, only increased in one area: writing. It is interesting that TA-2_G scored higher than TA-7_G in the area of writing. These results directly align with those reported in Schenker & Kraemer (2017), who showed that the non-IPad (N-IP_G) users achieved greater gains in the area of syntactic complexity, as indicated by posttest SOPI scores. Although the scope of this paper does not allow room for a full discussion on the development in L2 writing, it is worth pointing out that the results presented here, along with those presented in Schenker & Kraemer (2017), suggest that learners who have less exposure to oral and aural examples in L2, perform better on structure-based, written exercises.

TA-7_G also displayed important gains in all four categories, especially considering they scored lower than TA-2_G in all areas on the pretest, although listening was the only variable that was statistically significant. The question we need ask now is, why was listening the skill most impacted by the consistent and sustained oral interaction between learners and NSTL? Why would greater interaction with NSTL impact listening more than other macro-linguistic skills (i.e., reading, writing and speaking). In accordance with earlier research, the results presented in our study may not be that surprising, as previous investigations have alluded to similar results. Bear in mind that Call & Sotillo (1995) found that learners who engaged in consistent and sustained conversation with NSTL had a better understanding of past-tense nuances; these results point to increased performance through aural comprehension. Similarly, Braidi (2002) was able to show that consistent and

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sustained oral interaction with NSTL, which also required learners to participate in active listening and speaking activities, improved learners' aural comprehension skills to such an extent that they were able to use L2 more accurately than those students who completed less interactive exercises in the lab. Additionally, other research suggests that listening is the most important skill to develop when learning a language, as it is "consistently interrelated and intervened with the other language skills – speaking, reading and writing" (Renukadevi, 2014, p. 59). In fact, some investigators suggest that listening is a precursor to all other language skills and that this (i.e., listening) should be the principal focus of L2 language courses (Cheung, 2010; Gass, 1997). Moreover, according to Renukadevi (2014, p. 60), language competence is primarily acquired through listening (45%) - followed by speaking, reading and writing.

Consequently, if we accept the idea that listening is indeed the most important skill in language acquisition - or at least the most impacted by regularly scheduled and sustained oral contact with NSTL - we should assume that it involves much more than hearing alone, which is essentially the physical act of audio reception. Listening, unlike simply hearing a string of words, however, plays an active role in communication (Renukadevi, 2014), as it requires comprehension of a given message. Listening, not hearing, ultimately forces a learner to draw on his or her own ability to understand an utterance and create an appropriate response; both the act of comprehending messages and creating language require active involvement throughout the process. And while listening is an inarguably fundamental skill in second language acquisition, most foreign language instructors will explain that students don't do well on listening tasks, most-likely due to an underdeveloped lexicon or lack of motivation to increase vocabulary and syntactic abilities (see Renukadevi, 2014, p.60); it is perhaps this lack of linguistic familiarity that often causes learners to perform poorly on listening activities - especially during exams, for example, as a result of pressure and anxiety (Arnold, 2000, p.780). In an effort to help learners overcome such pressure and anxiety, some current research has taken an instructional approach to this line of inquiry (i.e., listening in L2 acquisition), providing pedagogical implications with their investigations.

Hsu, Hwang, Chang & Chang (2013), for example, found that learners preferred having access to key words during aural exercises, as opposed to fully translated texts in the mother tongue. Participants of their study, which included approximately eighty learners of English, claimed that L1 translations of L2 aural content were distracting, thereby implying that the continuous access to their first language was unnecessary. In her study of one hundred and seventy two L2 learners, Blau (1990) - like Hsu *et al.* - focused on improving performance in the classroom by demonstrating that slower speech did not have a significant effect on aural comprehension. She did discover though, that the use of pauses impacted learners' listening comprehension significantly, suggesting that the implementation of short breaks in aural texts or dialogues - not a reduction in velocity - facilitated listening.

Similar to Blau (1990) and Hsu *et al.*, Arnold (2000) investigated ways to improve listening skills, only she studied the use of *visualization*[7] exercises. In her study of approximately eighty students, she found that the learners allocated to the experimental group (i.e., those who were trained to use visualization exercises) performed significantly better on posttest listening tasks than members of the control group, who were not required to apply the same strategies. The results reported in Arnold (2000) suggest that the production of mental images, combined with relaxation exercises, had the ability to lower anxiety in L2, ultimately contributing to learners' increased success on aural tasks.

Even with these important findings, however, there is still more work to be done in this area of second language research, and certainly there are more pedagogical strategies that need to be applied and revised. Moreover, even though "listening is now well
recognized as a critical dimension in language learning, it still remains one of the least understood processes" (Osada, 2004, p.53). Explained differently, despite its important role as a potential catalyst or precursor to other skills in L2 acquisition, we still do not know exactly how this ability (i.e., listening) contributes to overall L2 proficiency. Therefore, based on the results of our study, combined with conclusions presented in earlier research, we provide suggestions for future investigations in the paragraphs that follow, while also discussing the limitations of our own study.

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[7] The term *visualization* refers to the conjuring of mental images that are used to lower anxiety before listening exercises (see Arnold, 2000). Arnold found that the learners allocated to the experimental group (i.e., those trained to summon mental imagery prior to audio exercises) performed significantly better on posttest listening tasks than members of the control group, who did not apply this strategy (i.e., visualization).

7. Limitations and Future Research

As stated in previous sections of our work, we have contributed to the field of second language acquisition, especially as it relates to the effects of consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL. With our research, we have shown that consistent and sustained interaction with NSTL significantly impacted listening, and consequently aural comprehension, in addition to augmenting learners' linguistic ability in other macro-skills in L2 Spanish (i.e., reading, writing and speaking). Although a larger sample size would have strengthened our study, our investigation did include more L2 participants than that of Kasper (2004), for example, who followed the language development of a single learner. Along with a larger sample size, it would have been interesting to analyze data from a variety of acquisition levels, following a cross-sectional research design, in order to observe patterns and behaviors displayed by learners at different stages of interlanguage development.

In addition to increasing the sample size and including a wider variety of courses, we suggest that future research capitalize on our findings by investigating ways to enhance students' aural aptitude and agility on a variety of tasks, perhaps expediting the acquisition process of other macro-skills. Such research might address how the latest social mediums or conversational platforms that allow for remote interaction among learners and NSTL, including videoconferencing, cellular phones, or IPads, for example, impact learners' aural ability in L2.

8. Conclusion

The results of the data indicate that consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL via remote interaction significantly impacted learners' L2 development in the area of *listening*. Recall that the Avant Stamp Test was used to test learners' skills in all four areas of language development (reading, writing, speaking and listening) before and after treatment. Subsequently, we examined the relationship between the pretest and posttest scores using an independent t-test, ultimately revealing significant differences between the two groups in the area of *listening*. Furthermore, although the differences between TA-7_G and TA-2_G were not statistically significant in reading, writing or speaking, TA-7_G did outperform TA-2_G on production-based exercises (i.e., writing and speaking) in spite of scoring lower in these areas on the pretest; this finding in particular illustrates important advancements for TA-7_G. And while our results do not explicitly support conjecture that listening is a precursor to structural development (Renukadevi, 2014; Gass, 1997), the results of the

data do appear to indicate (at least implicitly) that increased aural aptitude promotes growth in other areas. What's more, the findings reported here support those presented in earlier studies by suggesting that regularly scheduled, sustained oral interaction with NSTL positively impacts second language development.

The results reported here, combined with those presented in earlier research, also provide pedagogical implications by suggesting that a greater focus be placed on listening tasks in the L2 classroom in order build learners' aural skills. Educators and administrators alike should consider curricular changes that require learners to use interactive programs which allow them to engage in consistent and sustained oral interaction with NSTL, via remote interaction or other conversational platform, in order to cultivate this fundamental ability.

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PEDAGOGICAL MANAGEMENT OF DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATIVE ABILITIES OF STUDENTS OF UNIVERSITIES

Spirchagova Tatiana Anatolievna, Kazan (Volga) Federal University, Kazan, Russia, Candidate of Philology, Associate Professor of Chair of the theory and practice of electronic media, Kremlin Street, 18, Kazan, 420014, Russia. E-mail: tatianasp@nm.ru

Nasyrova Albina Munirovna, Kazan (Volga) Federal University, Kazan, Russia, Department of Germanic Philology, a candidate for a Master's degree, Kremlin Street, 18, Kazan, 420014, Russia. E-mail: to.albina@gmail.com

Vakhitova Dilyara Kasimovna, Kazan State University of Architecture and Engineering, Kazan, Russia, Candidate of Philological Sciences, Senior teacher of the department of foreign languages, street Zelyonaya, 1, Kazan, 420043, Russia. E-mail: dilik15@yandex.ru

Sadrieva Liliya Mirzayanovna, Almetyevsk oil Institute, Almetyevsk, Russia, Candidate of pedagogical Sciences, Associate Professor of mathematics and computer science of Department, Lenina str., 2, Almetyevsk, 423450, Russia. E-mail: lia-agni@mail.ru

Kazymova Tatiana Sergeevna, senior teacher of the department of foreign languages at, Kazan State University of Architecture and Engineering, street Zelyonaya, 1, Kazan, 420043, Russia. E-mail: kazimova_t@mail.ru

Abstract

Topicality of the research is determined by the development of social interaction forms. Communication ability is one of the most socially determined type of abilities, which includes the ability to take people, assess them, achieve mutual understanding, influence others. The aim of the article is to find out peculiarities of pedagogical management of university students' communication ability development. The leading approach to the research was the narrative approach which allows us to consider pedagogical management of communication ability development as the process of creating the conditions for successful social psychological adaptation and effective interaction with other people. 300 teachers, 500 students took part in the research, which identified effectiveness criteria of pedagogical management of communication ability development (willingness of students to socially-oriented and person-centered communication; students' knowledge of types and etiquette of verbal communication; the ability to listen, to communicate by means of sign systems and images; satisfaction with communication). The research results are the identification of pedagogical management methods (role-personality, exercise ("etude"), diagnostic, training). The obtained results are important because the identified methods are based on verbal-subject and verbal-image impact on students' minds, active cooperation arrangement and provide skill development: to take people, assess them adequately, empathize, understand; ideomotion; keeping the steady state of the individual self. The topics of

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practice-oriented classes were developed, as well as psychological studies, exercises for trainings and ideomotion development; test "Do we know how to listen".

Keywords: pedagogical management, narrative approach, education impact, university, higher education

1.Introduction.

Topicality of the research is determined by the development of social interaction forms. Communication ability is one of the most socially determined type of abilities, which includes the ability to take people, assess them, achieve mutual understanding, influence others (Rakhmetova et al., 2002). Communication ability requires the ability to behave in accordance with social norms, i.e. requirements, regulations and expectations of the appropriate behavior so that the person can be taken and understood by other people (Orekhovskaya et al., 2016). Communication is a three-pronged process, which includes communication, interaction and perception. Communication is the most important determinant of the entire personality development system. The person's "inner world" presentation to another person is carried out in the communication process. However, this process requires a particular "inner world" from each participant. Thus, communication is a specific information exchange, the process of sending emotional and intellectual information to the recipient. The information sender, whose purpose is to have some influence on the recipient, sends a certain message. The message may be encoded be means of verbal (words) and nonverbal (body language, mime, gestures, intonation, symbols, etc.) signs. The recipient must decode the message to understand the information. Consequently, a complete single communication cycle contains successive moves of the partners. Communication contact can be expressed in statement, question or inducement, concealing or demonstrating motives. Communication always has a particular situational character and is determined by the relations between the participants (Shaidullina et al., 2015).

The next part of communication is interaction. It is the arrangement of cooperation between people. The main components of this process are people themselves, their mutual connection and influence on each other, suggesting mutual changes. To make the interaction process effective and dialogic, it is necessary to observe certain conditions: the equality of the people's psychological positions irrespective of their social class; equality in the recognition of the active communication role of each other. The third part of communication is perception (from the Latin peruptio – psychological perception). Perception is a perceptual process, which promotes mutual understanding between the communication participants and is aimed at the achievement of the following objectives: formation of the content of interpersonal perception; promoting mutual understanding; providing the participants' influence on each other. It was found that the perception of social objects has the following specifics: the percipient tends to transform his self-image in a favorable way for his own purposes; the preceptor's attention is focused on conceptual and axiological (including causational) interpretation of the object; significant dependence on motivating and conceptual activity and its relation to the affects. Above mentioned information keeps up to date the need for pedagogical support of the university students' communication ability development. Pedagogical management should be understood as the activity that provides the subject with arrangement of conditions for best decision in different situations of life choice (Petrova et al., 2016; Yepaneshnikov et al., 2016).

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Successfully organized pedagogical management helps a person to enter the "development zone", which it is not available to him yet. The aim of the article is to find out peculiarities of pedagogical management of the university students' communication ability development.

2. Research methodology

The leading approach to the research was the narrative approach which allows us to consider pedagogical management of communication ability development as the process of creating conditions for successful social psychological adaptation and effective interaction with others. Narrative approach is based on the idea that people's relations are formed in the process of social interaction. Narrative approach emerged in the late XX century, when Michael White and David Epston published the book "Narrative means to therapeutic ends" (White & Epston, 1990). Since then it came to the notice of professionals around the world, and it has been developing in Russia since 2000 (Doan, 1998; Douge, 2010; Etchison, & Kleist, 2000; Freedman, & Combs, 1996; Grimwade, 2009; Hin Kong et al., 2011; Kutuzova, 2007; Pavelka, 2014; Ustaomeroglu et al., 2015; White, 2010; Winslade & Monk, 2000). According to the narrative approach the understanding of the events in our lives comes from the stories we tell each other and ourselves. The same story can be retold from different points of view, and the way it is done will affect the perception, evaluation of what is happening and a person's following actions. This suggests that the units of communication are cycles, in which the relations of positions, attitudes, each participant's points of view are shown, direct communication and feedback are intertwined in the flow of circulating information. This is due to the fact that in the process of communication, in the dialogue views are shared, creating something whole in the linguistic (speech) communication. Every communication cycle begins with the identification of the problem, which arises in the process of interaction and ends with individual decisions coordination. The sequence of cycles is not determined by the pre-formed programme or plan outlined beforehand. It is very mobile and is directed by the course of joint activities which are carried out. An important aspect of the communication process is the coordination of actions carried out by the participants in time, synchronization of psychological processes and states in particular. In conditions of the joint activity even synchronization of physiological processes (e.g. pulse) sometimes occurs. In the final cycle of the communication process the coordination of interaction results, their control and correction are carried out, common positions of the participants are developed. It is particularly reflected in the coordination of ideas, concepts, solutions, principles and strategies of joint activities formed in the process of communication. The specific dynamics of the communication process, the structure of cycles and their sequence depend on the topic of communication and distinctive features of people participating in it.

Narrative approach allows to make the following connections in the process of creating conditions for successful social and psychological adaptation and effective interaction with others: 1) the effectiveness of pedagogical management of communication ability development increases upon condition that each participant of the interaction maintains independence and ensures self-regulation of his communication activities; 2) the effectiveness of the interaction with others increases upon condition that there is a possibility to distribute the functions between the participants, role reversal in the course of solving problems; 3) the success of social and psychological adaptation increases upon condition that there is information and activity exchange, demonstrating the attitude to each other (assistance, sympathy, empathy, cooperation).

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Theoretical (analysis, synthesis, generalization, systematization) and sociological (observation, interviews, questionnaire) methods were used in the research.

3. Discussions

The analysis of professional literature showed that pedagogical management is the subject of many researches. However, there is no common understanding of its subject matter. The authors understand pedagogical management, firstly as the direction and technology of a teacher's activity (Yepaneshnikov et al., 2016); collaboration and cooperation without pain or problems (Kamasheva et al., 2016). Secondly, as the system of professional activities that provides conditions for successful adaptation of a person to living environment (Pugacheva, Kirillova et al., 2016); integrated method of providing conditions for decision-making which is based on the responsibility of a person for making the decision (accompanee has only advisory rights), interest priority of the accompanied person and continuity of support (Pugacheva, Filippova et al., 2016; Terentyeva, Mukhomorova, Perezhogina et al., 2016; Terentyeva, Starodubtsev, Timonin et al., 2016). Thirdly, as the process of concerned observation, counseling, personal involvement, encouragement of the student's maximum independence in the problem-based situation, the ability of the teacher to support in the individual educational route, individual advancement in learning (Sadovaya et al., 2016); the process where a teacher and a student determine his interests, goals, possibilities and ways of overcoming obstacles which prevent him from keeping his human dignity and achieve independently targeted results in education, self-education, lifestyle (Lunev, Pugacheva & Stukolova, 2014; Lunev, Safin et al., 2016). The advantage of all researches in pedagogical management is the idea of the leading role of a teacher, collaborative activities of a teacher (more educated person) and a student (less educated), which reflects the need for mutual dependence of both a teacher's and a student's activities, "it helps to understand the integrated unity of the two activities, turning them into a single" process. However, excessive regulatory activity of a student does not promote the development of his internal activity, restrains the initiative. A teacher and a student depend on each other. The student's dependence on a teacher is expressed in the fact that he cannot solve the problem himself and needs help. The teacher's dependence is that he cannot solve the problem for a student, at the same time without depriving him of the conditions for independence development. Thus it makes possible to interpret the essence of pedagogical support as "warn and teach". It in turn allows speaking of the pedagogy of success, aimed at the student's independence development, his self-confidence, the ability to cooperate with other people, "to become a personality".

4. Results

The main results of this research were the methods of pedagogical management of communication ability development (role-personality, exercise ("etude"), diagnostic, training) and their effectiveness criteria.

It was found out that role-personality methods involve performance of different social roles by students (lecturer, expert, moderator and others). In real life, we meet the interaction of different types: 1) individual-personality, "I – I" (for example: teacher – student, chief – subordinate); 2) individual-collective, "I – We" (the chief – staff); 3) collective-public, "We – We" (administrative management personnel of the company and staff). Role-personality methods contribute to the development of different interaction types and verbal communication types (social and inner

speech, dialogue and monologue, speech and writing, unreflective and reflective listening) (Sadovaya et al., 2016; Zamaletdinov et al., 2016).

Exercise ("etude") methods involve the discussion process of proving or substantiating, creative imagination process, search for solution by improvisation in the given circumstances. The Russian word "etude" has different meanings: 1) the product of auxiliary character (drawing, painting or sculpture), usually of a small size, made from nature; 2) instrument theatrical piece of virtuoso character intended for concert performance; 3) the small work of literature or research on any particular issue; 4) exercise for the development and improvement of any art technique (acting, chess, music, etc.). In teaching practice exercise ("etude") methods involve problem statement, task definition for its solution, creation of conduct rules (cans and cannots). The discussion process involves all students: some as performers, others as observers, which were originally given the role of supervisors. How the performers "acted" is not of great importance but the important thing is what the observers saw. In a simple exercise ("etude") made by their friends they can see a lot of new ideas and problem solutions, which the performers do not guess or think. This competitive process of information interchange used in the exercise ("etude") allows students to get into a reflective position (Pugacheva, Ezhov et al., 2016). Reflection here provides for the mutual imaging of participants in several positions: performers, as they see themselves and what they did; performers and what they did as seen by observers; and the same positions, but as seen by another person. There is a mirror image of each other's activities.

The group of diagnostic techniques is well known to researchers. Diagnostic techniques include a series of similar short standardized tests of the person having certain abilities. The net result of these tests gives an idea of the individual's measured ability level (by means of the test score calculation). The group of methods "Training" is aimed at developing skills to elaborate a cooperation strategy and focusing on conceptual perception by other people.

To identify the criteria 300 teachers, 500 students of Kazan Federal University were attracted to the research. The experimental test on the effectiveness of methods was carried out from 2014 till 2017 in three stages: summative, formative and control. At the summative stage a special programme was developed to implement pedagogical management methods in teaching practice. At the formative stage the programme was implemented. The following topics of seminars were developed to test the effectiveness of role-personality methods: "Culture and technique of speech", "Technique of speech: breathing, voice, diction, rhythm", "Spoken word in the range of communication modes and methodology of its use", "Persuasion as a basic method of communicative influence", "Suggestion as a way of influence", "The role and place of evidence in the speech", "Public speaking and methodology of preparation for it: goal set, its development method, material collection, the speech plan and text; skills in self-management, basics of self-control technique, appearance, the basics of mimic and pantomimic expressiveness". In the process of preparation and conduct of classes the students performed different roles. It provided knowledge internalization, development of skills to take people, assess them adequately, empathize, understand. On this basis effective interaction with people, behavior which meets social norms, information exchange are achieved, the person's administerial and communication skills are developed.

To test the effectiveness of exercise ("etude") methods the following exercises ("etudes") were used. It was suggested to arrange the exercise ("etude") "Dance floor" for the development of the administerial and mutual understanding skills in the process of joint activity. Six-eight people

participated in this exercise ("etude"). Possible options for the task: a) the partner is three heads above her, she has an attractive appearance; b) the partners are two meters tall who are on the dance floor for the first time; c) a married couple (husband and wife) had an argument during the dance; g) loving couple: he is very short, she is tall, thin, non-stop dance; d) the partner in a new suit, timid, she is overweight, cheerful and so on. Creating the atmosphere of a "dance floor", trick ending, emotional richness were assessed in the exercise ("etude").

The exercise ("etude") "Photo" is suggested for the development of intuition, the ability to take and understand a person. Each student was asked to consider five photographs of age mates. People depicted in the photographs were engaged in different activities. The student's task was to choose the common name for all five photographs and describe the depicted people. It was required to characterize personality in general rather than some parts of his face. The students picked up at least ten adjectives which describe the character and state of each person in the photograph. For example: calm, sociable, quiet, simple-minded, friendly, plain, agreeable, funny, tired, sad, etc.

The exercise ("etude") "Telephone" is suggested for the development of the ability to keep the attention of the conversation partner. The participants were asked to talk to an imaginary conversation partner: 1) mother who they have not seen for a long time or friend who they offended (it was assumed that the conversation would be emotional); 2) a stranger to make an inquiry, to advertise (for example, talk with a theater manager to ask for a ticket to the theater).

The exercise ("etude") "Dialogue without words" is suggested for the development of the ability to think in efficient, eventful terms. The participants were asked to make an exercise ("etude") on the following topics: "First date", "Refusal", "Surprise", "Contact", "Secret deal", "Blackmail", "Deception", "Offence", "Joke", "Gossip", "Choice", "Incident", "Kitchen", "End", "Recognition", "Secret". Two or three students participated in this exercise ("etude"). The exercise ("etude") must have: introduction, climax, denouement of the story. Originality of the plot, trick ending, emotional richness, theme development were assessed positively in the exercise ("etude").

The following exercises were suggested for the development of ideomotion (ideas about motion performance, which leads to real simulation): 1) "Warm-up": stretch oneself in different directions; try to cover as much space as possible, "to be as big as possible". The energy which was used during the exercise was assessed (movement amplitude, facial gesture); 2) "Get to conversation partner": standing still, "to get by hand and draw to oneself" the chosen participant who is at the other end of the room. The energy of the activity, infection and sense of proportion were assessed; 3) "Imagine you are on the take-off site" (river bank, roof of the house): after catching the rising airflow with extended hands the student should "take off" (on the basis of the glider). The success of the exercise depended on the motional ideas, ideomotor coordination. "Take-off" and "touchdown" time was assessed; 4) "Bundle of energy": the students were asked to imagine that they were holding ball in the left / right hand. The task was to move it from one hand to the other and backward. Ideomotor reaction was assessed: the imaginary object takes shape in micromovements, and the viewer can say with confidence, where the "ball" is at the moment; 5) "For good luck": the student was asked to take as much "happiness" and "luck" as possible from the space. In this exercise the feeling of faith, activity, emotional excitement was assessed on the basis of movement amplitude and involvement in the task. The word "ideomotion" comes from the Greek word idea – "image" and Latin motor – "moving". Ideomotor act is explained as the appearance of nerve impulses, providing any movement in the idea of this movement. Ideomotor

training methods are commonly used by athletes when they mentally imagine the complex combinations of movements bringing them to perfection which to be carried out. However, in the process of communication ability development ideomotor exercises ensure the development of imagination, visualization, visual images, non-verbal communication.

Diagnostic techniques were widely used. We will give just one example: "Do we know how to listen". The objective is a self-test in listening skills. Note: put "X" on the numbers of the statements that describe situations that cause you frustration, disappointment or irritation in the conversation with anyone. 1. The conversation partner does not give me a chance to speak, I have something to say, but cannot get a word in. 2. The conversation partner interrupts me constantly during the conversation. 3. The conversation partner never looks in the face during the conversation, and I'm not sure if I am being listened to. 4. Talk with the partner who does not look in the face during the conversation, often causes the feeling of wasting time, because it seems that he is not listening to me. 5. The conversation partner constantly fusses: he is more interested in pencil and paper than in my words. 6. The conversation partner never smiles. I have feeling of tension and anxiety. 7. The conversation partner constantly distracts me with his questions and comments. 8. Whatever I say the conversation partner always throws cold water on me. 9. The conversation partner is constantly trying to reject me. 10. The conversation partner juggles with my words and puts a different meaning in them. 11. When I ask a question, the conversation partner makes me act on the defensive. 12. Sometimes the conversation partner asks me again, pretending not to hear. 13. The conversation partner, without listening to the end, interrupts me just to agree. 14. The conversation partner when talking is engaged in other activities: playing with a pen, wiping his glasses, etc., and I am absolutely sure that he is inattentive at this time. 15. The conversation partner draws conclusions for me. 16. The conversation partner always tries to get a word in my story. 17. The conversation partner is looking at me very carefully without blinking. 18. The conversation partner looks as if assessing me. It concerns me. 19. When I offer something new, the conversation partner says that he thinks the same way. 20. The conversation partner overplays showing that he is interested in the conversation, too often nods, gasps and says yes. 21. When I am talking about something serious, the conversation partner gets in various stories, jokes and anecdotes. 22. The conversation partner often looks at his watch while talking. 23. When I speak to him at the meeting, he drops everything and looks at me attentively. 24. The conversation partner behaves as if I prevent him from doing something very important. 25. The conversation partner requires you to agree with him. Any his statement ends with a question: "Do you also think so?" or "Don't you agree?"

Processing of test results. Calculate the proportion of marked situations in percentage points of the total number. If it is in the range from 70 to 100% (18 or more statements) it means that you are a bad conversation partner. You should work on yourself and learn to listen. If it is in the range from 40 to 70% (10–17 statements) it means that you have certain disadvantages. You are critical about the statements of the conversation partner, and you still lack some advantages of a good listener: avoid jumping to conclusions, do not concentrate on the manner of speaking, do not pretend, look for the hidden meaning of what has been said, do not monopolize the conversation. If marked situations range from 10 to 40% (49 statements) it means that you can be considered a good conversation partner, but sometimes you refuse partner in full understanding. Try to repeat his statements politely, let him expand his thoughts completely, adapt your thinking speed to his speech, and you can be sure that it would be even more enjoyable to communicate with you. If you

scored 0-10% (up to three statements) it means that you are a great conversation partner. You know how to listen. Your communication style can serve an example to others.

In the process of the training arrangement a wide range of exercises was used. We gave the examples of exercises below.

Exercise 1. What words and actions will you use to overcome the following barriers of communication: 1) the conversation partner pays more attention to your appearance (clothes, hair); 2) the conversation partner does not believe that he will hear something which is new and interesting in your opinion; 3) the conversation partner expresses views that contradict with yours; 4) the conversation partner communicates outdated information, thinks about some other problems during the conversation; 5) the conversation partner pays greater attention to your disadvantages; 6) the conversation partner tends to give a hasty assessment of the information which was not given to the full extent; 7) the conversation partner has negative emotions because of the divergence of the arguments; 8) the conversation partner's behavior is too self-confident during the conversation; 9) the conversation partner takes staunch stand.

Exercise 2. Find the reason of the conversation beginning: Excuse me, am I disturbing you? I would like to hear once again. Please, do you have the time to listen to me? Let's consider it quickly with you. I was just passing by and dropped in to you. I have a different opinion on that. I would like to discuss with you .... I think this problem is of particular importance to you.

Exercise 3. "Communication of emotions". The participants were placed in a circle. The first participant was asked to send his negative emotions to his neighbor on the right using one or two phrases. The second participant without responding to the first person "sent" the received negative emotions to the next neighbor. The third participant also did not respond to the offender and using one or two phrases sent the emotions to the next person in chain order. When the game got a circle, the rules of the game changed. The first participant using one or two affable phrases shared his good mood with a neighbor. The second person after getting positive emotions sent them to the third participant and so on. Thus, positive emotions were involved. This exercise gave the opportunity to compare positive and negative emotions. The objective criteria for successful performance of the exercise were: 1) the student's involvement in the situation; 2) emotional speech, which was assessed using the tape recording. The number of emotional exclamations, sentence length, word order in the sentence were registered.

The following exercises were suggested for the development of image thinking, imagination, non-verbal communication.

The first is "Sounds and impressions". Students were asked to listen to a series of different sounds and talk about the images and associations that appeared while listening to the recording, combining them into a single story. If necessary, students could listen to the record of sounds twice. The response preparation time was limited (3 minutes). High scores were given for the story made in a logical way, unusual and unexpected associative bonds, emotional richness. In addition to image thinking, observation, the ability to event-related efficient and space-temporal perception were identified in this task.

The second is "Fable without words". The participants were asked to show the fable without using words in different genres (tragedy, vaudeville, western, detective, lyrical drama). In addition

to the ability to think in efficient, eventful terms, space-temporal, associative and imaginative perception, imagination and fancy, sense of humor were assessed in this task.

The third is “Inner monologue”. The participants were asked to consider five photographs depicting people in various situations. The task was to make the inner monologue of people depicted in the photos. The originality of inner monologue, compatibility of the emotional state of people with the depicted situation, the number of interesting and unexpected details in the monologue were assessed positively. In addition to the ability to think in efficient, eventful terms, the task develops the ability to analyze and synthesize.

At the control stage by means of questionnaire survey among university teachers and students, the effectiveness criteria of pedagogical management methods of communication ability development were found out: 1) the willingness of students to socially-oriented and person-centered communication; 2) students’ knowledge of types (conversation, discussion, interview, argument, etc.) and etiquette of verbal communication; 3) the ability of students to communicate by means of (a) sign systems psychologically equivalent to the language (sign language); (b) secondary sign systems based on the language; (c) contextually comprehensible material objects (for example, a gift sent by mail); 4) the ability of students to listen; 5) students’ satisfaction with communication: (a) the initiated activity, striving for action (the need for stimulation); (b) social interest is developed (need for recognition); (c) the achievement of the goal, the success of communication (need for achievement and acceptance).

Within the framework of these criteria, the students participating in the study (the experimental group) were given special tasks to determine the ability to communicate. Similar tasks were also given to students not participating in the study (control group), for comparison with the results obtained in the experimental group. In the experimental group, 500 students participated, in the control group - 350. Assignments were evaluated on a three-point system: 1 point - bad, 2 points - good, 3 points - wonderful. The results obtained are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

The results of the students' performance of the pilot and control groups of tasks for the top ball is "wonderful" for clarifying the ability to communicate (in%)

Criteria	task	The experimental group	The control group
the willingness of students to socially-oriented and person-centered communication	Etude "Photography"	83	54
students’ knowledge of types (conversation, discussion, interview, argument, etc.) and etiquette of verbal communication	Etude "Dance floor"	87	41
the ability of students to communicate by means of (a) sign systems psychologically	etude	81	48

equivalent to the language (sign language); (b) secondary sign systems based on the language; (c) contextually comprehensible material objects (for example, a gift sent by mail)	"Dialogue without words"		
the ability of students to listen	Etude "Phone"	89	39
students' satisfaction with communication	Exercise "Inner monologue"	86	37

From Table 1, it can be seen that the students of the experimental group have a better ability to communicate than the students of the control group who are not participating in the study. This allows us to conclude on the effectiveness of the methods identified.

5. Conclusion

The first peculiarity of pedagogical management of university students' communication ability development is the use of special methods (role-personality, exercise ("etude"), diagnostic, training) at classroom studies (lectures, seminars, etc.) and management of extracurricular activities. The methods are simple and do not require special equipment. Only one thing is necessary for their application: the teacher's desire to develop students' ability to communicate. The identified group of methods is based on: 1) verbal-subject impact on students' minds to foster willingness to socially-oriented and person-centered communication; 2) verbal-image impact to create the ability to communicate by means of sign systems and images, mastering the etiquette of verbal communication; 3) active cooperation arrangement aimed at the development of the ability to listen, understand each other, mastering verbal communication types, interpersonal sensitivity training. The identified groups of methods provide the development of all structural principles of the communication process (communicative, interactive, perceptive) and contribute to the development of communicative and good managerial skills of a person. The second peculiarity of pedagogical support of communication ability development is to keep a steady state of the students' individual self: awareness and assessment of themselves as partners of communication.

The results allow outlining directions for the future research of the problem which are related to the development of specific programmes of pedagogical support for students in the process of communication ability development. The data of this research article may be useful for managers and university teachers; training and professional development centre staff in selecting and structuring the content of university teaching staff advanced training.

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WRITING ELECTRONIC REFLECTIVE REPORTS AND ITS IMPACT ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF UNDERGRADUATE EFL STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS: A PROACTIVE APPROACH TO TEACHING ELECTRONIC DISCOURSE

GITI SABADOUST

PhD Candidate, ELT Department, Islamic Azad University- Karaj Branch
sabadoust@gmail.com

Abstract

Electronically-mediated communication (EMC) has an allure that is seductive in nature because it rings true for most people as something useful and it has paved the way in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) studies, specifically in reflective teaching practices. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the effect of reflective report e-mails on honing undergraduate students reading comprehension skills. A total of 62 undergraduate male and female students were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups: the treatment group used reflective learning email reports, while the control group completed content-related exercises and their academic achievement in reading comprehension was finally measured. The results of ANCOVA indicated that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the posttest of the reading comprehension; therefore, it was concluded that utilization of the reflective report technique via electronic communication can improve students' reading comprehension achievement. In addition, students claimed that they also improved their organizational skills and writing abilities through reflective reports and found the electronic communication to be a very helpful tool in reviewing the course and preparing them for the exam. Both teachers and students can boost email communication skills to integrate technology more effectively into both assessment and teaching of languages in order to enhance EFL learning.

Keywords: electronically-mediated communication, English as a Foreign Language, reflective teaching, reading comprehension skills.

1. Introduction

Learning how to comprehend a text whether in English for general purposes or in English for academic purposes have always been of great value and importance for educational systems. Without comprehension, reading turns into a mechanistic and meaningless skill (Oberholzer, 2005). The importance of reading as a communicative skill has led teachers to help improve students' comprehension through the instruction of reading strategies and critical thinking practices. Reading comprehension is considered to be a complex skill, that is why developing effective reading habits can be very tough (Behnam & Babapour, 2015). Accordingly, Nunan (2001) believes that reading is an interactive process in which the reader has to combine bottom-up and top-down processes.

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Predicting, making connections, visualizing, inferring, questioning, and summarizing are only a few strategies to help students improve their comprehension skills (Küçükoğlu 2013). In fact, summarizing and paraphrasing can help students to construct and retain a brief summary of important propositions from a text (Pakzadian & Rasekh, 2013).

However, most teachers are unwilling to train their students how to summarize and paraphrase and they view it as boring to teach and tedious to grade, so they avoid both as far as possible (Pakzadian & Rasekh, 2013). Besides, it is worth noting that while some teachers appreciate the deviant nature of electronic discourse for its stimulation of uninhibited language production of their students (Averianova, 2012), recent educational research is taking a look at the challenges which the new language variation sets before non-native speakers.

In fact, the use of email in this area will continue to grow, not only as a tool for communication in language teaching and learning but also as a medium for reflection and self-evaluation (Barnes, 1998). As such, we aimed at exploring the effect of writing reflective reports through electronic discourse on enhancing reading comprehension of undergraduate students majoring English translation. We believe that the integration of such strategies with reflective report practices through electronic communication can foster reading skills. We hope the findings would yield interesting results.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Language as a Communication Channel

According to contemporary linguistic theory, inspired by Vygotsky, language is supposed to have two alternative functions: "language as a mode of thought and language as a mode of communication" (Hoel & Gudmundsdottir, 1999, p. 94). There are various reasons and alternative communication channels for students to communicate with their teachers, such as "relational (i.e., to develop personal relationships with their instructor), functional (i.e., to offer reasons regarding material and course assignments), excuse making (i.e., to provide explanation for why work is late or not turned in), participatory (i.e., to demonstrate interest in the class), and sycophantic (i.e., to make favorable impressions on the instructor)" (Young , Kelsey, & Lancaster, 2011, p. 371).

Text-based but speech-like interaction which mostly occurs via computers and cell-phones has opened up new opportunities for writing in the second language, which ingeniously refurbishes the traditional means and conventions of traditional written norms for the purposes of economical, compressed and fast-paced production of language (Averianova, 2012). Lately, more and more TEFL practitioners found that it is crucial to introduce electronic discourse and its rules of writing and interpreting compressed texts (Crystal, 2001). "With the proliferation of 'social media', or digital media employed for content production and connection among individuals, electronically-mediated communication (EMC) is finding increasing use and recognition in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL)" (Averianova, 2012, p.15).

2.2. Two Different Approaches to Electronic Discourse

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Previous research (Averianova, 2012; Averianova, 2006, 2009) has depicted two basic approaches to teaching electronic discourse – reactive and proactive (Averianova, 2012). The former consists of critical assessment of recorded production generated by students in online communication by teachers, peers and/or native speakers. Such an approach is advantageous since it includes the opportunity to highlight mistakes and provide precise feedback on the quality of writing in each particular case (Averianova, 2012). The latter approach, on the other hand, puts an attempt to help learners with the common problems by introducing the conventions of electronic discourse and at the same time inviting them to critically evaluate different samples of electronic messages with regard to their comprehensibility, appropriateness, intercultural sensitivity and other relevant characteristics (Averianova, 2012; Averianova, 2009).

2.3. Electronic Media and Language Teaching

Developing personal relationships with instructors in and out of classroom context is proved to bring a considerable success (Young et al., 2011). According to Klentien and Kamnungwut (2015), teaching language via the internet can assist the learners to understand language in a real social and cultural context and at the same time it provide them with practical and up-to-date information. In fact, extra class communication (ECC) can bolster student's motivation by offering a variety of topics and building trust between students and instructors (Jaasma & Koper, 1999). Thus, E-mail communication has become a common mode of ECC which helps students and instructors open an avenue to everyday practice in and out of the language classroom (Young et al., 2011). Based on the fact that communication technologies can weaken social differences apparent in face-to-face communication and the role it plays in improving interactions it will be discussed in the following (Sproull & Kiesler, 1991).

2.4. Synchronous Vs Asynchronous Communication

In the arena of foreign language environment and language instruction usage, computer-mediated communication (CMC) exploring the feature of synchronous communication, is among one of the most debated themes (Shang, 2007). Synchronous communication is a tool allowing users to "to have real-time written conversations and was originally developed to teach English composition and literature to native speakers of English'' (Liu, Moore, Graham, and Lee, 2003, p. 253). The prominence of this type of CMC cannot be ignored due to the role it plays in creation of authentic and meaningful conversation between students, in saving the language output, and in helping students to reflect on what they or other peers say (Shang, 2007).

Asynchronous email exchange on the other hand, has been described as ''magnifying the power and immediacy of the written word and as such represents authentic communication with a delay which allows students time to think and compose a message'' (Kupelian, 2001, p. 1). In other words, this delay can reduce the anxiety level which students confront with during face-to-face conversations (Shang, 2007). Accordingly, network communication is beneficial as it enables learners to express themselves freely thus decreasing their inhibition effects (Shang, 2007). "Such parameters of EMC as synchronicity and asynchronicity, moderation, presence of audio and visual components among others entail various methodological and pedagogical implications for each format of online interaction" (Averianova, 2012, p.16). Such a mode of communication can help EFL learners to reflect on their own learning.

2.5. Reflective Practice

"Being reflective assist teachers' lifelong professional development, enabling them to critique teaching and make better-informal teaching decisions" (Burton, 2009). Accordingly, Dewey (1933, 1938) postulated that teachers are responsible for all the aspects of the language teaching and learning and the upcoming consequences. He further claimed that qualified teachers should listen to all points of view (open-mindedness), be aware of the consequences of their actions (responsibility), and have such qualities at the heart of their being and actions (wholeheartedness) (Burton, 2009). Accordingly, Fazlollahi (2012) contended that students' reflective reports help them in the learning process. Such a practice can help students to take responsibility for their own learning (Fazlollahi 2012; Koegler, 2000; Rosier 2002).

As Loughran, (2002) stated, "Reflective practice is a term that carries diverse meaning. For some, it simply means thinking about something, whereas for others, it is a well- defined and crafted practice that carries very specific meaning and associated action" (p.33). As a suggested way of helping practitioners in order to help them better understand what they know and do as they develop their knowledge of practice, reflection continually appeared as a magical solution to various problems (Loughran, 2002). Accordingly, Brookfield (1995) pointed out that the reflective practice literature is important for two main culprits. First, it promises different approaches to examining practice in order to discover and research some of the important assumptions that affect our approach to practice. Second, it provides opportunities for us to find out how teachers live through reflective practice.

Dewey (1933) defined reflection as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and further conclusions to which it tends" (p.9). However, Schön (1983) highlighted that the proactive role of reflective teachers, which they lacked in traditional teaching practices (Faghihi & Anani Sarab, 2016). Accordingly, pioneers believed that learning is highly dependent on the integration of theory with practice and experience with reflection (Humphreys & Susak, 2000). Recent studies on reflective teaching have stressed the experience teacher's gain through the process and revealed the beneficial effects of engaging in such practices (Faghihi & Anani Sarab, 2016). It is of great value to remember that "significance and meaning continually accompany the construction of purpose and application of reflection to the world of practice so that the value of experience can be realized by teachers in ways that minimize the possibility that the problematic nature of practice might simply be routinized" (Loughran, 2002, p.34).

Telematic facilities can promote reflective teaching by offering chances for collaboration and dialogue with colleagues and students (Barnes, 1998). Although the importance of e-mail communication as a means of practicing languages and raising awareness of cultural and European issues has been underlined, its significance for self-analysis and reflection is not bold like the way it is realized in practice (Barnes, 1998). "It is clear that this communication tool does not replicate the features of face-to-face or telephone conversations. It is, however, a valuable alternative and has its own unique properties which, perhaps, engender more reflection than more 'conversational' communication" (Barnes, 1998, p. 196). Quite precisely, the present study is going to explore the following main research question:

Q: Is there any significant effect of writing reflective report emails on the improvement of undergraduate students reading comprehension skills?

Q: What viewpoints do undergraduate EFL learners hold toward the implementation of the reflective learning practices via email communication?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

This project involved 62 mixed gender first year undergraduate students of English major recruited from Azad University of Karaj. The learners were at intermediate level which only reflected the number of semesters they have spent studying English at Islamic Azad University. They were all BA students in English Translation who have successfully completed the first course in reading comprehension and attended the second course of reading comprehension. They signed up for the second course, which offered them approximately 3 hours of instruction per week**:** 16 sessions of instruction in general (48 hours). The participants ranged in age from 19 to 26. The convenience sampling method was utilized in the present study because the participants were taken from intact classes for which one of the researchers herself was the teacher. The reading section of the Key English Test (KET) was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in terms of the English reading comprehension ability. The results of the NELSON test indicated no significant difference among the participants' performance on the reading section of KET. Finally, we randomly assigned the classes into control (n = 31) and experimental (n = 31) groups.

3.2. Instruments & Materials

3.2.1. Key English Test (KET)

The first instrument was the reading section of the KET used to ensure the homogeneity of the participants at the outset of the study.

3.2.2. Reading comprehension achievement test (Pretest)

The second instrument was the teacher-made reading comprehension pretest which was composed of one reading comprehension passage followed by multiple choice items, true/false, matching, and cloze format reading comprehension tests.

3.2.3. Reading comprehension achievement test (Posttest)

The third instrument in this study was the reading comprehension posttest which was similar to the pretest in terms of format, topic, difficulty, and length. It was used to evaluate the reading comprehension ability of the participants after the treatment programs comparing the performances of the participants in the experimental group with that of the control group.

3.2.4. Email writing reflective reports

All students at Islamic Azad University in Karaj study a reading comprehension book appropriate for students at intermediate level in the second reading comprehension course. Accordingly, this book is appropriate for the first-year undergraduate students in terms of language proficiency (Active Skills for Reading Level 3). Every session, a reading passage was taught by the instructor (researcher) in class. Afterwards, students were supposed to reflect on the reading text and then communicate with the instructor via email. The selected themes for email communications were entirely on the basis of the book topics in each chapter of the reading book (see Appendix A).

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3.2.5. Semi-structured Interview

The semi-structured interviews were intended to elicit information from students to find out their perception toward reflective learning practices via email communication. Two core questions served as the basis for the interviews: "What is your viewpoint about writing reflective reports through email communication?", and "To what extent was the program effective in improving your reading comprehension language skill? Why?"; however, other supportive questions were asked when the need arose. The interviews were conducted in English and they lasted approximately 10 minutes.

3.3. Procedure

The main study was conducted in the second semester of the academic year of 2015-2016. After administering the KET exam to check the homogeneity of the participants, they were randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control group. Then, the researcher provides an operational definition of what is meant and expected by an email reflective report. She clarified what a reflective report is and what it should be about. Then after, the pretest was conducted to diagnose the students' independent performance abilities. Afterwards, a treatment program lasting for 10 weeks was offered. In other words, students in the experimental group were asked to provide reflective reports via emails with regard to the reading passage which they studied every session in the reading book (Active Skills for Reading). Altogether the students sent 10 reflective reports via email communication (see Appendix B for a sample email report). This way, the researcher could find some information regarding the problematic areas students had in comprehension of the text. Finally, the posttest was administered. The sessions were held once in a week for a time period of 16 weeks (3 hours per session each week). The participants in the control group completed only content-related exercises and no treatment program was implemented. Then, semi-structured interviews were conducted with students in the experimental group to hold their opinions with regard to the aim and scope of the qualitative research question in this study.

4. Results

4.1. The Quantitative Analysis

The present study entitled "The Impact of Reflective Report E-mails on the Improvement of Iranian Undergraduate Students' Reading Comprehension Skills" aims at investigating the effect of reflective report e-mail on the improvement of the Iranian undergraduate students' reading comprehension skills. The data were analyzed through independent-samples t-test and one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) both of which assume normality of the data. Based on the results displayed in Table 1 it can be concluded that the data enjoyed normal distribution. The ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their standard errors were lower than +/- 1.96.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics; Testing Normality Assumption

	N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
Group	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio

	NELSON	31	.141	.421	0.33	-1.482	.821	-1.81
experimental	Pretest	31	-.062	.421	-0.15	-1.081	.821	-1.32
	Posttest	31	-.480	.421	-1.14	-.975	.821	-1.19
	NELSON	31	-.167	.421	-0.40	-1.545	.821	-1.88
control	Pretest	31	-.259	.421	-0.62	-1.439	.821	-1.75
	Posttest	31	-.434	.421	-1.03	-1.110	.821	-1.35

NELSON Language Proficiency Test

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on the NELSON test in order to prove that they enjoyed at the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. Based on the results displayed in Table 2 it can be claimed that the experimental (M = 25.52, SD = 5.93) and the control (M = 25.39, SD = 5.45) groups had almost the same means on the NELSON test.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics; NELSON by Groups

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
experimental	31	25.52	5.932	1.065
control	31	25.39	5.457	.980

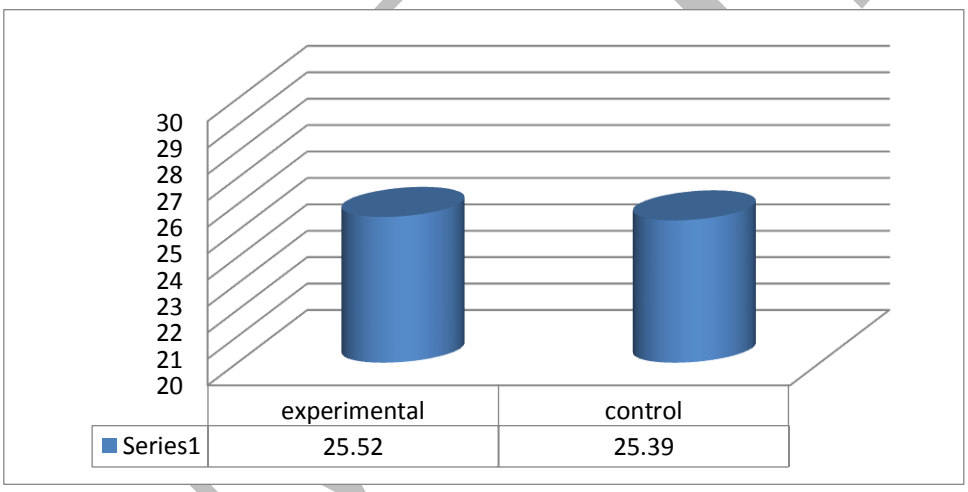
The results of the independent t-test (t (60) = .089, p = .929, r = .011 representing a weak effect size) (Table 3) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the NELSON test. Thus it can be claimed that they enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = .444, p = .508). That is why the first row of Table 3, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

Table 3

Independent Samples t-test; NELSON by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality Variances		oft-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.444	.508	.089	60	.929	.129	1.448	-2.767	3.025
Equal variances not assumed			.089	59.586	.929	.129	1.448	-2.767	3.025

Figure 1 Means on NELSON test by groups



Testing Null-Hypothesis

A one-way ANCOVA was run to investigate the effect of reflective report e-mail on the improvement of the reading comprehension skill (RC) of Iranian undergraduate students. Before presenting the main results, it should be noted that besides normality of the data; ANCOVA has three assumptions all of which as discussed below were met;

- The assumption of homogeneity of variances as measured through the Levene's test was met (F (1, 60) = .035, p = .852) (Table 4).

Table 4

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.035	1	60	.852

- ANCOVA assumes that the relationship between the dependent variable (posttest of RC) and covariate (pretest) be a linear one. Based on the results displayed in Table 5 (F (1, 44) = 190.41, p = .000) it can be claimed that the statistical null-hypothesis as the relationship between the two variable was not a linear one was rejected. In other words; there was a linear relationship between dependent variable and covariate.

Table 5

ANOVA Table; Testing Linearity Assumption

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Posttest * Pretest	Between Groups	(Combined)	392.609	1	723.095	12.771	.000
		Linearity	344.340	1	344.340	190.41	.000
		Deviation from Linearity	48.269	1	63.017	1.668	.091
	Within Groups		79.568	44	1.808		
	Total		472.177	61			

- And finally; it assumes that the linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate is the same across the groups, i.e. homogeneity of regression slopes. The non-significant interaction between the covariate and the independent variable (types of treatment) (F (1, 58) = 1.78, p = .178, partial η^2 = .030 representing a weak effect size) (Table 6) indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was met.

Table 6

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects; Testing Assumption of Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	6.489	1	6.489	3.562	.064	.058
Pretest	353.356	1	353.356	193.945	.000	.770
Group * Pretest	3.244	1	3.244	1.780	.187	.030
Error	105.672	58	1.822			
Total	17750.000	62				

Based on the results displayed Table 7 it can be claimed that the experimental group (M = 17.25, SE = .245) had a higher mean on the posttest of RC than the control group (M = 16.13, SE = .245) after removing the effect of pretest.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Reading Comprehension by Groups by Pretest

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
experimental	17.250[a]	.245	16.760	17.740
control	16.137[a]	.245	15.647	16.627

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest = 16.05.

The results of ANCOVA (F (1, 59) = 10.25, p = .002, partial η^2 = .148 representing a large effect size) (Table 8) indicated that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the posttest of RC after removing the effect of pretest. Thus the null-hypothesis **was rejected**.

Table 8

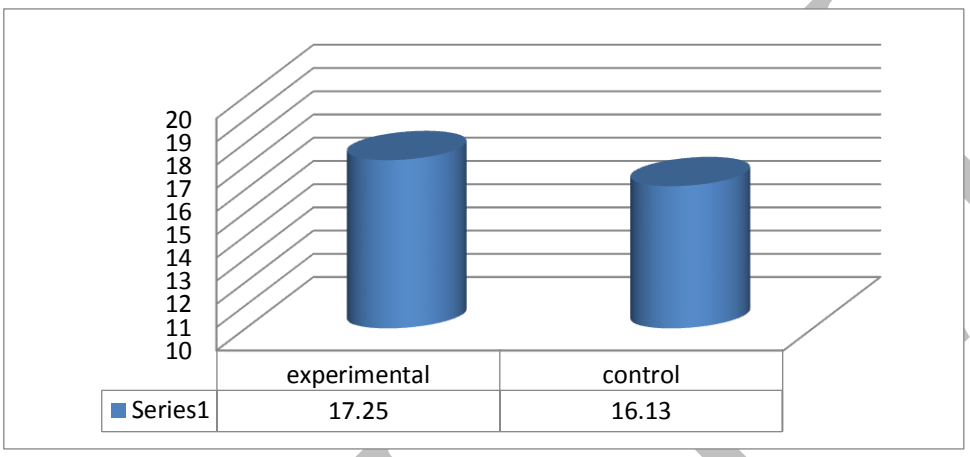
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects; Posttest of Reading Comprehension by Groups with Pretest

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	358.600	1	358.600	194.254	.000	.767
Group	18.921	1	18.921	10.250	.002	.148
Error	108.916	59	1.846			

Total	17750.000	62

The significant F-value associated with the covariate (pretest) (F = 194.25, p = .000) indicated that the pretest was corrected chosen as a covariate, i.e. it had a significant role in this model.

Figure 2 Means on posttest of reading comprehension by groups with pretest



KR-21 Reliability Indices

The KR-21 reliability indices for the NELSON, pretest and posttest were .91, .61 and .68 respectively (Table 9).

Table 4.9

KR-21 Reliability Indices

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	KR-21
NELSON	62	25.45	5.653	31.957	.91
Pretest	62	16.05	2.932	8.596	.66
Posttest	62	16.69	2.782	7.741	.68

Criterion Referenced Validity

The Pearson correlations between the NELSON test and pretest and posttest of RC were computed as the criterion referenced validity indices of the latter two tests. Based on the results displayed in Table 10 it can be concluded that;

- Pretest of RC enjoyed a significant criterion referenced validity (r (60) = .761, p = .000, representing a large effect size).

- Posttest of RC enjoyed a significant criterion referenced validity (r (60) = .717, p = .000, representing a large effect size).

Table 4.10

Pearson Correlations; NELSON with Pretest and

Posttest of Reading Comprehension

		NELSON
Pretest	Pearson Correlation	.761**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	62
Posttest	Pearson Correlation	.717**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	62

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.2. The Qualitative Analysis

4.2.1. Interview Findings

To answer the second research question, ": What viewpoints do undergraduate EFL learners hold toward the implementation of the reflective learning practices via email communication?", students in the experimental group were interviewed to express their opinions about the appropriateness of implementing reflective learning practices through writing weekly reports. The main findings are presented as follows:

Altogether, students in the experimental group hold positive attitude toward the implementation of the program. They agreed that the reflective report technique through email communication helped them to a great extent in learning how to paraphrase, summarize, comprehend, and challenge a text. Besides, they claimed that they could also improve their organizational skills and writing abilities through writing reflective reports and found the electronic communication to be a very helpful tool in reviewing the course and preparing for the exam. At the same time, they believed that reflective learning could help them boost critical thinking by forming their own viewpoints with regard to the position of the author of the text. Meanwhile, they further claimed that email communication has helped them to overcome their stress and anxiety level since the teacher's response to their emails could provide feedback. In other words, they believed that even a short reply by the teacher motivates them to write better reports and helped them improve their writing style.

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5. Discussion

As far as the first research question is concerned, the quantitative analysis of the results indicated that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the posttest of RC after removing the effect of pretest. As the literature in the area of reflective learning practices suggests, and based on our best knowledge and careful search for the subject, no study has been conducted in order to investigate the students reading comprehension achievement via email communication reports. It should be first mentioned that part of the results is compared with similar researches.

Our quantitative findings revealed that reflective learning practices via email communication in writing reports had significantly influenced student's achievement in reading comprehension. Similarly, Chang & Lin (2014) highlighting the effect of reflective learning e-journals on reading comprehension and communication in language learning, found that when learning from web-based instruction, students who used reflective learning e-journals outperformed students who did not do so in terms of reading comprehension. Using reflective e-journals improved the academic performance of learners in the online course. Similarly, Marzban (2011) investigating the improvement of reading comprehension through computer-assisted language learning came to significant results. Besides, in line with our findings Fazlollahi, (2012) found that reflective report technique significantly affected the performance of the experimental group by implementing dynamic assessment (DA) approach in assessment of writing. Another study on the effect of reflective strategies training on reading comprehension of male and female students was conducted by Noroozi (1998). The study findings revealed that female students used the reflective strategies before, while, and after reading process remarkably more than the male students. However, both male and female students employed reflective strategies in their reading process.

As for the second research question, and based on the qualitative analysis of the results it was concluded that students took advantage of reflective learning in order to improve their organizational skills and writing abilities through email communication and found it to be a very helpful tool in fostering comprehension skills and reviewing the course and preparing for the exam. The interview findings revealed that students in the experimental group mastered summarizing and paraphrasing skills. In line with our findings, Pakzadian and Rasekh, (2013) investigating the effects of using summarization strategies on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension indicated that after receiving summarization strategies training participants outperformed in posttest. Accordingly, Averianova (2012) stated, the importance of electronically-mediated communication (EMC) for foreign language acquisition cannot be ignored as it emphasizes the importance of the ability to communicate as the main objective of language learning.

6. Conclusion and Implications

Ability to communicate well in different electronic formats comprises a new type of genre across written discourse. TEFL needs to address the discursive knowledge and skills essential for interaction, and electronically-mediated communication becomes the main instrument for developing good language skills. This study set out to investigate the possible effect of reflective reports on the improvement of undergraduate EFL learner's reading comprehension skills. The results of the quantitative analysis revealed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the posttest of RC after removing the effect of pretest. The interview findings

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confirmed the appropriateness of utilizing reflective practices within electronic discourse as most students held positive attitudes.

The findings of this study may have implications for the classroom teaching and learning. EFL learners and teachers may have the opportunity to use e-mail as a means of communication. Compared to face-to-face communication this procedure can facilitate communication between students and teachers so that students feel free to talk about their language problems. In EFL classrooms most EFL learners acquire largely formal speech habits, their exposure to authentic speech in EMC remains, for many, the only opportunity to learn other varieties of language, the predominant one being electronic discourse. Both teachers and students can provide email communications to integrate technology more effectively into teaching of languages in order to enhance EFL learning. Teachers can encourage students as well as EFL practitioners to experience email communication inside and outside of the EFL classrooms.

This study examined the effectiveness of writing electronic reflective reports on the improvement of undergraduate EFL learners reading comprehension skills. Given the findings of this study, the researchers could be encouraged to investigate the following areas in future. Another study can be conducted to investigate the impact of writing electronic reports on the other language skills, namely, writing. A research project is also required to compare L2 learners and teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of writing reflective report emails.

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Appendix A

Topics of Reading passages in Active Skills for Reading Book (Anderson, 2002)

Chapters	**Units**
1.TRAVEL	1. Travel and technology
	2. Selling India's rainy season
2.FASHION	1. The color of fashion
	2. Reality TV: Good or Bad fashion
3.DISAPPEARING ANIMALS	1. Endangered species
	2. Bring back the wooly mammoth
4.BIG MONEY	1. What does a million dollars buy?
	2. Lottery winners
5.CELEBRATIONS	1. Wedding customs
	2. Travel diary: Yanshuei Fireworks Festival

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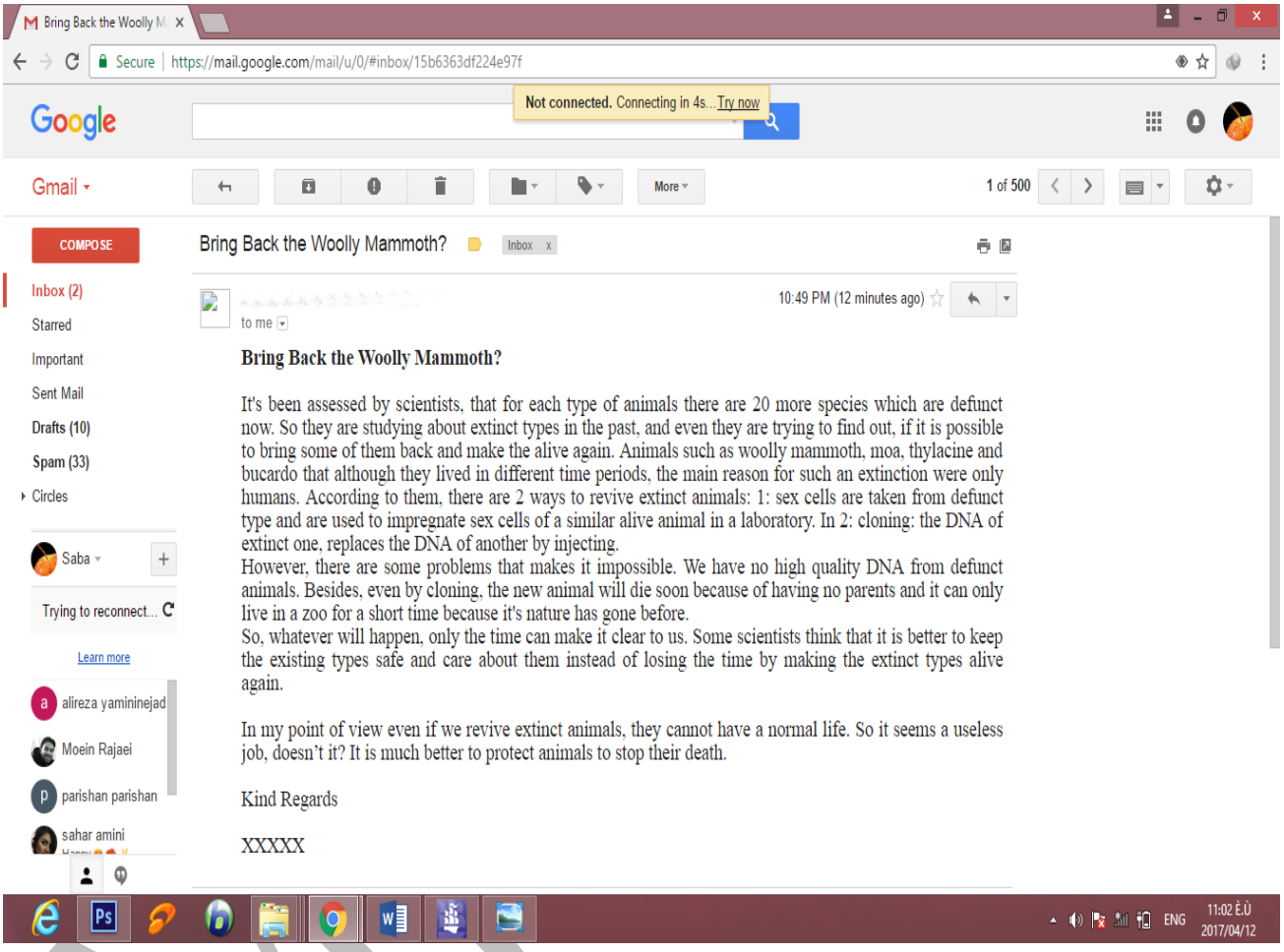
Appendix B

A sample Email Reflective Report



METHODS OF FORMATION OF TRANSDISCIPLINARY COMPETENCES OF STUDENTS OF RESEARCH UNIVERSITIES

Kayumova Lily Azatovna, senior lecturer of mathematics and computer science Department, Almetyevsk oil Institute, Lenina str., 2, Almetyevsk,423450, Russia. E-mail: kayumova.lilija@yandex.ru

Pugacheva Natalya Borisovna, Kazan State University of Architecture and Engineering, Kazan, Russia, Department of Building Technology, Doctor of Education, Professor, street Zelyonaya, 1, Kazan 420043, Russia. E-mail: natalya-pugacheva@yandex.ru

Brodskaya Tatiana Anatolievna, Almetyevsk oil Institute, Almetyevsk, Russia, The candidate of pedagogical Sciences, associate Professor, Department of mathematics and computer science, Lenina str., 2, Almetyevsk, 423450, Russia. E-mail: tatyana.brodskaya72@mail.ru

Danyushenkov Vladimir Stepanovich, Doctor of Education, professor, Department of Physics and Physics teaching methods, Vyatka State University, street Moskovskaya, 36, Kirov, 610000, Russia. E-mail: e.danyushenkova@cic43.ru

Korshunova Olga Vitalievna, Doctor of Education, Professor of the chair of pedagogics, Vyatka State University, street Moskovskaya, 36, Kirov, 610000, Russia. E-mail: okorchun@mail.ru

Abstract

The topicality of the research is based upon requirements of economy to the training of specialists who can carry out technology transfer from different scientific fields. The aim of the research is to find out methods of students' transdisciplinary competences development. Methodological bases of the research were binary principles of fundamentalization and professionalization, differentiation and personalization, which allow preparing specialists possessing targeted invariant transdisciplinary competences and ready for solving particular professional tasks. The main results include revealing integrative method, methods of knowledge mathematization, activity acquisition, unfinished action effect application, system quantization of knowledge, accomplishment and defence of abstract, multiple-option split-level tasks. The obtained results are significant because integral transdisciplinary view of life, trans-harmonization of scientific terms, the ability to create mathematical models and students' educational initiative were formed; the abilities to identify transdisciplinary knowledge and skills and apply them for solving professional tasks were provided as well as the development of lateral thinking. Effectiveness of transdisciplinary competences development of national research universities students increases under the condition of application of integrative method, methods of knowledge mathematization, activity acquisition, unfinished action effect application, system quantization of knowledge, accomplishment and defence of abstract, multiple-option split-level tasks.

Keywords: transdisciplinary competences, transdisciplinary approach, engineering education.

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1. Introduction

Topicality of the research is reasoned by increased requirements of modern economy to quality growth of engineering education. Modernization of economy demands training of engineers who are, firstly, oriented to fulfilling scientific research and experimental design work and are responsible to the science and humanity for the consequences of the engineering solution. Secondly, future engineers should be able to adapt fast in the stream of information and to carry out technologies transfer from different scientific fields. Thirdly, they should be ready to different types of professional activity and creation of competitive products, development of convergent technologies and lifelong learning during all their lives (Pugacheva, Kirillova et al., 2016).

In October 1998 in Paris at General Headquarters of UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education took place (UNESCO on the World Conference on Higher Education, 1998). The results of the conference were formalised in the text of «World declaration on higher education for the twenty-first century: vision and action» (World declaration on higher education for XXI century, 1998). In the declaration there is shown the necessity of transdisciplinary approach application in solving complicated social and economic problems of the society, organizing and carrying out the research. The recommendations suggested in the declaration were supported by organizers of higher education in many countries of the world. In Russia this declaration is included into the list of documents of Expert-analytical support of legal coverage of basic and vocational education modernization, quality management and availability of educational services (Expert-analytical support of legal coverage of basic and vocational education modernization in Russia, 2011). In China the declaration's provisions were used while preparing and realization of State programmes on development of science and technology: Programme «973» (State programme on development of science and technology in China, 1998). In the USA the declaration's provisions are realized in 2013 while preparing the Report «ARISE 2» (Advancing Research in Science and Engineering) (ARISE 2, 2013). The report tells about the choice of an "engine" which outgrows the development of American science and technology: transition from interdisciplinarity to transdisciplinarity; cooperation development and strengthening the synergy between science, state and private business.

The term "transdisciplinarity" was suggested by Jean Piaget, Swiss psychologist and philosopher, in 1970 during discussions with Erich Jantsch, Austrian astrophysicist, the researcher of the problem of self-organization in the Universe, and André Lichnerowicz, famous French mathematician, at the international seminar "Interdisciplinarity – problems of research and training in universities" (Piaget, 2001; Nicolescu, 2006). Jean Piaget suggested discussing "transdisciplinarity in science" as the highest stage of the research which follows after interdisciplinary stage. After the stage of interdisciplinary research, as Jean Piaget noted, we should expect a higher stage – transdisciplinary, which will not be limited by interdisciplinary relations, but will place these relations inside the global system without strict borders between disciplines.

«World declaration on higher education for the twenty-first century: vision and action» orients to developing students' transdisciplinary competences including ability to interpret disciplinary knowledge through the prism of universal (transdisciplinary) patterns and reality models, skills of reducing, gaining experience in using transdisciplinary approach for solving complicated multifactorial problems in professional sphere.

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The goal of the research is to identify methods of transdisciplinary competences development of national research universities students.

2. Materials and Methods

Methodological basis of the research were binary principles of fundamentalization and professionalization, differentiation and personalization, which allow preparing specialists possessing targeted invariant content of transdisciplinary competences; the specialists who are familiarized with the specific character of future professional activity and have formed professional needs; the specialists who are ready for solving particular engineering tasks, set by the employer and are able to subject-subject interaction. Didactic principles are gnosiological phenomenon determining content, forms, methods and means of learning process in concrete-historical view. Methodological meaning of didactic principles is as follows: 1) they set requirements to selection and structuring of education content; 2) they summarize and systemize forms, methods and means of education; 3) they ensure practical orientation of pedagogical models and explain the обеспечивают практическую направленность педагогических моделей и обосновывают assessment criteria of their effectiveness; 4) they ground forms and methods of pedagogical interaction of educational process subjects; 5) they update pedagogical conditions and factors of learning process (Yepaneshnikov et al., 2016).

The principle of fundamentalization includes selection and structuring of invariant knowledge, developing students' skills of technologies transfer from different scientific fields and their readiness to lifelong learning during all their lives (Kamasheva et al., 2016).

The principle of professionalization ensures selection and structuring of practical-oriented knowledge, developing students' project skills and readiness to creation of competitive products and development of covergent technologies (Akhmetov, Khramova et al., 2016).

The principle of differentiation involves organization of individual, group, frontal forms of education taking into consideration students' individual-typological and age peculiarities to form readiness for various types of professional activity (design and engineering, engineering and manufacturing, organizational and managerial, scientific and research, service and exploitation) (Lunev, Safin et al., 2016).

The principle of personalization includes subject-subject interaction while forming professionally oriented knowledge aimed to the development of professional worldview and responsibility for the consequences of professional tasks engineering solution (Lunev, Pugacheva, Stukolova, 2014).

During the research we used following methods: generalization of educational experience, systematization and generalization of facts and concepts, method of expert assessment, observation, questionnaire survey.

3. Discussions

Competences development of national research universities students is the subject of many researches. Considerable part of the research is devoted to finding interrelations between quality of educational services and stable development of university's presence region (Lunev, Pugachova, Stukolova, 2014a; Ivanov et al., 2016; Pugacheva, Filippova et al., 2016). The research which arouses interest is that describes students' preparation for studying special disciplines (Goldobin & Goldobina, 2013). Our attention was attracted by publications where forms, methods and means of

training of engineering specialties students are found out (Arkhangelskiy, 1980; Solonina, 1997; Fedoseev, 2014). It is worth considering works devoted to the selection and structuring university education content (Kustov, 1982; Subetto, 2002; Selezneva, 2002; Meletsinek, 2007). In the articles of some authors there were found out peculiarities of general cultural and professional competences development (Zhurakovskiy, 1997; Kirsanov, 2001; Chernilevskiy, 2002; Zimnyaya, 2004). However, the problem of transdisciplinary competences development is only starting to appear in scientific literature (Andreev, 2014; Mokiy & Mokiy, 2014; Mokiy & Mokiy, 2016; Frayssin, 2016; Budanov, 2017). This explains the goal of our research.

4. Results

The main results of the research became methods of transdisciplinary competences development. The first method is integrative. It involves extension of general-theoretical, educational, general scientific and general professional training, integration of humanitarian, social and economic, professional and mathematical invariant knowledge and skills. General and professional educations are not alternative to each other, but aimed to developing students' readiness for self-realization, lifelong learning during their lives, and receiving new qualifications. Realization of the method provides improvement of education quality and professional and personal development of the future specialist, and knowledge fundamentalization. Giving the status of fundamentality to a particular discipline cannot be considered the equivalent to fundamentalization of education content. Fundamentalization of knowledge in all disciplines is necessary. In modern post-industrial society amount of education is connected not only with professional and general cultural competences but also with transdisciplinary competences which show themselves in ability to communication, creative and innovative activity, knowledge of computer technologies and foreign languages, presence of own citizenship (Zamaletdinov et al., 2016). In the Charter of All-Russian Public Organisation «Association for Engineering Education of Russia» it is highlighted that engineering education relates to the field of national strategic interests. One of the tasks of this organization is contribution into the content enhancement of engineering education, its fundamentalization and professionalization, forming of engineers' information culture of high level, development of language training for active fluent use of foreign language as means of cross-cultural communication, extending academic mobility of students for improving quality of engineering education (All-Russian Public organization, 2017). Realization of integrative method involves transdisciplinary project activity of students, their creative potential activation within the concept "Invent, develop, introduce and manage", participation in carrying out of scientific-research and development work on orders of industrial enterprises. (Novosyolov & Spasibov, 2015).

120 university teacher and 320 students studying at the major of "Design and engineering support of machinery production" (qualification (degree) Bachelor of Science) of Kazan National Research Technical University named after A. N. Tupolev — KAI took part in the test of the effectiveness of methods of transdisciplinary competences development. To test the effectiveness of integrative method learning material about parameter optimization of technological processes in machinery production was included into education content. For example, students are suggested to increase production efficiency of particular part (walking beams, engine beds, pipe fittings, fasteners, etc.), which were produced from AK-6 material which relates to the group of deformable aluminum alloys. Let's consider carrying out of this task taking walking beam as an example. Walking beam is included into helicopter hovering mechanism and intended for translation of motion from the

control wheel to the rudder. The part is produced under the conditions of small-scale production, that reasons special feature of the technological process. The main time share in technological process is taken by milling work. Consequently, its optimization will significantly contribute into increasing production efficiency. Nowadays machine time of milling work is 1 hour 4 minutes 20 seconds; total labour intensity of the part production is 1 hour 19 minutes 30 seconds. To fulfil the task students should do following actions. First, to find out main characteristics of part's material: mechanical (short-term strength limit, yield point for permanent strain, impact strength, Brinell hardness and so on); physical (thermal-expansion coefficient, material density, specific heat capacity, specific electrical resistivity and others); chemical (composition and level of impurities). Second, they should choose high-speed automated machinery for the part cutting and find out its distinctive features (it should be equipped with nanometric feedback sensor being a part of closed-loop control system with the functions of interpolation with nanometer resolution for providing high accuracy; presence of high-speed control system and high-accuracy programme of linear-segmentary control for providing high speed of cutting; high machinery stiffness for proving precision machining with high efficiency factor). Third, they should find one-to-one correspondence between technological process and mathematical methods of improving part cutting efficiency. To ensure effective implementation of the last action the teacher makes students familiar with Gomori method which allows bringing the task carrying out to solving the problem of minimal cover.

The second method is mathematization of knowledge by numerical expression of reality and identifying its quantitative borders, grasping the methods of mathematical proof and mathematical modelling. G. Pólya believed that if a school wants to give pupil an idea of intuitive argumentation and logical reasoning then it should give place for geometric proof (Pólya, 1959, p. 85-86). Regardless of the type of language which is used for creating the model main logic of the research is the same in all cases. Mathematical models appear as communicative resource which provides the possibility of interdisciplinary synthesis. Mathematical model involve integration of subject (technical) and mathematical knowledge and allow identifying the best ways and means of production processes and objects control. Mathematics is not an engineering discipline, its course shouldn't reveal any technical issues, but it should give future engineer necessary mathematical knowledge. Knowing mathematics leads to more effective solution of professional problems. Modern level of industry development requires from engineers the ability to develop design and engineering support corresponding high technical value and competitive at market of similar technical products. Meeting these requirements actualizes the necessity in developing students' ability to create mathematical models of processes and objects. While studying students participate in mathematical models design, for example, optimization of nonrotational parts cutting instruments choice. It includes students' work according to the following algorithm: 1. Find out design concept of available general mechanical-engineering and industry-based parts classifiers. 2. Identify constructive and technological characteristics of nonrotational parts for dividing them into classes, subclasses, types, subtypes, groups and subgroups. 3. Design a complex part demanding greatest number of instruments for cutting, and create unified processing route for cutting the parts of the group. 4. Develop group operations (cutting parts of this group on the same processing equipment anв with unified set of instruments) and group tool set (set of devices and instruments for cutting parts of this group). 5. Formalize the optimization of nonrotational parts cutting instruments choice with the methods of theory of graphs.

The third method is application of unfinished action effect. Unfinished action effect while knowledge development is scientifically proved by Russian scientists (Kryigovskaya, 1966; Guzeev, 1994; Rodionov, 2011). Unfinished action takes place in case of forced interruption of educational process progression for finding solution and developing stable motivation of students' learning activity. Unfinished action understands unfinished task as students' personal attitude to the task solution, formed naturally or under the influence of external circumstances. Following types of unfinished tasks have been found out: 1) tasks with unfinished problem situation (anomalous tasks), which give additional motivational impulse for searching for optimal methods of technical and economic substantiation of design calculations, require knowledge of sources for getting missing situation; 2) tasks of unfinished action requiring application of information support and means of computer technologies; which help to remember the most significant knowledge on mathematization of technological processes and machinery productions; 3) tasks with programmed mistake, which help to develop abilities to generalization, abstraction, analysis and stipulate decomposition of original problems to the system of interrelated tasks with further application of system-analysis method; 4) tasks with needless data requiring skills to select data necessary for creation of mathematical models. It was found out that all types of unfinished tasks allow receiving cumulative pedagogical effect which is seen in stimulation of students' learning initiative, development of abilities to generalization, abstraction, analysis, information comprehension, setting goals and choosing ways to reach them.

The fourth method is system quantization of knowledge which allows compressing teaching information on the basis of generalization and create enlarged teaching units – taxons (Oleshkhov & Uvarov, 2006). Any activity of a person is reasoned by motives connected with solution of personally important problems. It allows identifying system quanta in the activity. It is known that any system of interacting particles is able to form stable condition at particular values. Quantization principle declares it. Quantization allows dividing range of values into particular quantity. In pedagogy there takes place the idea of system quantization which is "based" upon module arrangement of human brain cortex and underlies functional systems of human mental activity which are shown by various sign systems (language, symbolic, graphic, etc.). All types of knowledge representation in compact way coincide with human trait to think with images. While studying, digesting and reflection of new knowledge their coding happens and the schemes are created in mind. Knowledge compression by four codes (symbolic, verbal, graphical and numerical) allows representing them as taxons. Taxons are groups of objects joined by common characteristics. Taxons of knowledge present subdominant set of knowledge and skills used in learning process and connected between each other by particular degree of characteristics and properties community and necessary for competences development. For each theme of study the system of taxons is developed, which represents an electronic folder. The electronic folder includes: taxon of invariant knowledge; taxon of practice-oriented knowledge; taxon which includes interdisciplinary information; taxon which includes set of knowledge for laboratory work and tutorials; taxon which includes tasks for self-studying; taxon which includes examples of correctly fulfilled by students calculating and graphical tasks on the theme of the lesson. System quantization of knowledge, which allows representing it as taxons, provides: firstly, interrelation of invariant and practice-oriented knowledge and skills; systematization of professional objects and processes and their expression by functional formulas; secondly, adaptation of functional computer taxonomy to educational processy; forming abilities to understand nature and meaning of information in production development, follow main information safety requirements, apply mathematical

methods and software tools while solving engineering problems; thirdly, realization of ideas of future engineers transdisciplinary training for creative full-range professional activity; functionally network-based of education which makes it available for any subject.

Fifth method is organization of activity knowledge acquisition at procreative, productive and creative levels. Engagement into activity knowledge acquisition involves individual, group, front forms of education which help to develop abilities to cooperation with colleagues and team work; critical assessment of your advantages and disadvantages, choice of ways for developing the first and eliminating the second; social interaction on basis of moral and legal norms excepted in the society. It was found out that organization of activity knowledge acquisition at procreative, productive and creative levels allows students to understand motives for learning activity and form their professional needs.

Sixth method is the accomplishment of an abstract. For example on the history of mathematical metaphors ("sphere with handle", "Hippocrates meniscus", "family of surfaces", "Pascal snail", "folium of Descartes" and others), role of mathematical knowledge in forming scientific world view (Manin, 2008). Mathematics has logical and metaphorical character. Mathematics, as any other science, can't be based only on logic; on the contrary, as a prerequisite for applying logical thoughts and implementing logical operations we should be given particular non-logical objects which obviously exist.

Mathematical metaphor can be characterized as obvious form of correlation of arguments and notions, helping to understand the meaning of abstractions and contributing to get the effect of meaning intension and reasoning ostentation, which is absent at logical way of proof. In this regard H. Freudenthal wrote that visualization of order of values comparison for obvious understanding of differential relation is the prerequisite of its understanding, the words "grows faster" used to compare behaviours of functions serve exactly this goal (Freudenthal, 1983). All mentioned above allows noting that mathematical metaphor is integrative example of presentive and verbal meanings synthesis; gnosiological means of mathematical knowledge reflection in the surrounding reality; constituent of general scientific world view.

L. Klinberg told that metaphor is used to give more exact meaning or add nuances to our expressions; when words, usually used in the context, are not enough (Klinberg, 1984). Accomplishment of abstracts on history of mathematical metaphors creates interest to mathematical knowledge. Metaphors have the element of understatement, they themselves have motivation for their comprehension and understanding. It was found out that abstracts accomplishment ensures: firstly, understanding of mathematical knowledge universalization and development of stable interest to them; secondly, development of research skills (selection, annotation, scientific literature review, analysis and generalization of facts and scientific knowledge). It was stated that defence of abstracts contributes to the development of speech, communicative skills, forming skills of suggested ideas argumentation, dialogueness of professionally oriented mathematical knowledge development process as itself. In the famous book of L. Klinberg there is an idea that the notions "education" and "to educate" derive from the word "to talk". Greek word logos shows connection of the words "language", "word", "thought", "speech", "education". Dialectical unity of language, thinking and education is fundamental point of education and language interrelation understanding. (Klinberg, 1984, p. 141-180). L. Klinberg notes that if education is connected with language then it can be considered as a dialogue during which the exchange of ideas takes place. While forming mathematical knowledge dialogueness of education increases because the proof

itself, the main mathematic category, is interlocutory. The specific character of mathematical proof is shown in peculiarities of mathematical vocabulary (notions, graphs, schemes, pictures, formulas, metaphors) and the dialogue of "various mathematics".

For two thousand five hundred years existed a wonderful proof of number √2 irrationality discovered by Pythagoreans, until at the end of XX century American mathematician Tom M. Apostol found another proof (Donald, 1997, p. 250-270). Defence of an abstract allows using students' spatial perception from word to image and from image to word; to create problem-based situations in educational process; to form expressive speech, skills of scientific argumentation, to express their individuality. The theme of the abstract is chosen individually by students depending on their cognition interest and professional needs. The defence of the abstract is organized in micro-groups which allow differentiating students on the cognition interest and intellectual development.

The seventh method is development of multiple-option split-level tasks for self-studying. It was found out that independent solution of multiple-option split-level tasks ensures: acquisition of knowledge forming process mechanisms, generalization of individual experience of solving professional problems; development of analytico-synthetical and research activity skills and their self-assessment; development of scientific thinking. It was stated that the effectiveness of independent solution of multiple-option split-level tasks increases under condition of learning activity commencement by students (perception acts, realised through acquisition of present experience) and educational activity (providing conditions of learning activity successful carrying out). The notion "learning activity" is related to the solution of learning task (Davydov, 1995, p. 47-60). It is possible to point out following structural components in learning activity: 1) actors as learning skills bearers and knowledge, skills and competences forming process; 2) subject as knowledge and skills necessary for solving suggested problem; 3) stages of problem solution as the algorithm of mental efforts; 4) assessment as reflexive activity to judge about the results reached. The notion of "educational activity" is defined as the set of external conditions preparation acts for learning activity (Gabay, 1988, p. 82). In terms of our research such acts may include selection of software support, reference guides, regulatory legal acts and other means of problem solving. The structure of educational activity is stipulated by its integrated support (regulatory legal, psychological and pedagogical, scientific methodological, educational-programmatic, research and information). Students commencement of learning activity and educational activity ensures system integrity of goal, content, forms, methods and means of knowledge development and also the integration of educatory, disciplinatory and developing functions of vocational education, development of subject-subject interaction.

5. Conclusion

Effectiveness of transdisciplinary competences development of national research universities students increases under the condition of application of integrative method, methods of knowledge mathematization, activity acquisition, unfinished action effect application, system quantization of knowledge, accomplishment and defence of abstract, multiple-option split-level tasks.

Significance of the received results is that integrative method ensures interrelation of invariant and practice oriented knowledge and skills, forming of integral transdisciplinary view of life. Knowledge mathematization ensures trans-harmonization of scientific terms, formation of ability to create mathematical models and assess ways of their realization while managing processes and objects. Activity acquisition of knowledge involves individual, group, frontal forms of efficient

knowledge production and development of lateral thinking. Application of unfinished action effect provides students' educational initiative development and formation of ability to set a goal and choose ways to its achievement. System quantization of knowledge provides functional network compression of education content and formation of ability to understand nature and meaning of information. Accomplishment and defence of an abstract ensures understanding of transdisciplinary norms and values, universals of scientific world view. Independent solution of multiple-option split-level tasks provides abilities to identify transdisciplinary knowledge and skills and apply them for solving professional tasks.

Considering the received results it is possible to point out some scientific challenges and promising trends which require further studying: model of transdisciplinary competences development; criteria and indicators of transdisciplinary competences. The information given in the article may be useful for teacher of national research universities; employees of adjustment training centres for selection and structuring of the content of national research universities teaching staff professional development.

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SPECIFIC FEATURES OF THE MOTIVATIONAL PROFILE OF THE EXECUTIVE'S PERSONALITY WITH AN EXPRESSED MOTIVE FOR PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

Bogdan S. Vasyakin[1*], Oksana V. Shabanova [2], Sergey L. Evenko[3], Natalya T. Kolesnik[4], Tamara V. Samarina [5]

[1]Academic department of Psychology, Plekhanov Russian University of Economics, Moscow, Russia.
E-mail: vasyakin.bs@rea.ru

[2]Faculty of Humanities, Ulyanovsk State University, Ulyanovsk, Russia.
E-mail: onlyox@ya.ru

[3]Faculty of Psychology, Moscow Region State University, Moscow, Russia.
E-mail: slevenko@yandex.ru

[4]Faculty of Psychology, Moscow Region State University, Moscow, Russia.
E-mail: nt.kolesnik@mgou.ru

[5]Faculty of Psychology, Moscow Region State University, Moscow, Russia.
E-mail: tamara.samarina@gmail.com

*corresponding author email: vasyakin.bs@rea.ru

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Abstract

The importance of studying the executive's personality's motivational profile is caused by the necessity to understand the mechanisms and factors of his managerial activity that embraces the whole range of psychological natural laws of motivation because it is the executive who is responsible for the effectiveness of the staff's work activity and whole enterprise. The article is directed towards the study of the executive's motivational profile with an expressed and non-expressed motive for professional achievement. The empirical research results have been presented in the article that were obtained with the help of projective research methods, the content-analysis, as well as psychodiagnostic tools. The use of these methods while conducting research provided the scientific validity, reliability and authenticity of the results obtained. The article gives the conclusions that top managers with an expressed motive for professional achievement possess a number of specific features of the motivational profile, namely: they are more oriented to the social status and use creative activity at work more often; they are more frequently subject to negative emotions and cannot always control them in a critical situation; they possess less fear to be rejected in the situation of communication; they have a more differentiated motivational structure organized around the social status scales and top managers' creative activity; creative and business

activity also finds its implementation in the public usefulness. The data provided in the article can be useful to psychologists who work in the field of selecting and recruiting personnel as well as to executives of agencies working in various spheres and directions of business. The materials of the article can be used when conducting empirical researches in the area of labor psychology and organizational psychology.

Keywords: motivation of the executive's personality, motivational profile, motive for professional achievement, a feature of motivational profile of the executive.

Introduction

The issue of the personnel's motivation at all the levels of management has always been one of the fundamental ones in the personnel policy formation of each organization. At the beginning of the XX century the motivation system was based only on the relation «time - money» which was deduced by F.W. Taylor (1991), the forefather of scientific management. His view of the working time optimization led to the growth of productivity and subsequent wellbeing of workers. However, with time it became clear that the material aspect of labor stimulation exerts a short term effect. In the process of further development new objectives and values arise that form new requirements both to income and professional activity. Further development of management, sociology and psychology has led to the study of deeper motives of the personality development in the sphere of professional activity. In contemporary society the motivation system continues relying on the material stimulation of labor but the motivational profile of a person keeps occupying a more prominent place in it which determines his professional orientation.

At different stages of his development a person has different objectives and motives of labor activity. A vast array of aspects exerts influence on their formation which include the environment, a way of life, upbringing and individual qualities (Ovsyanik et al., 2016). The combination of aspirations to prosperity, social status, society usefulness and possessing power - they are all individual (Lipatova et al., 2015; Vasyakin et al., 2015; Masalimova et al., 2014; Rean et al., 2013; Salakhova et al., 2017; Salakhova et al., 2016a).

Executives of various management levels may be of special interest while building up a motivational profile. The content richness of labor activity of a manager is much higher than that of an ordinary staff member: the decision making in all the spheres of an enterprise's work, a high level of responsibility, multiple external and internal contacts, a constant necessity of maintaining the image and other things. The complexity of the professional activity structure sets special requirements not only to the executive's personality, but also to his motivation (Vasyakin et al., 2016; Masalimova et al., 2016; Mitin, 2014).

In the last years the motivational profile structure of an executive has been studied in numerous researches. IIM LINK (International Institute for Management LINK) identified three main motivational factors: the content richness of work (labor), financial motives and the motive of achievement (Pavlova & Shchennikova, 2010). The dependence of these factors' expressiveness on the sphere of the economy and age is also given in this study. The motives of the work (labor) content richness and financial reward for it change their expressiveness depending on age, the sphere of the economy and economic development of the country, and the motive of achievement is constantly present in the motivation structure of an executive.

According to D. McClelland's achievement theory a person with a high need for success is the subject possessing a great aspiration to the success achievement and having two different motives connected to activity functionally, this is the motive for achieving success and motive of avoiding failures (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland, 1987). The success achievement motive in the professional activity is transformed into the professional achievement motive that means striving for a qualitative and quantitative result, success and development of labor activity methods.

According to D. McClelland's (1987) assertion any organization offers a worker the opportunities to fulfill three needs of the higher level: achievement, affiliation, power. D. McClelland (1987) views them as acquired under the influence of life circumstances, experience and learning.

Achievement needs are expressed in the person's striving to achieve the objectives set before him in a more efficient way than he did it earlier. People with a high level of the achievement need behave in the following way:

- they are ready to tackle the job which bears some challenge elements that enables them to set objectives independently;
- they find hard to do the job which sooner does not a clear and tangible result; they can constantly and with enthusiasm be engaged in solving a problem, but at the same time they need a result;
- the quality of their work is not necessarily the highest;
- they work much and eagerly, but they do not like sharing this work with the others; a jointly obtained result is less suitable for them than the one that was obtained independently;
- they like taking decisions, they want to be responsible for the implementation of tasks; they are carried away with the problem solution and take easily full responsibility of it.

On the basis of the studies D. McClelland (1987) came to the conclusion that the achievement need could be referred to the characteristics of not only some individuals, but some communities, societies. The society, where the achievement need is very high, usually has a highly developed economy.

It is believed that the presence of a high achievement need in workers has influence on their activism and performance. That is why it is quite useful to assess the level of this need in workers while recruiting staff members for an organization, promoting, and also for the purpose of bringing this need into accordance with the quality and content of their job.

One should adjust the achievement need level by means of the corresponding organization of work. In the process of work it is desirable to regularly carry out the feedback, to study the cases of the successful goal achievement. Besides, since the people with a high achievement need are distinguished by an inflated self-assessment, they do not tend to set difficult goals for themselves, it is necessary to correct their self-assessment. Striving for an achievement leads people to success while solving the tasks before them. However, very often it is people with a high achievement need who do not hold any high ranking managerial positions because they are not capable of taking risky decisions and setting high goals. Besides, if a person works in a big organization, the high achievement need may cause many problems for him personally and his co-workers.

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The need for affiliation is expressed as an aspiration to friendly relations with people around. Workers with a high participation need demonstrate the following characteristic features:

- they try to make and maintain good relations with people around them, they strive to get approval and support from them, they are worried about what other people think about them;
- they prefer to hold such positions in an organization and to do such work that could enable them to actively collaborate with co-workers and clients;
- it is very important for them to be needed for someone, they want their friends and colleagues not to be indifferent to them and their actions.

It is required to create good working conditions for successful work of such staff members owing to which they could regularly receive the information about other people's reaction to their actions. It is also necessary to give an opportunity for them to actively collaborate with a wide range of people. The administration of an organization taking on new staff members must assess the development level of this need in them.

The need for power consists in the fact that a person strives to control the resources and processes that take place in the environment, people around. The main orientation of this need is to control people's actions, to have influence on their behavior, to take responsibility for their actions.

The need of ruling has two poles: an aspiration to have as much power as possible, to control everyone and everything, and as a contradiction to it striving to give up claims on power.

People with a high ruling motivation are subdivided into two non-crossing groups. The first group is composed of the people who strive for power for the sake of ruling, an opportunity to command. The organization's interests for them often go into the background or even lose meaning. The people who strive to get power for the purpose of solving the organization's objectives effectively with the help of it belong to the second group.

D. McClelland (1987) believes that of the three needs considered in his theory of needs (achievement, affiliation and power) a developed need for power of the second type possesses the greatest value for a manager's success.

Needs for achievement, affiliation and power in D. McClelland's (1987) theory do not exclude one another and are not structured hierarchically, but they are interrelated. For example, if a person holds a high-ranking position and has a high need for power, then a slight expressiveness of the need for affiliation is necessary for his effective work. The combination of strong needs for achievement and power can refocus the activity of a manager on achieving his personal interests.

One should not make firm conclusions about the joint effect of the three considered needs but it is necessary to take into account their interinfluence while analyzing the people's motivation (Kolesnik et al., 2016).

Materials and methods

In the framework of our studying acmeological invariants of the motivational profile of an executive one of the tasks was to consider specific features of managers' motivational profiles with an expressed and non-expressed motive for professional achievement. We would like to remind that the motive for professional achievement is viewed as a stable aspiration of a person to

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achievements in professional, working activity: an achievement of a high productivity, accomplishment of work with high quality, creating advanced methods, improving work practices and techniques, the development of something new, original, unique in the field of professional activity (Nemov, 1995). To identify this motive we used a projective technique, ascending to the thematic apperception test and measuring directly motivations of success achievement and avoiding failures proposed by R. S. Nemov (1955). The conducted content-analysis of projective stories allowed us to divide the sample group of the pilot study (44 managers – males and females at the age from 25 to 66) into two groups – with an expressed motive of professional achievement and non-expressed (i. e. in projective stories of this group there are other categories of the content-analysis, but the motive of professional achievement itself was not revealed). For further analysis we compared the results of the tested people in the selected groups according to a number of techniques: V.E. Milman's (1990) diagnostics of the person's motivational structure, A. Mehrabian's (2002) tests-questionnaires of identifying the affiliation motivation and achievement motivation, as well as in other categories of R.S. Nemov's (1955) projective technique to identify the internal structure of the motivational profile.

Results

Let us consider the results of identifying the motivational structure according to V.E. Milman (1990) for the groups specified by us. As we can see (fig. 1) with an expressed motive of professional achievement managers are more oriented to social status and use creative activity in their work more often. In other indicators of the motivation structure the values practically coincide and managers with a non-expressed motive of professional achievement slightly surpass the first group only in the scale «life support». We can discuss the results obtained only at the level of tendencies since the verification of differences with the use of Mann-Whitney criterion did not confirm their significance. We can explain this, in many respects, by a small amount of the sampling group because the research was of the pilot character. At the same time the differences found, even at the level of tendencies, reflect meaningfully the presence of the professional achievement motive both in creative activity and in the orientation to social status. While studying the emotional profile according to V. E. Milman's (1990) technique the asthenicity is observed in the state of frustration in managers with an expressed motive of professional achievement. At the same time emotions are of the mixed character with the predominance of the asthenic type. In his recent researches J. Atkinson (1953) noted that with a very high achievement motivation tension, anxiety, stress grow which lead to the disorganization of activity (Uchadze, 2009). In staff members with a non-expressed motive of achievement the profile is contradictory, i. e. in the state of frustration sthenic emotions predominate but emotional profile is also mixed with predominance of a sthenic type. That is, the absence of the professional achievement motive has a positive influence on the emotional background, it is more stable and has a positive orientation.

The results based on A. Mehrabian's (2002) tests-questionnaires confirm the tendencies revealed making them concrete to some extent. For instance, with the achievement motivation technique we obtained significant differences at the 5 % level in favour of managers with an expressed motive of professional achievements (fig. 2). On the one hand, this can serve as an evident fact, but, from our point of view, this shows the result validity of the projective technique which often raise doubts. In this regard, the differences are not supersignificant that can testify to the specificity of the professional achievement motive that is a derivative or more precisely, a constituent of the achievement motivation on the whole.

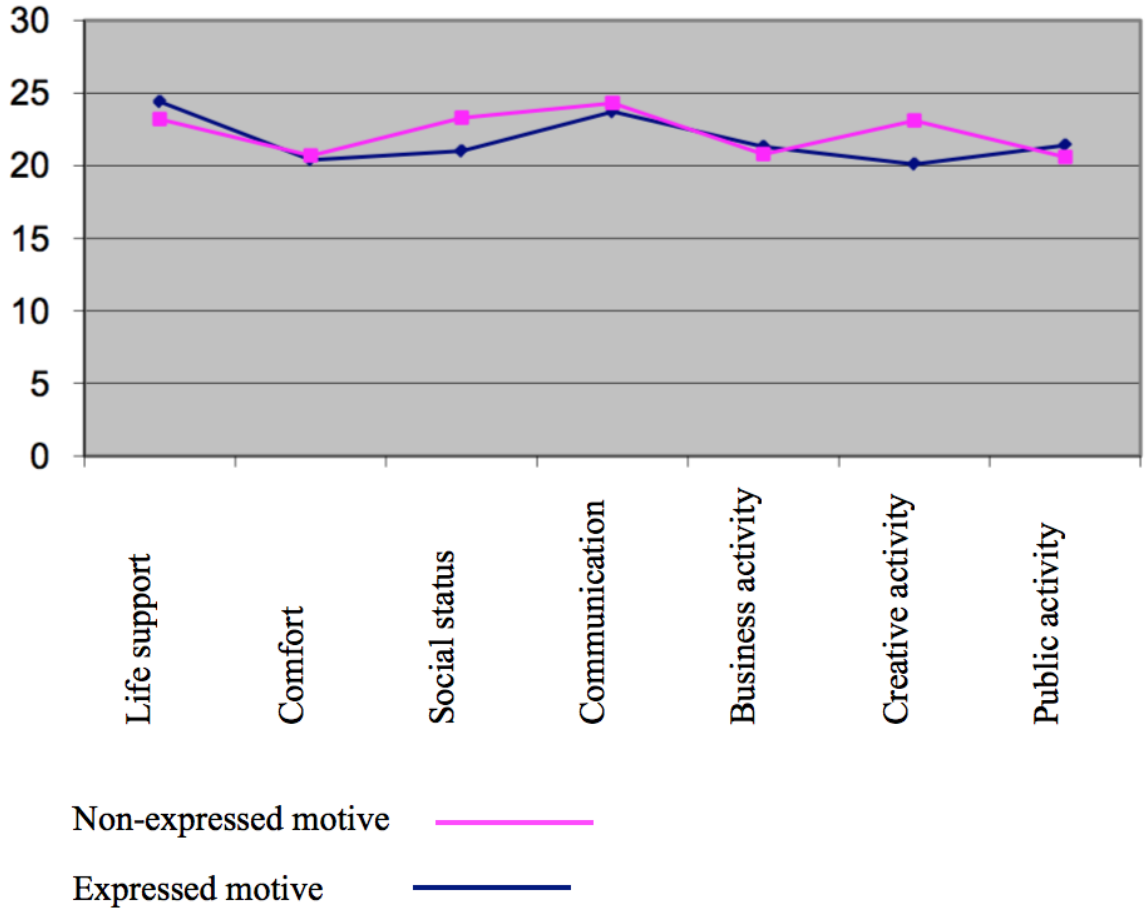

Figure 1. Managers' motivational structure with an expressed and non-expressed motive for professional achievement

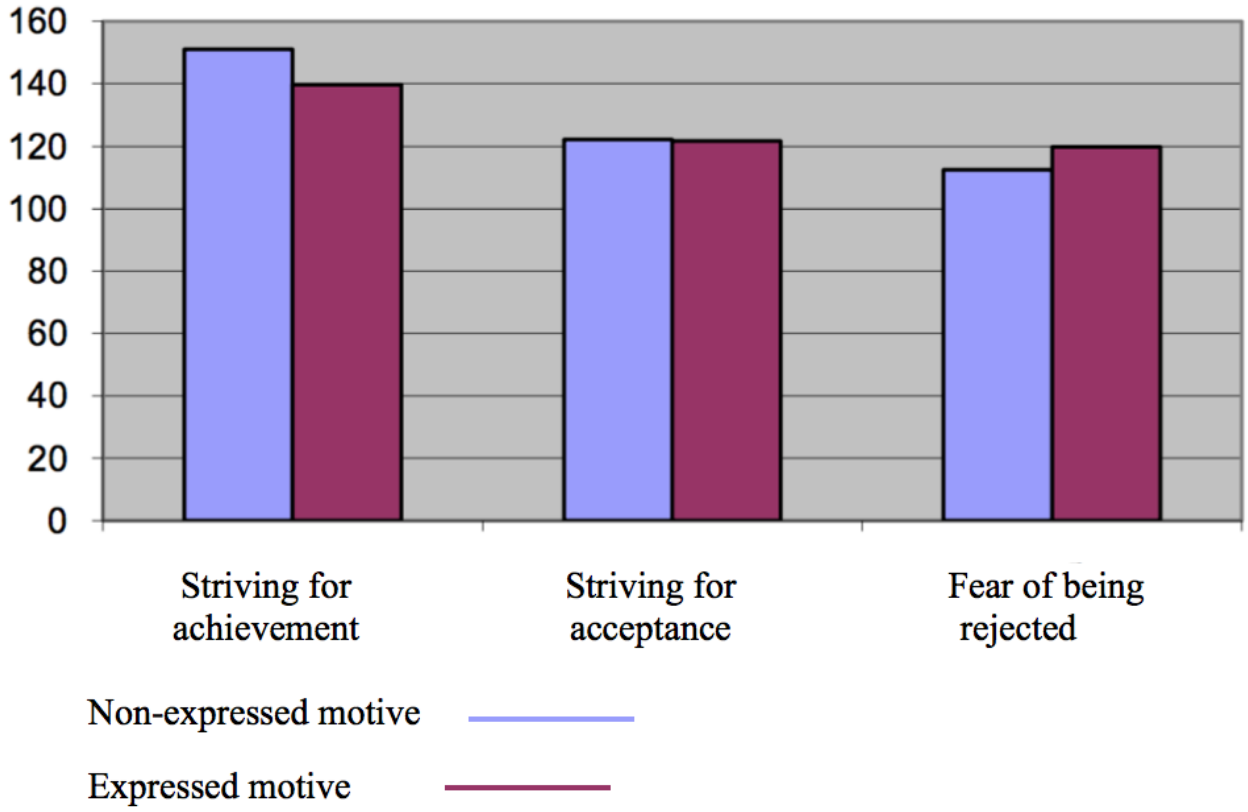

Figure 2. Values of the achievement and affiliation motivation in managers with an expressed and non-expressed motive for professional achievement

Regarding the affiliation motivation the differences were obtained only at the level of tendencies - striving for being accepted in managers of both groups is consistently higher than the average value and fear of being rejected is predominant in managers with a non-expressed motive of professional achievement which is also an essential characteristic, impedes fulfilling their need for being accepted, for effective communication with other people and also in the sphere of business.

To reveal the internal structure of motivational profile we carried out the correlation analysis for each of the groups studied by us. The correlation analysis of the motivation structure of managers' personality with a non-expressed motive for professional achievements according to V.E. Milman (1990) for the group of managers demonstrated significant interrelations at the 5 % level for all scales and for more than the half of all scales even at the 1 % level (fig. 3). This can be viewed as an indicator of the internal «cohesion» for different components of the motivation structure, but in our opinion, this is rather an indicator of lack of differentiation that substantiates the analysis of the managers' motivational structure with an expressed motive of professional achievement. Here we got the lowest number of significant interrelations but at the same time they show a more clear-cut structure organized around the scales revealed by us while analyzing the differences between the groups, to be more precise – social status and creative activity of managers.

The orientation to social status is interrelated with creative and business activity of managers, supports his life activity and communication with people around him. Creative and business activity also find its realization in public usefulness. Besides, the orientation to social status in managers with an expressed motive of professional achievement is proved to be connected with the achievement and affiliation motivation according to A. Mehrabian (fig. 4).

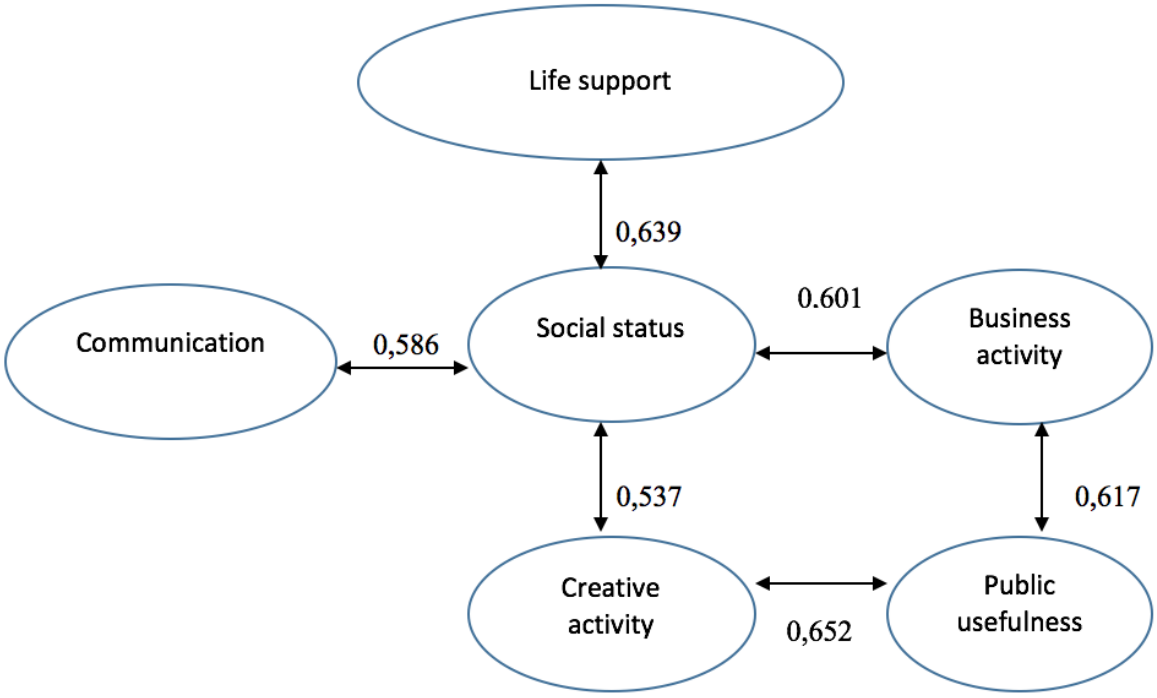

Figure 3. Correlation interrelations of the motivational structure of the managers' personality with an expressed motive for professional achievement

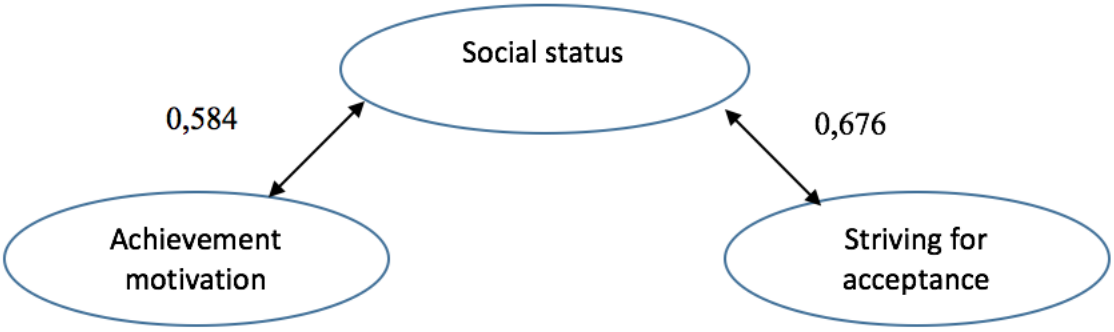

Figure 4. Correlation interrelations of «social status» of managers with the achievement motivation and striving for acceptance

Great differentiation of managers' motivational profile with an expressed motive of professional achievement is connected in many respects, in our opinion, with the reflection of a professional position which serves as one of the most important constituents of the professional mobility formation process, likewise as a mark of achievement or non-achievement of personally significant goals in a profession (Mikhaylova et al., 2015; Mitin et al., 2017; Evenko et al., 2015).

Conclusions

Thus managers with an expressed motive for professional achievement possess a number of specific features in the motivational profile and precisely:

- more oriented to social status and more often use creative activity at work;

- more often liable to negative emotions, they are not always able to control them in a crisis situation;

- possess less fear to be rejected in a communication situation;

- possess a more differentiated motivational structure organized around the scales of social status and managers' creative activity;

- creative and business activity are also implemented in public usefulness.

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WHAT DOES VYGOTSKY MEAN BY CULTURE? "BIG C"CULTURE OR "LITTLE c" CULTURE?

MOHAMMAD HASHAMDAR 1, PhD

Department of Translation Studies, Karaj Branch, Islamic Azad University, Karaj, Iran, Mohamad.hashamdar@kiau.ac.ir

PARISA ETELA 1, PhD Candidate

Department of TEFL, University of Applied Science and Technology, Asaluyeh, Iran, Parisa.etela@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Lev Vygotsky Russian Psychologist (1896 – 1934), known for his theory of social constructivism. His writing in the 20's and 30's emphasized that development is guided by adults interacting with children, with culture determining how, where, and when these interactions take place. He believes that learning and development is a collaborative activity and that children are cognitively developed in the context of socialization and education. He proposed that cognitive development embedded within culture and occurs in situations where a child's problem solving is guided by an adult, and through the collaborations of members of one generation with another. Vygotsky stressed on the role of community in the process of "making meaning". His work has become the foundation of much research and theory in cognitive development over the past several decades. The current study was going to investigate the meaning of culture by Vygotsky. And the conclusion cleared that culture for Vygotsky is "Big C" culture not "Little c" culture.

Keywords: Vygotsky/ language/ culture/ cognitive development/ society.

INTRODUCTION

For Kramsch culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is always in the background, right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenges their ability to make sense of the world around them. (Kramsch, 1993)

For Lindsey, Robins, and Terrell culture is the set of practices and beliefs that is shared with members of the particular group that distinguishes one group from others. Each of us belongs to a number of cultural groups. These groups reflect our ethnicity, occupational and vocational cultures, and social groups that shape or reflect our values. Membership in a group is determined by how

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you identify with the group members, as well as how those group members perceive you. (Lindsey, R., Robins, K., & Terrell, R., 2009)

Culture can be separated into two general categories: "Big C" culture and "Little c" culture. According to Wardhaugh (2010) "Little c" culture is the appreciation of music, literature, arts, and so on. Rather, "Big C" culture is about whatever a person must know in order to function in a particular society or it is better to say the know-how a person has to own to be able to cope with the tasks of everyday life" (Wardhaugh, 2010).

For Kramsch culture is the product of a canonical print literacy acquired in school; it is synonymous with a general knowledge of literature and the arts. Also called 'big C' culture, it is the hallmark of the cultivated middle-class. Because it has been instrumental in building the nation-state during the 19th century, big C culture has been promoted by the state and its institutions (e.g., schools and universities) as national patrimony. It is the culture traditionally taught with standard national languages. Teaching about the history, the institutions, the literature and the arts of the target country embeds the target language in the reassuring continuity of a national community that gives it meaning and value. National cultures are always bound up with notions of the 'good' and 'proper' way of life which is why they elicit pride and loyalty. Because they are imbued with moral value, language learners who have grown up with other values find it often difficult to understand foreign cultures on their own terms. They find refuge in cultural stereotypes or in literary fiction. The fact that foreign languages are still taught for the most part in 'departments of foreign language and literature' and that the curriculum for foreign language majors still puts a heavy emphasis on the study of literature is a reminder that language study was originally subservient to the interests of philologists and literary scholars, not anthropologists or sociologists. With the advent of communicative language teaching, the humanistic concept of culture has given way to a more pragmatic concept of culture as way of life. (Kramsch, 2013,p.65)

According to (Holliday 1999 cited in Kramsch) the most relevant concept of culture since the 80's has been that of 'little c' culture, also called 'small cultures' of everyday life. Kramsch believed that 'small cultures' includes the native speakers' ways of behaving, eating, talking, dwelling, their customs, their beliefs and values. Research in the cultural component of language learning has been deeply interested in cross cultural pragmatics and the sociolinguistic appropriateness of language use in its authentic cultural context.

For Vygotsky, language has a particular role in learning and development by acquiring a language, a child is provided the means to think in new ways and gains a new cognitive tool for making sense of the world. Language is used by children as an additional device in solving problems, to overcome impulsive action, to plan a solution before trying it out and to control their own behaviour (Jones, 1995). Nevertheless, the main purpose of language for children is social. They use the language to obtain the help of others and to solve problems. The child, in its process of development, begins to practice the same forms of behaviour that other formerly practice with respect to the child. The significance of such behaviour is only understood in a social context.

The language is also crucial and interrelated with the action, providing an additional tool used both to reflect on and direct behaviour. Vygotsy´s work is therefore viewed as particularly relevant to those who are concerned with the use of language. The exact nature of the relationship between language and culture has fascinated, and continues to fascinate, people from a wide variety of backgrounds. That there should be some kind of relationship between the sounds, words, and

syntax of a language and the ways in which speakers of that language experience the world and behave in. It seems as obvious as to be a truism. Wardhaugh (2010, p.221)

Sociocultural Theory

Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression for their society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection. The fact of the matter is that the 'real world' is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group. . . .We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation. (Wardhaugh, 2010, p.221). Subcategories of sociocultural theory are;

a. Children construct their knowledge.

Vygostsky was a constructivist and the main belief of constructivism is trivial constructivism known as personal constructivism by von Glasersfeld (1990), the principle has been credited to Jean Piaget, a pioneer of constructivist thought, and can be summed up by the following statement:

"Knowledge is actively constructed by learner, nor passively received from the environment".

b. The learning is mediated.

According to Vygotsky (1978 cited Lantolf 2000), the sociocultural environment presents the child with a variety of tasks and demands, and engages the child in his world through the tools. In the early stages, Vygotsky claims that the child is completely dependent on other people, usually the parents, who initiate the child's actions by instructing him/her as to what to do, how to do it, as well as what not to do. Parents, as representatives of the culture and the conduit through which the culture passes into the child, actualize these instructions primarily through language.

c. Language plays a central role in mental development.

Sociocultural theory was created by Vygotsky as a response to Behaviorism. He was the first modern psychologist to suggest a way in which culture plays a part in each person's nature. Vygotsky believed the inclusion of sign systems from a child's culture changes behavior and connects early and later forms of individual development. The main idea of the theory is that the ways people interact with others and the culture they live in shape their mental abilities. Vygotsky believed that parents, relatives, peers and society all have an important role in forming higher levels of functioning(Cole, John-Steiner, Scribner, & Souberman, 1978 as cited in Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2015 Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2015).

d. Learning appears twice.

According to Vygotsky everything is learned on two levels. First, through interaction with others, and then integrated into the individual's mental structure. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (inter-psychological) and then inside the child (intra-psychological). This applies

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equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. (Vygotsky, 1978, p.57)

e. **Development cannot be separated from its social context**.

The context needed for learning is that where the learners can interact with each other and use the new tools. This means that the learning environment must be authentic, that is, it must contain the type of people who would use these types of tools such as concepts, language, symbols in a natural way (Carpenter, Fennema, Peterson, Chiang, & Loef, 1989).

According to Ellis (2000), sociocultural theory assumes that learning arises not through interaction but in interaction. Williams and Burden (1997) claim that sociocultural theory advocates that education should be concerned "not just with theories of instruction, but with learning to learn, developing skills and strategies to continue to learn, with making learning experiences meaningful and relevant to the individual, with developing and growing as a whole person". They claim that the theory asserts that education can never be value-free; it must be underpinned by a set of beliefs about the kind of society that is being constructed and the kinds of explicit and implicit messages that will best convey those beliefs. These beliefs should be manifest also in the ways in which teachers interact with students. Furthermore; Williams & Burden (1997) claim that the theory opposes the idea of the discrete teaching of skills and argues that meaning should constitute the central aspects of any unit of study. Any unit of study should be presented in all its complexity rather than skills and knowledge presented in isolation. The theory emphasizes the importance of what the learner brings to any learning situation as an active meaning-maker and problem-solver. It acknowledges the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners and tasks and provides a view of learning as arising from interactions with others.

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

The second aspect of Vygotsky´s theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a certain time span which he calls the " zone of proximal development". ZPD refers to the gap between what a given child can achieve alone, their potential development as determined by independent problem solving, and what they can achieve through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86). This "zone" is the area of exploration for which the student is cognitively prepared, but requires help and social interaction to fully develop (Briner, 1999). for Vygotsky cognition even in isolation, is sociocultural and affected by values, beliefs and tools of intellectual adaptation transmitted to individuals by their culture, Varies from culture to culture, therefore, not universal as Piaget assumed. Collaborative learning, discourse, modeling, and scaffolding are strategies for supporting the intellectual knowledge and skills of learners and facilitating intentional learning which is possible by a teacher or more experienced peer to support the student's evolving understanding of knowledge domains or development of complex skills.

According to Wertsch, Vygotsky attached to the importance of predicting a child's future capabilities, he formulated the concept of ZPD which he defines as "the distance between a child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving, and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" Wertsch (1985, P. 60).

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Shayer (2002) claims that a crucial feature of learning according to Vygotsky is that it creates a ZPD, that is to say, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement. Vygotsky advocates that ZPD is not the role of instruction alone, but developmental (biological) factors do have a role to play. It is jointly determined by the child's level of development and the form of instruction involved. According to him, instruction and development do not directly coincide, but represent two processes that exist in a very complex interrelationship.

Mediation

For Kozulin (2002) mediators divided into two categories: human and symbolic. According to Kozulin, human mediation usually tries to answer the question concerning what kind of involvement on the part of the adult is effective in enhancing the child's performance, while symbolic mediation deals with what changes in the child's performance can be brought about by the introduction of the child to symbolic tools-mediators.

Vygotsky (1978 cited Wertsch 1985) believes that the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skills and knowledge. This involves helping the learner to move into and through the next layer of knowledge or understanding. Vygotsky also regard tools as mediators and one of the important tools is language. The use of language to help learners move into and through their ZPD is of great significance to sociocultural theory.

Kozulin *et al.* (1995) claimed that Vygotsky considers the learning process as not a solitary exploration of the environment by the child on his own, but as a process of the child's appropriation of the methods of actions that exist in a given culture. In the process of appropriation, symbolic tools or artifacts play a crucial role.

Scaffolding

Donato (1994) advocates that in an L2 classroom, collaborative work among language learners provides the same opportunity for scaffolded help as in expert-novice relationships in the everyday setting. Van Lier (1988 cited Donato 1994) states that L2 teaching methodology can benefit from a study of L1 scaffolding to understand how classroom activities already tacitly employ such tactics. The study of scaffolding in L2 research according to Donato has focused exclusively on how language teachers provide guided assistance to learners.

According to McKenzie, (1999) scaffolding provides the following advantages: a) It provides clear directions for students b) It clarifies purpose of the task c) It keeps students on task d) It offers assessment to clarify expectations e) It points students to worthy sources f) It reduces uncertainty, surprise and disappointment g) It delivers efficiency h) It creates momentum.

A teacher utilizing Vygotskian methods for teaching would be a very active member in her student's education. The teacher would apply the technique of scaffolding by providing assistance and offering feedback when relating new information (Woolfolk, A., 2004). Teachers should also make sure that students are provided adequate tools for learning. Students should be taught how to use tools such as the computer, resource books, and graphs in order to better utilize these tools in

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the future (Woolfolk, A., 2004). Teaching in the Vygotskian method would also incorporate group or peer learning (Woolfolk, A., 2004).

More Knowledgeable Other (MKO)

The more knowledgeable other (MKO) refers to someone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner, with respect to a particular task, process, or concept. This is an important concept that relates to the difference between what a child can achieve independently and what a child can achieve with guidance and encouragement from a skilled partner (Walqui, 2006).

The MKO need not be a person at all. Some companies, to support employees in their learning process, are using electronic performance support systems. Electronic tutors have also been used in educational settings to facilitate and guide students through the learning process. The key to MKOs is that they must have (or be programmed with) more knowledge about the topic being learned than the learner does (Walqui, 2006).

Conclusion

What, then, can be concluding as the meaning of culture which vygotsky used? "Big C" culture or "Little c" culture?

Vygotsky believed that learning and culture are closed to one another, It's clear that society is the main issue for Vygotsky which can lead one to both learning and cultural development. In both learning and cultural development he stressed on the role of society more than individual. It means that for learning and cultural development being in the society is a necessity and child cannot learn or even have cultural development without adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

Although culture cannot be separated form literature and art and both literature and art can be helpful in learning, Vygotsky believed that the knowledge of literature and art which are categorized in "Big C" culture are important not the appreciation of them which are categorized "Little c" culture. As a conclusion culture for Vygotsky is the one which guides how to learn, how to cope with daily life, society and how to make a social interaction and also how to solve daily problems and so on. So it is clear that culture for Vygotsky is "Big C" culture not "Little c" culture.

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SOME ASPECTS OF THE STUDY OF "PEDAGOGICAL MODEL" CATEGORY: ESSENCE, CONTENT, PRINCIPLES

Valeriy Ivanovich Kuzminov,
Cand.Sc. in Pedagogics (Ph.D.), assistant professor,
vice dean of the Faculty of the Russian language and general educational disciplines
at the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University), Moscow
Vladimir Vladimirovich Yakushev,
Cand.Sc. in Chemistry (Ph.D.), assistant professor,
dean of the Faculty of the Russian language and general educational disciplines
at the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University), Moscow
Svetlana Vladislavovna Shmeleva,
D.Sc. in Pedagogics, professor of
Administrative and Financial Law Department of the Law Institute
at the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University), Moscow

Abstract

The article deals with the issue of pedagogical model and analyzes the system of views on pedagogical modeling. It investigates methodological basis for developing a theoretical construction of pedagogical model based on psychological, gnoseological and communication models. It analyzes the approaches to the nature of a pedagogical model. The article formulates the necessity of further formation of the scientific view of a pedagogical model in modern pedagogical science.

Key words: model, pedagogical model, pedagogical process, subject of pedagogical process.

Introduction. The scientific circles are still discussing the issue of content and essence of pedagogical modeling as a mean of cognition and instrument of managing pedagogical process. In this respect, we should note that the scientific issue of pedagogical modeling has been reflected in Russian [12] – [17] and foreign studies [1] - [10].

Let us address to some definitions of a model important within a framework of this article and some fundamental provisions based on common ideas of professional pedagogics, pedagogical process and its subjects.

In theoretical justification of the category of pedagogical modeling, we have relied on the representation of a model as a system consisting of goals, content, ways and means, as well as the results of educational process accepted in pedagogic and philosophic science.

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The conceptual building of pedagogical model is mostly based on its correct definition, which, in turn, involves the analysis of the category of "Model" itself.

Main part. The notion of a model can be expressed in general way: a model is an imaginary and materially realized system, which reflects or reproduces the object of study and can substitute it so that its study gives us new information of this object; moreover, the relationship of partial equation (homomorphism) enables to use the model as a substitution or representative of the system under study.

In the logics and methodology of science, a model is understood as an "analogue of a particular fragment of natural and social reality, which enables to keep and expand knowledge of the original, to construct original, to transform or manage it".

The reference literature defines modeling as a *"method of studying objects and phenomena using conditional images and analogues"*. A model reproduces the most important components, properties, and links of the systems and processes under study, which enables to evaluate them adequately, forecast the tendencies of their development and manage this development efficiently. The *Pedagogical Encyclopedic Dictionary* identifies two aspects of modeling *in learning*: modeling as content for learners to comprehend and modeling as a learning action, mean of learning.

The articles on pedagogical modeling written by the Russian authors cover the issues of the integration of pedagogics with other scientific trends as well as the issues of modeling sociocultural phenomena in detail [Zakharyeva], [Kostitsin], [Likholetov].

In pedagogics, a model is a system created or selected by a researcher, which reproduces the characteristics (components, elements, properties, relations, parameters etc.) of the object under study for the purpose of cognition and, hence, enters such relations of substitution and similarity with it that its study serves as a mediated mean to obtain knowledge of this object and gives information, which unambiguously transforms into information about the object under cognition and admits experimental check.

We should note that Escudero treats a model as a mediator between theory and practice, as a construction, which represents reality or phenomenon in a simplified form, contains significant elements and serves an instrument for obtaining new data for further development of theory.

Within a framework of this interpretation, Gimeno correctly argues that a model is a mediator between reality and thinking, a structure representing the level of cognition at present moment and similar to reality.

Jiménez defines a model by comparing it with reality: a model is a kind of filter of reality, a source of hypotheses and ways to organize learning process and, in the end, the product of scientific research.

Obviously, the traditional model of education cannot satisfy the needs of modern society. The developments of new learning models are the response of didactics to the challenges of modern society.

García Perez assumes that the main factor of spontaneous model of teaching (also known as peripheral, non-formal, active) is that a student cognizes reality during the direct contact with it, while a teacher does not contribute to what a student can learn himself.

Adell explains the specifics of research model and underlines that from the viewpoint of didactics, the learning process is quite an open structure aimed solely at the students acquiring knowledge themselves. The goal of process is to find the solution to various issues, for example, to perform scientific work, to find alternatives in solving the conflict situation, and the result is a written article. Students' activity aims at seeking, comprehending, and using information.

Bartolome', Tirado formulate the opinion of the role of a professor and conclude that he is a member of a student group. His main participation is the coordination of the process of students' interaction. The work in the group is very important, since it is perfect for generating new ideas. The obtained results should become a basis for further joint studies, which remain as open for participation as possible.

The use of the models of studying the objects of cognition forms the basis for the method of modeling implying building and learning of the models of existing subjects and phenomena and the objects under construction to either define or improve their characteristics, to rationalize the ways to build and manage them etc.

The voluntary pedagogical model is mostly based on some psychological model, which describes learning process, and sociological, communicative and gnoseological models representing basic components for building pedagogical models after preliminary analysis.

If we put aside some insufficient differences between the models, we can identify some common characteristics of pedagogical models that enable to unite them into two different groups relating to the concept of "traditional" models or "humanitarian" models. We can find different variants of already known educational and pedagogical models inside each group. Pursuant to a traditional model (also known as "extensive" or "Passive School"), an individual in social aspect is a result of the influence of external factors: a teacher, a family, social environment, a group etc. A student performs a passive role: he absorbs the influence of these positive and negative impacts and realizes them in practice. The role of education is to separate positive influence from negative and to organize the process of education so that to achieve positive result in accordance with the degree of influence of exercised impacts on a student.

Pursuant to a humanitarian model (also known as "developing" or "Active school"), a student occupies a leading position in this educational model and pedagogical process. Internal potentials of personality are treated as the active components of educational process, including its motivation, that admit ambiguity of student's response to external impacts. The authors of this concept of pedagogical model assume that a student educates himself under the influence of reality, participates in it, and transforms it. Thus, upbringing-education should be formed under the influence of learner's needs; however, it should rather provide the greatest possible mutual compatibility of the social and the individual than the individual approach to a student.

Traditional or extensive pedagogics involves all the models of upbringing and education, which are based on the principles of idealistic philosophy and use some scholastic methods existing in many pedagogical models that are still applied in some modern schools. This group of pedagogical models involves pedagogical theories of behaviorism, which aim at forming a subject according to teacher's representations, and a whole range of the derivatives of the pragmatism theory, which actually concentrate on acquiring a certain sum of knowledge in learning.

Developing pedagogics involves some pedagogical models with innovative content including José A. Huergo's reconstructive model also known as "Pedagogics of Emancipation", Enrique Pérez Luna's "Rebellious Pedagogics" etc.

The three fundamental ideas of the educational concept of constructivism are:

1. A student is the only person responsible for his education. It is he who arranges his knowledge and no one can substitute him in the performance of his task. Student's activity can be by no means characterized as a single act of some insight or invention. A student studies and if he does not, on one, even a counselor, has a right to interfere. Education depends solely on the intellectual constructive activity of a student. The activity of a student is expressed in not only the operation and use of existing knowledge, but also in the process of perceiving information obtained from a counselor.

2. Intellectual constructive activity of a student overlaps the knowledge, which is largely established by society. Students create or reproduce already existing knowledge.

3. The result of the constructive activity of a student overlaps the content of previous learning, which defines the role played by a counselor. His functions are not only to create the optimal conditions for rich and many-sided intellectual constructive activity of a student; a counselor is designed to direct student's activity to provide his acquisition of cultural values in the most progressive way.

In modern higher school, a professor and students of preparatory faculties and baccalaureate (or master's students) are the subjects of educational activity, i.e. equal parties of educational relations in a certain sense. In the light of this tendency, he have made an assumption about the model of "organization of person-centered communicative activity of students in a modern university", which is a priority within a framework of the topic under study.

The main qualitative originality of the process of studying in the university defining the principles of the formation of system educational models is that this process, unlike other professional processes interpreted as goal-oriented systems, refers to the class of value-oriented systems, which, in some extend, makes it more difficult to reveal a feedback due to the originality of qualitative characteristics of subjects involved in such systems.

The study of non-linear models has enabled to focus on a fact that, although the notion of a model had been long used in pedagogics, there is still a striving for building linear strict models with a predetermined unique way of learning process [Testov].

In this respect, we should note that we understand the process of learning as pedagogically justified, consequent, uninterrupted change of acts of learning, which enables to solve the tasks of development and upbringing of personality. The concept of a process represents a construction outstretched not in space, like an object, but in time, while the structure of this process is represented in time continuum. Thus, the process of education can be interpreted as a set of two "kits": entry is a sum of objects, which initiate changes in their development and exit is a sum of objects, which emerged after the changes had been completed.

The enumeration of processes is a matrix, which can be treated as a matrix of the processes of interaction; the elements of such matrix will be called modes. In this context, the regularities of

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intermode interactions and the identification of a large number of macrointeractions according to the built matrix are of some interest [Kuzminov, 2007].

As a rule, pedagogues build forecasts either consciously or unconsciously and linearly extrapolate the present or the past in the future. However, pedagogics deals with human relations, which are extremely nonlinear. Nonlinearity of pedagogical processes makes their forecasts, or extrapolations from the present, or existing, truly unreliable and insufficient; it offers the opportunity to modify the directions of pedagogical process (not always predictably) and defines the opportunity to apply non-linear synergetic approach to its study.

Within a framework of the specifics of the above-mentioned approach, it is especially interesting to consider the process of verbalization of students' knowledge about the processes of solving particular tasks in the university courses. It is known that at the initial level, the students have mostly declarative knowledge and only a small number of verbalized knowledge; at the next level, verbalized knowledge is fully acquired and becomes a basis for the elements of non-verbalized skills, particularly, in the area of information and communication technologies. This non-verbalized knowledge is fully realized only at higher levels, when students' consciousness creates constructive and image models, which enable them to acquire practical skills of activity together with communicative skills in professional environment.

The acquisition of various aspects of informational-communicative training by the students specializing in Law [Bokareva, Kufakova, Shmeleva, 2002] and tendencies to reform the system of legal education and appropriate pedagogical process revealed by professor O.A. Yastrebov [Yastrebov, 2015] represent quite an interesting illustration of the foregoing.

We should note that recently, scientists have been elaborating the principles of learning modeling, which uses graphic models in the activity of both professor and learners. Cognitive graphic images determine significantly greater cognitive interest in comparison with illustrative compositions. Besides, a cognitive process implies direct sensible fixation of the phenomenon cognized by students, which has not been involved yet in their system of fixed knowledge in a particular academic discipline.

Thus, it is proved that the process of understanding learning material in non-native language in a foreign student represents a transition from the less clear to the more clear through the production of new sense-making structures in the field of knowledge under study and formation of the sphere of terms' meanings in non-native language; as the students approach a higher level of development of competences, a set of sign means used by them enlarges [Kuzminov, 2010], [Yakushev, Sarycheva 2015]. It is unmistakable that the systematization and generalization of knowledge within a framework of propaedeutic courses form a basis for students' pre-professional training, define the motivation of study and form sustainable interest in studying other subjects.

Conclusion. Some aspects of the content and essence of pedagogical modelling at the modern stage considered in this article have enabled to specify principle lying in its foundation:

- a principle of positive activity of a learner in pedagogical process at pre-university and university stages as developing and interacting with other subjects of educational activity of a personality;
- a principle of the prevalence of coordinative function of a pedagogue as a "conductor" of learning process;

- a principle of integration of content, which unites fields of knowledge into evolving structures representing knowledge as a changing and developing object;
- a principle of using appropriate pedagogical techniques for individual and group training of Russian and foreign citizens at pre-university and further stages of training;
- a principle of combination of pedagogical techniques used in accordance with the set goal of training, content and originality of the subjects of training.

Conclusion. The foregoing has enabled to state that scientific representations of pedagogical modeling are developing and need further studies.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE IDEA OF FREE PEDAGOGY IN THE MODERN EDUCATION

Kosenok Sergei Mikhailovich, Surgut State University, Surgut, Russia, Department of theory and methods of professional education, Doctor of Pedagogical Sciences, Professor, 1, Lenin Street, 628412, Surgut, Russia. E-mail: secretar@surgu.ru

Rasskazov Philip Dementievich, Surgut State University, Surgut, Russia, Department of theory and methods of professional education, Doctor of Pedagogical Sciences, Professor, 1, Lenin Street, 628412, Surgut, Russia. E-mail: lesi_rasskazov@mail.ru

Stavruk Marina Aleksandrovna, Surgut State University, Surgut, Russia, Deputy Director on scientific work of Institute of humanitarian education and sports, Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences, 1, Lenin Street, 628412, Surgut, Russia. E-mail: marinastav-17@yandex.ru

Muller Olga Yuryevna, Surgut State University, Surgut, Russia, expert of the Center of inclusive education, 1, Lenin Street, 628412, Surgut, Russia. E-mail: olga_megion@mail.ru

Ilyashenko Lubov Kiryalovna, Tyumen industrial University, Affiliate in g. Surgut, 38, Enthusiasts Street, Surgut, Russia, The candidate of pedagogical Sciences, associate Professor, 38, Enthusiasts Street, Surgut, 626400, Russia. E-mail: margussa@yandex.ru

Abstract

The relevance of the research is caused by the necessity to educate active, creative, internally free person, conscious of his intrinsic worth and uniqueness, based on universal values. The purpose of the research is to identify the pedagogical conditions of training of students of pedagogical specialties, to implement the ideas of free pedagogy. Methodological basis of the research became the principle of freedom, which allows to consider education as a public good, aimed at the development of the student through personal involvement in goal setting, planning, organizing, adjusting his/ her own education; the establishment of the humanistic relationships between all subjects of the educational process. Main results of the research consist in the identification of pedagogical conditions of preparation of students to implement the ideas of free pedagogy (the formation of event-creative learning environments, facilitative and inclusive focus of the personality of the teacher, motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy). The significance of the results is that the formation of event-creative learning environment allows to expand the scope of independent activity of students, promotes development of skills of cooperation, creates a natural environment for the process of education. Facilitative and inclusive orientation of the personality of the teacher provides the development of subject to subject relations. Motivational focus of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy ensures the development of socially significant qualities of the personality (autonomy, initiative, responsibility) and leads to the implementation of methods of training and

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education based on personal internal reserves of the students(activity, independence, consciousness, creativity).

Keywords: free pedagogy, inclusion, facilitation, the principle of freedom, education as a public good, the educational environment

1. Introduction

The relevance of the research is caused by the necessity of upbringing of the active, creative, internally free person, conscious of his intrinsic worth and uniqueness, based on universal values, the relationship with the world and the achievements of civilization. Currently there is a change in perceptions in the world of the educational space about the nature and aims of the education. Modern education should ensure the formation of readiness of the students for self-development and self-realization (Lunev, Pugachova & Stukolova, 2014). In this regard, relevant is the experience that contains the constructive ideas of free pedagogy, which has proved its efficiency in the process of interaction with various national pedagogical systems. First and foremost are the pedagogical systems of Steiner (Steiner, 1997), Montessori (Montessori, 1997), Neil (Neill, 1960). Free pedagogy is a direction in pedagogical theory and educational practice. Free pedagogy is focused, first, on the student as the subject of free consciousness (awareness), activities (performances), free choice (self-determination). Secondly, the free pedagogy focuses on giving the learner freedom of choice and autonomy in all spheres of life to acquire their own experience and the full development of the individual. The ideologues of free pedagogy believe that students making the choice, have to go to the result from internal motivation, not from external influences.

The intrinsic value of the individual, the intrinsic value of the childhood, freedom and the swordspoint, nature-conformity of the education and human development these are the ideas of the pedagogy of freedom of life, vital and relevant, despite the complexity of their implementation. Humanistic orientation of modern education creates favourable conditions for a new understanding of the potential of a free pedagogy, that has deep historical roots. However, dissemination and practical use of the ideas of free pedagogy raised a number of complex issues related to the problem of adaptation and a definition of the limits of their authors ' interpretation by teachers. Best Russian teacher of the XXth Sergei Gessen wrote, the ideal of free pedagogy is unfading. He updated and forever would update pedagogical thought. Teacher, who hasn't experienced the ideal, without thinking it through, in advance, like an old man, already knows his faults, isn't an authentic teacher (Gessen, 1995, p. 62). The purpose of the study is to identify the pedagogical conditions of training of students of pedagogical specialties, to implement the ideas of free pedagogy.

2. Research methodology

Methodological basis of research was the principle of freedom, which allowed to consider education as a public good, aimed at the development of the student through personal involvement in goal setting, planning, organizing, adjusting his or her own education; the establishment of the humanistic relationships between all subjects of the educational process (Terentyeva, Starodubtsev et al., 2016). Freedom is a cultural phenomenon that has diverse manifestations in all spheres of human life. The principle of freedom is based on the following philosophical ideas: 1) freedom is a necessary condition of activity and objective manifestations of subjective activity, which is the initiative, creative self-assertion of personality (Gessen, 1995); 2) the freedom is genetically included

in every creative act of the individual and is fraught with the awareness of the need (Krishnamurti, 1969); 3) freedom is the condition of the subject, determining cause of action (Rousseau, 1921)

Simple question: is a person born free? Answer: potentially, yes, actually no. Freedom is not a "piece of empty space", but an inner force, active, creative, individual. Freedom is the ability to make something new in the world, in your own way. Arbitrary actions, as opposed to the free are always random and reactive. A free act on the other hand differs by its identity (Gessen, 1995, p. 69).

During the research, were used methods of theoretical analysis (systematization, classification, generalization and comparison), the historical method, sociological methods (observation, interviews, questionnaires). The historical method made it possible to trace the genesis and development of the ideas of free pedagogy, and thus featured its relevance to the pedagogy.

3. Discussions

The problem of realization of the ideas of free pedagogy is the subject of many researches. We can distinguish several stages of scientific discussion on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy.

The first stage is awareness (18 – mid 19 century). At this stage formed the ideology of free pedagogy, based on the idea of comprehensively and harmoniously developed person. The most prominent representative of this stage was Jean-Jacques Rousseau. Russo's pedagogy of freedom is combined with an appeal to the natural state of man. The primary pedagogical work "Emile, or On education" begins with the statement: "God makes all things good; man meddles with them and they become evil" (Rousseau, 1921, p.2). The natural man lives for himself; he is the unit, the whole, dependent only on himself and on his like. The citizen is but the numerator of a fraction, whosevalue depends on its denominator; his value depends upon the whole, that is, on the community. Good social institutions are those best fitted to make a man unnatural, to exchange his independence for dependence, to merge the unit in the group, so that he no longer regards himself as one, but as a part of the whole, and is only conscious of the common life (Rousseau, 1921, p.3).

Most important for Rousseau is no compulsion. Emil doesn't know the words duty and forced – they simply do not exist in his dictionary (ROUSSEAU, 1921). When education is most carefully attended to, the teacher issues his orders and thinks himself master, but it is the child who is really master. He uses the tasks you set him to obtain what he wants from you, and he can always make you pay for an hour's industry by a week's complaisance. You must always be making bargains with him…. Take the opposite course with your pupil; let him always think he is master while you are really master (Rousseau, 1921).

Sergei Gessen astutely drew attention to the fundamental contradiction in pedagogy of Rousseau: But what does Emile want? What's he asking? He wants and asks exactly what wishes he wanted and asked his tutor Jean-Jacques. Emil is under the relentless control of Jean Jacques, like a shadow watching his every move and puts before him the chain of artfully rigged cases. Every independent action of a disciple is the fruit of the skillful machinations of the teacher. This fact is useful to keep in mind for all the advocates of the pedagogy of freedom (Gessen, 1995, p. 62).

The second stage is experimental (mid 19th century – the 80s of the 20th century). At this stage, was created the concept for the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy and created the first free

schools. Thanks to Grundtvig, in Denmark, the freedom of school became a constitutional fact (Grundtvig, 2017). Georg Michael Kerschensteiner in Germany gave a new interpretation of the employment and vocational education as the starting point of the free self-education. Over a hundred years ago Kerschensteiner said that the terrible danger school is the school with many subjects (Kerschensteiner, 1911). Each curriculum reform led to the inclusion of a new subject in the mandatory part of learning. Similarly, the program of separate subjects show a clear and persistent trend to continuous swelling. The amount of knowledge alleged to be the introduction in the students ' heads, is continuously growing and differentiates. This provision will not be a simple increase in the number of teaching hours and academic years. The contradictions that have arisen on this problem inside the old school, seems hopeless. The school must find the courage to be limited to the minimum of educational material, and only then would develop autonomy and self-determination of the pupil (Kerschensteiner, 1911, p.80-81).

Pedagogical systems of Montessori (Association Montessori Internationale, 2017) and Steiner (Rudolf Steiner school, 2017) strongly declared about itself, imbued with the spirit of pedagogical freedom.

One of the representatives of this stage is Russian writer and scholar Leo Tolstoy (1989). The main problem of the current model of education he saw in its complete isolation from life. Tolstoy said: "in reality, the educational impact of the modern school is quite insignificant. Wherever people sharp-witted and well educated, they derive it not from school but from life (of family life, in cafes and theatres, on piers and museums, shops, and book stores" (Tolstoy, 1989, p. 39). But Tolstoy did not know about the TV and Internet yet. Education goes past the schools and the school with their pseudoscientific courses goes past life. The people received their education not through school, but in spite of it. But due to what this out of touch and ineffective school can exist? Tolstoy answers: only through coercion, violence (Tolstoy, 1989, p. 208).

How then to teach? Tolstoy tried to answer this question, creating a school at Yasnaya Polyana. The school had notebooks with homework, phone calls, made schedules, lessons, punishment: the student was free to be late for class or go home in the middle of class. The first performance of the school was very impressive. Despite the lack of discipline, children learned to read and write and other knowledge several times faster than their peers from normal schools. The lack of disciplinary measures has led to the fact that violations of the order also happened significantly less frequently than happened in that time (Tolstoy, 1989). Tolstoy argued: Schools must turn away from coercion of any kind; the school has only to provide children with the opportunity to learn, and children have a right to receive only the knowledge what they want to, by choice; a teacher has no authority over the students, the relationship between them is the essence of unconditional equality (Tolstoy, 1989, p. 152-153).

But Tolstoy, like Rousseau, did not escape the sad pattern: if the school has no clear internal order, it is unable to protect children from negative external factors of life: bad habits, the opinion of the crowd, the effects of spoiled children, and so on.

A special place in the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy takes Alexander Sutherland Neill (Neill, 1995) – Scottish teacher and psychologist, the founder and Director of the legendary Summerhil schooll, founded in 1921. Summerhill is a unique educational institution, which found full embodiment of the idea of free pedagogy (Summerhill school, 2017). Summerhill continues its activities for more than ninety years and has not changed over the years. First of all, it concerns the

goals of Summerhill: providing children with the freedom of emotional development, the rights of self-organization of their lives, the possibility of natural development, ensuring a happy childhood by removing fear and pressure from adults.

The most important result of this school was the education of a free, independent, happy and balanced people who have managed to find their place in life. The cornerstone of the educational system were the freedom, love and happiness. Neil managed to resolve in his school, the contradiction between the desire of the child to freedom as self-development, which rejects any pressure from adults, and education as a process of management of development of the child (Neill,1960). The basis of the pedagogical theory of Nail is the idea of emotional development of students as an important direction of the educational activities. The main task of the teacher, according to Neill is to achieve maximum emotional and aesthetic development of the child, which must inevitably lead to the development of intelligence. To fill the mind of the student with knowledge is the secondary task, the main thing in teaching is to teach to think. In the formation of independent thinking Neill saw the guarantee of the freedom of thought which underlies all other freedoms. The core of his educational theory Neill considered freedom of expression as a universal means of personality formation. All activities of the school of Summerhill is based on the principle of freedom. This principle demonstrates the code of life of children in the community of Summerhill, adopted and approved on a perpetual performance. Its essence consists of the following:

1. To provide full choice and opportunity in which children can develop their inner nature and potency and to follow in regard to their own interest.

2. Provide children with freedom from compulsory or imposed assessment of their educational level, allowing them to self-regulate and to pursue their own goals and achievements.

3. Provide children the full freedom to play with no time limit. The game is filled with creativity and rich imagination, its an integral part of childhood and personality development.

4. To give children the opportunity to experience the whole range of feelings; be free from judgement and intervention of an adult.

5. To provide children with the opportunity to live in a community that is on their side and for which they are responsible; the community in which they can fully be themselves and also have the right to make changes in his life in a democratic way.

It should be said that the provision of real freedom to the trainees in organizing their own life is often speculative. Only authorized school of A. Neill turned this myth to support the child with true freedom into the reality. The concept of implementing of the ideas of a free pedagogy of Alexander Neill is fundamental for the formation of the modern pedagogical consciousness (Summerhill school, 2017).

However, the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy was interrupted by world tragedies of the first half of the twentieth century: the First World War, the Russian Revolution, the Great depression of the late 20-ies in the United States, World War II, the Holocaust and the genocide of a number of peoples, the formation of Pro-Communist bloc States and the cold war. All this is not very conducive to the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy.

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The third stage is adaptation (the 90th years of the XX – beginning of XXI centuries). In this step, there was a search of forms and methods of education in order to adapt the ideas of a free pedagogy to educational practice. The phenomenon of free pedagogy is established as the paradigm of educational theory and educational practice. At this stage, the works of prominent ideologues of free pedagogy were reprinted. Montessori, Steiner, Neill gave wide publicity to their views not only in Europe but also the United States, Scandinavia, South Africa. Their books were published and distributed in many countries. Their schools were international in nature, and children studied there from different countries (Germany, France, America, Korea, Taiwan, Japan, India, etc.) and also contribute to the dissemination of the pedagogy around the world. Scientific papers on the theory and practice of liberal education are also noteworthy (Association Montessori Internationale, 2017; Summerhill school, 2017; Rudolf Steiner school, 2017).

Publications that reflect the meaning of pedagogical ideal of student-oriented education are also of great interest. Simon Soloveichik in the Manifesto of the "Free Man" in the first paragraph wrote: "What is the highest value of education? – Freedom. Whom to educate? – Free Man" (Soloveichik, 2010, p. 1). Indian 20th century philosopher Jiddu Krishnamurti wrote that it is impossible to prepare a person to love and freedom. This training only leads to violence and fear (Krishnamurti,1969).

Freedom is a state of mind - not freedom from something but a sense of freedom, a freedom to doubt and question everything and therefore so intense, active and vigorous that it throws away every form of dependence, slavery, conformity and acceptance. Freedom can only come about naturally, not through wishing, wanting, longing. Nor will you find it by creating an image of what you think it is. To come upon it the mind has to learn to look at life, which is a vast movement, without the bondage of time, for freedom lies beyond the field of consciousness. (Krishnamurti, 1969, p.55-57).

From all this it follows that, despite a relatively stable interest of scientists and teachers to the chosen topic, the conditions of the preparation of the teachers to the summarized pedagogy was not revealed.

4. Results

The main results of this research were pedagogical conditions of training of students of pedagogical specialties, to implement the ideas of free pedagogy (the formation of event-creative learning environments, and facilitated the inclusive orientation of the personality of the teacher, motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy) and experimental testing of their effectiveness.

The first pedagogical condition is the formation of event-creative learning environment. Event-creative learning environment is defined as multidimensional and multifunctional environment of subjects of pedagogical process influencing their personal development. The event component of the medium determines the organization of a dynamic network of interconnected events that have a regulating effect on the subjects of pedagogical interaction and affect the actualization of their socially significant values, and personal development. Events that fall in the field of perception of the subjects of pedagogical interaction is the subject of evaluation, the reason for meditation and a basis for life insights. Indicator of the efficiency of event-driven component in the learning environment can be called communicative competence of the subjects of the pedagogical

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interaction, as a set of skills of choice of communication methods, to ensure adequate perception and purposeful transfer of information in a particular situation.

The inclusion of creativity in the learning environment due to objective needs. One of those needs is the need for creative activities, creating a new one. The human brain not only on preserving and reproducing our previous experience, it is also on combining creative processing and creative of the elements of that previous experience, new regulations and new behavior. If human activity was limited to one play old, the man was being addressed only to the past, and know how to adapt to the future only insofar as it reproduces the past. It is a creative human activity makes it being addressed to the future, creating it and modifying their present. The basis of creative activity is the imagination. In this sense, all that surrounds us and that is made by human hand, the whole world of culture, unlike the natural world is a product of human imagination and creativity based on imagination. Therefore, creativity exists not only where it creates great historical works, but also where a person imagines, combines, alters and creates something new. Creativity is a necessary condition of existence, and everything that goes beyond the routine, owes its origin to the creative process of a person. Creative aspects of the learning environment produces a personality that is characterized by the activity of the development and transformation of the world, high self-esteem, openness and freedom of their judgments and actions, a capacity for self-determination and self-improvement, the creative nature of the activity. Personal self-development can be seen as a indicator of the effectiveness of creative component in the learning environment.

The following pedagogical condition of training of students, future teachers, to implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy is facilitated inclusive orientation of the personality of the teacher. The beginning of the strategic orientation of the individual teacher is the meaning of the education. It is found that semantic formulations include: 1) personal meanings, as reflected in the consciousness of the motivations, objectives, universal values; 2) activities as an active relation to reality, social norms of behaviour. Semantic education is based on the understanding of the experience of previous activities, the development of new forms of activity. Thus, the meaning of education possess the following fundamental characteristics: a derivation from genesis, conjugation with the activity, value orientations. Facilitation component of the orientation of the teacher's personality implies a willingness to help and support the trainees, the ability to respect and understanding. Indicators of facilitation component can be empathy, tolerance, personal reflection. Inclusive component involves the search for methods of training, based on the capabilities of each student, the ability to convey acceptance and respect of the individual characteristics of the learner. Inclusion takes into account the special conditions necessary for student success and leads to the willingness of the teacher for the activity of the inclusion of students in educational and social programs, as subjects of pedagogical process. In practice, the inclusive component of the orientation of the individual involves, first, the presence of values (mutual respect; tolerance; awareness of himself as part of the society; providing opportunities to develop skills and talents of a particular person; mutual assistance; the opportunity to learn from each other; the opportunity to help themselves and people in their community). Secondly, the removal of stressosome factors of the pedagogical process and creating in the classroom a friendly atmosphere, focused on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy, with the aim of the activity development of the students.

The following pedagogical condition is the motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy. This pedagogical condition provides for the direction

of students on professional independence in the process of implementing the ideas of free pedagogy. Professional independence of any specialist is the ability to carry out independent performance of professional functions, to be able to freely navigate in the changing conditions of modern production, having not only a private initiative, determination, but also the responsibility for the decision. With professional autonomy, the specialist is able to form for itself a functional knowledge necessary for mastery of conscious creative abilities and skills. This allows him or her to significantly expand his or her professional activities and successfully adapt to new working conditions. Professional autonomy can be viewed as an indicator of professional formation, a process of progressive personality changes under the influence of social influences, professional activity, private activity for self-improvement. The formation of motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy is through group methods. First, are the gnostic methods focused on the creation of knowledge (lectures, seminars, abstracts, etc.). Second, is activity-centered methods of the development of skills (project-based learning, didactic games, trainings, excursions, field trips, academic assignments, meetings with experts, case study, etc.). Third, are methods of stimulating and motivating (conference presentations, publication of student work in scientific journals, proceedings of conferences; the inclusion of students in temporary interdisciplinary, interdepartmental research teams; increased scholarships, etc.).

Experimental work to test the effectiveness of pedagogical conditions was conducted from 2014 to 2017. We have studied 300 teachers, 400 students University. The experimental work took place in three stages: ascertaining, forming, and control. In the framework of the ascertaining stage was to identify the attitude of teachers and students to free education and the possibility of realization of the ideas in modern education. The survey showed that the majority of teachers (67 per cent) did not think about the preparation of students in pedagogical specialties, to implement the ideas of free pedagogy in practice. According to students, the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy is determined by the following reasons: motives of a public character (54% of students); receipt of certain material goods (58% of students); satisfaction of the need for self-actualization and self-expression, self-realization, social recognition, respect from others (63% of students). At this stage program has been designed to test the effectiveness of pedagogical conditions.

This program was implemented during the forming stage. During the test, the first teaching condition (the formation of event-creative environment), was established "Montessori-club", with the aim of familiarizing students with the pedagogical heritage of M. Montessori and the methods of its implementation in educational practice. The club meetings were held in the following forms: opening ceremony of the club, presentations, student conferences, open doors days, round tables, discussions, workshops, excursions, social-psychological trainings, business games. These events were a real event in the life of students and teachers: served as a subject of evaluation, the reason for meditation and a basis for life insights. Students were released booklets prepared photographs, videos, tutorials for preschoolers. Established youth Korczakovskoe society "Sun to the children". The purpose of the Society: promotion of realization of humanistic, universal values and ideals contained in the theoretical heritage of Janusz Korczak; the study of the theoretical and creative heritage of Janusz Korczak, the development of his ideas as applied to modern conditions, the spread of knowledge about his life, work and creativity; involvement of students in voluntary participation in assistance to children deprived of parental care; promotion of theoretical and practical experience achieved in other countries for the implementation of the ideas of Janusz Korczak. In the program of activities: 1) self-conduct and participate in seminars, sessions,

conferences, meetings and other activities to exchange experience, discuss the rights of the child, youth initiatives to help children, volunteer community organizations; 2) organization of care for children deprived of parental care, disabled children, children from socially disadvantaged families; 3) organization of summer and winter camps for children deprived of parental care, job in the international camp "OUR HOUSE"; 4) active cooperation with the International society of Janusz Korczak; 5) the traditional "Days of Korczak" at the University and the schools and higher educational institutions.

During the testing of the second pedagogical condition (facilitation-inclusive orientation of the personality of the teacher) socio-psychological training ("Teacher and self-regulation", "management of pedagogical conflict resolution") was conducted with the teachers , during which were analyzed the specific situation solved psycho-pedagogical tasks and conducted the business of the game. The following round tables played a very significant role ("the culture of the teacher's personality", "the Humanistic orientation of the personality", "pedagogical tools of communication", "free pedagogy as the direction in theory and practice", "the image of the teacher as a component of pedagogical culture"). The participants found the tools for implementing the ideas of free education in modern educational practice: 1) provision of pedagogical freedom (the right to decision-making on the methods of teaching and its organization); 2) the granting of freedom of organization of activities of educational establishment (the right to self-government); 3) the elimination of the ban on freedom of ideas (the right to resist imposed ideas); 4) agreement with the higher education authorities on the freedom of assignments (the right to their own personnel policy).

During this process of the third pedagogical conditions (motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy) the pedagogical practice of students in the municipal child development center named after M. Montessori was organized. Practices included: monitoring the work of teachers and development of children; discussion of results of observations in the creative group; independent presentations of the Montessori materials. Summarizing the teaching practice took place at the conference. Students noted that the pedagogical heritage of M. Montessori is characterized by a combination of autonomy with collective (group) forms of education; qualitative assessment of the level of development of the learner; the creation of conditions for self-determination and self-realization of the learners and the formation of the ability to cooperate, reflection, and collective responsibility; centralization of education to development and self-development of trainees.

We have conducted trainings with students: "Self-regulation" in order to receive training special technique that enables to improve their health, gain a sense of confidence and inner peace, to overcome stress, depression, crises of life, and in time to get rid of painful experiences in every situation to feel confident and quietly; Theory and practice of pedagogical conflict" in order to develop skills of positive conflict resolution and professional analysis of the conflict situation in the relationship teacher - student (teacher - the pupil), overcoming psychological barriers and communication difficulties arising in the tactics of conflict resolution, conflict depiction of its own model; "Empathy" for the purpose of understanding the personality of their empathic feelings and correction manifestations of empathy as a personal teacher quality by transferring empathic feelings to others. For example, in the organization of social and psychological training on "Empathy" students have been offered the exercises. Here are some of them: 1) Exercise-workout "Running Association". Pick up an association to the word "empathy". Can this be done in a pattern or improvising verse; "Compassion" 2) Welcome. Send your partner a good attitude on the word

communication, gesture, facial expression, and so on. Etc .; 3) Exercise "Find the answer." Remember the real pedagogical situations and describe them. To analyze how and in what forms show empathic feelings of the participants. Especially remembered the students the task of writing a letter in which he said: "Thank you for good." Students came to the conclusion: very common understanding, support, kindness, sympathy, people take for granted, without realizing it, or, on the contrary, feel a sincere sense of gratitude to the man, but hesitate to express their attitude. In the process, students clarified the concept of "empathy" training. For them - is the ability to put yourself in another person's ability to arbitrary emotional responsiveness to people's feelings.

On the control phase the criteria for the preparation of students to implement the ideas of free pedagogy were clarified: 1) the activity (and skills creating the conditions for self-determination, self-realization and self-movement of the student, support in the manifestation of his artistic personality; the commitment of the dialog forms of communication; ability to listen, hear and hear, showing emotional stability); 2) humanistic (the rejection of authoritarianism, love of child, and as a result, the unconditional acceptance of his personality; the ability to see and hear empathy, compassion, tolerance and patience, ability to forgive, in other words, a tolerant attitude to the child, manifested respect for his law to be such as it is, and to avoid causing harm); 3) reflexive (non closure of personality, openness, willingness to cooperate "here and now" with the environment).

Under these criteria to students participating in the study (experimental group) were given special tasks to determine their readiness to implement the ideas of free education. Similar assignments were given and students are not involved in the study (control group) for comparison with the results obtained in the experimental group. In the experimental group participated 400 students in the control group – 350. Jobs were evaluated on three point scale: 1 point – bad, 2 points – good, 3 points – great. The results obtained are shown in table 1.

Table 1

Results of students' fulfillment of the experimental and control groups of tasks for clarifying the readiness to implement the ideas of free pedagogy (in the average point: 1 point – bad, 2 points – good, 3 points – great)

Criteria	Indicators	task	The average score	
			The experimental group	The control group
activity	skills and abilities creating conditions for self-determination, self-realization trainee	To organize social project "Tolerance – the road to peace" with the aim of creating conditions for self-determination, self-realization of learners	3	1
	commitment to dialog forms of	To organize a dialogue with students in	3	2

	communication	classroom		
	the ability to listen, hear and hear	To arrange a confidential conversation with the students during extracurricular activities	3	2
humanistic	the rejection of authoritarianism, love of child, the adoption of his personality	To organize student government in the preparation of the social project "Tolerance – the road to peace"	2	1
	tolerant attitude to the child	To organize the action "Email requests" for writing wishes for health, happiness, peace for the children of migrant families	3	2
reflective	openness, willingness to cooperate "here and now" with the environment	To organize the action "children to Children" to collect gifts for children from orphanages	3	2

From table 1 it is seen that the students of experimental group is better prepared to implement the ideas of free education, than students in the control group not participating in the study. This allows us to conclude about the efficiency of the revealed pedagogical conditions.

5. **Conclusion**

Main results of the research consist in the identification of pedagogical conditions of training of students, future teachers, to implement the ideas of free pedagogy (the formation of event-creative learning environments, and facilitated the inclusive orientation of the personality of the teacher, motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy). The formation of event-creative learning environment allows to expand the scope of independent activity of students, promotes development of skills of cooperation, creates a natural environment for the process of education. Facilitated the inclusive orientation of the personality of the teacher provides the development of cooperation between teachers and students, subject-subject relations, values and the outlook; promotes self-realization and self-affirmation of subjects of pedagogical process. Motivational orientation of students on the implementation of the ideas of free pedagogy ensures the development of socially significant qualities of personality (autonomy, initiative, responsibility) and leads the implementation of methods of training and education based on personal internal reserves of trainees (activity, independence, consciousness, creativity). The results of the study allow us to outline the prospects for further research of this problem that is associated

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with the development of a program implementing the ideas of free pedagogy as a form of manifestation of the universal spiritual and moral values; establishing patterns of effective functioning of free schools. The article may be useful for heads and teachers of the institutions implementing programs of university education; the staff of the centers of advanced training and retraining of personnel in the selection and structuring of contents qualification of the teaching staff of universities.

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STRATEGIES IN RENDERING THE RHETORICAL SCHEMES AND TROPES IN ENGLISH-PERSIAN NEWS HEADLINES

Roya Monsefi (Corresponding author)

School of Languages, Literacies and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

monsefi_roya@yahoo.com

Abstract

In the present study, the translation of rhetorical figures from English into Persian, using a sample of 200 news headlines (100 English, 100 Persian) was studied. The headlines were examined using the descriptive method and in light of textual rhetorical analysis. van Dijk's (1988a) model of transformational strategies was used as the analytical framework of the study primarily because the concept of translation in the global news is quite unique and involves transformational activities like reshaping, editing, synthesising and repackaging of the source news. Accordingly, the changes in the retention of rhetorical figures of speech could be determined. The outcome of the study revealed that English news headlines encompassed the most usage of the rhetorical figures. The types of the rhetorical figures used in the news headlines of two languages were similar with the difference that litotes, onomatopoeia and asyndeton were used exclusively in English and anaphora and periphrasis only in Persian news headlines. The transformational changes that took place in rendering the rhetorical figures varied in prevalence ranging from maintaining the rhetorical figures in headlines with metonymy, personification, allusion, simile, irony and hyperbole to complete deletion of them in headlines with ellipsis, pun, anastrophe and apposition in most instances.

Keywords: Transformational Strategies, News Headlines, Rhetorical Figures of Speech, Textual Analysis, Rhetorical Analysis

1. Introduction

The notion of "translation" is entirely different in the realm of global news. It entails the processes of adaptation and manipulation of the original text in order to suit the target audience (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009). News translation seems to be a highly situation-bound activity in which translators find themselves surrounded by a great variety of governing factors shaping their work (Amouzadeh, Eslami Rasekh, Tavangar & Khanjan, 2011). These governing factors, as Darwish (2006) and Ali (2009) claimed, may put pressure on the translators to alter the source news. For instance, in translation of news headlines, the translators may be faced with technical constraint (e.g. space) that ultimately can affect their terminology selection. These factors are more tangible in

some government-controlled media that, as Fenby (1986) mentioned, specifically make news suit particular political purposes.

News translation involves both translating and editing which occur simultaneously, and cannot easily be distinguished from one another (Stetting, 1989). Since news media deliver news to the target public, news editors pay delicate attention in choosing their words and specifying their priorities. This, according to Russial (2004) and Rich (2010), seems to be more obvious in a news headline which is an influential factor in tempting the reader to continue reading the whole article.

Given that one of the main functions of headlines is "persuasion" and with considering the fact that rhetorical figures are generally a significant means of persuasion (Henry & Tator, 2002; Ifantidou, 2009; Leigh, 1994; McQuarrie & Mick, 1993; Tuan, 2010), investigation of rhetorical figures in news headlines and the changes that they manifest in going through one language into another are the salient issues that count throughout this study. DeRosia (2008) argued that "rhetorical figures were thought by the ancients to have a wide variety of effects among recipients, including effects on attention, comprehension, cognitive responses, affective responses, source evaluations, and extra figurative effects." (p. 46). Accordingly, the translation and transformation of wordplay (rhetorical figures of speech) seems to be an extremely sensitive task particularly in news headlines where the figurativeness of language may bear a special purpose.

Van Dijk (2009) mentioned that analysis of news talk can bring out the usually not explicit ideologies of journalists. He pointed at headlines as the most prominent information of the news which come first and summarise the story in the body. On the other hand, as Samuelsson-Brown (2004) mentioned, there is a need for translators to acquire certain linguistic skills. Rhetorical figures of speech can create various kinds of linguistic-semantic effects and accordingly can affect the overall meaning of the headlines. A slight change in a translated text can project a different picture (Vuorinen, 1997, 1999). Pun, idiom, metaphor, irony, oxymoron, and the majority of other wordplays constantly examine the translator's creativity and ability in playing with words. Hence, considering the importance of wordplay in creating appealing effects in readers and the challenges that they may cause for translators, the present research aims to investigate the transformation strategies that copy editors employ to render wordplay (figures of speech) from one text into another one.

Ali (2009) mentioned that the headline writer and the headline translator have the same purpose of winning the readers' emotion with as few words as possible. She claimed that the language of news presents factual content of the story as well as emotional tone. This emotional tone is mostly achieved through wordplay. However, "its role in headline writing and translation has largely escaped the attention of scholars and researchers." (p. 33).

Often choosing an adequate translation for wordplay seems to be a dilemma for translators: whether they should give up the wordplay or provide a more or less free adaptation. In Delabastita's (1996) words, it is a paradox that the only way to be faithful to the source text is to be unfaithful to it. He added that "While it is of course true that many wordplay cannot be transposed without substantial modifications and will accordingly bring the source-oriented translator face to face with the dilemma between 'loss' and 'adaptation' of the wordplay, this is by no means always the case." (p. 135). The review of previous studies on wordplay and headlines revealed that when the study was on wordplay, it was done on advertisements rather than news headlines (e.g. Jalilifar, 2010; Khodabandeh, 2007; Leigh, 1994; McQuarrie & Mick, 1993, 1996, 1999; Roberts, 1998; Smith,

2002, 2006; Tom & Eves, 1999) and when the study was on news headlines, the concern was mainly about language and ideology in the press (e.g. Ali, 2009; Amouzadeh et al., 2011; Bell, 1991; Chiluwa, 2007; Fowler, 1991; Valdeón, 2007). The research on *wordplay* per se in two languages' parallel news headlines has received less attention partially because the access to the large body of source and target parallel news documents is time consuming and not easy to obtain. It is likely that the novelty of the present research in investigating headline wordplay and its transformation in online parallel English-Persian news corpus can add a new chapter in the previous literature on headlines. The present study tries to provide a guideline for novice translators, particularly those who show volition to work on translation and transformation of news texts, of the most frequent transformation strategies used in dealing with a specific wordplay in news headlines. For justifying this claim, Kuhiwczak and Littau (2007) mentioned that there are times when practicing translators wish there were a better interface between theory and practice, and Wagner (2006) argued that the present boundaries between translators and translation studies scholar should break up to bring the theory and practice closer. Since the present study deals with the real data as they appear in a news website without any manipulation, the authenticity of the data can add value in studying the strategies. In order to execute the study the following question stands out:

1. What changes in wordplay occur in the headlines while getting transferred from English to Persian?

2. Literature Review

The role of mass media as the principle channel of communication in the modern democratic society is quite important because it has a profound influence in forming opinions; i.e. any selection of message in the mass media has a fundamental impact on the whole society (Fog, 1999). A certain amount of control over the content takes place in production processes in print and broadcast media (Bruns, 2009). This control of the flow of information in news is called "gatekeeping". Gatekeepers (journalists, editors, owners) decide which pieces of information should go through a specific gate (Vuorinen, 1996). In the majority of gatekeeping processes there are clearly defined limitations to the type of news that enters into the news production process. Furthermore, particular news organisations may also have certain house policies to include or exclude specific events because of their effects for the organisation's political or commercial agenda. In fact, in news organisations two gates are being constantly controlled: one at the input stage through which news and information is permitted into the news production process, and the second in the output stage through which news report appears in the media (Bruns, 2009). Bruns concluded that the motivations for gatekeeping varies in these two stages: gatekeeping at the input stage is to meet the routines and political and commercial agenda of organisations, while in the output stage it is to deliver clear and important information to the audience.

Occasionally according to the targeted audience, when news is submitted to translation and undergoes a reframing process, the translated version becomes extremely poor in quality. CNN en Español can be an example. It was launched in 1997, however, because of the poor quality of translations was cancelled in September 2004 (Valdeón, 2005b). The poor quality of translation happens when the translator does not play the role of "mediator" (Bernacka, 2012; Gambier, 2006). The translator as a mediator actively participates in communications, and manipulates words in a way that strengthen understanding or serve political and ideological agendas (Darwish, 2009). Darwish (2006) argued that when news undergoes a translation process, it reframes and reconstructs the already constructed reality. Darwish's (2006) claim can be considered logical,

because translation does not take place in a vacuum. The manipulation in projecting the same news content may be in contrast with the concept of fidelity in translation. However, in practical terms, according to Vuorinen (1999), "it is an overoptimistic fallacy to believe that news could cross linguistic and cultural barriers – even when these are barriers between cultures with close ties and contacts – without changes in content, style, perspective, focus, etc." (p. 64). As Lefevere (2004) stated, the way translators understand themselves and their culture can influence their translation product. That may be the reason for Enkvist's (1997) emphasis on the need of thorough study on contrastive rhetoric for teachers and translators. Translation "always involves transformation and transformation intrinsically results in transmutation of the original message" (Darwish, 2009, p.30).

Journalists perceive "translation" in a different way. Though translation is essential in global news, it is downgraded among journalists. They are reluctant to be referred to as translators. Accordingly, the translators aiming to work in global news are required to be trained as journalists (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009). Bielsa and Bassnett (2009) justified that translation in news media is one element in a complex set of processes in which information is transferred from one language into another. The information is also reshaped, edited, synthesised, and repackaged in a new target context for a new set of readership. In their investigation of the ways international news stories, written in English, were prepared for Turkish readers, Aktan and Nohl (2010) found out that the process involves both skills of translating and editing. They compared the news of BBC in English with news in Turkish radio of the BBC. The outcome of the study as well as their interview with the director of the Turkish radio of the BBC revealed that the transition of news from English into Turkish involved mostly "compilation" or "adaptation" and just 20% of it might have been "translation".

The major goal of news translation is the quick and clear transmission of information to readers. In this transference of information, the journalistic factors connected to times, space and genre are as important as the linguistic and cultural factors (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009). In order to illuminate the grey area between editing and translating, Stetting (1989) suggested the term "trans-editing" in which editing is the process of transforming one text into another with a considerable difference in form but congruency in meaning (Bell, 1991). Trans-edition of news which involves gatekeeping and adaptation is widely employed by news organisations to package acceptable and suitable texts for target readership and maximise communication (Chen, 2009). Stetting (1989) added that trans-edition involves "changing", "adding" and "removing information" which results in "re-creation" of the original source in target language. In short, "what matters most in news trans-editing is not "faithfulness" or "equivalence" but "rewriting" by dint of various types of textual manipulation" (Chen, 2009, p. 204). Rather than using the term "trans-edition" Bielsa and Bassnett (2009) preferred to simply employ the term "news translation" to refer to the same concept. Their term "news translation" covers the combination of "news translation" and "news edition". In news translation, the translator has the "interventionist" role because s/he is not forced to preserve the form and content of news without significant alternations. Consistent with the aforementioned claims, Sidiropoulou's (1995) study of Greek headlines and their English originals proved that target text headlines are rarely literal translation of the source headlines to minimise target readers' processing effort. The main issue in translation of news is "objectivity" rather than "faithfulness" (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009). Steiner (1992) claimed that "all theories of translation - formal, pragmatic, chronological - are only variants of a single, inescapable question. In what ways can or ought fidelity to be achieved?" (p. 275). Bielsa & Bassnett (2009) argued that in news translation, faithfulness is more due to the narrated facts than to the original text. Accordingly, the issue of "authorship" which is extremely important in literary translation is not treated the same in the

highly heteronymous journalistic field. In the majority of news organisations, the norm is that several journalists are responsible for the production of a story which ultimately has to be reviewed by an editor. In fact, texts not reviewed by the editor, are not allowed to circulate on the newswire. Hence, there exists collective authorship, and "authorship" is not any longer strictly individual (Bell, 1991).

Figures of speech (wordplays) are hidden factors that can make the language more manipulative. The headline writers are shaping their insights with these hidden factors (Alhadithi, 1996; Taiwo, 2007). As Nord (2008) mentioned, the purpose of a sender of a persuasive text is to maintain the contact with the addressee as much as possible in order to make sure the addressee will remember certain points. Most often, this purpose is achieved through a headline or a slogan that is nourished by rhetorical devices.

An inappropriate translation of wordplay can deviate the target text from the latent intention of the original text. Sidiropoulou (2004) argued that "intercultural difference in the persuasion strategies preferred in particular language is likely to leave unintended traces of foreignness in target persuasive discourses". Therefore, she maintained that, "press translators often interfere with discourse organisation to cater for intercultural preference and enhance appropriateness in target discourse" (p. 36).

Newmark (1988) argued that above knowledge, translators should have a feel, intuition and sensitivity in their own language in order to pick up close equivalents for source language terms. For instance, during Anglo-French trade wars, the British tabloid newspaper *The Sun* pilloried the French with headlines such as "Hop off you Frogs!" The headline contains different instances of wordplay such as hyperbole and metaphor. "Translating such rhetoric literally has the effect of making the speaker ridiculous, as has been the case with the English translations of extracts from speeches by political figures such as Colonel Gaddafi or Saddam Hussein" (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009, p. 12).

Gambier (2006) investigated the use of hyperbole and understatements in translated press. He mentioned that these two devices are used differently in different cultural communities, and each of these wordplays has an effect in perception of reality. Hyperbolic headlines portray a suspicion as something absolutely certain. As an example, Gambier (2006) presented President Bush's speeches and comments on the war in Iraq and claimed that Bush's "arguments were suffused with glossy exaggerated statements and images." (p. 10). In the America, Bush's rhetoric convinced the majority of citizens to be true. However, elsewhere in many places, his statements "were taken as false, considered as exaggerations or simply lies, or not credible." (ibid). Gambier (2006) justified this issue with claiming that "Recipients are not aware to the same extent that hyperbolic utterances are not to be taken literally. In other words, they do not apply, in the same way, the cooperative principles of communication." (p. 11). Hence, he concluded that there may be a possible correlation between a wordplay (a culturally and politically bound wordplay) and its reception in translations. A particular wordplay that is welcomed in one culture, may be presumed as lie in another culture. In short, a culturally and politically bound wordplay can provoke controversy.

Figures of speech, as an element of rhetoric, are for the improvement of communication and as long as there are humans with the urge to communicate, there will be an urge to study these figures. Adams (2003) stated that the terminology is not easy and Greek; nevertheless, it is worth a thorough study. Todorov (1982) dated back the first identification of rhetorical figures to two

thousand years ago in classical antiquity. The ideas about rhetorical figures, as McQuarrie and Mick (1993) mentioned, first blossomed in Athens during the 5th century B.C., then flourished for about thousand years and afterwards went down with the fall of Rome. During the renaissance, classical rhetoric was revived once again and as Alm-Arvius (2003) mentioned from 1980s and onwards there has been a diligently growing interest in figurative language.

3. Method

3.1. Theoretical Framework

The present paper is a case study which deals only with a single source of news. To be able to gain knowledge of wordplay employed in headlines this type of data is more insuring because if the data were selected from different sources the policy of different news websites could vary. One news website might show preference in engaging headlines with wordplays while others might not which could affect the conclusion and making inferences.

One of the main criticisms of employing any case study might be that the data collected cannot be generalised. However, much can be learned from a particular case and the result of the present study can be used as a representative in dealing with the probable use of wordplays in other print or online news and the ways these wordplays are transferred from source news to target news headlines.

van Dijk's (1988a) framework will be employed to understand the changes manifested in transferring wordplay from English into Persian. This analysis of wordplay that has only English-Persian online news headlines is conducted using textual analysis and rhetorical theory. van Dijk (1988a) asserted that the focus of rhetoric is on persuasion, and in Drout's (2006) words, rhetoric is doing things with words.

As mentioned above, the present study performs a rhetorical analysis within the context of textual analysis. Selzer (2008) mentioned that "effective rhetorical analysis can be generally textual or contextual in nature" (p. 302). The term "text" may cause one to visualise a long piece of writing. However, Widdowson (2004) claimed that a text may be very short. He argued that a text, based on circumstances, can be letters, sounds, words, or sentences. In Widdowson's (2004) definition, terms such as "no entry, silence, open" are considered as a text. Widdowson (2004) went further and claimed that even a single letter (P) can be considered as a text when it implies where a car can be parked. Widdowson (2004) referred to these texts as "minimal texts" that are sorts of shorthand for larger texts. For instance, "P" stands for "Parking" and it stands for "Parking is permitted here". In line with Widdowson's (2004) view, Halliday (1994) called headlines as a typical example of "little texts". Accordingly, what is of importance here is that texts can be appearing in all shapes and sizes. Hence, a text should be identified by its "social intent", rather than its linguistic size.

3.2 van Dijk's (1988a) Framework of Transformational Strategies

van Dijk (1988a) claimed that news production is a transformational process which starts with transforming the source news text into a suitable final news item. He argued that after the transformation process, the final news report may be quite a different version of the source text, i.e. "events may become more focused, personalised, and dramatised" (van Dijk, 1988b, p. 154).

van Dijk (1988a) mentioned that the news production process contains a number of source text processing practices which he called "transformational strategies". His transformational strategies

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involve selection, reproduction, summarisation, local transformations (deletion, addition, permutations, substitution), and stylistic and rhetorical (re-formulation). van Dijk (1988a) "includes transformational strategies as part of rhetoric" (Ali, 2009, p. 91). Ali (2009) maintained that transformational strategies are concerned with the selection and variation of words that translators employ in the process of translation. The main function of transformational strategies is producing an acceptable target headline. The partial or total transformational changes in rendering a source news item into a target news text result in the different interpretation of news information (Kuo & Nakamura, 2005; van Dijk, 1988a).

Van Dijk's (1988a) framework of transformational strategies makes it possible to systematically trace the rhetorical transformational strategies used in this research. For van Dijk (1988a) rhetoric is concerned with particular devices such as alliteration, simile, metaphor and the like that get the readers' attention, and which consequently are employed with a purpose. These particular devices are called "wordplay" in the present thesis.

Ali (2009) employed van Dijk's (1988) transformational strategies for analysing English newspaper headlines with their Arabic translations, but with one critical difference. Van Dijk (1988a) examined English language usage in English language newspapers, while Ali (2009) extended van Dijk's (1998a) methodology to include the transformational effects of translation. Similar strategies are utilised in Gambier's (2006) and Hursti's (2001) works.

The transformational strategies investigated in the present thesis are addition, deletion, substitution, re-ordering, and reproduction. There is also one additional category which indicates "no change". They can have an effect on all levels of headline discourse from main deck to facts or even punctuations (van Dijk, 1988a; Ali, 2009). van Dijk's (1988a) framework is summarised in Figure 1 below:

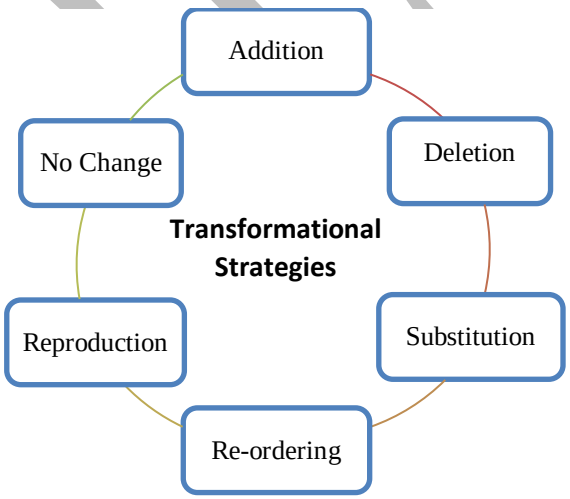

Figure 1 van Dijk's (1988a) Transformational Strategies

3.3 Justification for Data Selection

As discussed by Hashemi, Shakery and Faili (2010) and Farajian (2011), one of the basic barriers of doing any translational research, rather than contrastive, on English-Persian news headlines is the access to the parallel corpus. The present research can be claimed to be the first of its kind that

could overcome the problem, and deals extensively with the issue of transformational strategies in a large number of wordplay in parallel English-Persian news headlines.

Since some news websites such as BBC are multilingual and produce their news in English as well as in Persian, the original conception while setting up the objectives of this study was getting access to English news headlines from one news website along with their translated Persian equivalents. However, in practice, problems were encountered in data selection. It was found that each language news website such as Mehrnews, Farsnews, IRNA, ILNA, ISNA, IRIB News, Tabnak, VOA and Press TV have their own independent operation, and their news content in English and Persian are not the same. One can find only few equivalent headlines in each of these news websites in Persian and English that relate to international affairs.

Resuming the constant searches on the internet, a research paper was found entitled "Creating a Persian-English Comparable Corpus" presented in the *International Conference of the Cross-Language Evaluation Forum, CLEF* in Padua, Italy on September 20-23, 2010. Proceeding through the article, the researcher felt her own angst in the strings of words and lines explicated by the corpus compilers: Hashemi, Shakery, and Faili (2010). The difficulty in creating a Persian-English news corpus was fully described in their study. The compilers are specialists in computer science and they have constructed a Persian-English corpus from two independent news agencies: BBC news in English and Hamshahri news in Persian. The news articles for Hamshahri were extracted from www.hamshahrionline.ir and those for BBC were got out of www.bbc.co.uk. Hashemi et al. (2010) claimed that their corpus is the first big comparable corpus of Persian and English. It consists of 10247 document alignments in which corpus compilers not merely focused on headline alignments but on making alignments on the whole news articles. Hashemi et al. (2010) tried to align the news articles on the basis of topic similarities and publication dates. Using different criteria, they believe that the quality of their corpus in making news article alignment is high.

Analysing Hashemi et al.'s (2010) corpus, it is found that the contents of news documents are not parallel. Because of this lack of parallelism the mentioned corpus is not suitable for the purpose of present study even though Hashemi et al. claimed that their comparable corpus is promising for translation studies.

In 2011, Farajian compiled a parallel corpus entitled PEN. As Farajian's (2011) corpus is the first parallel English-Persian news corpus, there were limitations in using it for the present study. Studying and analysing his corpus, it was found that the PEN corpus was mostly restricted to local news of Afghanistan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan. For the present study data are preferred that project world news, rather than local news. Farajian was also compiling a second parallel corpus. Farajian's 2nd corpus has an international domain which is based on www.euronews.com. It covers the news from all over the world: Africa, America, Asia, Europe, and Middle East. He agreed to provide the present research with his second corpus comprising the original English news as well as their Persian equivalents as they authentically appear in the news website. Examining the headlines along with the news contents in Farajian's 2nd corpus, it is found that this parallel corpus is good in quality for the purpose at hand. Furthermore, using a ready-made corpus helps to eliminate any bias on the part of the researcher in choosing headlines.

3.4 Data Collection Sources

As mentioned in section 3.3, the data for the study is extracted from Farajian's computerised corpus of parallel English-Persian news documents which is based on the Euronews website. Accordingly, all the headlines subjected to analysis come from Euronews website with international influence. In *Euronews linked in page*, available on https://www.linkedin.com/company/euronews, *Euronews* is defined as

> The most watched news channel in Europe , covers world news from a European Perspective. With 400 journalists and correspondents of more than 30 nationalities, Euronews is a truly independent media hub, offering a unique and multifaceted perspective on news, favouring facts and analysis over emotions. We reach 400 million homes in 155 countries and are available across all platforms (websites, mobile apps, connected TVs, radio, YouTube, Google Glass…), as well as on board airlines, cruise lines and in hotels.

The first one hundred English news documents are extracted from the corpus and compared to their Persian equivalents. Hence, the overall data consists of 200 English-Persian parallel news documents. The scope of the study is restricted to textual rhetorical analysis of wordplay in news headlines.

3.5 Justification for Data Analysis

As previously discussed, in translating news documents the source text gets trans-edited in such a way that the main content of the original version is preserved in a sequence that is acceptable for target readership (Huang, 2000). This is performed to ensure the effective and successful transition of information in response to market demands for time-effectiveness (Xiaojuan, 2010). Accordingly, for answering the research question, the study should be based on a theoretical framework which takes the trans-editing nature of news conversion into account. For this purpose, van Dijk's (1988a) framework, which was discussed in section 3.2, is used as the basis.

3.6 Procedure of the Study

Applying the comparative descriptive method, the procedure for data analysis is listed below.

1. Breaking down the Persian headline into its lexical components and giving English literal equivalent for each unit in order to make it possible for the non-Persian reader to recognise the changes.

2. Providing a back translation of each Persian headline for the convenience of contrastive analysis.

3. Conducting a textual rhetorical analysis of the news headline in order to detect wordplay first in English news headline, and then in its Persian equivalent.

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4. Comparing and contrasting the analyses of the two languages' headlines in order to determine what types of wordplays are used.

5. Investigating the changes that took place in wordplay getting transferred from English to Persian and determining the transformational strategies based on van Dijk's (1988a) theoretical framework summarised in Figure 1.

4. Data Analysis and Discussion

As mentioned earlier, journalistic translation has a distinctive and specific goal which subsequently follows particular rules. In this type of translation, adherence to the source text is not the primary and foremost criterion for the value of the target work. The source news goes through the gatekeeping process and the information get filtered, translated and edited (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009).

4.1 Transformation Imposed Changes

In the analysis, each English text headline is presented along with its Persian back translation in order to aid the non-Persian reader in the identification of transformation imposed changes. The types of wordplay used in the English and Persian news headlines are similar. However, *litotes*, *onomatopoeia* and *asyndeton* are used exclusively in English and *anaphora* and *periphrasis* are used just in Persian news headlines. Within this section, with the analyses of English and Persian headlines in detail, the changes that have been made to the wordplay in Persian will be discussed.

4.1.1 English Headlines in the Corpus with the Majority of Wordplay

Five instances of English headlines in the corpus, i.e. headlines 1, 2, 6, 76 and 98 contain the majority of wordplays in the corpus, i.e. six. One example of this group will be discussed below;

English Headline Number 2:

Turkey warns further strikes by Syria would be "a fatal mistake"

Persian Headline Number 2:

سوریه مواضع به ترکیه نظامی حملات ادامه

(ادامه: resumption; حملات: attacks; نظامی: military; ترکیه: Turkey; به: on; مواضع: positions; سوریه: Syria)

Back Translation: Resumption of Turkey's military attacks on Syria's positions

There is a **metonymic** use of two countries, Turkey and Syria, in the English headline above**.** As the news lead reveals, Turkish Prime Minister, Recep Tayyip Erdogan, warned Syria. However, the headline writer generalises Erdogan's warning to the whole country: "Turkey warns further strikes by Syria would be a fatal mistake". This metonymic reference "country for status" can influence the readers' understandings making them perceive every single event as something caused by the whole country and not by the single status (Prime Minister) within the country. Concurrently, by attaching the human trait of "warning" to the country, the trope **personification** is employed.

In the same manner, for referring to the authorities responsible for strikes, the headline writer applies the **metonymic** use of Syria. At the same time, the headline **personifies** Syria as the responsible agent for the strikes.

The phrase "fatal mistake" in the English headline has the function of "threat"; the term "fatal" implies that the consequence will be death. Hence, with this **hyperbolic reference**, the headline reveals that Turkey would not shy away from war if provoked. However, the use of the term "mistake" is a **euphemism** for Syria's "wrongdoing" which suggests the severe consequences of war on the country with less offensive wording.

There were no instances of "schemes" in the above English headline.

The English headline portrays Turkey's attack as a response to Syria's initial strikes, while this concern is completely manipulated in its Persian version. The Persian headline merely refers to the resumption of Turkey's military attacks on Syria's positions and projects it as if Turkey is the country which starts the war. In Persian headline, there is no reference to Syria's initial mortar barrage on Turkey's soil. The employed wordplays are:

Personification → حملات ترکیه (Turkey's attacks), Turkey is personified as if it is capable of attacking.

Metonymy → ادامه حملات نظامی ترکیه (resumptions of Turkey's military attacks), Turkey is used in metonymic reference to the soldiers of the country.

Metonymy → مواضع سوریه (Syria's positions), in military lexicon "positions" mean *places where armies has put soldiers and guns*. Accordingly, "Syria" is used as a metonymy to refer to the military positions of Syria. In other words, positions that belong to the army of Syria.

Hyperbole → Stating Turkey's persistency to attack Syria images Turkey's aggression in order not to let Syria test its deterrence, its decisiveness, and its capacity.

The transformational strategy used in rendering the English headline into Persian is "reproduction". As discussed above, the Persian headline manipulated the message. Consequently, though one instance of "personification", and two instances of "metonymy" and the trope "hyperbole" are preserved in the Persian headline, with different lexical implementations, they create different conceptual correspondence. English euphemism is also ***left out (deleted)*** in the Persian version:

English Personification (Turkey warns): *Persian headline **reproduced**; personification was **reproduced** and **maintained**;*

English Personification (strikes by Syria): *Persian headline **reproduced**; personification was **deleted**;*

English Metonymy (Turkey): *Persian headline **reproduced**; metonymy was **maintained**;*

English Metonymy (Syria): *Persian headline **reproduced**; metonymy was **maintained**;*

English Euphemism: *Persian headline **reproduced**; euphemism was **deleted**;*

English Hyperbole *Persian headline **reproduced**; hyperbole was **reproduced** and **maintained**.*

The following tables summarise the above-mentioned discussions:

Table 1: The wordplay employed on the English headline number 2

Wordplay

Schemes	Tropes
	Personification (2) → *Turkey warns / strikes by Syria*
	Metonymy (2) → *Turkey, Syria*
	Euphemism → *mistake*
	Hyperbole → *fatal*

Table 2: The wordplay employed on the Persian headline number 2

Wordplay

Schemes	Tropes
	Personification → *حملات ترکیه (Turkey's attacks)*
	Metonymy (2) → *ترکیه (Turkey), سوریه (Syria)*
	Hyperbole → *ادامه حملات (resumption of attacks)*

4.1.2 English Headlines in the Corpus with the Second-Largest Set of Wordplay

Eight instances of English headlines in the corpus, i.e. headlines 4, 5, 8, 24, 42, 53, 61 and 84 have five wordplays which include the second-largest set of wordplays in English headlines. One example of this group will be discussed below,

English Headline Number 5:

<u>Georgian Dream leader looks to mend ties with Moscow</u>

Persian Headline Number 5:

<u>اروپا اتحادیه به پیوستن سیاست تغییر عدم بر ایوانیشویلی تاکید</u>

(تاکید: emphasis; ایوانیشویلی: Ivanishvili; بر: on; عدم تغییر: not changing; سیاست: policy;

پیوستن به: joining; اتحادیه اروپا: European Union)

Back Translation: Ivanishvili's emphasis on not changing the policy of joining European Union

"Georgian Dream" is a political party in Georgia established through the efforts of Bidzina Ivanishvili. He is the leader of Georgian dream coalition, named after a song by his rapper son. Ivanishvili is leading this coalition into the most important election of Georgia. On the Georgian parliamentary election of 2012, the oppositional Georgian Dream coalition won a majority of seats, and the former president, Mikheil Saakashvili, concerned his party's loss. In the English headline, the phrase "Georgian Dream leader" creates **<u>pun</u>**, i.e. *dream leader* can refer to: a) perfect leader; and b) leader of the dream coalition. However, in the Persian headline, the proper name "ایوانیشویلی: Ivanishvili" is substituted for the phrase "Georgian dream leader". In this substitution process the trope pun is ***left out (Deletion)***.

Georgia is at the heart of a strategic battle between Moscow and the West. Russia insists that Georgia is part of its backyard, and it has been always opposed to NATO membership for Georgia. **Alluding** to this political issue, the English headline bolds the fact that Ivanishvili, Georgia's new top man, is Russia-friendly, while in the news text it is stated that he is looking for close ties with *Europe and NATO* as well as *Russia*. On the other hand, using ***reproduction strategy***, while preserving allusion, without any reference to future ties with Russia, the Persian headline conveys that there is no change in Ivanishvili's policy in joining the European Union which means his policy is in line with the ex-president's policy. However, the English headline portrays that Ivanishvili's policy is in contrast with that of the former president, Mikheil Saakashvili, who had anti-Russian outlooks.

English headline also contains one **metonymic** instance of Moscow which has the metonymic target of "Russian government members". However, ***reproducing*** the Persian headline, it ***leaves out*** this wordplay ***(Deletion)***. The metonymic use of Moscow also leads to the trope **personification**; i.e. Georgian dream leader cannot mend ties with an inanimate country. He will mend ties with the "government members of the country". Furthermore, the phrasal verb "mend tie" is **metaphorical**. The denotative meaning of "mend" is "to make repairs or corrections" and the denotative meaning of "tie" is a "knot". Metaphorically, "mend ties" has the connotative meaning of "improving the relationship". Both Personification and Metaphor are ***left out (deleted)*** in Persian. The wordplays used in the English and Persian headlines above can be summarised in the following two tables:

Table 3: The wordplay employed on the English headline number 5

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Pun → *dream leader*
	Allusion → *political issue*
	Metonymy → *Moscow*
	Personification → *Moscow and mending ties*
	Metaphor → *mending ties*

Table 4: The wordplay employed on the Persian headline number 5

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Allusion → *political issue*

4.1.3 English Headlines in the Corpus with the Third-Largest Set of Wordplay

Thirteen instances of English headlines in the corpus, i.e. headlines 9, 13, 22, 23, 26, 27, 38, 40, 75, 92, 94, 95 and 97 have four wordplays which include the third-largest set of wordplays. One example of this group will be discussed below;

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English Headline Number 22:

Desdemona lives in Manhattan

Persian Headline Number 22:

کند می زندگی منهتن در دزدمونا

(دزدمونا: Desdemona; در: in; منهتن: Manhattan; زندگی می کند: lives)

Back Translation: Desdemona lives in Manhattan

Desdemona is a character in William Shakespeare's play *Othello*. Shakespeare's Desdemona is a Venetian beauty who lives in Venice, Italy. In Giuseppe Verdi's opera, Othello, Renée Fleming plays Desdemona which is one of her signature roles. The English and Persian headlines get Renée Fleming such into Desdemona's character that intermingle two separate identifiable individuals as being one. Accordingly, the English headline contains the trope **metaphor** which is maintained with ***"no changes"*** in Persian. The economy of expression inherent in metaphoricity helps the headline writer to express more in few words. The metaphor lends a certain flare to the headline that it would otherwise lack, and it makes the readers think.

There is also one instance of **metonymy** in both headlines in which the opera artist is gone beyond the designation of a character as a participant in the story and nominated by the role she has taken. This particular connectedness between the real identifiable social entity (Renée Fleming) and the role that she has taken in the play (Desdemona) is used to trigger the memory of this character in the reader. By a reference to this leading character of Shakespeare's play, the headlines also create the trope **allusion**. The nomination, i.e. *Desdemona* in place of *Renée Fleming* is designed to call the play *Othello* to mind without mentioning it explicitly. However, the informed readers know that Desdemona did not live in Manhattan. With the use of **hyperbole** and exaggeration in making two characters similar, the headlines attempt to arouse the curiosity of readers to find why *Manhattan* is presented as the place *Desdemona* lives.

All the wordplays used in English and Persian headlines belong to the category of *tropes* and the English wordplays are ***maintained*** in Persian with ***"no changes"***. They are presented in the following two tables:

Table 5: The wordplay employed on the English headline Number 22

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Metaphor → *Desdemona*
	Metonymy → *Desdemona*
	Allusion → *Othello*
	Hyperbole → *Desdemona*

Table 6: The wordplay employed on the Persian headline Number 22

Wordplay

Schemes	Tropes
	Metaphor → دزدمونا *(Desdemona)*
	Metonymy → دزدمونا *(Desdemona)*
	Allusion → اتلو *(Othello)*
	Hyperbole → دزدمونا *(Desdemona)*

4.1.4 English Headlines in the Corpus with the Third-Lowest Set of Wordplay

In this phase of the study, 1 out of 27 examples of headlines with the third-lowest set of wordplays (containing three wordplays); i.e. headlines 11, 14, 15, 16, 17, 30, 33, 34, 36, 37, 39, 41, 48, 55, 58, 59, 63, 64, 69, 82, 83, 86, 87, 88, 89, 99 and 100 will be explicated:

English Headline Number 30:

Cold snap hits France with first signs of winter

Persian Headline Number 30:

گرفت دربر را فرانسه مختلف مناطق برف و سرما

(سرما: cold; و: and; برف: snow; مناطق: regions; مختلف: different; فرانسه: France; را: of; دربر گرفت: embraced)

Back Translation: Cold and snow embraced different regions of France

As the English news text reveals, early winter snow as cold snap hit eastern parts of France and forced French authorities to issue an "Orange" warning, the second highest alert, and mobilise rescue services. With the use of **imagery**, the idea of "hitting" refers to the sense of touch or tactile sense. The headline uses words in a way to create mental images for the reader in order to visualise its intention more realistically. The term "دربر گرفت (embraced)" in the Persian headline is substituted for the term "hit" in the English headline which also appeals to the tactile sensations. Reproducing the Persian headline, though imagery is ***maintained*** in Persian, implying different denotative and connotative meanings, it is ***reproduced***.

In both headlines, accompanying its adjacent noun, Imagery creates **metaphor**. Denotatively, "hit" means *touching somebody or something quickly and hard with your hand, causing pain*; and "embrace" means *putting arms around someone and holding them*. The utilisation of these terms creates a metaphorical images of *slapping* and *hugging* in mind and these metaphorical images lead to the trope **personification**; i.e. as inanimate objects cold snap cannot ***hit*** (harshly slap) or ***embrace*** (hug) France. In the above-mentioned headlines, imagery, metaphor and personification serve to make an action clearer and more real to the reader by explaining the concept in terms of human actions. ***Reproducing*** the headline, metaphor and personification are ***preserved*** in the Persian headline, however, they are ***reproduced***.

The wordplays utilised in two headlines can be summarised in the following tables:

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Table 7: The wordplay employed on the English headline number 30

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Imagery → *hits*
	Metaphor → *hits*
	Personification → *Cold snap hits France*

Table 8: The wordplay employed on the Persian headline number 30

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Imagery → *دربر گرفت (embraced)*
	Metaphor → *دربر گرفت (embraced)*
	Personification → *سرما و برف دربر گرفت (cold and snow embraced)*

4.1.5 English Headlines in the Corpus with the Second-Lowest Set of Wordplay

Twenty five instances of English headlines in the corpus, i.e. headlines 3, 7, 10, 18, 19, 43, 45, 46, 49, 50, 52, 54, 60, 66, 67, 70, 72, 73, 77, 79, 80, 85, 90, 93 and 96 have two wordplays which include the second-lowest set of wordplay in headlines. One example of this group will be discussed below;

English Headline Number 50:

Jazz pianist Dave Brubeck dies

Persian Headline Number 50:

درگذشت برویک دیو

(دیو: Dave; برویک: Brubeck; درگذشت: passed away)

Back Translation: Dave Brubeck passed away

Dave Brubeck, the legendary jazz pianist and composer, known for defying jazz conventions and for recordings like "Take Five" and "Blue Rondo a la Turk," has died of heart failure in Norwalk, Connecticut (Peralta, 2012). The English headline employs the simple present tense "dies" to put its readers into the middle of the action and provide them with the feeling of participation. As Aggarwal (2006) mentioned generally in news headlines it is better to say somebody "dies" rather than somebody "has died" because though the event is past, it is the recent past and the readers are getting informed about it for the first time. The readers themselves possibly can determine the connection and understand from the present tense headline that the event happened within the publishing time of headline. English **ellipsis** which is ***left out (deleted)*** in Persian can be recovered in the following way:

Jazz pianist Dave Brubeck **dies** (Jazz pianist Dave Brubeck **has died**)

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In the English headline above also two noun phrases are placed side by side in which one of them (Dave Brubeck) is served to identify the other (Jazz pianist) in a different way. The English headline writer might have thought that merely including "jazz pianist" would be risky so s/he anticipated a readers' reaction like: "Who is the jazz pianist and why do I have to read about him?", and decided to give the answer in **apposition** to help the readers refresh memories. The Persian headline writer, however, suffices to state the late musician's name without providing any extra information about him in the headline. Accordingly, apposition is ***deleted*** in Persian. On the other hand, employing **euphemism**, the Persian headline writer attempts to use "درگذشت: passed away" as a euphemism for "died" in order to substitute a milder term and express it in a more polite way. Euphemism which was absent in the English headline is ***added*** to Persian. The wordplays in the two headlines above are summarised in the following tables:

Table 9: The wordplay employed on the English headline number 50

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
Ellipsis → *dies*	
Apposition → *Jazz pianist Dave Brubeck*	

Table 10: The wordplay employed on the Persian headline number 50

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Euphemism → درگذشت *(passed away)*

4.1.6 English Headlines in the Corpus Containing the Least Instances of Wordplay

Nineteen instances of English news headlines; i.e. Headlines 12, 20, 25, 28, 29, 35, 44, 47, 51, 56, 57, 62, 65, 68, 71, 74, 78, 81 and 91 contain the minority of wordplays in the corpus, i.e. only one. One example of this group will be discussed below;

English Headline Number 12:

Merkel praises Greek reform and promises support

Persian Headline Number 12:

یونان مقروض دولت به مرکل سبز چراغ

(چراغ سبز: green light; مرکل: Merkel, به: to; دولت: government; مقروض: indebted; یونان: Greece)

Back Translation: Merkel's green light to Greece indebted government

Germany is widely seen as the architect of tough austerity measures imposed on Greece. However, despite the clampdown, as news text reveals, Ms. Merkel's visit is being seen as a sign of support for Greek Prime Minister Antonis Samaras and the country's ongoing reform efforts. Ms Merkel agreed that Greece had completed a large part of the journey towards reform; however, she warned

that it is particularly important that Greece sticks to the agreements in order to win back the long-term confidence of the markets (Papadimitriou, 2014).

In both English and Persian headlines all the responsibility is put on Merkel though she was not the only one who put pressure on government of Greece that demanded so much from the people. The news encapsulates that Merkel praises these austerity measures and promises support while asking for another tight balancing act. In fact with the use of **metonymy** in English headline, the proper name "Merkel" stands for the German government with Merkel on top of it. The headline writer holds Merkel completely accountable for the austerity measures and determining the fate of Greece. Reproducing the headline, the Persian one conveys the same message in a more metaphoric manner; i.e. with substituting the phrase "چراغ سبز مرکل: Merkel's green light" for English "Merkel praises", **metaphor** and **metonymy** are created in Persian headline: The metaphor of traffic lights is used for implying Merkel's consent. Furthermore, the expression "giving green light" contains metonymy. The metonymy with regard to "green" is based on cultural principles attributed to the colour green. By social agreement the colour *green* is related to the concept of permission. Thus the cultural metonymy "green for permission / agreement about something" is used. These metonymy and metaphor are ***added*** to the Persian headline ***(Addition)***. However, the proper name "مرکل: Merkel" carries the ***same*** metonymic reference as its English equivalent that was described above. The use of the above-mentioned tropes can arouse curiosity in the readers and tempt them to read the whole news article.

There is also one instance of **personification** that is added to the Persian headline in which the human trait of being "مقروض: indebted" is attributed to Greece government while there are members of government who are indebted not the general term "government". Personification is used for saving the economy of expression in news headline:

دولت مقروض یونان (Greece indebted government) → Greece indebted government *members*

The wordplays can be summarised in the following tables:

Table 11: The wordplay employed on the English headline number 12

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Metonymy → *Merkel*

Table 12: The wordplay employed on the Persian headline number 12

Wordplay	
Schemes	**Tropes**
	Metonymy (2) → *سبز (green); مرکل (Merkel)*
	Metaphor → *چراغ سبز مرکل (Merkel's green light)*
	Personification → *دولت مقروض (indebted government)*

4.1.7 English Headlines in the Corpus Containing No Wordplay

Three instances of English news headlines; i.e. Headlines 21, 31 and 32 are the straightforward plain headlines with no wordplay in them. An example will be discussed below.

English Headline Number 31:

Israelis protest about illegal African immigrants

Persian Headline Number 31:

آفریقایی مهاجران حضور به اسرائیلی شهروندان اعتراض

(اعتراض: protest; شهروندان: citizens; اسرائیلی: Israeli; به: about; حضور: presence; مهاجران: immigrants; آفریقایی: African)

Back Translation: Protest of Israeli citizens about the presence of African immigrants

Illegal immigration from Africa to Israel began in the second half of the 2000, when a large number of immigrants from Africa entered Israel, mainly through the fenced border between Israel and Egypt. According to the data of the Israeli Interior Ministry, the number of these illegal immigrants amounted to over 55,000 in 2012. In general, most of these African migrants are regarded to be legitimate asylum seekers by various human rights organisations. Both of the English and Persian headlines pinpoint at this phenomena in a direct, straightforward manner without any use of wordplay. The initial position of the word "Israelis" in the English and "اعتراض: protest" in the Persian headline makes these concepts prominent. They suggest a *discontent* in the *whole nation* to the existing problem (presence of illegal Africans).

In a contrastive study conducted by Bonyadi and Samuel (2013), the rhetorical devices in the 20 editorial headlines of English newspaper, *The New York Times* and those of Persian newspaper, *Tehran Times* were studied. However, the main difference between their work and the present study is that their selected editorial headlines were not parallel. Their study is mentioned here to emphasise the similarity in findings. The most frequent wordplay that emerged in their study in both English and Persian news headlines was "metonymy" which is in line with the results of the present research which can lead to the conclusion that copy editors favored using this wordplay the most.

4.2 Transformational Strategies

In the following section, the transformational strategies that were used in rendering each particular wordplay from English into Persian headlines will be summarised.

4.2.1 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Pun

English copy editors have used "pun" in three instances of headlines; namely Headlines 5, 53 and 82. Going from English to Persian headline, in

(1) Headline 5 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, pun was **deleted;**

(2) Headline 53 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, pun was **deleted**;

(3) Headline 82 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, pun was **maintained**;

- (4) There is also one instance of **pun** in Persian headline number 41 that was absent in its English equivalent (**Addition**).

4.2.2 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Allusion

There were nine instances of "allusion" in English news headlines, namely headlines 3, 4, 5, 22, 61, 73, 80, 86 and 99. With the use of transformational strategies in:

(1) Headlines 3, 5 and 61 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, allusion was **maintained**;

(2) Headline 4 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, allusion was **deleted**;

(3) Headlines 22, 73, 86 and 99 → Allusion was **maintained** with **no changes**;

(4) Headline 80 → Transposition of form in Persian headline, allusion was **maintained**.

4.2.3 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Personification

There were 46 instances of personification in English news headlines in which going through English into Persian, in

(1) Headlines 2 (a), 6 (a), 11, 15, 24 (b), 30, 33, 40 and 53 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, personification was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(2) Headlines 1, 2 (b), 4, 5, 6 (b), 9, 24 (a), 34, 36, 58 and 61 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, personification was **deleted**;

(3) Headline 41 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, personification was **maintained**;

(4) Headlines 7, 17, 18, 72, 75, 76 and 95 → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, personification was **deleted**;

(5) Headlines 37 and 87 → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, personification was **maintained**;

(6) Headline 45 → Transposition of form in Persian headline, personification was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(7) Headlines 13, 26 (a & b), 59, 85, 88, 89, 92, 98, 99 and 100 → Personification was **maintained** with no changes;

(8) Headlines 27, 54, 64 and 84 → Addition of extra information / substituting alternative lexical unit to the Persian headlines, personification was **deleted**;

- (9) Headlines 12, 48, 49, 80 and 81 → **Addition** of personification in Persian headlines (Absent in English).

4.2.4 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Simile

There was one instance of simile in English news headlines:

(1) Headline 42 → Simile was **maintained** with no changes.

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4.2.5 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Irony

English copy editors used irony in one instance of English news headlines:

(1) Headline 76 → Irony was **maintained** with no changes.

4.2.6 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Metaphor

There were 15 instances of metaphor in English news headlines in which getting transferred from English into Persian in

(1) Headlines 4, 5, 9 and 36 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, metaphor was **deleted**;

(2) Headline 61 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, metaphor was **maintained**;

(3) Headlines 30, 40 and 53 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, metaphor was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(4) Headlines 22 and 42 → Metaphor was **maintained** with no changes;

(5) Headline 23 → Metaphor was **re-ordered** and **maintained**;

(6) Headlines 63 → Metaphor was **deleted**;

(7) Headlines 10 and 60 → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, metaphor was **deleted**;

(8) Headline 97 → Transposition of form in Persian headline, metaphor was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

● (9) Headlines 11 and 12 → Addition of metaphor in Persian headlines (Absent in English).

4.2.7 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Paradox

There was one instance of paradox in English News headlines, namely

(1) Headline 52 → Paradox was **maintained**.

4.2.8 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Metonymy

As the most frequently used wordplay, there were 93 instances of metonymy in English news headlines, namely:

(1) Headlines 1, 2 (a & b), 12, 40 (b), 41, 49 (a) and 82 → Persian headlines were reproduced, metonymy was **maintained**;

(2) Headlines 5, 6, 8 (b), 16, 24 (a & b), 34 (a & b), 36, 40 (a), 58 and 61 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, metonymy was **deleted**;

(3) Headlines 3, 6 (b), 8 (a), 11 and 15 (b), 33 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, metonymy was **re-ordered** and **maintained**;

(4) Headlines 9, 15 (a), 49 (b) and 70 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, metonymy was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

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(5) Headlines 7, 87 and 97 → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, metonymy was **re-ordered** and **maintained**;

(6) Headlines 18, 81 → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, metonymy was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(7) Headlines 17, 45, 65, 72 and 76 → Transposition of form, addition of extra information / substituting alternative lexical unit to Persian headlines, metonymy was **deleted**;

(8) Headlines 27 (a), 37, 38, 78, 93 and 95 (a & b) → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, metonymy was **maintained**;

(9) Headlines 19, 47, 75, 77 and 84 (a & b) → Metonymy was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(10) Headlines 23, 27 (b & c), 29, 39, 54, 55 (a & b), 64 (a), 68 and 69 → Addition of extra information / substituting alternative lexical unit to Persian headlines, metonymy was **deleted**;

(11) Headlines 13 (a, b & c), 22, 26 (a & b), 42, 59, 62, 64 (b), 66, 67, 79, 85, 86 (a & b), 88 (a & b), 89, 92 (a & b), 94, 96 (a & b), 98 (a, b & c), 99 and 100 → Metonymy was **maintained** with no changes;

- (13) Headlines 11, 12, 47, 48 (a & b), 74, 78, 80 and 85 → **Addition** of metonymy in Persian headline (Absent in English).

4.2.9 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Periphrasis

There was no instance of periphrasis in the English news headlines. However, it was added in Persian news headline:

- (1) Headline 3 → Reproduction of Persian headline and **addition** of periphrasis to it (Absent in English).

4.2.10 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Imagery

There was one instance of imagery in the English news headlines:

(1) Headline 30 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, imagery was **reproduced** and **maintained**.

4.2.11 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Onomatopoeia

There was one instance of onomatopoeia in the English news headlines:

(1) Headline 1 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, onomatopoeia was **deleted**.

4.2.12 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Euphemism

English copy editors used euphemism in two instances:

(1) Headlines 1 and 2 → Persian headlines were **reproduced,** euphemism was **deleted**;

- (2) Headlines 8, 50 and 90 → **Addition** of euphemism in Persian headlines (Absent in English).

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4.2.13 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Hyperbole

Thirteen instances of hyperbole were present in the English news headlines:

(1) Headlines 1, 6 and 82 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, hyperbole was **deleted**;

(2) Headline 2 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, hyperbole was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(3) Headline 41 →Persian headline was **reproduced**, hyperbole was **maintained**;

(4) Headlines 22, 66, 76 and 83 → Hyperbole was **maintained** with no changes;

(5) Headlines 80, 87 and 97 → Transposition of form in Persian headlines, hyperbole was **maintained**;

(6) Headline 63 → Hyperbole was **deleted**;

- Headlines 26, 34 and 53 → **Addition** of hyperbole in Persian headlines (Absent in English).

4.2.14 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Litotes

There were two instances of litotes in the English news headlines:

(1) Headlines 9 and 16 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, litotes was **deleted**.

4.2.15 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Anastrophe

English copy editors used anastrophe in three instances:

(1) Headline 25 → Transposition of form in Persian headline, anastrophe was **deleted**;

(2) Headlines 92 and 98 → Anastrophe was **deleted**;

- (3) Headline 23 → **Addition** of anastrophe in Persian headline (Absent in English).

4.2.16 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Apposition

There were six instances of apposition in the English news headlines:

(1) Headline 16 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, apposition was **deleted**;

(2) Headline 69 → Apposition was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(3) Headline 90 → Apposition was **re-ordered** and **maintained**;

(4) Headline 46 → Apposition was **maintained** with no changes;

(5) Headlines 50 and 67 → Apposition was **deleted**.

- (6) Headline 19 → **Addition** of apposition in Persian headline (Absent in English).

4.2.17 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Parallelism

There were three instances of parallelism in English news headlines:

(1) Headline 6 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, parallelism was **deleted**;

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(2) Headline 14 → Parallelism was **deleted**;

(3) Headline 83 → Addition of extra information in Persian headline, parallelism was **maintained**.

4.2.18 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Asyndeton

There were three instances of asyndeton in English news headlines:

(1) Headlines 14 and 98 → Addition of extra information to Persian headlines, asyndeton was **deleted**;

(2) Headline 48 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, asyndeton was **deleted**.

4.2.19 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Ellipsis

As the second most frequent wordplay, ellipsis was present in 58 instances in English news headlines:

(1) Headlines 8 (a & b), 11, 24, 58, 70 and 74 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, ellipsis was **deleted**;

(2) Headline 33 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, ellipsis was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(3) Headline 48 (a & b) → Persian headline was **reproduced**, **substituting** metonymy for ellipsis;

(4) Headlines 10, 39 (b) and 93 → Transposition of form in Persian headline, ellipsis was **maintained**;

(5) Headline 38 (b) → Transposition of form in Persian headline ellipsis was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(6) Headlines 17, 28, 37, 38 (a & c), 39 (a), 43 (a & b), 51, 60, 75 (a & b), 91, 95 and 97 → Transposition of form, addition of extra information / substituting alternative lexical unit to Persian headlines, ellipsis was **deleted**;

(7) Headlines 19, 35, 44, 46, 50, 55, 56, 57, 59, 63, 69, 71, 73, 76 (a & b), 77, 79, 84, 90, 94 (c) and 100 → Ellipsis was **deleted**;

(8) Headlines 23 and 94 (b) → Ellipsis was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(9) Headlines 42 (a & b), 53, 83, 89 and 94 (a) → Ellipsis was **maintained** with no changes;

- (10) Headlines 9, 29, 36, 49, 52, 86, 92 and 98 → **Addition** of ellipsis in Persian headline (Absent in English).

4.2.20 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Alliteration

There were eight instances of alliteration in English news headlines:

(1) Headlines 1, 4, 53 and 61 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, alliteration was **deleted**;

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(2) Headlines 8 and 23 → Persian headlines were **reproduced**, alliteration was **reproduced** and **maintained**;

(3) Headlines 20 and 84 → Alliteration was **deleted**;

- (4) Headlines 11 and 34 → **Addition** of alliteration in Persian headlines (Absent in English).

4.2.21 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Anaphora

There was not any instance of anaphora in the English news headlines. However, it was added to the Persian headline number 83:

- (1) Headline 83 → **Addition** of anaphora in Persian headline (Absent in English).

4.2.22 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Internal Rhyme

Internal rhyme was present in three instances in the English news headlines:

(1) Headline 4 → Persian headline was **reproduced**, internal rhyme was **deleted**;

(2) Headline 14 → Internal rhyme was **deleted**;

(3) Headline 52 → Transposition of form in Persian headline, internal rhyme was **maintained**;

4.2.23 The Transformational Strategies Utilised in Rendering Oxymoron, Parody, Anthimeria, Rhetorical Questions, Antithesis, Climax, Parenthesis, Polysyndeton, Anadiplosis, Antimetabole, Assonance, Epanalepsis, Epistrophe, Polyptoton, Repetition and End Rhyme

There were no instances of the above-mentioned wordplays in English and Persian news headlines. It is noted, nevertheless, that the range of wordplay in the Persian headlines was similar to that of the English headlines. The most significant difference was in the exclusive utilisation of *litotes*, *onomatopoeia* and *asyndeton* in the English headlines and *anaphora* and *periphrasis* in the Persian headlines.

The results have confirmed Newmark's (1988) claim that seldom has a text exclusively one function (e.g. informative function) and in the majority of cases the two or more functions (e.g. expressive, informative and vocative or persuasive functions) are intermingled in a text with an emphasis on one. Euronews headlines were no different and besides being informative, they were saturated in wordplays. Particularly, the trope metonymy's dominant position in headlines was remarkable. The results also demonstrated the range of strategies employed in rendering wordplay in English-Persian news headlines (from deletion of wordplay to maintaining it with no changes). In general, it was proved that "schemes" were less frequent in both language news headlines and their maintenance in headline transformation was more difficult than "tropes". However, it was possible to translate news headlines in a way that they contain the same types of wordplay in the Persian headlines as they did in English. The findings of the study suggest that specifying a particular strategy for rendering a particular wordplay is quite far-fetched. Persian news headlines presented a subjective attitude of copy editors in rendering wordplay. For instance in rendering metonymy, which was the most frequent wordplay in both English and Persian headlines, the most frequently used strategy was that of "maintaining the wordplay with no changes", i.e. metonymy could be easily rendered in Persian headlines without applying major changes to the original one.

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In short, translator journalist recreated the SLT in TLT. The role of news translators was that of "interventionist" because they were not obliged to save the content and structure of SLT without significant changes. "Fidelity" was not fulfilled through faithfulness or equivalence but via re-writing by employing different types of textual manipulations and modifications. In most of the news organisations several journalists were responsible in production of news and "authorship" was not limited to individuals. Individual styles faded in support of the integrated style of the organisation they worked. These arguments illuminated the research in a sense that the changes in TL headlines were envisaged and literal translation of wordplay was not expected. However, the findings of this study show that it is not always the case and in some cases wordplay was preserved in target headline with no changes.

There were a number of news headlines in the corpus which used exactly the same wordplay in both English and Persian language. Accordingly, it was possible to render news headlines in a way that they contain the same wordplay in the target headline as they did in the source. The results suggested that the task was made simpler if the headline was based on the use of *tropes*. For instance, it was quite easy to translate a headline to ensure that a country was capable of speaking (personification). However, indeed this does not mean that all of the tropes in the corpus were translated. They were just more likely to be translated than schemes.

When *schemes* were involved, those wordplays that required a balancing of words within a clause could also be rendered quite successfully. Preserving the regularity of form, essential in the communicative translation of a scheme, was a challenge for translators. This was verified through the results. Since preserving phonetic regularity was even more difficult, within schemes the most difficult categories to translate were those of repetition. For instance, translating alliteration was difficult because translators were expected to select words that carry both the same meaning in Persian as they did in English while beginning with a particular letter. The findings were in line with Smith's (2002, 2006) investigation of wordplay translation in English-Russian advertising headlines.

5. Conclusion

The overall aim of this research was to enhance an understanding of wordplay in news headlines without passing judgement on it. The specific research objectives were to investigate the probable use of wordplay in English online news headlines in order to determine the types of wordplay utilised, and to identify the transformational strategies that were employed in rendering the wordplay from SLT to TLT.

Since in the present study both the source news headlines and the target news headlines were extracted from the same news website, the differences in the issue of ownership, ideological and socio-political perspectives might not be perceptible. Valdeón (2005a; 2007) claimed that when translations were originated in the source culture, and had been translated by text producers anchored in the source culture, "translators, irrespective of whether they are native speakers of the target language, are bound to be heavily influenced by the source language and the editorial routines of the news corporation, whose political and ideological agendas are shaped by source culture political motivations" (p. 157). However, the similarity in ideological perspective was one of the advantages of the present data because this study merely aimed to investigate the use of wordplay and its transformation in two languages of English and Persian. Employing textual rhetorical analysis, this research was of translational nature rather than cognitive, ideological or

socio-political analyses. Accordingly, in the present study that the ideological and socio-political directions of source and target news headlines were similar, attaining research objectives could be systematically directed. Wherever in the study ideological outlook was presented, it was just complementary to previous arguments on rhetorical analysis.

A wordplay in English was either maintained, reproduced, substituted with other wordplay from the same or different category or completely left out in Persian. However, the transformational strategies employed in rendering wordplays from English into Persian varied in Prevalence because they were unavoidably based on the target copy editors' decisions about what was crucial and relevant to be maintained in the target text. Hence, changes in transformational strategies in retention of wordplays were not unexpected. However, there were certain tendencies in employing a particular transformational strategy in this study. For instance, in the majority of cases, metonymy, allusion, simile, irony, paradox and hyperbole were maintained in Persian with no changes; ellipsis, pun, anastrophe, parallelism, apposition and internal rhyme were deleted; the headlines with metaphor were reproduced in Persian and metaphor was deleted. The English headline with imagery was reproduced in Persian, imagery was reproduced and maintained. The English headlines with onomatopoeia, litotes and alliteration were reproduced in Persian, and onomatopoeia, litotes and alliteration were deleted. In most cases, instances of euphemism were added to Persian headlines. Though there were no instances of periphrasis and anaphora in the English headlines, they were added to the Persian headlines. When asyndeton was involved, there was addition of extra information to Persian headlines, and asyndeton was deleted; and English headlines with personification were either reproduced in Persian and personification was left out or personification was maintained in Persian headline with no changes.

In order to conclude this section, it should be mentioned that the interlingual transfer of wordplay necessitated particular skills that went far beyond the linguistic skills. Above understanding the meaning of words in abstract, the translators had to comprehend what those words signified in specific contexts and then they had to render the implicit and assumed as well as explicit and apparent. The effective manifestation of this was immense particularly in the realm of news headline translation that there were constraints in space for expressing more in few words as well as time pressure for the immediate transformation of news to meet the market demands.

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WEB-BASED TOOLS FOR EFFICIENT FOREIGN LANGUAGE TRAINING AT UNIVERSITY

Ainoutdinova Irina Nailjevna, Doctor of Education, Associate professor, Department of Foreign Languages for courses in social sciences and humanities, Institute of International Relations, History and Oriental Studies, Kazan (Volga region) Federal University, Kremlin Street, 18, Kazan, 420008, Russia. E-mail: iainoutd@mail.ru

Ainoutdinova Karina Arturovna, Senior lecturer, Department of Criminal Law, Faculty of Law, Kazan (Volga region) Federal University, Kremlin Street, 18, Kazan, 420008, Russia. E-mail: karina.arturovna14@mail.ru

Abstract

The need for the study has been caused by the overall processes of globalization, integration and informatization. The use of computer-aided foreign language learning/ teaching methods has been facilitated by recent advances in science and technology. One example is the appropriate use of a web-based learning (WBL) approach. The purpose of this article is to examine the impact of the corresponding web-based tools and resources on the whole process of foreign language training at universities. The methodological framework of this research work rests on the comparative approach allowing discovering and accumulating best practices and experiences of WBL application at universities for their further dissemination worldwide. A comprehensive analysis of the technical, pedagogical and managerial issues of WBL as of efficient technology for foreign language teaching of university students has also been provided as an integral part of the research. On the basis of the empirical approach testing, evaluation and control of usability, accessability, availability and safety of some major WBL tools and resourses have been performed. An experimental study has also been conducted in order to obtain and compare certain relevant data concerning the learning outcomes of students in a traditional versus web-based learning environment. The process involved 50 teachers and more than 300 students who were temporarily placed into separate learning environments, i.e. conventional (traditional) and web-based. The main result of the study is the design of the model of an effiient web-based student-centered learning environment that enhances the quality of university education in general and foreign language training in particular. The data driven analysis proved that most of the web-based tools and resources used at university could be regarded as both sustaining and disruptive technologies determined though equally by innovation and student-centered paradigm. As a sustaining technology WBL corresponds to the well-known and successful computer and Internet-assisted methods. As a disruptive technology WBL still lacks its complete realization, often has performance problems, seems to be known to a limited group of educators/ students and might not yet have a

proven practical application. Through detailed analyses and research the targeted data on advantages and disadvantages that WBL may bring to learning and teaching process at university have been gathered. The key result of this study show that the appropriate well-designed WBL-mediated environment enhances learning opportunities and helps students succeed via networking and collaboration where other methods may have failed.

Key words: web-based learning, technology, tools, resources, university, environment.

1. Introduction.

The new national and regional education standards call for all students throughout Russia to use every opportunity to become proficient in foreign languages. The use of common languages, especially the English language, is in great demand in such areas as trade, tourism, international relations, technology, media, science and research. Ironically, proficiency in English is not only a ticket to a bright and shining future with high-level or meaningful job or further career advancement; it is *inter alia* one of essential process skills (problem-solving, team working, critical thinking, etc.) so needed today to cope with the rapidly changing world (Kivunja, 2014).

Various foreign language programs are growing in response to the need to develop longer sequences of foreign language learning that will enable students to learn in, rather than to learn about, a foreign language and to graduate from universities with an acceptable level of language proficiency. Since foreign language education cannot rest solely on conventional solutions to overcome the shortages of methods, resources and tools to realize its goals, new types of learning activities challenge our thinking as to how learning environments might be facilitated and improved at universities (Ainoutdinova, 2015).

In recent years both academic researchers, educators and practitioners witness and show great interest in how computers and the Internet can best be used to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of language education at all levels and in both formal and non-formal settings. Different digital technologies are typically used here in combination rather than as the sole delivery mechanism for better foreign language acquisition by university students. The best examples of sustaining and disruptive technology-mediated methods of foreign language teaching and learning include: web-based learning (WBL), computer-assisted language learning (CALL), e-Learning, blended learning, open and distance learning, etc. (Ainoutdinova, 2015) All these ICT-enhanced (Information Communications Technologies) education activities should not be perceived as a substitute for conventional learning methods though they have dramatically reshaped traditional classrooms, fostered learner motiviation and autonomy, created a wide range of options for authentic interaction in a technology-based language environment, etc. (Fakhrutdinova et al., 2016).

The analysis of the literature (Harshbarger, 2016; Jansen & Van der Merwe, 2015) on the topic allowed us to assume that some of the most common trends of the 21st century foreign language teaching and learning include: (1) e-Learning, web-based and mobile learning and other forms of online education – being considered by most educational institutions as clue solutions for continued educational success in a diigital era (Warschauer, 2007); (2) Employment of real world applications – which allow students to apply theories to realty and see them in action (Bolstad et al., 2012); (3) Gamification – with nearly half of the teachers admitting that they have at times incorporated online games into their classroom educational setting (Maloy, 2016); (4) Emerging and use of Open Source Textbooks, Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC), crowdsourcing based

on networkig, cooperation and collaboration, etc. (Lin, 2016); (5) Blended Learning – regarded as the foremost trend in education (Ainoutdinova, 2015), etc.

As we see the current trends are taking on an absolutely new shape as university teachers leverage modern ICT technologies and strategies to creatively deliver content in various ways to their students. As a result, the learning environment is constantly evolving and changing thus creating among other things new etiquette of learning and teaching, shifting the locus of control from the teacher to the learner and, according to International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE), bringing the world to the classroom (Jansen & Van der Merwe, 2015). No doubt, learning today isn't what it used to be.

The purpose of this article is to try to come to a more particular definition of a Web-based learning (WBL), to examine the main phases of its development, to discover what Web-based tools and techniques have been used and are being used for efficient foreign language training of university students in Russia; and to discuss the most recent questions regarding WBL. We will not focus on a technical description of hardware, software or networks, but rather on the pedagogical questions that teachers might consider while using web tools and resources in the classroom. For those interested in more detailed information on particular web-applications, specific web-mediated language programs and web-resources there are enormous options on the Internet.

2. Methodological Framework.

The methodological framework of this research work rests on the comparative approach allowing to discover and accumulate best practices and experiences of WBL application at universities for their further dissemination worldwide. A comprehensive analysis of the technical, pedagogical and managerial issues of WBL as of efficient technology for foreign language teaching of university students has also been provided as an integral part of the research. Our study has been supported by deep analysis and synthesis of the best scientific findings on the topic presented by prominent western scholars (Beatty, Bolstad & Gilbert, Khan, Warschauer, etc.). We also examined and analyzed some unique characteristics of the Web (McKimm, 2003; Maddux, 2012), main phases of the Web development from Web 1.0 to Web 3.0 (Kazlauskas et al., 2000; Khan, 2001; Warschauer, 2007), synchronous and asynchronous Web-based delivery methods along with the computer and online networking in language classrooms (Beatty, 2010), distinguished between these two methodological strategies and enumerated their common advantages amd disadvantages (Cook, 2007). On the basis of the empirical approach testing, evaluation and control of usability, accessability, availability and safety of some major WBL tools and resourses have been performed. An experimental study has also been conducted in order to obtain and compare certain relevant data concerning the learning outcomes of students in a traditional versus web-based learning environment. (Relan & Gillani, 1997; Khan, 2005) The process involved 50 teachers and more than 300 students who were temporarily placed into separate learning environments, i.e. conventional (traditional) and web-based.

We took into account the broad international experience concerning Web-based learning through comparative research and study as the source of both sustaining and disruptive innovation to improve the system of university education in Russia. First we analyzed the general roots of WBL and then the existing definition of the term WBL as a part of its conceptual apparatus (Clark, 1996; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Khan, 1997; Kazlauskas, 2000; Khan, 2001; Warschauer et al., 2002; Bolstad, 2012). We paid special attention to the globally linked hypertexts refering to as the World Wide

Web (or WWW). In the end we examined with due diligence the basic components of a general Web-based course and describeds some of the Web-based, namely Web 2.0 tools and resources, for practicing four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and assisting language teaching and learning process. To sum up the topic we identified and enumerated most of advantages and disadvantages of a Web-based learning within a web-mediated university environment.

3. Results.

The main result of the study is the design of the model of an effiicient web-based student-centered learning environment that enhances the quality of university education in general and forsters foreign language acquisition in particular. It should be a multilingual educational space of university based on inclusion of the native language and teaching of one or more foreign languages to students (usually English, German, French, Spanish, etc.). Such a space functions in the interconnection and complementarity of all its components that are traditionally integrated into educational process of university. The learning environment should also be organized in accordance with the changing learning needs and styles of modern students, usually referred to as the "digital generation Z", their preferrences and capabilities (Warschauer, 2007). The learning environment of university should thus be organized with a due web-based support where educational tools and resources might function as adaptive, familiar and comfortable instrumental facilitators of the learning process (Brown & Lippincott, 2003).

The information and communication environment of university, mediated by direct quick access to computers and the Internet, should include the university's website, portal for electronic and distance education, digital libraries, etc. Classrooms and lecture rooms should be equipped with modern devices and multimedia equipment, adapted for work, with both external and internal web-based and other educational resources (Brown & Lippincott 2003). Moreover, academic community faces the challenges of development, testing and implementation in the aggregate of a set of innovative forms, methods, techniques, technologies and training tools adequate to the stated goals and objectives. Forms of foreign language teaching can be synchronous and asynchronous, face-to-face and distant, with the involvement of native speakers, with the participation of a teacher or with more independent work of students (King et al., 2015). The methods of instruction can vary from traditional, aimed at the development of 4 types of language activity (reading, speaking, listening, writing), to breakthroughs aimed at the formation and development of artificial bilingualism, cognitive, meta-subject and research qualities, critical thinking. The methods and technologies of education should, in this context, give unambiguous answers to the questions: "How and what to learn?" and "How to learn effectively with best outcomes?" It became obvious, that one of the most favorable option for learning foreign language for today's students, who have grown accustomed to smartphones, computers, tablets and the Internet, is a habitual friendly web-based university environment. At the same time, experience shows that, although this generation of students has clearly divided their lives, including communication and education, into off-line and on-line modes, most of them still recognize the need for teachers to participate in their training. Therefore, today mixed learning technologies are apparently very popular among the teachers and their students, being based on a combination of e-learning technologies integrated into the learning process with traditional classroom (face-to-face) studies and techniques (Ainoutdinova, 2015).

The data driven analysis proved that most of the web-based tools and resources used at university could be regarded as both sustaining and disruptive technologies determined though equally by

innovation and student-centered paradigm. As a sustaining technology Web-based learning (WBL) corresponds to the well-known and successful computer and Internet-assisted methods (Warschauer et al.,2002; King, 2015; Conley et al.,2017). As a matter of fact, web-based learning offers incredible opportunities to study nowadays (Khan, 1997; Warschauer & Kern, 2000). Despite of its popularity the notion WBL still remains unclear and confusing since it has too many names. WBL is inclusive of, and is broadly synonymous with such terms as multimedia learning, technology-enhanced learning (TEL), computer-based instruction (CBI), computer-based training (CBT), computer-assisted instruction or computer-aided instruction (CAI), Internet-based training (IBT), web-based training (WBT), online education, virtual education, virtual learning environments (VLE) or virtual learning platforms, m-learning, digital educational collaboration, etc. (Bolstad et al., 2012). These alternative names emphasize a particular aspect, component or delivery method. Web-based learning (WBL) typically involves some form of interactivity, including online interaction between the learners and their teacher or peers (Khan, 2001). Web-based learning (WBL) opportunities are usually accessed via the Internet and its associated tools and software. Web-based learning (WBL) includes numerous types of media that deliver text, audio, images, animation, and streaming video, and includes technology applications and processes such as audio or video tape, satellite TV, CD-ROM, and computer-based learning, as well as local Intranet/ Extranet and Internet-based learning. However, Web-based learning (WBL) is evolving to include an increasing use of a wide and diverse range of other technologies and tools. These include video and audio conferencing, mobile phones, data projectors, digital cameras, global positioning systems and interactive whiteboards. Information and communication systems, whether free-standing or based on either local networks or the Internet in networked learning, underlay many Web-based processes. Web-based learning (WBL) can occur in or out of the classroom. It can be self-paced, synchronous or asynchronous learning or may be instructor-led. Web-based learning is suited to distance learning and flexible learning, but it can also be used in conjunction with face-to-face teaching, in which case the term blended learning is commonly used. "Pure" web-based courses are wholly based on computer and online possibilities. In this case all the communication and learning activities are done online (Warschauer et al.,2002; King, 2015; Conley et al.,2017).

4. Discussions

4.1. Web-based learning: roots and features

WBL`s roots and features are traced in Sociocognitive or Integrative Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), which is currently reaching its upmost position in the pedagogical field of English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL/ EFL) (Warschauer & Whittaker, 2002). CALL`s powerful presence has fostered learner autonomy and a wide range of opportunities for authentic interaction in the target language in computer-based environment. Mark Warschauer, Heidi Shetzer, and Christine Meloni in their book *Internet for English Teaching* (2002) explained that computer technology help ESL / EFL classrooms come ALIVE (Authenticity + Literacy + Interaction + Vitality + Empowerment) (Warschauer et al., 2002). Thus, CALL resources have supplemented English teaching in: (a) authenticity – a vast amount of authentic materials are accessible to be further experienced by the learner; (b) literacy – students can master such skills as reading, writing, communicating (speaking and listening), researching and publishing for academic and occupational goals; (c) interaction – learners can enjoy meaningful communication with native and non-native speakers worldwide; (d) vitality – learners are boosted by their motivational needs to communicate in real time with freedom, flexibility, and without engaging in memorization of

grammar rules; and (e) empowerment – learners become autonomous collaborative learners, and teachers become coaches who teach how to learn/ how to construct new knowledge (Warschauer et al., 2002). Computer-Assisted Language Learning has indeed influenced education throughout the years. That is why CALL has developed from a traditionally self-contained, programmed type of application where learners were exposed to tutorials, drills, simulations, instructional games, tests, and controlled practices to a more human-to-human communication type of application where learners can potentially communicate with native speakers or any other language learner all over the world on a one-to-one basis or many-to-many basis without restrictions of time or place and with an access to the Internet (Warschauer & Kern, 2000; Jansen. & Van der Merwe, 2015).

Web-based Learning (WBL) is regarded as a powerful, flexible, and efficient tool for technology-enhanced learning of foreign languages today. Its integral components are the Internet and the World Wide Web (WWW or Web). It is also considered as the easiest and the most popular approach to higher education because of advanced computer and Internet technologies. Professor Badrul Huda Khan, President of a professional development institution McWeadon Education – first coined the phrase "Web-based instruction" in his 1997 book of the same name (Khan, 1997). Later Khan defined Web-based Learning or WBL as "a hypermedia-based educational program which utilizes the attributes and resources of the World Wide Web to create a meaningful learning environment where learning is fostered and supported" (Khan, 2001). Learning environment could be defined here as a sum of the internal and external circumstances and influences surrounding and affecting a person's learning (Khan, 2001). Dr. Bijan Gillani and Prof. Anju Relan, internationally known e-learning scholars and experts, define Web-based Learning as "the application of a repertoire of cognitively oriented instructional strategies with a constructivist and collaborative language learning environment, utilizing the attributes and resources of the World Wide Web" (Khan, 1997; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Hsu, 2017). Prof. Herbert H. Clark (Herb Clark), Professor of Psychology from Stanford University, in his book "Using language" defined Web-based Learning as "an individualized instruction delivered over public or private computer networks and displayed by a Web browser" (Clark, 1996).

All of these definitions have a common feature: the Internet or the World Wide Web. From a pedagogical perspective, WBL provides an added value to the learning of languages. It supports the shift from the traditional teacher-centered classroom to a learner-centered environment. Web-based learning is becoming an even more powerful interactive source that increases learners' knowledge and that guarantees quantity and quality of language input and output (McKimm, 2003). Web based learning is often integrated with conventional, face to face teaching. This is normally done via an Intranet, which is usually "password protected" and accessible only to registered users. Thus, it is possible to protect the intellectual property of online material and support confidential exchange of communication between students. With web based learning, the material can be linked to libraries, for example, for ordering books or journals, online databases, and electronic journals. These functions are particularly useful for research and other scientific activities (Warschauer, 2007).

4.2. Some unique characteristics of the Web

Prof. Roger D. Maddux from Iowa State University has revealed some unique characteristics of the Web, namely: a) information on the WWW – can be made interactive in nature; and b) WWW – often makes use of multimedia, including graphics, sound, and animation (Maddux, 2010). The Web provides more effective and efficient searching tools than traditional searches in libraries, and

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the pages retrieved from the web are more attractive and appealing than traditional printed media. Moreover, multimedia capabilities probably make the Web more attractive to many people. In terms of pedagogical features of the Web (Khan, 1997), Web-based Learning (WBL) facilitates communication, enhances interactions, provides student-centered, self-paced, and collaborative learning, disseminates shared information, and reaches out to global communities (Khan, 1997; Maddux & Gibson, 2012). Research studies have also indicated that the long-term effects of learning via computers encourage student interaction and involvement in the whole learning process. The scholars (Kazlauskas et al., 2000) provided analysis and assessment of Web-based instruction and learning and came to conclusion that incorporating Web-based lessons and activities is a new way for teachers to utilize computer technology to enhance learning. So, it seems that the Web encourages another new way that students prefer to use while learning. Therefore, more and more educators have experimented with the WWW sites for learning in order to make their teaching more attractive to and more interactive with students. With the advent of Web 2.0 the Internet is viewed as a medium in which interactive experience, in the form of blogs, wikis, discussion forums, podcasts, social networking and sharing, etc. plays a more important role than simply accessing information (Warschauer et al., 2016; Cordes, 2017). The *Dearing Report*, formally known as the reports of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (a series of major reports into the future of Higher Education in the United Kingdom, published in 1997) – pointed out that through Internet networks it is possible to offer different forms of contact and access to many highly effective learning materials that were previously unavailable to many students (The Dearing Report, 1997 Bennett, 1997; Scott, 1998).

4.3. What is computer networking in a Web-based university environment?

In the world of computers, computer networking, in its broad sense, is the practice of linking two or more computing devices together for the purpose of sharing data. In information technology, networking is the construction, design, and use of a network, including the physical (cabling, hub, bridge, switch, router, etc.), the selection and use of telecommunication protocol and computer software for using and managing the network, and the establishment of operation policies and procedures related to the network (Kazlauskas, 2000; Warschauer et al., 2002; Brown & Lippincott, 2003). Computer networking in language classrooms can be categorized into two important technological and thus, interactive developments: one related to computer-mediated communication (CMC), and the other one related to globally linked hypertexts, both of which provide different ways for communicating and exchanging information (Kazlauskas, 2000; Khan, 2001; Warschauer et al., 2002; Brown & Lippincott,2003; Beatty, 2010). These features can be seen clearly as follows:

Asynchronous computer-mediated communication – is a networking that usually takes place outside a real time and is often exercised through electronic mail (e-mail) for delayed, controlled and longer messages. Its delayed nature enables much of flexibility though. Students may send or receive messages and other information when it's most convenient for them, they do not need to be sitting in front of the computer all the time; besides, there is less pressure and participants have time to digest information and put it in a proper context and perspective. Asynchronous activities will take place whenever learners have time to complete them, for example, viewing videos linked to the course site, reading a textbook, writing a course paper, responding to posts added to bulletin messages board, etc. The controlled nature of asynchronous CMC enables learners to share information such as word-processed documents, sound files, pictures, computer software, and even

full-motion pictures as attachments. There are many ways to do this: on one-to-one basis, one-to-many basis, or many-to-many basis by being part of e-mail discussion groups. Another advantage is that some forms of asynchronous collaboration, such as e-mail, are ubiquitous these days, it's hard to find a co-worker, customer, business partner, consultant, or other party who doesn't have an e-mail account (Bolstad, 2012). The drawbacks of asynchronous collaboration are that they can lack a sense of immediacy and drama and there's less immediate interaction as a result. Sometimes people have to wait hours, days, and even weeks to get a response to a message or feedback on a shared document. The lack of immediacy means that information can be out of date by the time someone views it. This is especially true in light of the rapid pace of change in today's business environment (Bolstad, 2012; Ainoutdinova, 2015; Harshbarger, 2016; Hsu, 2017).

Synchronous computer-mediated communication – is a real-time networking, where messages are sent and received instantly, as if individuals were having a telephone conversation. This interaction occurs on-line, and can be either written down (text) or can occur through audio and video tools. If a class uses only writing-based tools to communicate, the only synchronous communication possible is a chat session. Here everyone gets online in the same chat room and types questions, comments, and responses in real time. Chatting can happen on a one-to-one basis or many-to-many, as in Internet-based chat rooms. Thus, synchronous activities may include: chat sessions, whiteboard drawings, and other group interactive work. If a class involves multimedia tools, synchronous communication might incorporate audio or video feeds to the computer. Some "online" courses require learners and teachers to get together at least once or sometimes several times in person, by conference call, or through closed-circuit television links. One of the advantages of synchronous communication is its immediacy, so learners can send and receive information right away. This closely resembles a face-to-face or telephone conversation between two or more people, being a more natural way of communicating. The sense of immediacy is likely to solicit a timely response from people. Moreover, synchronous communication is generally more interactive than asynchronous (Bolstad, 2012; Ainoutdinova, 2015; Harshbarger, 2016; Hsu, 2017). The downside of synchronous communication is that it is less popular and not many people really like to use it. Although instant messaging, chats, etc. are becoming more common, they are still not as ubiquitous as e-mail or forums. Also, synchronous communication is not as flexible as asynchronous one. The parties involved must be willing and ready to communicate at a given moment or the session is not held at all. Besides, some people like to think twice over what they want to communicate.

4.4.The role of a globally linked hypertexts in foreign language training at university

Globally linked hypertexts – are referred to as the World Wide Web or WWW. Hypertext is the underlying concept defining the structure of the World Wide Web, with pages often written in the Hypertext Markup Language (HTML). Hypertext is a text displayed on a computer display or other electronic device with references (hyperlinks) to other text which the reader can immediately access, or where text can be revealed progressively at multiple levels of detail. Note, that hypertext is not just flat text with highlights or paragraphs omitted during display, but rather, the text is hyper-structured with hyperlinks or other structures embedded inside a page, including hidden search words, to control the display and connection with other pages or hypertext nodes. The hypertext pages are interconnected by hyperlinks, typically activated by a mouse click, key press sequence or by touching the screen. Apart from text, hypertext is sometimes used to describe tables, images and other presentational content forms with hyperlinks. Hypertext – enables an easy-to-use and flexible connection and sharing of information over the Internet (Khan, 2005). By using the

World Wide Web and hypertext, students can search through millions of files around the world within minutes to locate and access authentic materials (newspaper and magazine articles, research, radio broadcasts, movie reviews, reports, newsletters, software, and web-publishing sites, among many others). The resources of the World Wide Web are unlimited, and the advantages it provides for language learners are tremendous. For example, students can publish their texts or multimedia materials, and these can be shared with partners or other language learners around the world. This new approach to Integrative CALL and its Web-based subtype can only reach its goal of providing authentic means of communication if learners are exposed to this technology responsibly (Relan & Gillani, 1997; Warschauer & Kern, 2000; Warschauer et al., 2002). Learners will not achieve the desired level of communicative competence by just using a computer. As with any language class, the use of networking processes for learning a second or foreign language should be well-designed, carefully-planned and many variables should be taken into account, as: students' interests, their individual styles and strategies of learning, students' needs and wants, as well as the major aims and goals of teaching and learning a second or foreign language, the applicable content, tools and resources. (Hsu, 2017). Likewise, the roles of both teachers and students will change into "teaching how to learn" (coach) and "learning how to learn" (autonomous learners) (Maloy, 2016).

4.5. The most effective web-based tools and technologies for foreign language training

Educational communities today are rapidly increasing their interest in various Web-based tools and technologies for efficient foreign language training and the enhancement of teaching practices. So, let's have a closer look at various conceptions and terms associated with the Web. The term *Web 1.0* – refers to the first version of the web, sometimes also known as the informational web, which developed from 1991 onwards, as distinct from web 2.0, the social web, which emerged around the year 2000. Web 1.0 was essentially a source of information created by a small number of authors for a very large number of users. It consisted largely of static web pages with little room for real interactivity. Thus, it functioned much like a large reference book, or indeed a whole library of reference books (Bennett, 1997; Khan, 1997; Khan, 2001).

Until the emergence of web 2.0, of course, we didn't need to talk about versions of the web: therefore, the term web 1.0 was created retrospectively after the advent of web 2.0 to help differentiate the informational web from the social web. It's important to realize that web 1.0 hasn't disappeared, though. It still exists but is now overlaid with the more social web 2.0. Compared to pre-digital education, web 1.0 offers advantages in terms of student autonomy, use of authentic materials and scenarios, exposure to multiliteracies, and a limited level of interactivity. However, the main educational uses of web 1.0 tend to fall into two categories: information retrieval (as in webquests) or rote training (as in drills). These correspond to very traditional models of pedagogy: a transmission model in the former case, a behaviorist training model in the latter. Notwithstanding more sophisticated uses (such as webquests for problem-based learning, or drill exercises for guided discovery) such activities are not so clearly aligned with the social constructivist model which underpins much of the educational use of web 2.0 (Bennett, 1997; Khan, 1997; Khan, 2001).

In contrast to Web 1.0, a term which refers to the original informational web, Web 2.0 refers to the social web, which began to emerge around the year 2000. It's a loose grouping of newer generation social technologies, whose users are actively involved in communicating and collaborating with each other as they build connections and communities across the web through such web 2.0 tools like: blogs, wikis, social networking sites, social sharing services, and many others. The term Web 2.0 itself was coined by Dale Dougherty in 2004 and popularized by Tim O'Reilly (Cook, 2007).

While web 1.0 refers to the original, information-oriented web, and web 2.0 refers to the social web, the term web 3.0 refers to the currently evolving version of the web, though there are different views of what it actually entails. It doesn't exist on any large scale yet but, depending on which view of web 3.0 we accept, it's possible to see the beginnings of a shift towards web 3.0 in a variety of recent developments. There is of course a possible overlap between various conceptions of web 3.0 (Khan, 2001; Conley et al., 2017).

Some see web 3.0 as the semantic web, also called the intelligent web, where software agents will use metadata to "read", collate and integrate information, enabling them to give what appear to be "intelligent" responses to human operators. (Note that this is not the same as artificial intelligence, where machines infer the meaning of web data as opposed to finding and processing it). This idea is associated with Tim Berners-Lee, the founder of the World Wide Web. The notion of the semantic web often entails an increase in personalization, with search engines, for example, tailoring search results to individual users, based on accumulated data about individuals' interests and preferences. We can see the beginnings of shift in this direction in the increasingly personalized search results returned by Google, or in the personalized newsfeeds on services like NewsTrust, which filters stories through a user's personal and social networks (Bolstad et al. 2012; Jansen & Van der Merwe, 2015; Conley et al., 2017).

Some see web 3.0 as the geospatial web or Geoweb, where location is used to index information. We can see the beginnings of a shift in this direction with geosocial services like Foursquare and augmented reality services like Layar. Indeed, in 2009, Tim Berners-Lee suggested that the concept of the semantic web fits neatly with the emerging Internet of Things (IoT). Some commentators believe that the future web will look more like a virtual world which is navigated by avatars (Bolstad et al. 2012; Jansen & Van der Merwe, 2015; Conley et al., 2017).

Below are examples of some web based, namely Web 2.0 tools and resources, for practicing four language skills and assisting language teaching and learning process:

1. Speaking: *Audacity* (http://www.audacityteam.org/) – a free, open source, cross-platform software for recording and editing sounds; *SoundCloud* (https://soundcloud.com/) – is an online or mobile platform that allows collaboration and distribution of audio recordings; *Eyejot* (http://www.eyejot.com/) – is a free account that allows for one-minute video messages (message receivers don't have to sign up to watch the message, so teachers can send messages to students and encourage them to continue and reply, while students can send one another messages to practice speaking and listening); *Skype* (https://www.skype.com/en/) – is a free technology that allows to make audio and video phone calls from any computer so as to "skype" to connect with experts, educators and other classrooms all over the world; *Skype in the classroom,* a "Microsoft in Education" project (https://education.microsoft.com/getstarted) – is a free online community to help teachers globally use Skype to help their students learn and share learning experiences using the standard free version of Skype; *GoAnimate* (https://goanimate.com/) – is a free animation software that lets users quickly generate videos that incorporate a selection of characters, backgrounds and technical effects; the default program converts typed text to speech in a range of languages and users can also incorporate a voice over in the target language as well; *Blabberize* (http://blabberize.com/) – enables to upload photos and animate the mouth so that it speaks; users can try out the program without registering first, the program needs a microphone or pre-recorded sound file to work, etc.

2. Listening: with *iSpeech Text to Speech* (https://www.ispeech.org/text.to.speech) users may simply upload any supported document in Word, PowerPoint, PDF, etc. or type in text directly and convert it to audio, it is useful for creating short dictations or podcasts; *Woices* (unfortunately shut down in February, 2017) – it enabled to create location based audio maps for students to listen to, then they could have embeded the published audio into a wiki or website and located recordings created by native speakers to embed too; users might have uploaded podcasts they have created to a podcast site such as PodOmatic, teachers could have shared them directly with their students or embeded them in a website, noodle or wiki, etc.

3. Writing: *Voki* (http://www.voki.com/) – in addition to creating with a voiceover, users can also type here in the text of their talk and the character will read it out; *Scribblar* (https://scribblar.com/) – is a multi-user tutoring platform or whiteboard with live audio, image sharing, text-chat, etc.; *Penzu* (https://penzu.com/) – is an online diary or personal journal users can access from any computer with the Internet connection, students can keep their journal entries totally private or share them by email; *Storyjumper* (https://www.storyjumper.com/) – is a story making site that enables learners to use a range of backgrounds, clip art and personal photos; *Newspaper clipping generator* (https://www.fodey.com/generators/newspaper/snippet.asp) – permits to write newspaper article in the target language, once the clipping has been generated a user can download it as a jpeg file to insert in a document; *Flipsnack* (https://www.flipsnack.com/) – is a web 2.0 tool that converts standard PDFs into a flipping book that can be shared by email, be embedded in a website etc.; *Recite This* (http://recite.com/) – is an easy to use poster creator, etc.

4. Reading: *Free ebooks - Project Gutenberg* (https://www.gutenberg.org/) – offers over 42,000 free ebooks, users may download or read them online; *Daily Free Books UK* (http://uk.dailyfreebooks.com/) – provides a popular service which sends the highest rated books from genres which users can specify by email every day; Duolingo (https://ru.duolingo.com/) – takes a different approach to learning new languages than just memorizing words and phrases, it allows learners to learn while translating sites on the web, etc.; *Wordle* (http://www.wordle.net/) – creates word clouds from text and develops students' critical thinking skills and creativity, etc.

For better outcomes self-paced courses are now being created by teachers often with the help of e-learning authoring tools. Self-paced courses can then be delivered in many ways including: Internet, Intranet or Local Area Networks, CD-ROM or DVD (Khan, 2001; Conley et al., 2017). Self-paced courses usually have these features: Multimedia (a mix of text, graphics, animation, audio and video to enhance the learning process)); Interactivity (an instructional strategy that helps a learner practice what they have learned); Bookmarking (includes a user's reference to a document on the Web, which lets the learner stop the course at any time and restart it from the same point); Tracking (a tool, which reports the learner's performance within an e-course to a Learning Management System, LMS). Some self-paced courses may have these advanced features: Simulation (a tool providing practice with a mock-up of a real system); Online Experts (a tool providing access to experts through chat or online discussion); Multiple Bookmarks (a tool which designates one or more pages of the course to access while at work or study); Search (a tool providing search through a course to find information required to complete a task); Notes and Highlights (a tool which allows marking one or more parts of a course that contain the most important information), etc. (Brown & Lippincott, 2003; Beatty, 2010; Conley et al., 2017)

Self-paced courses are often created with e-learning or web-based authoring tools. The e-Learning authoring tool is a simple, easy to use tool for creating online courses. Its design allows teachers to

create rich media courses containing text plus images, flash animations, audio and video created with any favorite media editors and every course thus created will fully conform to the SCORM (Sharable Content Object Reference Model) standard .(Brown & Lippincott, 2003; Beatty, 2010; Conley et al., 2017). The top free e-Learning web-based authoring tools include: *Writinghouse* (http://writinghouse.org/) – a tool that allows to automatically create citations, bibliographies, and works cited lists in the required format; *CAST UDL Book Builder* (http://bookbuilder.cast.org/) – this website allows its users to create their digital books and publish them for free; *authorPOINT* (http://www.authorgen.com/authorpoint/) – this website provides the easiest way to develop multimedia SCORM compliant content and share it across different platforms; *Dipity* (http://www.dipity.com/) – is the most user-friendly timeline creator which allows to create content, integrate social media, timestamps, text, links, location, audio, video, and images and easily share it with other users; *CourseLab* (http://www.courselab.com/) – is a hosted software for e-learning, which allows to create, manage, and publish high-quality learning content in a programming-free online environment; *Edmondo* (https://www.edmodo.com/) – is a private and free social media that has a goal of connecting all learners with the resources and people needed to help them reach their full potential; *Edublogs* (https://edublogs.org/) – is the most popular education blogging service which allows to create private pages and posts; *Scratch* (https://scratch.mit.edu/) – is a fun tool that allows its users to create stories, animations, and games, which they can later share online; *SmartBuilder* (http://www.smartbuilder.com/) – this tool allows its users to create interactive, custom e-learning material in the easiest way possible and become part of an effective interactive learning community; *Vyew* (http://vyew.com) – is a tool that allows its users to instantly collaborate on documents, upload course content, meet with multiple people in real-time, give live presentations, conduct team meetings, etc.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The World Wide Web (Web) has made people rethink the nature of teaching, learning and schooling. It shifts their focus from teaching to learning, from teacher to student. More and more institutions of higher education are beginning to use the web-based learning strategies widely and benefit a lot from integrating them into their prospective plans and already accredited courses or distance learning programs. There are some evident advantages that web-based technologies bring to learning and teaching of foreign languages (e.g., English) in higher education. Some of them are:

1. *An appropriate learning environment* – helps learners succeed where other methods have failed. Basically, web-based learning environments are designed to offer more variety in features related to network information retrieval systems, electronic communication (e-mail), up-to-date course resources, interaction via newsgroups or forums (online discussion groups), multimedia lecture presentations and demonstrations (net meetings, conferencing), and course management based on cross-platforms and varied software. From the learners' perspective, learning environment becomes comfortable and attractive due to: (a) the presence of the Web and computers (familiar and integral of most students` lives); (b) employment of universal language manipulated by all Internet users (English, being the target language of their course of studies as well); (c) 24 hour access to authenticity (authentic language resources and materials) with no limits in retrieving and practicing different web-links over and over again, etc. (Bennett, 1997; Kivunja, 2014; Conley et al,, 2017).

2. *Web-based programs, such as tutorials, simulations, exercises, learning tools and educational games* – are highly interactive and provide activities that students need to develop for their understanding of

other's ideas and articulation of their own, which in its turn provides learning and understanding via complex problem-solving (Khan, 2001; Bolstad et al., 2012; Harshbarger, 2016).

3. Web-based learning – can also provide flexibility in teaching and learning, free from the physical boundaries of classrooms and the time restraints of class schedules. The student can study independently online, communicate with the facilitator or coach, submit assignments, have access to course guides electronically from course web sites, and communicate real time (synchronously) with teachers and classmates for questions and discussions in chatting rooms (Khan, 1997; Bennett, 1997; Scott, 1998; Khan, 2001; Cook, 2007; Beatty, 2010; Kivunja, 2014; Conley et al,, 2017).

4. Web-based learning – can also help students acquire better communicative skills through negotiating, persuading, clarifying meaning, requesting for information, exchanging ideas, discussing, asking questions, etc. It also enhances learning opportunities to shy students and those with disabilities (Khan, 2001; Warschauer et al., 2002; Bolstad, 2012; Hsu, 2017; Cordes, 2017).

5. Web-based learning – contributes to a global critical thinking a lot. International collaborative projects provide wider opportunities for students to contact and communicate with other people outside their own country, incorporating intercultural knowledge, awareness, tolerance, etc. Students have opportunities to observe, identify, and recognize elements of their own and other cultures, compare and contrast, negotiate meaning, tolerate ambiguity, effectively interpret messages, limit the possibilities of misinterpretation, defend one's point of view while acknowledging the legitimacy of others', etc. (Khan, 2001; Warschauer et al., 2002; Hsu, 2017)

Despite the advantages, some arguments related to web-based learning are still in debate. When designing web based programs, the learners' needs and experience must be taken into account. Appropriate technology and reasonable computer skills are also needed to get the best out of web based or online learning. All students should be involved, no one being left or isolated (Hsu, 2017). Programs and web pages ought to be designed to accommodate different technical specifications and versions of software. Thus, teachers must always keep up-to-date and be aware of various technological innovations, which in its scope may seem to be too difficult in technical terms as well as extremely time-consuming (Kivunja, 2014). Reliable fast networks and telephone services are currently required, but they may not appear in another few years. On the one hand, web based programs may, for example, encourage more independent and active learning and is often an efficient means of delivering course materials. It is frustrating for learners, however, if they are trying to work on the internet with slow access or cannot download images or videos they need (Kivunja, 2014; Ainoutdinova, 2015; Hsu, 2017). Access to appropriate computer equipment can be a problem for some students and they find it frustrating if they cannot access graphics, images, and video clips because of poor equipment. Thus, the necessary well-supported infrastructure of a web-based learning environment must be designed to be available to everyone (Khan, 2001; Beatty, 2010). There is a great deal of high quality information and instructions available on the web, but there is also an avalanche of false and even harmful information and poor instructions too, while learners often have difficulty judging the quality. Since affordable Information can vary in quality and accuracy, so guidance and signposting is needed (Warschauer, 2007). Besides, though many young people find it fascinating to explore the web, some waste much time doing so and playing games instead of learning much. Moreover, the costs of web-based instruction are currently still too high for widespread use in language education, but may be justified to supplement the curriculum in high priority areas for which there are not enough qualified teachers (Hsu, 2017).

The topic of this article may be useful and informative for a wide range of professionals including university teachers, professors, educators, scientists and researchers who are interested in any new approaches and innovative educational technologies aimed to foster and enchance foreign language training of university students. Teaching and learning are two sides of a continuing challenge that requires time and commitment (Bennett, 1997). Today, in the 21st century, we realize that technology as such is not the answer to all our questions and problems. What really matters is how we use technology. Today academic communities worldwide are rapidly increasing their interest in various web-based tools and technologies for e-learning advancements and enhancement of teaching practices. So, it generates various conceptions and terms associated with web. It is evident at the sane time that neither the Internet nor computers will ever substitute teachers 100% (Khan, 2001; Warschauer et al., 2002; Bolstad, 2012; Hsu, 2017; Cordes, 2017) but they may offer new opportunities for better language training of university students, make the process of language acquisition significantly richer, more interactive, collaborative and meaningful, thus playing a key role in the reform of any country's educational system (Ainoutdinova, 2015).

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THE IMPACT OF TASK PLANNING TYPES ON SPEAKING PERFORMANCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

Amir Marzaban[1] and Reza Razaghi[2]
1. PhD. Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Iran
2. M.A in TEFL, Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Damavand Branch, Damavand, Iran
Email: razaqireza.64@gmail.com

Abstract

The present study was an attempt to investigate the influence of types of task planning on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners. To do so, sixty intermediate EFL learners studying English conversation in a language institute in Joybar city of Iran were selected based on the result of their performance on a piloted and validated version of the Preliminary English Test (PET). The participants, in the two experimental groups received a pretest of speaking performance, the designed treatment, and a posttest of speaking performance. The study enjoyed a quasi-experimental design and the data collected were put into SPSS version 24 for the purpose of running t-test measures to compare the experimental groups' means on the posttest of speaking performance while controlling for possible effects of their entry knowledge as measured through the pretest. The results of data analysis revealed that providing On-line Task Planning (OTP) strategies could more significantly affect the speaking performance of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners compared to the Pre-Task Planning (PTP). Therefore, OPT can be considered successful in helping learners improve their second language speaking performance. The Findings have pedagogical implications for language teachers to make the learners more aware of what they are dealing with.

Key Words: On-line Task Planning (OTP), Pre-Task Planning (PTP), Speaking Performance, EFL learners

1. Introduction

Since 1970s a large number of studies have turned to examine and analyze the impact of task design and implementation variables on the accuracy, fluency and complexity of language (Foster & Skehan, 1999; Gilabert, 2005; Ortega, 1999; Rahimpour, 2007, 2008; Robinson, 1995, 2001, 2005; Skehan &Foster, 1999), to name but a few. According to Tavakoli and Foster (2008), there are three reasons why task-based research has been the hottest trend in the field of empirical research for more than 20 years. First of all, research sheds light on the proposition that task performance in itself drives interlanguage change by causing learners to attend to and retain information about the target language as they use it. Second, since research identifies various features of tasks that influences learner's language processing, it provides empirical principles for classroom materials design. Finally, research serves to explore the claim that task design and processing conditions can

be chosen deliberately by a teacher to guide a learner's focus of attention to particular aspects of the language being learned. The studies mentioned above are concerned with oral task performance and task type planning. Consequently, the present research has focused on finding the effect of Pre-Task Planning (PTP) and On-line Task Planning (OTP) on speaking performance of EFL learners.

One of the overtly observed problems of EFL learners in the Iranian context is presenting a good and effective L2 speaking. Being weak in the speaking skill seems to frustrate EFL learners and that is why students often complain about the difficulties involved in speaking for the aim of being more fluent (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). According to Mehrang and Rahimpour (2010), the inclination of a lot of EFL learners towards being proficient the same as native-like speakers paves the way for the ELT and SLA researchers to focus on finding appropriate methods aiming at designing tasks for the purpose of improving speaking ability of the learners. One of the most significant methods presented in this regard is employing planning types which are supposed to play an important role in developing speaking performance of the learners.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Recently, plenty of researchers and instructors have taken a move in language teaching toward task-based approaches to instruction. When Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) came into the sight and proposed the idea that language will be learned when it is being used in the context for transferring communicative messages, the communicative task has taken a high position as an important factor in designing the syllabus. Nunn (2006), for example proposes a task-based unitary framework because it "leads to student-led holistic outcomes in the form of written reports, spoken presentations and substantial small-group conversations that leads to decision-making outcomes" (p.70). This interest in the task has been motivated to a considerable extent by the fact that 'task' is seen as a construct of equal importance to second language acquisition (SLA) researchers and to language teachers (Pica, 1997). Planning is one of the task condition factors that affects second language production and has been of both theoretical importance to the second language acquisition researcher and practical importance to language teachers (Ellis, 2005b). Due to the importance of task planning factors in learners' task performance, there have been lots of studies that have centered on the connection between planning and task performance of language learners (Ellis, 1987; Foster & Skehen, 1996; Ortega, 1999; Robinson, 1995; Yuhan & Ellis, 2003).

2.1 Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT refers to teaching a second/foreign language that seeks to engage learners in authentic language use by having them perform series of tasks. It aims to both enable learners to acquire new linguistic knowledge and to process their existing knowledge. The main characteristics of TBLT are mentioned by Ellis (2003) as a) 'Natural' or 'naturalistic' use of language, b) Learners-centered rather than teacher-controlled learning, c)Focus on form (attention to form occurs within the context of performing the task; intervention while retaining 'naturalness'), d) Tasks serve as the means for achieving natural use of language, and Traditional approaches are ineffective. Skehan (1998), drawing on a number of other writers, puts forward five key characteristics of a task as a) meaning is primary, b) learners are not given other people's meaning to regurgitate, c) there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities, d) task completion has some priority, and e) the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome. Finally, in a recent book that looks at 'task' from a more language acquisition perspective than a pedagogical one (although it does also deal with aspects of pedagogy), Ellis (2003) defines task in the following way:

A task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes. (p. 16)

Nunan (2006) has also provided a definition for task. According to him:

a task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end. (p. 17)

The design of a task-based lesson involves consideration of the stages or components of a lesson that has a task as its principal component. Various designs have been proposed (e.g., Ellis, 2006; Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Lee, 2000; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). However, they all have in common three principal phases, which are shown in Table 1. These phases reflect the chronology of a task-based lesson.

Table 1. *A Framework for Designing Task-Based Lessons (Ellis, 2006, p. 20)*

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	* Framing the activity (e.g. establishing the outcome of the task) * Planning time * Doing a similar task
B. During task	* Time pressure * Number of participants
C. Post-task	* Learner report * Consciousness-raising * Repeat task

Thus, the first phase is 'pre-task' and concerns the various activities that teachers and students can undertake before they start the task, such as whether students are given time to plan the performance of the task. The second phase, the 'during task' phase, centers on the task itself and affords various instructional options, including whether students are required to operate under time-pressure or not. The final phase is 'post-task' and involves procedures for following-up on the task performance. Only the 'during task' phase is obligatory in task-based teaching. Thus, minimally, a task-based lesson consists of the students just performing a task. Options selected

from the 'pre-task' or 'post-task' phases are non-obligatory but can serve a crucial role in ensuring that the task performance is maximally effective for language development.

2.2 Speaking in Task-based Language Teaching

Even though acquiring oral skills is considered to be important, speaking did not have a primacy in language learning and teaching in the past. Historically, learning structural language, rote memorization of sentence patterns and vocabulary and using literary language were considered superior to practicing spoken language. These pedagogical activities were supported by the Grammar Translation Method (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, in the mid-nineteenth century, the importance of teaching grammar for grammar's sake, decreased as a result of the existence of opportunities for achieving conversational skills in learning a foreign language. Toward the end of the 1950's, the Audio Lingual Method (ALM) in the U.S. and Situational Language Teaching in the U.K. dominated the field of language pedagogy. These methods both emphasized speaking and listening skills in language teaching. In ALM, lessons were built on pattern practice, minimal pair drills and pronunciation practice designed to develop speech habits equivalent to those of a native speaker's. Even though this approach favored the spoken language, the emphasis was mostly on the use of accurate pronunciation and structures while speaking in the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Little attention was paid to the natural and spontaneous use of this new language in conversation. Other succeeding methods - Silent way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia – also emphasized oral language proficiency in their aims. In all of these methods, basic language mastery was considered the ability to speak the target language with a native-like pronunciation. Even though these new methods encouraged more communicative language use, having structural knowledge of the language was still central. As a remedy for the perceived inadequacies of these methods, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the 1960s. CLT regards language as a tool for effective and meaningful communication, so in this approach, for example, comprehensible pronunciation rather than native-like pronunciation was the goal. CLT gave equal importance to the functional as well as the structural nature of language (Littlewood, 1983; Nunan, 1987).

In CLT, meaningful and communicative activities are used to provide learners with the ability to use authentic language. Using language to learn it rather than learning language to use it became the slogan of CLT (Widdowson, 1978). Fluency and accuracy were both given emphasis as the important language goals employed in meaningful contexts in the approach as well. CLT had many methodological offspring which attempted to shape the principles of CLT into more specific teaching practices. Thus, Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Project Work, and Task-Based Instruction all are founded on the premise that language is learned through using it communicatively, with processing in language of equal importance to producing it. CBI focuses on organizing language teaching around the content topics or academic subjects that learners need to acquire. The basic aim in this method is to simultaneously acquire the content through the use of language and learn the language through the understanding of content. As in CLT, language is viewed as a tool for communication.

Similarly, Project Work and TBI have the aim of communicating in the target language. One distinguishing feature of all these communicative approaches is the time period of anticipated focus. In CBI, language of the content focus may comprise a subject study spread throughout a whole term or year, while Project Work and TBI tend to have topical foci of shorter duration (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). For instance, a "Project" might extend for several weeks while TBI tasks

typically are completed in a class period. In these communicative approaches, especially in Task-Based Instruction, tasks are the tools to promote interaction and real language use. Tasks are considered to be the core of language learning curriculum in TBI. The role of tasks is to promote interactive and authentic language use rather than to serve as a framework for practice on particular language forms or functions. Tasks promote the role of speaking in negotiating meaning and collaborative problem solving (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

TBI has been accepted as an effective language teaching methodology for developing purpose-driven communicative language learning built around the use of real-world tasks. The major aim of the tasks is to encourage learners to use authentic language in order to achieve a clearly defined outcome (Ellis, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). On the other hand, many tasks require learners to use language creatively, even though students are not previously trained in acquiring useful language structures to complete the tasks. This situation creates an environment where learners are supposed to negotiate meaning while creating language useful in completing the tasks (Ellis, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Willis, 1996). For instance, in a program described by Richards (1985 cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 238), different communicative tasks were based on five interaction situations: basic interactions, face-to-face informal interactions, telephone conversations, interviews, and service meetings. Task types included role-plays, brainstorming, ordering, and problem solving. As can be seen, oral communication was central in all five-interaction situations. In order to accomplish the given tasks, it was necessary to build communicative interaction with fellow-students. Since such group or pair activities are built into tasks in TBI, learners are required to engage in oral interaction to complete tasks (Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996). In other words, it can be concluded that communicative tasks, foster oral communication in the target language and help learners acquire the language unconsciously in the course of task accomplishment.

2.3 Task Planning and L2 Performance

A considerable body of research has suggested that allowing learners time to plan their performance before the actual task performance leads them to produce more fluent (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999), accurate (Ellis, 1987; Foster & Skehan, 1999; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999), and complex L2 speech (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999). Researchers have investigated planning from a variety of perspectives such as different types of planning (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Sangarun, 2005); different amounts of planning time (Mehnert, 1998); planning and different task types (Foster & Skehan, 1996); effects of planning on different levels of proficiency (Kawauchi, 2005), and what learners do when they plan (Ortega, 1999). Like Ellis's (1987) study, Crookes (1989) was interested in the effect of planned conditions on oral performance. Rahimpour (2010) studied the effect of task structure and planning time on oral performance of 64 upper–intermediate EFL learners in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. The Results indicated that planning time had no effects on the accuracy and fluency of learners' performance. However, it led to a more complex performance when participants performed the unstructured complex tasks. In general, studies have shown the positive impact of planning on performance but gains do not seem to be achieved simultaneously to the same extent for the different aspects of performance (fluency, accuracy, and complexity) since these aspects compete for learners' limited capacity of attentional resources (Ellis, 2005a; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998). According to Ellis (2005b, p. 3) task planning is divided into two main types. This distinction is in terms of when planning takes place: pre-task planning and within-task planning (on-line planning).

2.3.1 Pre-task Planning

Pre-task planning takes place prior to the task performance. Ellis (2005b) points out that pre-task planning is different from pre-task activities, such as brainstorming, in terms of access to the task materials. During pre-task planning, learners receive the actual materials for the task, whereas during the pre-task activities, learners do not have access to the materials that they are going to use to perform the task. There are two types of pre-task planning: rehearsal and strategic planning. Although both rehearsal and strategic planning require that learners be engaged in some activities to prepare for the task, there is a significant difference between them. Ellis (2005b) defines rehearsal as task repetition; that is, learners perform "the same or slightly altered tasks, whether whole tasks, or parts of a task" (Bygate & Samuda, 2005, p. 43).

Nakakubo (2011) states that when repeated performance improves over the first performance, it is considered that learning has occurred between the two task performances. However, the degree that the first performance has influenced the repeated performance in terms of learning may depend on the length of the interval. When there is a long interval between the two performances, the improvement that was observed in the repeated performance may suggest that the memory from the first performance remains effective for a long time. At the same time, improved performance may be the result of learning unrelated to the effects of rehearsal. On the other hand, if the interval between the first and the second performances is short, the improvement in the second performance may be considered as the outcome of repeating the task. However, it cannot be determined if there is any long-term effect on learning of repeating a task (Nakakubo, 2011). The second type of pre-task planning is strategic planning. For this type of pre-task planning, learners receive a period of time prior to task performance, during which they deliberate on the information they need to deliver and how to convey it to carry out the task. In other words, strategic planning gets learners involved in thinking about the content and the language they need for the task performance. Although pre-task planning includes both rehearsal and strategic planning in precise meaning, many studies use the term, pre-task planning, to indicate only strategic planning (Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Wendel, 1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). The planning time in the previous studies varies from one minute (Mehnert, 1998) to one hour (Ellis, 1987), but in the majority of the studies, the learners had a ten-minute preparation time (Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). In most of the cases, learners were allowed to take notes to prepare for the main performance (Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Ortega, 1999; Sangarun, 2005; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Wendel, 1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003), but there are a variety of other activities for strategic planning, such as writing a composition, reading a story, and practice. For example, instead of taking notes, the participants in the studies by Ellis (1987) and Kawauchi (2005) wrote a composition about the story that they later told as the task.

2.3.2 On-line Planning

On-line planning, which is also referred to as within-task planning, is a type of planning that is available while engaging in task performance. Yuan and Ellis (2003) propose the definition of on-line planning as follows: "On-line planning is the process by which speakers attend carefully to the formulation stage during speech planning and engage in pre-production and postproduction monitoring of their speech acts" (p. 6). Ellis (2005b) classifies on-line planning into two categories: pressured and unpressured planning. The difference between them is the time given to learners for

the task performance. In pressured on-line planning, learners have a time limit to complete the task, which restricts their time to engage in planning during the task. On the other hand, in unpressured planning, learners are allowed to spend as much time as they wish on the task. By providing the learners with unlimited time, researchers assume that learners will engage in on-line planning while performing the task. In addition to clarifying types of planning in SLA research, the theories and models that inform processes at work in planning procedure should be taken into account. The theoretical structures and models that are directly or indirectly related to the study of task planning in second language acquisition are: Tarone's (1983) account of stylistic variation; Levelt's (1998) models of speech production; and Robinson's (2001) and Skehan's (1998) cognitive models of L2 performance and language learning. The mentioned theories and models explicitly or implicitly draw on three central constructs involved in psycholinguistic accounts of language processing – attention and noticing, a limited working memory capacity, and focus-on-form.

3. Method

3.1 The Design of the Study

The selection of participants in this study was non-random, but the assignment of the participants to two experimental groups was random, therefore the design was a quasi-experimental one. Having pre and posttest also confirmed the quasi-experimental nature of the present research (Mackey & Gass, 2016). Different planning types (pre-task planning and on-line planning) were accounted as the independent variables and speaking performance was considered as the dependent variable in the present study, while participants' language proficiency was regarded as the control variable.

3.2 Participants

The participants of the study were 60 intermediate level students (males and females) with the age range 18 to 25 in a Language Institute in Joybar. These participants were chosen from 90 intermediate students according to their performance in a sample Preliminary English Test (PET) which was first piloted with 30 students with similar characteristics to check its reliability and then the test was implemented to the study. The selected participants were assigned to two experimental groups with 30 students in each, consisting of 12 to 15 students in each class.

3.3 Instrumentation

The data for the present study was collected by means of various tests as follows: a PET test, a pretest of speaking, and two posttests of speaking.

3.3.1 The Pilot Study

To homogenize students at intermediate level, the piloted PET was used. This version of the test which was comprised of two parts included listening and reading sections and the total score was made by adding all the results together (the total score of the test equals to 50). The administration of the whole test took 60 minutes.

3.3.2 Pretest of Speaking

The second instrument used in the pre-treatment level was a pretest of speaking (selected from among the standard topics of PET) which was given to the participants selected after the pretest of

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language proficiency. The rating scale used to rate the speaking test in this study was the one provided by Cambridge under the name of General Mark Schemes for PET. The recorded performances of the learners were corrected by two raters based on the rubrics presented by ETS (2000). This revealed how well they were familiar with the concept of second language speaking before the treatment began. The validity of the prompts given to the learners in the speaking section was checked with two experts who were PhD holders in TEFL teaching at Damavand Islamic Azad University and inter-rater reliability of the learners' speaking performances was also calculated. Table 2, below represents the inter-rater reliability pretest of speaking. As the table presents there was a significant agreement (r (58) = .69, P < .05) between the two rater who rated the students' speaking on the pretest.

Table 2. *Inter-Rater Reliability Pretest of Speaking*

		PreSPR2
PreSPR1	Pearson Correlation	.690**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	60

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

3.3.3 Posttests of Speaking

The posttest of speaking was an interview task relying on narratives and explanations the topics of which were selected from among the topics normally appearing in the speaking course books but were taken from examinations reform teacher support project, British council (2005) and were checked for their content validity by two experts before they were given to the students.

3.4 Procedure

The first phase of this study was the pilot phase during which 30 intermediate students with similar features to the target sample took all the assessment instruments comprising the sample PET used for homogenizing and the pretest of speaking. In the second phase of this study the participants were selected. First, the piloted PET was administered to 90 intermediate students to homogenize them regarding their general English proficiency. Out of 90 students, 60 students whose scores had fallen one standard deviation above and below the mean shaped the main participants of the study. The selected participants were randomly assigned to two experimental groups, namely Pre-task Planning Group (PPG) and On-line Planning Group (OPG) with 30 students in each. Of course the classes the learners were trained in included between 13 to 17 learners and this facilitated the process of teaching English in general and teaching second language writing in particular. It's worth mentioning that due to the nature of the convenient non-random selection of the samples the discarded students were attending the classes, but their scores on the pretest and posttests were not included in the study. Then the treatment period began and was continued for 10 sessions. The whole semester included eight weeks and the learners attended the class three days a week, each session lasting for 90 minutes in both groups. Considering the fact that the syllabus of the language school had to be covered during the semester, ten sessions of 20 minutes were allocated to the

experiment in the experimental group. Therefore, the classes of experimental groups received the same hours of instruction and practice. Also the researcher herself taught both groups.

Both experimental groups enjoyed the same course book, materials, lexical items, and passages. Any vocabulary and grammatical issues discussed were explicitly taught to the learners and they were allowed to receive feedback from the teacher and discuss the main points both inside and outside the classroom. In both groups, at first the researcher created a situation in which specific vocabularies and grammatical points were used. In this level which was the presentation phase, the researcher helped learners do brainstorming and engaged them in the process of learning. Then in the practice phase, the learners were directed towards discussing lexical items and grammatical points. It was done to clarify the training offered as much as possible. In the third phase which was the production phase, the learners were encouraged towards developing their talks, mainly focusing on describing, narrating, or explaining something.

The planning strategy in its two types (pre-task planning and on-line planning) were introduced to the learners in the two experimental groups and the learners in both groups were asked to take part in the practicing phases in order to get familiar with the concept of planning and thinking and the planning strategy they were introduced to more precisely before starting the process of speaking. The learners in each group practiced their respective planning strategies in its various forms in different sessions with various topics, and they mainly focused on the strategy they had been exposed to. Then after an eight-week period the posttest of speaking was administered to check the learners' speaking development. In this phase experimental groups were asked to take part in an interview, but the main focus was on describing, narrating, or explaining something. The data gathered were analyzed through SPSS version 24 and reported.

3.5 Methods of Analyzing Data

The data analysis of the present study enjoyed both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was used to calculate the mean and standard deviation of the piloted PET which was used for homogenizing participants and the calculating results of the speaking pretest. To estimate the inter-rater reliability of the speaking test, Cronbach Alpha was used. The inferential statistics employed was independent t-test for comparing the effect of different planning types on the 2nd language speaking development among the learners.

4. Results

4.1 Subject Selection Statistics

The piloted PET test was administered to 90 students. Based on the mean (41.42) and SD (5.21), 60 students whose scores fell within one SD above and below the mean were selected. Table 3 below represents the descriptive statistics of the subject selection procedure. The KR-21 reliability index for the PET test was .75.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics of subject selection by PET*

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	KR-21
PET 90	23.0	50.0	41.42	5.219	27.235	.75

Valid N (listwise) 90	

4.2 PET General Language Proficiency Test

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the PET test in order to prove that both groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the administration of the treatment. As displayed in Table 4, the pre-task planning (M = 42.03, SD = 2.32) and on-line planning (M = 42.13, SD = 2.20) groups showed almost the same means on the PET test.

Table 4. *Descriptive Statistics PET by Groups*

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Task Planning	30	42.03	2.327	.425
On-Line Task Planning	30	42.13	2.209	.403

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .17, P > .05, R = .022, representing a weak effect size) (Table 5) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the PET test. Thus it was concluded that they enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the administration of the treatment.

Table 5. *Independent t-test PET by Groups*

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		oft-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
								Lower / Upper
Equal variances assumed	.046	.832	.171	58	.865	.100	.586	-1.072 / 1.272
Equal variances not assumed			.171	57.844	.865	.100	.586	-1.072 / 1.272

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = .046, P > .05). That is why the first row of Table 5, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

4.3 Pretest of Speaking

An independent t-test was run to compare the pre-task planning and on-line task planning groups' mean scores on the pretest of speaking in order to prove that both groups enjoyed the same level of speaking ability prior to the administration of the treatment. As displayed in Table 6 the pre-task

planning (M = 60.53, SD = 5.57) and on-line task planning (M =60.22, SD = 5.82) groups showed almost the same means on the pretest of speaking.

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics Pretest of Speaking by Groups*

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Task Planning	30	60.53	5.575	1.018
On-Line Task Planning	30	60.22	5.828	1.064

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .21, P > .05, R = .028, representing a weak effect size) (Table 7) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the pretest of speaking. Thus it was concluded that they enjoyed the same level of speaking ability prior to the administration of the treatment.

Table 7. *Independent t-test Pretest of Speaking by Groups*

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		oft-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
								Lower / Upper
Equal variances assumed	.036	.849	.215	58	.830	.317	1.472	-2.631 / 3.264
Equal variances not assumed			.215	57.887	.830	.317	1.472	-2.631 / 3.264

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = .036, P > .05). That is why the first row of Table 7, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

4.4 Research Questions

This study aimed at investigating the following research questions;

1. Does pre-task planning have any significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners?
2. Does on-line task planning have any significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners?
3. Do different types of task planning have the same effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners?

Research Question 1

A paired-samples t-test was run to compare the pre-task planning group's mean scores on the pretest and posttest of speaking in order to probe the first research question. Table 8 displayed the pre-task planning group's means on the posttest (M = 61.42, SD = 2.98) and pretest (M = 60.53, SD = 5.57) of speaking.

Table 8. *Descriptive Statistics Pretest and Posttest of Speaking (Pre-Task Planning Group)*

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	61.42	30	2.983	.545
Pretest	60.53	30	5.575	1.018

The results of the paired-samples t-test (t (29) =3.70, P > .05, R = .12, representing a relatively weak effect size) (Table 9) indicated that there a small significant difference between the pre-task planning group's mean scores on the pretest and posttest of speaking. Thus it was concluded the though the first null-hypothesis as "pre-task planning does not have any statistically significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners" was rejected, the effect of the treatment is not that influential.

Table 9. *Paired-Samples t-test Pretest and Posttest of Speaking (By Pre-Task Planning Group)*

Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper			
.883	6.917	1.263	-1.699	3.466	3.7	29	.490

Research Question 2

A paired-samples t-test was run to compare the on-line task planning group's mean scores on the pretest and posttest of speaking in order to probe the second research question. Table 10 displayed the on-line task planning group's means on the posttest (M = 84.82, SD = 3.98) and pretest (M = 60.22, SD = 5.82) of speaking.

Table 10. *Descriptive Statistics Pretest and Posttest of Speaking (On-Line Task Planning Group)*

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	84.82	30	3.936	.719
Pretest	60.22	30	5.828	1.064

The results of the paired-samples t-test (t (29) = 19.89, P < .05, R = .96, representing a large effect size) (Table 11) indicated that there was a significant difference between the on-line task planning group's mean scores on the pretest and posttest of speaking. Thus it was concluded the second null-hypothesis as "on-line task planning does not have any statistically significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners" was rejected.

Table 11. *Paired-Samples t-test Pretest and Posttest of Speaking (By On-Line Task Planning Group)*

Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper			
24.600	6.771	1.236	22.072	27.128	19.898	29	.000

Research Question 3

An independent t-test was run to compare the pre-task and on-line task planning groups' mean scores on the posttest of speaking in order to probe the third research question. As displayed in Table 12 the on-line task planning (M = 84.82, SD = 3.93) outperformed the pre-task planning (M = 61.42, SD = 2.98) group the posttest of speaking.

Table 12. *Descriptive Statistics Posttest of Speaking by Groups*

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-Task Planning	30	61.42	2.983	.545
On-Line Task Planning	30	84.82	3.936	.719

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = 25.95, P < .05, R = .95, representing a large effect size) (Table 13) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the posttest of speaking. Thus it was concluded the third null-hypothesis as "different types of task planning do not have the same effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners" was rejected. On-line task planning showed a significant improvement in their speaking ability.

Table 13. *Independent t-test Posttest of Speaking by Groups*

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		oft-test for Equality of Means						
F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper

Equal variances assumed	.439	.510	25.952	58	.000	23.400	.902	21.595	25.205
Equal variances not assumed			25.952	54.050	.000	23.400	.902	21.592	25.208

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = .43, P > .05). That is why the second row of Table 13, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

4.5 Construct Validity

A factor analysis was run to probe the construct validity of the tests employed in this study. The SPSS extracted two factors which accounted for 73.27 percent of the total variance.

Table 14.*Total Variance Explained*

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.186	39.525	39.525	1.186	39.525	39.525
2	1.013	33.752	73.277	1.013	33.752	73.277
3	.802	26.723	100.000			

Table 15 displays the factor loadings of the tests under the extracted factors.

Table 15. *Rotated Component Matrix*

	Component	
	1	2
PET	.774	
Pretest	.766	
Posttest		.975

4.6 Reliability Indices

Table 16 displays the inter-rater reliability indices for the speaking tests. There were significant agreement between the two raters on pretest (R = .69, P < .05) and posttest (r = .97, P < .05) speaking.

Table 16. *Inter-Rater Reliability Indices*

	PreSPR1	PostSPR1

PreSPR2	Pearson Correlation	.690**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	60	
PostSPR2	Pearson Correlation		.978**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		60

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Findings of the present study *firstly* revealed that pre-task planning has a moderate statistically significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners. *Secondly,* it was revealed on-line task planning has a statistically significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners. *Thirdly,* the findings showed that different types of task planning have different effects on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners as learners working with on-line planning strategy outperformed the ones working with the pre-task strategy while speaking.

All of these findings are in line with the findings of other researchers recorded in the literature: In terms of the first finding of the study which asserts that pre-task planning has a moderate effect on speaking performance of the EFL learners, the studies investigated by Crooks (1989), Ellis (2009), Ellis and Yuan (2004), Foster (1996, 2001), Foster and Skehan (1996, 1999), Hulstijn and Hulstijn, (1984), Kawauchi (2005), Mehnert (1998), Ortega (1999), Sangarun (2001), Skehan and Foster (1997), Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), Wigglesworth (1997), and Yuan and Ellis (2003) all report that providing learners with an opportunity to plan before task performance can have beneficial impacts on fluency. In addition, the effects are more marked on cognitively complex tasks such as decision-making tasks and difficult narratives (Foster, 1996; Foster & Skehan, 1996).

Unlike fluency, these studies produced quite mixed results when the focus was on accuracy. A number of studies reveal that PTP resulted in increased accuracy (e.g., Ellis, 1987; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998); however, other studies (e.g., Crooks, 1989; Iwashita, Elder, & McNamara, 2001) found no positive impact on the accuracy of learners' oral performance. Ahangari and Abdi (2011) examined the effect of pre-task planning (strategic planning) on the complexity and accuracy of task-based oral performance with the decision-making task type among 40 Iranian EFL learners majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The findings revealed that pre-task planning had a positive effect on complexity whereas no positive effect was evident in the accuracy of learners' oral performance. However the study by Abdi, Eslami, and Zahedi (2012) which was designed to investigate the impact of pre-task planning (PTP) on the fluency and accuracy of 40 Iranian EFL learners proved that unguided planners outperformed no-planners with respect to fluency; however, no significant difference was evident between the performances of the two groups in terms of accuracy.

The second finding of the study revealed that on-line task planning has a statistically significant effect on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners. This finding is in line with the results of

similar research conducted in the SLA situations: Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) hypothesized that "careful on-line planning assists complexity and accuracy in language production" (p35). Empirical support for this hypothesis comes from two studies (Skehan & Foster, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003), which are fairly similar in terms of the operationalization of on-line planning and the measures they have used to assess the complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) of participants' oral production. More recently, and building on the studies reported above, Ahmadian (2012a) studied the way guided careful on-line planning, operationalized by directing learners' attention to a particular linguistic form as they were engaged in careful on-line planning, assists intermediate English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in accurate oral production (in this case, of English articles an/a and the). He also investigated whether guided careful on-line planning had any effects on the global complexity and fluency of intermediate EFL learners' oral language performance. Results of this study, too, pointed to the facilitative role of careful on-line planning in accurate production of English articles as well as in global complexity. It is important to note that both Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) and Ahmadian (2012a) interpreted their results with reference to the construct of limited working memory capacity. Ahmadian (2012b) also attempted to investigate the way inter-individual variations in working memory capacity (WMC) interact with careful on-line planning to affect L2 oral performance. He posited that individual differences in WMC would affect careful on-line planning, precisely because careful on-line planning is thought to involve planning what to say and how to say it while performing another cognitively demanding task (Ellis, 2005b).

The third finding of the study showed that different types of task planning have different effects on speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners as learners working with on-line planning strategy outperformed the ones working with the pre-task strategy while speaking. This finding is also in line with the previous research recorded in the literature: Yuan and Ellis (2003) compared the effects of pre-task and careful on-line planning on learners' complexity, accuracy and fluency in performing a narrative task. Results of their study indicated that careful online planners produced both more accurate and complex language. Yuan and Ellis (2003) reasoned that when participants perform a task under time pressure, the working memory uses the limited time to access lexical information from long-term memory, but when they perform without any time pressure, they can access syntactic information too. They also found that the pre-task planning groups produced more fluent language than the on-line planning groups.

Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) investigated the effects of simultaneous use of careful on-line planning and task repetition on CAF in oral production. However, one of the research questions addressed in the study concerned the effects of careful on-line planning alone. It was found that careful on-line planning assists both complexity and accuracy in participants' oral production. They also found that careful on-line planning led task performers to produce significantly less fluent language than pressured online planners did. The researchers posited that careful on-line planning causes learners to draw on their rule-based system. Rule-based system acts upon explicit linguistic knowledge retrieved from long term memory, which normally taxes working memory. As a result, participants' attentional resources, which get consumed by retrieving explicit knowledge, cannot process meaning appropriately, and thus the rate of speech (fluency) decreases significantly.

Following Yuan and Ellis (2003), and building on Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) and Ahmadian (2012a, 2012b), in Ahmadian, Tavakoli, and Vahid Dastjerdi's (2012) study, careful on-line planning was operationalized experimentally in a two-pronged way: (a) by providing careful online planners with ample time for task completion and (b) by requiring all participants (careful online planners as

well as pressured online planners) to start task performance straight away. Part (a) of this operational definition may guarantee that participants have enough time at their disposal to (re) conceptualize, (re)formulate, and monitor their internal speech (to use Levelt's terminology) prior to articulation. Part (b), however, could be taken as an attempt to control for participants' engagement in pre-task planning. Majority of SLA researchers share the conviction that leaving learners to their own devices is not the best option (Doughty & Williams, 1998), and that learners should be assisted throughout the process of L2 acquisition, otherwise they may fall prey to fossilization (Ellis, 2008). This position is tenable, both theoretically and empirically (see Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Lightbown, 2008). When it comes to careful on-line planning, we are left with similar options, i.e. leaving learners to their own devices when planning their performance on a task (unguided careful on-line planning) or giving them some specific instructions as to what and how to plan (guided careful on-line planning) (Ellis, 2005a).

To sum up, we can say that though different types of planning positively affect the oral performance of the learners, some specific types of planning like on-line task planning is more effective compared to some other types like pre-task planning. Since 1980, SLA researchers have investigated the effects of planning on language performance and language acquisition (Ellis & Yuhan, 2004; Foster & Skehen, 1999; Kawachi, 2005). These studies have addressed the task planning from different perspectives that most of them have investigated oral production and centered on exploring the effects of planning on accuracy, complexity, and fluency of language production. Findings of majorities of these studies have shown clear effect for planning on fluency but findings in terms of accuracy have not been homogenous.

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TEXTUAL BORROWING AND SOURCE CITATION AMONG IRANIAN MASTERS STUDENTS OF SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

Hossein Saadabadi M. (corresponding author)
Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)
saadabadimh@gmail.com
Arshad Abd Samad
Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)
arshad.samad@yahoo.com
Zoharah Omar
Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)
omarzoharah@gmail.com

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Abstract

This study was conducted to quantitatively evaluate how Iranian ESL graduate students in science and engineering programs understand and view textual borrowing and source citation as two major sources of unintentional plagiarism. To this end two questions were attempted in this research: 1) how do science and engineering students' view textual borrowing? 2) how do science and engineering students' view source citation?

Reviewing the research on plagiarism studies turned out that most cases of accusation of plagiarism in academic writings of ESL students stem in a few reasons chief among them borrowing text from other sources and inadequate citation of the texts they borrow. The literature also indicated that the problem is more challenging among graduate students in science and engineering programs.

To achieve the objectives of the study, a questionnaire was used to elicit how Iranian ESL graduate students in science and engineering programs in Malaysian universities think of and decide on textual borrowing and source citation practices. A cluster analysis of the results indicated three groups of respondents with regard to their understanding of textual borrowing and source citation. The first group was labeled Poor Academic Practitioners (PAP), who had no idea of or a wrong view of source use. Another group included Normal Academic Practitioners (NAP), who were familiar with the locally accepted norms of source use, and finally, the third group was las labeled Informed Academic Practitioners (IAP) whose members were familiar with the international conventions of writing from sources. Suggestions were then made to use the findings of this research in improving the originality of students' academic products.

Key words: Writing from sources; Text synthesis; Plagiarism; Science and engineering students

Introduction

A strong disciplinary communication arises out of and is well grounded in the current state of disciplinary knowledge (Charles, 2006; Maroko, 2013). To achieve this goal, academic writers

incorporate key ideas and relevant facts using quotation, summary, and paraphrase from others' books, journal articles, charts, or graphs … etc. (Spack, 1988). They use others' sources to connect their own ideas and findings to the existing knowledge of the field, and hence construct new knowledge. In fact, academic texts depend highly on the interplay between different texts as sources of language and content (Pecorari & Shaw, 2012) and hence academic writing is a process of writing from sources. It is a skill that includes reading related sources, and identifying the most useful elements in source texts (Hirvela & Du, 2013), and then properly borrowing and assembling these elements to form a new text (Johnson-Eilola & Selber, 2007). A major portion of this borrowing consists of language and text. Originality in such texts come from the way the writer puts the borrowed stock of language together (Bazerman, 2004), and makes a clear distinction between his own words and what he has borrowed (Johnson-Eilola & Selber, 2007). Inappropriate source use, then, can lead to the accusation of plagiarism. Insufficient knowledge of source use, poor source citation decisions and individual's belief about and understanding of what constitutes plagiarism are major factors that can violate the norms of academic integrity. This problem has recently been the focus of researchers since recent surveys provide evidence for the increasing rise of the rate of plagiarism in academic writings of university students. (Appiah, 2016; Babaii & Nejadghanbar, 2016; Eret & Ok, 2014; Hosseini et al., 2009; Klocko, 2014; Maurer, Kappe, & Zaka, 2006). While these claims concerning writing from sources implicitly call the originality of compositions, especially those of ESL students', more into question, and make them vulnerable to the accusation of plagiarism, it is strongly believed that the process of 'language re-use' (Flowerdew & Li, 2007), or borrowing sentences or fragments from other documents to express new ideas is a technique that is natural to ESL writing contexts (Cameron, 2007). Review of literature related to textual borrowing and originality of composition also reveals that originality of text is influenced by a) culturally and cross-disciplinary different operations of citation practices, and b) the way that these differences are manifested in citation decisions of students (Shi, 2012) rather than by mere use of textual borrowing.

Review of the related literature

Originality is a key issue in academic writing and an important point where ESL writing differs from writing in L1. As long as originality is concerned, writers in English as L1 follow western notions of value in their academic writing while ESL writers cannot follow the same norms, which are contextually contingent, and are not cross-culturally applicable (Pennycook, 1996; Shi, 2010; Sutherland-Smith, 2005). For instance, while western scholars rely heavily on rules of ownership and authorship, and cite multiple sources of information to ensure maximum academic integrity (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004), a survey of current and previous research indicates a totally different culture in eastern academia. Chinese scholars, for example, rely on memory work and textual borrowing (Chandrasoma et al., 2004), or copying, memorization and reproduction (Howard, 1995) in order to construct personal academic identity (Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006).

The issue of originality in ESL academic writing is a matter of how students copy from sources and cite them in their own writings. Research on this problem either reported on confusion among students about using and attributing source texts (Currie, 1998; Shi, 2006) or showed that many students do not have enough knowledge of citation of sources (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2005).

One strand of research to draw a clear picture, and to provide a clear definition of textual borrowing in academic writing includes a comparison between students' texts and their related

source texts in order to study what students exactly borrow, and how they incorporate the borrowings into their own texts (Campbell, 1990; Pecorari, 2008; Shi, 2004).

In a study to document how native and non-native university students incorporate information from a reading text into their own academic writing, Campbell (1990) found that when university students integrated information into their writings, their primary method for textual borrowing was 'copying', meaning that they rearranged the structure of sentences and substituted some content words. In the same line, (Shi, 2004) studied the effect of task type on textual borrowings of Chinese ESL students, and confirmed Campbell (1990) in that ESL students regard source texts as sources of vocabulary, structure, and style. Still, she suggested that textual borrowing is influenced by task type, and students do much more textual borrowing in tasks with more dependence on source information (summary writing) than in other task types (opinion writing).

Based on these studies, it can be concluded that textual borrowing is in the nature of ESL writing and is not a problem or threat in itself; however, it can be a threat to the originality of ESL students' writings when ESL students fail to acknowledge properly what they borrow. This failure is the result of confusion in students' understanding of textual borrowing (Campbell, 1990; Currie, 1998), or lack of enough knowledge of citation of sources (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2005). Therefore it can be concluded that plagiarism among international ESL students is the result of the interplay of a number of factors. Poor academic skills including insufficient skill in note taking, paraphrasing and citation decisions on the one hand, and variety in students beliefs and their social and personal values make international students in ESL contexts more vulnerable to the accusation of plagiarism which is, of course, most often unintentional. To these reasons can also add the force to publish, which is common in the academia worldwide including Iran. However, what leads Iranian students and scholars toward intentional or unintentional plagiarism can be discussed from different points of view.

One aspect is the tendency to plagiarize despite no intention to cheat or deceive for illegal benefits. It happens as the result of diversity in understanding the nature of plagiarism. Another aspect to be discussed is the local expectation to produce and publish original research articles within a course based educational system. As a matter of fact, Both general and higher education in Iran employ a text-oriented, memory- based system in which students have to read specific reading materials pre-planned for a course and reproduce the same content in the exam sheet. In fact, along their education, Iranian students practice a chain of reading and reproducing what they read in their writings. That is to say, it is not surprising to find similarities in terms of content and language in their writings. Therefore, it is not the mere need to publish that leads to plagiarism, but the context in which the production takes place. Also, regardless of the academic discipline, Iranian academia do not value training in academic writing. This shortcoming is more evident when science and engineering programs are concerned.

Yeo (2007) reported on a study on first-year masters' students in science and engineering programs, portrays a different workplace and type of academic activities for the disciplines in science and engineering compared with those of other disciplines. In the same line, A Google search to locate plagiarism in the academia indicated that the rate of plagiarism is way higher among students of science and engineering than those in other fields (McCullough & Holmberg, 2005; Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes, & Armstead, 1996). Yeo (2007) reported that first-year masters' students in science and engineering disciplines do lab works in groups and also write the related reports in groups, and do not require to write extended research articles. In such an academic condition, it is expected

that students share ideas, and join forces in completing written assignments while feeling no need to acknowledge what other people contribute to their work whether idea or structure. Therefore to improve the condition of academic integrity and the originality of language in the works of masters' students in science and engineering programs, it is necessary to have a better knowledge and understanding of the way these students think of plagiarism.

While the majority of research on plagiarism are on medical science and applied linguistics, research is required to fill the present gap regarding plagiarism among graduate students in science and engineering disciplines. Also, most of the research on academic plagiarism are survey based and self-reported. This research differs from the existing literature in that it was based on a judgment-based survey in which the respondents had to quantify their understanding of plagiarism and this way clustered and distributed to different levels of understanding plagiarism based on quantitative data.

In Iran, plagiarism research is new but the topic is growing hot. However, one points worth considering with regard to the topic. Plagiarism research in the Iranian context is limited only to writings in medical sciences and applied linguistics. The reason why these two fields are at the focus of researchers is that only in these two fields students and scholars have to write and publish in English. This is while other disciplines especially sciences and engineering have the opportunity to write in Persian and publish in domestic scholarly journals

Objectives of the study

This quantitative study aimed to find out how Iranian ESL students in master programs of science and engineering view textual borrowing and source citation practices. In fact, this study was conducted to quantitatively evaluate Iranian ESL graduate students in science and engineering programs understand and view textual borrowing and source citation as two major sources of unintentional plagiarism. To this end two questions were attempted in this research:

1. How do science and engineering students' view textual borrowing?
2. How do science and engineering students' view source citation?

Methodology

Participants

Participants of this study were 176 Iranian graduate students in science and engineering programs at Malaysian universities. The participants who completed the questionnaire were in architecture engineering, chemical engineering, bio-medical science, electrical engineering, sports science, and civil engineering programs.

Data collection

Instrument

In order to achieve the primary goals of this research, a questionnaire was required. Due to the lack of a questionnaire that can draw the respondent's' trust to cooperate effectively, it was decided to design a plagiarism judgment questionnaire, especially to meet the requirements of the study.

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The plagiarism judgment questionnaire was a 12-item instrument that was designed by the researcher, especially for this study. It was a scenario-based questionnaire which aimed to measure the respondents' understanding of the conventions of writing from sources. Each item in the instrument presented a scenario that signified an instance of textual borrowing (items 1-6), or source citation (items 7-12). The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated through Cronbach alpha. The result was (α=.716) for items 1 to 6 and (α=.772) for items 7 to 12. The results show an acceptable measure of reliability for the questionnaire.

The measure

Each item in the questionnaire was scaled between zero and one hundred. The respondents were asked to score each scenario between zero and hundred depending on how much they might commit to the behavior described in the scenario as an approved academic behavior. Each item was given a four-scale Likert in order to help the respondents decide easier on scoring. This was due to a problem raised through the pilot study where respondents found it difficult to decide which score best expressed their views. Therefore, the four-scale Likert did not mean that the questionnaire predicts four groups.

Procedure

The quantitative study was, in fact, a survey research based on a questionnaire specially designed to discover the students' views about textual borrowing and source citation. Since most of the Iranian students in Malaysia live in groups, each group, as well as individual students, were invited through a phone call or e-mail to complete the questionnaire. If the desired students agreed to attend the survey, the researcher asked them to provide him with a copy of one of their writing for academic purposes (research proposals, course assignments, thesis chapters, paper drafts …). A meeting was set at a time and place of students' own favorite to meet them. At the appointment, the researcher provided incentives and helped them through completing the questionnaire if required. At the end, the researcher asked the participants to introduce other students or groups of students who might be willing to participate in the survey. This process took more than one year since students that were appropriate for this study were not easily accessible. On the one hand a number of students left Malaysia due to economic reasons, and on the other hand, some others were so distrustful that they did not provide the requested writing sample.

Data analysis

In this research, there was no preconceived notion of the number of groups that could emerge from within the participants; thus, cluster analysis was employed to set the respondents in groups based on their understanding of the variables included in the questionnaire.

Cluster analysis is a tool for exploratory data analysis (Kaufman & Rousseeuw, 2005; Verma, 2013). It helps to organize observed data into meaningful groups, or clusters, based on the criteria defined for the variables of the study. Cluster analysis maximizes the similarity of cases within each cluster while maximizing the dissimilarity between groups that are initially unknown.

In this research, the originality of language in ESL students' academic writing is considered as an indication of students' rhetorical behavior that is rooted in their linguistic, cultural, and educational background. In this study, it is hypothesized that the originality of language in academic writing is related to students' skill in textual borrowing and source citation practices. Therefore, in order to

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find out possible relationships between dependent and independent variables, and possible interaction between variables, multi-linear regression analysis was conducted using SPSS 22.

Results

Students Understanding of Writing from Sources

The questionnaire included 12 items which covered issues in textual borrowing (1-6) and source citation (7-12). Each item in the questionnaire was a scenario to which respondents needed to react. It was important that respondents rate all of the statements using a score from zero to one hundred (0 to 100) depending on the extent to which they agreed with the stated behavior as an acceptable academic conduct. Also, since all items in the questionnaire were serious instances of plagiarism (according to the literature and conventional definitions), the lower score the respondents gave to each item, and therefore the lower total score in each section, meant that the respondent has a higher level of understanding of plagiarism, and thus is less likely to face the accusation of plagiarism in his or her own academic works.

Rating the scenarios in the questionnaire helped to investigate respondents' thoughts, views and beliefs about writing from sources, and provides data that can be analyzed through K-means cluster analysis.

This study was primarily aimed at finding out how Iranian ESL students view textual borrowing and source citation practices. In fact, this study was conducted to quantitatively evaluate the understanding of textual borrowing and source citation among Iranian ESL graduate students in science and engineering programs, and hence provide an answer to questions one and two of this research. Therefore, the K-means cluster analysis was conducted on SPSS version 22 to find fitting and of practical groups of ESL graduate students in science and engineering programs. Groups that are internally similar but differ from each other in distinct and meaningful ways.

Textual Borrowing

The first question that this research aimed at responding to was how ESL graduate students in science and engineering programs view textual borrowing. To this end, K-means cluster analysis was conducted to identify patterns of source use in participants' views about borrowing texts from other sources and citing them in their own work. Experimenting with an alternative number of clusters (2, and 4), a three cluster solution proved to be a stronger separation among the clusters and a more conservative solution. As table 4.1 indicates, the means of the clusters differ significantly across the three segments, Table 4.1 summarizes the results:

Table 4. 1: ANOVA

	Cluster		Error			
	Mean Square	df	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.
Textual Borrowing	760319.431	2	1478.884	173	514.117	.000

The number of cases in each cluster is reported in Tables 4.2, and Table 4.3 below describes the final cluster centers for respondents' scores in textual borrowing.

Table 4. Error! No text of specified style in document.**2: Number of Cases in each Cluster for Textual Borrowing**

Cluster	1	30.000
	2	82.000
	3	64.000
Valid		176.000
Missing		.000

Table 4.3: Final Cluster Centers for Textual Borrowing

	Cluster		
	1	2	3
Textual Borrowing	496.45	334.80	231.52

According to the table 4.**Error! No text of specified style in document.** 2, approximately 17% of respondents (30 out of 176) scored high in the questionnaire (Cluster Center = 496.45out of 600). This group, therefore, was labeled Poor Academic Practitioners (PAP) in academic writing. The second group consisted of 46.6% of respondents (82 out of 176). This group got average scores (Cluster Center =334.80 out of 600) and therefore was labeled Normal Academic Practitioners (NAP) in academic writing. Finally, the third group was 36.4% of the respondents (64 out of 176). This group scored very low in the questionnaire (Cluster Center =231.52 out of 600), and therefore was labeled Informed Academic Practitioners (IAP) in academic writing.

Source Citation

The second question attempted in this study was how students view source citation. To achieve this goal, also K-means cluster analysis was conducted to identify patterns of source use in participants' views about source citation. In investigating how ESL graduate students think about source citation, three groups were identified. As table 4.4 indicates, the means of the clusters differ significantly across the three segments, Table 4.4 summarizes the results:

Table 4.4: ANOVA

	Cluster	Error	F	Sig.

	Mean Square	df	Mean Square	df		
totalSC	875276.420	2	869.318	173	1006.854	.000

Just like the measure for textual borrowing, the questionnaire for source citation included six items and a total score of 600. Table **Error! No text of specified style in document.**.5 describes the number of cases in each cluster, and Table 4.6 describes the final cluster centers for respondents' scores in source citation:

Table 4.5: Number of Cases in each Cluster

for source citation

Cluster	1	96.000
	2	36.000
	3	44.000
Valid		176.000
Missing		.000

Table 4.6: Final Cluster Centers

	Cluster		
	1	2	3
totalSC	370.63	130.00	220.68

Out of 176 respondents to the questionnaire, 55% (96 out of 176) scored high in the questionnaire (Cluster Center =370.63 out of 600). This group was labeled poor academic practitioners (PAP). Another group of participants included 44 out of 176 respondents (25%). This group got an average score (Cluster Center =220.68 out of 600), and it was labeled Normal academic practitioners (NAP). Finally, the third group that included 20% of the respondents (36 out of 176) scored very low in the questionnaire and was labeled Informed Academic Practitioners (IAP) in academic writing.

Discussions

The results obtained from the cluster analysis is consistent with the results from similar studies. In an interview based studies as a pilot to this research (Lyon, 2009; Saadabadi, Arshad Abdul Samad, & Roselan Baki, 2012), interview respondents turned out to represent three different groups of ideas

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regarding writing from sources. One group (hereafter called PAP) had a wrong view of writing from sources. As a representative, P2, for example, said:

P2: When I need to use multiple sentences from one source in a paragraph, and these sentences do not follow each other in the paragraph, I cite the source only after the first quotation but not after each one.

Members of this group unwillingly committed plagiarism while synthesizing their academic texts as the result of such views. The above quotation is in the same line with the existing literature which certifies that in such cases, students try reusing and reworking the borrowed materials aiming to improve professionality in their own disciplinary discourse (Liu, Lin, Kou, & Wang, 2016; Petrić, 2012); however, inadequate citation knowledge translates their attempt into plagiarism. No doubt, in the above case, the problem with students like P2 was not transgressive textual appropriation, but just an error resulting from inadequately citing the original work instead of multiple citations.

When unintentional plagiarism is the result of writers' failure in providing adequate citation, the error is easily identified and improved. However, sometimes the errors are rooted in students' confusion regarding what exactly constitutes plagiarism. This view was also evident in the present research.

Among the participants in the PAP group, a number of respondents represented a local view of writing from sources that seemed logical to themselves; however, the view they presented differed significantly from the western views and definitions of writing from sources. One area in which students' confusion was evident was paraphrasing. The pilot study conducted prior to this research (Saadabadi & Arshad, 2016) was filled with participants' quotations regarding using paraphrasing in order to avoid plagiarism, while unconsciously, they were plagiarizing. One example mentioned was a student named P4. She avoided plagiarism using paraphrase, but the problem begins with how she incorporated the paraphrased text into that of her own. She said:

P4: As far as paraphrase is concerned, citation is not necessary. I completely rephrase the text, and therefore the words are completely mine.

In the above case, what P4 does, might be locally accepted, but differs from the western conventions for paraphrase. While based on their education and academic culture students like P4 think that some minor changes in vocabulary and structure of the text makes it their own property, and thus needless for referencing, western convention considers a paraphrased text almost like the original, and thus expects proper referencing. In fact, students like P4 follow the tradition dominant in their academic culture, and since the academic culture and convention that they follow differs from that of the global academic standards, they face the accusation of plagiarism. Members of this group do not accept the accusation, believing that what they do is simply employing techniques and strategies common in the ESL academic writing context.

The third group, however, included students who were familiar with the conventions of writing from sources. This group had a clear view of plagiarism. As claimed by P7 above:

P7: If I need to borrow a text from others' work, first I take permission or if not necessary, I just cite it in my work.

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Although P7 shows a good knowledge of writing from sources, deciding what needs to be cited is not as easy and as straightforward as it appears. Therefore, this group also claimed that sometimes they face the accusation of plagiarism. However, interview discussions and the cases that respondents showed in their writings that were highlighted as plagiarism indicated that the source of plagiarism for the members of this group was different from the other two groups in that members of this group were familiar with the nature of plagiarism, and knew how to avoid it, but they lacked required skills and experience to do it.

Summary and Conclusions

This research was an attempt to investigate the roots of unintentional plagiarism in academic writings of ESL students with focus on Iranian graduate students of science and engineering studying at Malaysian universities. Therefore, in this research, it was attempted first to find out how participants of the study view textual borrowing and source citation, and then to what extent their understanding of these variables correlates with their actual academic writing performance.

To achieve the first objective, a qualitative exploration was run to provide the content of a plagiarism judgment questionnaire required for collecting data. The qualitative study included interview with eight Iranian graduate students at departments of engineering and science, and focus group discussion sessions that consisted of graduate students from different disciplines from among the respondents in the interviews. The questionnaire was necessary to build since available questionnaires regarding plagiarism suffered from such problems as pointing directly to participants' behavior as an academic misconduct, or presupposed plagiarism as an intentional commitment on the part of students.

The constructed questionnaire consisted of twelve items each one a scenario ordinary in academic writing, and that participants had to judge each. The respondents were asked to use a score (0 -100) to decide to what extent they agreed or disagreed the action or reaction presented in each scenario. The questionnaire covered two main sources of plagiarism namely inappropriate textual borrowing (items 1-6), and poor citation decisions (items 7-12).

The questionnaire was distributed among a large number (N>300) of graduate students in departments of engineering and science, however, only 176 copies were fully and correctly completed and returned to the researcher. Then data were collected and a cluster analysis was run.

The results of cluster analysis for students' understanding of textual borrowing showed that 17% of the respondents (30 out of 36) scored high in the questionnaire. It means that these students were Poor Academic Practitioners. This is while 46.6% of the respondents (82 out of 176) scored lower than average to indicate that they are Normal Academic Practitioners and 36.4% (64 out of 128) of the participants scored low in the questionnaire and were found Informed academic Practitioner.

The results of cluster analysis for examining students understanding of source citation indicated that 55% of the respondents (96 out of 176) scored high in the questioner meaning that they were Poor Academic Practitioners. Among the rest of the respondents, 25% were found Normal and 20% were Informed Academic Practitioners.

The results of cluster analysis indicated that respondents had a better understanding of the principles of textual borrowing comparing with those of source citation. This is evident in that 83% of the participants (146 out of 176) indicated ample knowledge of how to borrow texts from other

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sources. The results for source citation were different. 96 out of 176 of the participants (55%) indicated poor understanding of the principles of source citation.

While the actual process of producing an academic text requires students to collect language and content from different sources, Iranian academic context still requires students to produce what is supposed to be original text implying a text wholly constructed by the author. This is while the nature of academic writing involves integrating text and information from previous studies.

Implied in the distinction between what is actually practiced in academic writing among Iranian students within Iran and the actual nature of academic writing is that there is a need for especial attention to teaching academic writing in the Iranian academia, as well as assessing it worldwide.

On the one hand, taken the current situation for granted, when Iranian students plan to enter science or engineering programs abroad, they should have obligation and opportunity for learning international conventions of academic writing to prepare themselves for the requirements of the target academic culture before leaving the country.

On the other hand, international tests of academic writing should shift from general traditional writing to text synthesis as the true nature of academic writing, and hence include the actual components of academic writing (borrowing, synthesis, referencing) in the tasks and the rubrics prepared for assessing writing for academic writing.

Pedagogical Implications

Studies on plagiarism in the academic products of Iranian students indicate a number of reason including students' poor linguistic competence; poor writing skills, and poor understanding of plagiarism. The present study focused on one of these reasons namely students understanding of plagiarism especially among students in science and engineering graduate programs. Results of the study which is in the same line with the existing literature on the topic suggest that, students suffer from diversity in their understanding of plagiarism, especially in textual borrowing practices and source citation decisions. Therefore, it is suggested that a change in the methodology of teaching writing for academic purposes seems necessary. In addition to teaching paragraph development and rhetorical structures, it is suggested that students practice exercises in which they can improve their skills in textual borrowing and source citations.

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THE ROLE OF REFLECTIVE READING IN PROMOTING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING MOTIVATION

*Fatemeh Shahhoseini
Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Literature and Languages, Al- Zahra University, Tehran, Iran
Tel: 09306819660, 09114059230
Email address: shahhoseini_fa@yahoo.com

**Yeganeh Kazemi
Department of English Language Teaching, Golestan Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Gorgan, Iran
Tel: 09391550276
E-mail address: teflkzy@gmail.com

***Yasaman Mirfendereski
Department of Linguistics, Shahid Beheshti University,Tehran,Iran
E-mail address:yasaman.Mirfendereski@gmail.com

Abstract

During the last decade, increasing attention has been paid to the role of developing reflective pedagogy in education. Research indicates that motivation as a key characteristic of language learners significantly affects the process of learning. Therefore the researchers aimed at investigating the role of reflective reading in promoting learners motivation considering the point that reflective reading results in learners' forming their own viewpoints about the text, providing unique interpretation, evaluation and consequently self-regulation. To achieve this aim, 60 BA students from two state universities forming 2 reading classes participated in the study. The control group consisted of 30 learners from a reading class of Golestan University that just read the text and memorized the new words and new structures, mainly the more traditional form of reading classes, while in the experimental group, learners reflected on their reading material, evaluated it, proposed their viewpoints about it and engaged with the text. Motivations for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) developed by Wigfield & Guthrie (1997) were administered at the beginning and end of the semester as pre-test and post test to measure and compare the participants reading motivation. The results were analysis using a paired sample t-test. The results of this quasi-experimental research indicated that reflecting on reading material played a role in promoting reading motivation of learners.

Key words: reflective reading, reading motivation, EFL learners

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Introduction:

Reading is an essential skill in the process of language learning. Reading comprehension involves complex cognitive processes which becomes more complex in foreign language learning situations and requires a great deal of effort. On the other hand, the importance of motivation in educational settings has been proven. Every effort is the result of a motivation behind it and this means if learners are not motivated enough to read a text, they will not make progress in acquiring reading skill.

In this regard, the nature of Reading classes plays a great role in promoting students reading motivation. The emergence of critical thinking which asks students to evaluate ideas caused many changes in most of the educational settings such as reading classes. Critical thinking blended with reading resulted in the term critical reading means discovering ideas from the text. Hanley, Herron & Cole (1995) showed that effective learning is the one accompanied by active mental processes; on the other hand critical reading is a kind of reflective reading in which active mental processes for evaluating what has been read is vital. Therefore using active, reflective, analytic reading will result in permanent learning and will change the nature of reading classes.

It is hypothesized that the nature of traditional reading classes demotivates students who are analytic and have their own ideas. The question is does using reflective reading as a method in Reading classes have any effect on students' reading motivation? In reviewing the literature there are evidence about the relationship between reflective reading and other aspects of reading, such as reading comprehension, reading strategies and so on. But very little was found in the literature on the question of reflective reading and reading motivation.

Literature review

Reading Skill

Reading skill and teaching it in ELT became one of the most important skills that require close attentions and thorough investigations. As a skill, needed both for school and life, reading is a historic skill that according to Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson is a basic skill for life (cited in Kucokuglu, 2013). Different people have different definitions for reading in their opinions. On the other hand, several studies in reading skill make clear the relationship among this skill and other dimensions of learning and also the integration of the four skills. Besides the importance of reading, it is one of the challenging issues in the process of learning to define (Kucukoglu, 2013). For instances of different definitions, Nation asserts that, reading skill is the ability to recognize written text and relate them to spoken form and the meaning of the form, in order to do his act, we should recognize familiar words and guess the meaning of unfamiliar ones (2008). Or Anderson 2013, defines reading as an active process in which both reader and reading material, that is the text, play a major role in creating meaning from the text (as cited in Albeckay, 2014). Grabe and Stoller (2002) believe that reading comprehension involves some processes that the most important one is linguistic process (as cited in Akbari, 2014).

Learning to read in first language occur in different conditions and different techniques are used to teach reading to native children such as shared reading, guided reading, independent reading (Nation,1999). Actually, reading is a pleasure in life, like an entertainment that we enjoy doing and helps us to be educated in our lives, but some people do not enjoy reading in second or foreign language and find it a disaster (as cited in Namjoo &Marzban , 2014). A good reader as stated by

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Masuhara, 2009 is active, that means he or she is able to connect what is already read to his or her previous knowledge, analyze the information and also evaluate the gained information (as cited in Namjoo& Marzban , 2014). Another feature defined for a good reader is that this kind of readers has a purpose for reading and predicting helps him/her to set a goal for his/her reading (Kucukoglu, 2013). Dorn and Soffos 2005 define a good reader as a reader who can integrate the four kinds of knowledge and they think that for a complete understanding of reading the four sources of knowledge should dynamically interplay with each other (as cited in Namjoo&Marzban , 2014). Gascoigne, 2005 explain about the successful readers, he mentioned that paying high attention on words and structures in a passage will result in a less successful reader; instead, a successful reader should focus on global meaning and background knowledge. She concludes that promoting comprehension depends on the ability of (Akbari, 2014). Duke and Pearson, 2005 believe that, to be able to improve reading comprehension of learners, we should compare our predictions of the text with the actual outcome of the text (as cited in Kucukoglu, 2013).

Language learning motivation and Reading motivation

Due to the nature of reading that is laborious, it needs motivation and a review on last studies(Conradi, Jang and McKenna ,2013)shows that different tools were used for promoting reading motivation: reading self-concept, attitudes, engagement, etc(Soriano-Ferrer & Morte-Soriano, 2017).

Because of the fact that success or failure is closely depended on motivation, several attempts have been made around different dimensions of it and its interaction with language abilities (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Ehrman, 1995; Dornyei & Cisizer, 1998, Dornyei & Skehan, 2003, as cited in Daftarifard, Shirkhani&Lavasani, 2014). It is established in the world that the inner motivation that exists behind the performances of a person, has the essential role in achievements. Therefore, high achievers possess higher motivation undoubtedly (Ozgur& Griffiths, 2013). In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on relationship between motivation and skills; for example Mori (2000, 2001), conducted surveys regarding reading motivation (Daftarifard, Shirkhani& Lavasani, 2014). Generally, Gardner and Lambert (1959) took attention to motivation in the academic environments that achievement is one of the apparent goals in it (Gardner,& Lambert,1959) and motivation became one of the main issues in language learning investigations and L1 reading researches (Dornyei& Ushioda, 2010; Malloy&Gambrell, 2008; Pressley, 2006 as cited in Grabe& stoller, 2013) but there were little attention to motivation in L2 reading. The past 15 years is the period that more attention is paid to L2 reading contexts and distinguishes made between L2 reading motivation and L2 language learning.

Reading motivation is specifically related to reading context and has nothing to do with L2 language learning in general. Moreover, the other difference is the stable nature of reading motivation and the dynamic nature of language learning motivation over time (Grabe&Stoller, 2013). Reading motivation has three dimensions: self-efficiency, intrinsic, extrinsic motivation (Louick, Leider, Daley, Proctor& Gardner, 2016)

Wigfield and Guthries(1995), proposed a reading motivation model for first language, that was the concern of the early researches on reading motivation (Funda,2015).Reading motivation is an important factor in the process of reading because it influences the way that the reader interact and reflect on the text and how learns from the text (Sani,Ariffinb& Shaik-Abdullahc, 2014). The feeling of learners about reading is one of the constructs of motivation stated by Alexander and Filler

(1976) that relate to amount of involvement and engagement in reading or in the other words the attitude about reading (Wigfield& Guthrie, 1997).

The definition of reading motivation by Guthrie & Wigfield, (1999) is the personal beliefs and purposes of a person about reading, it is obvious that these goals and beliefs will affect the way the reader interact with the text or learn from it (Sani,Ariffinb&Shaik-Abdullahc, 2014) .

The central factor in developing reading comprehension skill found by researchers is learning how to read or developing reading strategies and unfortunately, this is the feature that most of the teachers do not have it and they should be able to prepare these strategies and teach them to their students (Kucukoglu, 2013). For example the ability to summarize a text is one of the important abilities for the readers that enable them to read and understand even long passages easily by recognizing main ideas of the text and highlighting main points of the text. As another strategy we can mention the questioning strategy that can be used in all of the processes of reading, students ask questions and then return to the text to see if the answer is available or not.

Afflerbach et al., 2008 believes that, despite the fact that we know that the aim of reading instruction is the automatic use of reading skill, reading skill contains some conscious and deliberate processes, so we can say that this relation is two faces of the same coin, it means two sides of any reading task (Manoli&Papadopoulou, 2012).

If students make connections between what they already know, and what they read in the text, they will be able to understand the text better. In other words the prior knowledge of students is really helpful in connecting them to the intended meaning of the text, as it may be connected to their previous experiences and beliefs and real world. They can make text to text or text to self or text to world connections that all is beneficial in enhancing the comprehension (Kucukoglu, 2013).

There are some debates about the importance of the role of grammar in reading; it means that there are different ideas about how important grammar is. For example Alderson, 1984 believes that there is not enough deal of attention assigned to the role of grammar in reading comprehension by researchers, also Urguhart & Weir, 1998; Nassaji, 2007; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007 have the same idea in this regard (as cited in Akbari, 2014). Kobayashi (2002) believes that surface features like syntax has not the primary importance or linguistic and lexical features are the same, although they affect reading ability of the reader but they are secondary in the process of reading (as mentioned in Akbari, 2014). In this regard about the role of syntax and vocabulary Shiotsu and Weir (2007), agree with Kobayashi and have the same idea. Akbari, 2014 in her article investigated the role of grammatical knowledge directly in process of reading comprehension but most of the studies that were done in this regard measure the correlation between the grammatical knowledge of learners (Akbari, 2014). Nation believes that focusing on grammar in intensive reading is really beneficial especially in meaningful contexts (Nation, 2008).

It worth mentioning that the attitude of students about the goals for which they read influence their reading ability undoubtedly, because of the fact that reading critically or analytically will cause a better understanding of the given text, as a result, students should learn how read critically and how analyze a text in order to be able to find out the hidden layers of the text that is not visible for every reader (Kucukoglu, 2013).

Nation 2008, in his book mentioned some standardized reading procedures that are beneficial for readers, for example standard reading exercise is a process in which students learn some

questioning techniques that can be used for predicting main points or guessing the writers purpose (Edge, 1985; Scott, Carioni, Zanatta, Bayer and Quintanilha, 1984; Walker, 1987, as cited I Nation, 2008). Reciprocal teaching procedure is designed by Palincsar and Brown,1986, that involve some strategies such as summarizing, questioning, getting clarifications and predicting that all are beneficial for readers (Nation, 2008).

Critical thinking and critical reading

About 2500 years ago, the concept of critical thinking emerged and from that time this concept changed positively (Xu, 2011). Defining critical thinking precisely is difficult as Halanon (1995), Fasko (2003) and Minnich (1990) assert (Huitt, 1998, as cited in Rezaei,Derakhshan&Bagherkazemi, 2011). By looking into litrature different definitions are available, but the first person who defined critical thinking in relation to reflective thinking and proposed a 5-phase model for critical thinking was John Dewey (1993). Dewey in his definition "reflective thinking…active, persistent, and careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds which support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" asserts that every individual should be active in the process of thinking by reflecting on their own thinking process and be able to conclude by reasons and interpretations and evaluate the conclusions (Xu, 2011). Critical thinking as many scholars mentioned, is an organized process in which a person apply, analyze and evaluate the observed or gathered data (Paul & Elder, 2005; Giancarlo, Blohm & Urdan, 2004; Silverman & Smith, 2002; Glaser, 1985; cited in Piaw, 2010).

As Thomas, Smoot (1994) and Huitt (1998) believe, in the 21st century, critical thinking is a crucial element in schooling, and thinking in general is a significant factor that determines one's success in life, therefore there are many articles elaborating on this issue in the past decade (Rezaei,Derakhshan& Bagherkazemi, 2011).

Albeckay in his article that was done in Libya, investigates the role of critical reading and concludes that students should have critical reading skill to be able to understand skills better and he offers a new critical reading model for students to develop their skills better (2014).

Regarding the significance of reading skill in process of language learning, it is obvious that what is important in this process is how to read. Reading in a way that the reader act passively is not beneficial in enhancing the quality of learning, but reading critically and reflecting on reading has a great effect on the way of thinking.

Methodology

Participants:

Participants were 60 BA freshman English major students from 2 different universities. They were similar in age, ranging from 19 to 21 years and all of them were native Persian speakers. These EFL students were categorized into two groups, 30 female students from Alzahra University took part as the experimental group and 30 male and female students (23 female, 7 male) from Golestan University participated as the control group. Both groups were students of Reading and Comprehension 1 class. The English language proficiency level of the students was intermediate.

Research design:

The aim of this study was to check the probable effects of reflective reading on reading motivation of EFL students. In order to reach this aim, a pre-test post-test quasi-experimental design was adopted. A 53 item Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) developed by Wigfield & Guthrie (1997), was administered to both experimental and control groups as pre-test but only the experimental group received treatment that is the reading class that promotes reflective reading. On the other hand, the control group is a kind of traditional reading class and there is no focus on reflecting reading in this class. At the end of the study, the same questionnaire was administered to both groups again as post-test.

Instrumentation:

At the beginning of the term both groups took an English language proficiency test of TOEFL to ensure their homogeneity. This test consists of three sections (20 vocabulary questions, 30 reading comprehension questions and 20 grammar questions). Students had about 35 minutes to complete the test and it was administered before the actual phase of the study. The reliability coefficient of the test was calculated as 0.74 which is an acceptable reliability coefficient.

After that, through the reading motivation questionnaire (MRQ) developed by Wigfield & Guthrie (1997), data regarding students' reading motivation were gathered. Wigfield and Guthrie (1995), developed the MRQ to measure various aspects of reading motivation. They reported the reliabilities for all the aspects of the 53-item MRQ ranging from 0.43 to 0.81. Factor analyses conducted by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), showed the construct validity of eleven factors for the 53-item revised MRQ in 4th and 5th grade students. The questionnaire had 53items in Likert scale that are posited to tap 11dimensions of reading motivation. The revised version of MRQ which is used in this study reflects 11 constructs of reading motivation:

1. Reading Efficacy (3 items), 2. Reading Challenge (5 items), 3. Reading Curiosity (6 items), 4. Reading Involvement (6 items), 5. Importance of Reading (2 items), 6. Reading Work Avoidance (4 items), 7. Competition in Reading (6 items), 8. Recognition for Reading (5 items), 9. Reading for Grades (4 items), 10. Social Reasons for Reading (7 items), 11. Compliance (5 items)

All items are answered on a scale from 1 to 4, with 1 (very different from me), 2 (a little different from me), 3 (a little like me), and 4 (a lot like me). This test was used by Wigfield & Guthrie(1997), for assessing student's reading motivation in grades 4-5 for the first time, but it was successfully used for university students by other researchers such as (Sani, Wan Chik, Awg Nik& Raslee, 2011).

Procedure:

As the first step, the reliability of the TOEFL exam that was used for ensuring the homogeneity of students was measured. It was administered to 35 students of Kish language institute of Gorgan and by using Cronbach alpha coefficient, the reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.74 which is an acceptable reliability coefficient.

After establishing the reliability of the test, in order to estimate the reading motivation of the two groups, the researcher administered it twice during the academic term, once in September, at the beginning of the term and later in December, at the end of the term,. Students were told they were going to answer questions about their reading, and that the questions had no right or wrong answers. The questionnaire had no ambiguity, but the students could freely ask any questions they might have had. The administration of the test took 15 to 20 minutes.

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The treatment the experimental group received was that in this group from Alzahra university reading1 class, students were not taught different reading techniques nor were they forced to memorize the new words and structures. There was not any text book for the course but just some selected articles. The focus was on eliciting students' viewpoints about what they have read, reflecting on the text, evaluating it and thinking about it critically. Reading strategies, new vocabularies and structures were learned indirectly. In some of the sessions the teacher brought some selected articles, printed for all of the students before class and that was the material for that session. For example, at the beginning of the second session the teacher gave a six page article by Munir Fasheh named "The Trouble with Knowledge" to the students and wanted them to reflect on the article after 5 minutes. I order to reflect on the text, students should be able to skim the text which is the first strategy that is learnt by them indirectly. After 5 to 7 minutes, the teacher waited for the reactions and asked students to talk about everything that passed through their minds regarding the text. The time for each student to contribute in class discussions was not limited and just depended on the students' capabilities. After that, the teacher explained that in this limited time for reading you can just read the titles and subtitles and you should ignore the unknown words in the text. In some other sessions, students were required to choose a topic, search in the Internet, read some texts and reflect on what they have read in the class. It meant they did not have to summarize the text but evaluate and interpret what the author has written. In these processes, the teacher directed their minds by offering challenging topics, not accepting or rejecting any ideas and proposing contradictory opinions. He did not advocate any views and let the students think freely.

Contrastively, students in the control group had a fixed text book named Mosaic 1(a reading skills book) by Brenda Wegman and Miki Knezevic and students were required to study each unit of reading in the class, answer the comprehension questions, memorize new words available at the end of each unit and study the reading strategy offered in each section. They just read the text; learned some reading techniques step by step by the teacher's explanations and the book. At the end of each unit there was a part named "Reading Strategy" and there were some exercises for each section. Students were supposed to memorize the new words and structures that were listed at the end of each unit. There was not any discussion about the content of the text and the viewpoint of the students about what they had read.

Data analysis

In order to check the probable effects of reflective reading on reading motivation of students the scores of the questionnaires that were run in both groups, were analyzed. First of all to ensure that the mean differences of the reading motivation questionnaire of the two groups were not significant at the beginning of the semester, an independent sample t-test was run. Table 1that the pretest scores of the control group (M=143.93, SD=15.64), t (58) =-.900, p>.05 is not significantly different from the experimental group (M=140.13, SD= 17.04). The mean difference of these two group was very small (eta squared= 0.005).

Table 1: Independent samples t-test for MRQ in experimental and control groups

	Learner's test for Equality of variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig	t	Df	Sig(2-tailed)	Mean differences	Std Error Difference	95% confidence interval of the differences	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed Motivation Questionnaire	.115	.736	-.900	58	.372	-3.80000	4.22436	-12.2560	4.65597
Equal variances not assumed			-.900	57.575	.372	-3.80000	4.22436	-12.2573	4.65730

At the end of the treatment period another paired sample t-test was run to show the difference between pre-test and post test scores of the two groups. Based on the results shown in table 2, there is a significant difference between pre-test scores (M=140.33, SD=17.4) and post test scores of the experimental group (M=160.63, SD=14.87), t (29) =-5.016, p<.01.

Table 2: Paired t-test for the experimental group

	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Means	95% confidence interval of the differences		t	df	Sig(2_tailed)

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				Lower	Upper			
Pair1 (MRQ1, MRQ 2)	-20.500	22.38341	4.08663	-28.85810	-12.14190	-5.016	29	.000

On the other hand, table 3 shows the result of running paired sample t-test for the pretest and posttest of the control group. It points out that there was not a significant difference between the scores of pre MRQ (M=143.93, SD=15.64) and the scores of post MRQ (M=145.56, SD=14.94), t (29) =-.388, p>.05.

Regarding the results shown in these 3 tables, it can be concluded that reflective reading in reading classes has a positive effect in enhancing students' reading motivation.

Table 3: Paired sample t-test for the control group

	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Means	95% confidence interval of the differences		t	df	Sig(2_tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 2 MRQ 1 MRQ 2	-1.633	23.04042	4.20659	-10.23677	6.97010	-.388	29	.701

Discussion

As the results revealed, students in the experimental group who reflected on their reading material outperformed the students in the control group, i.e. More traditional reading class. There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of students in experimental group

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but not in the scores of the control group. This significance means that students who are asked to reflect on the reading text become more motivated than the students who did not receive such treatment.

The results of this study are consistent with some other studies done in this area which emphasize the positive effects of mixing reading and critical thinking (Akkaya, 2012; Albeckay, 2014; Derakhshan, & Bagherkazemi, 2011; Gray, 2006; Namjoo, 2014; Ridgway, 1999; Tama, 1989; Thistlethwaite, 1990). These prior studies have noted the importance of critical thinking and critical reading in relationship with language education, reading strategies, reading comprehension and reading skills.

Conclusion:

The present study was designed to determine the effect of reflective reading on Iranian EFL learners' reading motivation. The result of this study shows that, reading motivation can be enhance if a reflective reading process be present in a reading class. Based on the results of this study, it is suggested that teachers consider the benefits of using reflective reading methods in reading classes. Teachers should be patient in class discussions in order to make students think critically about what they have read, evaluate the text and propose their viewpoints about the text.

Based on the results of this study, when students are asked to reflect on the text, they become more engaged, since they cannot just read and pass the text, but they should read in a way that they will be able to evaluate the text. In this kind of reading, because students notice the content of the text in this way and freely propose their own ideas about it, they are more eager to read and consequently their reading motivation is promoted. In fact, because students are not forced to follow a rigid instruction in such reading classes they are motivated to read more and more.

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EFFECT OF A PROPOSED PROGRAM ON ARABIC SPELLING AND WRITING PERFORMANCE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES AT THE NORTHERN BORDERS PROVINCE

Hany Sheta
Special Education Department, Faculty of Science and Arts,
Northern Border University – K.S.A
hanysheta_77@yahoo.com
Yossry Essa
Special Education Department -Faculty of Education
King Saud University
Fared Jdaitawi
Special Education Department, Faculty of Science and Arts,
Northern Border University – K.S.A

Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the effects of a proposed program on developing Arabic spelling and writing mechanics among elementary school pupils. The quasi-experimental method with two groups (control-experimental) design was employed in the study. Thirty eight students with LD were selected from the first three elementary grades at Rafha province K.S.A and divided into two groups. The study used a spelling and writing tests to elicit data. Results revealed that the proposed program had significant effects on enhancing elementary pupils' spelling and writing performance. The study concluded with a number of pedagogical implications and recommendation.

Keywords: spelling- writing - learning disabilities – Arabic orthography

1. Introduction

Arabic is the official language at almost all education sectors in Saudi Arabia, although English language is introduced as a foreign language for students from fourth grade. Education is free to all students, at all levels. Nevertheless, Saudi Arabia is a conservative country where girls and boys are educated in separated schools from first grade till tertiary level of education. Girls have their own schools run mainly by female staff. And boys have their own schools run mainly by male staff.

The history of learning disabilities (LD) as a new field of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia goes back to the last decade of the 20thcentury. In 1992, the Special Education Department at King Saud University established the first teacher education program leading to a Bachelor degree in learning disabilities (Sheaha, 2004). Then, in 1996, the Ministry of Education (MoE) introduced LD

formally in its educational system. This is followed by initiating the Learning Disabilities Department by the General Secretariat of Special Education (GSSE), a division of the Ministry of Education. It aimed at administering, creating and expanding LD programs in regular elementary schools across the country (Al Mosa, 1999). After administering school pilot projects in three cities, the ministry assigned LD teachers to identify children with LD and provide them with specialized instruction. After that, LD was recognized and spread all over the country as a distinct category of disability. The educational policy makers acknowledged the right of children with LD to receive special education services, *ibid*.

In (2002) the ministry provided schools with a manual called *So'ubat al taall'um* (learning difficulties). Adapted from United States, the model provides information about disability categories and the required procedures prior to eligibility to special education services. It provides teachers with guidelines on identifying and instructing children with LD. Nevertheless, the present situation of LD instruction in Saudi Arabia is in urgent need for intervention especially in the areas of curricula, instruction materials, methodology and teacher preparation.

The present study explores the impact of implementing a proposed program on developing LD spelling and writing skills afforded to elementary school pupils at the Northern Borders Province in Saudi Arabia. The program is developed by three Assistant Professors of LD working for the University of Northern Borders. It aims at improving LD spelling and writing mechanics among elementary school pupils involved in learning Arabic as a native language including 25 instructional sessions.

1.1. Arabic Orthography

Unlike other Indo-European languages, Arabic belongs to the Semitic family which is written connectively from right-to-left with no distinction between printed and handwritten scripts. Arabic is characterized by a complicated morphology and spelling structure. Modern Standard Arabic makes use of a six-vowel system: the short vowels /a/, /i/ and /u/ and the long vowels /a:/,/i:/ and /u:/. The longer variants are the only ones always represented in writing. The shorter variants are indicated by diacritical marks placed above the consonants that precede the vowel sound.

Table (1) diacritical marks found in Arabic manuscript.

Diacritic	Name	Transliteration	Transcription
◌َ	فتحة*Fatha*	a	/a/
◌ُ	ضمة*Damma*	u	/u/
◌ِ	كسرة *Kasra*	i	/i/
◌ً	تنوين فتح *Tanwi:n fath*	ã	/an/
◌ٌ	تنوين ضم *Tanwi:n Dam*	ũ	/un/
◌ٍ	تنوين كسر *Tanwi:n kasr*	ĩ	/in/
◌ّ	شدة *šadda*	~	Doubling previous consonant
◌ْ	سكون*Suku:n*	.	No vowel

For beginners, the Arabic manuscript makes use of the above diacritical marks (*tashkīl* and *ḥarakāt*) to provide enough information about the correct pronunciation. According to Haddad and Roitfarb (2014) Arabic script makes use of such diacritic marks for word recognition mainly for native speakers when beginning to read. Due to its diacritical, vocalized and vowelized nature, Arabic is considered as a typical case of diglossia (Ferguson, 1959: Hudson, 2002). So, diacritics is an LD for many elementary school pupils. In an attempt to compare Canadian and Saudi elementary school perceptions about causes of LD, Felimban (2013) argues that whereas non of Canadian students mentioned difficulty with writing, most of Saudi students reported slow handwriting in Arabic due to *Tashkeel* (diacritics).

Furthermore, most Arabic letters can take more than one written form, depending on their place in a word: beginning, middle, or end. The combination of letter position and ligation with preceding letter results in four different written forms of a letter. Arabic orthography slows the process of learning because it is made up of similar shape of letters differentiated by number, place of dots and diacritic marks Mohamed et al. (2014). This leads to letter position error which is one of the sources of diglossia in Arabic Friedmann and Haddad-Hanna (2014).

Some letters can share the same written shape in a word and dots are used to differentiate them. A dot, two or three dots are placed on, in or under the letter. Dots appear with 15 letters, of which 10 have one dot, three have two dots, and two have three dots (e.g. ب /*b*/, ت /*t*/, ث /*θ*/, and ن /*n*/). According to Eviatar and Ibrahim (2014) the role of dots in Arabic orthography is source of complexity for learners.

Besides, Arabic letters are connected in both print and handwriting. They have slightly different shapes depending on where they occur in a word. Some letters can be connected fully or partially, depending on former and subsequent letter within the same word. Such features add another LD to pupils at elementary level. Another cause for LD is represented by the curriculum itself as students in grades four, five and six are required to study Arabic calligraphy courses in which students learn to write in different fonts such as Arabic *Riqa* and *Naskh* (Felimban, 2013).

Arabic language features and culture are among many other factors that play key roles in LD elementary school students may face. Thus, addressing the combination of these elements is essential to obtain deeper understanding of the needs of elementary school students in Saudi Arabia. There is a great deal of progress yet to be achieved in the area of Arabic LD, as little is published so far. Hence, the proposed program examine in this study has been tailored mainly to cater to the needs of elementary school children with LD.

1.2. Learning Disabilities LD

According to the Learning Disabilities Association of Canada (n.d.), LD refers to "a number of disorders which may affect the acquisition, organization, retention, understanding or use of verbal or nonverbal information". Dyslexia is considered to be the most common type of learning disability and is estimated to affect 80% of all individuals with LD (Candace and Sheldon, 2014). In English-speaking countries, the prevalence of dyslexia is estimated to range between 5 and 17 % of school-aged children, with as many as 40 % of the entire population of the United States (Candace and Sheldon, 2014). Berninger and May (2001) identified three specific learning disabilities: dysgraphia, which affects writing abilities; dyslexia, which affects a complex range of abilities related to reading and language; and oral and written language learning disability, which includes

the same impairments as dyslexia plus problems with morphological and syntactic coding and comprehension. Dyscalculia is another identified learning disability that affects the application of mathematical operations, and visual and spatial organizations (Hutchinson, 2007). Fletcher, Morris and Lyon (2003) provide a general concept of learning disabilities:

Learning disability (LD) is a general term which describes a specific kind of learning problem. A learning disability can cause a person to have trouble learning and using certain skills. The skills often affected are reading, writing, listening, speaking, reasoning, and doing math. (p. 11)

Based on the above definition, one can infer that children with LD possess difficulty while processing what they see or hear. Accordingly, a child with a learning disability might have specific difficulties SLD with spoken and written language. In Saudi Arabia, the term "learning disabilities" is used by learning disabilities' professionals when referring to "school children who experience learning difficulties in particular school subjects and who 'apparently' have average intelligence, have underlying deficit, presumed to be dysfunction in the central nervous system" (Al-Hano, 2006).

It is estimated that approximately 5-10% of Saudi students experience learning difficulties, although this percentage may not reflect the actual prevalence due to a lack of adequate assessment tools. Within Saudi schools, regular classroom teachers are responsible for referring students for identification (Hussain, 2009). Identified students then receive support from learning disabilities specialists. Learning disabilities are regarded as minor disabilities and students who have learning disabilities are educated in the general education curriculum with their typically developing peers. Extra support (e.g. a Learning Disabilities Resource Room LDRR) is available when needed, Al-Ajmi (2006).

1.3. Spelling and Writing Learning Disabilities

There has been an increase in spelling research in recent years because of its close relationship to reading and writing for ordinary students and students with LD. Nevertheless, a few studies have analyzed the spelling errors made by Arab students with LD. Mohamed et al. (2010, 2014) carried out two studies in an attempt to examine the prevalence rates of specific reading and spelling LD among a sample of 1106 Egyptian Arabic-speaking children in grade 3. They observed a high rate in children with LD in public schools (12%) compared to private schools (1%). This implies that Arab-speaking children in public schools, like the sample of this study, are in urgent need for intervention. Azzam (1993) examined the spelling errors made by children learning Arabic, aged 6 to 11 years. He classified the errors according to the linguistic and orthographical features of Arabic script. He concluded that the misspellings of Arabic speaking children persisted through primary school, pointing to the difficulties involved in mastering the Arabic written language. The spelling errors centered around context sensitive rules, additions and omissions of letters. Abu-Rabia and Taha (2004) examined and compared the spelling errors made by 5th grade students with LD with level-matched learners. They classified the spelling errors into categories: *phonetic errors*, *semiphonetic errors*, *dysphonetic errors*, *visual letter confusion*, *irregular spelling rules*, *word omission* and *functional word omission*. They argued that the most prominent type of spelling errors was phonetic. They considered the nature of the Arabic orthography as the main cause for the types of spelling errors made by the different groups. Based on the same spelling error categories, Abu-Rabia and Taha (2006) carried out another study examining the spelling error profiles of Arabic speaking students in grades 1 - 9. They concluded that the phonological spelling errors were

predominated over other error categories and scored 50% of the total errors. They argued that the phonological spelling errors take place from grad 1 to 9 and phonology is a great challenge for all elementary school students while developing their spelling skills in Arabic.

Other research findings support the notion that students' reading and spelling skills in Arabic as mother language are affected by the specific linguistic and orthographic features. Taha (2008, 2013) indicates that the development of orthographic representations is mediated by other factors such as specific morpho-orthographic representation and specific writing rules. He refers to the vital role the visual and orthographic process in reading and word recognition in Arabic. Abu-Rabia and Sammour (2013) examine and analyze the types of spelling errors among regular and dyslexic students in Arabic as L1 and English as FL. They indicated that;

"most of the spelling errors in Arabic occurred as a result of poor knowledge of spelling rules as well as substitution between the emphatic consonants and their plain counterparts, especially when the latter underwent assimilation due to the existence of an emphatic consonant in the same or in the adjacent syllable. These spelling errors did not change the sound structure of the target words, but properly represented it; therefore, they were phonetic in nature".

1.4. Learning Disabilities Resource Room (LDRR)

Learning Disabilities Resource Room (LDRR) is an educational setting where diagnostic assessment and education are provided for the learners with learning disabilities according to a regular time schedule for a part of the educational day, and then they rejoin the regular class and receive their education with regular students. The resource room is considered on form of mainstreaming (Smith, 2004: Lerner, 2003).

Establishing resource rooms, in the public and the private schools, has been a promising experience as means of inclusive education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. So, the resource room describes the context of this study. A resource room enables LD teachers to provide special educational services to LD students within the regular school system. Teachers are supposed to; conduct assessments for categorizing students with LD in groups; design level-needs-based educational individualized programs; teach LD students providing them with required academic skills; keeps in touch with regular classroom teachers; and, contact parents updating them about the activities that take place in the resources room. Al-Zoubi (2007).

The current situation of LDRRs in public and private schools in Saudi is characterized byabsence of curricula and teaching guides tailored in Arabic, inadequacy of current pre-service and in-service LD teacher preparation programs, lack of parents' preparation to deal with LD students, and, insufficiency of teaching aids and equipment like computers and internet access. (Al-Ahmary, 2010: Theeb et al.2014: Youssefi, 2014: Al-Hiary, Almakanin & Tabbal, 2015). Al-Zoubi (2016) argues that the absence of LDRR teaching guides is one of the most obstacles that all teachers face in Saudi electuary schools. He concludes that the Ministry of Education in KSA must prepare an LDRR guide including vision, goals, objectives, roles of the school administration, general/LD teachers and parents. So, the current situation of LDRR in Saudi public and private elementary schools is in urgent need for some instructional and interventional initiatives.

2. The Proposed Program

The proposed program, examined in this study, is an initiative developed by three professors of LD. It is an LDRR instructional resource targeted to public elementary school students at Rafha province. It is composed of 25 instructional sessions (40-50 minutes each). Developed sessions incorporate a set of spelling and writing mechanics to train pupils on how to use phonemes. The implementation of the program took place in four schools in Rafha Province over 13 weeks from Sunday 31/8/2014 to Thursday 18/12/2014 applying Direct Method approach. Each session (instructional unit) serves as a lesson plan for LDRR teachers and students including; specified objectives, a thematic spelling technique, required learning/teaching aids/realia, and, steps of carrying out the session. The proposed program introduces elementary school students with LD to some spelling/writing techniques comprising diacritical marks in Arabic (*tashkīl* and *ḥarakāt*);

- Letters with fatha (opening of the lips) a small diagonal mark (ً) above a letter for a short vowel /a/.
- Letters with kasrah (drawing a part of the lips) a small diagonal mark (ٍ) below a letter for a short vowel /i/.
- Letters with dammah (pressing together of the lips) a small diagonal mark (ٌ) above a letter for a short /u/.
- Letters with suku:n (silence of the lips) a circle-shaped diacritic mark above a letter (ْ).
- Words including letters with *fatha*.
- Words including letters with *dammah* or *kasrah.*
- Letters/words with *madd* (elongation) a symbol written over an *alif* and pronounced as /ə/ (*alif mamdu:da* 'lengthened aleph')
- Letters/words including *hamzat waṣl* (connector).
- *hamzat waṣl* followed by *lam* /l/ (*lam qamaria* 'Moon *lam*' and *lam shamsiyya* 'Sun *lam*').
- *tanween* 'nunation' (double diacritic sign of a vowel).
- *shaddah* (doubling of a consonant).
- Differentiating between *taa marbuta* (bound T) and *taa maftuha* (open T).

Prior to trying out, the researchers submitted the proposed program to some specialists in the field of Arabic language, educational psychology, curriculum and teaching methodology to examine its contents as well as suitability for the target students. The researchers modified the program in the light of the obtained feedback and recommendations. The researcher conducted a pilot study to test the clarity of the program activities and instructions.

3. The Present Study

The need for this study stems from the absence of instructional materials for teaching Arab-speaking elementary school students in LDRRs in the Northern Borders Province in particular and all over the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in general. In light of the above, the present study attempts to investigate the effect of a proposed instructional program on the development of spelling and

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writing skills among elementary school students with LD in the Northern Borders Province. Accordingly, the study addressed the following question:

What is the effectiveness of a proposed program on the development of spelling and writing skills for elementary school students with learning disabilities in the Northern Borders Province? In order to answer this research question, the study uses the quasi-experimental method with two controlled and experimental groups in an attempt to test the following hypotheses:

1. There are statistically significant differences of the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post administration to the spelling and writing tests in favor of the post administration.

2. There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the post administration to the spelling and writing test in favor of the experimental group.

3.1. Method

The present study employed the quasi-experimental method with two groups (control-experimental) design.

3.2. Participants

Total number of 38 pupils with LD selected from the first three elementary grades in Rafha province, KSA participated in the study. They typically represent Learning Disabilities Resource Room (LDRR) where they get special education by specialized LD teachers within the regular school system. They receive required academic skills according to a regular time schedule for a part of a day, and then they rejoin the regular class and receive their education with regular students.

They were divided into an experimental group (22 pupils) and a control group (16 pupils). The sample was from four boys schools in Rafha- North Borders Province – Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Due to cultural and conservative nature of the education system in Saudi where girls are educated in separated schools, the sample includes students from elementary boys schools. The researchers could not get access to girls primary schools.

The sample was distributed fairly regarding age as a covariate variable taking into consideration the approximation of the marks of the control and experimental groups. The differences between the two groups were identified regarding the covariate variables such as the chronological age and the research main variables (spelling and writing) in the pre-test. There are no statistically significance differences between the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, since the t-values were statistically insignificant at the 0.05 level which shows a state of equivalency between the two groups regarding their age, spelling and writing.

3.3. Spelling and Writing Tests

Two instruments in addition to the training program were utilized in the study, spelling and writing tests.

3.3.1. The spelling test was developed to measure spelling skills comprising diacritical marks in Arabic (*tashkīl* and *ḥarakāt*). During the test time (50 minutes), individual pupils were asked to

answer ten items, in which they had to read the words then to analyze them into their phonemes. The overall score of the test is 129; where each correct answer attains one mark.

3.3.2. the writing test was developed to assess the sub-skills the pupils had been trained on in the proposed program. The examiner dictated the previously learned words during the allocated time for the test (50 minutes). Each pupil appeared to the test individually.

Prior to implementation, the tests content was validated by a doctoral committee and two educational experts who possess strong background related to the present study field. They provided some comments and the researchers modified the two tests accordingly. Furthermore, the tests were computed for the reliability and validity. The researchers have assured the reliability of the scales using Cronbach's Alpha for construct validity and the result showed that the scale are reliable and achieved the suggested value >.70 (Nunnally's, 1978). Besides, the scale of spelling has a reliability coefficient of 0.725 in terms of internal consistency. Furthermore, the scale of writing skills test has a reliability coefficient of 0.762 in terms of internal consistency. Therefore, it can be concluded that the results of the two measurements used in the present study have a stable validity and good reliability.

4. Results

In this section, the results of the study are presented in two parts. Part 1 gives a brief description of the students' skills before proceeding to administering the training program. Part 2 provides the results of data analysis.

4.1. Skills to Be Improved

The study presents the results of comparing the mean sores of the two experimental and control groups. Results indicated that there was no statistically significance difference, 0.05 level of significance between the experimental and control groups prior to implementing the program. This implies that any change that may take place after implementing the program could be attributed to the intervention, namely the proposed program.

Before proceeding to the hypotheses testing, the researchers used the independent sample t-test to determine whether the two groups are statistically equivalent before the experimentation. The dependent variables comprised spelling and writing skills. The t-test was first administered to the first set of independent sample using Levene's Test analysis to determine the differences between the experimental and controlled groups in terms of spelling and writing skills at the significance level of 0.5. The results showed statistical significant differences between the two groups in terms of pretesting spelling skills (t=4.442, p=.000<.05), but no statistical significant difference on writing skills pretest (t=-.650, p=.520>.05). However, significant differences were noted between them based on spelling skills pretest. Therefore, ANOVA test used for spelling and ANCOVA test for writing.

Table 2. Results of Levene's Test and t-Test for the Research Variables Pretest

Variables	F-value	Sig.	T	df2	Sig.(2-tailed)
Spelling	0.326	0.572	-4.442	36	0.000
Writing Skills	0.575	0.453	0.520	36	0.520

4.2. Results of Hypotheses Testing

The researchers used the descriptive statistics to determine the mean and other values for pre- and posttest of the dependent variables. In addition, inferential statistics analysis was employed for answering the research questions. Specifically, ANOVA, ANCOVA and paired sample tests were conducted for the evaluation of the differences between means of the two groups both in pre- and post-test for the variables of spelling and writing skills.

The pre- and posttest scores of dependent variables of the sample in terms of mean and standard deviation are presented in the statistics table (5). Based on the table, the experimental group participants showed an increase of mean scores after training for the variables. Specifically, the experimental group showed a mean of pre-test score of (M=33.68, SD=6.79), which was lower than the control group (M=43.93, SD=7.33). After the test, the experimental group obtained higher mean scores (M=73.27, SD=5.51) compared to their sample counterpart (M=49.87, SD=7.09) and their mean scores for the variables of spelling skills improved with the test. With regards to writing skills scores, the pre-test scores obtained by the experimental group was (M=19.04, SD=4.51) that was higher compared to the controlled group (M=20.25, SD=6.91). Similarly, after the test, the experimental group mean score was (M=35.54, SD=4.10) while the controlled group was (M=24.18, SD=4.41) indicating an enhancement of the mean scores in writing skills after training.

4.2.1. To test the first hypothesis **There are statistically significant differences of the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post administration to the spelling and writing tests in favor of the post administration.**, the researchers used ANCOVA for post-test of spelling while controlling the covariance pretest. The result for the variable post-test indicates statistical significant difference (F=121.121, p=.000, <0.05).

Table 3. Results of ANCOVA for the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post administration to the spelling skills$p < .05$

Source	Dependent Variables Posttest	Type Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	P
Spelling		4229.631	1	4229.631	121.121	.000
Spelling Pretest		171.890	1	171.890	4.922	.033
Total Spelling		159310.0	38			

4.2.2.To test the second hypothesis **There are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group in the post administration to the spelling and writing test in favor of the experimental group.**

Testing writing skills hypothesis implied processing independent variables through ANOVA, with the independent variables present in experimental and controlled group. The first set of analysis resulted in significant main effects for students' groups in terms of dependent variables. ANOVA highlighted statistical significant differences between the groups. The results concerning the comparison between the dependent variables based on the influence of the independent variables showed significant differences between the two groups with (F= 66.604, p= .000 <0.05) on writing and spelling.

Table 4. *Results of ANOVA for mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post administration to the writing skills.*

Source	Dependent Variables Posttest	Type Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between Groups	Writing Skills	1194.976	1	1194.97	666.604	.000
Within Groups	Writing Skills	645.892	36	17.941		
Total	Writing Skills	1840.868	37			

Concerning the second hypothesis, the result of paired sample test showed a significant differences between the experimental and control group in terms of spelling skills (t=22.125, p=.000<.05), However, significant differences were noted between them based on the spelling skills posttest mean scores (M= 73.272, SD=5.513) which was higher than the mean scores of pretest (M= 33.681, SD= 6.799). Besides, the result of paired sample test of writing skills showed a significant differences between the experimental and control group in terms of writing skills (t=15.712, p=.000<.05). Also, significant differences were noted between them based on the writing skills posttest mean scores (M= 35.54, SD=4.10) which was higher than the mean scores of pretest (M= 19.04, SD= 4.519).

Table 5. *Summary Statistics Variables Scores (N=43)*

Variables		Experimental Group	Control Group
Spelling	Pretest Mean	33.68	43.93
	SD	6.79	7.33
	Posttest	73.27	49.87
	SD	5.51	7.09
Writing skills	Pretest Mean	19.04	20.25
	SD	4.51	6.91
	Posttest	33.54	24.18
	SD	4.10	4.41

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigates the effects of a proposed program on developing spelling and writing performance. The results suggest that earlier instructional training in LDRRs is beneficial for elementary school students with spelling/writing learning disabilities. However, the result of the

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present study revealed an improvement phase for the experimental group between pre-post test and the result was significant. The result of the first hypothesis supports a previous study done by Graham, Harris & Larsen, (2001) who find that early intervention programs that provide instruction of spelling or writing can have a positive effect on students with learning disabilities. However, subjects involved in the experimental group had spelling improvement as demonstrated by changes in their scores. Thus, the improvement of the spelling scores for experimental group students may be due to the instructional drills taught to students, mainly, common phoneme-spelling associations, practicing new spellings by pointing to each letter in a left to right order while simultaneously saying the sound. So, it can be concluded that earlier prevention is very beneficial for students with learning disabilities who struggle with spelling and writing. New South Wales Dept. of Education and Training. Disability Programs Directorate: Learning Assistance Program, (1999) argues that students who need additional support in spelling should be provided with a program. Concerning testing writing, the result indicated that students in the experimental group scored higher in the writing skills post-test than the pre-test. The result is somehow expected due to the positive result of the spelling test. In other words, the high score of spelling test may affect directly students writing skills positively, therefore, the result was statistically significant. This implies that spelling has a close relationship to writing and reading. This supports the use of intervention instruction for teaching students writing strategies and extends the findings of previous research (Azzam, 1993: Mohamed et al., 2010: Saddler, Moran, Graham, & Harris, 2004).

Results revealed that the mean score of the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group in spelling skills. However, the experimental group made significant progress over the intervention period, whereas the control group did not. This is due to the fact that students in experimental group were introduced to some key elements of language which helped them to master spelling skills.

In addition, the result of the second hypothesis supported that experimental group students significantly differed positively from those students in control group. Researchers also have an important role to play in terms of designing the individualized educational programs that address the special needs of students' writing. Hence, the researchers intentionally developed the intervention to be student-friendly, tailored towards improving students writing skills, and to be appropriate for all students. The result somehow confirmed previous studies strategy instructional methods successfully improved students with disabilities. In their study Cihak and Castle, (2011) found that students with disabilities made significant and improvement in writing skills. Walker et al. (2005) noted that delivering direct instruction in writing to students with learning disabilities led to improved outcomes in writing production and quality. Graham and Harris (2011) affirm that the use of direct instruction with students who struggle learning disabilities, as effective in aiding students to increase their writing performance.

To sum up, the present study reveals the effect of a an interventional training program tailored to assist students with learning disabilities. The findings have important implications for the intervention of spelling and writing problems. Nevertheless, the limited available body of research about Arabic learning disabilities intervention has repeatedly shown that more research needed in this area; hence, this study contributes to literature by developing training intervention to develop spelling and writing skills of students with LD. Like other studies, this study has some limitations. Firs, due to cultural and conservative nature of the education system in Saudi where girls are educated in separated schools, the sample includes students from elementary boys schools.

Findings can be generalized to other similar elementary schools in the country. Second, the entire data was gathered from self-report measures that is susceptible to inflated biases due to the influences of social desirability. Second, the research design adopted in this study is a quasi-experimental and hence, for more in-depth findings and for further directionality of variables effects, future researches can employ the longitudinal and correlation design. Lastly, the study sample is confined to students from three primary school in Rafha province limiting the findings generalizability. Therefore, future studies could include other students from other Saudi schools.

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THE EFFECT OF SINGING ON VOICE DISORDERS OF PARKINSON'S DISEASE:

A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

Fatemeh Majdinasab
PhD candidate of Speech and Language Pathology, Department of Speech Therapy, School of Rehabilitation, Teheran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran- Iran. Tel: 00989166018158
f-majdinasab@razi.tums.ac.ir
*Ahmadreza Khatoonabadi
Assistant Professor, Department of Speech Therapy, School of Rehabilitation, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran- Iran.
*corresponding author: Pich-e- Shemiran, Enghelab Ave, Department of speech therapy, School of Rehabilitation, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran- Iran. Telefax: 00982177636042
khatoonabadi@tums.ac.ir
Amirhassan Habibi
Assistant Professor, Department of Neurology, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran- Iran.
habibisaiyedamir@yahoo.com

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Abstract

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disease which has negative impact on all speech subsystems. Singing would be applied for improving voice disorders by preventing progression of respiration and phonation dysfunction, but actual impacts of singing on voice of PD are questionable. Thus, we systematically reviewed related studies to evaluate the effectiveness of singing in the voice disorders of people with pd. A computerized search through the PubMed, science direct, ProQuest, and Cochrane library was done using keyword as fallow: Parkinson's disease, speech, voice, music therapy, singing, choir, choral, and hypo-kinetic dysarthria. Out of 445 articles that were reviewed, 10 eligible articles were selected. Individual singing approach and various types of group singing, with or without voice therapy, have been used in reviewed studies. Almost all (90%) groups and individual approaches indicated positive effect on the improvement of voice characteristics of people with pd. Singing could be used solely or beside voice therapy in people with pd. Both individual and group singing are effective on the improvement of voice disorders in people with mild to moderate stage of PD (H&Y< 4). It seems that at least 6-8 weekly 60 minutes therapy sessions in the "on" phase of medication is required to obtain effectiveness. To evaluate the effect of singing on voice of advanced PD (h&y≥4) further studies are needed.

Key Words: Parkinson's Disease, Voice disorder, Music therapy, Singing

1. Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is the most common movement disorder (Yorkston, 1996) and the second neurodegenerative disease in the world (de Rijk et al., 1997). PD results in hypo-kinetic dysarthria which affects all subsystems of speech, namely, respiration, phonation, articulation and prosody (Ackermann & Ziegler, 1989; Darley, Aronson, & Brown, 1969; Kent, Weismer, Kent, Vorperian, & Duffy, 1999). Most distinct and frequent voice symptoms of PD include mono loudness, mono pitch, breathiness, harshness, and reduced loudness which are resulted from inappropriate vocal folds vibration, glottal closure incompetency, and decreased respiratory capacity and function (Skodda, Visser, & Schlegel, 2011). Voice is affected by PD more and sooner than motor characteristics (Majdinasab, Karkheiran, Soltani, Moradi, & Shahidi, 2016) and other speech subsystems (Ho, Iansek, Marigliani, Bradshaw, & Gates, 1998; Logemann, Fisher, Boshes, & Blonsky, 1978; Zwirner & Barnes, 1992); it can be led to decreased quality of life (Madjdinasab, Cheraghi, Moradi, Karkheiran, & Kamali, 2014; Silva, Gama, Cardoso, Reis, & Bassi, 2012). Generally, all voice therapy approaches focus on prevention of progression of respiration and phonation dysfunctions in PD. In recent decades, some types of treatments using singing have been developed for neurological voice disorders such as PD. Singing not only works on increasing loudness, which has been focused by common voice therapy approach in PD (i.e. Lee Silverman voice therapy) but it also emphasizes on changes of loudness and intonation of speech (Mahler, Ramig, & Fox, 2015). Moreover, deep and fast breathing is needed to prolong notes, so singing results in better vocal control (Natke, Donath, & Kalveram, 2003) and higher vocal intensity (Tonkinson, 1994). It is performed in verbal context and needs high level of auditory, visual and oral contribution that should be considered in progressive neurological diseases (Kleber, Veit, Birbaumer, Gruzelier, & Lotze, 2010). Consequently, singing and its treatment effects may have a protective role in voice rehabilitation in PD.

2. Literature Review

Some studies have been performed about the effect of singing on speech disorders derived from PD but their outcomes are controversial. The therapeutic impacts of singing in neurological disorders have been investigated just in one review article by Wan and Rüber (2010). They surveyed the influence of singing on stuttering, autism, aphasia, and PD indeed. This narrative review reported just two studies about the effect of singing in speech of people with PD. Both of these studies had limited sample size and investigated restricted "voice features" of PD. Accordingly, Wan and Rüber concluded that singing is particularly useful for diminishing some of motor speech disorders (Wan, Ruber, Hohmann, & Schlaug, 2010). Therefore, the effect of singing on voice disorders of PD is still questionable. The aim of this systematic review was to determine the efficacy of singing in "voice disorders" of persons suffering from PD.

3. Methods

3.1. Search Strategy

A computerized search through the MEDLINE via PubMed, Elsevier (science direct), ProQuest, and Cochrane library was done for publications from January 1990 to August 12, 2015. Moreover, searching with Google Scholar and a hand search of journal of Music Therapy, and Music Therapy Perspective were performed. In addition, related articles and reference lists of the selected articles were surveyed. A list of search terms was set up in order to search the literature systematically. It should be noted that "music therapy" was used as a keyword because of its widespread and

comprehensive concept which caused to be used beside or instead of "singing" in some studies. Diagram and table 1 illustrate the terms and flowchart of identified abstracts.

3.2. Study selection and eligibility criteria

Inclusion criteria to select studies consist of: 1) "singing" should be the basic therapy approach for speech disorders in PD; 2) singing therapies in any language with different approaches such as: individual or group singing (solo or choral singing) were included; 3) all participants with surgical or drug treatment were eligible, 4) all randomized controlled trials (RCTs), clinical trial studies about singing in speech disorders of PD were included. Review articles, letters to the editor, editorials, posters and unrelated papers were excluded from the present study.

To select the studies, the first author (FM) reviewed the topics of search outcome. The study selection was based on intervention content regardless of a person delivering the intervention (credentialed music therapist or credentialed speech and language pathologist); so, all studies which singing was the core part of treatment extracted from the other studies. For detailed investigation of articles, many different abstracts have been read carefully by two authors (FM, AK). For the final selection, full text studies assessed by all three authors independently according to the ASHA guidelines concerning levels-of-evidence (2001) mentioned in table 2 (Hurkmans et al., 2012). On the condition of any doubt about any article, the reviewers consulted together. In order to describe data in the articles, a list of variables was collected. Then all of the information about every study was allotted to three main domains: 1- Quality assessment according to ASHA levels-of-evidence scheme for the methodology of articles (Table3). Studies with score of < 4 on the ASHA quality rating scheme were excluded from our review. 2- Participant characteristics; including, patient's number, age, gender, drug condition, disease severity and duration, history of speech or music therapy and criteria for patient selection (Table 4). To provide a more reliable and detailed conclusion, variables with more than 50% missing information in articles (such as education, hand dominance…) did not mention in participant characteristics in table 4. 3- Intervention and outcome tasks, outcome measure and findings description; such as treatment approach, condition, and procedure, evaluation (Table 5).

4. Results

Four hundred forty-five related articles were derived through the combination of search terms. Many of them were excluded from our study for several reasons. For example, the main focus of some studies was on another neurological disease (not PD), or on motor disabilities of PD like gait disorders. Some other studies had considered other approaches of music therapy such as active or passive music therapy without singing; and importantly, some researches had not concentrated on speech characteristics especially voice features. Ultimately, 10 fully relevant articles were selected (Table1).

4.1. Methodological quality

An overview of the quality of the studies is presented in Table 3. The methodological quality of 10 researches varied from 4-7 (based on ASHA scale). All studies had pretest- posttest single group design except one, which was regarded as a case study (Perez-Delgado, 2007). The most frequent tasks were conversation (in 7 studies), reading "Rainbow" passage and maximum phonation time (5 studies). Frenchay dysarthria test and Rainbow passage were used as standard tests in some studies. Near 70% of studies investigated voice intensity and voice quality to acoustic evaluation of

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voice. Finally, all of the researches obviously reported the p-value of statistical analysis except one (Perez-Delgado, 2007).

4.2. Characteristics of participants

An overview of the accepted studies is depicted in Table 4. All researches, including PhD dissertation, MSc thesis or articles achieved an acceptable score on the basis of ASHA guidelines. Consequently, gender and age of participants were reported in all studies, except one (Tanner, 2012). Among those researches both gender were mentioned except one, which considered women only (E. Haneishi, 2001). The age range of patients was 56-77 years. Half participants were native English and the others spoke in other languages. All of the patients were idiopathic PD (IPD) except one study selected three persons with Parkinson plus syndrome beside IPD (E Haneishi, 2006). The onset time of disease were not juvenile or young onset type, and severity of disabilities was mild to moderate bilateral disease according to Hoehn & Yahr score (H&Y≤3). Fifty percent of studies clearly mentioned the conditions of PD drugs. Accordingly, they reported that their participants were in "on" phase of medication (period of time in which clinical improvement from a dose of levodopa is seen). Due to the fact that all behavioral interventions need adequate attention and sensory-motor abilities that existed by "on medication", it was concluded the other half of total participants had similar conditions and they were not in "off" phase of medication (Evans, Canavan, Foy, Langford, & Proctor, 2012; E. Haneishi, 2001; Perez-Delgado, 2007; Shih et al., 2012; Yinger & Lapointe, 2012). Disease duration and severity were not reported in three studies (E. Haneishi, 2001; E Haneishi, 2006; Tanner, 2012). Three other studies had no information about history of music training or speech therapy in the participants (Azekawa, 2011a; Di Benedetto et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2012). Consequently, two published articles did not report inclusion criteria and participant selection clearly(C. Elefant, F. Baker, M. Lotan, S. K. Lagesen, & G. Skeie, 2012; Yinger & Lapointe, 2012). Lack of dementia or any cognitive disorder was one of the most important inclusion criteria in %70 of studies.

4.3. Therapeutic Interventions

A summary of interventions presents in table 5. Although various studies with different names had been presented, "singing" was the main approach of all. Near all studies followed the same intervention steps, including respiration exercises to improve abdominal control of respiration, vocal exercises to improve phonation in a range of voice-pitch, and finally singing different famous songs in various intonation. Almost in %70 of studies, "group" singing therapy with or without voice therapy was used (Azekawa, 2011a; Di Benedetto et al., 2009; C Elefant et al., 2012; Evans et al., 2012; Shih et al., 2012; Tanner, 2012; Yinger & Lapointe, 2012). In the rest of the studies, music therapy voice protocol (MTVP) has been "individually" applied (E. Haneishi, 2001; E Haneishi, 2006; Perez-Delgado, 2007; Yinger & Lapointe, 2012) except one used in group(Yinger & Lapointe, 2012).

The total number of "group singing" sessions was 6-20 except one lasted up to 2 years (Evans et al., 2012). Each session was 50-120 minutes per week. The number of "individual singing" sessions (MTVP approach) was 6-14 varied between 1 to 4 times per week. Each MTVP session was 40-60 minutes.

Respectively, reading, conversation, spontaneous speech, and singing were the most frequent tasks used to acoustic and perceptual voice evaluation. Moreover, maximum phonation time (MPT) has

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been used in 60% of studies to physiological assessment of respiratory system (Azekawa, 2011a; Di Benedetto et al., 2009; E. Haneishi, 2001; E Haneishi, 2006; Shih et al., 2012; Tanner, 2012). Another task of physiological examination of respiration and phonation was proportion of prolonged phonemes of /S/ and /Z/ (S/Z ratio) established just in one study (Shih et al., 2012). Diadochokinesis test has been done by fast repetition of meaningless syllables of /pa/, /ta/, and /ka/ to evaluate speech rate (Azekawa, 2011a). Due to usage of various type of voice assessment tools in reviewed studies, such as Praat software, Computerized Speech Lab (CSL) and Multidimensional Voice Program (MDVP), several words have been mentioned to explain "same voice feature". For example: fundamental frequency (F0) variability, standard deviation of F0 (SD F0), frequency range, pitch range, and pitch variability all represent changes of F0 during different speech tasks. Voice intensity and vocal loudness refer to acoustic and perceptual parameters of amplitude of voice. In reviewed studies, both intonation and prosody of speech indicated pitch variation during speech tasks (Table 5). Intelligibility of speech has been assessed in 50% of studies and improved in all (Azekawa, 2011a; E. Haneishi, 2001; E Haneishi, 2006; Perez-Delgado, 2007; Tanner, 2012).

4.4. Effectiveness of intervention

The role of singing in improvement voice disorders was established by changes in acoustic, perceptual, and physiological features of voice, and quality of life modifications after singing. Increased F0 variability and vocal range, increased voice intensity, decrease in jitter and shimmer, and finally increase in harmonic to noise ratio (HNR) are the most common acoustic features of voice suggesting improvement after therapy (Table 5). On the other hand, higher loudness and voice quality with lower breathiness and harshness of voice are the most important perceptual features of voice evaluated in reviewed studies. Physiologically, changes in MPT and S/Z ratio were related to respiration and phonation systems. Higher MPT suggests better breathing control and coordination between respiration and phonation (Table 5). There would be two various types of frequent patient-based questionnaire, namely, voice related quality of life (VR-QOL) and voice handicap index (VHI) which have been suggested quality of life changes followed by therapy.

Almost all of group singing therapies, except study by Shih et al, positively affect on voice of patients. Although, F0 and F0 variability, voice intensity, physiological and quality of life modifications after therapy surveyed by Shih et al, no changes or improvement in mentioned variables have been reported (Shih et al., 2012). Half of "group therapies" had significant influence on "all" assessed voice features such as voice intensity and quality, pitch and prosodic parameters, MPT and respiratory function (Di Benedetto et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2012; Tanner, 2012). Two other studies with group singing approach showed relative improvements in "some" of voice and speech characteristics (Azekawa, 2011a, 2011b; C. Elefant, F. A. Baker, M. Lotan, S. K. Lagesen, & G. O. Skeie, 2012). According to Elefant study, five out of six voice features related to singing task improved by singing therapy. Moreover, patient's handicap derived from physical characteristics of voice (VHI score) reduced after therapy(C Elefant et al., 2012). Azekawa suggested intelligibility of speech has been amended by singing therapy more than voice features (Azekawa, 2011a).

As previously mentioned, MTVP almost performed individually. It had a positive effect on voice features such as increased voice quality, increased voice intensity, and higher breathing control, by any individual and group approach (Azekawa, 2011a; E. Haneishi, 2001; E Haneishi, 2006; Perez-Delgado, 2007).

5. Discussion

Voice is affected more and sooner than other speech subsystems in PD, and has a negative impact on communication and quality of life. The purpose of present review was to investigate the efficacy of singing therapy on voice disorders of people with PD. A systematic search of the literature yielded 10 studies with different types of individual or group singing approaches. All studies which concentrated on "voice outcome measures" including acoustic, perceptual, psychosocial, and patient- based measures selected in this study. Results from this review fully provide new information about the effectiveness of non-speech therapy approaches in improvement of "voice" disabilities of PD as a neurodegenerative disease. Due to musical elements of singing (such as rhythm, tempo and fundamental frequency modulation), it is a useful therapy approach to improve voice and prosodic disorders of people suffering from PD (Kleber et al., 2010). In addition to vocal improvement in all reviewed studies, both two studies which are surveyed intonation of speech suggested better prosody of speech after singing (Di Benedetto et al., 2009; E Haneishi, 2006). More studies on prosody of speech after singing is required to exact conclusion.

On the other side, adequate and accurate function of respiration and phonation beside good integration between them is necessary to have normal voice. Singing activates sensory and motor processing and stimulates all speech subsystems especially respiration and phonation (Kleber et al., 2010). All articles evaluated MPT suggested better breathing capacity and phonation control after singing therapy (Azekawa, 2011a; Di Benedetto et al., 2009; E. Haneishi, 2001; E Haneishi, 2006; Shih et al., 2012; Tanner, 2012). Quality of life related to voice disabilities evaluated in three studies which all showed improvement post treatment (C Elefant et al., 2012; Shih et al., 2012; Tanner, 2012). It may demonstrates singing improves quality of life by reducing voice disorders.

5.1. Group or individual therapy?

In reviewed studies, singing therapy approaches were performed in two main conditions: individual and group model. Regarding to the group singing therapy all studies had effective role on voice features and speech intelligibility except one that reported no changes after therapy (Shih et al., 2012). As we know PD is a progressive disease, therefore, no progression of voice disorders may suggest positive impact of therapy on voice disabilities. In spite of the fact that the study by Shih *et al* has achieved the highest methodological quality (score 7), the voice and choral singing treatment (VCST) by Di Benedetto was most comprehensive and practical approach to improve voice disorders in PD (Di Benedetto et al., 2009). The strengths of Di Benedetto's study could be the larger sample size and using acoustic, perceptual and physiological voice evaluations comprehensively. Furthermore, VCST approach consisted of 20 hours speech therapy included orofacial relaxation and exercises, respiratory and laryngeal exercises, and prosodic exercises in addition to 26 hours group singing therapy. Relatively, better respiratory control and function, decrease fatigue during reading, and increase prosody of speech were established by this method. It seems that voice and prosodic exercises in group VCST had effective role to improve voice disorders of patients with PD.

Due to the treatment procedure, all group voice and singing therapies have been performed for 50-120 minutes sessions per week lasted for 6-20 weeks except study by Evans (2012). It was the longest therapy period lasted two years. It showed improvement only in 3 out of 28 parts of Frenchay dysarthria test including laryngeal pitch, laryngeal volume, and laryngeal speech (Evans et al., 2012). It seems that prolonged interventions have less therapeutic efficiency than intensive

therapy sessions. It is worth mentioning, voice features are affected more than other speech characteristics by singing therapy.

On the other side, Music therapy voice protocol (MTVP) is the most common singing therapy which is used individually, but in one study it has been used by group (Yinger & Lapointe, 2012). It showed significant role in voice and speech improvement in both individual and group. In the very first study of MTVP done by Haneishi (2001), relative improvement was seen in intelligibility and vocal intensity, but in his next study (2006), in spite of reduction of therapy sessions, it showed more and comprehensive effects on all evaluated aspects of voice (E Haneishi, 2006). Given that MTVP exercises affected all parts of respiration, phonation, and articulation subsystems, it had positive impacts on voice features of patients. It seems that small sample size in the first study by Haneishi is the main reason of less meaningful outcomes (E. Haneishi, 2001). Perez-Delgado et *al.* revised MTVP approach and presented an intensive model, which had significant impacts on voice (Perez-Delgado, 2007). The only one group MTVP study had relative influence on voice (Yinger & Lapointe, 2012). Although more group studies with more sample size need for better conclusion, it seems that both types of MTVP are entirely appropriate methods of music therapy for PD.

According to the treatment procedure the minimum number and duration of MTVP (individual approach) were one session per week for 6-8 weeks, and its maximum intensive sessions were 12-14 sessions 3-4 times per week. Each session lasted up 40-60 minutes. Both intensive and non-intensive approaches were effective. It seems at least 40- 60 minutes of MTVP weekly sessions for 6-8 weeks is needed to abate PD voice disorders.

5.2. History of speech therapy and play music

Most of the patients with PD did not have any history of singing, musical performance, and speech and voice therapy, but significantly their voice features improved after singing therapy. It suggests singing, music backgrounds and speech therapy are not essential for singing therapy. Consequently, each and every person without any history of singing and voice therapy can benefit from singing therapy.

5.3. Medication and disease severity

Singing exercises need high level of attention and motor coordination. The best condition of singing is after taking levodopa during "on" phase of medication. On the other hand, cognitive abilities assist in understanding and implementing treatment techniques appropriately. People with advanced PD or PD with dementia are suffering from cognitive problems. There was no dementia or cognitive impairment in the participants of reviewed studies; so, all patients had adequate cognitive abilities to understand and perform singing therapy.

Hoehn & Yahr score is one of the most widely used method to assess the severity of PD. The range of its score is between 0-5 that higher score suggests more movement disabilities. Near 70% of reviewed researches measured patients' disabilities by H&Y. These set of studies suggest that singing therapy have positive influences on voice features of both males and females with mild to moderate bilateral disabilities of PD (H&Y score≤3). Further researches with more comprehensive scale such as Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) are needed for detailed scoring of motor disabilities and investigate the effects of singing on advanced PD (H&Y≥4).

6. Conclusion

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This systematic review suggests that both kinds of individual and group singing have an effective role in improvement of voice disorders in people with PD. A Couple of prerequisites should be met such as having at least 60 minutes therapy sessions for 6-8 weeks in the "on" phase of medication to obtain significant positive outcomes. Singing is an appropriate method for patients with disease severity less than 4 (by H&Y scale) and without dementia or cognitive impairment. Singing therapy could be used solely or beside voice therapy in patients with PD to improve respiration and phonation disfunctions. More studies concentrated on comprehensive voice assessment and evaluation tasks is suggested for future trends. Having more sample size, clarifying changes of medication either in dose and type and following up state, are going to be regarded as prerequisites comprehensive future studies

Limitations

There were limited high-quality studies about the effect of singing on speech and voice of Parkinson's disease; and some studies not published in scientific journals. We need more qualified studies with larger samples to stronger conclusion of effectiveness of singing in PD.

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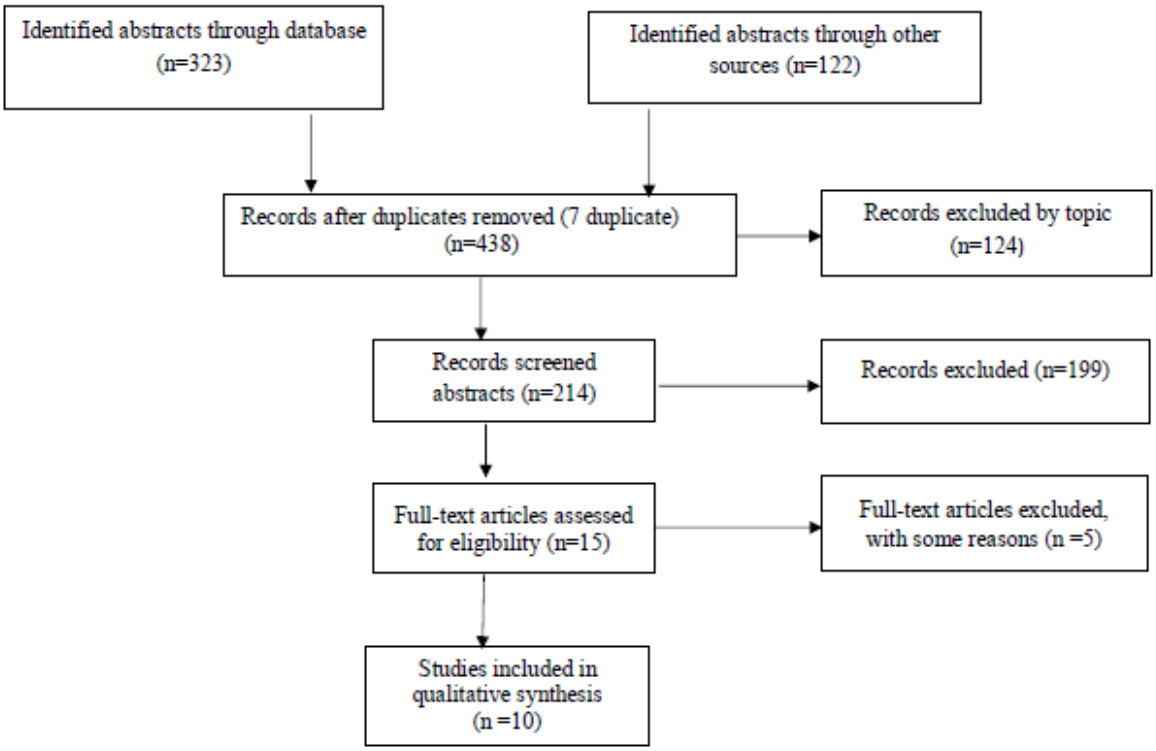

Diagram1: Flowchart of study selection

Table1. Search terms and a flowchart for identified abstracts

Database	**Search terms**	**Identified abstracts**	**Excluded abstracts**
PubMed	a: Search ((((music therapy[Title/Abstract]) OR singing[Title/Abstract]) OR choral[Title/Abstract]) OR choir[Title/Abstract]) OR music[Title/Abstract] b: search (((Parkinson[Title/Abstract]) OR Parkinson's disease[Title/Abstract]) OR hypokinetic dysarthria[Title/Abstract]) OR neurologic[Title/Abstract]	**a: 13053** **b: 132721** **c: 125** **d:122349** **e: 28**	

	C: #a AND #b: d: Search ((speech[Title/Abstract]) OR voice[Title/Abstract]) OR acoustic[Title/Abstract] e: #c AND #d:		
Google scholar	Parkinson "Parkinson's disease" speech voice "music therapy" singing choir	**97**	
ProQuest	ab("music therapy" or singing) AND ab((parkinson OR hypokinetic dysarthria)) AND ab((speech OR voice))	**12**	
Elsevier/ science Direct	Search results: 191 results found for pub-date > 1990 and (("music therapy") OR (singing) OR(choral)) AND ((Parkinson) OR (hypokinetic dysarthria)) AND LIMIT-TO(cids, "271072,271171,271029,271080,276883,271067,272877,272508,271362,272006,271071","Neuroscience Letters,Parkinsonism & Related Disorders,Journal of the Neurological Sciences,Brain Research,Revue Neurologique,Neurobiology of Aging,Journal of Voice,NeuroImage,Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectr...,Clinical Neurophysiology,Neuroscience") AND LIMIT-TO(topics, "patient,parkinson disease,human,parkinson,voice,music,brain,medical center,disease").	**191**	
Iranian databases	Parkinson and music therapy (in English and Persian)	-	
Oxford journals	Parkinson neurologic (any words in title) music singing (any words in title or abstract) Feb 1990 through Oct 2015	**92**	
Reference check		**25**	
Total		**445**	

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abstracts			
Exclusion criteria	Repeated papers, reviews/ letters or editorial, no therapeutic plan, other neurological disease		**345**
Final selected articles		**10**	

Table 2: Quality indicators in the ASHA levels-of-evidence scheme (2001)

Indicator	**Description**	**Quality marker**
Study design	The type of design used in the study	Controlled trial=1 Retrospective case control=1 Single participant study=1 Case series=0 Case study=0
Blinding	The practice of keeping investigators or participants Ignorant of the group to which participants are assigned. For the purposes of the critical appraisal, *blinding* refers to assessors only	Assessors blinded=1 Assessors not blinded or not stated=0
Sampling	The method(s) used to choose and assign participants to the experimental conditions in the study	Random sample adequately described=1 Random sample inadequately described=0 Convenience sample adequately described=0 Convenience sample inadequately described or hand-picked sample or not

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		stated=0
Group/participant comparability	How similar the participants/groups were at the start of the study or how adequately they were described	Groups/participants comparable at baseline on important factors (*between-participant design*) or participant(s) adequately described=1 Groups/participants not comparable at baseline or comparability not reported or participant(s) not adequately described=0
Treatment fidelity	The procedure used to ensure that the treatment was delivered as intended	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1 No evidence of treatment fidelity=0
Outcomes	The measure(s) used in the study to quantify improvement	At least one primary outcome measure is valid and reliable=1 Validity unknown but appears reasonable; measure is reliable= 0 Invalid and/or unreliable=0
Significance	The likelihood that the study findings occurred by chance	P value reported or calculable=1 P value neither reported nor calculable=0
Precision	The size or magnitude of any difference found between the treatment under investigation and the control condition	Effect size and confidence interval reported or calculable=1 Effect size or confidence interval, but not both, reported or calculable=0 Neither effect size nor confidence interval reported or calculable=0

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Intention-to-treat (controlled trials only)	Participants are analyzed according to the group to which they are initially assigned, regardless of whether or not they dropped out, fully complied with the treatment, or crossed over and received the other treatment	Analyzed by intention-to-treat=1 Not analyzed by intention-to-treat=0

Table 3: Quality assessment of articles

Study	**Study design**	**Blinding**	**Sampling**	**Group/participant comparability**	**Treatment fidelity**	**Outcomes**	**Significance**	**Precision**	**Intention to treat**	**total**
Haneishi 2001	0	not stated =0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid & reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size or confidence interval, but not both=0	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	5
Haneishi 2006	Controlled trial=1	not stated =0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid & reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size or confidence interval, but not both=0	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	6
Perez-Delgado	Case study =0	not blinded=0	not stated=0	participant(s) adequately described=	Evidence of treatment	At least one outco	P value neither reported nor	Neither effect size nor confide	Analyzed by inten	4

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2007				1	fidelity=1	me measure is valid & reliable=1	calculable=0	nce interval reported or calculable=0	tion-to-treat =1	
Di Benedetto 2009	0	not stated =0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid &reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size or confidence interval, but not both=0	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	5
Evans 2011	0	not blinded=0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid &reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size or confidence interval, but not both=0	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	5
Elefant 2012	0	not stated =0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid &reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size or confidence interval, but not both=0	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	5
Shih 2012	0	Assessors blinded=1	not stated=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measu	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size and confidence interval reporte	Analyzed by intention-to-	7

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						re is valid &reliable=1		d or calculable=1	treat =1	
Yinger 2012	0	not stated =0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid &reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size & confidence interval reported /calculable=1	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	6
Azekawa 2011	0	not stated =0	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid &reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Neither effect size nor confidence interval reported or calculable=0	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	5
Tanner 2012	0	Assessors blinded=1	Convenience sample adequately described=0	participant(s) adequately described=1	Evidence of treatment fidelity=1	At least one outcome measure is valid &reliable=1	P value reported or calculable=1	Effect size & confidence interval reported=1	Analyzed by intention-to-treat =1	7

Table4: Basic characteristics of patients

Study	**N**	**sex**	**Age (year)**	**Patient's language**	**Etiology**	**Disease duration**	**Disease severity**	**Drug condition**	**History of Speech therapy/ music**	**Patient selection and criteria**

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									experience	
Haneishi 2001	4	F	67-77	English	PD	….	….	….	No ST No ME	- No dementia - No depression - Sufficient hearing and visual acuity
Haneishi 2006	20 PD: 10 HC: 10	PD:7M HC: 6M	PD:68.9 HC:70.0	Japanese	PD: 17 Parkinson syndromes: 3	….	H&Y=3	ON	2 PD had ST 3HC had ST 6 PD had ME 4 HC had ME	- No dementia - No laryngeal pathology - Sufficient hearing and visual acuity
Perez-Delgado 2007	6	4M	70.33	Spanish	PD	10.33	….	….	NO ST No ME	- No dementia or Alzheimer's

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										disease
Di Benedetto 2009	20	13M	66±9	Italian	PD	7± 4.1	H&Y:2 UPDRS: 26	ON	….	- No dementia - No depression - No alcoholism or drug abuse -No psychiatric illness - No head injury
Evans 2012	17	11M	67	English	PD	9	….	….	….	- No mobility or personal care disorders - literate in English
Elefant 2012	10	7M	64±8.9	Norwegian	PD	4.2± 1.4	H&Y:2-3	ON	1 PD had ME	….
Shih 2012	13	11M	66	Hebre	PD	9	H&Y: 2.2	….	NO ST	- VHI>8

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				w			UPDRS: 26.2			- MMSE> 24 (no dementia)
Yinger 2012	10	7M	72	English	PD	8.1	….	….	7 had ME 10 had ST	….
Azekawa 2011	5	3M	70.8± 10	English	PD	8.2	H&Y:2.6	ON	….	-No other neurological or cognitive deficits - H&Y:1-3 - Onset of PD: after age 55
Tanner 2012	28	….	….	English	PD	….	H&Y≤3	ON	No ST during singing therapy	- Sufficient hearing and visual acuity - No cognitive deficits - H&Y≤3

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N: number of participants, F: female, PD: idiopathic Parkinson's disease, ST: Speech Therapy, ME: Music Experience, HC: Healthy Control, M: male, H&Y: Hoehn and Yahr PD severity rating scale,

UPDRS: Unified Parkinson's disease Rating Scale (motor part), VHI: Voice Handicap Index, MMSE: Mini Mental State Examination

Table 5: The results of intervention and outcome measures of studies

Study	**Objective**	**Treatment approach**	**Treatment condition**	**Treatment procedure**	**Evaluation tasks**	**Outcome measure**	**Findings**
Haneishi 2001	Effects of MTVP on speech intelligibility, vocal acoustic & mood of PD	MTVP	Individual	12 - 14 sessions 3 times per week 60 minutes per session	Reading Conversation Singing MPT	- F0, SD F0, Voice intensity, Maximum voice range - Intelligibility of speech - MPT	- Increase vocal intensity - Increase intelligibility of speech
Haneishi 2006	Effects of MTVP on perceptual & acoustic parameters of PD	MTVP	Individual	8 sessions once a week 60 minutes per session	Reading MPT	- Voice quality, intensity and range - Intonation of speech - Intelligibility of speech - MPT	- Increase voice quality, intensity, and range - Increase intonation of speech - Increase intelligibility of speech
Perez-Delgado 2007	Effect of MTVP on speech intelligibili	MTVP	Individual	12 sessions 4 times	Conversation	- Intelligibility of	- Increase in voice volume - Increase

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	ty & mood changes of PD			per week 40 minutes per session		speech	breathing control - Increase intelligibility of speech
Di Benedetto 2009	Voice and choral singing treatment (VCST); a new approach for speech and voice disorders in PD	VCST	Group	10-13 sessions **-Speech Therapy:** 20 hours, 2 times per week 60 minutes per session **- Group singing**: 26 hours, once a week 120 minutes per session	Reading Conversation Spontaneous speech MPT	-F0, F0 variability, Jitter, Shimmer, Peak amplitude variation, F0 tremor intensity index, Amplitude tremor intensity index, Prosody of reading and spontaneous speech, Auditory quality of voice - MPT	- Increase breathing control - Increase prosody - Decrease fatigue during reading
Evans 2011	Can group singing provide effective speech therapy for PD	Singing	Group	2 hours singing every fortnight for two years	Counting (0-5) Conversation Singing	Frenchay Dysarthria Test subtests PDQ39	- Increase laryngeal pitch - Increase laryngeal volume - Increase

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							laryngeal speech
Elefant 2012	The effect of group music therapy on mood, speech, and singing in PD	Vocal & singing program	Group	20 sessions once a week 60 minutes per session	Reading Singing	- F0, F0 variability, Voice intensity, Consistency of intensity, Maximum vocal range - VHI	-Improve five out of six vocal parameters related to singing -Improve physical subscale of VHI
Shih 2012	A pilot study of singing in group (SING-PD) for PD-related voice disorders	Singing	Group	12 sessions once a week 90 minutes per session	- Reading - Spontaneous speech - MPT - Prolonged /S /and /Z/	- F0, F0 variability, Vocal loudness - MPT - S/ Z ratio -VRQOL, VHI	- No change or improvement
Yinger 2012	Group music therapy voice protocol (G-MTVP) in PD	MTVP	Group	6-12 sessions (6weeks) 1-2 times per week 50 minutes per	Reading conversation	- F0, SD F0, Voice intensity	- Increase intensity of conversation

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				session			
Azekawa 2011	Effect of group vocal & singing exercises for vocal and speech deficits in PD	MTPHD	Group	6 sessions once a week 50 minutes per session	Reading Spontaneous speech MPT DDK: /pa, ta, ka/	-F1, F2, Jitter, Shimmer, HNR - Intelligibility of speech - MPT -DDK rate	- Increase F0 -Increase intelligibility
Tanner 2012	Effect of group vocal exercises and choral singing on voice of PD	Vocal & singing program	Group	6 sessions once a week 90 minutes per session	Reading Conversation MPT	- F0, SDF0, Frequency range, Intensity range, Average intensity -Speech CAPE, Singing CAPE - Intelligibility of speech - MPT -VRQOL	- Increase F0 during reading - Increase maximum intensity, - Increase intelligibility of speech

MTVP: music therapy voice protocol, PD: Parkinson's disease, MPT: maximum phonation time, F0: fundamental frequency, SDF0: standard deviation of F0, PDQ 39: Parkinson's disease Questionnaire

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– 39, VHI: Voice Handicap Index, V-RQOL: Voice-Related Quality of Life, MTPHD: Music Therapy Protocol for Hypokinetic Dysarthria, DDK: diadochokinesis, F1: first formant, F2: second formant, CAPE: Consensus Auditory Perceptual Evaluation of Voice

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SELF-MYTHOLOGIZING THROUGH MIRROR OF OTHERS: A PSYCHOANALYTICAL READING OF PAUL AUSTER'S GHOSTS

Mohammad Amin Shirkhani
Research Scholar in Department of English & Cultural Studies.
Panjab University. India
Mail: Aminshirkhani0114@gmail.com
Ph. (0091) 7347471433

Abstract

Auster's novel *Ghost* is the center novel in a trilogy, but can be read as a standalone work. The story, which plays on the trope of the detective story gene, is important in the psychological concept of the development of the self, especially as it relates to the view of the other. More specifically, Black, and his life, become a mirror for Blue, providing him with the opportunity to self-reflect, and ultimately to develop his own self-myth. This is closely related to the psychoanalytical principles of Freud and Lacan, especially as it relates to the way that Auster uses the convention of the detective genre, to interrogate the role of the ego, and the ongoing negotiation between the inner child, and the adult. More specifically, the development of self-myth, as enabled through the reflection of the other, allows the individual to negotiate between the super ego, and the id, in order to satisfy the need for both understanding life events, and learning from them.

Keywords*:* Paul Auster, psychoanalysis, self-myth, *Ghost, Others*

1. Introduction

The literary critics beleive that there are three sides to every story, the first person's side, the second persons' side, and the truth. This same structure can be seen in the development of an individual's personal truth. Psychoanalytically, there is the super-ego's side, which is strict, and working to counter the id, at all cost, the id's side, which is narcissistic, and seeking destruction, and the ego-who negotiates between the two, seeking the truth. However, it can be a challenge for the ego to find the middle ground. Auster's work, *Ghosts* is predicated upon the concept that man is constantly seeking to discover his own truth, and that he does so by self-mythologizing. More specifically, Blue, when forced to sit and do "nothing" ultimately turns to his own interior life, for something to fill the time. He begins to write stories, while watching that are about himself. These stories are the foundation of his self-myth, and a psychoanalytical purpose, as it relates to the negotiation between his ego, and his other two selves.

Ghosts, which is predominantly a detective fiction, ultimately works as a philosophical and psychological work, or an allegory, for the discovery of self. The *Ghos*t, as promised by the title is

not the phantom of the dead, but rather the phantom of the living, and represent the "False positions" from our past that allow infirmity, or misgivings of the id, to determine our "nature" or our portrait of self (Auster 56). As such, it is relevant to consider what those Ghosts are, and how self-analysis, through the mirror of others, can help resolve the ghosts, laying them to rest within the fabric of self-myth, and allowing the individual to build a future without their haunting.

Review of the Literature

The Psyche: Variations of Self

Freud held that we have not one, but three selves, who make up an individual's whole psycho self. These three parts of the psyche, the id, the ego and the super ego, each perform a different function, and interact with one another to create a person's mental life. The id is driven by instinct, and so is naturally interested in ensuring that our needs are met, at the physical and emotional level. An individual, driven by the impulses of the id, therefore, acts and reacts as a child, and is sometimes referred to as an 'inner child" (Weber 1). Decisions made by the id, if left unchecked by the other elements of the self, can be self-involved, and flawed by self-absorbed perceptions ("The Ego and the Id" 1). Secondarily, the super-ego is the moral compass, or conscience, which is constantly fighting against the id, and working to do what is right, instead of what is needed (Myers, 2010). Finally, the ego works to negotiate between the Id and the Super-ego, so that an individual can function as an adult, or work to meet the needs of the inner child, while also doing what is right ("The Ego and the Id" 1).

This negotiation is said to take the form of the ego's voice, or the creation of internal speech that forms an inner monologue. The monologue, then, refers to a semi-constant, and semi-conscious conversation with one's self, that is similar to the rehearsal of a speech, and which contains the detail of the negotiation between instinct and the conscience, while actively engaging the sensory part of the brain with subconscious decision making (Amoros & Tumanov 289). Within *Ghosts* then, Auster is allowing the reader to engage in Blue's internal monologue, as his Psyche negotiates his position, and he develops his own self-myth.

Self-Myth

The self-myth is a well-developed, and relatively meaningfully understood psychological concept. It is, more specifically, the story that one consciously or sub-consciously writes about themselves, in order to satisfy the needs of the id, and establish meaning in life. (Krippner 17). This is not fundamentally different than the way that a cultural myth operates, in establishing the importance of belief systems, and explaining that which man needs to understand, but cannot explain on their own.

The term self-myth was first used by Carl Eisteinen, when he was working to describe a specific feature in another artist's work. He stated that the art was part of the individual's "private myth" which uses art as a means to explore the significance of personal experience, and to create meaning around certain thoughts and feelings (Feinstein & Krippner 111). More specifically, Tad Waddington states that the process of developing a self-myth is important because it allows the self to create a hero version of its identity, or to literally become a hero in their own myth (1). This can be more clearly understood by considering the work of the ancient Greeks, who were known for their myths, like Gilgamesh, Antigone, Medea, Hercules, and others. What all of the mythic characters within these stories have in common is that they were tragically flawed, but ultimately

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uniquely capable of overcoming that flaw, and experiencing greatness. As such, the traditional literary purposes of the myth can be applied to the self-myth as well.

According to literary scholar Joseph Campbell myths are designed to establish, or negotiate the connection between society, and self, and between history, and future aspiration (9). Historically, myths were thus developed to explain phenomenon that there was no other explanation for, though today they are frequently used to explore the connection between events, and to make connections between the past and the current (Campbell 19). Bearing this in mind, Campbell states that there are four things that myths do, which are important to creating meaning: providing understanding, recording what did not work, validating an individual's role in society, or their individual importance, and teaching, or providing instruction to allow the individual to learn from the past, and act in a particular way moving forward (Campbell 38-39).

As such, the self-myth allows the individual to realize their own greatness in the same way that traditional myths served pedagogically to inspire greatness in the reader (Warmoth 18). According to Krippner, when one uses their stories in the development of personal myth, they become uniquely able to change how they view their personality, and interact with others (7).

This self-mythologizing is a particular topic of interest within Auster's work, because he tends to write in a style that is similar to stream of consciousness. This is first visible in his forest work *The Invention of Solitude,* which was an exploration of his own self-myth, and which provides an extended internal monologue, and follows Auster as he rediscovers himself (Couser & Fichtelberg 4).

Similarly, Auster's *New York Trilogy*, of which *Ghosts* is the central text, uses self-reflection, as a means of discovery, expanding the construct of the self-myth. Domovitz (2006) states that the novel demands some self-reflection, and growing self-consciousness, but which does not necessarily indicate full understanding of the self (1). Within *Ghosts* this is specifically seen in the internal monologue of the Blue character, and the way that he begins to explore the self, through his interaction with the growing myth he is constructing about Black.

Psychoanalysis

Inherent in the development of self-myth is psychoanalysis. Psychoanalysis is the process of understanding, or analyzing the psyche as it relates it human behavior (Freud, "The Uncanny" 1). Freud argued that what a person physically acts out is merely a reflection of what he is thinking and feeling on the inside. This is important because in order to understand what a person does, you must also understand not only what he is thinking, and feeling, but also why he is thinking and feeling it. In essence, psychoanalysis asks what each of the three individuals within the psyche, the id, the super-ego, and the ego, are thinking, feeling, and needing, and how that leads to a specific action ("The Ego and the Id" 1). As such, the motivation for action becomes just as important as the action itself.

Lacan also wrote extensively about psychoanalysis, but focused on desires, rather than the subconscious (Lacan 17). He argued that the ego is not unconscious, but rather constructed. This means that the ego is not the negotiation between the id and the super-ego, which writes the self-myth, but rather than the ego is an innovation, or invention of the imagination, and is the output of the self-myth (Lacan 4). As such, a person's actions are driven by their desires, and perceived needs, including the need to feel validated, and their vision of their self comes out of that validation

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(Lacan 17). This means that the self is more connected to the perception of others, and what an individual thinks that others are thinking. As such, it is important to consider not only the self, and their self-myth, but also how the behavior of others contributes to the development of that myth.

Research Methods

The current study is interested in considering the relationship between the self, and the other, in Auster's work *Ghosts.* As such, the following study will use textual analysis of Blue's statements within the novel in order to determine how he uses Black as a reflection of himself, in order to engage in self-discovery, and craft his self-myth. This analysis will allow the researcher to understand how the perception of others is directly tied into the analysis of self, and the need for validation, as it shapes future action and even self-analysis. Elements of psychoanalysis were used, to investigate how the character Blue constructs his self-myth and why it is needed within the text.

Results

The story *Ghosts,* as previously mentioned is a play on the classic detective novel. As such, Blue is a kind of gumshoe, sent out to monitor Black. It is within this dynamic that Auster creates a space for Blue to explore himself. More specifically, Blue states that watching Black was the mental equivalent to doing nothing: "For to watch someone read and write is in effect to do nothing. The only way for Blue to have a sense of what is happening is to be inside Black's mind, to see what he is thinking, and that of course is impossible" (Auster 13). And since he cannot be inside Black's stream of consciousness, he instead is forced to make up Black's reality, or to engage in a self-monologue which he connects to his observation of Black.

Black, then, becomes the "Other" who is the mirror for his own self-discovery, or the hero in the myth that will later frame his own self-myth. While the stories he is making up are "about" Black, Blue becomes increasingly aware that they were ultimately small self-myths, which combine to create his truth. More specifically, as he becomes aware of his own role in his writing, he argues against this: "This isn't the story of my life, after all, he says, I'm supposed to be writing about him, not myself." (Auster 74). However, as the text progresses, he realizes they are more about him than they are Black, and ultimately in that, finds the meaning that he seeks, or accepts the development of his own myth. This is because watching Black has served as a mirror for his introspection regarding his own life, and so his reports, and writing about Black have provided him the space to discover, or fulfill his own need, as it relates to the validation and analysis of self.

The fact that Black is being used, by Auster, as a mirror for Blue's development of the self-myth is first presented physically within the text. White, who hired Blue to Watch black, had rented an apartment that is right across an ally from Black, so that it is easier for Blue to go about his business, while also watching Black full time. As a result, Auster presents a physical mirror of the two men, sitting at the window, writing, in opposite windows. Black is sitting at his desk writing, and Blue is sitting at the window, watching Black, and generating a report regarding his observation of Blue. As such, according to Arce, black is blues double whose place by the window "Constantly reflects Blue's thoughts and actions" (92).

Blue, perceives himself as doing nothing and as unable to predict the thoughts of Black, and unable to communicate action, because there is nothing happening. As a result, when he becomes frustrated by "doing nothing" tries to go on with his life, but finds himself trapped within the case. This is a further reflection, physically acted out by Auster's choices within the text that demonstrate

that Blue and Black are mirror reflections, and so tied to one another within the myth. In essence, they are two sides of the same story, or they are tied within Blue's discovery of self. As a detective, he is committed to the case, and must pursue it to its inevitable conclusion, or in this case his ability to resolve his own past, and move forward, and he cannot move forward until the understanding, and the story are complete. More specifically, as analyzed by Arce, he cannot be "free" until the narration is complete, and the story resolved (92). This phenomenon is, from psychological position, defined by MacIntyre, in his text *After Virtue,* when creating a self-myth, coming to an end is important: "his discussion of moral philosophy's standing today, he explains the "concept of selfhood, a concept of a self whose unity resides in the unity of a narrative which links birth to life to death as a narrative beginning to middle to end" (205). As such, it is only by killing the mirror of his self, in the eventual murder of Black, that he can symbolize the end of the myth, and his ability to move forward, into his own life, taking the understanding that he gained through the myth with him (198). Given this connection between himself, and the other, it is useful to further consider the way that Black acts as his mirror within the text, and the way that this allows for his development of his own story, or the development of his self-myth, and the truth and value that is inherent within that myth.

This development of the myth is dependent on the power of words and of writing. This is closely tied to Freud, and his theory that the negotiation that occurs between the ego, and the other parts of the psyche often works itself out, through writing. More specifically, Blue states that he is coming to some understanding "one step at a time, own word and then the next" (162). Similarly, Freud studied the psychological need of the writer, and explained the creation of the self-myth, by stating that writers are engaged in writing as a means of creating understanding. This understanding is based on the functions of the myth, and the self's availability to act as a hero, because "all [writers] have a hero who is the center of interest." This hero, however, is self-created, because it is "his majesty the Ego, the hero if all day dreams and novels" ("The relation of the poet…" 40). This means that when confining Blue to the act of observing and writing, that he is also reducing his life only to the discovering "exactly he thing described" (Auster 174). Because he must find words that fits and function and his purpose.

More specifically, when he finds that watching Black gives him only limited insight, because of his inability to see into the mind of another man, that he ultimately falls back on what he knows, and engages with his own internal world (Auster 13; 74). This allows him to have a greater understanding of his real position. More specifically, he realizes that he has been spending too little time on his internal life, processing, or dealing with, his feelings and needs. He states that he has distracted himself with physical activity, so that he did not have to analyze, or actively consider the failings in his own life. This is, according to Rogers, in keeping with the theme of Auster's larger body of works, which are concerned with the "I" in the text, and for whom "Auster's writing turns around 'aphanisis,' the process by which a subject disappears as soon as it has appeared to consciousness. Dissociation, alienation and imperfection characterize the subject which is inaccessible by nature." (1). The narrator reveals that Blue has been successfully moving along the "surface" of things, never taking time to think through, analyze, or accept the deeper psychological things that are occurring in his psyche, or failing to deal with his own thoughts and emotions leading to dissociation or alienation from self. More specifically, he states:

He has never given much thought to the world inside him, and though he always knew it was there, it has remained an unknown quantity, unexplored and therefore dark, even to himself. He

has moved rapidly along the surface of things for as long as he can remember, fixing his attention on these surfaces only in order to perceive them, sizing up one and then passing on the next, and he has always taken pleasure in the world as such, asking no more of things than that they be there. (Auster 19).

However, watching Black, forces him to begin telling his own stories, and ultimately, the introspection that his necessary to the creation of the self-myth. First, he realizes that storytelling, or thinking about the deeper things is "enjoyable" and then expands to considering their meaning, eventually coming to the understanding that he is not what, or who he thought he was. That essentially, in only skimming along the surface, he has allowed himself to be, emotionally and psychologically, in a place that he is not. He states: "We are not where we are, he finds, but in a false position" (Auster 200). This is also reflected in the writings of *Walden,* by Thoreau, which Blue reads within the book *Ghosts*. More specifically, Auster sites the passage which states "we are not where we were" directly from *Walden,* who goes on to state "Through an infirmity in our natures, we suppose a case, and put ourselves into it, and hence are in two cases at the same time, and it is doubly difficult to get out (325)." This is, however an unsettling discovery, because he realizes he has no connection with himself, and he must find his way to connect who he thought he was with who he actually is. This is a negotiation of the needs explored in psychoanalysis, or as described by Lacan as understanding desire, and analyzing what action must be taken for that desire to be met. Thoreau goes on to say that, "In same moments, we regard only the facts, the case that is. Say what you have to say, not what you ought. Any truth is better than make believe" (325).

Blue has been living a form of make believe, in which he did not engage in deep thought about his experiences and their meaning, which has alienated him from himself. He does not know himself, and so has no personal truth. The only way to resolve this is through the creation of a personal myth, that sees his story as a whole, and helps him negotiate meaning between the place where he started and the place where he is now, while also learning something from it. This has led to the book being called an anti-detective novel, because Blue is discovering truth about himself, or solving his own case, rather than discovering things about Black and solving White's case (Russell 71).

However, Auster seems to rail against Thoreau's definition of truth, and its power over fantasy. In the third book of The New York Trilogy, which follows Ghosts, he states:

"Every life is inexplicable, I kept telling myself. No matter how many facts are told, no matter how many details are given, the essential thing resists telling. To say that so and so was born here and went there, that he did this and did that, that he married this woman and had these children, that he lived, that he died, that he left behind these books or this battle or that bridge – none of that tells us very much." (The Locked Room 235).

What is most interesting about this statement, however, is its relationship to Blue's process of the creation of his own self-myth, and its significance to his life. If we accept that there are no facts, regardless of the details given, then it is the relationship between action, and thought or emotion that is important in the retelling, and not the facts themselves. So, what would become important, by Thoreau's definition, is not the relationship between the individual and facts, but rather the relationship between the self, and his personal truth. It is not his place of birth and death, or the shallow experiences, as have been the focus on Blue's life, but rather the deeper understanding of his internal life, his emotions, and his needs, that must be resolved, as they relate to his alienation.

This resolution is accomplished through the creation, exploration, and completion of the self-myth, and the way that it validates the self as the hero of his own story.

Discussion

As previously defined in the work of Campbell and Krippner, the self-myth serves the same basic functions as a cultural myth, in that it provides the self with a story, as needed to understand the significance of life events, to provide validation of the self, and to create a platform for learning. In the case of Auster's work *Ghosts* Blue uses Black as a mirror to reflect himself, and to force him to take a deeper look at his life and emotional state, which is contrary to the very surface, or psychoanalytically absent, position that Blue has been taken. This not only creates a path for Blue's self-discovery but forces him to admit that where he thought he was, emotionally and psychologically, bears little resemblance to his true self. His role as a detective serves as the adventure that forces him to develop himself, and through the creation of a self-myth that seeks to negotiate between his unfulfilled needs, and what he deems to be right and wrong. Ultimately, though he does not wish to continue the journey, he finds that it is impossible for him to escape the case, because reaching the end is a necessity, both with regard to his role as the detective, literally, and as is related to his psyche, from a psychological perspective.

These stories act as an inner voice, or the voice of the ego, especially, as it negotiates the need of the psyche, as defined by both Freud and Lacan. More specifically Solso states that "ideas have consequences and mistaken ideas about ourselves surely have self-alienating consequences" (15). Thus, Blue has become alienated from himself, because of his unwillingness to do the deeper work, in analyzing his psyche, and now, having created the beginnings of a self-myth through his reflection of Black, or use of Black as a mirror for the self, he is consciously aware of this alienation. It leaves him with a need for growing self-understanding, which can only be cultivated through experience, and resolution, between growing knowledge of self, and resolution of the alienations, which have occurred.

Given this need for resolution, and, as through would put it, his need for "escape" which is "doubly difficult" (325) his eventual decision to kill Black, is a form of psychological suicide, and symbolically represents his escape from his own story, or his ability to take charge of the self-myth, and escape the past. This begins with his realization that he finds satisfaction in the exploration of the stories that he is making up about Black. Blue specifically notes that: "there is no end to the stories he can tell. For Black is no more than a kind of blankness, a hole in the texture of things, and one story can fill this hole as well as any other." This notes that he can continue telling stories to meet a variety of needs, as it relates to self-myth, while also containing the realization that Black is just a puppet in his own journey of self-discovery. He serves as a place holder for Blue, who begins to realize that he stories are really more about himself than Black, which empowers him to begin taking control of his own story. This fits with the need for, and the creation of self-myth, as it relates to the need of the individual's psyche, which according to Lacan, must take action that fulfills its need to be accepted, understood, and to act as the hero in his own life. What is consistent about Blue's stories is the control that he exercises in them, and what that says about his need to exercise control, and to act with a greater level of genuineness as it relates to his psychological needs, and the gap that has developed between who he is, and who he acts like he is.

More specifically, Blue begins "seeing the world only through words, living only through the lives of others" (202). However, these others are simply a reflection of himself. It is his inner

dialogue, which is the self-myth, written in his own mind, and relating to inner speech, and personal perception (Solso 14). Solso suggests that it is through the development of our self-myth that we become "self-knowing being" or people capable of understanding our framework for looking at the world, as it relates to our own ideas and our self-understanding (15).

Conclusion

Auster, in the second text of *The New York Trilogy*, entitled *Ghosts*, explores how the other can be used as a mirror for the self, and the danger that is posed when one is self-aware and so becomes alienated from their own psychological processes. More specifically, through the Blue character, we see a man who has participated with himself in only a very superficial way, and so finds that he is not at all the person he has allowed himself to act like he is, and that his ego has not been effectively communicating between the demands, or needs of id, and the expectation of the world, which are lived up to by the super-ego. In other words, the super-ego has managed to squash the desires of the inner child, and the result is total self-alienation.

As a result, Blue begins engaging in a rich internal life, in the form of the stories that he pens, in his head, about Black, slowly discovering, however that the stories are primarily about himself. The creation of a self-myth, then occurs, through the reflection of the self, in the other. In this case, the creation of the self-myth begins in the imaginings of the internal life of Black, which Blue stays is impossible, but which he tries to engage in anyway, in order to solve the case for White. This active imagination, and its application to the case, allow him to "see the world only through words, living only through the lives of others" (202). This leads him to kill Black, in effect providing him an escape from the stories and back into his own life. By killing the reflection of himself, he takes charge of his story, symbolically, no longer needed a reflection to represent him in his story, because he has resolved the alienation, and found his true self.

Bearing this conclusion in mind, it can be asserted that the role of the psyche is powerful, and provides three perspective through which every personal truth must be viewed. In the development of an individual's self-myth, the id, the super-ego, and the ego must all be satisfied. This I easiest to do when the individual does the work to resolve these three parts of the psyche and to ensure that they are telling the same story, or are unified in their perceptions and experiences of life. This means that the individual both has their needs for validation and understanding met, while also following their conscience, and doing what they perceive to be right or socially expected. Unfortunately, this resolution can be difficult, especially in situations where the ego cannot easily negotiate a middle ground. In these cases, when too much is given either to the id, or to the super-ego, self-alienation can occur. The only solution to this alienation is to work the story through to its conclusion, by creating a self-myth that resolves the need. Auster's work, *Ghosts* is predicated upon the concept that man is constantly seeking to discover his own truth, and that he does so by self-mythologizing. More specifically, Blue, when forced to sit and do "nothing" ultimately turns to his own interior life, for something to fill the time. However, when his personal truth conflicts with reality, he must eliminate the parts of reality that prevent him from satisfaction, killing Blue, and taking back control over his internal dialogue, and his direction in life.

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A COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS OF SPELLING ERRORS OF PERSIAN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Akbar Solati
North Khorasan University of Medical Sciences, Bojnurd, Iran
great1351sowlati@gmail.com

Abstract

Spelling is an important part of foreign language learning since it affects learners' communicative competence and performance. Because of complexity of English spelling than Persian, it is expected to pose several spelling difficulties for Persian English language learners. Thus, this study attempts to determine different types of spelling errors among Persian English language learners. Forty Persian English language learners participated in this study. The data was gathered using a word dictation test. Upon analyzing the English spelling errors, seven types of spelling errors emerge as the most prevalent one. The results also indicate that the number of consonant errors is much bigger than the number of the vowel errors. To end with, some suggestions have been made for the treatment of the errors.

Keywords: English spelling, Types of spelling errors, Consonant errors, Vowel errors, Persian English language learners.

Introduction

Spelling is an important part of foreign language learning since it affects the learners' communicative competence and performance. Learners who spell correctly can express their feelings and ideas more clearly than learners with poor spelling skills (Peters, 1985). Al- Khaffaji and Al-Shayib (1987) state "to spell correctly makes written communication easier while misspelling might lead to interruption of communication and misunderstanding"(p, 7). Spelling errors are helpful in three ways as Uzma, P. & Faiza, A. (2014) states, first, spelling errors can tell us about students' interlanguage. Second, they can reflect the influence of the 1st language on the learners' second language performance. Third, they can provide clues about the cognitive state of learners.

Statement of the Problem

Spelling development is an important topic in SLA since it is the foundation of literacy skills (Venezky, 1999). Spelling, as stated by Willett (2003) and Venezky (1999), is a key functional component of writing. According to Templeton and Morris (1999), spelling knowledge is the engine that drives efficient reading as well as efficient writing. To communicate our ideas in written

language we need to know how to spell words. Any mistake in spelling can affect the written product and may lead to misunderstanding (Allen and Vallette, 1972, p. 216).

Solati (2013, p. 206) states, the result of the influence of Norman French, the Great Vowel Shift, printing press, loan words, and the etymological respelling on English writing system is a system that is a mixture of different factors contributes to the irregular and sometimes incredibly inconsistent and confusing spelling of the English language. Thus, English spelling is full of irregularities comparable to other Latin-based languages. According to Hildreth (1962) many of the English language learners spelling problems attributed to the "inconsistencies in English word structure" (p. 4). As a result, the irregularity of the English writing system appears to confuse learners from different language backgrounds. In other words, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the written word and its pronunciation. Solati (2013 & 2014) states the problem is aggravated for Persian learners by the differences in the writing systems of Persian and English, and inconsistency of English spelling. Mohammadi (1992, p. 105) clarifies that the greatest difficulty encountered by Persian learners may result from the apparently irregular spelling system of English compared with the greater regularity of the mainly phonetic script of Persian. According to Swan and Smith (2001), "although Persian is an Indo-European language, Persian speakers may have great difficulty with spelling English, especially during the early stages of learning, because they are not familiar with the Latin script" (p. 129). It appears that all the problems cited above have affected Persian English language learners' spelling proficiency. Therefore, they highlight the need to find out the reasons behind numerous spelling errors committed by Persian English language learners. The present study attempts to determine different types of spelling errors created by Persian English language learners.

Review of Literature

Literature reviewed spelling errors in German ESL, Chinese EFL, Spanish ESL, French ESL, Indian ESL, Kenyan ESL, Thai EFL and Persian EFL learners.

German ESL Learners' Studies

Rimrott and Heift (2005) examined spelling errors made by German learners and classified them along four dimensions:

(a) Competence errors versus performance errors. Competence errors classified along two dimensions: language influence and linguistic subsystem. Performance errors are classified into three main: single letter violations, multiple letter violations, and boundary violations.

(b) Linguistic subsystem: four linguistic subsystems of spelling errors are: lexical, morphological, phonological, and orthographic

(c) Language influence: with respect to language influence, they make a distinction between interlingual and intralingual errors

(d) Target deviation.

Chinese EFL Learners' Studies

Chiang T. H. (1981) and Chiang P. J. (1993) classified Chinese learners' English spelling errors in six causes: (1) formal similarity, (2) over-generation, (3) English spelling system difficulties, (4)

inaccurate pronunciation, (5) lack of practice, and (6) a slip of the pen. Later, Wang (1994) finds five types of spelling errors such as substitution, omission, transposition, addition, and combination of the above.

Spanish ESL Learners' Studies

Hee-Lee (2010), Wasowicz et al. (2007) and Wolff (1952) classified spelling errors of Spanish English language learners into following categories:

1. Mechanical errors which include errors in punctuation, carelessness in writing and confusion of letter formation in writing.

2. Phonetic errors that result from failure to use phonetic rules and are vowel omission, consonant omission and doubling or non-doubling.

3. Non-phonetic errors include lack of knowledge of words.

French ESL Learners' Studies

Joy (2011) put English spelling errors of French English language learners in the following categories:

1. Primitive errors include letter confusion and multiple representation of the first phoneme or letter of a word.

2. Consonant errors comprise homophone letter confusion, consonant substitution and omission of silent consonant.

3. Vowel errors contain silent vowel, silent part of vowel omitted, vowel omission and substitution.

4. Transfer includes homophone transfer.

5. Others errors consist of over pronunciation, intrusions, incomplete orthographic presentation and reversals of phonemes in words.

Indian ESL Learners' Studies

Krishnalalitha (2010) classified English spelling errors into three main types:

1. Competence errors

2. Performance errors

3. Pronunciation errors

Kenyan ESL Learners' Studies

Nyamasyo (1994) reported four broad categories of spelling errors caused by the following:

1. Substitution of one letter for another

2. Omission of letters in a word

3. Addition of letters in a word

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4. Incorrect internal punctuation

Thai EFL Learners' Studies

Bancha (2013) investigate the causes of spelling errors of first year Thai university students' sentence writing. The findings showed ten types of spelling errors including consonant substitutions, vowel substitutions, space inaccuracy, confusion in writing scripts, inaccurate double consonants, inflectional endings, letter reversals, vowel omissions, and consonant omissions.

Arab EFL Learners' Studies

Al-Jarf (2008) examined the sources of spelling errors that ESL Arab college students make. The results of these investigations make clear that sources such as overgeneralization, ignorance of rules restriction, and incomplete application of rules also account for many errors.

Persian EFL Learners' Studies

Upon analyzing the word dictation test in Persian learners of English, the following types of spelling errors were distinguished by Solati et al. (2007):

1. Addition of letters: where a learner writes berown for brown.

2. Deletion of letters: where a learner writes ofen for often.

3. Substitution of letters: where a learner writes mosk for mosque

4. Transposition of letters: where a learner writes feild for field.

In this study they also detected five patterns in their spelling errors as following:

1. Written yet unpronounced letters in English orthography

2. Homophone

3. Letters in English conveying different sounds

4. Sounds present in L2 but absent in L1

5. Sound distinction present in L2 but not in L1

Solati (2013, p. 196) also examined the nature of Persian learners' spelling errors in learning EFL and classified their linguistic deficits in phonology, orthography and morphology that are interfering with Persian learners' ability to spell EFL. Upon the analysis of spelling errors it was concluded that students with poor phonological, orthographic, and morphological knowledge have problems with substitution of consonant, consonant cluster, vowel digraphs, double consonants, silent vowels, silent consonants, homophone and spelling rules. Furthermore, Solati (2014) studied the spelling errors of Persian learners of English to determine sources of interlingual and intralingual errors. Upon the analysis of the spelling errors sources of interlingual and intralingual spelling errors are: L1 phonology, Overgeneralization, Ignorance of rule restriction, Homophone confusion, and L1 syllable structure.

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The rank ordering of sources of English spelling errors in this study based on their frequency reveals that the most dominant errors made by Persian learners are attributed to the overgeneralization and homophones. The analysis of spelling errors of Iranian high school students by Saeidi and khodadust (2010) revealed three main sources (interlingual, intralingual and unique) with seven patterns of errors as following:

1. Letters written in English orthography but not pronounced

2. Acoustically similar-sounding words and homophones in L2

3. A letter in English orthography is pronounced differently in different words

4. Phonemes absent in L1 or represented differently from L2

5. The absence of Phonemic distinctions for a single sound in Farsi

6. Articulatory differences in producing some phonemes in Farsi and English

7. Unique errors

The result of this study showed that the frequency of intralingual errors far outnumbers that of interlingual errors. Rahmanifard and Yarmohamadi, (2014) classified spelling errors of Iranian high-school into five major error categories including phonological awareness, knowledge of orthography, vocabulary, morphological and semantic relationships, and mental orthographic images. The content analysis of the data revealed that phonological skills were a strong predictor for spelling skills and pupils were relying on spoken language in deriving the written forms of words. The current study focused on Persian learners for a deeper analysis of errors in English spelling. It attempts to determine different consonants and vowels patterns of spelling errors among Persian English language learners.

Objectives and Research Questions of the Study

This study intends to determine different types of spelling errors of Persian English language learners. To achieve the above objective, this study attempts to answer the following question:

1. What are different types of spelling errors of Persian English language learners?

Describing the Samples

This study investigates the performance of English spelling of 40 students majoring at the Shahid Beheshti secondary school, Iran participated in this study. All students were studying English as foreign language in 2016. Students are homogeneous in terms of age, learning experience, level, their linguistic background and educational experience. The purpose behind the choice of the first year students is that, students have finished their primary education after three years of learning English as a foreign language.

Instruments

In this study, a word dictation test is selected to collect data. Following Kibbel and Miles (1994), Masterson and Apel (2000) and Feez (2001) recommendation, for the purpose of this study, **65 word**s were taken from English textbook of Persian learners of English in grade one of secondary education cycle and spelling word lists of learners' final examinations (as done by Arab-

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Moghaddam and Senechal, 2001; Baluch and Shahidi, 1991; Bruck et al., 1997; Juel, 1988). The words used in this study came to a total of 32 single-syllable words, 28 two-syllable words and 5 three-syllable words.

Administration of the Research Instrument

65 selected words were read to the students followed by the context twice. Then, they were asked to write down the word. It is essential to mention that all words were pronounced according to Oxford English Dictionary.

Findings and Discussions of the Study

The students' word dictations were analyzed for the purpose of identifying and explaining the spelling errors. The analyses of spelling errors are based on seven types as follow:

1. Misspelling of vowels: The word shows a wrong spelling of a vowel. Misspelling of vowels is a common problem of Persian learners, leading to such misspellings as ges, frend, bred, meny, fild, piple, recive, bisy, inough, and wimin .The correct spellings are guess, friend, bread, many, field, people, receive, busy, enough, and women. By analyzing the spelling errors of Persian English language learners, this study revealed that a vowel sound can be represented by different letters or combination of letters.

2. Misspelling of silent vowels letters: The word misses the representation of a vowel letter. In fact, the vowel letters are spelled but not pronounced. The silent vowel involved in this study is /e/ and the words involved in this study according to Persian learners spelling errors are "receive, while, write, kettle, people, believe, arrive, bottle, bicycle and leave".

3. Misspelling of consonants: The word shows a wrong spelling of a consonant. The analysis of spelling errors of Persian English language learners reveals that a consonant can be represented by different letters or combination of letters. The most commonly misspelled words are tirsty, sree, zan, vednesday, vile, veigh, praktic, tiket, enouf, gues, raiz, stil, botle, sumer, arive, and adres. The correct spellings are thirsty, three, than, Wednesday, while, weigh, practice, ticket, enough, guess, raise, still, bottle, summer, arrive, and address.

4. Misspelling of silent consonants letters: The word misses the representation of a consonant letter. In fact, the consonant letters are spelled but not pronounced. According to the spelling errors of Persian learners of English, the consonant letters involved are: <k>, <h>, <g>, <t>, <w>, <gh>, <b>, <d>, <r> and the words involved are "autumn, watch, wrong, foreign, often, weigh, high, night, climb, hour, whose, who, Wednesday".

5. Misspelling of consonants cluster: The word shows an insertion of an extra vowel to the beginning of or into a consonant cluster. The clusters involved are: "cl, br, dr, fr, pr, pl, st and sch" and the words involved are "climb, bread, dress, friend, prophet, place, still, studies and school".

6. Misspelling of homophones and confusion words: Words that sound the same but have different meaning and spelling. Unfortunately, they often involve words that are needed in sentences all the time. Consider the examples: sea – see, high – hi, there - their/ they're, seat – sit, leave – live, hour – our, whose – who's, hear – here, write – right, two – too/to.

7. Misspelling of misapplication of spelling rule: Words that show a violation of a spelling rule. This occurs when the learner has master a general rule but does not yet know all the exception to that rule. The data show that learners have ignored the following rules:

1. When a word ends in -y and is preceded by a consonant, the -y usually changes to <i> when you are adding a suffix. Consider the examples: citys, cityes, heavyer, easyly, studys, studyes.

2. When a one-syllable word ends in the CVC combination, it is usually appropriate to double the final consonant when adding a suffix that begins with a vowel. Consider the examples: siting, fater.

The analysis of spelling errors of Persian English language learners reveals that each word represents more than one type of misspelling, accordingly stood for more than one types of analysis. For example, the misspelling "estadys " for the word "studies" was analyzed under misspelling of misapplication of spelling rule, misspelling of vowel and misspelling of consonants cluster.

Table 1 shows the frequency of errors under each types of spelling errors and its percentage in comparison to the total number of errors.

Table 1: Frequency and percentage of each types of spelling errors

Types of spelling errors	Frequency of errors	Percentage
1. Misspelling of vowels	53	9.23%
2. Misspelling of silent vowels letters	32	5.57%
3. Misspelling of consonants	196	34.14%
4. Misspelling of silent consonants letters	34	5.92%
5. Misspelling of consonants cluster	58	10.10%
6. Misspelling of homophones and confusion words	138	24.04%
7. Misspelling of misapplication of spelling rule	63	10.97%
total	574	100%

As Table 1 exhibits, the highest number of errors falls under the misrepresentation of consonants which represent 34.14% of the errors and included the following consonants; / θ /, /ð/, /w/, /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/, /k/, /m/, /r/, /d/ and /t/. According to the results of this study, the number of misspelling for each consonants are as follow: 27 for / θ /, 35 for /ð/, 15 for /w/, 9 for /f/, 8 for /l/, 28 for /s/, 25 for /z/, 18 for /k/, 5 for /m/, 7 for /r/, 8 for /d/ and 11 for /t/. It can be observed that the error due to /ð/ is the highest ones.

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The second type of error is homophones and confusion word which represents 24.04% of the errors. The data reveal that the frequencies of homophone confusion in the words "hear-here" [20] and "write-right" [19] are the dominant ones.

The third type of error is misspelling of misapplication of spelling rules which represents 10.97% of the errors. Persian learners produced a total of 63 spelling errors of ignorance of English spelling rules as follow: 17 related to suffix [-es], 14 related to suffix [-ing], 12 related to suffix [–ly], and 20 related to suffix [-er]. The data reveal that suffix [-er] is the dominant spelling error, based on the frequency of ignorance English spelling rules.

The fourth type of error is misspelling of consonants cluster which represents 10.10% of the errors.

The Fifth type of error is misspelling of vowels which represents 9.23% of the errors. Persian English language learners produced a total of 53 spelling errors of English vowels: 21 related to the /e/ sound, 18 related to the /i:/ sound, and 14 related to the /i/ sound.

The sixth type of error is misspelling of silent consonants letters which represents 5.92% of the errors.

Finally, the misspelling of silent vowels letters which represents 5.57% of the errors and is the last type of spelling errors. Persian English language learners produced a total of 32 spelling errors related to the silent vowel.

The rank ordering of the various types of English spelling errors of Persian learners based on percentage information are outlined in Figure 1.

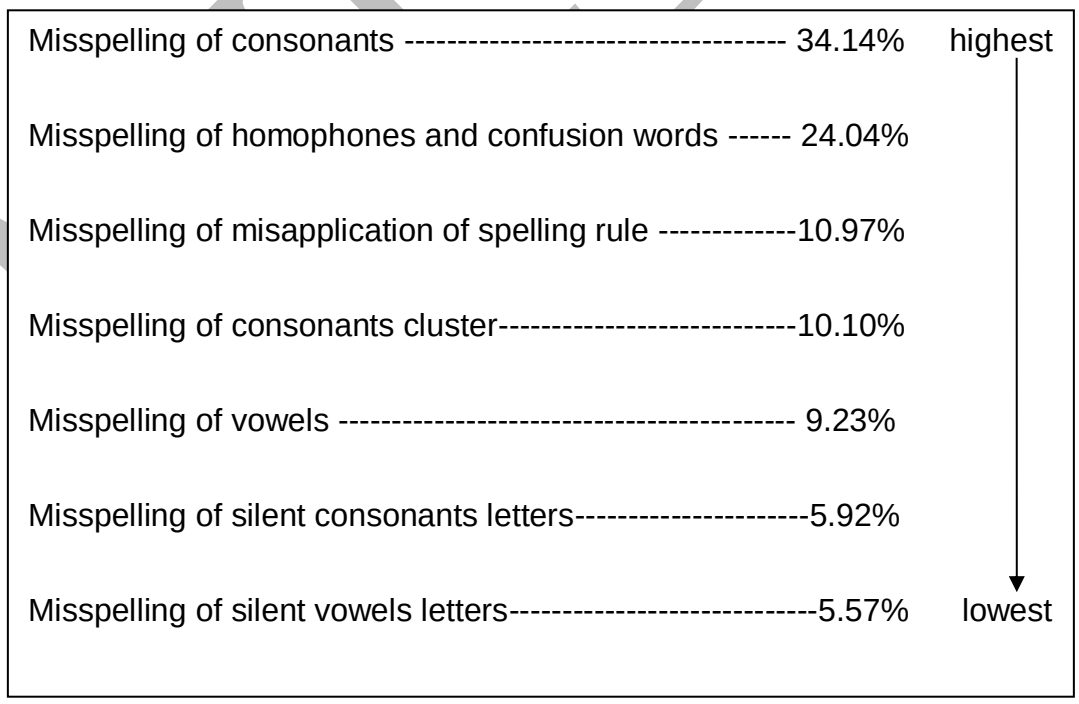

Figure 1: The rank ordering of learners' types of spelling errors

Figure 1 display the frequency of types of spelling errors in the English words spelled by Persian learners of English. They show the distribution of errors across seven types of spelling errors from highest to lowest one.

Conclusion

This study obviously gives you the idea that Persian learners suffer from severe difficulties with their English spelling despite four years studying English at schools. In English spelling, a given consonant or vowel sound is often represented by different letters or combination of letters. Thus, it makes so many problems for Persian learners of English to spell English words. As the results show, the highest number of errors falls under the misrepresentation of consonants and vowel. This finding is in line with O'Grady et al. (1996) who noted that spelling is made more difficult by the inconsistencies of English pronunciations, and by the discrepancies in the numbers of graphemes and combinations of graphemes used to represent English sounds. These results also supports the view of Mohammadi (1992) who asserts that the greatest difficulty encountered by Persian learners result from the apparently irregular spelling system of English compared with the greater regularity of the mainly phonetic script of Persian. These results also affirm the view of Mirhassani (2003) who states that spelling is one of the most difficult problems that Persian learners face.

Since, the second type of error of this study is homophones and confusion word, it appears that homophone confusion is the consequence of failure to make fine distinctions between two existing lexical items, that pronounced the same but differ in meaning and spelling. It seems that it is due to the lack of lexico-grammatical function of the words, inadequate contextual clues, and insufficient mastery in listening comprehension. To remove this type of problems, minimal pair practice may be useful.

The data in this study also reveal the Persian learner's ignorance of restriction and exception of English spelling rules (adding suffixes), as demonstrated by the misspellings "citys, siting, fater etc". Since most English spelling rules have many exceptions, it's no wonder that Persian learners find it very hard to spell English. It seems that Persian learner's ignorance of spelling rules can result from analogical extension or the rote learning of rules.

Findings of this study on English spelling support Kessler (2009), as saying: "almost all its phonemes have multiple spellings—sound-to-letter, or spelling inconsistency and almost all its letters have multiple pronunciations—letter-to-sound or reading inconsistency" (p.19). In short, according to the results of this study, Persian learners' English spelling errors may be traced back to the following reasons:

1. English spelling system is complex.
2. Teachers don't emphasize on English spelling and its rules in their curriculum.
3. Insufficient practice in English spelling during the first stage of learning English in Iran.
4. Insufficient practice of English pronunciation and listening skill.

Suggestions for Improving Spelling English

To prevent spelling difficulties, several practices and activities were suggested by Glenn and Hurley (1993): fostering use of full cues in reading, encouraging visualization of words and

syllables, providing a print-rich environment, providing computers for spell-checkers and materials for word banks, and teaching spelling patterns and etymology. Ample time to read, write and use words in meaningful connected text are crucial in developing good spelling ability. Besides as Solati (2013) states, students should be more exposed to English language and should receive more listening practice in improving English spelling.

According to the findings of this study, the following suggestions maybe helpful to improve spelling English:

- More in-service training programs are needed to include English spelling and dealing with students' spelling problems.
- More effective spelling rules and learning strategies should be included in students' English books to employ when learning spelling. Indeed, we should start to work on spelling errors that can be controlled by the application of rules.
- Spelling must be part of students' continuous assessment. In fact, we should teach students to observe himself as a speller.
- Develop an awareness of the ways in which pronunciation helps the spellers.
- Develop the students' ability to discriminate among graphemic options.
- Teach the use of the dictionary.

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THE STUDY OF LERMONTOV'S OEUVRE IN MULTICULTURAL EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Alsu Z. Khabibullina
Assoc. Prof., Department of Russian and foreign literature, Kazan (Volga Region) Federal University,
alsu_zarifovna@mail.ru

Elvira F. Nagumanova
Assoc. Prof., Department of Russian and foreign literature, Kazan (Volga Region) Federal University,
ehlviran@yandex.ru

Oksana Y. Amurskaya
Assoc. Prof., Department of Germanic philology, Kazan (Volga Region) Federal University,
oksana2181@mail.ru

Abstract

The report deals with the problem of innovative study of M.Yu.Lermonov's poetry in multicultural educational system. The data comprises Lermontov's poetry, traditionally learned in secondary school and studied by philology students at the university. In the light of the current research the special attention is paid to the concept of "the dialogue of cultures separated by the timeline" (Bakhtin, 1986) alongside with the concept of receptive aesthetics. According to H. Jauss (1995), the overcoming of the "soothed" perception of classical literature demands extra efforts from the reader, in order to interpret the literary work, in contrast to his usual aesthetic experience. This process may take place in multiethnic educational environment. Thus the aim of the research is the justification of the new methodological approaches to the study of his oeuvre, in particular of the method of the broadening of the aesthetic distance. In the multiethnic environment this method is carried out in various ways, in particular through diachronous studies of the history of translations of classical works. This approach will lead to the comprehension of the uniqueness of Lermontov's poetry by his readers, the generation of new senses in a reader's mind through a "non-native" dialogue. The significance of this innovative approach in methodology of teaching Russian classical literature is supported by the results of the scientific experiment.

Keywords: "innovative method", "Lermontov's poetry", "aesthetic distance", "foreign-language audience", "translations".

Introduction

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Nowadays the problem of innovative study of classical literature, in secondary and higher education is at the heart of the discussion in the field of methodology of teaching Russian literature in multiethnic educational environment.

In teaching practice of Russian literature in modern national school the special attention is paid to Lermontov's oeuvre. Among the famous poems by Lermontov which are studied are the following: "Parus" ("The Sail"), "Duma" ("Meditation"), "Prorok" ("The Prophet"), Smert' poeta ("The death of the poet"), "Utes" ("The Cliff"), "Rodina" ("Homeland"), "Borodino" etc.

Lermontov's lyrical oeuvre is the part of syllabus of university students of Tatar philology. However alongside with the schoolchildren in Tatar schools they encounter objective difficulties preventing their "adequate" comprehension of the ideological and artistic potential of Lermontov's literary works, the perception of his oeuvre in the light of the accepted concepts and ideas, established in the literature studies of the XX century.

The concept of obstacles in perception and interpretation of classical literary works was introduced in the second half of the XX century in the studies of the representatives of receptive aesthetics (Jauss, 1967; Iser, 1974). Thus, the foreign scholar H.Jauss (1967) introduced the notion of "aesthetic distance", which is regarded as the most significant in the analysis of perception of classical literary works. According to him, "the beautiful and everlasting meaning" of the masterpieces from the point of view of aesthetic perception approximates them to the category of "easy reading" and demands extra effort to reveal and renew their artistic nature to our perception" (Jauss, 1997). Crossing "the horizon of anticipation" of a classical work, the change in traditional and accepted views in its artistic value is possible, according to Jauss, in the perception of non-native readers.

Thus the perception of classical literature in multiethnic environment is regarded as a complex nonlinear process, characterized by the divergences between the artistic world of a literary work and the national aesthetic experience of the reader. At the same time these contradictions, mutually complemented, are of special value as they renew classical texts.

The perception of Lermontov's literary works is connected with the phenomenon of linguistic and aesthetic interference. The latter is regarded as the result of overlapping of various national and artistic ways of thinking (of the author and of the recipient) and consequently results in the transformation of the perceived work in the light of traditions, images and forms which constitute the aesthetic experience of the reader (Khabibullina, 2004, p. 32-48).

The aesthetic interference, which allows to reveal "the different" interpretation of non-native literature demonstrates positive results in teaching practice. Alongside with the searches of common base in different literatures (native and Russian), the revelation of universals in them, the aesthetic interference allows to reveal the message of the work, which supports the value of a different coordinate system, different type of thinking and perception of non-native readers.

We can state that the aesthetic interference will acquire peculiar features in the study of Lermontov's oeuvre in Tatar-speaking environment. Lermontov was close to the world of Eastern culture, many notions of this world such as "destiny", "God", "fatum" naturally became incorporated into his mind, creating many associations with the East in his oeuvre: "Tri pal'my" ("Three Palm Trees"), "Vetka Palestiny" ("The Palm Branch Of Palestine"), "Zhaloby turka" ("Complaints Of A Turk") (Lotman, 1988). However, "the eastern" content of the works by Lermontov may enhance in the perception of modern Tatar readers, enriched by new associations

and ideas, corresponding to the Eastern "code" of their culture and national identity. It is this dialogical side of Lermontov's poetry, based on the dichotomy "the East-the West", that will generate these particular interpretations of his works, that are based on the values of the readers' native literature. Alongside with that it may transform the combination of stereotypes about the Russian poet as well as the established assessments of his poetry.

As previously determined, this tendency in the perception of Lermontov's lyrical poetry is the most distinctly outlined in the environment of students of philology, the bearers of the Tatar language and culture (Khabibullina et al, 2016).

Research Questions

1. The article regards several characteristics of the perception of Russian classical literature by modern Tatar readers.

Tatar readers are fluent in reading Lermontov's works in original. However such perception is accompanied by objective difficulties in school learning as well as in university studies of his oeuvre. The point also lies in difficulties in perception of the archaic forms of the Russian language and some realia of Russian culture of the XIX century, which are not "transparent" to modern readers.

2. Aesthetic interference as an objective phenomenon in the study of Russian literature of multiethnic environment is regarded as a form of expression of a national identity of students, their type of thinking and their view of the world.

3. Also the problem of the efficiency of the experimental inclusion in the learning process, aimed to reveal the formation of multicultural competence, has been considered.

The aim of this article is to substantiate the innovative approaches to the study of the oeuvre of the Russian classical poet in secondary school and at the university, to reveal the positive sides of the aesthetic interference, which reveals the uniqueness of Lermontov's poetry and breaks the "soothed" perception of his works in multiethnic environment.

Methodology

The main concept of the current research is determined by the works, raising the problem of teaching Russian literature in the native (non-Russian) language in modern school (Mukhametshina, 2007; Cherkezova, 2006, 2011). As the methodological base of studying Russian literary works in non-Russian environment M.V.Cherkezova (2011) points out the idea of typological common features of Russian and national literatures. In her opinion, one of the most significant issues in teaching literature in a national school lies in the necessity to "match the special view of the world of the writers of national and Russian literature, their specific storage of spiritual values, the originality of the figurative system of Russian and national literatures" (Cherkezova, 2011). Only through a dialogue between literatures, which allows to reveal the common features in the interpretations of a person, a researcher finds the way to perceive the values of Russian literature and, first and foremost, the oeuvre of classical writers: the literary works by Pushkin, Lermontov, Tolstoy.

Multicultural competence, based on the idea of the intercultural dialogue, presents a gap in domestic and foreign studies, connected with the development of innovative methodology in the

teacher training system. In particular, Dina Birman (2010), professor of Miami University (USA) and KFU professor V.F.Gabdulkhakov (2016) hold the view that in the USA the issue of multicultural studies is regarded in the form of "assimilation of national minorities", less attention is paid to the issues of intercultural dialogue in European countries. As a rule, universal actions are formed in educational institutions, the uniqueness of the certain educational environment is not emphasized. However, the problems of teaching in multicultural educational environment are acute in the global scientific community (Dagenais, 2006; Gay, 2003; Jakubovska, 2014).

The most significant aspect of the issue under observation is connected with the view on a dialogue as a form of interliterary interactions. The current research on the dialogue between cultures is theoretically based on the concept by M.Bakhtin (1986), representing the cultural dialogue, separated by the timeline". According to M.M.Bakhtin's view, "two cultures, meeting, do not blend and merge, each preserving its unity and open continuity <…> they are mutually enriched" (Bakhtin, 1986, p.354).

Theoretically the current research is based on the concept of a dialogue between the "native and non-native" perception, which, according to the researchers lies not only in interliterary interaction, but also in readers' perception of non-native literature (Amineva, 2015; Safiullin, 2012). Citing a modern comparative linguist V.R. Amineva (2015), "processes of keeping and augmentation of artistic and aesthetic values in the result of their reclamation, comparison, acceptance or denial by the representatives of another culture are the basis of interliterary interconnections" (Amineva, 2015, p. 246).

From the point of view of a modern comparative linguist Ya.G.Safiullin (2012), the dialogue between literatures which stimulates the exchange of values, ideas, images, enriching the participants of this dialogue is opposed to interliterary communication as a phenomenon of monological nature (Safiullin, 2012). Communication is aimed to shorten the distance between a reader and a work, what transforms not only the attitude of the reader to the work, but the work itself. In such perception the aspiration to correspond the latter to the traditions and the history of literature, to the place of its creating, to author's biography, genre and manner of writing etc. is being lost.

The communication from the angle of non-native perception of literature is particularly undesirable as the approximation of a reader to a foreign work creates "the necessary abstractness based on the simplification of content of various literatures" (Safiullin, 2012, p.28). It leads the readers' reflections in the sphere of the common human concepts, searches of typological features in literatures. However, the national peculiarity of the fiction work, the uniqueness of its images, motives and ideas are not considered in such perception.

Results

One of the innovative approaches in the research of Lermontov's oeuvre in multiethnic environment is the methodology of the broadening of the aesthetic distance between Russian classical works and their recipients, in particular in Lermontov's poetry. This methodology is aimed at the revelation of the special, unique features of non-native perception, what is regarded as the methodological base of the introduction interliterary dialogues in literature classes.

Thus the methodology of the broadening of the aesthetic distance is represented by means of introduction of the translations of the Russian poet in Turkic literatures. It is the introduction into

the history of translations of Lermontov's works into Turkic languages, in particular into Tatar that will enhance the features of national identity in students' perception and simultaneously will ground the base for the interliterary dialogue. The dialogue of literatures, emerging in the in the light of comprehension (conscious or spontaneous) of the unique destiny of Lermontov's oeuvre in the Tatar world will contribute to the process of revelation of new "senses" in the artistic perception and to the emergence of aesthetic interference. The latter will acquire positive connotation: the perception of Lermontov's poetry in a different coordinate system contributes to the enrichment of his works with various (additional) values and ideas.

The introduction of the translations of Lermontov's works, which highlight the Eastern motives, are of great significance in Tatar-speaking environment. Thus the first translation in the Turcic world was Lermontov's poem "Tri palmy" ("Three Palm Trees"), carried out by F. Kocharly in 1895. He translated it into the Azerbaidjani language ("Three Finic Trees"). It was also determined that the translations of Lermontov's works into Tatar date back to the end of the XIX century. The Turkic fairy tale "Ashyk Kerib" became the first published Tatar translation (1837). In 1897 it was translated into Tatar by the unknown translator, later in 1912 and 1918 the fairy tale by Lermontov entitled as "Ashyk Kerib (an Eastern story)" was released as a separate edition in Kazan by in the publishing house of Karimov brothers.

A different tendency was noticeable in Kasakh literature of the end of the XIX century. A famous Kasakh poet Abay Kunanbaev translated the following poems of Lermontov into his native language: "Vykhozhu odin ya na dorogu" ("I Go Out On The Road Alone"), "Utes" ("The Cliff"), "V al'bom" ("In the Album"), "Izmail bey " ("Ismail Bey"), "Demon" ("Demon"), "Molitva" ("The Prayer"). According to the researchers, the translations clearly demonstrated the interpretation of Lermontov's works in the light of Russian literature, what considerably approximated Abay to Lermontov.

The same tendency in translations was revealed in Chuvash literature dated back to the beginning of the XX century. The famous Chuvash poets K.Ivanov and Shubossinni (N.V.Vasiliev) were the first to introduce the poems "Utes" ("The Cliff"), "Parus" ("The Sail"), "Vetka Palestiny" ("The Palm Branch Of Palestine") to their readers. Their translations into their native language were syllabic, but according to the researcher V.Rodionov (1992), the transfer from syllabic metrics to syllabic tonic was noticeable in their works (Rodionov, 1992). Such feature of perception introduced the Chuvash poets to the great extent in the field of Russian perception of literature.

Lermontov's poetry created the multiplicity of interpretations in Turkic non-native mind.

Thus in the course of studies of the poem "Parus" ("The Sail") in Tatar audience it essential to emphasize, that it was translated six times into Tatar. The first variation of its translation was accomplished in Old Tatar in 1908, afterwards it was translated into janalife by A.Erikey and in 1941 A.Erikey translated it into modern Tatar. The next translation of this poem was carried out in 1938 by Sh.Mannur, who translated "The Sail" twice and in 1974 this poem was published in Z.Nury's translation.

The multiple reference of translators to this poem by M.Y. Lermontov is not accidental. The following explanation can be provided: first and foremost, this poem was close to Tatar literary mind, being familiar with the poetry by Dardmend. It was this Tatar classical poet, who produced the poem "Korab", which represented the versification of Lermontov's poem "The Sail".

Furthermore, by various diachronous translations of this poem, carried out in different periods of time, we can evaluate the transformations of the Tatar language and the change taking place in domestic literary studies, connected with the problem of the necessity of translation of Russian poetry into national languages of Russian peoples.

Let us give an example of translation of the third quatrain by A.Erikey: *"Asta a in jaqtь zəngər su, / Өste – qojaş, ytken çiz nurlar, / Ә ul anda davөl teli ul, / Davөllarda gyjə tөnlөq bar!" (By it a stream is bright as azure, By beams of sun it's warmed and blessed / But it is seeking gales as treasure, /As if the tempests give a rest)* (the translation of 1934); *Koiash sibə matur altyn nur, / Ә tybəndə zəngər dulkynnar. / Ul tyngysyz, davyl teli ul, / Guia tynychlyk bar davylda!* (the translation of 1941).

The translations by A.Erikey reveal the dynamics of the movement of the sail. However, he did not avoid losses: the students of Tatar school immediately noticed the absence of the epithet meaning "rebelliois, sleepless" in janalife translation. The epithet "tyngysyz" meaning "restless" appeared in 1941 translation, but in this translation Erikey breaks the antimony between the sky and the sea, represented in Lermontov's poem and reflected in its translation of 1943.

Comparing diachronous translations, we realize that in 1940s the Tatar translator created the free translation, adding new images and details to the original content. The 1938 translation of this poem was carried out by Sh. Mannur. His first translation was created in janalife, the second in Modern Tatar. In our opinion, the second variant is the closest to the original text. Sh. Mannur managed to transfer the inner dynamics of the poem by means of his native language and to preserve its rhythm and intonation. However, some divergences occur, for instance the sail is regarded to as a rebel in this translation. Mannur replaced the famous epithet "restless" by the word "rebel": "*Ә ul, buntar', davyl soryi, Tyngylyk bar gyia davylda!* "("But it, a rebel, is seeking gales as treasure, /As if the tempests give a rest").

Thus, as we can observe, the message of the poem "The Sail" is interpreted in various translations in its own way, in different periods of time the text was rearranged in the aspect of graphics, the language applied, images and emotions revealed.

The reflections on the multiplicity of the Lermontov translations can be continued. Such historiographic data presented in literature classes with non-native audience, will be of special interest from the point of view of broadening of the aesthetic distance between the studied literary work and the receptive mind.

Furthermore, based on numerous dictionaries and bibliographic sources, students can handle the dialogue between Lermontov's oeuvre and the Tatar poets of the XX century on their own. It will enable them to actualize the knowledge, which they received in the course of studies of their native literature.

We regard the conceptualization of the facts of history of interpretations and translations into Turkic languages of Russia as the ultimate evidence of the fact that the existence of Lermontov's works in the culture of Tatar peoples was marked by the peculiar features, revealing their national identity.

Thus the aim of the method of the broadening of the aesthetic distance in classes of literature, which are devoted to Lermontov's oeuvre, is to create the conditions for "native" and "non-native" dialogue. Being placed in the situation of the "outer position" towards a "non-native" text, the

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students comprehend the uniqueness of Lermontov's poetry better, enriching his work with "additional" meanings.

The positive influence of aesthetic interference in the practice of studies of classical literature in non-native environment is supported by the results of the scientific experiment[i] ,carried out in the conditions of perception of Lermontov's poetry by modern university Tatar and Uigur readers.

Thus the experiment based on the data of Lermontov's poem "Na severe dikom stoit odinoko.." ("The Pine Tree") (1841) (supported the hypothesis that the interpretation of this poem through a different frame of reference broadened the sphere of aesthetic interference as the objective phenomenon of the non-native perception of Russian literature. Alongside with that the new senses were revealed, pointing at the possibility of interpretation of a classical text by a modern reader from the angle of a dialogue between literatures, not communication. This was particularly revealed in the readers' reflections which were based on the comparison of the work by Lermontov and the oeuvre of the Tatar poet Gabdulla Tukay, in particular his poem "Tugan avylym" (" My native village").

The study of Tukay's lyrical poetry (of the poet of his native culture and language) allowed the students of philology to reveal in Lermontov's poem the topic of the beauty of the native land, love to the Motherland and nostalgia for it. It is worth mentioning that this theme does not correspond to the real content of this poem: the poet expresses his existential feelings, speaks about his lost love and loneliness, disappointed expectations. It is vital to stress, that the "new" sense in the readers' minds can be regarded as the result of the influence of native poetry and literature, which are formed in the folklore and their native (Tatar) literature. The themes of Motherland, the beauty of the native land and nostalgia for it are traditional in Tatar lyrical poets of the XX century: G.Tukay, M.Sunchalay, M.Jalil.

On the other hand, the same topics were revealed in the reflections of the Uigur students, who systematically study the Tatar language and culture (their native Uigur language also belong to the Turkic group of languages). We are convinced, that they emerged in their perception due to the fact that the presented antithesis of images (the pine tree - the palm tree) were not included in the field of their native literature. Compared to their native literature, the theme of nostalgia is typical for the Tatar literature, which they study at the university,

Thus the Uigur literature and the patterns of the poetic oeuvre, which are included in it, include the possibility of extrapolation of the human senses on the world of nature. This phenomenon is regarded as a common type of artistic thinking, aimed at personification of natural forces and the animal world. The aspiration of the Uigur students to reveal a "different" sense in Lermontov's poem supports the idea, that the readers' non-national reception may stem from a different coordinate system, and that turns a work of fiction into a different pattern of human relationships with the outside world. In the case under study this was revealed in the readers' searches of the personification which are traditional for their native (Uigur) literature and in the Tatar literature, which is close to it, and which they experience through the scope of the Tatar language and its aesthetic features.

Conclusion

We must conclude that the method of the broadening of the aesthetic distance allows us to reveal the "new" interpretation of Lermontov's famous works. First and foremost, this is achieved in

national school by means of studying the data, referring to the problem of translation of his poetry into Tatar and other Turkic languages of Russia alongside with the revelation of Russian-Tatar literary connections. They emphasize the distinctiveness of Lermontov's oeuvre in native culture of students in many ways.

The presented approach in methodology of teaching the Russian poet's oeuvre in multiethnic educational environment will enable us to form the personality, who will be able to appreciate the uniqueness of his or her culture, identity himself of herself with certain ethnic culture and alongside with that to self-actualize completely in modern society.

Aesthetic interference as a phenomenon of the non-native perception of Russian literature is positively marked in teaching. First and foremost, it provides us with the possibility to overcome communication, appearing in our aspiration to study Lermontov's works in the light of commonly shared human concepts (death, loneliness, dream, way) and universal themes and notions. However, such communication can be potentially dangerous: it considerably reduces the psychological message of literary works of the Russian classical author, blocking the multiplicity of readers' interpretations, which are highly valued in multiethnic educational environment.

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[i] The experiment has involved the students of High School of Tataristics and Turkology named by Gabdulla Tukay, of the Institute of Philology and Intercultural Communication, Kazan Federal University. For them, the Tatar language is the native language, and their major is connected with the teaching of their native language and literature at school (25 students). And besides the experiment has comprised the Uigur students of philology (12 students) (of PRC descent).

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RHETORICAL PATTERNING OF INTRODUCTIONS TO CHEMISTRY RAS: A SWALESIAN PERSPECTIVE

Maryam Etemadi and Alireza Amjadi Parvar*
Department of English,Sanandaj branch,Islamic Azad University,Sanandaj,Iran

Abstract

In order to understand and/or write research papers, native and non-native speakers of English should be cognizant of the rhetorical structures and the linguistic standards associated with the research articles in their fields of interest. This study was an attempt to uncover the generic structure of introduction sections of research articles in the field of chemistry. To this end, a collection of 30 articles from international journals in the field of chemistry were selected and analyzed using Swales' (1991) model. It was found that in 96.77% of cases the first move in introduction sections was identified as move 1 (establishing territory). It was also found that 60% of the articles followed the standard pattern of move structure proposed by Swales. In 16.66% of the articles, move 2 was missing and in 13.33% of the articles recurring moves happened. The moves that recurred were moves 3 and 1. Regarding the steps within moves it was found that in move 1 both step 1 and step 2 had the same frequency of occurrence and with regard to move 2 in 21 cases (70%) the second move was identified as creating a niche and 11 (52.38%) of them started with step 4 (continuing a tradition). The third move was identified as the move occupying the niche and 76.19% of them started the second move with step 1 (outlining purposes). It was concluded that on the whole Swales' model could predict the move structure of introduction sections of research articles in the field of chemistry.

Keywords: Move, Genre, Academic Literacy, Introduction, Field of Chemistry

Introduction

Since English plays an important role in academic literacy, Iranian academics are also aware that the standards achieved in EFL literacy by Iranian students, is qualitatively far behind the standards of the international academic community. Iranian students seem to have problems when it comes to producing and processing academic discourse which can act as a barrier that deprives them from active participation in academic communication. The ever-increasing number of university students, postgraduates in different domains make the Iranian context potentially a fertile field for the initiation of novice member/researchers in different academic communities. Consequently, English language teaching technology in Iran possesses an important duty to prepare the

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candidates for their future academic activities. However, contribution of Iranian scholars in international academic discourse reveals that EFL literacy in Iran needs to be improved.

We can criticize various issues like number of hours available for teaching English, the size of the classes, the teaching facilities, teaching styles, learning style, etc. However, it would be a very short-sighted view if we look at English language teaching classroom from such an isolated perspective. As Salahshoor (2000) emphasizes in his research, we should look at language teaching classroom as a socio-cultural construct. In other words, it is very important culturally. Community learning environment is very complex because there are many cultures in the classroom. As a result, we should focus on "social forces" which determine the behaviors rather than the classroom and behavior of the participants.

The problem of academic literacy as considered from the point of view of EFL literacy is production. The solution that could be considered possible is through a comprehensive understanding of the nature of determining and influential factors. To identify the roots of this problem, we should look at another reason that influences the practice of academic EFL in Iran, for example higher order cultures including: national culture, national formal schooling culture, national higher education culture and EFL classroom culture (Salahshoor, 2000).

Literature Review

The word genre has been important in literacy and language education in recent years particularly concerning the teaching of writing. The teaching of academic literacy and teaching of English for academic purposes (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993) are examples of areas which have drawn on the concept of genre. Different scholars have presented different definitions for term genre. Holmes (1997, p. 322) defines genre as "a class of texts characterized by specific communicative functions that tend to produce distinctive structural patterns". Bhatia (1997) states that genres: "Are meant to serve the goals of specific discourse communities, and in so doing, they tend to establish relatively stable structural forms and, to some extent, even constrain the lexico- grammatical resources in expressing these forms (p.176)". Swales (1990, p. 58), has provided a working definition of genre:

"A genre comprises a class of communicative events the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style."

An important characteristic of genre, asserted by many genre scholars from language teaching perspective is that each genre includes a number of elements called moves (Swales, 1990). The basic building blocks and functional units of analysis in most genre analysis studies are moves. A move is defined as segment of text that is shaped and constrained by specific communicative function, that is, every move is subservient to the communicative purpose of genre. Within generic structure some moves are obligatory and some are optional. Obligatory moves are necessary to achieve the communicative purpose of genre, optional moves are selected to add to effectiveness of communication and do not change the communicative purpose of text (Henry & Rosebury, 1998).

Since no established criterion is offered in literature to discriminate move from each other, there has been controversy among genre scholar ideas concerning move boundaries. Dudley- Evans (1994) puts that move discrimination should be made on the basis of three criteria "linguistic evidence, comprehension of the text, and understanding the expectations that both general academic community and particular academic community have of the text". During the recent years, there has been a considerable interest in genre based analysis of different sorts of texts. The main motive for the emergence and development of "genre analysis" in ESP context was to increase the degree of awareness of the students to different texts, especially academic texts, in order to enhance non-native students' ability in both understanding and producing academic texts efficiently. Therefore, there has been an enthusiasm among ESP practitioners for further exploration in academic text. So far, the focus of genre analysis has been mostly on academic genres and in particular on research articles and textbooks.

In addition, different subgenres of these genres have been analyzed such as abstract, introduction, discussion and other sections. However little analysis has been done on the texts of dissertation and thesis, due to difficulty of obtaining texts from university libraries (Atkinson, 1997) and considering sheer size of theses and dissertation as a text for analysis (Swales and Thompson, 1999). The focus in this study is on these genres. By investigating the structure of specific types of text and schematic move structure, teachers and students gain clearer idea of end product. There is substantial literature in this regard, Swales and Feak (1994) analyzed different research articles conclusion sections. According to their findings, the conclusion section is composed of three moves:

1. Move 1 is a conclusion of research findings and is usually quite extensive

2. Move 2 discusses the implications of research

3. Move 3 discusses the possibilities in the future research.

Hewings (1993b) also analyzed conclusion section of Master of business administration dissertations and noticed that they contained three extensive and recognizable parts a) to report b) to comment and c) to suggest. Ruiying and Allison (2003) conducted a genre analysis on Result and conclusion sections of research articles in the field of applied linguistics. They examined the way in which research articles report empirical investigations in applied linguistics. Their analysis concerns the rhetorical choices among possible Results, Results and Discussion, discussion, Conclusion, and Pedagogic Implications section, and identifies specific organizational choices within each section. They find each the dominant moves and steps of each section separately and the relation of these sections to one another. The analysis of four sections provides evidence that they can overlap, although they differ primarily in their communicative functions and are used by different headings. The findings show that due to overlap of rhetorical functions, the structure of empirical RAs in applied linguistics are more flexible in concluding sections, but they differ in emphasis across RA sections.

Brett (1994) examined the result section of 20 sociology RAs. He reported that this section is the place where new findings are not only highlighted but also interpreted and commented upon by authors. Holmes (1997) examined introduction sections of social science research articles. The analysis has been done based on modified version of moves, communicative categories, provided by Hopkins and Dudley – Evans (1988) with 11 move schemes to analyze the Result section of RAs.

He examined 30 research articles in three fields of history, political science and sociology. The findings showed that although, there exists fundamental similarities to the natural sciences, the introduction section of social science articles has specific features that should be taken into account for developing academic writing and reading materials . He found no move "completely obligatory" in his corpus; the commonest moves were deduction and statement of result. He notes that moves tend to occur in predictable order and also in cycle. There was some interdisciplinary variation – there were more moves and move cycle in political science RAs, and fewer in history.

Moreover, in 2001, Holmes researched 43 Agricultural Economics RAs. The commonest moves were statement of result (in 100 percent of RAs), deduction (94 percent), recommendation (79 percent) and background information (60 percent). Peacock (2002) using Dudley – Evans' (1994) model analyzed communicative moves in introduction sections across seven disciplines. A number of marked interdisciplinary differences were found in type and number of moves and move cycles.

Research Questions

In line with the purpose of the present study the following research questions were formulated:

Q1: Which moves or sub-moves do the writers of research articles opt for in introduction section?

Q2: What patterns do these moves and sub-moves follow?

Q3: What are the textual devices that signal these moves and sub-moves?

Method

Corpus

A published informant in the field of chemistry was consulted and based on his suggestions a number of journals in the field of chemistry were selected. Thus, the data of the study came from 30 research articles which were selected for analysis from the selected journals dealing with different issues in the field of chemistry which have been published during the last ten years. This restriction is motivated by the tendency to control such influences as period-specific features. The data was chosen randomly in order to avoid any predetermined effect on the results of the study.

In the selection of these articles, the definition of research article provided by Swales (1990) was taken into account. The date of publication of selected articles ranges from 2005 to 2016. Therefore, the analysis included research articles from a variety of sources which have been published during last 10 years. This restriction was motivated by our tendency to control as much as possible such influences as period specific features. Since the initiation of academic genre analysis and consequently sensitizing scholars to observe genre-specific features dates back to early 1980s, we limited our data to the period which followed the initiation of this tradition. Longer introductions reveal different generic patterns, so longer introductions were excluded from the corpus. There was a tendency to choose and analyze short introductions.

Procedure and Method of Analysis

This study was concerned with development of a framework to describing 'introduction' section of research articles in the field of chemistry. In the present research, we are to identify the schematic

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'moves' and 'sub moves' that are specific to introductions to research articles in this discipline. In other words, we want to highlight a genre-specific features that govern the introductions and are utilized by the expert writers, so that we could offer a sound framework to non-expert members/writers. In this way, we can raise the students/researchers 'awareness of the conventions governing the introduction writing in particular and make them sensitive to the structure of academic discourse in general. The analytic method employed in present study is 'moves analysis'. The analysis focuses upon the introduction section of RAs in the field of chemistry. The aim is to identify the schematic moves. The analysis is based upon the model outlined by Swales (1990). He has identified three moves in the introduction section of RAs. Following the same tradition, the following list of moves and steps was adopted for the analysis as presented in Figure 1.

Move 1.*Establishing a Territory*

Step1. Claiming centrality

Step2. Making topic generalizations

Step3. Reviewing items of previous research

Move2.*Establishing a Niche*

Step1A. Counter- claiming

Step1B. Indicating a gap

Step1C. Question-raising

Step1D. Continuing a tradition

Move3.*Occupying the Niche*

Step1A. Outlining purposes

Step1B. Announcing present research

Step2. Announcing principle findings

Step3. Indicating RA structure

Figure 1. List of Move and Sub-moves Adopted for the Analysis

In the text of this study, the titles of moves and steps offered by Swales (1990) are adopted and used without any change. For the present purpose, we define move as a text-segment, which may vary in size, shaped and constrained by a specific discourse goal. This text segment has a uniform orientation and the content of discourse is signaled in it. In other words, we consider a move in a text as a functional unit, used for some identifiable discoursal objective (Holmes, 1997, Nwogu, 1991, Connor, 2000). While each move is treated as a major strategy subservient to the overall discoursal goal, it is taken to embody a number of 'constituent elements' or 'sub-moves' what we call 'step' in this study, which combine to constitute information in the move. As far as identification of the moves was concerned in this study, in most cases textual clues and surface signals proved to be fairly reliable indicators; however, our ultimate criterion for assigning

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discoursal values to moves was functional rather than formal. In other words, beside linguistic evidence we trusted our comprehension of the text as well.

The unit of analysis in this study is sentence. During present analysis we found that sometimes a single sentence may function as a move; however, in some cases more than one sentence were necessary to perform a communicative function in the text. The last point to be mentioned is when a sentence or some sentences appeared to contain two moves, they were assigned to the move that seemed to be more salient. This decision, in all cases, was supported by the functional value of that text segment rather than textual clues.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

All the move analysis and frequency counts of the moves and the steps within them were based on the CARS model of Swales (1990). According to Swales' (1990) CARS model, writers usually start with the significance of the research through claiming the importance of a given topic, by making topical generalizations, or by reviewing previous research (Move 1). The writers then move on with establishing a niche by indicating a gap, posing a question, or continuing a tradition (Move 2) and finally researchers take advantage of the niche and propose the current research by outlining purposes or presenting the research findings or values of the study (Move 3). What follows is the step by step analysis of the aforementioned moves and steps within them. Table 1 shows the descriptive account of the introductions in terms of number of words, number of sentences, and number of paragraph.

Table 1

Number of Words, Number of Sentences, and Number of Paragraph in Introductions of Research Articles

Text Number	Author(s)	Number of words	Number of sentences	Number of paragraph
1	André Wolterbeekaet al	800	42	10
2	Andrea D. Harringtona, et al	220	12	1
3	Jing Gao, Xiang Wu, Shan Qin	512	31	3
4	C. Pirim, R.D et al	1152	70	6
5	Galiya E. Zhussupovaa, Aizhan I. Zhussupovaa*	196	7	1
6	Ju-Quan Zhang et al	409	21	3
7	FarshadFarahbod	206	12	4
8	Chunyu Xia et al	411	27	3

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9	Chao He , Mark A. Smith	462	61	2
10	ZuriatiZakaria et al	962	49	6
11	Qiang Zhang et al			
12	BarboraHolubová et al	1098	57	8
13	Abhay Kumar Pandey et al	599	43	3
14	Clovisson Menotti Boeira de Oliveira et al	847	34	4
15	C. Clarke, S.P. Andrews	275	11	5
16	Barnes	553	22	3
17	J. Guigue et al	452	28	3
18	HanzhongJiaa, et al	678	23	4
19	Shyamapada Mandal1, Manisha Mandal	418	19	4
20	Gregory M. Marshall et al	783	50	3
21	DavoodNematollahi, Amene Amani	431	17	3
22	Laura Nodin et al			
23	Patrىcia S.M. Santos, Armando C. Duarte	845	52	6
24	Alexey M. Sipyagin et al	146	6	1
25	Y. Xuan, G. Blanquart	693	61	6
26	PelinYazgan-Birgia, et al	1041	40	5
27	Xue-Jing Dui et al			
28	Moonis Ali Khan et al	729	44	4
29	Jing LIANG, Jian-su MAO	352	17	2
30	EzzatRafiee, Sara Eavani	493	31	4

Move Analysis Sample

According to Swales' (1990) model, the first move in introduction section of research articles is establishing territory which concerns the importance of the field of study. This move contains three

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steps, namely, centrality claim, topic generalization, and reviewing previous literature. "Centrality claims" is indicated where the author presents to the readers a justification that the research is significant and that it is a part of an active, well-established area of study (Step 1).Following are some examples illustrating this step (all examples are taken from Swales, 1990):

• Knowledge of .... has a great importance for...

• The relationship between ... has been studied by many authors. (p. 144)

Step 2, "making topic generalizations" contains sentences about the current state of knowledge, practice or phenomena (p.146).

For example:

• There is now much evidence to support the hypothesis that...

• A standard procedure for assessing has been ....

• An elaborate system of ... is found in the ... (p.146)

In Step 3, the writers present some previous studies that has been conducted before him or her. In this part certain important previous findings are reviewed, and writes name the researchers who published those results, and show their stance towards the findings. After claiming and establishing the research territory, the writer will try to establish the niche (Move 2). The writer can do it by indicating a gap (Step 1B), using such words as *however, nevertheless, but, yet, etc.*, that indicate some shortcomings with previous research and lack of research. Other ways to create the niche are through raising questions about previous research (Step 1C); continuing a research tradition where the writer further the previous research or challenge the previous research to a lesser degree to improve previous work (Step ID); or making counterclaims (Step 1A). The following statements are some examples illustrating the above steps:

- *However,* the previously mentioned methods *suffer from some limitations...*
- The second group... is *time consuming* and therefore *expensive,* and its ... is *not sufficiently accurate.*
- The first group... *cannot treat...* is *limited to...* (p.154)

Typically, Move 2 contains negative items such as *no, little, none, very few;* negative verbs such as *fail, overlook, lack;* negative adjectives such as *inconclusive, questionable, misleading.*

In Move 3, offers ways to solve the problems identified in Move 2. This can normally be achieved through: outlining the main purpose(s) (Step 1A) or describing the main features of the present research (Step IB). Some common examples of Move 3 are:

• The main purpose of the experiments reported here was to...

• This study was designed to evaluate...

• The present work extends the use of the last model...

• This paper reports on the results obtained... (p.160)

Two more options in Move 3 that usually come after Step 1 are the summary of principal findings (Step 2) and description of the structure or the content of the rest of the RA (Step 3). Figure 2 shows the schematic structure of CARS model.

Move 1: Establishing a territory
Step 1 claiming centrality And/or Step 2 making topic generalization And/or Step 3 reviewing items of previous research
Move 2: Establishing a niche
Step 1A counter claiming Or Step 1B indicating a gap Or Step 1C question raising Or Step 1D continuing a tradition

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Move 3: Occupying the niche

Step 1A outlining purposes

Or

Step 1B announcing research paper

Step 2 announcing principal findings

Step 3 indicating research article structure

Figure 2. Swales' (1990) CARS Model for Article Introduction

What follows is a sample of introduction section of one of the articles in the study. The introduction section contained three paragraph. As seen in the sample the first sentence of the first paragraph deals with importance of the *silicate-carbonate systems* which corresponds to the first step of the move 1 or in other words *centrality claims*. Moving forward, the introduction generalizes and elaborates on the topic by focusing on the formation of *Spurrite, galuskinite and tilleyite*which are the minerals under study. Therefore, this part of the introduction section corresponds to the second step of the move 1, *topic generalization*. In the second paragraph, writer again restates the importance of these minerals in the first sentence which corresponds to the first step of the move 1, *centrality claim*. This means that this move may have cyclical nature in chemistry research articles. The introduction moves forward by reviewing the previous research on the minerals under study which is the manifestation of the third steps of move 1 *reviewing items of previous research*. At the beginning of the third paragraph, the author creates a niche (move 2) through indicating a gap (step 1) and then occupies the niche (move 3) through announcing the research paper (step 1B).

Example: article 3

The silicate-carbonate systems are ***geologically important in theoretical and experimental studies*** *because of their close association with diamond origin (Pal'yanov et al., 2002, 2005, Litvin et al., 2005, 2008, Bobrov&Litvin, 2011), carbonatite genesis (Wyllie & Haas, 1965, Brooker &Kjarsgaard, 2011) and contact metamorphism and metasomatism of limestone (Treiman& Essene, 1983,Sklyarov et al., 2013).* ***(Move 1 step 1).****High-temperature metamorphism and metasomatism of limestone* ***results in the formation of a variety of skarn minerals, among which spurrite*** *Ca5(SiO4)2(CO3)****, galuskinite*** *Ca7(SiO4)3(CO3) and* ***tilleyite****Ca5(Si2O7) (CO3)2 are three representative products (Lazic et al., 2011).* ***Spurrite occurs characteristically in skarns formed*** *during the shallow intrusion of igneous rock into limestone in USA (Tilley, 1929,Joesten, 1976), Mexico (Wright, 1908), Russia (Galuskin et al.,2009,Galuskina et al., 2009) and*

Canada (Rosa & Martin, 2010); and it was also found in the pyrometamorphic rocks of Hatrurim Formation in Israel where the combustion of organic fossil fuel provided a heat source (Sokol et al., 2008). ***Tilleyite was initially discovered*** *in thermally metamorphosed limestones from contact zone in California, USA (Larsen & Dunham, 1933), and later confirmed to abound in the high-temperature skarn in Cornet Hill in Romania (Marincea et al., 2001, Pascal et al., 2001, Grice, 2005), where spurrite was occasionally found in association.* ***Galuskinite is a newly discovered mineral*** *found in altered silicatecarbonate xenoliths a few meters in diameter in the Birkhin gabbro massif of Russia. It was believed to be the retrograde product of skarn alteration, to replace dellaite and to be subsequently substituted by spurrite (Lazic et al., 2011).****(Move 1 step2)***

*All three minerals are relatively rare with sporadic occurrences being reported worldwide, but their complicated structures are of considerable interest to geologists as the models of [SiO4] and [CO3] coexistent phases.****(Move 1 step 1****). The tilleyite crystal structure was initially* ***described roughly by Nockolds (1947) and Tilley (1947),*** *respectively, and later was determined by Smith (1953) to be monoclinic with the space group of P21/a (Z ¼ 4). The result was subsequently* ***supplemented by Louisnathan and Smith (1970)****, who defined the dimensions of [Si2O7] groups and the arrangement of Ca coordination tetrahedra. The detailed structure of spurrite was determined to be monoclinic (P21/a and Z ¼ 4) consisting of isolated [SiO4] tetrahedral and [CO3] equilateral triangles linked together by Ca atoms (Smith et al., 1960). A systematic description of spurrite and tilleyite structures was* ***reinvestigated in the study of Grice (2005)****, who proposed the layer module concept for the structural interpretation for minerals in silicate-carbonate system. Afterwards, Lazic et al. (2011) further developed the layer concept to describe the structure of newly-found galuskinite and determined that the galuskinite crystal structure could be considered as a multiploid built by alternating spurrite and larnite modules****(Move 1 step 3).***

Despite the experimental studies *of these mineral occurrences and structures in previous reports, few descriptions can be used to interpret their structural relationship with corresponding silicates and carbonates****(Move2 step 1B)****. Here we report a first-principle investigation focusing on the crystal chemistry and the compressional mechanism of these minerals, as well as their comparabilities with silicates and carbonates (****Move 3 step 1B****)*

Results of Move Analysis

Based on the analysis of the 30 article selected for this study it was found that in 96.77% of cases the first move in introduction sections was identified as move 1 (establishing territory). Just in one case (article number 15) introduction section started with move 2 (creating a niche). Tale 2 shows the pattern of move structure in the selected articles. In 18 cases which is about 60% the introduction sections followed the regular pattern of move structure proposed by Swales (1990). In other words, they followed the pattern of first move1 and then move2 and finally move 3.

Table 2

The Pattern of Move Structure in the Selected Articles in the Field of Chemistry

Article	Move Pattern (move 1) (move 2) (move 3) step1/step2/step3/step4
1	Move 1(step2/ step3/ step1) move 2 (step2) move 3(step2/ step1)
2	Move 1(step2/ step1/) move 2 (step2) move 3(step1/ step4)

3	Move 1(step1/ step2/ step1/ step3) move 2 (step2) move 3(step1)
4	Move 1(step2/ step3) move 3(step2/ step1/step4)
5	Move 1(step1/ step2/) move 3(step1)
6	Move 1(step2/ step3) move 2 (step4) move 3(step2/ step1/)
7	Move 1(step2/ step3)move 3(step2)
8	Move 1(step1/ step2/ step3) move 2 (step2) move 3(step1/) Move 1(step3) move 3(step3)
9	Move 1(step2/ step3) move 2 (step2) move 3(step1/step3/ step4)
10	Move 1(step1/ step2/ step3/ step1) move 2 (step1) move 3(step1)
11	Move 1(step1/ step2/ step3/ step1) move 2 (step4) move 3(step2/)
12	Move 1(step2) move 3(step2) Move 1(step2) move 3(step2) Move 1(step3) move 3(step4)
13	Move 1(step2/ step1/step2) move 2 (step4) move 3(step2/ step1)
14	Move 1(step2/ step3/step2) move 2 (step4) move 3(step1)
15	move 2 (step3) Move1 (step3) move 3 (step1)
16	Move 1(step1/ step2/) move 3 (step2) move 2(step4)
17	Move 1(step2/ step3/ step2) move 3 (step1)
18	Move 1(step1/ step2/ step3/ step2) move 2 (step1) move 3(step2/step1)
19	Move 1(step2/) move 2 (step4) move 1(step2)
20	Move 1(step1/ step2/ step3/ step2/ step3) move 3(step2/step1)
21	Move 1(step1/ step2/)move 3(step1)Move 1(step2)Move 1(step1/ step2/)
22	Move 1(step1/ step2/) Move 2(step2) move 3(step1)
23	Move 1(step1/ step2/step3) Move 2(step4) move 3(step1)
24	Move1(step3) Move 2(step4) move 3(step1)
25	Move 1(step2/ step3) Move 2(step2)move 3 (step1/step4)
26	Move 1(step1/ step2/step3) Move 2(step4) move 3(step1)Move1 (step3) move 3(step1)
27	Move 1(step1/ step2 /step3) Move 2(step4) move 3(step1)

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28	Move 1(step2 /step3) Move 2(step4) move 3(step1)
29	Move 1(step2 /step1/step3) Move 2(step2) move 3(step1)
30	Move 1(step1/ step2 /step3) Move 2(step4) move 3(step1)

As seen in Table 2, in 5 articles which was about 16.66% of all articles, introduction sections contained only 2 moves, namely moves 1 and 3. The move 2 was missing in these articles. The following introduction is an example of the introductions in which move 2 is missing. In all examples the **bold typed** words and phrases are the linguistic realizations of the moves and steps under discussion and the parentheses indicate the moves and steps.

Example: article 17

Soil-monitoring networks serve to investigate the links between soil characteristics and environment, through the analysis of very large datasets, integrating soil diversity and environmental factors. Several soil-monitoring networks have been established around the world (Morvan et al., 2008; Van Wesemael et al., 2011) ***(Topic generalization).*** *Many studies have been conducted using the French Soil Quality Monitoring Network ("R_eseau de Mesures de la Qualit_e des Sols": RMQS), allowing large-scale assessment of soil organic carbon stocks (Martin et al., 2011), abundance of microorganisms (Dequiedt et al., 2011), and trace metal concentrations (Saby et al., 2009), for example. Large-scale investigation of the complex variability of soil biogeochemistry becomes possible, because of the extensive sample set available with this soil-monitoring network (n ¼ 2200), The RMQS project provides an excellent opportunity to study the soluble organic matter in soils, a central component of soil biogeochemistry* ***(Reviewing items of previous research)***

The soluble organic matter in soils generally corresponds to less than 2% of the soil organic matter, but is considered very sensitive, due to its high solubility and turnover rate ----- ***(Topic generalization)****.*

In this study, we analyse 120 samples from the RMQS project, collected in Burgundy, an area selected for its significant diversity in geology, soil type and vegetation. We determined----- ***(Outlining purposes)***

As the sample shows the article starts with topic generalization which is the second step of move 1 and then continues with reviewing items of previous research which is the third step of move 1. In the next paragraph the writer again reverts to topic generalization and then move on with outlining the purposes of the research which is the first step of move 3. Therefore the second move namely creating a niche is totally missing here.

In 4 cases (13.33%), recurring move happened. For instance in article number 26 the introduction section started with move1 and then go to move 2 and move3 and again reverts back to move 1 followed by move number 3.

Example: article 26

Triglyceride oils have been substantially utilized for the production of organic coatings, biomaterials, paints, inks, lubricants, plasticizers, agrochemicals and polyurethane foams (Centrality ***claim****). Even though triglyceride oils cannot be directly used in coating applications, they can be successfully used after applying various modification methods in this field [1–14]. --- (****Topic generalization****)*

*A number of studies were previously carried out in our laboratory with respect to avoidance of homopolymer formation in order to improve the film proper-ties of oil-based binders [6–14]. (**Reviewing items of previous research**)*

*As a continuation of these studies, in the present study "click" chemistry strategy was applied as a new route……(**Continuing a tradition**)for the preparation of styrenated urethane oil using triglyceride oil, styrene and urethane linkage without homopolystyrene formation (**outlining purposes**).*

*Sharpless and Meldal groups have great contribution to the remarkable development of "click" chemistry strategy that provides quantitative yields, ------- [15–19]. Several types of "click" reactions have been identified such as, ------ [19] ---In the recent years, the combination of CuAAC and con-trolled living radical polymerization (CLRP)------[8]. In their study, the bromine chain ends of polystyrene formed by ATRP ----- [20] In another research, azideend-functional poly(oligo(ethylene glycol) acrylate) was synthe-sized ------[24]. (**Reviewing items of previous research**)*

*In the present study, the versatile root for the functional poly-mer synthesis was thought of worth studying in the modification oftriglyceride oils and CuAAC "click" chemistry approach was applied as a new route for the styrenated urethane oil production (**outlining purposes**)*

As the example clearly shows the introduction section starts with move 1 containing *centrality claim* (step 1), *topic generalization* (step 2) and *reviewing items of previous research* (step3). The next move was identified as move 2 which was realized through *continuing a tradition* (step4). Move 3 was determined through *outlining purposes* (step1). However, after the third move, the writer again reviews previous research which is the third step of move1 and afterward again outlines purposes which is the first step of move 3.

Moreover in 14 cases the first step in move 1 was identified as *centrality claim* which was calculated as 46.66% of all articles. Similarly 46.66% of the first moves start with step 2 (topic generalization). This may indicate that in chemistry discipline both centrality claim and topic generalization are typical ways of initiating the first move.

Some of the examples for the step *centrality claim* are as follows:

Example: Article 1

***The course of "Organic Chemistry" is a fundamental discipline** for the subsequent chemical and biological disciplines, and, for a greater extent, for general courses like: "Biochemistry", "Bioorganic chemistry", as well as forspecial courses.*

Example: Article 20

***Zircon (ZrSiO4) is a valuable accessory mineral that has** applications in the ceramic and pigment industries, and is used in the production of zirconium dioxide (ZrO2), which is a highly refractory material.*

Example: Article 21

***Diarylsulfones are important synthetic targets,** and widely used synthons for synthetic organic chemists due to many applications of them [1,2].*

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As seen in the examples lexical choices such as *fundamental discipline, valuable accessory mineral, important synthetic targets* have been used in the introduction sections to indicate the importance of the field of the study. Some of the examples for the step *topic generalization* are as follows:

Example: Article 19

The essential oils and extracts of aromatic plants and spices have been used in food preservation*, pharmaceuticals, alternative medicine and natural therapies. Currently, it is necessary to investigate those plants scientifically,*

Example: Article 30

II–VI (II:Zn,Cd,Mn;VI:S,Se,Te) based inorganic–organic materials are unique and interesting family of hybrid semiconductors *that are composed of one-dimensional(1D) or two dimensional(2D) nanostructures of II–VI binary inorganic compounds and mono-or di-amine molecules*

Example: Article 1

Synthetic amorphous silica (SAS), a nanostructured material, is a form of silicon dioxide (SiO2) *which is produced for decades with-out significant changes in its physical–chemical properties.*

As seen in examples the main focus of these extracts is indication of current state of knowledge. For instance in article number 17 it is stated that *The essential oils and extracts of aromatic plants and spices have been used in food preservation, pharmaceuticals, alternative medicine and natural therapies. Currently, it is necessary to investigate those plants scientifically* which clearly shows that writers present the current status of knowledge and practice about *aromatic plants and spices.*

With respect to move creating a niche in 21 cases (70%) the second move was identified as creating a niche. From these 21 articles 8 (38.09%) of them the second move was started with step 2 (indicating a gap), 11 (52.38%) of them started with step 4 (continuing a tradition) and 2 (9.52%) of them started with step 1 (counter claiming).

Examples of indicating gap in move 2 are as follows:

Example: Article 9

However, *definitive structural identification within the complex mixture is* ***rarely reported****, until our recent study employing multinuclear and multidimensional NMR spectroscopy*

Example: Article 22

However, to date, only thirteen *compounds have been studied for the 20-hydroxyl acylation and only five (NMIA, 1M7, BzCN, FAI and NAI) can be used in RNA SHAPE analysis.....*

As stated earlier use of negative words are mainly used to indicate a gap based on which writers justify the significant of their studies. As the examples show the writes have employed the word *however*, to indicate the gap. This is not the only strategy and as seen in example from article 22, writer states that *to date only thirteen compounds have been studied for the 20 20-hydroxyl acylation* to better capture the gap in the studies done so far.

Examples for continuing a tradition in move 2 are as follows:

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Example: Article 26

As a continuation of these studies*, in the present study "click" chemistry strategy was applied as a new route for the preparation of styrenated urethane oil using triglyceride oil, styreneand urethane linkage without homopolystyrene formation.*

Example: Article 11

In order to improve understanding of the structure–property relationship *and further develop high-performance organic– inorganic hybrid materials,* ***there is a continuing requirement*** *to prepare additional hybrid materials having various new structures.*

As it is evident in the examples, writes emphasize on continuing the line of research to further current knowledge about the issue under study. The use of the word *continuation* is a sign of the fact that studies are efforts to continue previous attempts.

Examples for counter claiming in move 2 are as follows:

Example: Article 18

Other species such as water and organic ligands ***could also compete*** *for active sites with organic molecules,* ***and thus influence*** *the catalytic activity of clay surfaces [8].* ***From this prospect, we hypothesize*** *that the molecular chemistry relevant factors may play an important role on clay-driven transformation of PAHs.*

Example: Article 10

The ***students' interest in chemistry is diminished*** *as they have the perception that the use of chemicals is dangerous and it is very difficult to conduct chemistry experiments.*

As seen in the above examples writers try to state something that is in contrast to the previous knowledge or expectations. For instance in the sentence *Other species such as water and organic ligands* ***could also compete*** *for active sites with organic molecules,* ***and thus influence*** the writes use such phrases as *Other species, could also compete*, and *thus influence* to make counter claiming and propose a new perspective.

Based on Swales' (1990) model, the third move is move 3 *occupying the niche*. In the selected articles in this study in 21 (70%) introductions, the third move was identified as the move *occupying the niche*. From these 21 articles in 16 (76.19%) of them the second move was started with step 1 (outlining purposes) and 5 (33.81%) of them started with step 2 (announcing research paper).

Examples of outlining purposes in move 3 are as follows:

Example: Article 10

The objective of this study *is to assess the students' responses in whether the learning of chemistry is enhanced by using the small lab kit in the second year organic chemistry experiments.*

Example: Article 25

The objective of this work is to investigate *the effects of the aromatic chemistry-turbulence interactions on the formation and later evolution of PAH and soot.*

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The writers in these examples use the explicit use of such phrases as *the objective of the study* or *the objective of this work* to prepare the mind of the readers for the aims and purposes of the studies.

Examples of announcing research paper in move 3 are as follows:

Example: Article 20

In this paper, the SOM present *on zircon particles concentrated from Athabasca oil sand froth treatment tailings is investigated,*

Example: Article 18

In this work, we demonstrate *for the first time the trans-formation of several PAHs (such as naphthalene, phenanthrene, anthracene, chrysene, pyrene, and benzo[a] pyrene) on clay minerals with various surface physicochemical properties under environmentally relevant conditions.*

In these example writes make use of such phrases as *wedemonstrat*e and the *SOM present* to state what the present research is going to present to the reader.

In four articles, move 3 contained step 4 (indicating research article structure) and in one article move 3 contained step 3 (announcing principal findings). However, in all of these article, move 3 was not identified as the third move as was proposed by Swales' (1991) model.

The following example is an indication of research article structure in move 3.

Example: Article 25

This paper is organized as follows*. Section 2 describes the models used for combustion, LES closure, PAH, and soot transport. In Sections 3 and 4, the presented models are applied to the LES of an ethylene/air turbulent non-premixed jet flame.*

Here the writer states explicitly that how the research paper is organized. As seen clearly in the example, writer explains what each section of the article contains.

The following example is an announcement of principal findings in move 3.

We identified four more important prebiotic molecules*; aminoacetonitrile, succinonitrile, acetoguanamine (AGA) and adenine using NMR spectroscopy and gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS).*

Writers here states what they found after carrying out the research and clearly states that they identified four important *prebiotic molecules*. Generally, Swales model could well be used to analyze the generic structure of introduction sections of articles in the field of chemistry. Table 3 shows the compatibility of Swales (1990) model with the present findings of the study regarding move structure of introduction section of chemistry articles.

Table 3

Percentage of Moves and Steps Found in Chemistry Articles Based on Swales (1990) Model

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Move	Percentage of Occurrence	Steps	Percentage of Occurrence
Establishing a territory	100%	claiming centrality	60%
		making topic generalization	93.33%
		reviewing items of previous research	70%
Establishing a niche	76.66%	counter claiming	6.6%
		indicating a gap	26.66%
		question raising	0%
		continuing a tradition	36.66%
Occupying the niche	96.66%	outlining purposes	83%
		announcing research paper	33.33%
		announcing principal findings	6.66%
		indicating research article structure	20%

As it is clearly shown in Table 3 all the moves were present almost in perfect match with what Swales (1990) proposed in terms of genre structure of research article introduction sections. *Establishing a Territory* was found in 100% of articles, *Establishing a Niche* was found in 76.66% of articles, and *Occupying the Niche* was found in 96.66% of articles. Regarding the steps all the steps except step *question rising*in move *Establishing a Niche*were found in all the moves but varying degrees. Step *Counter claiming* in move *Establishing a Niche*and step *indicating research article structure*in move *Occupying the Niche* had least percentage of occurrence (6.66%) and the step *making topic generalization* in move *Establishing a Territory* had the highest percentage of occurrence (93.33%). Table 3 illustrates detailed report of percentage of occurrence of the moves and steps in

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chemistry article introduction section. The present findings regarding generic structure of introduction section was well matched with swales (1990) model. In presenting his model, Swales (1990) did not claim that all the steps are found in within the moves which is in line with what was found in present study.

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to examine move structure of the introduction section of articles in the discipline of chemistry. To this end, a selection of 30 articles was genre analyzed using Swales' (1990) model known as CARS model. Based on the analysis it was found that in 96.77% of cases, the first move in introduction sections was identified as move 1 (establishing territory). Just in one case (article number 15) introduction section started with move 2 (creating a niche). It was also found that 60% of the articles followed the standard pattern of move structure proposed by Swales. In 16.66% of the articles, move 2 was missing and in 13.33% of the articles recurring move happened. The moves that recurred were moves 3 and 1. Regarding the steps within moves, it was found that in move 1 both step 1 and step 2 had the same frequency of occurrence meaning that both had been used to the same degree as ways to realize move 2. Step 3 within move 2 had the lowest frequency of occurrence. With respect to move 2 (creating a niche) in 21 cases (70%) the second move was identified as creating a niche. From these 21 articles in 8 (38.09%) of them the second move started with step 2 (indicating a gap), 11 (52.38%) of them started with step 4 (continuing a tradition) and 2 (9.52%) of them started with step 1 (counter claiming). In the selected articles in this study in 21 (70%) introductions, the third move was identified as the move occupying the niche. From these 21 articles in 16 (76.19%) of them the second move started with step 1 (outlining purposes) and 5 (33.81%) of them started with step 2 (announcing research paper).

On the whole the move structure of the introduction sections in chemistry articles was in line with that proposed by Swales (1990). This is in line with the studies done by Posteguillo (1999) and Samraj (2002). The analysis also revealed that in 96.77% of cases the first move in introduction sections was identified as move 1 (establishing territory). Crookes' (1986) study is one of the earliest works solely on Introductions. In this study a corpus of 96 Introductions form experimental fields was selected randomly from 12 journals. These 96 articles represented the articles Swales (1981) used in his study and were from the three main academic fields—hard sciences (physics, chemistry, etc.), biology/medical science, and social sciences. A number of graduate students who were trained how to analyzed generic structures of introduction section served as coders who coded one quarter of the corpus according to the original Swales' (1981) model of move structure. The corpus as a whole showed that most articles begin with Move 1 which corresponds to the same move 1 (centrality claim) in Swales (1990) model.

However there has been some deviations from the proposed model of swales (1990) in the present research. For instance, in 16.66% of the articles, move 2 was missing and in 13.33% of the articles recurring move happened. Similarly Posteguillo (1999) also found disciplinary differences in rhetorical organization, in physical science and computer science articles. In this regard, Posteguillo found that Move 2- establishing a niche recurred in 75% of the Introductions in computer science. Samraj (2002) explains that the existence or non-existence of move 2 in article introduction may have various reasons. Fredrickson and Swales (1994, cited in Samraj, 2002) explain that the low presence of move 2 in Swedish linguistics RAs could be due to the fact that writers of these research

articles do not need to compete for research space because of the small size of the community. Also Fakhri (2004) in her study of Malay research articles reported that move 2 was not prevalent in her corpus and justified it based on the lack of serious competition for research space which results in a move structure that may look different when compared to the move structure of more typical research articles. The same situation may be applicable to this context and it might be that researchers in the field of chemistry may not feel the urgent need to establish the niche based on which they justify their research. The Malay data from the study by Ahmad (1997) provides yet more evidence for variations within the genre of research articles. Out of the 62 articles in his corpus, about 43 percent (or 27 articles) did not contain a clearly identifiable Move 2. In the articles studied by Ahmad (1997) writers took their readers to the method and material sections after a lengthy introduction to the topic (Move 1).

Regarding the steps within moves it was found that in move 1 both step 1 (centrality claim) and step 2 (topic generalization) had the same frequency of occurrence as the opening step for move 1. Step 3 (reviewing previous research) within move 2 had the lowest frequency of occurrence. Similarly, the study by Kanoksilapatham (2003) on introduction section of biochemistry articles showed that the more frequent opening step of biochemistry Introductions was Move 1 Step 2: Making topic generalizations. This move/step was quite present and usually opened the section in 30 Introductions or 50% of the corpus and could be seen elsewhere in the Introduction section. Kanoksilapatham (2003) also found that the third step (reviewing previous research) in move 1 was less frequently adopted to open the Introductions of biochemistry (15 Introductions or 25 % of the corpus). Again all this can be due to the contextual variations related to discipline differences which may impel the writers to adopt a particular strategy to establish the importance and significant of a research.

With respect to move creating a niche, in 21 cases (70%) the second move was identified as creating a niche. This is quite in line with move structure proposed by Swales model (1990). In majority of cases the second move has been identified as the move creating a niche. Based on the results of previous research on move structure of introduction section of research articles (e.g., Nwogu, 1997, Posteguillo, 1999, Swales, 1990), it is not always possible to find a perfect occurrence (100%) for each move; therefore, a minimum level of occurrence must be considered to determine if a move can be taken as conventionalized. In the present study an index of 70% is quite acceptable to make sure that move 2 is a conventionalized move in chemistry articles. From these 21 articles 8 (38.09%) of them started the second move with step 2 (indicating a gap), 11 (52.38%) of them started with step 4 (continuing a tradition) and 2 (9.52%) of them started with step 1 (counter claiming). Therefore, it is concluded that continuing a tradition or in other words building upon previous research is more common than indicating a gap, counter claiming, or question raising in chemistry articles. The study by Kanoksilapatham (2003) on biochemistry articles indicated that move 2 included two steps of indicating a gap and question raising. The step indicating a gap was very prevalent in the biochemistry corpus, which was consistent with Posteguillo's (1999) finding in computer science corpus. In the present study indicating a gap was the second most frequent strategy to create a niche (move 2).

In 21 (70%) introductions studied in this research, the third move was identified as the move occupying the niche. Therefore, this move can also be considered a conventionalized move in chemistry articles which is in line with the Swales' model (1991). From these 21 articles 16 (76.19%)

of them started the second move with step 1 (outlining purposes) and 5 (33.81%) of them started with step 2 (announcing research paper). This finding is in line with the study by Lin (2014). She examined 30 article introductions in civil engineering discipline and found that 53.3% of the move 3 were realized through the step outlining purposes. In other words similar to the finding of Lin (2014) the main strategy to occupy the niche in introductions in the discipline of chemistry was through outlining purposes. However, in the study by Kanoksilapatham (2003) the main strategy to occupy the niche in discipline of biochemistry was found announcing the principal findings which occurred in 92% of the corpus.

And finally, the study revealed that move 1 and move 2 had cyclical nature and could be found elsewhere in the articles of chemistry as well. Kanoksilapatham (2003) also found that Move 1 and move 3 could appear several times, showing great recursion. This can be due to the complexity of the studies and writes may employ this strategy to accommodate this complexity and make things easier to the readers.

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A REVIEW OF LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION FOR A GLOBAL SOCIETY: A MODULAR MODEL FOR KNOWING, ANALYZING, RECOGNIZING, DOING, AND SEEING

MOHAMMAD HASHAMDAR,
PhD, Department of Translation Studies, Karaj Branch, Islamic Azad University, Karaj, Iran

PARISA ETELA,
PhD Candidate, Department of TEFL, University of Applied Science and Technology, Asaluyeh, Iran

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Abstract

Kumaravadivelu presented KARDS model in March 2000 TESOL Conversation for the first time. The model's audiences are English language teachers, teacher educators, practicing teachers, English students, decision makers, Educational researchers and all related field to English language as a Lingua Franca. He presents "KARDS Model" as a new model of "Language Teacher Education" which is on the one hand, process-based, cyclical, holistic, transformational-oriented, and on the other hand, linear, product-based, transmission-oriented, and discrete course. Kumaravadivelu's book is a complete explanation of KARDS model. This model leads readers from theory to experiment. Furthermore inspire its readers with a new vision of teaching by step by step explanation and guidance. This article is a review of the book (Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). Language teacher education for a global society: A modular model for knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, and seeing. New York: Routledge/Taylor and Francis) in order to help its readers to read a brief but complete summary of the book.

Keywords: Book Review, Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012).

INTRODUCTION

BOOK REVIEW

The book is written in seven chapters and contains 148 pages. The first six chapters are end with three parts, (A) Rapid Reader Response, (B) Reflective Tasks (C) Explanatory Project. The Rapid Reader Response contains of four textual questions which are repeated in all six chapters for quick consciousness response from the readers about the chapter. In spite of Rapid Reader Response, Reflective Tasks needs in-depth responses which need critical thinking and they are not as quick as

Rapid Reader Response. The last part, Explanatory Project, is an activity for reader's deeper engagement in order to facilitate understanding the involved issues.

The introductory chapter titled "(RE) Visioning Language Teacher Education". The author believes that 'teacher education' is not just teachers and education and it is not limited, because both 'education' and 'teacher education' are connected to social, ethical, philosophical, and ideological aspects and it can call 'studying teacher education'.

The author mentioned that the main stone for constructing a comprehensive model for L2 are divided to two broad categories as globalizing perspectives and operating principles. Globalizing perspectives divided to five global perspectives (post-national, postmodern, post-colonial, post-transmission, and post-method) and three operating principles (particularity, practicality, and possibility).

KARDS model consisting of five componential modules and each of the five next chapters is about one of the modules of the KARDS model. In the mentioned model "K" stands for "Knowing", "A" stands for "Analyzing", "R" stands for "Recognizing", "D" stands for "Doing" and "S" stands for "Seeing".

Knowing

For kumaravadivelu 'knowing' is a dynamic concept that focuses on the process of knowledge-building. Furthermore; in this chapter He divided knowledge to three different categories. The first category is belong to professional knowledge (refers to the knowledge of language, language learning, and language teaching) (p.24), the next category is belong to procedural knowledge (refers to the knowledge of classroom management which includes talk management and topic management, learning and teaching) (p.34), and the last one is personal knowledge (refers to the knowledge of teachers' abilities to 'critically recognize, reflect, review, and reinvent their own identities, beliefs, and values')

Analyzing

In the chapter on analyzing the focus is on the learner needs, motivation, and autonomy and stress is on the importance of recognizing teacher identities, beliefs, and values. The author believes that second language teachers should develop their necessary knowledge and skills in order to analyze and understand learners need, motivation, and autonomy in a globalized world.

Recognizing

Kumaravadivelu emphasized on the importance of recognizing teacher identities, believes, and values that form the 'teaching self' a teacher brings to the classroom. He made it clear by outlining the concept of identity and identity formation, beliefs and belief system, and values and value judgment; he also put these attributes in a broader philosophical, psychological, and sociological landscape. Then the author connected these concepts to the field of English language teaching and focus on teaching rather than learning. Kumaravadivelu mentioned that the 'personal disposition' of teachers 'toward various aspects of their professional life is so vital that it determines their teaching behavior and hence shapes learning outcomes' (55).

Doing

In this chapter the forth module, doing, is a process of becoming an effective language teacher from 'traditional' language teacher to 'critical' language teacher, one who teach learners how to communicate. Doing as a part of teaching has three components which are reconnected directly with the three operating principles of particularity, practicality, and possibility. The first component, teaching, promotes desired learning outcome. The second component, theorizing, involves deriving a personal theory of practice, and the last one is dialogizing which seeks critical conversations with informed interlocutors as well as with one evolving teaching self (78).

Seeing

The final module of the model is 'seeing'. 'Seeing' for Kumaravadivelu goes beyond 'seeing' what is visible in the classroom. It is about ability of teachers to see what happened in the class, and it is related to the activities from the teachers,' learners,' and observers' points of view. The module divided into three different forms: seeing-in, seeing-as, and seeing-that. The first one, seeing-in, is about what we see and the appearance of the objects. The second one, seeing-as, is making connection between past experiences, images, and actions and compare and contrast them with the new ones. Seeing-that, as a connection between seeing and knowing is the higher form of seeing. Kumaravadivelu believes that the last form of seeing, seeing-that, can help us to make a connection between our conceptual knowledge and perceptual knowledge.

The Seventh and Final Chapter

In the concluding chapter, Kumaravadivelu emphasized on the dynamic nature of the model, he also put all mentioned modules together and highlighting the modules features, furthermore; He mentioned that each component interacting with the others at different levels.

The model is a comprehensive and innovative one which helps teachers and teacher assistants to understand the difference between theory and practice. Furthermore; helps teachers and learners to approach language learning from various perspectives and also changes teachers to critical thinkers of their own situations.

In sum, the book is very clear and understandable for its audiences and also the text is useful and value because it can be helpful in order not to be a traditional language teacher but try to be a critical language teacher rather. The book shows the way of being a better teacher and help the teachers step by step in order to goes beyond the theory and practice the ways according their own identities, beliefs, and values. But it should be mentioned that the criticism level against the book "Language Teacher Education for a Global Society: A Modular Model for Knowing, Analyzing, Recognizing, Doing, and Seeing" are;

1. There are two kinds of L2 motivation categories, integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. It can be even categorized as internal motivation and external motivation but the author did not provide any explanation about them in detail, he just mentioned the word motivation as a whole. It was better to make a distinction between these kinds of motivations and make it clear what does he means by motivation. I think integrative motivation cannot be useful here.

2. Autonomy is some one's ability to take charge of his own learning but here the role of teacher is vague for me as the learners are autonomous.

3. It was better to use the word "look at" instead of "seeing", because 'Seeing' for Kumaravadivelu goes beyond 'seeing' what is visible in the classroom.

At the end, I recommended this book to all those who are going to be a better English teacher, and all those who really wants to move forward and change to a better English teacher.

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