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EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRECTION OF THE TEENAGE PERSONALITY’S VALUES AND MOTIVATION SPHERE WHO IS PRONE TO DEVIANT BEHAVIOR

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Abstract
The importance of the problem considered is stipulated by dynamic transformations of society values reflected in teenagers’ consciousness and which are manifested in various forms of deviant behavior. The purpose of the article is to study the influence of the system of values on teenagers’ motivation which is expressed in refocusing behavior on a normative or a deviant orientation. For this purpose we have conducted experimental research of the influence of the social and psychological correction which is carried out as the program of developing values and motivation on the system of teenagers’ values and on the change of behavior. As a result of such experiment we have revealed a positive action of internal motivation that helps to uncover true meanings of his(her) own activity which, in its turn, has a positive effect on the orientation of behavior towards normative. The materials of the article can be of use to school psychologists in their practical work while solving the problems connected with deviant behavior of teenagers.

Keywords: personality, value orientations, motivation, teenagers, deviant behavior.
Introduction
In contemporary society with the interrelation system getting more and more complicated and owing to which the transformation of interaction structure takes place, the acquisition of the reference frame is becoming more important with which a person could make sense of his life activity and prospects of his future. From this perspective, the role of the values system which a person is motivated by, undoubtedly, rises and they serve as conscious reference points in forming the attitude towards the world and to himself. Such problem setting becomes especially important regarding the manifestation of various forms of deviant behavior. Deviations in a person’s behavior are manifested in a majority of forms both traditional – aggression and autoagression, alcoholism and drug addiction, offences and crimes, and also connected with the new forms of society development such as, for example, Internet-addiction. Deformation of the personality’s normative and values system (“nuclear formation of the personality” A.N. Leontyev, 1977) under the influence of external effects in the process of socialization determines the formation of deviant behavior (Ovsyanik et al., 2016; Salakhova et al., 2016a).

The problem of forming the system of values is touched upon in a vast array of contemporary scientists’ works. T.V. Vasilyeva (2014) thinks that under contemporary conditions of rethinking and reconsidering the values the topic of value orientations of the personality acquires a special significance because it is they that determine the functioning and development of a man (Vasilyeva, 2014). In K.M. Sabirova and N.V. Tekhteleva’s (2014) opinion, political, social and economic changes in our country led to the destruction of the customary system of values such as homeland, the family, friendship, communication (Sabirova & Tekhteleva, 2014). F.S. Kudzieva (2014) is of the same opinion considering that contemporary fundamental transformations of Russian society are characterized by a shift of emphasis in the system of interaction "society- family – an individual" from society to an individual (Kudzieva, 2014). O.V. Zakrevskaya’s (2013) work says that in society there is a deficiency of principles and rules consciously accepted by the majority of citizens and lack of creational reference points is observed. Values are formed spontaneously.

Society transformations exert a special influence, first of all, on the system of value orientations in the younger generation (Kalinina et al., 2016). So, in E.P. Savrutskaya’s (2014) work the conducted monitoring of value orientations of young people helped to reveal the tendencies of changes in values and priorities of contemporary, youth, mass consciousness. The growth of interethnic tension is becoming one of the negative changes among the others (Savrutskaya & Ustinkin, 2014). O.V. Zakrevskaya (2013) also believes that the formation of value orientations takes place throughout the whole life of a man, but it is manifested more systematically, consistently and profoundly in the period of growing up. That is why the period of the personality’s formation in a younger age is very important in view of his (her) value and normative orientation, and in case of a negative development it may lead to the deviant behavior orientation (Rean, Belinskaya & Narovsky, 2013; Lipatova et al., 2015).

V.A. Yadov’s (2013) concept provisions are consonant with it which develop the
idea that value orientations based on the system of values being one of the central, personal formations, express a conscious attitude to social reality and in this quality determine wide motivation of his behavior and exert a substantial influence on all aspects of his activity. The system of values is directly connected with the personality’s orientation, determines a substantive aspect of the personality and represents the foundation of the person’s world outlook, his views on the environment, attitude to other people, to himself, the core of motivation. Value orientations formed at a youth age on the basis of the system of values that formed in young people determine peculiarities and character of the personality’s relations with the real world and thus determine behavior in a certain degree. 

Thus the problem of studying the personality’s value and motivation sphere of young people under contemporary conditions in Russia takes on a special significance in view of its direct connection with a young man’s behavior and its manifestation in activity. It is very important for the personality’s value and motivation system of contemporary young people to gain a normative character. In this regard, the development of methods for forming the system of value orientations of young people directed towards not deviant but normative behavior seems to be productive, which is in accord with our previous study (Oschepkov, 2013; Afanasenko et al., 2015; Efimova et al., 2015; Silantiev & Mikhaylova, 2012; Enyashina & Mitin, 2011).

This range of problems determined the direction of empirical research. In view of the above-mentioned, we put forward the following hypothesis – making a social and psychological impact on the value and motivation sphere of the teenage personality leads to the change of the system of values and refocusing behavior from a deviant orientation to a normative. The specified range of problems and the hypothesis, in its turn, outlined the objectives set for our study:
1. To carry out empirical research of the personality’s value and motivation domains and level of proneness to deviant behavior in teenagers.
2. To conduct an experimental study of implementing the program of social and psychological correction of deviant behavior directed towards the development of values and motivation in the teenage personality.
3. To prepare a comparative analysis of the proneness level to deviant behavior in the control and experimental sample groups of teenagers before and after social and psychological correction.

**Research Methodology**

We used the author’s program compiled on the basis of V.A. Klimchuk’s (2005) developments as the teenage personality’s value and motivation development program in our experimental research. In empirical research we used S. Shwarts’s (1992, 1994) values questionnaire oriented to the measurement of motivation domains that specify the most significant value reference points of the person’s life activity (Shapar, 2005), and diagnostics technique of proneness to deviant behavior (PDB) (the author – A. N. Oryol (2002) which is a standardized test questionnaire intended for measuring the inclination of teenagers towards various forms of deviant behavior (Shapar, 2005).

Experimental research was conducted at the Children’s Academy of Humanities of
Pedagogical lyceum in the town of Dimitrovgrad of the Ulyanovsk region. Twenty teenagers aged 14-16 participated in the experiment, 10 young boys and 10 girls. The major criterion of separating tested teenagers in sample groups was participation in the program of social and psychological correction. The comparative analysis of the system of values and proneness to various forms of deviant behavior was carried out in sample groups formed in such manner. Forms of deviant behavior were identified with the help of the values questionnaire and technique of identifying proneness to deviant behavior.

Results
For the purpose of conducting experimental research two groups of teenagers were formed - the control (10 people) and experimental (10 people). The groups had the similar gender composition: the control group - 5 boys and 5 girls, the experimental - 5 boys and 5 girls. Psychological testing was carried out in the groups with the use of S. Shwarts’s value questionnaire and A.N. Oryol’s (2002) technique of identifying the inclination towards deviant behavior. Testing was done in a classroom of the school where members of the group were seated separately and introductory briefing was used which had a positive effect on the validity and reliability of the study. Psychological testing was carried out before and after the implementation of the teenage personality’s values and motivation development program.

For the purpose of analyzing the teenagers’ systems of values who participated in the values and motivation development program (TPVMDP) and teenagers who did not participate in the above mentioned program we made a comparison of the mean values of the system of values in the groups before and after the implementation of the social and psychological correction with the use of Student’s statistical t-criterion. Special attention was paid to significant differences in moral values of the studied teenage groups that could testify to the influence of the social and psychological impact on the personality of a teenager. At the same time, as we can see from table 1, statistically significant differences of the systems of moral values were not found in the analyzed sample groups of teenagers before the experimental study. For convenience of stating the material the following abbreviations will be used further: TPVMDP – teenagers, participating in the values and motivation development program, TNPVMDP – teenagers who did not participate in the values and motivation development program.

Table 1. Comparison of the mean values in teenagers’ values participating in the program of developing values and motivation, and teenagers not participating in the values and motivation development program before the experimental study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Mean values</th>
<th>t_{emp}.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPVMDP</td>
<td>TNPVMDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>4,75</td>
<td>4,25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Achievements</td>
<td>3,50</td>
<td>3,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Social power</td>
<td>3,63</td>
<td>2,88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Self-determination</td>
<td>4,50</td>
<td>4,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>3,67</td>
<td>4,83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Conformism  3,63  3,50  1,4100
7. Support of traditions  3,50  3,63  0,5800
8. Sociality  4,25  4,81  1,7100
9. Security  4,17  4,75  1,2200
10. Maturity  4,14  4,36  0,4000
11. Social culture  3,14  3,86  1,0200
12. Spirituality  3,80  4,50  0,9300

These results show a relative homogeneity of the values systems of the teenage personality which can be characterized as usual. In the usual system of a teenager’s values the values of enjoyment, self-determination, sociality and security are more significant which characterizes specific features of the personality development in teens. So, teenagers are in search of new feelings, new impression, along with the orientation to social contacts. Yet, teenagers did not grow into an independent, self-sufficient personality that is why their need for security and self-determination was also very significant.

Further analysis was devoted to the comparison of the groups’ mean values in the proneness level to deviant behavior in the teenagers who participated and did not participate in the values and motivation development program before the experimental study. As a result, a statistically significant difference was found in the proneness level to self-destructive behavior ($t_{emp}=2,3249$ when $\rho\leq0,01$), the significance of which was higher in the group of teenagers who later participated in the values and motivation development program (table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№п/п</th>
<th>Proneness</th>
<th>Mean values</th>
<th>$t_{emp}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPVMDP</td>
<td>TNPVMDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>to disobeying norms and rules</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>to addictive behavior</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>38,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>to self-destructive behavior</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>to aggressive behavior</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>38,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>to delinquent behavior</td>
<td>36,5</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** - significant differences when $\rho\leq0,01$

Such result, not in accord with a customary image, nonetheless it can be explained by the fact that the teenagers were grouped on a voluntary basis and that is why, the group, which was given the personality development, became more attractive for teenagers who have some personality problems - in our case, proneness to self-destructive behavior.

After conducting the experimental study a subsequent analysis of the values system and proneness level to deviant behavior was carried out in the sample groups of teenagers who participated in the values and motivation development program and teenagers who did not participate in the values and motivation development program. As a result, statistically significant differences were found in the values of “enjoyment” ($t_{emp}=4,90$ when $\rho\leq0,01$) “achievements” ($t_{emp}=8,01$ when $\rho\leq0,01$) and
“spirituality” ($t_{emp} = 2.83$ when $\rho \leq 0.01$), the significance of which was higher in the group of teenagers who participated in the values and motivation development program and, the value “sociality” ($t_{emp} = 5.66$ when $\rho \leq 0.01$), the significance of which was higher in the group of teenagers who did not participate in the values and motivation development program (table 3).

**Table 3.** Comparison of the mean values in teenagers’ values participating in the program of developing values and motivation, and teenagers not participating in the values and motivation development program after conducting the experimental study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Values</th>
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<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
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<td>4.90</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Social power</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Self-determination</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>5.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Conformism</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Support of traditions</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Sociality</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Social culture</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Spirituality</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** - significant differences when $\rho \leq 0.01$

The differences revealed can be considered as a result of influence of the social and psychological impact made during the implementation of the values and motivation development program. Thus one can consider that in the personality of teenagers who participated in the experimental program of the values and motivation development the following changes happened. Teenagers demonstrated the significance increase of enjoyment values, values of achievement and spirituality but decreased the significance of sociality value. This is explained by the influence of the program specificity directed to uncovering the internal motivation which is expressed in search of such motives of activity that motivated a person by themselves, in comparison with external motivation consisting in aspiration to external stimuli related to the personality. That is why the significance of spirituality and aspiration to achievements rises. Internal motivation helps a person to find true meanings and objectives in life that uncovers a tremendous internal potential - the activity of a person becomes as a flow which brings enjoyment in internal perfection. This explains the increase of the value of enjoyment and, in its turn, is explained by the decrease of the value of sociality because external social reference points are replaced by internal ones agreed with their own system of values. Statistically significant differences were not found while analyzing the proneness level to deviant behavior in the teenage groups participating in the values and motivation development program and teenagers who did not participate in the
same program after conducting the experimental research. Moreover, the established difference in the proneness level to self-destructive behavior in the analyzed teenage groups before conducting the experimental study was also not found (table 4).

Table 4. Comparison of mean values in the groups of the proneness level to deviant behavior in teenagers who participated in the values and motivation development program and teenagers who did not participate in the program after conducting the experimental study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Proneness</th>
<th>Mean values in the groups</th>
<th>temp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TPPVMD</td>
<td>TNPVMD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>to disobeying norms and rules</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>to addictive behavior</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>41,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>to self-destructive behavior</td>
<td>47,5</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>to aggressive behavior</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>to delinquent behavior</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results also testify to a positive influence of the values and motivation development program on a teenager’s behavior the implementation of which led to a decrease in the level of proneness to self-destructing behavior. This can be explained by the fact that the internal motivation development made it possible to bring out potential resources of the teenager’s personality blocked by some personal problems. Such disclosure helps to relieve tension that breeds proneness to self-destructing behavior which is manifested in refocusing behavior on a normative one.

Discussion

The conducted empirical research allowed us to analyze the significance change of the teenage personality’s values as a result of the experimental implementation of the values and motivation development program. This experiment made it possible to demonstrate a positive influence of the internal motivation development which is significant in revealing the internal potential of the personality as a result of uncovering the true meaning of his(her) own activity. Positive changes in the system of values of the teenage personality have a positive effect on behavior through the elimination of intrapersonal barriers refocusing him on a normative orientation.

Conclusion and Recommendations

On the basis of the abovementioned one can make the following conclusions.
1. A dynamic transformation of the contemporary society is manifested in the values system deformation – individualism succeeds collectivism, common human and universal values of the family, friendship and honesty are subject to change. The changes that take place, first of all, are reflected in consciousness of the younger generation which is expressed in the deformation of the personality’s values systems and leading to the manifestation of various forms of deviations in behavior.
2. The conducted experimental research enabled us to confirm the point that value orientations based on the system of values which is one of the central personal new formations, express a conscious attitude of a teenager to social reality and in this quality they determine a wide motivation of his behavior and have a substantial influence on all aspects of his(her) activity.
3. The results of the study can be of practical use to psychologists, social workers and specialists in the field of education who work with deviant teenagers.

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DIDACTIC POSSIBILITIES OF INTERACTIVE TECHNOLOGIES IN TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AT THE UNIVERSITY

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Abstract. Modern higher education is focused today on the use of such teaching technologies that would effectively ensure the process of intensifying higher education, in particular, in the field of foreign languages. This is connected, for example, with the use of interactive technologies that are aimed at achieving the necessary level of efficiency and quality of instruction and ensuring that each student has the opportunity to study according to an individual program. In this regard, the article reveals and justifies the following: The didactic possibilities of using interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university; The use of multimedia teaching aids in the context of the formation of communicative competence; Ways to apply interactive projects for teaching a foreign language; Efficiency of complex types of interactive teaching methods. In the course of the study, the results of the experimental work showed the effectiveness of methodological support for the development of the ability to learn a foreign language and to develop communicative competences, as well as orientation to communicatively oriented learning in order to prepare students for professional, cultural and personal communication with representatives of a different social and social organization.

Keywords: educational technologies, interactive technologies, foreign languages, language training, language and communication competencies, multimedia teaching tools, interactive projects, quality of teaching.

Introduction
Actualizing the problem
The Russian education system is undergoing great changes, which is connected with the process of Russia's integration into the world community, including in the educational sphere. At the same time, the modernization of the national education system, among other things, is aimed at the following: Teaching students of an independent selection of teaching aids, for example, in mastering a foreign
language; The creative rethinking of the content of their own education; The competent use of methods and technologies in the study of a foreign language (Moreva, 2007). To do this, it is necessary to create a favorable atmosphere of the educational process in the university in order to increase interest in the studied language and develop the desire for its practical use. And these goals, one way or another, can be achieved through the use of interactive technologies, which represent an important educational resource. The wide use of interactive technologies allows us to modify the nature of the development, acquisition and dissemination of knowledge; Opens up opportunities for updating the content of teaching and teaching methods; Expands access to general and vocational education; Changes the role of teachers in the learning process (a constant dialogue that transforms information into knowledge and understanding). This is the relevance and complexity of this problem, since it requires the development and introduction of new ideas and approaches in the educational process related to innovative teaching methods. As practice shows, the development of interactive technologies opens new perspectives for the teaching of foreign languages, helping to intensify and individualize learning (Sizova, 2014). On this basis, the use of interactive technologies should contribute to the main goal of the modernization of Russian education: improving the quality of education aimed at ensuring the comprehensive development of the individual with an information culture who can be guided in the information space and have experience in using modern educational technologies in the context of mastering foreign languages. Thus, the use of various interactive technologies is an integral part of teaching a foreign language; a lot of modern teachers in their practice apply innovative methods of teaching in cooperation with new technical means in practical exercises.

Explore importance of didactic possibilities of interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university

The use of interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university (for example, trainings, business games, discussions, mini-studies, Internet projects, authentic audio recordings, etc.), shows, first of all, the strengthening of the communicative orientation of the educational process. This means orientation to communicatively oriented learning, which prepares students for the use of a foreign language in real life, i.e. to professional, cultural and personal communication with representatives of different social and public structures (Skorina, 2004; Valeeva et al., 2016). To achieve this goal, it is necessary to implement the following tasks in the university:
- Implementation of an innovative approach within the framework of training in order to develop the ability of students to learn new experiences, both in the application of computer technology and in a foreign language;
- Maximum use of interactive technologies with an emphasis on their information and communication component;
- The organization of independent cognitive activity of students with the purpose of expanding their opportunities for improving the process of self-education and, in general, the overall development of their personality;
- Providing conditions for combining individual work, group work and joint work of all participants in the training session, connected to a single network of both the faculty and the university;
- The use of computer servers in all forms and types of educational activities in order to create conditions for the formation of positive motivation for learning foreign languages;
- Training students in competent work on the computer in order to create opportunities for detailed monitoring of their own training activities;
- Creating conditions for modeling social interactions that arise in different types of activities and on this basis the development of the ability to reflect accumulated cognitive and life experience;
- Providing students with such knowledge that would help determine their free, meaningful choice of future professional activities.

Thus, traditional classes should give way to a variety of interactive teaching methods, from role-playing games to computerized seminars (Tyshchenko, 2003). That is why today new didactic possibilities of interactive technologies appear that arise as a result of such factors as the possibility of situational information interaction among participants in the learning process; implementation of the process of communication at a distance; the possibility of using educational information through various information technologies, etc.

**Didactic possibilities of interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university**

Proceeding from the understanding of didactic possibilities as prerequisites for the qualitative formation of subject knowledge and skills, we understand the didactic possibilities of using interactive technologies in terms of methods, techniques and means of instruction aimed at the specific management of the teacher by the cognitive activity of students with the aim of mastering the latter knowledge and skills in the field of foreign language. The didactic possibilities of using interactive technologies presuppose the following: The possibility of simultaneous direct dialogue mode on the basis of synchronous interaction; Reliance on group experience and the presence of mandatory feedback; Activation of the student as the main character in the educational process; Providing independent work on the language at the level of intellectual and emotional capabilities of the student, which ensures the differentiation and individualization of the learning process; Taking into account the interests and needs of each student; Involvement of any form of work in the group (individual, group, collective) in order to stimulate the activity of students; Providing interactive learning on the basis of a specially created learning environment; The possibility of forming educational and cognitive competencies taking into account professionally oriented activities; Formation of communicative skills and culture communication among students; Formation of the ability to extract information from various sources and process it using computer technologies. Taking into account that the didactic possibilities of using interactive technologies presuppose the possibilities of information technologies, we primarily include the following: we can transfer information of any volume and any form of representation to any distance; The ability to access various sources of information,
including remote and distributed data; The possibility of dialogue with any partner; The possibility to transfer received materials to your carrier and work with them at any convenient time; The ability to use e-mail (allows teachers and students to exchange text and picture messages); The possibility of organizing "virtual classrooms" (for example, on the Internet the software allows for the joint communication of groups of users); The possibility of holding a seminar on the scheme of seminar-mutual learning, a seminar-discussion; Conducting an electronic lecture; The possibility of holding an electronic conference (computer conferences, during which participants who are at different distances from one another exchange message texts); The possibility of using a video-telephone (ensuring the possibility of two-way communication between the teacher and students); The possibility of organizing news broadcasts (in the USENET newsgroups mode), operating in real time; The possibility of using electronic libraries (the use of services such as video libraries, music libraries, toy libraries, electronic textbooks, copying technology).

Status of a problem
The carried out analysis of scientific and pedagogical literature, the study of the practice of teaching foreign languages in the university revealed the urgency of using the following methodological concepts presented by domestic and foreign experts in interactive technologies: interactive methods of teaching a foreign language in research of M.S. Skorina (2007); D. Brown (2001); O.V. Skvortsova (2009); E.V. Chereshneva (2008); Information technologies in teaching a foreign language in research of M.E. Sergeeva (2005); T.N. Sergeyeva (1991); Z.R. Devterova (2007); The use of multimedia teaching aids in research of O.I. Barmenkova (1999); M. Schitteke (2001); A.A. Miroluyubov (2003); Formation of communicative competence in the studies of I.A. Zimnay; I.A. Mazaeva (2002); Y.Y.Kim (1991); Methodology of communicative learning in research of Ch. Brumfit & K. Johnson (1979); K. Johnson & D. Porter (1983); E.I. Passov (1989); The use of interactive projects in teaching a foreign language in the studies of E.S. Polat (2000); V.V. Yakovlev (2008); O.A. Vladyko (2007); Intensification of the process of teaching a foreign language in research of N.N. Serostanov (2015); A. Bleakly (1994); N. Garret (2009); L. Alekseeva et al. (2015); Organizational forms in the information environment of training in the studies of G.D. Pankova (2003); I.V. Robert (1994); S.V. Tifov (2004); The use of educational technologies that allow to optimize the creative potential of future specialists in the research of S.G. Vershlovskiy (2002); L.I. Gurie (2008); L.F. Mikhaltsova (2011); The theory of information modeling in the studies of Ya.A. Branovsky (2002); B.E. Vagramenko (1994); B.E. Starichenko & S.S. Arbuzov (2014); The theory of management of the process of learning and the use in it information technology are researched by A.A. Kuznetsov (1986); E.G. Malinotchka (1989); N.F. Talyzina (1985); teaching technology in collaboration with the method of projects in research of D. Johnson (1988); R. Johnson (1995); V.K. Kilpatrick (1918); The technology of personality-oriented training in research of A.A. Valeev & I.G. Kondratieva (2015); S. Crumly (2014); G.B. Wright (2011).

Hypothesis
The didactic possibilities of interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university can be successfully realized if the following educational methods
are implemented in the educational process of the university: If there are specified
the appropriate role and place of interactive technologies in the educational process
of the university; If there is created a rich multi-environment in the educational
space of the university, which involves various channels of perception of
information - text, visual, audio information; If there are determined pedagogical
bases of using interactive technologies: diagnostics of students' abilities to study a
foreign language and the technological organization of this process; If
communicative oriented learning is provided in the study of a foreign language.

Materials and Methods
The tasks of the research
The tasks of the research are: 1) To substantiate the use of interactive projects when
teaching students a foreign language; 2) To justify the didactic possibilities of using
interactive technologies; 3) To summarize the use of multimedia teaching tools in
the context of the formation of communicative competence; 4) To justify the use of
certain groups of interactive teaching methods.

Theoretical and empirical methods
At various stages of the study, the following methods were used: Theoretical
methods - understanding of the problem and the subject of research; modeling of
the pedagogical process; theoretical generalization of the results of the work
performed, taking into account specific conditions and new facts; Empirical
methods - relatively comparative analysis of the results of the experiment;
observation; interviews; questioning; pedagogical experiment; Mathematical
methods - registration, mathematical and statistical processing of the results.

The trial infrastructure and stages of the research
The basis of the study was The Institute of Fundamental Medicine and Biology and
The Institute of Management, Economics and Finance of Kazan (Volga region)
Federal University. The study was conducted within the framework of training
students specializing in "Foreign Language". The study was carried out in two
stages: At the first stage (September 2015) students were formed with the following
perceptions: the idea of multimedia teaching a foreign language; Didactic
possibilities of using the Internet; Possibilities to extract foreign information from
various sources and process it using computer technology; Interrelation of language
competences with professionally oriented activities. The state of this problem was
studied in university teaching practice; Empirical material was collected; Attitude of
students towards technical means in the process of studying languages and, in
general, cognitive activity has been studied. At the second stage (May 2016),
management techniques and guidelines for the study of didactic possibilities of
using interactive technologies were developed in teaching a foreign language at the
university; There was carried out the experimental verification of the realization of
the possibilities of using interactive technologies in the study of a foreign language
and on this basis the formation of foreign language skills, as well as the skills of
using the language in various spheres and situations of communication; The
registration of research results was carried out.

Types of interactive projects
Based on the tasks of teaching a foreign language, in order to intensify the process of
its study, it seems expedient to use the following types of interactive projects:
I. Language interactive projects: 1) Teaching projects aimed at mastering the language material and developing speech skills; 2) Linguistic projects: the study of linguistic features and language realities (neologisms, phraseological units, sayings); 3) Philological projects: the study of the etymology of words including various literary studies.
II. Cultural projects (regional-based interactive projects): 1) historical projects: studying the history of the country, the city; 2) geographical projects: the study of the geography of the country; 3) ethnographic projects: the study of traditions and life of the people, folk art; 4) political and economic projects: acquaintance with the state structure of countries, with public organizations; 5) art criticism projects: they are associated with problems of art, literature, culture of the country of the studied language.
III. Gaming interactive projects: 1) Social projects (students perform different social roles); 2) Business projects (modeling of professional situations); 3) Dramatized projects (the study of literary works in game situations where students act as characters); 4) Projects of imaginary travel (learning speech structures, cliches, specific terms, dialogues, descriptions, reasoning, etc.).

Basic groups of interactive teaching methods
Considering the question of teaching students a foreign language in the context of the use of interactive technologies, it should be noted that, as a rule, the following main groups of interactive teaching methods are distinguished: Methods without using technical means; Methods with partial use of technical means; Methods with the use of technical means (audiovisual). So, the first group of methods (without the use of technical means) is usually referred to dialogues, polylogue, the organization of reflexive activity, the creation of productive communication, the use of the method of changing activities; Intellectual, imitative exercises; Problem technologies (heuristic conversation, method of organized strategies, heuristic questions, a bank of ideas, a method of activation of creative thinking). The second group includes methods of independent study of a foreign language on the basis of communication with the native speaker of the studied language, for example, the so-called "tandem method", when students get acquainted with the identity of a specific native speaker, the mentality of his country, culture in real or virtual communication. The essence of this method consists in oral or written informal communication (it is assumed the use of a computer with connection to the Internet). Tandem participants, or tandem partners, are selected by the international network of the International Tandem Network.

From the point of view of the problem under consideration, the third group of methods for teaching foreign languages, which includes the use of audio-visual teaching aids, is relevant to us. It is one of the types of technical means of teaching, representing a variety of modern technical devices and information carriers at all stages of the educational process. The effectiveness of teaching students a foreign language in the context of the use of interactive technologies involves the use of certain technical means of instruction, depending on the type of activity that is carried out with their help during the functioning of information, namely:
Information interactive technologies that provide direct information; Management interactive technologies, allowing to organize a cycle of management of the educational process; Additional information technical means, including devices, instruments, tools used to improve the work of the teacher, the student and their interaction during the training; Controlling information technology that provides feedback information (Brown, 2001). At the same time, the effectiveness of interactive technologies is determined by their compliance with specific educational objectives, tasks, specificity of the educational material, forms and methods of organizing the work of the teacher and students, material and technical conditions and opportunities.

Results
The use of multimedia teaching aids in the context of the formation of communicative competence
The main and leading goal of using interactive technologies, in particular multimedia teaching tools, is the formation of communicative competence, which is an integral personal quality that provides situational adaptability and freedom of possession of verbal and non-verbal means of communication. The structure of this competence includes the following components: Communicative knowledge (knowledge of communicative methods and techniques, what action they have, what are their capabilities and limitations); Communicative skills (the ability to organize the message text in an adequate form, the ability to receive feedback, the ability to overcome communication barriers, the ability to organize cooperation); Communicative abilities (individual psychological characteristics of the personality, contributing to the rapid and successful implementation of communicative activities). At the same time, communicative competence presupposes the following: Knowledge of the necessary languages; Skills and techniques of using the language in various spheres and situations of communication; The ability to understand the similarities and differences in the language of science, art, foreign languages; The ability to determine one’s own success in interacting with the world and surrounding people. And, proceeding from the subject of our research, we are turning to the help of modern interactive technologies, among which an important place is occupied by multimedia teaching aids. Interest in multimedia learning tools, for example, the Internet, has grown very much today. As the university practice shows, modern computer programs make it possible to master the foreign language as effectively as possible, presenting a complete educational and methodical complex. This type of interactive technology creates the illusion of being in a language environment; it gives the opportunity to form the ear-pronunciation of speech, the assimilation of lexical and grammatical material, etc. (Barmenkova, 1999). It is also important to note that the use of interactive technologies when teaching students a foreign language allows one to individually structure different levels of complexity that can be chosen by students and that can allow to realize one of the basic principles - from simple to complex,. The undoubted advantage of using interactive technologies in a foreign language is the ability to differentiate the actual information (for example, in the form of video, photo, audio, text, etc.). It is used with taking into account the set of methodological and didactic tasks and allows
unlimited adaptation of such materials for the needs of not only a particular occupation, but even for the needs of individual students. Currently, the following training programs are used in the class: "Living English", "Frankly Speaking", "Discovering the World", "Professor Higgins", "English Platinum", British English course "REWARD". There are also used different social services such as the Internet, Blog, Twitter, Wiki, podcast, Flickr, YouTube, etc., which can be used in teaching a foreign language allowing students to contact the network in the studied language.

The procedure and results of the experiment

Organizing in the experimental work the learning process of students towards the use of interactive technologies in view of updating the knowledge and skills of the use of multimedia in the future profession, we have tried to make in this process the most efficient conversion. According to the study, to evaluate the effectiveness of didactic possibilities of using interactive technology in teaching a foreign language it is advisable using diagnostic procedures. In this regard, we have used such forms of diagnosis as polls, surveys of students and test their knowledge and skills in the field of interactive technologies. The diagnostic step in the experiment was of particular importance since it helped to identify students' current level of knowledge of multimedia training tools and skills they use. Continuously during the experiment there was carried out the analysis and synthesis of the results of the intermediate measurements of the levels of development of the parameters of the ability to learn a foreign language, carried out in order to clarify the program of pedagogical experiment. This allowed making adjustments in the course of experimental work to identify the best prospects for the use of interactive technologies. In the course of the experimental work there was carried out validation studies of the hypothesis. Using multimedia teaching aids in teaching a foreign language allowed us to allocate one more object of verification - professional orientation of using these aids in one’s activities. Monitoring was carried out orally and in written form. Diagnostic data are adequately static treatment. The results pointed out the growth rates for the selected parameters of the ability to learn a foreign language. The experimental results showed a rising trend of indicators monitored parameters in the extended use of interactive technologies. Providing communicatively oriented training in the study of a foreign language and implementation of interactive learning based on a specially designed learning environment, as well as the possibility of the formation of educational and cognitive competences based professionally oriented activities have been pilot tested.

Experimental work took place on the 2 course of The Institute of Fundamental Medicine and Biology and the 2 course of The Institute of Management, Economics and Finance of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University. Two groups of students participated in the experiment: the experimental group (18 students) and the control group (20 students). The control group of The Institute of Management, Economics and Finance was trained by the traditional method of learning a foreign language. The experimental group of The Institute of Fundamental Medicine and Biology was offered the entire complex of interactive technologies with the introduction of such organizational forms as problematic lecture, debate, seminar-discussion, seminar mutual learning, project work, the electronic conference, videophone, etc. During
the control part of the experiment there was carried out the analysis of parameters such as: Formation of foreign language skills to extract information from different sources and process it using computer technologies; Formation of foreign language speaking skills and abilities; Formation of linguistic competence taking into account professionally-oriented activities; Forming students’ communicative skills and culture of dialogue; Skills and abilities of language use in various fields and communication situations. In the course of experimental research work the following stages were performed: Stage 1: Determine the starting level of the parameters of the ability to learn a foreign language; Stage 2: Using the main types of interactive technologies by the experimental group during the study of discipline "Foreign language"; Stage 3: Analysis of changes in the values above mentioned parameters before and after the experiment. The study showed that taking into account the possibilities of using interactive teaching technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university the highest rates were demonstrated by parameters such as: Formation of students’ communication skills and culture of dialogue; Formation of foreign language speaking skills and abilities; Skills and abilities of language use in various fields and communication situations. Diagnosis of parameters ability to learn a foreign language based on multimedia teaching aids has shown the effectiveness of the use of interactive technologies. Analysis results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Developing the ability to study a foreign language through the use of interactive technologies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters of the ability to learn a foreign language in the application of interactive technologies</th>
<th>The control group (in %)</th>
<th>The experimental group (in %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formation of linguistic competence with considering professionally-oriented activities</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forming students’ communication skills and communication culture</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formation of the ability to extract foreign language information from various sources and process it using computer technologies</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formation of foreign language speech skills</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills and abilities of language use in different spheres and situations of communication</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis and evaluation of the results of experimental work allow us to conclude that the indicators of the ratio of students to the studied subject and the level of development of language competencies, taking into account the didactic possibilities
of using interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language in the Experimental group is higher than the values obtained in the Control group.

**Discussions**

So, as practice shows, today it is practically it is impossible to fully implement the training of students in a foreign language without the use of interactive technologies, as they create an innovative educational environment in which students have to develop professional and personal attitudes, position their interests and represent themselves in poly-linguistic space. And here we are talking about the fact that when teaching a foreign language, along with education and development, it is necessary to develop communicative competence among young people in all the diversity of its components (linguistic, discursive, sociocultural, compensatory, educational and cognitive). This circumstance is determined by the contemporary reality, when foreign language communication becomes an essential component of the future professional activity of a specialist and when the possession of a foreign language remains one of the elements of its relevance. In the context of the issue under discussion (teaching a foreign language at the university in the context of the use of interactive technologies), the level of the formation of the communicative competence of future specialists will be determined not only by the ability to communicate in a foreign language with the personal presence of participants in communication, but also by the ability to communicate through all kinds of the Internet network services. In this regard, the role of interactive technologies in the framework of, for example, the academic subject "Foreign language" in non-linguistic faculties of higher education institutions significantly increases, as the goal is to achieve a level sufficient for the practical use of foreign languages in future professional activities. This leads to a factor in the successful study of any subject (including a foreign language) as students’ need for their self-education. And here the study of a foreign language with the help of interactive technologies can be viewed not only as an instrument of communication, but also as a means to stimulate the process of cognition. Thus, there is no doubt that interactive technologies contain enormous didactic potential. But it should not be forgotten that even the most perfect and newest interactive technologies do not replace the teacher; they serve only as a means of optimizing and intensifying the learning process, a successful organization of which depends on many factors, such as: The availability of the necessary set of interactive programs of various types; Educational quality of the used training programs; Teachers’ proficiency in the integration of various types of programs in the educational process, etc.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, we note that the most important characteristics of interactive technologies can be attributed also to the fact that interactive training will always be a special form of cognitive activity, which has very specific and predictable goals, for example, in the following: creating a comfortable learning environment, where students feel themselves successful with their intellectual solvency and the productivity of the learning process. Moreover, the essence of interactive technologies is that during the learning process all students are involved in the learning process, having the following opportunity: To understand and reflect on
what they know and think; To see what individual contribution they make; To feel in which mode there is the exchange of knowledge, ideas and methods of activity. Thus, interactive technologies bring to the training session a certain improvisation, which has an unconventional structure, when the use of interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language significantly improves the quality of the teaching material and the effectiveness of the learning of this material by students. And, as practice shows, the use and implementation of modern educational technologies, multimedia equipment enriches the content of the educational process, increases students’ motivation to learn English, while creating favorable conditions for close cooperation between the teacher and students. In this regard, the use of interactive technologies in teaching a foreign language at the university allows solving the following methodological tasks: Actualization of students' knowledge and experience in the studied problem (application of language competencies in new or anticipated situations); Development of communication skills and skills in a conversation of a problem nature, discussion, conference; Receiving feedback in the organization of joint activities; Organization of group discussions in a foreign language in which students learn to anticipate and solve problems that may arise in this case (be able to listen to others, defend their point of view, be flexible interlocutor); The formation of the ability to carry out an extensive commentary on the texts read and heard, the cinema and video material seen; Acquaintance of students on the basis of already received both linguistic and regional knowledge with a foreign language as a language of communication, with different spheres of life, with features of the functioning of language in these spheres, etc.

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QUALITY AS A FACTOR OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATION

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Abstract
The urgency of the paper is determined by the need to improve the quality of education as the basis of socio-economic and spiritual development of Russia. The purpose of the paper is to identify the areas of responsibility of education stakeholders in formation of the quality of the educational system as a result of education. Based on the stakeholders approach the authors propose the coordination of interests of education stakeholders to achieve comprehensive quality of processes, resources, results. On the basis of this vision, the way of introducing social responsibility into the activities of educational organizations is defined through the implementation of quality management and the integration of typical standards (ISO 9001 quality standard and ISO 26000 social responsibility standard). The authors identified the areas of responsibility and powers of education stakeholders on the basis of communication "of powers and obligations", allowing to use mechanisms to improve the quality of educational activities. The paper is intended for researchers, workers in the management of education, all participants of educational relations.

Keywords: education, social responsibility, quality of education, stakeholders, areas of responsibility.
Introduction
At each stage of the development of society, the state of education is determined by the trends of socio-economic growth and technological patterns of development; new conditions, opportunities and needs arise (financial, regulatory, scientific, technical, organizational, information, motivational, etc.), while the whole world higher education system is a priority area of interest of society and the state (Zasypkin, 2008; Oleynikova, 2002; Vakhshtein et al., 2003).

At present, in all countries (except the US) higher education systems are experiencing a period of transformation, due to socio-economic factors, on one or another scale (Clark, 2011; Bezel, 2003; Saprykin, 2005; Felt & Glanz, 2004; Soon Lee, 2011). This is because all European educational systems more or less reflect the "effect-1992" caused by the Bologna agreement, which consists in spreading the ideas of globalization, internationalization, massivization and diversification of education; the countries of the Asia-Pacific region are rapidly developing their own educational systems, using the experience of advanced universities and educational systems. In general, many foreign, and especially European, higher education systems are experiencing a stage of modernization caused by attempts to unify educational systems during the adoption of the Bologna agreement and a geopolitical crisis that has aggravated many social problems and in many ways reduces the positive effect of educational reforms (Belyakov, 2009; Levina, 2017).

The importance of the system of higher education for any country; reform of education systems, caused by socio-political requirements; the growth of higher education as an economic, social and scientific branch; transformation of labor market requirements, which causes changes in training curricula; the change of principles and technologies of management determines the priority of the topic of "quality of education" within the framework of educational management (Shamova, 2008; Tretyakov, 2009; Mukhametzyanova & Levina, 2015; Levina et al., 2015a).

In this context, there is a clear tendency to reduce the role of educational traditions in the education system (in all countries): state models tend to market models (economically viable); traditionally independent models, one way or another, begin to interact with the state; elements of alien educational systems that level national traditions in higher education are introduced. Unification of the country's educational systems (higher education) means not only a decrease in the role of the "academic oligarchy", but also the transformation of the entire educational system as a whole: mass education and as a consequence, the decline in the quality of education is observed throughout the educational world community.

A significant influx of students into the system of higher education, both internally and externally, leads to the fact that, despite the standardization of the initial levels of education, the level of university entrants is very heterogeneous and largely depends on the level of the educational institution, family traditions of students, personal characteristics. This fact determines the variability of the university's potential in achieving high educational outcomes - its "quality."
Materials and methods

Categorical definition of "quality of education"

Categorically, the interpretation of the concept of "quality" has two basic understandings - an objectively existing set of properties and characteristics of the object that defines it as such; and the ability (of a product or service, as a result of labor) to satisfy certain needs. We rely on the definition of the quality of higher education as "a set of properties that determines the ability of higher education to meet the needs of society in the field of training (reproduction) of highly qualified professional personnel and specialists who possess the necessary personal qualities and qualifications, as well as the individual's needs for such education" (Mukhametzyanova, 2010).

Considering this description, it should be noted that the ability to satisfy needs is not related to the level of quality, but to its essence, that is, there can be different understandings of quality from the point of view of its different consumers, in other words, the same product, in our case the level of education, can for someone have quality, but for someone not, and then, quality becomes a rather vague concept, which also has a tendency to development and transformation, a transition from the internal to the external state.

The basis of this vision advocates the approach proposed by John Juran (1992), consisting in the idea of presentation quality at the same time as the planned results and strategic resource, and implemented through a quality planning tasks, quality management, and continuous improvement of quality. That is, quality is defined as a way of balancing between requirements and properties and, in our opinion, can be fully adapted to educational systems.

Stakeholder approach

The development of higher education and improvement of its quality (as a result of irreversible positive changes of the system and its components under internal and external administrative influence) must be effective stakeholder education and provide: for the individual - the right to education, opportunities for personal and professional development, the potential competitiveness of the graduates in the job market; for the society - the socialization of the population, human capital formation, transfer and preservation of cultural values; for employees of educational institutions - the social employment and security, job satisfaction; for business (employers) - demand’s satisfaction for specialists who have certain professional and personal qualities (competences); for the state (in global terms) technology development, competitiveness of the economy, growth in gross income and others. Dynamic changes in social conditions of functioning, requests, attitudes, causes a change in the concept of organizational and managerial practice of education, the modification of educational systems.

The current socio-economic processes put innovative tasks not only of pedagogical significance for the higher education system and each educational organization (university), focused on the personality of the learner (education, upbringing, development), but also of social significance (socialization of the population, preservation of cultural values, employment of the population, satisfaction of labor market needs, etc.).
At present, in studies on the development of institutional strategies and strategic management, there has been the formation of the so-called stakeholder approach, which confirms an increasing degree of responsibility of the business for the results of their activities in the economic, social and political spheres. A similar function in this sense and in educational systems, while the level of responsibility of the higher education system before the society is not only significantly higher, but also is determined by the personal characteristics of each participant (Levina, 2015; Gumerov & Levina, 2016).

Within the framework of the implementation of the stakeholder strategy, it becomes obvious that it is necessary to justify and determine the positions of education agents in the management of the higher education system as a social task; increasing the activity of all education agents in the field of higher education management (at the levels of the educational process and educational organization); achievement of the balance of educational agents’ interests in the field of effectiveness of the higher educational system. So, existing quality management systems of higher education are based on ISO, TQM standards, the directives of ENQA, providing basic guarantees - to meet consumer and society demands, that is, the quality of education can be a criterion for harmonizing the interests of all education agents.

Social responsibility of the educational system

The high social role of education, educational systems of all levels, educational organizations makes it possible to talk about the social responsibility of education for the state of society as a whole and for each individual in particular, for the country's developmental potential, for overcoming the large-scale crisis of modern civilization (Mukhametzyanova, 2016). The close relationship of society and of education as a system that provides social, humanitarian, intellectual and technological development and reproduction determine the priority of education, based on the personal needs of the student, meeting their educational interests within the social system, ideology and demands of society.

The goal of social responsibility of education is the social, scientific, technological progress of the society through the creation of advanced education, when the educational system forms views, attitudes, living conditions, defining intelligence (knowledge) as the most important national resource, becoming a self-valuable phenomenon and the main source of development and change of society.

The understanding and implementation of social responsibility of stakeholders on the basis of the existing nation-wide system of ideals and values defines new promising opportunities for the sustainable development of education.

In achieving this goal, the main tasks are:
- understanding and recognition of approaches to the social responsibility of education by all stakeholders of education;
- preparation and implementation of the social responsibility standard of the educational organization, which ensures the improvement of educational practice by establishing requirements for the stakeholders of education;
- formation of readiness of all stakeholders of education for responsibility within the framework of the education system;
- ensuring transparency of the activities of educational organizations for all
educational stakeholders. The purpose of education in the author's interpretation is set by a certain ideal (concept) of the person necessary for modern society, taking into account his personal abilities, opportunities for personal, intellectual and physical development, determining the realization of education through the synthesis of personal and social needs, and the result of education through the standard of living, socio-economic, moral and cultural state of society. The established target qualities become an educational benchmark, realized in the norms (educational standards), educational curricula, content of education, and the educational and methodical maintenance of the educational process.

Results
Proceeding from the analysis of the activity of the education system, its regularities can be described:
1) social responsibility of education includes compliance with legislation and social norms by all stakeholders of education;
2) all education stakeholders recognize responsibility for their contribution to education;
3) consideration of the interests of educational stakeholders cannot be built on the basis of any hierarchy - any "bias" in relation to priority positions means a loss of social responsibility;
4) coordination of interests of educational stakeholders is determined by "comprehensive quality" (processes, resources, results) as a means of harmonization;
5) graduates of educational organizations of all kinds demonstrate the social responsibility of education, influencing the social and economic environment.

The development of social responsibility correlates with the task of state-public management of education, determined by the following aspects: the implementation of the rights of all stakeholders to management; optimization of the conditions for the implementation of educational activities for all participants in educational relations (normative, information, material resources); achieving a balance of interests of education stakeholders; positive development of the results of educational activities (achieving the satisfaction of stakeholder expectations) (Levina et al., 2015b).

Taking into account the specifics of educational systems, we believe that the goals of educational processes can be qualitative and quantitative characteristics laid down in the requirements for the learning process (education standards), developed on their basis educational programs with clear targets (norms, levels of assimilation).

On the basis of this vision, the way of introducing social responsibility into the activities of educational organizations is determined through the implementation of quality management and the integration of typical standards (ISO 9001 quality standard and ISO 26000 social responsibility standard) that imply the implementation of the process approach. The processes of educational activity for educational systems that we defined in the general case can be represented in the following way: education, upbringing, self-development, scientific activity, personnel training, teaching and methodical support, management, quality and marketing. For each of them, qualitative gradations of manifestations of social responsibility should be
established with respect to the stakeholders involved in them.
All the activity of the educational system is represented in this vision by a
combination of processes; each of which, in turn, includes a chain: (source) input →
activity → output (receiver) when using tools, management methods and
monitoring at each link in the chain (Levina et al., 2015c). We consider this chain
from the position of establishing the requirements of social responsibility to the
effectiveness of processes and of all the stakeholders involved in them.
Adopting the social responsibility of education, in our opinion, determines the way
of interaction between participants in educational relations in the course of
educational processes, satisfies their expectations and forms the field of educational
"welfare" of the society from the social, scientific, cultural, personal positions. This
idea is the basis for the formation of social responsibility boundaries (zones)
(Levina, 2013).
Based on the communication sense of "responsibility" as a combination of
commitment and willingness to take responsibility for their actions and "powers" as
the right to act in the framework of the educational system (statutory), we have
developed a table that associates these two categories within the boundaries of
actions of participants of educational relations (Table 1.).
Table 1. Correspondence of the responsibilities’ and powers’ zones of educational relations participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Processes</th>
<th>STAKEHOLDERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“education”</td>
<td>changes in processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“upbringing”</td>
<td>changes in processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“self-development”</td>
<td>changes in processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“scientific activity”</td>
<td>no authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“personnel training”</td>
<td>setting objectives / control of implementation / collecting of work performed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“teaching and methodical support”</td>
<td>setting objectives / control of implementation / collecting of work performed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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For scaling authorities we used the idea about links of authorities and areas of responsibility through their graduation. The authority in frames of educational systems' activity include (on a scale 1-6): changes in processes (6); cancellation of any tasks (5); setting objectives / control of implementation / collecting of work performed (4); consultancy (3); tasks' performance (2); no authority (1). Then, the boundaries of the area of responsibility for all participants of educational relations will be as follows (Figure 1.):
Figure 1. Areas of responsibility and authority of the participants of educational relations

We see two main problems in determining the social responsibility of education, which determine its extreme negative and positive states:

1) "Personal responsibility", when the subjects of education (students) do not take responsibility for their future, and, consequently, for the future of the country when implementing the guarantors of education. Here the main role is played by the system of personal interests and values, understanding of the significance and irreversibility of their actions, the possibility of predicting the consequences; it is obvious that important aspects from the point of view of the subject determine the extent of his responsibility. It should be understood that there is variability and the possibility of changing the "personal zone" in one direction or another, for example, when a person changes his occupation and gets a new education, then against the background of a change of interests, the degree of social and personal responsibility
increases (increased responsibility). The border of the "personal zone" is very mobile, and the social responsibility of the individual can be strengthened through various educational processes, personal growth, socio-economic factors, and so on.

2) "System responsibility", when participants in educational relations (except for students) do not work on the advance of current tasks, pursuing personal interests or interests of the educational organization for the current period. It is necessary to understand that the impact of education (at any its level and manifestation) on a person determines his or her personality, level, development, contribution to the society. The return from each participant of educational relations has a delayed but predictable and noticeable result, and each educational process and educational impact is unique from the point of view of the individual (but not from the point of view of other participants in educational relations) and can have both a positive and negative orientation, being projected in the future state of society, the level of development and valuable orientations of the individual.

Mechanisms for the formation and implementation of social responsibility are directly related to the functional of the stakeholder and the zone of its responsibility. For students it is a mechanism of social upbringing and social control that ensures the development of social and moral norms and guidelines, their acceptance as personality properties through the formation of value orientations, cultural stereotypes, awareness and behavior that meet the expectations of society. The method of achievement is upbringing at all its stages of formation.

For teachers is the mechanism of professional development, ensuring the adoption of social responsibility as a component of professional ethics due to positive changes in personal and professional qualities. The method of achievement is training in the framework of advanced training, self-education and self-development.

For heads of educational organizations, society, employers is the mechanism of public-social management to determine the tasks, functions and "niche" of each educational organization in the region and contributing to its development; the formation of public organizations involved in the management of educational development and ensuring transparency of activities.

For the state is a mechanism of social recognition and promotion of the social responsibility of educational institutions, based on the results of monitoring over the implementation of its functions by all participants of educational relations.

Thus, the social responsibility of education is based on:
1) recognition of a high degree of duty throughout the system, and each participant of educational relations before an individual (including the person itself) and society;
2) the need to achieve a high quality of educational processes and their positive performance in the educational system or educational organization;
3) assessment of the actions of each participant of educational relations and the understanding of the social impact of each action within the education system.

Discussion

The basis of the social responsibility standard, which is used in business, is the principles of the UN Global Agreement from the sphere of human rights, labor relations, environmental protection and anti-corruption struggle, characteristics and
features of their use in the system of corporate social responsibility. Any educational organization, of course, should be based on established in the country regulations of the activity, but the social responsibility of education is much wider of concepts set by business and plays an increasingly important role in the formation and development of socio-economic relations.
Proclaiming responsibility as a qualitative characteristic of the institution of education, we believe that the main research question in determining the social responsibility of education: how to implement the interaction of personality and values of the society in the framework of the educational system that permeates the entire life of a modern man? The positions of participants in educational relations that determine social and economic dependence, the regulatory framework, the rules of interaction and the activity of the educational system itself in an axiological (value) sense are of big importance.

Conclusion
The concept of "quality of education" is closely connected with the social responsibility of all participants of educational relations for achieving the necessary and demanded by labor market, society, state. We believe that one of the ways to increase the social responsibility of education is to structure and ensure the interests of the stakeholders of education, taking into account their interaction, the inevitable conflict of interests and the level of influence. Priority of interaction of participants in educational relations as an indispensable element of sustainable development of the educational system means determining the possibility of effective participation of participants in educational relations in the coordination zone of intellectual, social and financial capital.

The search for achieving the balance of interests of education stakeholders was carried out on the basis of the representation of the educational system as horizontal relationships of spheres of responsibility and interests, the inevitably arising conflict of interests and the level of influence on the activity of educational systems. Each of the participants in the educational relationship has personal and social interests, while there is a so-called "rising expectations" tendency, when the social responsibility of the education system to society has increased several times. At this stage of the formation of social responsibility, the definition of the boundaries of authority, the development of an adequate regulatory framework and the system of interaction between participants in educational relations (agent networks) through various forms that correspond to the existing resource, territorial and institutional conditions play an important role.

References


ORGANIZATION TECHNIQUES OF PROBLEM DIALOGUE AT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LITERATURE LESSONS

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Abstract. Relevance of this research problem is caused by that it is difficult sometimes for many teachers to choose optimum organization techniques of problem dialogue with children in the professional and pedagogical activity. While this method promotes formation of knowledge of the elementary school pupil at literature lessons, keeping thus his uniqueness, and also puts his aspiration to further formation, self-training and increase of creative opportunities. It became necessary to apply an innovation for educational processes, namely the educational technologies planning research works at elementary school lessons. The purpose of this work is to detect efficiency of the used organization techniques of problem dialogue, disclose its features at elementary school literature lessons, and also to develop abstracts of literature lessons at elementary school on the basis of a problem and dialogical method. The leading methods in research of this problem were questioning of elementary school pupils in which 87 teachers and 516 pupils of elementary school were involved, and also the analysis of school documentation allowing to diagnose the level of elementary school children’s achievements in literature were used. Research is carried out on the basis of schools No. 167, 27, 75 in Kazan. In the article the technology of problem and dialogical training is presented, organization methods and techniques of problem training at lessons of literary reading are disclosed, ways of the teacher’s reaction to the formulations of an educational problem offered by pupils are described, subject specifics of methods of a problem situation creation are ascertained. Materials of this research can be used by elementary school teachers, students and higher school teachers for improvement of educational process at elementary school.
Introduction

In modern society education priorities change. The pupil has to have not only knowledge, skills, but also to be able to organize own educational activity, to have readiness and ability to study. Proceeding from these purposes it is necessary to use the new organization of joint activity (Yusupova, Podgorecki & Markova, 2015; Sadovaya, Khakhlova & Reznikov, 2015; Alekseeva et al., 2015). The technology of problem and dialogical training helps pupils to get knowledge independently. The monologue is succeeded by dialogue. Dialogue is the speech form consisting of a regular exchange of statements and remarks, language structure of which is influenced by direct perception of speech activity of the speakers.

The technology of problem dialogue belongs to the leading modern technologies of the personal focused education. This technology is developed on the basis of long-term domestic researches in two independent areas – problem training (Ilnitskaya, 2009; Kudryavtsev, 1991, 1997; Makhmutov, 1997) and creativity psychology (Brushlinsky, 1996; Matyushkin, 1989; Shumilin, 1989; Shadrikov, 1997).

Methodological Framework

The leading methods in research of this problem were questioning of elementary school pupils in which 87 teachers and 516 pupils of elementary school were involved, and also the analysis of school documentation allowing to diagnose the level of elementary school children's achievements in literature were used.

Essence of problem dialogue

When using the term "problem dialogue" we proceeded from the understanding offered by E.L. Melnikova (2002) according to which at the lesson of new material studying two links have to be worked: statement of an educational problem- it is a stage of a formulation of the lesson topic or a question for research; search of the decision- it is a stage of a formation of new knowledge.

Dialogue is not only a form, but also a way of the relations. It allows to be heard; not the reproduction of information is the main in it, but reflection, discussion of a problem. In dialogue the most important manifestations of the human relations are carried out: mutual respect, complementarity, mutual enrichment, mutual understanding, coauthorship.

Unlike this traditional training is the type of training providing reproductive learning. Thus statement of a problem is reduced to the telling a topic of the lesson by the teacher; search of the decision is reduced to presenting of ready knowledge that doesn't guarantee its understanding by the majority of a class.

Methods of statement of an educational problem
The educational problem exists in two main forms: 1) as topic of the lesson; 2) as the question which isn’t coinciding with a topic of the lesson, the answer on which is the new knowledge.

Table 1. Classification of training methods (methods of knowledge introduction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Problem and dialogical</th>
<th>Traditional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement of a problem</td>
<td>Dialogue motivating from a problem situation</td>
<td>Dialogue leading to a subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search of the decision</td>
<td>Dialogue motivating putting forward and checking of hypotheses</td>
<td>Dialogue leading to knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reporting of knowledge</td>
<td>Reporting of knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To put an educational problem means to help pupils to formulate either a topic of the lesson or a question for research not similar to a subject.

There are three main methods of statement of an educational problem:
- the dialogue motivating from a problem situation;
- the dialogue leading to a subject;
- reporting of a subject with the motivating method.

1. **The dialogue motivating from a problem situation**

This method of statement of an educational problem is the most difficult for the teacher as it demands consecutive implementation of four pedagogical actions:
1) creation of a problem situation "with surprise" and "with difficulty";
2) motive to understand a contradiction of a problem situation;
3) motive to formulate an educational problem;
4) adoptions of the formulations of an educational problem offered by pupils.

2. **The dialogue leading to a subject**

This method of statement of an educational problem is simpler than previous because it doesn't demand creation of a problem situation. The leading dialogue represents system (a logical chain) of feasible for the pupil questions and tasks which step by step lead a class to a formulation of the lesson topic. The structure of the leading dialogue can include different types of questions and tasks: reproductive (to remember, make on a sample); cogitative (analysis, comparison, generalization). But all links of leading are based on the material which is already studied by a class, and the last generalizing question allows pupils to formulate a topic of the lesson.
3. Reporting of a subject with the motivating method

It is the simplest method of an educational problem statement. It is the fact that the teacher himself reports a topic of the lesson, but with using one of two motivating methods. The first method "a bright spot" consists in reporting to a class the intriguing material capturing pupils’ attention but thus connected with a topic of the lesson. As "a bright spot" it is possible to use fairy tales and legends, fragments from fiction, cases from history of science, culture and everyday life, a joke, demonstration of the unclear phenomena by means of experiment or presentation. The second method "relevance" consists in detection of the sense, the importance of the offered subject for pupils, personally for everyone.

Conditions for the organization of educational dialogue

Necessary conditions for the organization of educational dialogue are: a) removal of the factors which are slowing down communication of the teacher with children; b) a susceptibility to other opinion, aspiration not to estimate, but to hear opinion of the child; c) the teacher’s possession of the subject dialogue organization technology.

Speaking about educational dialogue, it is necessary to consider a number of the organizational moments: any remarks shouldn’t remain without answer; educational dialogue is limited in time; if the pupil isn't active, he lacks for knowledge (Novik & Podgórecki, 2015); educational dialogue demands full answers; educational dialogue demands preliminary preparation.

The technology of problem and dialogical training has all-subject character, i.e. it is realized on any subject contents and any educational step. At the same time it becomes obvious that this technology has certain subject specifics, mostly pronounced at the motivating dialogue.

By means of the leading dialogue at lessons of discovery of new knowledge at first it is necessary to help pupils to formulate a subject or a question for research, thereby causing interest in them, and then in dialogue to try to organize "discovery" of new knowledge by pupils, achieving thereby understanding of material, because it is impossible not to understand that you opened yourself. Such approach does process of training more democratic, focused on pupils with different interests and abilities. By drawing up the dialogue leading to a subject it is necessary to choose a feasible for pupils logical chain of questions and tasks which step by step lead a class to a formulation of a topic of the lesson. The structure of the leading dialogue can include different types of questions and tasks: reproductive (to remember, make on a sample); cogitative (analysis, comparison, generalization).

All questions and tasks lean on the material which is already learned by a class, and the last generalizing question allows pupils to formulate a topic of the lesson. If during the leading dialogue pupils give wrong answers, it is necessary to focus attention on them and without disrupting the flow and logic of the dialogue, to ask the following questions: "Children, who thinks differently?", "Do all agree with the answer of the previous pupil?", etc.
Discovery of new knowledge is always the most interesting and creative stage of a lesson. Pupils will quicker and easier draw conclusions, will define a topic of the lesson and will make rules of spelling if the stage of updating of that knowledge and skills, which will be necessary to discover new knowledge about a theme of the lesson, is the previous stage. The generalizing question helps children to formulate a topic of the lesson, independently to output concept. Thanks to visual perception it is easier for children to hold a logical chain of knowledge which help to realize the created contradiction. The success situation is created at the lesson. At this lesson the developing tasks are important. Pupils get knowledge, but don't receive them in finished form.

At the stage of joint "discovery" of knowledge it is possible to organize group work of pupils. Work in microgroups in collective is one of the best and effective forms of the activity organization. The role of the teacher is very important at this stage. It is necessary to provide pupils of groups by everything necessary for search activity, to give accurate instruction about an operating procedure, to notice everything and to estimate timely. So, each group receives the task, studies and gives for general discussion. Work in groups allows to involve all pupils into educational activity at the same time that is rather difficult to make during frontal work.

Thanks to problem dialogue there are not passive people at a lesson, all think and express the thoughts. The solution of the same task by different groups of children allows comparing and critically estimating work, it bears mutual interest in work of each other.

Results

In the course of experiment which was carried out at schools No. 167, 27, 75 of Kazan in the Republic of Tatarstan, we developed system of literary reading lessons with elements of problem training. Each lesson is focused not only on studying of different genres, but also on the organization of pupils’ mental activity which promotes intellectual development.

We used the following techniques of the organization of problem dialogue when studying literature at elementary school:

- Technique of quotes use. Pupils already get acquainted with this technique in the second grade. For example, studying A. Milne's works "Winnie-the-Pooh and All, All, All", B. Zakhoder’s "Schitaliya" and others, the elementary school teacher often applies technique of quotes use.

- Technique of a lesson key question. This technique is the most often used at literature lessons in elementary school. So, for example, when studying a theme "N. Rylenkov "All in the thawing haze" in the third grade the teacher used this technique. At this lesson a key question is: "Why is the nature of the native land, whatever it is, loved by poets and artists?"

- Technique of the "negative" quote use, epigrams or caricatures are the most effective at the organization of problem dialogue. For example, when studying the
poem of N. A. Nekrasov "Ded Mazay and hares" we use the comment of Andrei Evsky who called Nekrasov’s poems - "rather history of poetry, than the poetry". Inevitably at the lesson there will be a question "why?", pupils will be compelled to conduct research and to find out: is this true? Use of this technique promotes development of cognitive activity and research skills of pupils.

- Comparison technique is one of the most effective techniques of the organization of problem dialogue when studying literature at elementary school. So for example, at lessons of literary home reading it is possible to suggest children to compare: "How do you understand expression "the good writer" and "the good reader"? Who is it easier to be: good writer or good reader? What qualities are the most important for them?" Comparing the results received in each column, pupils will have to come to a conclusion that the reader's talent isn't less important in reading literature, than talent of the writer.

- Technique of reproductions comparison – is used seldom, but is not less interesting technique at elementary school. For example, when studying the subject "Historical Sources" in the 3rd grade elementary school pupils for the first time get acquainted with a genre of life and images of saints. Pupils are offered to compare reproductions of icon "The Mother of God Vladimirskaya of the XII century" and the picture "The Madonna with a Flower" of Leonardo da Vinci. Similar technique can also be used at literary reading in the 4th grade when studying the section "At literature origin".

- Technique of a portrait- lesson with a clean slate or a task with all unknown. This technique can be used when studying work of little-known for pupils authors, for example, A. Lindgren. It is possible to begin a lesson of that the teacher, unfortunately, couldn't find full information about the life and works of this writer, but there is a set of summaries to her books. And further children in groups organize search activity when they find information about the identity of the writer, her creative activity, analyze the offered summaries.

- Technique of a foreign language use can be applied when studying a topic of the literature lesson: "B. Zakhoder. Schitaliya" in the 2nd grade.

Efficiency of above-mentioned techniques use was measured by means of the following criteria:

- subject criteria: expressive sensible text reading; ability to make correctly the speech statement in an oral form; work according to the plan; isolation of expression means in work (epithets, comparisons, personifications); ability to apply proverbs as a conclusion to fables, to work with time tape; to actualize knowledge about distinction of ancient and the most ancient fairy tales; to learn to correlate sense and morals of the fable, to learn to carry out the comparative analysis of two fables written on one plot, but at different times;

- metasubject criteria which are subdivided: personal (sense making, formation of empathy, experience of fittings; ability to build the logical reasoning including
determination of causation; ability to demonstrate a cognitive initiative in educational cooperation); regulatory criteria (ability to define independently an educational task; to plan the activities for the solution of an educational task); cognitive criteria (to realize language values; reading text over with different tasks, an sense assessment of all text); communicative (ability to apply rules of business cooperation; to participate in dialogue; to maintain mood in collective; management of behavior of the partner, ability to express the thoughts with sufficient completeness).

For determination of efficiency of the problem dialogue using techniques at lessons of literary reading we carried out questioning in which 561 pupils of elementary school took part. Work was carried out at schools No. 167, 27, 75 of Kazan in the Republic of Tatarstan since 2013 to 2014 year. Questionnaires were directed to identify formation of school children’s skills of sensible reading, replenishment of a lexicon, abilities to tell in correct and logical form, apply means of expressiveness, to argue, compare texts, to define an educational task and to plan its making, etc. Results of the carried-out questioning show that pupils have positive dynamics in quality of subject and metasubject indicators. Absolute progress of elementary school pupils on literary reading at the beginning of academic year grew from 4,1% to 4,7% at the end of the academic year. Thus, the results received during the carried-out questioning, their quantitative and qualitative analysis allowed to reveal and confirm efficiency of the literary reading lessons developed by us in elementary school with use of problem dialogue techniques.

For example, one of lessons was devoted to expansion of children’s moral concepts with use of the text of the fairy tale. To define how the children’s conceptual stock after reading of the fairy tale changed, the table in which they specified number of words-characteristics was distributed to pupils. Then after work with the fairy tale with use of problem dialogue technique children were asked again to fill in the table (table 2). The majority of the words-characteristics given in it pupils used in the speech that is essential replenishment of the children’s active dictionary, and also serves as the proof of expansion of children’s moral concepts. After that calculation of the words-characteristics written before and after work was made. There were 19 pupils at the lesson. On average before work children wrote 7-10 words. After work on average 13-14 words were added. The difference is shown at the table 2 in which numeral designation assumes pupils of a class.

Table 2. Dynamics of replenishment of the children’s active dictionary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>A number of words-characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Before work</td>
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</table>
Results of the conducted research showed efficiency of the developed system of literary reading lessons with use of problem dialogue techniques. Use of problem dialogue techniques is available and effective training technology at elementary school as a result of which knowledge is got and learned in the course of independent, creative search of problem tasks solution. Quality of the pupil’s knowledge thus is much higher, than in traditional training.

**Discussions**

Problem teaching literature is a need today as it is directed on creative learning: fundamentals of literary criticism, the analysis of works techniques and art reflection of reality techniques; on formation of the basic concepts of ethics, morals, the social concepts containing in the course of literature; on education of skills of independent operating with logical research techniques in combination with techniques of art reality reflection.

Whether elementary school students are ready to problem training? To answer this
question it is necessary to find out the level of elementary school age children’s mental processes development, how they qualitatively change throughout training at elementary school and what is the main thing in intellectual development of the elementary school student.

In order the problem training has the developing character, it is necessary for it to be focused on the developing forms of mental activity, but not on the already developed. Otherwise training will fix already passed stages of mental development but won't advance it. Therefore it is so important to know, at what level of development mental processes of the elementary school student are and which features of this stage of development should be considered at the organization of training.

Problem and dialogical training is a type of training which provides creative getting knowledge by pupils by means of the dialogue which is specially organized by the teacher. At first it is necessary, by means of the motivating or leading dialogue, to help pupils to put an educational problem, i.e. to formulate a topic of the lesson or a question for research, thereby to cause pupils’ interest in new material, to create cognitive motivation; then by means of the motivating or leading dialogue to organize search of the decision, or "discovery" of new knowledge. Thus the right understanding of material is reached by school students as it is impossible not to understand what were guessed by yourself.

One of the most effective technologies allowing to realize system and activity approach in training and education is problem and dialogical training. And by combination of this technology with other technologies and methods it is possible to increase this efficiency.

For example, problem and dialogical training can be used in combination with the differentiated and individual approach to training. Often more clever and motivated students receive advancing tasks, and results of their work become a starting point for the organization of activity of other children in a class.

As the pupil has to learn to fix results of the educational and extracurricular activities, the organization of problem dialogue at a lesson and at extracurricular activities has to be connected with a reflection. Only then it is possible to speak about high efficiency of problem and dialogical training technology use.

In creation of a dialogue lesson it is necessary to consider that dialogue is a form of communication. The dialogue lesson will fail if there are factors slowing down dialogue:

- The teacher's categoriality, intolerance to other opinion, to a mistake. Imposing of the opinion, abundance of disciplinary remarks, authoritarianism.

- Absence of the teacher’s attention to the child (a smile, the address by name, physical and visual contact.)

- The closed questions which assume one word answers or questions which don’t
need answers at all.
- Inability of the teacher to be the good listener. Listening is often critical: interrupting, negative evaluation.

Conclusion

Problem dialogue at literature lessons in elementary school provides creative getting knowledge by pupils by means of dialogue with the teacher. This technology is productive and health saving as it provides high quality of knowledge, effective development of intelligence and creativity, education of the active personality.

In the course of our work we proved that application of the problem dialogue organization technique at lessons of literary reading at elementary school allows to open abilities of each pupil at higher level, and also promotes the solution of all pedagogical tasks which were planned by the teacher before a lesson.

Problem situation can be created by comparison of the studied text with work of other genre, for example, fables with the tale about animals, comparison of the name of work with its contents; independent definition by pupils of a genre of the read work; idea comparison of two-three works close according to the contents; the expressive reading the text showing possibility of various interpretation and reading; comparison of characters of the same author in different texts or of different authors in texts on the same plot; comparison of illustrations to the same text of different artists; change of the end of work.

Problem nature of training made our work more vivid, more interesting, allowed pupils to show the ingenuity, watchfulness, keenness to the art word, creativity. We also make sure that the technology of problem dialogue can be used at lessons of literary reading in any educational system.

Acknowledgments

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METHOD OF RIDDLES AS A MEANS OF THE LINGUOCULTURAL LOGICAL KNOWLEDGE FORMATION AMONG PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

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Abstract. In the modern conditions of socio-cultural situation characterized by active processes of interaction between nations and cultures the linguoculturological competence which provides the effective intercultural communication of a person becomes highly demanded. The formation of linguoculturological knowledge at the primary school age is possible through addressing to texts of riddles as a minor folklore genre with high linguoculturological value. However, the analysis of school courseware allows drawing the conclusion that the linguoculturological potential implicated into texts of riddles does not become the subject for consideration on the lessons of the Russian language. In this regard the article is aimed to develop the method of teaching texts of riddles as complete literary works on lessons of the Russian language in primary school. In the article the method of work with riddles based on the dialogic principle is presented. The principle allows schoolchildren to study Russian language and culture in the system of dialogues between other cultures. Also methodological recommendations are given to primary school teachers on how to improve the work with texts of riddles in linguoculturological aspect. The material presented in the article has practical value for primary school teachers and students of pedagogical and philological specializations.

Keywords: linguoculturological approach, linguoculturological knowledge, dialogic principle, riddle, primary school children.

Introduction

Relevance of the issue

In the modern world the process of globalization which intensifies interrelations and interdependence of different countries, nations, and cultures is actively developing. This process actualizes the problem of intercultural communication (Yusupova, Podgerecki & Markova, 2015). The solution of
this problem in Russian language teaching is possible through the realization of the linguoculturological approach. Scientists determine this approach as one of the most effective in formation and mastering of skills and abilities necessary for the intercultural communication by learning the language as a phenomenon of culture (Alifrenko, 2010, Sudakova, 2010). The requirement for the realization of the linguoculturological approach in the Russian language teaching is the reference to the text. In this respect, the text should be considered as a holistic piece of the language, speech and culture (Levushkina, 2014). For the primary school it is suggested to use texts of riddles as a minor folklore genre, familiar to the primary school children from the preschool age.

Methodological Framework

In this part the specificity and meaning of the linguoculturological approach in the Russian language teaching and possibilities of its realization in primary school are studied.

The role of linguoculturological approach in the Russian language teaching

In the modern methodology on the Russian language teaching the linguoculturological approach is rather new and actively developing. The approach is characterized not only by the cultural component, but also personality-forming orientation. In this approach language and culture are considered in tight interrelation (language learning in culture and culture learning in language), a man – language-speaker being a part of society in which the language functions is: on the one hand, a mouthpiece (creator) of the culture, on the other hand, a user who influences the development of the culture (Nosova, 2008).

The linguoculturological approach in the Russian language teaching is determined as a set of methods which allow formation of student’s linguistic identity in the cultural context during their studies (Levushkina, 2014). The most effective way is through the text. Text-oriented learning is one of strategic approaches of modern methodics which is expressed by the widespread use of a text as a linguistic, communicative or didactic unite (Deikina, 2005).

The linguoculturological approach in the Russian language teaching also supposes special way of work with texts. The formation of modern schoolchild’s integrated personality becomes possible only on condition that the text is considered as a holistic work. Consequently, the work with a text should be forwarded not only on the analysis of its linguistic and spoken form, but also on the work with it as a culture masterpiece, on the revelation of its linguoculturological potential.

The term of linguoculturological competence is closely connected with the
linguoculturological approach. The linguoculturological competence is determined as a unity of skills and knowledge which allow a child to perceive and interpret linguistic facts as facts of culture on verbal and semantic, thesaurus and motivation-pragmatic levels.

In the primary school the above mentioned competence is not stated, however, it is noted that by the end of the course on the Russian language primary school students will have learnt to recognize the language as the basic means of communication and a national culture phenomenon (Alekseeva, 2009; Parfilova & Kalimullin, 2014).

We consider it possible to form the linguoculturological knowledge of primary school children. The linguoculturological knowledge includes knowledge about the culture expressed in the national language.

The linguoculturological knowledge formation of primary school children

The most effective way to realize the linguoculturological knowledge formation of primary school children is during the work with texts. It is known, that to deepen the teaching and developing effect of the text work the content should awake student’s empathy (emotive, expressive and modal functions of text).

In this regard, texts of riddles are quite effective, because primary school children are familiar with riddles from the pre-school age. Riddles produce student’s emotional response, genuine interest, refresh the cause of the lesson, activate the attention and mental activity of children. Many scientists have studied the educating potential of riddles. K.D. Ushinskiy stated that “riddle is a useful exercise for the intellect, a material for conversation in class and for pictorial description of an object” (Ushinskiy, 1989). Modern methodologist O.V. Sosnovskaya notes that through riddles primary school students can be given the first idea about the imagery of the Russian language, familiarize with allegoric expressions (Sosnovskaya, 2004).

Riddles also have linguoculturological potential. As a text of folklore riddles directly translate national culture traditions without distorting them by the author’s individual interference, they are created in the context of national linguistic world-image.

However, the linguoculturological potential implicated in the texts of riddles is not adequately unfolded on the lessons of the Russian language. Generally the texts of riddles are used to do some grammar and orthographic exercises.

The case study analysis of linguoculturological approach in the work with riddles texts in primary school
In the course of the research the sampling analysis of the Russian language workbooks for the second form students was held. The books were studied from the point of realized approaches to the work with texts of riddles. It was necessary to determine to what extent the methodic support of the exercises allow schoolchildren to form their linguoculturological knowledge.

The number of exercises based on the texts of different genres forms 42% of all the exercises in the coursebooks. Riddles are 1, 92% of total amount of texts. The analysis of exercises based on the riddles material showed the following. The majority of exercises (48%) are dedicated to the formation of orthographic skills. For example, the riddles: “Without hands, without legs, but paints. It is not a tailor, but goes with needles all the time. Cloud walked in the sky, cloud lost it string of beads.” are followed by the task: “Read the riddles. Write them down with verification words in brackets. Write down the answers. Underline letters at the end of answer-words. Explain the reason of the flexion. Write the highlighted words, underline the orthograms in them.” The other exercise suggests the following task: “Read the riddles. Explain the spelling of the words with gaps.” One of the most spread tasks is to give only an answer (20, 5%). The tasks of the grammar character involve 12, 5% of the exercises with riddles. For example, for the riddles “All winter rested, but in spring ran away” (Snow) and “Which road is half a year driven and half a year walked?” (Across the river) the task is: “Read the riddles. Guess the answers. Circle the verbs.” There are some tasks of creative character, for example: “Remember riddles about a watermelon and write them down.” Such exercises are rare – 6, 5%. There are also exercises in which attention is paid to the imagery of the language in which the riddle is written. These are tasks of the following type: “Read the riddle. What words are used in figurative meaning? How did you understand it?” These tasks are used in 12, 5% of exercises.

As a result conclusion can be drawn that the Russian language coursebooks for the second form students contain enough exercises based on the textual material. This accounts for the idea of text-oriented approach in the Russian language teaching. Among the used texts there also were riddles (1, 92% of all texts). However, the work with this texts suggested in the Russian language teaching materials for the second form schoolchildren is focused only on the formation of knowledge, skills and abilities connected with the subject. The capabilities of riddles for the linguoculturological knowledge formation among primary school children are not used.

A stage of our research was a quiz for primary school teachers aimed to study how they understand the role of texts in the Russian language teaching in primary school. Teachers were asked to answer the questions of the quiz. More than 200 primary school teachers of the Tatarstan Republic participated in the questionnaire. The following questions were included: 1.
Why is the work with texts used in the Russian language teaching; 2. What is the most frequent way you use texts in the Russian language teaching; 3. What are the riddles used for in teaching of the Russian language. The majority of the teachers (76%) answered the first question: “to present the grammar theme on the examples from the text”. 92% of the teachers stated “to improve the speech, teach how to retell and write summaries”. 32% of the questioned chose the answer “to teach how to understand texts”. “To teach how to find expressive means” selected 12%. Only 7% of the teacher answered “to teach culture, customs and traditions of Russian nation”. The most common answers on the second question were: “as a starting material for a grammar theme learning” (78%), “as a material for control dictations” (98%). Only 9% answered “as a material for teaching national culture and its specificity”. The third question proved that the most spread opinion about the role of riddles in the Russian language teaching was the idea that riddles enhance the brain functions (96%); activate attention (82%); work with texts of riddles contribute the formation of skills, abilities and knowledge about the subject (48%). Only 12% of the questioned selected the answer “allows learning the Russian language imagery”. 5% of the teachers pointed that riddles contribute the formation of the idea about the Russian language world-image among primary school children.

According to the results of the questionnaire the following conclusions may be drawn. The attitude of primary school teachers towards the text is traditional for the Russian language teaching methodology. A text is considered to be the didactic material for the speech development and the course grammar themes learning; the controlling function of text is also valued. However, despite of the stated in the Federal State Educational Standard priorities in the Russian language learning – “in the end of the Russian language course primary school students will have understood the language as the basic means of communication and a phenomenon of the national culture; they will have been taught the fundamentals of the civil personal identity through the idea “I am a citizen of Russia”, proud for the Motherland, nation and history, understanding of their ethnic background.” (Alekseeva, 2009), not all the teachers realize the necessity of treating the text as a cultural phenomenon, a unit of speech. In the context of these ideas about the role of text in the Russian language teaching to the primary school children the attitude of the teachers towards the organization of work with riddles on the lessons of the Russian language were formed. The most part of them are not motivated to reveal the linguoculturological potential of riddles. It is due to the lack of necessary methodological instruments, methodological recommendations for the organization of the work with riddles.

Results and discussions

The methodics of the work with riddles in the linguoculturological aspect
Let’s consider the work with riddles in the linguoculturological aspect on the lessons of the Russian language in primary school. First of all, the organization of the work with riddles based on the peculiarities of linguoculturological potential implicated in riddles. The potential is expressed in its constructive principle – metaphor. Metaphors of ancient riddles reflect cultural meanings important for the previous generations. Therefore, the central principle of the work with riddles should be the analysis of the metaphor used in the text. The procedure of the work consists of 4 stages. On the first stage (stage of perception) schoolchildren read or listen to the riddle and make a guess. It is important make the children express their emotional attitude towards the text. The next stage – the analysis of the metaphor the riddle is built on. Students specify what things are compared; determine the basis for the development of the figurative meaning reflected in the riddle; discover the culturological reasons for the development of this hidden comparison, metaphor. Here is the example how this stage of the work with riddle may be organized:

“I’m riding on top,
Don’t know of what,
When I meet a friend,
I jump off to greet.”
(A hat)
Name the verbs used in the riddle (riding, don’t know, meet, jump off, greet)
Who can make these actions? (a man)
Who makes these actions in the riddle?
Note that in each line there are only 2 words, and every second one is a verb.
What do verbs express? (action)
What peculiarity of the hat is expressed by the verbs (unusual mobility, liveliness, it is not a coincidence that the hat is something alive!). Indeed, Russian people usually had their hat on the head, or in their hands, or in the pocket, or again on the head.
Does the riddle explain when was the hat put off? (Yes, when I meet a friend. I jump off to greet)
How do you understand the word “to greet”?
Is the tradition to take off the hat to greet an unknown person preserved?
When else do we put off the hat? (When entering a building men take off their hats). In this very moment the hat is in the hand or in the pocket. When you are back on the street it is again on the head. It is difficult to find more “mobile”
clothes.

So, what rule of behavior (rule of ancient Russian etiquette) is the riddle about? (People took off the heat when they met their friend).

On the stage of reflection students express their position to the process and the result of the metaphor guess. On the final stage students are suggested to make a creative project, for example, to write a small composition on the topic “What did the riddle tell us”. Organizing this stage the difference of children abilities should be taken into consideration. For some children it is enough to name the theme, the others should be provided the prepared plan of the composition; and the latest may be suggested to continue the composition “We studied riddles on the lesson today. I liked one of them most of all. The riddle is about…” The creative task may be of the other kind. For example, to illustrate the riddle. The picture has to depict, if possible, the realia of the time the riddle was composed (clothes, utensils, streets, houses, etc.).

It should be noted that some ancient riddles are difficult to solve due to the change of the life realia. However, this makes them more interesting to involve students into national and cultural context. For example:

Round, but not the Moon,
Yellow, but not butter,
Sweet, but not sugar,
Has a tail, but not a mouse. (Turnip)

Modern children give the answer “melon”. What should the teacher do? Insist on it being incorrect? In this case – to accept the answer, because it corresponds to all the characteristics, given in the riddle, even the feminine form of the adjectives used in the riddle does not contradict the answer. Then it should be explained that the riddle was composed long time ago. Russian people did not grow, nether tasted, nor knew about melons at that time. But there was another plant. Before the spread of potato (from the 2nd half of the XIX century) the principal vegetable in Russia was turnip. It is likely that children themselves give the correct answer after having remembered the well-known from the pre-school age fairytale “The Turnip”.

What characteristics of the turnip are enumerated?
What part of speech is used for it? (adjective)
What is the gender form of the adjectives?
Can we suppose what part of speech is the answer? (noun) What gender is it? (feminine)
Is it possible to say that turnip was delicious for a Russian man?
Whatcharacteristicprovesit?

After that the teacher (or a prepared student) can tell how the turnip was cooked and eaten in Ancient Russia, what were its benefits.

*The realization of dialogic principle in the work with riddles*

It is also supposed that the work with riddles should be arranged in accordance with the dialogic principle which is important for the modern methodology of the Russian language teaching. The principle gives students the opportunity to learn Russian language and culture in the system of the dialogue between native and world culture. For this reason it is suggested to study on the lessons riddles not only in Russian language. Children may remember or find riddles with the same solution in their native language (in Russia multiethnic classes are common) or in the foreign language they are studying at school, for instance, in English. If other students do not know the language of the riddle, the translation should be provided. Henceforth, the work on the comparison of riddles in different languages should be organized. Here is the example of the work. Compare riddles about the sun and the moon. English riddle: «Two sisters are fair and bright, they always run, but never meet». Russian variant: “Sister goes to see her brother, but the brother hides from her”.

Who are the sun and the moon compared with? (with brother and sister) Are they relatives?

And in the English riddle? (they are sisters) Are they also relatives?

Why, do you think, both Russian and English people chose such relations for these planets? (The riddles reflect the attitude of equal worth of both planets for the human life, about their common traits – fair and bright).

What is peculiar about the “relatives”? What characteristic allows solving the riddle? (impossibility of the meeting)

How is it expressed in the English riddle? In the Russian?

The work of this kind discloses many common features of different cultures, their world-understanding, perception of the nature and people. At the same time it gives the opportunity to feel the peculiarity of the native culture; gradually understand the ethnic background. As it is known two cultures never coincide completely, there is something typical for many nations and also something national, peculiar. The work contributes the formation of student’s tolerance, prevents the division of the world in their mind into “Us” and “Them”. Where “Us” are endured with all cardinal virtues and qualities. On the contrary, “Them” represent everything scary, ugly and immoral. (Turbovskoy, 2003). Many modern scientists stress the importance of these aspects for the modern school (Khuziakhmetov, Shafikova&Kapranova, 2015; Zakirova, Gaysina&Zhumabaeva, 2015;
Discussions
At the present time the contemplation of the interaction between language and culture is a subject matter of many sciences. The results of the researches are actively used in pedagogics, didactics and private methodics. In the modern methodology of the Russian language teaching this led to the development of culture-oriented approaches: language learning in the dialogue of two cultures, in the context of culture, in the linguoculturological approach. However, the question of antecedence in opposition language-culture is treated differently. We hold to the point that the language as an aim is primary, and the culture is secondary as a means. The language may act as a culture-forming power. Modern linguo-methodics has comprehended the developing personal potential of linguoculturology, its infinite possibilities to achieve both subjective and metasubjective, personal results if the Russian language teaching.

Conclusion
The realization of linguoculturological approach in the Russian language teaching may be realized through the specially organized work with texts, because cultural and national specificity of the whole national linguistic world-image is most vividly demonstrated through the evaluative, modal lexis, in metaphors. For this aim were selected riddles in texts of which metaphor is the basic constructive principle. Moreover, riddles are optimal for the primary school age. The presented methodics of the work with riddles has its objective to form linguoculturological knowledge of primary school students. There were realized the integrative abilities of the Russian language as a school subject, its person formative, worldview component of teaching situation. It allows achieving solutions of not only subjective tasks and objectives, achieving subjective results, but also developing the system of universal teaching activities, achieving metasubjective and personal results, forming student’s personality.

Appendix A. Acknowledgments
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Appendix B. References


**Appendix F.** Nosova, E.S. (2008). The position of linguoculturological competence in the system of the native language teaching. *Izvestia Herzen University Journal of Humanities and Sciences*, 80, 5-7.


STUDY OF SPIRITUAL AND MORAL QUALITIES OF STUDENTS RUSSIAN AND TATAR NATIONALITY WITHIN THE EDUCATION ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

The relevance of this issue study is determined by the fact that in the multiethnic country it is essential to form spiritual and moral culture of a contemporary, to get system knowledge of the native culture and other nation's culture, to be oriented by human cultural and spiritual values and by tolerance towards other nations. Therefore this article is focused on the study of spiritual and moral qualities of Russian and Tatar students within education environment of the institutions of higher education in the Republic of Tatarstan. The previously performed studies prove the importance of the education environment as a social and cultural space featuring a perfect form of spiritual and moral culture. Leading methods in the study of this issue are: theoretical analysis of the literature on the issue of spiritual and moral development of a person in the young age; psychodiagnosis methods; mathematical and statistical methods of the results analysis. These methods let us identify the level of the formed personal spiritual and moral development of a student. This article presents the results of comparative analysis of spiritual and moral qualities manifestation of the students of various nationalities, as well as specifies the basic connections between their spiritual and moral characteristics. Particularly the study results revealed the basic differences in manifestation of certain spiritual and moral characteristics of the Russian and Tatar subtends and in correlation between the student’s personality structure indexes. The study results are of great practical importance for teachers, explorers, social workers who develop theoretical and practical methods to formation of spiritual and moral personality within the current education environment.

Keywords: spiritual and moral development of personality, russian and tatar nationality, kindness, evil, spirituality, morality, educational environment.
1. Introduction

2. Relevance of the issue

Nowadays the problem of spiritual and moral development of personality takes one of the main places in system of scientific and psychological knowledge. The researches directed to search of ways of a person’s spiritual and moral development are undertaken (Abolin & Valiakhmetov, 2002; Zinchenko & Morgunov, 1994; Znakov, 1998; Popov, 2002; Khairutdinova, 2015).

3. Tendencies in organizational-content updating of educational process

Modern education creates conditions in which the main ideas and approaches of the modern person’s spiritual and moral identity development are implemented taking into account features of vital space of young people, their socialization in modern high-mobile, multiethnic and polycultural society. Formation of spiritual and moral culture of the modern person within conditions of the multinational republic assumes system knowledge mastering in the field of spiritual and national culture (cultures of other nations and native one), the positive emotional attitude to it, orientation to universal cultural spiritual values, tolerance (Volchkov, 2014).

4. Relevance of educational process technological updating

It is worth mentioning that the main condition of assimilation by the person of socially developed spiritual and moral values is inclusion of the person in "live" event activity by means of psychological tools. By means of psychological tools, for example, adult, sign and the word, sense and myth, emotional and expressional characteristics, a person takes in the spiritual experience of the humanity by its adoption and its transfer from external spiritual values into inner experiences as part of self-identity.

5. Methodological Framework

For implementation of the formulated purpose and verification of a hypothesis the following techniques were used:

- Questionnaire "spiritual differential" (Aminev, 1994). The technique of "spiritual differential" was created on the basis of concepts about the spiritual personality and the person, spiritual and moral qualities and the level of their development. The technique is constructed on the basis of the principle of semantic differential: spiritual force (SF); spiritual beauty as set of spiritual values (SB); spiritual activity (SA);

- Self-assessment and peer-assessment of spirituality of the personality (Aminev, 1994). The technique of self-assessment and peer-assessment of spiritual and moral qualities was also created on the basis of concepts about the spiritual personality. By means of this technique the following spiritual moral features are defined: "spiritual independence" (SI), "weakness" (Wk);
"gentleness" (Gn); "righteousness" (Rg); "indulgency" (In); "purity of heart" (PH); "peacemaking" (Pm); "truthfulness" (Tf); "persecution" (Pr);

- technique of "GE" (Popov, 2002). The purpose of this technique is the assessment of two alternative lines of the personality on functions of qualities of the good and evil ("GOOD-EVIL").

During research the following methods are used: 1) the theoretical analysis of literature on a problem of spiritual and moral development of the person at young age; 2) methods of psychodiagnoses; 3) mathematical and statistical methods of processing of results.

At the research results processing the program of statistical processing – statistical comparison of average sizes, the correlation analysis and the analysis by means of Student's t-test was applied for independent selections. The analysis of data was carried out by means of a method of correlation pleiades.

The goal of Kazan Federal University and the Russian Academy of Education collaboration

The research objective was identification of spiritual and moral qualities ratio of a Tatar and Russian young people and definition of the qualities which make his/her spiritual potential.

Objects of research were spiritual and moral qualities of a Tatar and Russian young people.

Subject of research - a ratio of spiritual and moral qualities of students of the Tatar and Russian nationality.

In the course of work on a subject the following tasks were set and solved:

1) By the literary analysis to justify the importance of a problem of spiritual and moral development of the person;

2) To reveal spiritual and moral features which determine the spiritual potential of students of the Russian and Tatar nationality;

3) To study a ratio of spiritual and moral qualities of students of both nationalities.

Hypothesis of research was the assumption that the ratio of positive and negative qualities optimally fosters the high level of spiritual and moral development of the person.

Results and Discussions

Development and introduction of an educational process monitoring system at a higher education institution

130 people took part in research. Among them 70 people – students of the Russian
and 60 people – students of the Tatar nationality.

Before passing to the analysis of all received indicators ratio, it is necessary to characterize data on each indicator in both groups and to compare average data in groups among themselves.

**Solution of the given task**

The analysis of results of statistical comparison of average group indicators revealed that the Goodness development level in both selections is characterized as average, and it means that students of both nationalities are aimed at good values. Also for these students problems of spirituality, morality and careful attitude to one another and to the spiritual essence are rather significant, and it in turn contributes them to virtuous actions. Level of the evil in both groups is also estimated as average it means that these major characteristics of human existence (Popov, 2002) counterbalance each other, creating balance in the person. The "spiritual differential" technique revealed that the high level of development in both selections has such quality as the spiritual beauty (SB). It means that students show honesty, don't sow contention between close people, don't play the hypocrite and don't slander on others, try to behave as what they are actually. They are able to keep the promise, are true in love and in friendship, aren't inclined to insidiousness and slyness. Also these examinees can be characterized as careful, affable in the treatment of people. Thus they are kind not only to relatives, but also to strangers, are especially benevolent to children. In the acts they avoid villainy and manhandling, are able to be grateful to both people and destiny.

**Reserves and recommendations**

However these data are called in question as numerous supervision, and also the analysis of the modern scientific and popular publications, an overview of events occurring in modern society (nationalism, crime, thirst of the power and material benefits, etc.) give the evidence of the inverse tendency. It aims at further research of the matter on identification of how the estimated qualities of students in their behavior and activity are actually shown. Such quality as the spiritual force (SF) is poorly developed among the students of both nationalities, it manifests itself in weakness of spirit, inability to take out trials and difficulties, in opportunity to lose control over feelings.

**Ensuring organizational-content updating of educational process at a higher education institution**

The analysis of separate spiritual and moral qualities of the Russian and Tatar students didn't show significant distinctions in extent of their development. In both selections the greatest development was gained by such qualities as nobility (Nb), good nature (GN) and pursuance of truth (PT). Courage (Cr), endurance (En) and modesty (Md) were to a lesser extent shown, the lowest
level of development quality received optimism (Op).

As a result of the analysis of data on the students' self-assessment of spiritual and moral qualities, it is possible to characterize students of both nationalities as peaceful and compliant, capable to inspire tranquility and confidence, to resolve the conflicts which arose in group (Pm). These examinees estimate themselves free from spiritual dependences, desires, acquisitiveness, without haughtiness and arrogance (SI). Irrespective of nationality students aspire to be just, fair and honest, to follow rules of decency (Rg). The analysis of spiritual and moral qualities of students allows to estimate them as kind and favorable, able to give help, philanthropic (In) and also as reserved and moderate (Gn). For students "truthfulness" (Tf), sympathy and compassion (Wk), responsiveness and mercy, ability sincerely to belong to each other (PH) are to a lesser extent characteristic. Low level of development quality received "persecution" (Pr) that can be shown in the form of weakness of spirit, despair and pessimism.

Solution of the given task

As a result of Spearman's correlation analysis for each group of examinees the matrixes reflecting correlation structure of internal communications of indicators were received.

In both groups statistically significant communications of indicators were found. In group of students of the Tatar nationality 14 indicators have statistically significant communications.

The greatest number of communications is revealed on a factor "spiritual beauty" (SB). This indicator positively correlates with GN factors (0.53 at r=0.001), Nb (0.41 at r=0.05), Md (0.40 at r=0.05) and negative with indicators SA (-0.53 r=0.001), PT (-0.46 at r=0.05) and Cr.

The examinees of the Tatar nationality having spiritual beauty, true in love and in friendship, not breaking the word, keeping the promises, show nobility and modesty in their acts. They are able to be careful, good-natured, and affable in the treatment of people (GN). The spiritual beauty of students is formed owing to activity in spiritual searches (SA). These examinees consider that study and knowledge of truth – a happiness source, aspire to acquire manuals of morals, possess courage (Cr), also for them the aspiration to truth (PT) is characteristic – positive communication of an indicator SA with quality of PT (0.69 testifies to it at r=0.001). The aspiration to truth in turn promotes formation of restraint, patience and firmness of students. The high level of development of these indicators is characteristic for students active in spiritual searches to what negative correlation between indicators SA and Md testifies (-0.41 at r=0.05). In turn, low spiritual activity can result in pessimism, shown that these students don't hope for the best changes, can become despondent and despair (Op), optimistic students will show endurance and patience. These qualities are a basis of formation of firmness,
ability to rub through vital difficulties (Gn).

The low level of development of spiritual strength of students of the Tatar nationality has positive communication with an indicator En (0.66 at r=0.001), and also negative communications with SB, Cr and GN. Weakness of spirit is characteristic for students with a low level of development of endurance, not reserved, not capable to take out difficulties and trials, to endure pain and sufferings. However the high level of development of spiritual beauty, nobility and courage of students can influence development of spiritual force.

In group of students of the Tatar nationality statistically strong communications between indicators G, E and GE were found (r=0.001). The average level of Good of students of the Tatar nationality positively influences the general level of development of the Good and Evil in the person. However it isn't revealed statistically significant communications of these indicators with other spiritual and moral qualities of the personality.

The following indicators weren't included in a correlation group of students of the Tatar nationality: "spiritual flatness" (SI), "weakness" (Wk), "righteousness" (Rg), "indulgency" (In), "purity of heart" (PH), "peacemaking" (Pm), "truthfulness" (Tf), "persecution" (Pr).

In group of students of the Russian nationality 20 indicators have statistically significant communications. The greatest number of statistically significant communications is revealed on a factor "the spiritual force" SF. This indicator positively correlates with "courage" (0.50 at r=0.001), "endurance" (0.52 at r=0.001), "good nature" (0.37 at r=0.05), "peacemaking" (0.33 at r=0.05) and negatively "the spiritual beauty" (-0.56 correlates with factors at r=0.001), "nobility" (-0.47 at r=0.05). Spiritual weakness of students of the Russian nationality can't promote formation of such qualities, as courage, self-control, good nature, peacefulness. However such characteristics as spiritual beauty, honesty in acts, aspiration to noble acts are potential for formation of spiritual force.

The analysis of a correlation pleiade in group of examinees of the Russian nationality showed that a factor "the spiritual beauty" has the same statistically significant communications, as in group of students of the Tatar nationality.

For the examinees of the Russian nationality having spiritual beauty, kindness, ability to forgive (GN), honesty and ability to keep the promise, fidelity in love and in friendship (Nb) are characteristic. In turn formation of the listed qualities requires courage (Cr) and belief in the best (Op).

Students of the Russian nationality, showing activity in spiritual searches, aspire to acquire knowledge, vital wisdom as students of the Tatar nationality consider that study and knowledge of truth is a happiness source. Positive
correlation between indicators SA and PT (0.76 testifies to it at r=0.001). Also these examinees believe that the good will always overcome the evil; the beauty will save the world (Op).

Reserves and recommendations

In group of Russian students, as well as in group of Tatar students, significant statistical communications between indicators G, E and GE are found. However in a correlation pleiade of this selection communications of indicators G, E and GE with other spiritual and moral qualities of the personality are revealed. Level of the Evil and Good separately positively influence quality "spiritual independence" (SI) that is shown in aspiration of students to freedom from spiritual dependences, desires and money-making. Students with the average level of development of the Evil to a lesser extent can show sympathy, responsiveness and compassion, the indifference and callousness (Wk) can be observed in behavior. These qualities can be a consequence of insufficient development of such quality, as "purity of heart" (PH). Only a small amount of students estimate themselves soulful, sincere and unenvious. On the contrary, negative correlations of indicators of Gn, En and Nb with a factor of PH testifies that frank, friendly, unfeigned examinees show nobility, modesty, restraint, endurance and resistance to vital difficulties. Development of the same qualities is influenced positively by a factor of GE which positively correlates with indicators En and Md. In turn the modesty and endurance of Russian students promote formation of other equally important qualities, such as peacefulness, tractability, compliance (Pm). Only the kind, not inclined to quarrels, but on the contrary inspiring tranquility students have a high level of development of good nature (GN) and the purity of heart (PH).

Aspiration of students of the Russian nationality to be just, in acts to adhere to legality (Rg) aims these examinees at Good values, eradicating in itself qualities of the Evil (violence, humiliation, ill treatment), and also calls for truthfulness and impartiality in judgments (Tf).

The correlation group of students of the Russian nationality has more complete form. The following indicators weren't included in a correlation pleiad: "indulgency" (In), and "persecution" (Pr).

6. Development of information-methodical support of educational process at a higher education institution

The theoretical analysis of literature concerning spiritual and moral development of the person showed the importance of a problem of spiritual and moral development of the person.

As a result of research personal spiritual and moral qualities which determine the spiritual potential of students of the Tatar and Russian nationalities were
revealed:
- in both groups the level of development of the Good and Evil is estimated as average that speaks about balance of qualities of the Good and Evil in structure of the identity of students (Popov, 2002).

- students of both selections possess a high level of development of spiritual beauty, the poor development at students of both nationalities has such quality as spiritual force.

- the analysis of separate spiritual and moral qualities of students of the Russian and Tatar nationality didn't show significant distinctions in extent of their development. Students of both nationalities possess nobility, good nature and aspiration to truth. Smaller development was gained by such qualities as courage, endurance and modesty, the lowest level of development optimism is recorded on quality.

- the self-assessment of personal spiritual and moral qualities of students showed that examinees of both nationalities can be characterized as peaceful and compliant, capable to resolve the conflicts which arose in group. These examinees estimate themselves free from spiritual dependences, seek to be just, fair and honest, to follow rules of decency. Also they can be estimated as kind and favorable, able to give help, philanthropic, and also as reserved and moderate. To a lesser extent examinees show sympathy and compassion, responsiveness and mercy. Irrespective of a nationality a low level of development quality received "persecution" that can be shown in the form of weakness of spirit, a despair and pessimism.

Correlation communications between indicators in structure of the identity of students are revealed. The greatest number of communications in group of students of the Tatar nationality is observed on quality "spiritual beauty", in group of students of the Russian nationality - "the spiritual force". The analysis of correlation pleiades showed that the ratio of spiritual and moral qualities of students of the Russian nationality has more complete character (two qualities weren't included into a correlation pleiade: indulgency and persecution). The following indicators have no statistically significant communications in group of students of the Tatar nationality: spiritual flatness, weakness, righteousness, indulgency, purity of heart, peacemaking, truthfulness, persecution. It should be noted also that development of spiritual and moral qualities of students of the Tatar nationality goes irrespective of existence in structure of their identity of values of the Good and Evil.

7. Conclusions

Based on the obtained data, it is possible to draw a conclusion that personal spiritual and moral qualities of students of the Russian nationality in the development have more integral form, than spiritual and moral qualities of
students of the Tatar nationality. Proceeding from it, it should be noted that the general level of spiritual and moral development of students of the Russian and Tatar nationalities can be characterized as average. Only the balanced ratio of all positive and negative qualities of students can speak about their high level of spiritual and moral development. The received results confirm need of creation of the special educational environment aimed at formation of the spiritual and moral personality.

References


CURRENT STATE AND FORMATION PROBLEMS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS’ READINESS TO USE INTERACTIVE TECHNOLOGIES

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Abstract

Relevance of this research problem is caused by that many heads of educational institutions note the low level of graduates’ of pedagogical specialties formation of readiness to use interactive training technologies. Therefore it becomes necessary to revise subject and methodical training of elementary school teachers in higher educational institutions in introduction of interactive training technologies in educational process of elementary school. Thus this article is directed on disclosure of a current state, identification of problems and development of recommendations about optimization of this process in higher educational institutions. The leading method of this problem research is questioning in which 567 students of pedagogical specialties of the Kazan federal university are involved. By questioning fragmentary use of interactive technologies in professional pedagogical practice of elementary school teachers, their dissatisfaction with the level of knowledge formation in the field of interactive training technologies use was revealed. In article levels of professional and pedagogical readiness formation of future elementary school teachers to use interactive training technologies are revealed, the necessity to implement the interactive training technologies into the process of professional training of future teachers is proved, recommendations about improvement of the maintenance of a training course are offered. The materials presented in article allow increasing subject and methodical readiness of teachers for use of interactive training technologies in elementary school.
Keywords: interactive technologies, professional pedagogical readiness, elementary school teacher, improvement of educational process.

Introduction

Relevance of the problem

Prompt development of technologies puts forward the new challenges for education demanding revision of the education content, forms, methods of training. One of the main innovations in the field of education is interactive technologies of training. Use of interactive training technologies allows increasing informative activity of pupils at a lesson; all pupils of a class are involved into work. There is a support for personal experience of each pupil. Dialogue training allows creating the subject-subject relations between the teacher and pupils, there are comfortable conditions of training due to creation of "success situations" at the lessons (Novik & Podgórecki, 2015; Ribakova, Parfilova, Karimova & Karimova, 2015).

However, the elementary school teachers know only separate elements of interactive training technologies, their use in practice of elementary school has fragmentary, incidental character. Therefore there is a huge problem in subject and methodical training of elementary school teachers in higher educational institutions on introduction of interactive training technologies into educational process of elementary school. The elementary school teacher has to not only know about interactive training technologies, but also be able to put them into practice. It is possible if the purpose, the contents, forms and methods of professional training are focused on use of interactive training technologies by elementary school teachers.

Literature Review


Despite the increasing interest in questions of use of interactive training technologies, the formation problem of future elementary school teachers’
readiness to use interactive training technologies exists and demands the solution.

Methodological Framework

In 2013 567 the 1st-5th year students and masters studying on the “Primary education” profile at Institute of Psychology and Education of KFU took part in questionnaire to detect professional and pedagogical readiness of future elementary school teachers to use interactive training technologies.

In the course of research we used the following diagnostic tools:
- the questionnaire for students directed to identify knowledge about essence of interactive technologies, about need to study interactive technologies in educational process of higher education institution;
- the questionnaire for elementary school teachers directed to detect their readiness to use interactive technologies, to define a state and problems which the teacher faces while using interactive technologies, to determinate the need to introduce interactive training technologies into process of professional training of students of pedagogical profiles;
- the method of determining the formation level of readiness to use interactive technologies in primary school.

The presented questionnaires and techniques allow revealing formation levels of teachers' readiness to use interactive technologies in educational process of elementary school, and also carrying out timely correction. In this regard in the course of research a special course "Interactive technologies at elementary school" for students of the pedagogical profile "Primary education", system of interactive lessons of a psychology-pedagogical practical work; the information-subject support of a special course and psychology-pedagogical practical work including EMS (Educational and methodical set) on a special course, system of multimedia presentations according to the content of lectures, didactic tools of monitoring of knowledge and skills quality were developed and introduced by us.

Results

Results of the analysis of questionnaires testify that students of the 1st course (159 questioned) couldn't give the correct and full answer to the question: "How do you understand "interactive training technologies"?". Some of them specified that heard nothing about interactive training technologies.

Students of the 2nd course (24 people from 106 questioned) answered the question: "How do you understand "interactive training technologies"?" as follows: "It is training actively directed on pupils", "The introduction of new technologies and ways of training into educational process", "Introduction of more effective training methods", "It is the technology of the new type entered to increase the knowledge level of pupils", etc. None of students
could give clear definition of this concept. They knew only that it is the new technologies of training directed to increase efficiency of educational process.

63 students of the 3rd course (from 90 questioned) tried to make an explanation: "It is something new, some innovations assuming activity of pupils" "These are such technologies where existence of feedback between the teacher and students (or pupils) is an indispensable condition", "New opinions, decisions, their generalization, possibility of their application are expressed", "Perhaps, this concept means training which bears in itself not only information from the teacher, but also pupils bring into training process something new", etc.

On the 4th course (83 students from 102 questioned) answers were: "It is new technologies which take root into teaching and educational process for the purpose to increase children’s informative activity, their interest; which mean creation of a situation, favorable for communication, that children were not afraid to express the opinion", "It is new, nonconventional technologies of training which increase interest, activity of pupils at lessons, increase motivation for educational activity", "Interactive training technologies allow pupils to feel at lessons more comfortably, surely", "It is new, modernized and more effective methods of training", "It is some innovations in training, it is nonconventional ways of training", "It is some innovations which help to erase a barrier between the teacher and pupils", "It is new technologies, promoting development of each child, opening individual opportunities of children", "It is work in subgroups, use of computer technologies, display of movies, musical accompaniment of a lesson", "It is introduction into training process of the new interactive training methods which are more productive. These methods are connected with game", "The new methods applied in any subject training. For example, "Microphone" when children figuratively imagine that they (everyone individually) speak into a microphone. Thus, children become more uninhibited, learn to express the thoughts", etc.

25 students of the 4th course specified a concrete method from a set of the methods used in interactive training technologies – "Microphone". Substitution of the concepts "interactive training technologies" and "information (computer) training technologies", use of technical means of training at lessons is observed.

On the 5th course students (96 people) also tried to give an explanation to the concept "interactive training technologies". They wrote that it is the modern, new training technologies increasing efficiency of training process, directed on activization of children’s cognitive activity. However 9 students interpret as interactive technologies information (computer) training technologies (use of multimedia installations, computers, audio-, the video equipment and other technical means of training). Among interactive training methods
brainstorming, carrying out discussions, work in groups were called. "It is the modern training technologies aimed to develop the child in a communication situation". "It is the methods directed on activation of pupils' informative processes such as brainstorming, discussion". "It is work in subgroups, the solution of problem situations at lessons". 5 students of the 5th course didn't make an explanation to the concept "interactive training technologies" at all.

Masters (14 people) explained the concept "interactive training technologies" as follows: "It is non-standard forms of carrying out classes during which material is given to pupils not in finished form, but they together with the teacher come to solution of the problem", "They assume nonconventional forms of education: problem lectures, educational debates, business games, discussions, trainings, etc. They assume the subject - subject relations between the teacher and students". Most of students specified that interactive training technologies belong to innovative technologies. Among interactive methods undergraduates called: problem lectures, brainstorming, business games, application of multimedia installations, audio and video maintenance of lectures. However not all the methods listed by them can be referred to interactive training technologies.

None of students could offer a competent explanation of this concept. Only 1 undergraduate wrote that this technology means subject-subject relations between the teacher and pupils. None of students emphasize active interaction of participants of pedagogical process; that interactive training technologies mean the use of role-playing games, imitating games, modeling of various situations demanding decisions, exclude a prevalence of one participant of educational process over others, etc. The word "interactive" came to us from the English word "interact" where "inter" means mutual and "act" - to work with. Thus, interactive - capable to interaction, dialogue.

Interactive training is a special form of the organization of cognitive activity which has the concrete, provided purpose – to create comfortable conditions of training when each pupil feels the success, intellectual opportunities. Among the concrete methods used in interactive technologies of training were called: brainstorming, business games, discussions. Carrying out problem lectures, use at lessons audio-video maintenances, multimedia installations were mistakenly referred to interactive training technologies. Only 48,3% of students specified that learned scientific psychology and pedagogical literature about interactive training technologies (generally students of the 3rd, 4th, 5th courses and masters).

Most of students indicated insufficient reflection of problems of interactive training technologies in psychological and pedagogical literature. "I faced shortage of literature when writing a term paper", "It is possible to find material about interactive training technologies only in pedagogical magazines".
Many students note that often theoretical aspect of the question is widely reflected in literature, but a practical side of training is not enough.

Most of undergraduates (8 people from 9) indicated insufficient reflection of problems of interactive training technologies in psychological and pedagogical literature. Undergraduates wrote in the questionnaire that due attention isn't paid to this problem. None of masters specify the name of any book on interactive training technologies.

84,8% of students consider that it is necessary to increase the volume of the offered material about interactive training technologies in educational process of university when studying pedagogics, didactics, a technique of teaching mathematics, a technique of teaching Russian, a technique of teaching the integrative course "World around" and other private techniques, when studying psychology, pedagogical psychology, bases of pedagogical skill.

Only 26,1% of students answered that used interactive training technologies during teaching practice while carrying out lessons of Mathematics, Russian, reading. Students in this case referred to interactive training technologies work in groups, carrying out discussions, and also creation at lessons of problem situations, carrying out trainings.

34,3% of students noted that methods of interactive training during the work with students were used by teachers of higher education institution on subjects: "Technique of teaching natural sciences", "Pedagogy", "Psychology", "Bases of pedagogical skill", "Technique of teaching mathematics", "Technique of teaching Russian". However if to consider that none of the students could give the correct, complete, accurate definition to the concept "interactive training technologies", students don't understand meaning, the content of this concept, don't know methods of interactive training, there is a high probability of substitution of concepts. For example, one of students wrote: "Methods of interactive training were used by the teacher of Higher education institution during the work with students on discipline of "A basis of pedagogical skill", so that multimedia technical means of training were used at the lessons". Students refer display by teachers of Higher education institution of documentaries, use of multimedia installations at lessons, use of audio, the video equipment to interactive training technologies.

Besides we analyzed the outlines of lessons provided by 3rd and the 5th course students (totally 81 persons) of extramural studies on the specialty "Elementary education" after their teaching practice at schools. Results of the analysis testify that students seldom use interactive training technologies in pedagogical activity, they don't know what an interactive lesson represents, don't know methods of interactive training, don't own a technique of an interactive lesson.

During research levels of formation of professional and pedagogical readiness to use
interactive training technologies of students - future elementary school teachers were determined: high level is determined at 79 students (14%), average – at 329 students (58%) and low level at 159 students (28%). The analysis and assessment of the classes given by students during externship showed that most of students mastered the program of interactive training and showed the high level of the abilities, skills, and qualities necessary for the teacher realizing methods of interactive training. Students began to use more widely methods of interactive training at lessons in elementary school during teaching practice than students of the previous final years.

Also for determination of need to introduce interactive training technologies into process of professional training at pedagogical university 205 teachers-graduates of the specialty "Elementary education" were questioned by us. The following data were obtained:

1. One question of the questionnaire was answered only by 96 teachers (46.8%), 51 people (24.9%) didn't answer this question, they found it difficult to specify the priority directions of subject and methodical work of their schools. 58 teachers specified a problem on which they work.

2. Teachers referred the modular training, problem training, the differentiated training, advancing training to technologies of training. The elementary school teachers use concepts: "technology", "method", "approach", "training" as synonyms.

3. Game technologies, problem training, the differentiated training, group forms of work were called among the most often applied technologies and methods of training. Only 40 teachers remembered and wrote that use in the work interactive training technologies (from 205).

4. Most of elementary school teachers noted that had difficulties in using interactive training technologies. That volume of knowledge which they have about interactive training technologies is received by self-education, by mastering experience of other teachers, reading scientific psychological and pedagogical literature about interactive training technologies, thanks to work of methodical associations of elementary school teachers at each separate school.

5. Only 40 teachers (from 205) could call concrete methods of work which belong to interactive technologies and are used by them in pedagogical activity.

6. Teachers (generally graduates of 2007 – 2013 years) noted that heard about interactive technologies generally at lectures, however the volume of their knowledge is insufficient for carrying out lessons at elementary school. They have huge difficulties in use of interactive training technologies in their pedagogical activity.

The presented problems in preparation of students for using interactive training technologies at elementary school can be solved by the modification of
subject and methodical training of future elementary school teachers.

Discussions

Use of interactive technologies in educational process of elementary school makes it dynamic, modern and interesting for pupils, considerably increases efficiency of learning of material, promotes development of cognitive activity of elementary school pupils. Their application allows making lessons nonconventional, bright and saturated. By the range expansion of the developed information tutorials the application frequency of interactive technologies increases.

Within realization of measures on modernization of education in academic institutions equipment sets were put on the basis of the Federal state educational standard requirements of the primary general education of the 2nd generation regarding material and information support of educational process. Due to the insufficiency of methodical providing and recommendations about use of the equipment the system of the content updating of the students preparation owning modern training technologies including the interactive is necessary.

It should be noted that in the content of subject-methodical training of future elementary school teachers there are disciplines capable to train students of pedagogical specialties to use interactive technologies in educational process.

Consideration of a state and the existing formation problems of teachers’ readiness to use interactive technologies in practice at elementary school allows to make a conclusion that it is necessary to improve the content of subject-methodical training of future elementary school teachers that will allow to improve qualitatively their professional competence.

Conclusion

Thus results of questioning makes it possible to draw a conclusion that the most part of the elementary school teachers and students who were taking part in questioning are not satisfied by the volume of the knowledge gained in higher education institution on interactive training technologies, don't possess abilities of using interactive training methods in the professional and pedagogical activity. It is possible to refer business and role-playing games, master classes, brain storms, discussions in group to the most widespread interactive technologies at elementary school. All these technologies are highly effective and possess a number of advantages:

- training become individual, considering features of the personality, interests and needs of each pupil;
- it becomes possible to capaciously and concisely present any amount of educational information;
- the visual perception improves, learning process of an educational material becomes simpler;

- cognitive activity of pupils arouses, they gain theoretical knowledge and practical skills.

Studying of theoretical bases of interactive training allowed to interpret it as process of joint cognition of educational information by students by interaction with each other and with the teacher. It is ascertained that as an originality of interactive training acts its orientation to interaction of students not only with the teacher, but also with each other.

Conditions of formation of future elementary school teachers’ readiness to use interactive training methods are allocated:

- the organization of interaction between the teacher and pupil on the basis of the parity dialogue realized by creation of comfortable educational space and acceptance by the teacher of a facilitator’s role;

- realization of specially developed course "Interactive Technologies at Elementary School", and also interactive classes of psychological and pedagogical practical work. Efficiency of realization of a special course and practical work was provided by their information and subject providing including EMS on a special course, system of multimedia presentations according to the content of lectures, didactic tools of monitoring of knowledge and skills quality.

Studying and the analysis of a problem of formation of future elementary school teachers’ readiness to use interactive training technologies allowed to allocate the readiness components reflecting the relation to the organization of interaction and parity dialogue of subjects of training, and also synthesis of knowledge about interactive training, abilities to apply interactive methods at lessons and the psychological qualities of the personality necessary for implementation of such training.

Detailed development of interactive training technology taking into account competence-based approach to training of elementary school teachers can become a subject of further researches.

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A CASE- STUDY OF PREVENTING STUDENT’ ACADEMIC PROCRASTINATION

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is the theoretical substantiation and experimental verification of the content, complex forms and methods to ensure the effective prevention of procrastination in students. 234 students of KFU took part in the experiment. In accordance with the aim of the study the following methods were used: theoretical study and analysis of psychological and pedagogical literature on the study, comparison, classification, generalization, formative experiment, diagnostic testing, data processing methods (quantitative and qualitative analysis), methods of mathematical processing of data (measures of central tendency, t- Student test). For testing the students' procrastination level we used “The scale of general procrastination” by B.V. Tukman and "The procrastination scale of students” by K. Ley. Based on the results of the experiment, a program that contains the forms and methods of prevention of procrastination in students was developed. On the basis of this work the conclusion was made that the developed program for the prevention of procrastination in students called "Road by walking!" is effective and contributes to positive qualities, gaining experience of self-organization, self-discipline and responsibility, acquisition of skills for organization of their time planning and considering priorities. The findings of the study are of practical value to the university staff in training future professionals at the university.

Keywords: procrastination, prevention of procrastination, students.

Introduction

Most students are young people aged 18 to 21. This age is an important period in a
person’s life. During this period, one typically gets a sense of maturity and identity, defines one's professional choice and future plans. Educational and professional achievements become important for the young person, and strengthen her/his self-faith and ability to undertake productive activities (Valeeva, 20015). This can thus make the foundation for a successful self-realization in the future. However, procrastination can become an obstacle to such achievements. In psychology, this phenomenon implies a deliberate delay to meeting planned deadlines, tasks and decision making, despite the fact that this may result in some problems.

Procrastination is common to some extent to all ages. Many people feel a sense of frustration because of not completing plans or urgent matters in time, and postpone the adoption of daily life decisions "for tomorrow." But procrastination may be most widespread among students.

The urgency of the problem in today's society, imposing strong demands for independence and personal responsibility, actively contributed to the study of procrastination. In Russia, the problem of procrastination has been paid attention to only recently.

Russian scientists have turned to the study of similar concepts. But more attention is paid to such aspects of human activity as laziness, inactivity, lack of willpower and poor organizational skills. However, procrastination as a psychological phenomenon is not limited to the above concepts. The term "procrastination" is relatively new in Russian psychology, but as a phenomenon it has existed since ancient times.

This phenomenon can affect all spheres of human activity. Learning activities are not an exception. It is believed that the learning process is characterized by the situations most often causing procrastination. In most cases it leads to negative consequences. Procrastination is one of the causes of learning difficulties reducing academic excellence. The negative effects are expressed not only in reducing the person’s success and productivity, and in preventing her/his development, both in study and in the professional sphere. They are also in the acute emotional experiences of her/his own failure, guilt, and dissatisfaction with the results of her/his activities. Therefore, the most urgent and promising trend at the moment is to study the causes of procrastination and its prevention. This issue is relevant to the student's life, both in Russia and abroad.

Mention of procrastination and description of this phenomenon can be found even in the Oxford dictionary in 1548, and in the works of the Industrial Revolution in the middle of the 18th century. The historical analysis of the phenomenon of procrastination was first undertaken by N. Milgram (1992), but the extensive scientific debate about this phenomenon started some twenty years earlier.

The scientific use the term "procrastination" was introduced by P. Ringenbach in
1971 in the book "Procrastination through the ages", cited by Knaus (1979). But Aitken (1982) revealed that Ringenbach's paper was never actually completed. In the same year a book was published by A. Ellis and B.Naous "Overcoming procrastination" (Ellis & Knaus, 1977), which is based on clinical observations. Then there was a popular science book by J. L. Burka and Yuen "Procrastination: what it is and how to fight it" (Burke & Yuen, 2008). The basis of this book the extensive consulting practice of its authors. In the mid-1980s scientific and academic analysis of the phenomenon of procrastination appeared (for example: Steel, 2007; Rothblum, 1986; Lay, 1986). At the end of the 20th through the beginning of the 21st century, this phenomenon has attracted the attention of Russian psychologists (Varvaricheva, 2010; Mikhailova, 2007; Shukhova, 1996).

Analysis of students’ procrastination problems in psychological and pedagogical literature and practice allows us to come to the conclusion about existence of the contradiction between the social necessity of the motivated and capable of effective forecasting person, and insufficient development of the content, forms and methods of students’ procrastination prevention and reducing.

Although the notion of procrastination has been extended recently, there is no well-articulated and universally accepted definition of it. K. Lay defines procrastination as a voluntary, irrational postponement of planned actions, despite the fact of a momentum or negative effect on the individual (Lay, 1986).

Ilyin suggests that procrastination (from the Latin. pro – instead, in front of and crastinus – tomorrow) is the tendency to the permanent postponement of later unpleasant affairs (Ilyin, 2011). Y.I. Varvaricheva's understanding of procrastination is as a conscious entity postponement of planned actions, despite the fact that this would entail some problems (Varvaricheva, 2010). In our study, we adopt this definition of procrastination.

N. Milgram identified 5 types of procrastination (Milgram, 1992):
- daily or household procrastination, performed regularly;
- procrastination in decision-making;
- neurotic – delaying vital decisions, such as choosing a profession or family;
- compulsive in which a person combines two kinds of procrastination – behavioural and decision-making;
- academic – delaying the implementation of educational tasks, exam preparation, etc.

There are several approaches to the explanation of the causes of procrastination. One explanation of procrastination is given in the theory voltage reduction. Self-doubt, low self-esteem, the experience of past failures in the performance of any work may cause human anxiety or fear, especially if the
results of actions will be evaluated in public. Therefore, a person may try to avoid stress, which is associated with the implementation of the unpleasant, uninteresting or too challenging activities, and he begins to "play for time". A person starts to fulfill the task only when the fear of the consequences of failure outweigh the fear of an unsuccessful job execution.

Some scientists explain the cause of procrastination by situational factors. The longer the time an event is separated from the present moment, the less impact it has on the decision making. In particular, the researchers think that a person postpones important actions for the sake of the innate desire for momentary pleasure, especially if he has a negative experience of its fulfillment (Varavicheva, 2010).

There are scientists who consider procrastination as a tendency to resist externally imposed rules and terms. This mechanism triggers procrastination when a person cannot change the existing system, but that system irritates her/him. Violating the terms of activities creates the illusion of his independence and thus eliminates internal dissonance associated with the inability to display their will (Kryukova, 2004).

Scholars have identified several approaches to explaining the causes of procrastination:

- Psychodynamic approach. According to this concept, people avoid doing certain things because they are a threatening their Ego;

- Behavioural approach. The classical theory of teaching explains that the establishment of certain forms of behaviour usually occur automatically, by reinforcement or lack of punishment. For procrastinators this view is reflected in their high ability to remember events about which they have procrastinated and their successful completion in a very short time before the final maturity date;

- Cognitive approach. According to this, three major phenomena underlie procrastination – irrational beliefs, low self-esteem and inability to make their own decisions. Each of these aspects is independent, having their distinctive causes, nonetheless, they are interconnected;

- Theory of time motivation. Theory of time motivation suggests that everyone prefers the type of activity that will bring maximum benefit, taking into account that these activities require a certain period of time. In other words, people tend to procrastinate when they come to the opinion that a particular job has low benefit.

It is believed that the learning process may be characterized by the conditions causing procrastination. Analyzing the causes of procrastination in line with the quality of the learning tasks, many authors point out the following conditions of the educational process, provoking procrastination:
- External forcing of the tasks;
- Delayed impact;
- Long timescale given for implementation;
- Boring, routine, unpleasant tasks;
- High employment with other activities;
- Delayed rewards;
- Total reliance on written tasks.

Academic procrastination involves delay in the implementation of educational problems. Most students' procrastination is expressed in such forms of educational activities as writing assignments, essays, preparing for the session, design, execution of the routine of homework, writing term papers and dissertations.

K. Lay calls uncertainty in the terms of starting a task as one of the educational factors causing delay when students are given too much freedom in the choice of the time when they begin to work on any project (Lay, 1986).

In studies of the students' procrastination a lot of attention was paid to the role of their motivation. The consequence of procrastination in most cases is not only a decline in academic performance and learning outcomes, but also an increase in neuroticism, growing exhaustion or deterioration of health. The behavioural component of students' procrastination tends to avoid tasks that students find unpleasant and repulsive, and to begin those activities, especially in the short-term, that seem more worthwhile. Such behaviour may be considered as a way to avoid responsibility or anxiety associated with learning. It can also be associated with stress.

Methods that have been used in an attempt to prevent students' procrastination include:

- psychological and pedagogical means (observation, survey, exercise, group discussion, debate, role play, group training) and psychotherapy (music therapy, game therapy, psycho gymnastics, psychic self-regulation, positive psychotherapy, individual psycho-correction, psychodrama, symbol drama, training, M. Murray’s goal setting technique).

The most effective methods in the prevention of students' procrastination appear to be such forms as role play, discussion, brainstorming techniques and roundtables.

These methods are reflected in the authors' program "Road by walking!" aimed at the prevention of students' procrastination, and tested in the formative stage of the experiment.

Methodological Framework
In accordance with the purpose of the study, we used the following methods:

- theoretical: study and analysis of psychological and pedagogical literature, comparison, classification, generalization;

- empirical: formative experiment, diagnostic test to identify the level of procrastination;

- data processing methods (quantitative and qualitative analysis), methods for mathematical processing of the data (Student's t-test).

To identify the students’ procrastination we used the following techniques:

- “General procrastination scale” by B.V. Tukman. This technique consists of 16 claims and is a short form of the scale of general procrastination consisting of 35 claims, which in turn is also a shortened form of the original technique, consisting of 72 points. The method is designed to measure the tendency towards procrastination. Procrastination is seen as a lack or absence of self-regulatory activities, the tendency to delay or completely avoid activities located exclusively under its own control. Procrastination scale is considered a useful technique for scientific research or for evaluation of changes occurring with the client struggling with this problem.

- “Procrastination scale for students” by K. Lay. The technique consists of 20 claims and is specially adapted for the student audience. It allows students to discover the trend towards postponement of the implementation of educational tasks and requirements of the institution. This scale allows one to establish an overall index of academic procrastination, and as a consequence, to learn the students’ ability to self-control and planning.

The measurement results were subjected to statistical analysis procedures. For the analysis and interpretation of results obtained the following statistical methods were used: parametric Student's t-test for dependent and independent samples.

The study involved 234 students, 115 students made up the experimental group, 119 students were in the control group.

Results and Discussions

In ascertaining stage the initial levels of the students’ traits in the experimental and control groups were studied using the above techniques. In the experimental group, according to the Tukman’s "General procrastination scale”, 23.8% of students have low levels of procrastination, 34.9% have an average level, and 41.3% of the students have a high level of procrastination. For example, 60.3% of students said that if they do not like some things, they often postpone their implementation, 63.5% can often find a justification for something to do, 82.5% of the students responded that in most cases they do not finish the important things in advance and they have no time left. In the control group, according to the Tukman’s "General procrastination scale”, 25.6% of students have low levels of procrastination, 37.8% have an average level, and 36.6% of the students have a high level of procrastination.
procrastination scale” 25% of students have low level of procrastination, 35.9% of students have the average level of procrastination, and 39.1% of students have a high level of procrastination. For example, 60.9% of students said that if they do not like some things, they often postpone their implementation, 70.3% can often find a justification for something to do, 89.1% of the students in the control group responded that most cases do not finish the important things in advance and they have no time left.

The significance level of the t-test is $t > 0.05$ ($t = 0.91$). This means that on this indicator before the experiment both groups were equal. In both groups a high level of general procrastination dominated. Our data indicate difficulties in perception and adequate assessment of the allotted time to perform important tasks and decision-making. This indicates the growing trend toward postponement.

Studying the initial level of academic procrastination with the method of Lay’s “Procrastination scale for students” in the experimental group, the following conclusions were made: 25.4% had a low level of academic procrastination, 36.5% of students identified the average level, 38.1% of students had a high level of academic procrastination. For example, 82.5% of students said that they are often taken for performing tasks that are planning to carry out a few days ago, 93.7% reported that they usually have to rush to perform the task to the desired date, 60.3% said that often when preparing to exit home they suddenly remember something at the last minute that has to be finished, 93.7% of the students almost never take up the task as soon as it was set.

In the control group on the ascertaining stage, we obtained the following results: 28.1% have a low level of academic procrastination, 34.4% of the students identified the average level, 37.5% of students have a high level of academic procrastination. For example, 81.3% of the students in the control group answered that they are often taken for performing tasks that are planning to carry out a few days ago, 92.1% reported that they usually have to rush to perform the task to the desired date, 62.5% of students said that often when preparing out of the house, suddenly remember something at the last minute to finish, 93.8% of the students almost never take up the job as soon as it was given.

The significance level of the t-test is $t > 0.05$ ($t = 0.34$). This means that according to this indicator groups are equal before the experiment. In both groups higher levels of procrastination prevail. The results show the current trend to avoid the problems that students find unpleasant and repulsive. Short-term activities seem more worthwhile for the students than those requiring more time.

Thus, the ascertaining experiment showed that there is a growing trend toward postponement of important decisions and performing important tasks,
including training tasks and assignments. It calls for special work to prevent procrastination.

To reduce the level of procrastination, we developed a comprehensive program "Road by walking!". The purpose of the program was to create conditions for preventing procrastination in the interest of the students for their personal growth and self-organization, improving accountability, and other strong-willed personality traits.

The program included 4 blocks of 4 lessons with an average of 1.5-2 hours per lesson. Classes were held twice a week. It should be noted that the program was implemented with all students.

The program content was associated with the direction of its implementation. In our case it is increase of self-discipline and responsibility.

Classes are held in stages, following the logic of the sequence of blocks for the prevention of procrastination: the control unit on time (time management); unit on self-organization and personal responsibility; unit on motivation; unit on emotion and volition.

Classes were constructed in such a way that each member of the group "lives out" various situations determining their ability and capacity to plan, prioritize important decisions, to organize their time, and self-organization.

An integrative approach in conducting studies on the prevention of procrastination, allowed for the deepening of issues of self-activity, reasoning motivation and planning, autonomy and decision-making, the successful life and helped the participants to get valuable experience in the study of their self, habits, values, skills and working together. Implementation of the “Road by walking!” helped them to overcome the difficulties, simulated in the classroom, reacting to and expressing their experiences, discussing topical issues.

It was noted that the students have a high interest in the information received. Understanding the essence of this phenomenon, familiarity with the underlying determinants of procrastination, the development of exercise become a resource for students to further self-conscious personal work, self-serving, creative potential and to overcome alienation in relation to the socially significant goals.

Thus, we managed to realize the goals that were set during the course. Solving tasks, problems and exercises contributed to the formation of positive qualities, to gaining experience of self-organization, self-discipline and responsibility, acquisition of time management skills, planning, and the ability to prioritize.

The control stage of the experiment was designed to identify the result of the work.
In the control phase of our work the following results were obtained. According to the method of Tukman we found that after the experiment, 41.3% of the students of the experimental group have low levels of procrastination, 38.1% of students have an average level, 20.6% of the students have a high level of procrastination. For example, 76.2% of students said that they probably do not tend to waste time, for 23.8% of them wasting time is not typical, 41.3% in most cases stick the scheduled plan, 15.9 % – always adhere to the scheduled plan, 61.9% believe that postponing something for tomorrow is not the solution of the problem.

Thus, levels of general procrastination after the experiment, have changed: a low level increased from 23.8% to 41.3% (change of 17.5%), the average rate increased from 34.9% to 38.1% (change of 3.2%), a high level decreased from 41.3% to 20.6% (20.7% change). According to Student t-test, we found that the differences between the mean values as described in Tukman’s "Scale of general procrastination" of the students in the experimental group before and after the experiment are reliable: tth>tcr (tth= 5.55, in tcr1 = 1.97; tcr2=2.6) in p=0.01.

Following the procedure of Lay’s "Procrastination scale for students" in the experimental group at the control phase of the study, we obtained the following results: 39.7% have a low level of academic procrastination, 38.1% of the students identified the average level, 22.2% of students have a high level of academic procrastination. For example, 55.5% of students said that they tend to make decisions in a short term and 15.9% almost always decide in the near future, 46% carry out all the planned day cases and 20.6% of the students often perform all planned day business, 41.3% usually check whether all the necessary they had done before the evening will be arranged to rest, 23.8% more likely to do it than not.

Thus, levels of academic procrastination after the experiment changed: a low level increased from 25.4% to 39.7% (change of 14.3%), the average rate increased from 36.5% to 38.1% (change of 1.6%), a high level decreased from 38.1 % to 22.2% (15.9% change). One could argue that there are significant changes in the levels of academic procrastination and after the experiment a group level decreased academic procrastination. According to Student t-test, we found that the differences between the mean values by the method of Lay’s "Procrastination scale for students" in the experimental group of students before and after the experiment are reliable: tth>tcr (tth= 7.34, in tcr1 = 1.97; tcr2=2.6) in p=0.01.

In the control group, no significant changes were found, the high level of procrastination by all methods still dominated. As a result of the Student’s t-test for independent samples, we found that there are significant differences between the average performance overall level of procrastination (in that tth>tcr (tth= 4.79, in tcr1 = 1.97; tcr2=2.6) in p=0.01) and the level of academic procrastination (in that tth>tcr (tth= 5.98, in tcr1 = 1.97; tcr2=2.6)
in p=0.01) in experimental and control group after experiment.

Conclusions

Based on the changes that have occurred in the experimental group, it can be concluded that the program “Road by walking!” for the prevention of students' procrastination contains effective forms and methods such as role play, discussion, brainstorming techniques and roundtables. In the experimental work the hypothesis that had been put forward was fully confirmed. We have found that the program "Road by walking!" appears to be an effective means of prevention of students’ procrastination, as the results showed a positive trend, which demonstrates the effectiveness of the work. The program could be used by educators, psychologists, teachers of educational institutions in professional activities for the prevention of postponing important cases and solutions for students.

References


PEDAGOGICAL POTENTIALITY OF INFORMATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT IN RESEARCH ACTIVITY OF JUNIOR PUPILS

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Abstract

The actuality of studied problem is determined by the fact that bringing in additional information on the basis of internet technologies gives possibilities for organization of productive learning and research activity of more complex intellectual level. The purpose of this study is to reveal pedagogical potentiality of elementary school informational and educational environment needed in organization of learning and research activities of junior pupils. The experiment was carried out in Tatarstan Republic of Russian Federation. There took part three schools: two general education schools and one gymnasium. In total number, the experiment involved 270 people. In this study, there was applied inquiry-diagnostic method (included observation, filling questionnaires, testing) that allowed to reveal research skills development level in process of using informational communicative technologies instruments. On the basis of achieved results there was revealed pedagogical potentiality of elementary school informational and educational environment. Analysis of studies done on effectiveness of applying informational and communicational technologies in learning process at Russian schools showed that quality of pupils training can increase up to 20-40%. At the same time there increased knowledge durability up to 10-20%. The highest effect, up to 40%, was achieved when pupil was involved into research activity, and used knowledge in situations...
suggested by educational projects, practical lessons. These results were achieved by possibility to choose the most optimal for every pupil individual teaching trajectory (fulfilling individual tasks), that considerably reduced the difference in training level between pupils with good and weak advancement. More than 90% of pupils were satisfied by offered possibility to use informational and educational environment in learning. Material and results of studies can be used by teachers of elementary schools, and school administration.

**Keywords:** Research activity of junior pupils, informational and educational environment of the elementary, forming of competences, informational activity in learning.

8. **Introduction**

9. **Relevance of the issues**

Modern society has distinctive features of informational community. Information is the main factor that changes our life (Vlasova, Kirillova & Sabirova, 2015). The learning activity of junior pupils is carried out within limits of modern informational and educational environment (Chernobay, 2012). It represents systemically organized interrelation of informational, technical and teaching methods support. These methods are inseparably linked with pupils as subjects of education (Ilchenko, 2002).

**Methodical problems in work with information**

At the same time in scholar literature, there is not sufficient coverage and in practice, there are not used resources of informational and educational environment needed to form research skills of junior pupils. Projecting by pedagogue learning process in informational and educational environment demands other approach not only to planning new educative results, but to choosing the content of teaching, methods and forms in organization of learning process (Gromova & Alimbekov, 2015). Nowadays there is available wide range of digital educational resources (Ivanoba & Ocmolovskaya, 2011). For the teacher in order to make purposeful and methodically based choice, it is important to know what educational tasks can be solved using these resources, what methodical functions these resources have and what kinds of learning activities they can support and initiate. So, it defines demand in developing of new teaching methods in correspondent digital resources and working out needed didactical support for these processes.

**Relevant aspects of informational and educational environment**

As the main characteristics of informational and educational environment, that are important for organizing the learning and research activity of junior pupils there can be related:
Flexibility in organization of teaching structure. Specifics of professional work of a teacher in conditions of new informational and educational environment in particular are determined by the fact that the environment has deep structure and set of teaching instruments changing dependently on the applied educational technologies. Practically the informational and educational environment of learning and research activity can be considered as some kind of a constructor, when using its elements the teacher can create its variations (versions) which are more appropriately satisfy the needs of the given tasks for every fragment of the acquired content. In this case methodical skills of the teacher are defined by ability to form different versions of environment depending on the content and educational tasks for acquiring of particular material.

Integrity is the inner unity of the environment components. According to it there are provided advisable logics for developing research education. There are defined planned educational results and correlated activity of teacher and activity of pupils. Integrity appears in consequence of purposeful actions of people participating in teaching process. It is build considering the invariant content of learned material, optimal methods and means of teaching that help to achieve the education purpose.

Openness as a result of environment interrelation with the informational and educational area. Limitless recourses let organize variable research education that corresponds to subjective positions and demands of all participants in education area.

Multifunctionality. The environment can be the source of knowledge and at the same time it can help to organize various forms of self-supported research activity of elementary school children.

Variability. Every pupil is given the opportunity to make one’s own trajectory and move along achieving planned results. Besides it, variability supposes diverse assortment of content fragments depending on the demanded purposes. Such approach is defined by the excess of informational and educational environment.

Visualization – Representation of physical phenomena or process in a form easy for visual perception of junior pupils.

Interactivity provides conditions for operative control of learning achievements, access to various sources of educational information, possibilities in organizing individual work of junior pupils, development of their perceiving self-dependency and creativity (applying informational and communicational technologies), possibilities to use new pedagogical instruments for solving educational tasks (broadening the field of the solved tasks), possibilities of going over to principally new models of the studied processes and objects with chances of their operative analyzes, researches and experiments and so on.
Pedagogical potentiality of elementary school informational and educational environment

Pedagogical potentiality of informational and educational environment of elementary school includes several key aspects directed to form research abilities. First of all this environment includes:

- possibility of pupils motivation increase at the expense of intensification in the interactive character of education, activation of learning and research work of pupils, dialogical character of educational process. There goes on development in knowledge acquiring self-dependence, development in creativity of junior pupils with the help of informational and communicational technologies, there is carried out transitions to principally new models of the studied processes, objects and their operative researches. Studying the world around in productive collaboration with other participants of educational process constitutes the basis of self-determination and self-development of junior school pupils;

- possibility of providing individual learning and research routine of junior pupil, self-dependent choice of learning and research activity schedule on the basis of using personal computer and other informational and communicational technologies. Every pupil is given the opportunity to make one’s individual learning and research trajectory and move along it achieving planned results, to do self-control of achievements, to form electronic portfolio and so on.

- intensification of visual effect in learning and research process by means of multimedia presentation. Displaying of physical phenomena or research process is done in a form convenient for visual perception of junior pupils. For intensification of visual effect in learning and research there can be helpful demonstrational programs and computer presentations, video records (presentation “Objects of material and spiritual culture”, presentation “Memorials of architecture”, set of slides “Nature”, “Earth, Sun, Moon and stars”, presentation “Seasons of year” and others);

- possibility of using new sources of information in the research. Unlimited resources let organize research education, corresponding to subjective positions and needs of junior pupils. For recording, keeping and showing various information there can be used data-search, reference systems, electronic dictionaries, electronic encyclopedia for children, web sites for children: http://www.teremoc.ru/, http://internetenok.narod.ru, portal for children “Solnyshko” and others. Also there is possible access to remote sources of knowledge and systems of teaching, distant teaching, organizing grouped learning and research lessons by means of computer telecommunications (video lessons, webinars virtual seminars, teleconferences chats and others). On the basis of internet technologies acquiring the additional information gives the opportunities to organize...
learning and research activity on more productive, more elaborated intellectual level.

- broadening the range of learning researches at the expense of considerable increase of data involved for observation of the going processes. Pupils can get access to resources of higher education institutes and scientific research institutes, they can use computational and imitational models, virtual laboratories where can be carried out on-line experiments;

- bringing into learning and research activity of junior pupils new methods, based on the use of informational and communicational technologies, understanding by them the purpose of computer as an instrument of learning and research activity. Among the used methods: teaching the basis of informational resources; associative method; methods based on usage of artificial intelligence (method of compelled assumption, method of precedent, computer modeling, teaching with the help of teleconferences, method of reification and others.). new informational and educational environment of elementary school is defined by such characteristic as flexible structure and set of teaching instruments, that change in accordance with the educational technologies applied by the teacher. Practically informational and educational environment of learning and research activity can be considered as a special constructor. The teacher using its elements can create its invariants depending on the peculiarities of learning and research purposes;

- possibility of acquiring initial skills of self-dependent modeling in a way of merging of pupils into virtual medium: introducing them into the subject field, offering the sequence of according models; giving the tasks for research, prognostication and others.; forming hypothesis and so on. For learning researches at the elementary school there can be used modeling program means (musical, artistic and other.).

Results and Discussions

Process and results of experiment

For estimation of achievement and correction of junior pupils research skills in elementary school informational and educational environment there was worked out differentiated complex of diagnosing tasks. In the experiment, there was estimated development level of such research skills as: ability to see the problem, ability to propose hypothesis, ability to ask questions, ability to classify according to various signs, ability to structure material, ability to say comment, ability prove correctness of one’s ideas, ability to represent results of one’s work (Sabirova & Zakirova, 2015).

For definition of junior pupils research skills development level (low, intermediate, higher intermediate and advanced) in informational and educational environment of elementary school there was applied method (described by
Zagvyazinski) that helped to carry out quantitative and qualitative assessment of results. Relation of applied research skills number to total number of research skills needed for fulfilling the task revealed quantitative mark. On the basis of such criteria as: completeness, awareness, rationality in applying, fulfillment rate, systemic approach in research skills applying, there was defined qualitative mark. The analysis of three stages (adaptation, mastering, self-realization) showed what particular skills were not sufficiently developed and how to improve possibilities of informational and educational environment. The analyzed data help the teacher of elementary school more effectively and more purposefully carry out the work with pupils, supporting them in research skills development with use of informational and communicational technologies.

In process of the ascertaining experiment when comparing experimental and control groups, there were not revealed considerable differences in regard to fulfilled research skills, but there were defined problems about the state of elementary school informational and educational environment. Correspondently to analysis of successfulness in research skills fulfillment, the pupils in all groups showed intermediate level only in ability to ask questions and in ability to classify according to various signs. Correspondently to analysis of research skills mastering, the pupils in all groups showed intermediate results in fulfillment rates and systemic use of skills. The rest of skills were developed on a low level.

In process of forming experiment in the experimental groups there were partially realized proposed in this work possibilities of pedagogical potentiality in informational and educational environment. In the control group the teaching was without changes. In experimental groups for 80% of pupils according to successfulness mark and for 75% of pupils according to mastery mark there was characteristic transition to new, more higher level. For the control group these numbers were not considerable, only 10% and 12% accordingly.

Table 1. Calculation results of research skills development level in control groups (CG) and in experimental groups (EG) at the start and at the end of experiment displayed according to successfulness and mastery marks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research skills development level</th>
<th>At the start of experiment</th>
<th>At the end of experiment</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CG</td>
<td>EG1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low</td>
<td>47/4</td>
<td>43/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intermediate</td>
<td>10/1</td>
<td>13/1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There can be summarized that the effectiveness of junior pupils research skills development in informational and educational environment of elementary school with great probability is determined by applying informational and communicational technologies in the experimental groups.

**Resources and recommendations**

As the components of informational area many authors consider informational resources, means of informational interrelation and informational infrastructure. It is needed to point that the resources can be not only digital. Libraries, museums, archives are big storages of information. In some cases people also can be resource of information.

“Informational environment” (Robert, 1995) is represented in modern society as a very dynamical system of activity fields that undergo computerization of informational processes. Dynamism of environment is expressed in its interaction with development of industrial entities and intellectualization of society members activity. This in its turn causes broadening of informational environment including all its areas and especially education. At the same time any person can be in various informational environment (Shreider, 1976).

Revealed pedagogical potentiality of elementary school informational and educational environment allows to say that pedagogical system of new level, which represents systemically organized combination of informational, technical, training-methodical support, is inseparably linked with pupil as with the subject of education.

**Conclusion**

On the basis of achieved results, there is defined pedagogical potentiality of elementary school informational and educational environment that provides formation of research skills. It includes possibilities: of motivation advancement in account of increase in interactive character of learning, activation of learning and research work of pupils, dialogical character of learning process; providing individual educational routine of junior pupil, independent choice in regime of learning and research activity on the basis of using personal computer and other means of informational and communicational technologies, improvement of teaching process visualization by means of multimedia representation; using new sources of information (informational reference systems, digital encyclopedias, internet
resources); broadening the range of learning researches at the expense of considerable increase in used data when observing the current processes; including into learning and research activity of junior pupils new methods based on applying means of informational and communicational technologies, understanding the purpose of computer as the instrument of learning and research activity; acquiring initial skills of self-dependent modeling in a way of introducing the pupils into virtual environment. Experiment results confirmed that pedagogical potentiality of elementary school informational and educational environment includes a number of key characteristics intended on research skills formation, therefore effectiveness of junior pupils research skills development depend on correctly organized informational and educational environment of elementary school.

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THE USE OF INTERACTIVE LEARNING TECHNOLOGIES IN MATH CLASSES

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Abstract

Dynamically developing modern society places new demands on the system of education, including educational standards. At the forefront of the student such qualities as activity, sociability, the ability to self-education, the ability of listening to others, the ability to work in a team. Traditional education is not able to fully achieve the desired requirements, because the role of the student in that case is passive and limits its development. In that regard, special attention should be paid today to the interactive learning. The paper proposed optimal organizational and methodological conditions of implementation of interactive technologies in secondary schools; identified the stages of classes in interactive mode; consider the barriers of using interactive learning. The leading method to the study of this problem was the method of analysis of psychological and pedagogical literature and practice of the teachers, in order to identify the insufficient development of substantive, organizational and procedural sides of introduction of interactive technologies in the educational process, but also fragmented using of it in practical activities by teachers of mathematics. The materials in this article are valuable for teachers of secondary schools in the selection and implementation of interactive technology in the classroom, and for students of colleges and higher educational institutions of pedagogical specialties.
Keywords: interactive technology; student; teaching; feedback; dialogue; the predictable result.

Introduction

Relevance of the issue

Modern education considers the future human as a person with active communications. These provisions are reflected in the FGOS of new generation, focused on the transition from knowledge based systems to the competence approach in education. The man of the future must be endowed with qualities such as interpersonal skills, the ability to flexibly adapt to changing situations, ability to independently acquire necessary knowledge. Currently the formation of these qualities at school, including mathematics lessons, can be carried out through interactive learning. Interactive learning is becoming popular and even fashion trend in education. Interactive learning techniques contribute to the activation of student’s reflection, his conscious involvement to the work, which increases the effectiveness of any learning. However, the analysis of materials related to interactive teaching, proves the concept of "interactivity" in education refers to researchers and practitioners is ambiguous. Many teachers understand "interactive" in learning as any activity using information and communication technologies (Klarin, 2000; Dobrynina, 2008; Efremova, 2000). It actually distorts the essence of the interactive approach. We are fully share the view of E. V. Korotaeva, who considers that to determine the lesson simply through the using of interactive learning tools as interactive, illegal. (Korotaeva, 2013; Korotaev, 2014) The use of an interactive Board, electronic journal and other resources is undoubtedly important, but more often the teacher uses information and communication technologies as a visual and/or control means (Bondarenko, 2006; Zakirova, Gaysina & Zhumabaeva, 2015) Thus, didactic support is clearly not keeping up with the rapid penetration of technical means in education. In the article organizational-methodical conditions of realization and barriers of using an interactive technologies in mathematics lessons in secondary school.

Methodological Framework

Literature Review

The analysis of the literature let us to clarify the concept of "interaction" and its essential characteristics. So, the concept of "interaction" that defines interactive learning includes in addition to interpersonal communication ("I’m in contact with other people") and intrapersonal communication ("different parts of my personality are in contact with each other") (Faupel, 2003; Novik & Podgórecki, 2015). It extends the concept of interactive learning, implying an interaction of the learner with his own experience. In
that case, faced two "I" "I'm received a new information" and "I'm having a personal experience". Both "I" in interactive learning process are changing. Under the influence of new information on existing experiences is expanding. Besides the changes in personal experience of the student undergoing changes and information it is refracted under the influence of personal experience and becomes personal knowledge. People can learn the same information, but depending on the breadth and depth of their personal experience, knowledge will be different. Thus, an important characteristic of interactive learning is an internal dialogue, which refers to the existential experience of the received information, giving it a personal meaning (Bondarenko, 2006; Korotaev, 2013). Although a single definition of interactive learning is absent, but scientists agree that it is based on the interaction (Ribakova, Parfilova, Karimova & Karimova, 2015). In the New dictionary of Russian language by Efremova T.F. was given the following definition of that concept "interaction is the impact of various objects and phenomena of impacting on each other, causing their changes" (Efremova, 2000). Having considered the main features of interactive training, we will give a definition of this concept. Interactive learning is the acquisition of new experience, on the basis of active interaction of students with each other, with the teacher and with their personal experience, involving mandatory feedback.

Analysis of the practice

Practical experience of teachers allows us better understand the meaning of interactive learning. So, Dobrynina T. N. compares online training with extractive and interactive modes of learning (Dobrynin, 2008). In extractive mode, information flows are directed from the subject (learning system) to the object of study (the student), but do not penetrate inside the object. A student acting as a passive learner does not show subjective activity. In interactive mode, the flows of information coming to the learner or group, causing an active mental activity, closed within them. Students are here as subjects of the teachings for themselves, teaching themselves (technologies of self-activity, self-education, self-upbringing). In interactive mode the information flows penetrate into the consciousness, call its activity, and generate a reverse information flow from the student to the teacher or another student. Information flows alternating in direction, information is shared, dialogue is not just about education, and search of meanings, values, and formation of personality of a student. Integral components of interactive learning are feedback and activity of subjects of the study. When speaking about the activity of students we mean not only physical activity (when students change their workplace, speaking, writing, drawing, etc.) but also social (students asking questions, answering questions, exchanging ideas, etc.), as well as cognitive activity (students make additions and amendments to the statement of the moderator, serve as a source of new experience, find the solution to the problem, etc.). In this connection the note
of Klarin M. V. that all three types of activity should be interconnected and diverse is advisable (Klarin, 2000). This approach to teaching encourages the inclusion of all students to the learning process. Sharing knowledge and experience, students undertake the part of some teachers, functions, which enhances their motivation and contributes to a more productive learning. In turn, the teacher typically acts only as the organizer of the learning process, the group leader, Creator of conditions for the students’ initiatives. It only regulates the process and engaged in its General organization: preparing in advance the necessary tasks, formulates questions or topics for discussion in groups, advises, and controls the timing and order of execution of the plan.

Features of the organization of interactive learning in math classes

After understanding the nature of interactive learning, the question arises: "how to organize it on the math classes?". For this purpose it is necessary to consider it through the prism of the elements of the didactic system: educational objectives, content, forms, methods and means of education. According to Korotaeva E. (Korotaeva, 2014) interactive learning is transforming the usual goals (educational, developmental, bring up) to:

- specifically informative, regarding the need to resolve immediate learning, problem-cognitive situation ("write...", "choose...", "compare...", "analyze...");

- communicative-educational, to the process which produced the rules of cooperation, collaboration skills necessary for joint productive activities today and in the future ("imagine convincing and justify your position...", "compare your solution with have already presented and draw a conclusion...", "please rate the content and presentation of the project (projects)...");

- socio-orientation, aimed at the formation position of a student, due to both his personal and public significant needs ("relate the material studied socially significant phenomena in the life of the city, the country...", "appreciate the culture of participation in discussions...", "determine where the skills mastered in that lesson can be used...").

In modern society the relation to studied subjects is changing. The subject-information environment is expanding immeasurably. The content of the textbooks is beyond the scope of textbooks: TV, radio, computer networks in recent times has greatly increased the flow and variety of information. However, all these sources provides material for passive perception. In society, in the press, on television, in textbooks appeared different perspective on the same events. In this regard, the question arises: can the child remember and assimilate this amount of information? Today, the most of us looking for a ways would enhance the effectiveness of the study process. All times the teacher was worried about a problem how to make everyone was interested in the classroom, involved to educational process so no one was left indifferent. How to use history to develop the personality
of student, his creative thinking, the ability to analyzing the past and present, draw their own conclusions and have their own point of view?

Results

Organizational and methodical conditions of interactive learning on math classes in high school (feedback and activity of subjects of education; training teacher in advance of the required tasks, the formulation of questions or topics for discussion in groups, consultations, control time and order of execution of the plan); defines the content of educational material, encouraging students to dialogue (the content of educational material on mathematics includes many different kinds of knowledge that largely determines the complexity and contradictory nature of its understanding and mastering by students at different stages of learning, and encourages further dialogue or polylogue); grounded learning in mathematics classes in the application of interactive technologies (group, pair, individual); methods of learning for interactive technologies (heuristic conversation, discussion, "brainstorming", method of "round table" technique "business games", competitions of practical works with discussion, role play, collective decisions of creative tasks, case method (case studies), practical group and individual exercises, simulation of production situations, etc.) and their selection by the teacher (depending on the content of educational material and training level class); identified the stages of implementation of interactive learning in the school process (1 stage-traditional lessons with the optimal combination of traditional and interactive methods of teaching; 2 stage-lessons with the comprehensive use of interactive methods of teaching; 3 stage- homework projects involving the creative application of knowledge based on meaningful experience, as well as elective courses), and the stages of classes in interactive mode (highlighting problems in the teaching material, the search for solutions to problems in groups, discussion of solutions, choosing the solutions, the mandatory reflection).

In the research process we have identified that to develop and implement an interactive math classes is not easy, it requires from teacher a lot of time on detailed pre-training (in some cases supporting a special didactic notes, leading tasks, familiarization with the structure of the classes, operations with management by students during prepare for the lesson). Widely used in school lessons with use of interactive methods is impeded by the lack of students' high level of formation of skills for management interaction, various discussions, conversations, discussions. Also complex element in the application of interactive teaching is the inadequacy of the perception of the students by non-standard ways of solving the problem or the solution. Plays a role the lack of time of the lesson. Also be aware that online training is not always suitable for solving problems where the content of the material requires quiet and concentrated work.

But, nevertheless, in the course of monitoring students during the interactive
sessions, and during follow-up communication with them, it was found that interactive learning promotes:

- development of personal reflection;
- awareness of inclusion in the common work;
- the formation of an active subjective position in training activities;
- inclusion in the educational process of all students;
- development of communication skills;
- acceptance of moral norms and rules of joint activity;
- increased cognitive activity.

Formation of a class group as a community. From our point of view, the organization of interactive learning in math classes at the beginning doesn't work. Accustomed to traditional education, students do not immediately rebuild and start to interact productively. In this regard, with the explicit development of communicative competence the cognitive component begins to "limp".

Discussions

So, during the interactive training should be a change of all participants of the interaction. That involve not only interaction among students (group learning), so the interaction of students with the teacher. The content of educational materials must be constructed with some problem, difficulty, contradiction, and would encourage further dialogue or polylogue. The content of educational materials on mathematics includes many different kinds of knowledge that largely determines the complexity and contradictory nature of its understanding and mastering by students at different stages of learning. For that reason structural and conceptual complexity of the training material is a promising basis for creative interactive learning. This interactive lesson is applicable to both group learning and paired, and individual. Depending on the content of educational material, training class using various interactive teaching methods. There is a huge interactive techniques and training methods that can be applied in mathematics lessons: heuristic conversation, discussion, "brainstorming", method of "round table" method of "business game", competitive tendering practical work with discussion, role play, collective decisions of creative tasks, case method (case studies), practical group and individual exercises, simulation of production situations, etc. thus, regardless of methods the majority of theorists and practitioners – Dobrynin, 2008; klarin, 2000; Korotaev, 2013; Ribakova, Parfilova, Karimova & Karimova, 2015; Vopel, 2003 and others agree on one thing in a sequence of stages in the organization of activities in interactive mode. That sequence includes the following stages: identification of problems in the educational
material, the search for solutions to problems in groups, discussion of solutions, choosing the solutions, and mandatory reflection. Also as systemically important components of such a class is called dialog, allowing the use of modern information and communication technologies in education.

Conclusions

Thus, undoubtedly, interactive learning is the students' acquisition of a new experience through active interaction with each other. The use of interactive technology promotes students' cognitive activity, stimulates personal reflection of students gives the possibility to consciously join to common work that promotes formation of active subjective position in educational activities, provides such a condition of effective pedagogical interaction as the inclusion of all students to the educational process. Feedback, as a necessary condition for the application of interactive techniques and methods, develop communication skills, namely acceptance of moral norms and rules of joint activity of pupils. Binding feedback forms the class as a group community; increasing the effectiveness of training. However, the emphasis should be on what to include interactive techniques and methods in the outline of the lesson are the barriers (content material, require a calm and focused individual work; the lack of students' high level of formation of skills for management interaction, various discussions, conversations, discussions; inadequacy of the perception of the students non-standard ways of solving the problem or out of the situation; the lack of time in the classroom), which in the first stage of the use of interactive learning reduce the speed of the learning process. In particular, this is clearly reflects to the implementation of interactive learning in mathematics lessons. However, undoubtedly interactive learning displays school education to a new level that is why deserves further study and elaboration.

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FORMATION TECHNIQUE OF THE WOMEN POSITIVE SELF

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Abstract

The personality relations to its own "self" have impact practically on all aspects of human behavior: establishment of the interpersonal relations, setting and achieving of the goals, ways to create and solve crisis situations. The number of the researches devoted to development of formation methods of the women positive self is insufficient. As it is known women turn to psychological assistance more often than men. Due to the designated problem the article purpose is to identify effective formation methods of the women positive self. The leading methods of this problem research were: social and psychological methods (emphasis on the personality understanding); the Dance Movement Therapy methods (emphasis on the body understanding); the Dance Movement Therapy methods directed on work with sexual identity. The conducted research showed advantage of the Dance Movement Therapy methods directed on work with sexual identity as they increase both emotional and social parameters of the self-relation, unlike other two (social and psychological methods improve the social level of the self-relation, the Dance Movement Therapy improve emotional). The received results allow recommending application of the Dance Movement Therapy methods directed on work with sexual identity as the most effective in formation of the women positive self.

Keywords: the women self, social and psychological methods, the Dance Movement Therapy, sexual identity, the gender focused technologies.

Introduction

Relevance of the issue

One of the most important tasks of any psychocorrective work is the positive self-formation. The person attitude toward himself is a basic construct of the personality. It has the regulating impact practically on all aspects of behavior, plays an important role in establishment of the interpersonal relations, in the goal setting and achievement, in ways to create and solve
crisis situations (Pantileev, 1991; Stolin, 1989; Khusainova, 2004; Nasibulloev, Kashapova & Shavaliyeva, 2015; Zakirova, Gaysina & Zhumabaeva, 2015). Various authors consider the self-formation as one of the most important parts making whole picture of the world (Abitov, 2015; Epstein, 1990). The positive steady self lies in the basis of the person belief in his capability, in personal autonomy, vigour, causes optimism toward success in uncertain situations, increase marriage satisfaction (Sharay, 2015). People with the positive self are less absorbed by the internal problems; suffer less from psychosomatic frustration (Jacobson 1989; Moreva 1989). The negative self is the source of the psychological problems, which are the reason to seek psychological counseling (Coopersmit, 1967).

It is known that women make the majority among those who seek psychological counseling and attend various personal development groups. Therefore, studying of specifics of the women positive self-formation and creation of the appropriate gender focused technologies is such essential.

**Materials and Methods**

**Study methods**

Study methods and data processing included the logic and theoretical analysis of literature on a research topic; diagnostics with the V. Stolin (1989) questionnaire of the self-relation, techniques of the person psychological gender definition (S. Bem 1974) in Lopukhova's version (2000), the Ketel's personality questionnaire 16PF; the forming experiment method, and the methods of empirical data mathematical processing.

**Study stages**

The study was conducted in three stages:

- the first stage – preparatory – the current state of the studied problem in the psychological theory and practice was analyzed; the set of diagnostic techniques corresponding to research objectives was selected; the author's technique program of the women positive self-formation was developed;

- the second stage -diagnostics. in communications set by the purpose and research problems we took the battery of tests consisting of the following diagnostic techniques: the V. V. Stolin and S. P. Panteleev (1989) questionnaire of the self-relation, Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), the Ketel’s personality questionnaire 16PF.

All groups underwent the diagnostic procedure built on the following scheme. the first psychodiagnostic cut was carried out prior to group work, the second in the middle and the third, final – at the end of training.

- the third stage - the forming experiment stage. at this stage the training work based on the author's technique program of the women positive self-formation with use of social and psychological methods, Dance Movement Therapy
Methods, the gender focused methods of psychological influence was carried out.

- on the fourth and final stage – mathematical processing and formalization of the results, their understanding and generalization were carried out; theoretical conclusions were corrected.

Description of the author's women self-change technique

We studied three types of training psychological impact on the women self-relation.

In the first training mainly social and psychological methods were applied and the emphasis in work was placed on understanding of himself as a person, acceptance of both positive and negative qualities of the person, we conditionally called it "social and psychological training (SPT)".

The second type was the influence carried out by methods of the Dance Movement Therapy and the Body-oriented Therapy. The training main goal was to change an attitude to the body. From fight, rejection, ignoring to acceptance, listening your body, creation of "dialogue" with body. The goal implementation was reached by effect on the following components: bodily (feel the body, experience of fleshliness), emotional (understanding, living, expression and acceptance of the emotions) and communicative (development a feeling of another (others) at the bodily and emotional level). The third type of psychological influence was training to develop female consciousness which was also based on the body focused and dance and movement approaches, however, included also effect on sexual identity of women. The training main goal was to change an attitude to the sexual identity. From rejection, vigilance, inadequacy to bigger acceptance of the female nature, revealing its capabilities and strengths. The goal was achieved with creation of a positive "female" image (a cognitive component), a sensitivity on bodily and living on emotional levels of as women (bodily and emotional components).

The general time of activities on both trainings averaged 15 clock hours: five activities for three hours. Groups consisted on average of 10-15 people that in our opinion is optimum quantity to reach objectives.

Results and Discussions

In our study influence of three types of trainings on change of the self-relation of women was investigated. Duration of each of them was identical and made in total about 15 hours: five days for three hours. In the first training mainly social and psychological methods were applied and the emphasis in work was placed on understanding of himself as a person, we will call it "SPT". In the second, methods of the Dance Movement Therapy and the Body-oriented Therapy were used, the emphasis was placed more on understanding of the body, conditionally we will call it "dancing-corporal". In the third training also methods of the Dance Movement Therapy and the
Body-oriented Therapy were used as a base plus various techniques working with the woman sexual identity, the emphasis was placed on understanding of herself as a female representative, conditionally we will call it "female".

The comparative analysis results of "SPT" - training average values on the Student t-criterion

In "SPT" - training the indicator on the scale "the internal propensity towards conflict" (p=0,05) changed significantly.

"The internal propensity towards conflict " according to V. V. Stolin’s three-factorial model of the self-relation structure is connected with the lack of self-esteem which, in turn has judgemental character and "assumes process of the assessment of self in comparison with some socially important criteria, norms, representations about the successful and effective individual put in the subject ideal image of "Me". Thus, it is possible to assume that in our case, influence by social and psychological methods affected the social level of the women self-relation.

The comparative analysis results of "dancing-corporal" training average values on the Student t-criterion

In "dancing-corporal" training indicators on the scale "worthiness" (p=0,05) and "closeness" (p=0,05) significantly raised and decreased on the scale "self-accusation" (p=0,05).

"Worthiness" and "self-accusation" enter the generalized factor, called "autosympathy" which reflects the emotional attitude of the individual towards self. Work with the body influences signification the emotional level of the women self-relation. And as the main emphasis in training was placed on understanding of the body value and uniqueness, it is possible to draw the conclusion that body importance, corporal manifestation to woman increases her self-esteem in general and reduce the level of negative emotions toward her (that shows significant decrease in the "self-accusation" factor). At first sight the increase in the closeness degree along with positive changes in autosympathy’s factor is unexpected. However, it can be explained, in our opinion, to that the high pole on this scale is connected with aspiration to the social approved image which can be regarded as self-presentation, which, in turn, was one of the main skills acquired on the training (participants during all training regularly represented themselves in dances: in group, pair and, most often, solo).

The comparative analysis results of "female" training average values on the Student t-criterion

1. In "female" training on t-criterion indicators on the scale "self-confidence" (p=0,01), "self-acceptance"(p=0,05) significantly increased and indicators on the scale "self-accusation" (p=0,01) decreased. "Self-acceptance" and "self-
"accusation" are components of the factor of "autosympathy" (emotional aspect of the self-relation), and "self-confidence" is included into the content of "self-esteem" (social aspect of the self-relation), so the women who underwent this training changes both emotional, and social aspects of the self-relation. That isn't surprising as the main emphasis in this training was placed on sexual identity (understanding herself as female) which is defined by both biological and social factors.

Discussions

Literature analysis shows a large number of the researches devoted to studying of the group psychological methods potential among which, the possibility to change a person self-acceptance is considered.

For example, A. Adler (1993) marked work with the self-relation as one of the main tasks of the person psychocorrection in psychodynamic approach.

Within behavioural approach it was established that under the social and psychological training (SPT) influence the self-assessment of "Self-image" becomes more adequate. Thus, character of the emotional component of the self-assessment remains, and its cognitive component is improved (Natarov, 1990). The disadvantage of behavioral approach to the self-relation correction is, in our opinion, its impact on external, superficial level, by means of external learning, thus the deep processes influencing the self-relation remain unengaged. Besides, within this approach the variety of internal interrelations isn't considered.

In the humanistic direction the Rogers's Client-centered Therapy (1994) can be called as the most effective in work with the self-assessment. Basically acceptance of the person as he is, irrespective of his behavior at the moment is a heart of the correction. Special attention is paid to work with the Me-concept and meeting groups, which purpose is expansion of the sphere of self-understanding and improvement of interpersonal contacts. The researches devoted to the meeting group efficiency show that participation in such groups increases sensitivity to various shades of the interpersonal relations, raises the self-assessment, increases self-acceptance. Thus estrangement decreases, there are positive changes in the participants’ view about themselves (Sibgatullina, 2001).

Gestalt therapy methods are rather productive in relation to correction of the self-relation. The close interrelation between the corporal and mental phenomena which is emphasized in the gestalt approach is especially important for our research.

The main point of the self-relation correction, from cognitive approach view, is rationalization of the person's distorted, irrational knowledge of the world and self. Thus, the cognitive focused correction of the self-relation is diagnostics, recognition of irrational belief with the subsequent
rationalization of each irrational belief at first in the external form — speech, and then gradual transfer to the internal form — thoughts, beliefs (Sibgatullina, 2001).

The main disadvantage of cognitive approach to the self-relation correction, in our opinion, possibility of its application to people with ability to introspection and the analysis of their thoughts.

The analysis of various approaches regarding the self-relation correction showed that the corporal focused and the dancing and moving approaches are the most integrative, allowing to combine advantages both psychodynamic and behavioral, both humanistic and the gestalt, and cognitive approaches, making more complete psychological impact in corporal, emotional and the communicative directions.

However, we couldn’t find specifics researches of the women self-relation change in the course of application of various methods of group psychological work, that is, in our opinion, big omission, as it is known, that women make the majority among those who seek psychological counseling and attend various personal development groups.

Conclusions

On the basis of the theoretical material, which allowed to reveal women psychological maker, we developed two original trainings. The conceptual approach emphasizing importance of the biological sex of the personality and its corporal representation in the person was the basis for the first. According to this approach, the psychological work directed on feeling, understanding and acceptance of the body in women will promote their bigger self-acceptance in general. The basis of the second training was formed by the researches showing the importance of social attitude illustrating society ideas about men and women for the psychological sex formation. Therefore, in addition to the corporal component, impact on cognitive aspect of the woman consciousness was made: according to what the positive "female" image was formed, its capabilities and strengths were considered.

Results of the conducted study showed that at equally spent amount of time, impact on the self-understanding as a person by social and psychological training methods influences more social aspect of the women self-relation; impact on the body understanding by dancing-corporal training methods influences more emotional aspect of the women self-relation; impact on understanding as female influences both emotional, and social aspects of the self-relation.

References

SELF-EVALUATION AND INTER-EVALUATION AS EFFECTIVE WAYS OF IMPROVING THE PERFORMANCE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL LEARNERS

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Abstract. With the dynamic development of the Russian and global education an issue of evaluation and valuation activities is being updated. Being a part of universal educational tactics, evaluation and control-evaluation activity in general, appear as an independent element of the content of education, which is necessary to be formed and developed. However, in practice, we continue to meet with the subjectivity of the school mark, the absence of clear criteria in its selection; the non-effective ranking of the results with the 5-score scale; the lack of functional information about the mark that is the cause of low or high scores. In its connection, this article is directed to identify the advantages of using methods of criterial self-evaluation and inter-evaluation at primary school. While researching this problem we used method of testing and monitoring of learners performance that give a possibility to reveal advantages and disadvantages of self-evaluation and inter-evaluation. In this article the peculiarities of the educational process organization with the usage of non-standard methods of criterial self-evaluation and inter-evaluation were disclosed. The motivation rising to the studying and the performance of primary school learners appears as a key proof of effectiveness of these evaluation methods respectively. Article content can be used by teachers of primary school and teachers of institution of higher education.

Keywords: estimate, control and estimated activity, self-estimation, mutual estimation.
Introduction

The estimation is necessary for any successful and effective activity. Estimation is one of the major components practically of any model of training, the main goal of which is a pupil capable to be the subject of educational activity. However, for the accountability, the estimation purpose in its true value is reduced to measurement by the principle "one size will descend for all" (Boyl& Charles, 2012). Traditional 5-point system of measurement of educational activity results is not the best basis for formation of cooperative relationships between pupils and the teacher (Malova, 2009). According to E.N. Syromolotov (1999) school mark is "casual" and "relative". The teacher at discretion can overestimate and underestimate an assessment, thus, it loses the objectivity, turning into the point of view of one person. This approach to the estimation of knowledge is a source of constant clashes and mutual mistrust. In addition, the ranking of pupils by achievement level orients them not to get knowledge, but a positive mark. V. I. Glukhova (2012) and M. V. Lenzhewskaya (2010) proved the necessity of switching no points at all system of education in their researches. Scientists V. P. Bespalko (1989) and S. I. Goreslavsky (1990) suggest not to be limited to a five-point scale of estimation and to increase it to 8-12 points, having developed criteria for each level of assessment.

The younger school age is the most favorable period for formation of bases of estimated activity of the child. And in the first two weeks of stay in school pupils learn the main principles of assessment (Zuckerman, 1999). In modern conditions it is impossible the formation of students' learning interest, improving school motivation without implementation in educational process of school self-estimation techniques and mutual estimation. That is why there is a need to create and put into practice a universal system of estimation, in which the pupils could participate by themselves. At the same time, according to K. Topping (2000), mutual estimation can not be separable from the self-estimation. So, analyzing work of the schoolmates, pupils gain skills of critical thinking that allows them to estimate the work objectively.

Non-standard methods of estimation will help to develop pupils' ability to check and control themselves, critically estimate their activity, set mistakes and find the ways of their elimination. And that the most important, will play a big role in creation of psychologically comfortable educational environment for pupil' motivation to successful educational activity.

Methodological Framework

The basis of this article is the experimental work on introduction of self-estimation and mutual estimation techniques in educational process. The study was conducted in gymnasium 125 of Kazan city from 2011 to 2015.

To identify the level of school motivation at the end of each academic year the
questionnaire were conducted in the control and experimental groups of pupils according to N. G. Lusknova method (1999). The questionnaire consists of 10 questions which are best reflecting the relation of children to school, teachers, educational process, the emotional relation to school situations. The questions were read aloud to younger pupils or offered in writing, where they chose the answer. Then we counted the percentage of pupils with different levels of school motivation. 100% payment is the total number of pupils of each class. Questionnaire according to method N. G. Lusknova (1999) does not require large expenditures of time and effort. The repeated questioning over several months allows to estimate the dynamics of school motivation.

At the end of each school year the motivation to study and monitoring pupils’ progress were conducted simultaneously. To determine the extent of progress there were calculated the final grades earned by pupils for one academic year on all subjects. Then the proportion where 100% is a total amount of marks, and x % is a total quantity of the five, four and three marks were formed. Solving a proportion, we got a percentage of class progress. To determine the percent of progress quality there was hold the same operation, but only with positive marks.

Results

Due to the fact that pupils of the first grade could have difficulties with reading and perception of the questionnaire, questions were read aloud. Then there were variants of answers, and they wrote down the answers they came up.

Analyzing the questionnaire results, it should be noted that in both of these classes during the year, there is a high level of school motivation — 84% of pupils observed, the remaining 16 % there is a good level of motivation. In experimental and control classes there are observed comparatively high quality of progress (Table 1).

Table 1. Progress in 2011-2012 academic year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental class</th>
<th>Control class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Progress</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress quality</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

High level of motivation to learn in the 1st grade is due to the willing of the pupils to attend school and get positive emotions from the first results of their new training activities.

In the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades pupils answered the questions in writing.

At the end of the second grade the results of school motivation questioning of
Experimental and control classes showed insignificant distinctions. The level of motivation of an experimental class remains on high (70%) and good (30%) level. The indicators of motivation level of a control class are as follows: 45% of pupils have high level of motivation, 35% have good level of motivation, 15% have positive attitude to school, but the school attracts such children with extracurricular activities, 5% of pupils have low motivation to training.

According to the results of monitoring the progress quality is higher in the experimental class (Table 2).

**Table 2. Progress in 2012-2013 academic year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental class</th>
<th>Control class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Progress</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress quality</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the third grade the performance level of the school motivation of the experimental group increased: 78% of pupils have a high level of motivation, 22% have a good level of motivation. In the control group there is an increase in the number of students with low school motivation (18%). The progress quality also decreases in the control class (Table 3).

**Table 3. Progress in 2013-2014 academic year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental class</th>
<th>Control class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Progress</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress quality</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fourth grade indicators of school motivation of experimental class remain at a high (80%) and good (20%) levels. In the control class the following is observed: high school motivation have 25% of pupils, good school motivation - 55% and a low school motivation - 20%. In Table 4 one can see how the progress quality of the experimental group differs from the progress quality of the control group.

**Table 4. Progress in 2013-2014 academic year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental class</th>
<th>Control class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
It should be noted that in addition to academic activities, pupils of the experimental group showed high results at competitions of school and district rounds.

**Discussions**

In the presence of all visible positive aspects of criteria-based methods self-estimation and mutual estimation, the modern system of education can not refuse of the traditional five-point system of learning outcomes. According to N. In. Malova (2009) this is due to the historically selective nature of modern education. Whatever methods of estimation the teacher wouldn't adhere to the teacher, the final control result of knowledge should be fixed in order of accountability. And again we turn to point system of knowledge estimation. But do not forget that the purpose of education is not a rating success, the goal of education is the education of the individual, the development of his personal qualities that will be useful to him and society. This means that the purpose of education and estimation system should not contradict each other.

Modern education system has an acute need of creating a universal system of estimation answering to inquiries of the state, society and the needs of the pupil. It is not necessary to take a 5-point system of knowledge estimation as a framework in which it is tired out modern education. On this base of the estimation system, monitoring and estimation activities it can and should be upgraded.

**Conclusions**

According to the results of the conducted research we can draw the following conclusions:

1. The pupils of the 1st class remain passive in the results estimation of their activities and the activities of their schoolmates, mainly guided by the estimation of teachers and parents

2. In the 2nd grade the pupils are already able to analyze the results of their training activities and the results of their classmates under the guidance of teachers.

3. In the 3rd and 4th grades the pupils are able to analyze and summarize the results of their training activities with greater autonomy in compared with the pupils of the second grade, to develop ways to adjust results under the guidance of a teacher.

4. Estimation on explicit criteria is the most effective and objective. So, clearly
formulated estimation criteria identify knowledge gaps of pupils for their further elimination.

5. Due to “transparency” of estimation criterias the learner begins to understand what aspects of their activities should be given more attention.

6. In a joint estimation the problem of objectivity exhibited mark is solved.

7. The skills of adequate self-estimation become important in without estimating terms of younger pupils training.

8. The skills of self-estimation are formed in the course of mutual estimation.

9. Self-estimation and mutual estimation promotes formation of pupils’ of communicative skills in elementary school, the ability to prove the decision, to argue the point of view. It develops critical thinking, leads to increase of motivation of educational activity and progress.

By implementing self-estimation methods and mutual estimation criteria in the educational process, it is advisable to consider the following recommendations:

1. The teacher needs to remember that the estimated position of the younger schoolboy changes throughout the entire period of primary education.

2. It is necessary to treat results of estimation with care in the first grade, as the child badly owns of mechanisms of self-control and self-estimation at this stage.

3. The teacher should develop estimation criteria, together with the class.

4. The estimation criteria should be built on the basis of the content of the discipline.

5. Self-estimation of the pupil should be preceded to the teacher estimation. So the teacher can see how adequately pupil is able to estimate its activities.

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PEDAGOGICAL METHODS OF SYSTEM AND CRITICAL THINKING AS A STRATEGY OF THE PERSONAL SELF-ADAPTIVITY

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Abstract
The relevance of the research problems of thinking development related to the crisis of education and changes of professional requirements, caused by the information revolution and the evolution of thinking processes. The aim of this study is to identify pedagogical methods developing the students’ abilities for critical and system thinking. In order to solve this problem, the authors used the system approach, realizing the axiological, synergetic and humanistic principles. The leading method revealing the level of students’ critical and system thinking and its influence to co-adaptive mechanisms of the person is the method of questionnaire, survey and Delphi approach. The research was held based on three higher education institutions: Kazan Federal University, Kazan Theological Seminary and Kazan National Research Technical University after Tupolev. The total number of participants was ninety-eight students. The results of the research showed that the level of students’ critical and system thinking does not exceed average values, many development criteria of these types of thinking appeared to be at a low level. The materials presented in the study allow making a conclusion about the efficiency of different types of pedagogical methods appropriate to the development of students’ intellectual abilities level, their motivation and a number of other indicators. The authors’ technology allows students to develop the skills and abilities needed for an
active adaptation to the society and broaden their competitive strategies in their professional area.

Key words: creative self-development, system and critical thinking, adaptable mechanisms of the person, innovative pedagogy, pedagogical prognostics

Introduction

Relevance and the problem statement

The general concept of Kazan University development includes the intensification of a number of research, educational and practical activities. The strategic academic unit declared in pedagogics, realizes the potential of scientists consortium, using unique academic base of the university. The relevant and significant theories and researches of Kazan Federal University’s scientists have become the basic for the development of new ideas and concepts. One of these concepts is the person’s creative self-development, which is realized as scientific school of professor of the Kazan University, the academician V. I. Andreyev (2015).

The advantage of this pedagogical system is a complete and tested method of integrative development and self-development of students. The article reveals the problems of pedagogical prognostics, the results of long-term researches of the pedagogical methods of the personal self-development. The dynamics of the modern world leads to the revision of university education requirements, looking for the new learning technologies focusing on self-development.

In the era of new information technologies, values and meanings of education are changing. To teach students the intellectual strategies of self-development means to set the new goals and meanings of life and professional activities. It is the only way for a student to become successful, competitive and adaptive, moral, complete person.

The hypothesis of the study

Effective pedagogical methods can develop critical and system thinking of students. Using the intellectual potential, a student will be able to increase his level of adaptability, to determine the strategy of self-development and can realize in his professional area more successfully.

The purpose of the study is to reveal possible pedagogical methods influencing on the development of critical and systems thinking, stimulating self-development of the person.

According to the problem, hypothesis and the study purpose, the following tasks are set:

1. To analyze the pedagogical theories of the person self-development, the
development of students’ thinking styles revealing their adaptable mechanisms.

2. To clarify the key definitions of the study: "co-adaptive", "critical", "system thinking» using the experience of Russian and foreign researches.

3. To make the pedagogical experiment estimating the general level of students’ critical and system thinking development.

4. To summarize the results and give advice for the application of pedagogical methods of the critical and system thinking development, influencing on the self-development and co-adaptivity of the person.

Modern tendencies

For many centuries, education was elitist, giving new ideas, stimulating the development of the person. In the age of information technology teachers ceased to be intellectual leaders; they have to make an effort to keep up with the changes. The serious problem is an unpredictable changing of professional realities; the information technologies have changed the world of most professions. However, the educational strategies do not change so fast. In order to form a successful and competitive person it is necessary to have an ability of new thinking and self-adaptive resources of the person.

V.I. Andreyev (2015) in "Pedagogical heuristics" summarized the problems of pedagogical prognostics: "The solution of many modern educational problems is very difficult and sometimes impossible on the basis of traditional approaches and well-known methods which were accepted earlier in pedagogics and didactics”.

The problem review

The purpose of pedagogical process is the development and self-development (Andreev, 2015). Thinking about the complex issues of pedagogical prognostics, the author of the concept of creative self-development, proposed several ideal models, such as "creative and self-developing person", "competitive person", "self-sufficient person" and "intelligent person".

There are a lot of definition of the term “adaptation” in science. This phenomenon is considered multi-disciplinary. The famous scientists as L.S Vygotsky (2005), B.Z Vulfov and V.D. Ivanov (1999), A.V Mudrik (2006), A.A Rean (2006) and others, devoted their works to the problems of social adaptation and its role in the creation of a person.

The phenomenon of "adaptive capacity" was the basis of intellectual development in the theory of Jean Piaget and is presented in the pedagogical concepts of social and psychological adaptation of K.A. Abulkhanova-Slavskaya (1980), A.A Nachaldzhan (2010) and others.
In pedagogical discipline, the term social integration is used as "a way of a person to exist in the society in accordance with its requirements and his own needs, motives and interests". Features of social adaptation studied by many Russian and foreign authors as William James (1883) (theory of self-concept), E. Claparede (1984) (adaptive intelligence functions) and others.

The phenomenon of co-adaptation is known as a joint adaptation of organisms, in social psychology and pedagogy the term is usually used to indicate an active strategy of cooperation – the adaptation process activities (professional, cognitive, communicative, etc.). Active adaptation is an innovative process for a person. It does not reveal executive behavior, but the new leadership development. Co-adaptation is the search for new solutions, new strategies of behavior that would reveal the possibility of realization for the person himself and others (colleagues, staff). The innovative processes of co-adaptation meets on the social, external and internal personal levels. The concept of co-adaptation is a unique property of the human psyche – changing the reality and even the person himself without changing his moral principles, values and attitudes. This strategy of behavior characterizes a person with a high level of critical and system thinking.

Materials and Methods

Research methods

In order to explore the problem we use theoretical and empirical methods of research. In general, research methods in pedagogy differ from other sciences because research "the material" both the teaching and the taught personality in the process of development. At the same time, it is difficult to evaluate and interpret the quality of the person and his complex thinking features.

In the process of studying the course of «Journalism Psychology" in order to encourage the students’ self-knowledge and self-control, they were offered several widely used tests of socio-psychological adaptation. While the discussion, many students were surprised by the results of a high degree of aggression, rejection of others and the desire to dominate. Overall, future journalists demonstrated low levels of adaptability (37% of the students tested in 2016 got below 68 points). The level of development of thinking style was assessed on a 10-point scale.

The results were processed using mathematical statistics methods and graphical results.

The experimental base of the research

The study took place from 2011 to 2016 and was attended by the students of three higher education institutions: Kazan Federal University, Kazan Theological Seminary and Kazan National Research Technical University after Tupolev.
Eighty-nine students of different years of study took place in the experiment.

Results

The structure and content of the model

The author's group conducted a special study to evaluate the features of students thinking. Thus, in the process of debates, discussions and personal conversations, some psychological and pedagogical characteristics of a new style of thinking of modern students are collected.

Psychological characteristics of a person in the era of new information technologies

1. The students formed a special style of thinking (synthetic, information, hyperactive reference and search). Another characteristic of a new style of thinking is a "perceptive" thinking – selective, fragmented understanding of the world.

2. The truth existence is called into question. The behavioral scenario fixed by the Internet: having addressed for an information, we receive hundreds of possible answers and alternatives.

3. High "informational and intellectual immunity" prevents understanding the reality and a decision-making. That is why, it is very important to form the skills of information management.

4. Identity, creativity, presentation, novelty and variability should be criteria of the assessment system and it will be possible to select appropriate information.

5. Students form the abilities to distant creativity through communication, which has no linguistic and cultural boundaries.

6. The multivariate behavior is an ability to do several kind of work simultaneously. The new generation is able to take multi-channel information, to give feedback, make decisions, and learn new virtual routes and ideas.

7. The new generation has a new language – the language of network.

Stages of the model introduction

Understanding of the modern style of thinking will allow choosing effective teaching methods.

Meanwhile, high information intelligence of students is not accompanied by a high level of system and critical thinking development, it is rather the opposite; students are experiencing problems in this field. In order to assess students’ readiness to the system and critical thinking, the following characteristics were taken: the level of generality, degree of reflexivity, degree of automation, etc.
The results of the research are in the figures 1 and 2.

Figure 1. The degree of a system approach knowledge.

1 - Theoretical information about the concept system, 2, 3 – the concepts of "analysis" and "synthesis", 4 – knowledge of the system principles.

To identify the ability of system analysis, the students were asked to answer to the 21 question. They needed a special knowledge, skills, abilities to solve professional problems. At the beginning of the questionnaire household situation requiring a system approach were proposed. Therefore, solving this problem was the most successful (63%) of viewers found the correct way out of the situation, but only one student (0.8%) gave the reason to his response.

The students solved the problem spontaneously, because they did not have system analysis skills. Thirty nine percent of the respondents coped with the task. While analyzing professional situations, the students did not use full, consistent skills and knowledge.

In order to explore the level of system analysis usage, a special questionnaire was developed, it includes the claims approving the system approach and it’s reducing role. The essential difference in motivation of students’ system analysis usage was not revealed; the highest motivation is shown in comprehension and usage in practice the relationships of cause and effect. All students are highly motivated to the development of new techniques, methods, thinking styles (Figure 2).

Figure 2. The level of motives development to the application of different types of critical and system analysis.
The studying of the level of students' critical thinking development led to interesting results. Different tasks such as self-evaluation of previous tasks, critical evaluation of practitioners, etc. were used to assessment. Seventy-two present of participants showed the initial level of critical thinking development.

The analysis of the experiment results allows drawing a conclusion that, students are not ready to solve their professional tasks, which demand a high level of system and critical thinking development. Students make tasks spontaneously, inconsistently, fragmentary, without deep reflection, a comprehension of the process and prediction of the personal result. Students cannot form basic components of system and critical thinking without application of express methods: i.e. they are not able to see the phenomenon as a process, a situation as a system, pointing out basic elements and interrelations in statics and dynamics.

**Conclusion and Perspectives**

Nowadays the society has changed the goals and objectives of education. It is not only the knowledge accumulation but also creation of the personal development and realization of intellectual potential.

The main pedagogical principles that help to develop the heuristic, critical and reflective function of students' thinking are the principles of consistency, competitiveness. A lecturer developing thinking skills needs to work at his own development constantly. He must be ready to change, to develop his ideas and concepts.
Critical and system thinking is characterized by the ability to give the assessment to the offered information, facts or events, to recognize and separate truth and false, the desire for deep analysis, ability to reason the choice and the ability to make the right decision and take responsibility for it.

The system and critical thinking skills can be taught. The algorithm of thinking development is universal: a problem statement, collecting the relevant information, its careful analysis and choice of the right decision. There are several stages of students’ thinking development:

1. Mainstreaming – the evocation (motivation to learn new skills, abilities, information)
2. Realization of meaning (understanding and interpretation of the information)
3. Reflection (analysis and introspection)

The methods developing students’ thinking should be used in accordance with the individual stages of development. So, at the first stage it is better to use such techniques as puzzles, clusters, discussion, brainstorming, etc. Their aim is to increase students' motivation, get and interpret the new information and activate the cognitive sphere of personality.

At the second stage is an updating the motivation to solve the complex tasks. It is necessary to create the conditions for logical and deep understanding of the received information. Such techniques as questions and associations, insert, diaries and interviews will help to realize it.

At the third stage, it is advisable to use such techniques as creative tasks, essays, sequin, intellectual maze, logic and others. The main aim of them is to activate the reflection, find creative and original ways of problem solving.

Most of the techniques and methods should be alternated and applied at any stage.

References


INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF VARYING TEXT DIFFICULTY LEVELS ON LEARNERS’ READING COMPREHENSION

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Abstract
The purpose of the present study is to investigate the effects of varying text difficulty on Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension. To this end, based on the results of PET, forty-seven EFL learners were selected. Then students were provided with reading texts in three text difficulty as the treatments. Finally, three tests in different text difficulty were given to the participants. Results of one-way repeated measures ANOVA indicated that varied difficulty levels of reading text did not significantly affect participants' reading comprehension when it is slightly harder than the learner's current levels.

Key words: text difficulty, reading comprehension, input hypothesis comprehension hypothesis

1. Introduction
Reading skill has been the home of choice for ESL and ELT researchers. It also has been striking enough to start specific studies on various psychological concepts related to language learning such as perception, recognition, concept mapping, and the like (Amiri & Maftoon, 2010). In the study of a foreign language (English), reading has often been the center of discussion among researchers (Anastasiou & Griva, 2009; Nuttall, 1996). However, reading comprehension is used in EFL materials, textbooks and courses at several levels (school and university) and almost in all number of areas, both general and particular (Khansir & Dashti, 2014). Cornoldi and Oakhill (2001, p. 943) argued that “reading is a pervasive and vital activity in our live we read for pleasure, to acquire new language or skills, to keep up with current events and to navigate our complex world.”

Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985, as cited in Lin, 2012) emphasizes that receiving sufficient comprehensible input may promote language acquisition. More
recently, Krashen (2007) further expanded his Input Hypothesis and proposed his Comprehension Hypothesis, claiming that language learners acquire language and develop literacy when they comprehensively understand messages. Learners acquire reading skills not only through sufficient reading but by reading in a comprehensible context. Thus, to apply Krashen's Comprehension Hypothesis to learning to read in a foreign or second language, the teacher should consider both the quantity and the quality of the input source. To increase quantity, the teacher may require students to read more outside of the classroom; to control for quality, the teacher may provide students with reading material appropriate for their reading ability. However, most previous reading research has focused on increasing the amount of reading material but has ignored its quality, that is, the suitability of the reading material to the student's target language proficiency.

Some researchers suggest that the learner be directed toward books that are written at a low reading level (Bamford & Day, 1998; Day & Bamford, 2002). In fact, some researchers suggest that learners read books at their current reading level, claiming that they need to be familiar with at least 95% or even more of the words in a text if they want to comprehend and learn from it (Laufer, 1992; Nation, 1997). According to (Nuttall, 1996), “Linguistically difficult texts are unlikely to be suitable for developing most reading skills” (p. 177). In contrast, some research claims that overly simplified texts cannot improve the learner's reading skill, mentioning that learners read materials that are considerably more difficult than what they can easily read (Krashen, 1985, as cited in Lin, 2012; Tweissi, 1998).

2. Review of the literature

One important issue on text difficulty is its effect on readers' ability to assess comprehension. Weaver and Bryant (1995) proposed an effort hypothesis, suggesting that students were better able to predict comprehension when text materials matched their reading level as opposed to being too easy or too difficult. In other words, it is hypothesized that readers' ability to predict comprehension largely depends on their reading level relative to the difficulty of texts. In other words, readers should be able to predict their comprehension most precisely when the difficulty level of the text matches their practical reading level.

Research on text difficulty has centered on its structure, assessment and/or its effect on reading comprehension. There have been many studies on assessment and structure of text difficulty (e.g. Fulcher, 1997; Fry, 2002; McNamara, et al., 2010; Stenner et al., 2007). For example, in his study Fulcher (1997) entailed a comprehensive analysis of a corpus of texts, and explained factors which make the texts difficult, or less accessible such as poor linguistic structure, contextual structure, conceptual structure, and unclear operationalization of the reader-writer relationship. The methodology used
was designed to develop an insight into the differences between estimating text difficulty between quantitative measures and more qualitative measures such as judgment of experts in the field of reading. The effect of text difficulty on reading comprehension has also been investigated (Hiebert, 2005; Hudson, Lane, & Pullen, 2005; Lin, Zabrucky, & Moore, 2002; Spear Swerling, 2006). Lin, Zabrucky and Moore (2002), for example, investigated the effect of text difficulty on readers' ability to evaluate comprehension. They came to the conclusion that a match between reading ability and text difficulty level did not license the best accuracy. In another study, Hiebert (2005) investigated the effects of text difficulty on second graders' fluency development and found that the structures of texts made a difference on the application of the reading techniques.

Whether or not the student has a successful reading experience outside of the classroom is largely dependent on the reading materials, of which text difficulty is the major factor considered in this study. Materials with a heavy burden of vocabulary and grammar may hinder the students from reading fluently (Lauffer, 1992; Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Nation, 1997), whereas they may have difficulty making gains in comprehension ability with over-simplified reading materials (Tweissi, 1998). On the other hand, a number of studies have shown that reading a large quantity of graded material at the appropriate level of language proficiency helps FL/SL students to improve their reading speed, and reinforces basic vocabulary and grammatical structure (Kitao & Shimatani, 1988; Hill, 2001; Rodrigo, 1995).

Day and Bamford (2002) claimed that it is necessary to choose materials close to the student's level of linguistic capability. The results, however, are not consistent. With the inconsistent results concluded from these studies, instructors may be uncertain when confronted with the need to select reading material for their students. However, earlier empirical research did not demonstrate a clear text difficulty index for students with different English proficiencies, indicating which level of graded readers students of high, medium and low English proficiency should read. If the difficulty of the reading materials matches the learners' target language proficiency, it is assumed that they will understand the content and acquire vocabulary from the materials successfully. Chiang (2015) investigated the effects of varying text difficulty on L2 reading attitudes and reading comprehension. Results indicated that varied difficulty levels of reading text did not significantly affect participants' reading comprehension. Khansir and Darvishi (2014) investigated the effect of task complexity on English foreign language learners' reading comprehension performance. The results of this article indicated that students who exposed to complex tasks represented a better performance on reading comprehension tests compared to the learners who exposed to simple tasks in their trainings.

Regarding the issues discussed above, the researcher decided to investigate the
effect of varying text difficulty levels on learners’ reading comprehension. The following question was posed to fulfill the purpose of the study:

1. Do varying text difficulty levels have any significant effect on learners’ reading comprehension?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The original pool of the study was 58 students. Based on their performance on the reading proficiency test, 47 students were selected. They were female and their ages ranged from 17 to 25.

3.2. Instrumentation

3.2.1 General reading proficiency test

In order to homogenize the participants in terms of their reading proficiency, the reading comprehension section of a Preliminary English Test (PET) which is an intermediate level proficiency test, was implemented. The reliability of this test was found to have an alpha coefficient of .81.

Reading comprehension passages

During the treatment, reading comprehension texts from the Thoughts & Notions, Cause & Effect, and Concepts & Comments edition by Patricia Ackert and Linda Lee which is appropriate for pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate respectively, were selected for the instruction. One passage from each text was selected and its readability was calculated.

3.2.2. Reading comprehension test

Three reading comprehension tests, consisted of three passages from the Thoughts & Notions (for pre-intermediate level), three passages from Cause & Effect (for intermediate level), and three passages from Concepts & Comments (for upper-intermediate), were given to the participants. Each test included three questions about finding the main ideas and 17 multiple-choice items (20 questions in total). Each correct answer received 1 point earning 20 points as a whole.

3.3. Procedure

First, to assess the students’ general reading proficiency level, the reading section of English Preliminary Test (PET) was administered to 58 female students. 47 students who achieved scores between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen for the study. After that, participants were provided with treatments. The researcher selected four texts from each book (Thoughts & Notions, Cause & Effect, and Concepts & Comments) in order to practice the texts in three different text difficulties. Each session the teacher asked students to read the text and answer the reading comprehension questions. Finally, the three reading comprehension tests
were presented to the participants as test 1, test 2, and test 3 with different text difficulties.

4. Results

In order to investigate the research question a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was run to see whether varying text difficulty levels have any significant effect on learners’ reading comprehension. Tables 4.1 Shows the results of the descriptive statistics for these tests:

Table 4.1
Descriptive Statistics on Reading Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test 1</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17.0213</td>
<td>1.87071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 2</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.5106</td>
<td>2.50974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 3</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.3830</td>
<td>2.53286</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 4.1 indicates, the means for test 1 was 17.02, for test 2 was 15.51, and for test 3 was 15.38, respectively. The researcher used Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to determine the normality of the scores on reading tests as an assumption of parametric tests (Table 4.2).

Table 4.10
Normality Check for Scores on Reading Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test 1</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 2</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test 3</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>.080</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results indicated that the scores on this tests were normality distributed \((\text{sig. } = .061, .20, .08 > 0.05)\). To see if there was any significant difference between set of scores, the value of Wilks’ Lambda was checked which indicated a significant difference, Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

*Multivariate Tests for Score on Reading Tests*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>(F)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>.819</td>
<td>101.884(^b)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>101.884(^b)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling’s Trace</td>
<td>4.528</td>
<td>101.884(^b)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>4.528</td>
<td>101.884(^b)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 4.3 shows, the sig. value for Wilks’ Lambda was \(.00 (p < .05)\) which means there was significant difference between set of scores. Moreover, as the results of Table 4.3 show, the effect size of the Wilks’ Lambda was .81. According to Cohen’s (1988) conventions, the Eta Squared is at the threshold of a large effect size.

Although the results of Multivariate Tests indicated statistically significant differences among the three sets of scores, it does not tell us which set of scores differ from each other. Thus, we need to run a post hoc test to find out where the differences lied. The results of post hoc test are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

*One-way Repeated Measures ANOVA for Scores on Reading Tests*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) test</th>
<th>(J) test</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bound</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 4.4 displays, there was a significant difference between the reading test 1 and test 2 ($P = .000$). Also there was a significant difference between the reading test 1 and test 3 ($P = .000$). However, the results show that there was not any significant difference between the reading test 2 and test 3 ($Sig = .17$, $P > .05$). Thus, it can be concluded that the text difficulty had not any significant effect on reading comprehension of the learners when it is more difficult than their proficiency level.

In addition, the researcher created a means plot (Figure 4.1) which shows the differences that existed among the means of set of scores.
As you can see in Figure 4.1, it is clear that the difference between the means of the test 1 and test 2 was sizable. But, the difference between the test 2 and test 3 was quiet small.

5. Discussion & Conclusion

This study was motivated by the assumption that the reading comprehension ability can be affected by the text difficulty. However, the results of Multivariate Tests indicated significant difference between set of scores but the results of post hoc test showed that this difference lie between test 1 which was easier than participants current reading proficiency level and two other tests (test 2 and test 3 ) which were in the level of the participants and harder than participants’ level, respectively. In general, the findings suggested that text difficulty did not affect reading comprehension of the learners when it is harder than the participants’ level. This may be due to the fact that, as the difficulty of the text increases, the readers resort to more reading strategies.

The findings of this study was in line with the findings of Chiang (2015) who investigated the effects of varying text difficulty on L2 reading attitudes and reading comprehension. Results indicate that varied difficulty levels of reading text did not significantly affect participants’ reading comprehension.

However, the findings of this study was in contrast with the ideas of Weaver and Bryant (1995) who assumed that students were better able to predict comprehension when text materials matched their reading level as opposed to being too easy or too difficult.

The result of this study also was in contrast with the ideas of (Laufer, 1992; Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Nation, 1997) who asserted that materials with a heavy burden of vocabulary and grammar may hinder the students from reading fluently (Laufer, 1992; Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Nation, 1997).

The possible interpretation for the results of this study is that when comprehending gets difficult, readers utilize a large number of reading strategies to control and adjust their comprehension processes. Reading comprehension requires that the reader evaluate the text, preview the text, make predictions, make decisions during reading, use prior knowledge, and monitor understanding (Houtveen & van de Grift, 2007; Lau, 2006).

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Chiang, M. H. (2015). Effects of varying text difficulty levels on second language (L2) reading attitudes and reading comprehension. DOI: 10.1111/1467-9817.12049


THE EFFECTS OF USING BLENDED LEARNING STRATEGY ON ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDE OF LAW STUDENTS IN TEACHING ESP

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Abstract
The present study was an attempt to investigate the effects of Using Blended Learning Strategy in teaching English to law students. To do so, a qualitative descriptive study was designed in which 150 Law students (Male and Female) in Islamic Azad University- South Tehran Branch, with 20 to 50 years of age range, and also to 5 ESP course instructors took part. The class attitude was assessed by distributing the questionnaire to the students and also to 5 ESP course instructors during their classes and the class achievement was also measured through having some ongoing observations throughout the whole semester based on Brown’s Class Observation Strategy. The results of the descriptive analysis indicated that there were significant effects favoring distance education conditions over traditional education. Moreover, the analysis of the findings revealed that participants dealing with blended learning environment had made progress to the same degree. In addition, the findings supported the effectiveness of adaptive computer use for learning vocabulary. As far as the use of technology in the classroom continues to grow and holds limitless possibilities for improving students’ learning, blended learning has the potential to expand branches for learning by combining the best practices of in-class instructions with the most useful online resources to be used out of the class.

Keywords: Blended learning strategy, Instructors’ attitude, Law students, Students’ achievement, Students’ attitude, Teaching ESP.

1. Introduction
Technological advances since the 1990s have led to an increase in the “integration of Web-based and Web-enhanced resources into instructional practices” (Rodriguez, Ooms, Montanez, & Yan, 2005). The major issue that faces educators anywhere was represented by how they can provide a better and interactive educational environment. This revolution has changed the format of teaching materials due to an increasing demand for learning a new language in better conditions than the old ones. The advancement of informational technology and telecommunications provide online courses with some features of Face-to-Face instruction through the use of the internet, multimedia, audio, and video texts in the learning environment. As a matter of fact, the importance of blended learning has increased in recent years due to its advantages and the American society for education and development has defined blended learning as one of the top ten trends in the knowledge delivery industry (Graham, 2006). Young (2002) stated that blended learning model which has been executed in higher education will increase in a way to cover 80-90% of all courses.

2 Literature Review

As the present study is an attempt to investigate the effects of using blended learning strategy in teaching English to law students, reviewing the literature pertained to blended learning issues is of paramount importance. Duhaney (2004) defined blended learning as a course that comprises any combined use of electronic learning tools that supplement, but do not replace f2f learning. Sahin (2007) defined blended learning as kind of distance learning that is used to support f2f learning. The last two definitions of blended learning are the most suitable ones in regards to the type of learning used in this study.

Investigating the effects of learning strategies on the interaction of the students with each other and their interaction with the teacher was focused on by Bailey (2003). The results of her study showed no differences in the level of student satisfaction, but, it showed that using blended learning strategy has positive effects on increasing awareness of the students about student-student interaction. In Maguire’s (2005) study the main point was to investigate the effect of blended learning method on the student’s achievement in mathematics. The results represented that blended learning method helped students to perform and score better than the others. Welker and Berardino (2006) found that teachers can design and produce educational multimedia, which makes them more confident in dealing with e-learning and create their own model of blended learning. Blended learning was also found to positively affect the development of mental and visual skills such as reading data, calculations, interpretation of results, and writing reports among EFL learners (Toth, Morrow, & Ludvico, 2009). The study results indicated that the educational experiences of blended learning method lead to the acquisition of skills and pointed out that the knowledge
gained was satisfactory. Simpson and Anderson (2009) found that the strategy of teaching and blended learning led to improved educational outcomes of the experimental group and in particular cognitive processes with the upper levels. The study found that the strategy of teaching and blended learning led to increased interests and inclinations of students, and the results indicated a strong correlation between interest and internal motivation and cognitive learning outcomes. Mendez and Gonzalez (2010) who assessed using blended learning in other fields such as engineering found that evaluation of blended learning methodology could attest its efficiency in terms of learning degree and performance of the students.

From reviewing the related literature, many studies have proved the success and the advantages of blended learning over online and f2f learning alone. Many studies focused on the learning outcomes of blended learning. Echavez Solano (2003) found that the students in technology-enhanced classes had better understanding of course content, immediate feedback, self-learning and control of their learning. However, Echavez-Solano (2003) observed that there were no significant differences between students' performance in traditional classes and technology-enhanced classes (blended) in the assignments, exams and final grades. Lim, Morris, and Kupritz’s study (2006) compared online and blended learning groups according to their learning outcomes. They noted higher students' satisfaction in the blended course, a significant increase in the perceived, and actual learning of both groups, and complaints from online course students who experienced significantly higher workloads for their study than those in the blended delivery format.

Many studies provided evidence for the positive effects of WebCT on EFL learners’ achievement (Entwistle, 1991; Garcia, 1995; Naqvi, 2006; Oliver, 2014; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1995; Thomas & Storr, 2005). In this regard, Thomas and Storr (2005) reported that WebCT enhanced the students' motivation, interest, engagement, and achievement. Naqvi’s (2006) study found that the use of WebCT helped the student to understand better and learn the course material in an effective way. Mc Campell (2001) emphasized that blended learning is a good approach for those who will include online applications in their current curriculum for the first time and that some parts of the course could be transferred into the online environment without executing the course fully on online basis. By avoiding complexity in online environment as much as possible, activities appropriate to students’ computer skills should be included in the curriculum. Otherwise, students may get confused and demoralized (Silwerwood, 2007).

Some researchers stated that blended learning has certain advantages such as flexibility and comfort in the learning environment, increase in the level of learning, increase in permanence in learning, increase in interest in learning,
good-quality interaction and low cost (Collins, 2003; Ismael, Bakar, & Latif, 2016; Garnham & Kaleta, 2002; Young, 2002). It is also believed that in web-based applications, students’ Internet attitudes and self-efficacies are important variables that are likely to affect the application process (Hill & Hannafin, 1997; Joo, Bong & Choi, 2000; Teeter, 1997; Tsai & Tsai, 2003). Teeter (1997) identified the impact of teaching with the Internet on the students’ motivation to learn and increase their ability to debate and resolve duties. Behjat, Yamini and Bagheri (2012) also showed that, in the Iranian educational context, blending traditional classroom instruction and technology can help learners excel in their reading comprehension.

Nowadays, many scholars believe that The Computer and the Internet have become some of the most effective means of introducing technology to education. These tools appear to be more effective when they are used in combination with conventional teaching methods to supplement classroom activities (Tsai, 2006). Accessing education through technology utilization should be rational and gradual. It should begin by using technology that is not far removed from the classroom setting (Bates & Poole, 2003, 2006). The first step in acquainting students with using technology in learning is to use it to supplement learning, but not to replace f2f sessions. Therefore, the blended learning course is one of the important applications of using information and communication technology in the educational process. Blended learning combines face to face and online learning forms. As a matter of fact, the importance of blended learning has increased in recent years due to its advantages. At the end of the last century the first wave of e-learning was started and it focused on introducing advanced technology in the educational process, and convert classrooms into virtual classes. Based on the purpose of the study the following research questions were raised:

1. What is the effect of using blended learning strategy on law students’ achievement in teaching ESP?
2. What is the effect of using blended learning strategy on law students’ attitude in teaching ESP?
3. What is the effect of using blended learning strategy on law instructors’ attitude in teaching ESP?

1.3 Method

The present study was qualitative with descriptive design in nature and attempted to present the data from the perspective of the participants and observed materials, therefore, the cultural and intellectual biases of the researcher did not distort the collection, interpretation, or presentation of the data.

Participants

The researcher chose 150 Law students from among the B.A students of Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch. They were both male and female
students aged between 20 and 50. Moreover, five ESP course instructors participated in this study.

**Instrumentations**

The instruments utilized in the study were comprised of observation of a few ESP classes that was based on Brown’s Class Observation Strategy. Attitude Scale Questionnaire was administered in order to assess the students’ opinions and perceptions of blended learning strategies. Achievement Scale Questionnaire was administered in order to assess the students’ achievement at the end of the semester, and Semi-structured interview including several questions about the instructors’ attitude while teaching ESP was also conducted.

**Procedure**

In the advent of the academic year 2015-16 the researcher obtained the permission of the Dean of the Law Faculty at Islamic Azad University-South Tehran Branch to have a semi-structured interview with five instructors of ESP courses. The interview items included several questions about their perceptions of teaching ESP and also their feelings and attitudes towards using Blended Learning Strategies in their classes. Students’ achievements and attitudes towards using blended learning strategies were qualitatively assessed by distributing the questionnaires to 150 male and female law students. The data of questionnaire was collected and tested for integrity and clarity. The instructors’ achievements were also measured by distributing some ongoing observations based on Brown’s (1993) Class Observation Strategy during the whole semester.

**1.4 Results**

The present study aimed at exploring the usefulness of using blended learning strategy on law students’ achievement in learning ESP. Also, the attitude of law students and instructors towards the effect of using blended learning strategy on learning and teaching ESP was sought.

**Research Question 1**

As observable from Table 1, the mean score for the students’ attitude towards utilizing blended learning strategy in learning ESP ($\bar{x} = 2.79$, $SD = .59$) is above the midpoint “2” (“Undecided” choice of the questionnaire). That is to say, generally, most of the students showed their positive attitude towards blended learning strategy to be used in learning ESP.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics for the Law Students’ Achievement in Learning ESP via Blended Strategy*
A histogram was made to depict the students’ responses to the students’ achievement questionnaire. The figure shows that the majority of the achievement scores are higher than 2 (“Undecided” choice).

![Histogram of Students' Achievement Scores](image)

**Figure 1**, Scores on the Law Students’ Achievement in Learning ESP via Blended Strategy

The results of one-sample t-test that was used to examine whether using blended learning strategy can develop their achievement in learning ESP or not are manifested in Table 2.

**Table 2**

| Test Value | 2 |

One-Sample T-test for the Law Students’ Achievement in Learning ESP via Blended Strategy

Test Value = 2
The results of one-sample t-test, as shown in Table 2, indicated that the one-sample t-test was significant \((t = 14.61, \ p = .000, \ p < .05)\) for the law students’ achievement in employing blended learning strategy in learning ESP. Also, the \(t\)-observed exceeded the \(t\)-critical of 1.96. Subsequently, we can declare that using blended learning strategy improves law students’ achievement in learning ESP.

**Research Question 2**

Table 3 shows that the mean score for the students’ attitude towards using blended learning strategy \((\bar{X} = 2.71, \ SD = .63)\) is greater than the midpoint “2” (“Undecided” choice of the questionnaire). That means, in general, the most of the learners agreed with the application of blended learning strategy to enhance their attitude in learning ESP.

**Table 3**

*Descriptive Statistics for the Law Students’ Attitude towards Blended Learning Strategy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(N)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>(SD)</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.711</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 is a histogram that illustrates the learners’ responses to the students’ attitude questionnaire. As can be seen obviously from the figure, the majority of the attitude scores are larger than 2 (“Undecided” choice).
Table 4 displays the results of one-sample t-test that was used to test whether using blended learning strategy affects law students’ attitude in learning ESP or not.

Table 4
One-Sample T-test for the Law Students’ Attitude in Learning ESP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Value = 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.648</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of one-sample $t$-test, as shown in Table 4, indicated that the one-sample $t$-test was significant ($t = 13.64, p = .000, p < .05$) for the law students’ attitude towards using blended learning strategy in learning ESP. In addition, the $t$-value (13.64) was greater than the $t$-critical (1.96). Consequently, it can be asserted that law students’ possess positive attitude.
toward applying blended learning strategy in learning ESP.

Research Question 3

A quick glance at Table 5 reveals that the mean score for the instructors’ attitude towards using blended learning strategy in learning ESP ($\bar{x} = 3.38, SD = .32$) is much greater than the midpoint “2” (“Undecided” choice of the questionnaire). Specifically, almost all of the instructors revealed their positive attitude towards blended learning strategy to be used in learning ESP.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Law Teachers’ Attitude towards Using Blended Learning Strategy in Teaching ESP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.380</td>
<td>.327</td>
<td>.146</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3 (a histogram) to illustrate the instructors’ responses to the instructors’ attitude questionnaire. As seen in the figure, all of the attitude scores are above 2 (“Undecided” choice).

Figure 3, Scores on the Law Instructors’ Attitude towards Blended Learning Strategy
in Teaching ESP.

Table 6 display the results of one-sample t-test that was performed to investigate if the law instructors have positive attitude towards utilizing blended learning strategy in learning ESP or not.

Table 6

One-Sample T-test for the law Instructors’ Attitude towards Applying Blended Learning Strategy in Teaching ESP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Value = 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.433</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates that one-sample t-test was significant ($t = 9.43, p = .001, p < .05$) for the law instructors’ attitude toward employing blended learning strategy in learning ESP. In addition, the $t$-observed was more than the $t$-critical (1.96). As a result, it was discovered that using blended learning strategy enhances law instructors’ attitude in teaching ESP.

1.5 Discussions and Conclusion

The main goal of this research was to examine the effect of using blended learning strategy on law students’ achievement and attitude and also the law instructors’ attitude in learning and teaching ESP. The first research question dealt with the effect of using blended learning strategy on law students’ achievement in learning ESP. The results sample t-test ($t = 14.61, p = .000, p < .05$) indicated that applying blended learning strategy enhances law students’ achievement in learning ESP. The purpose of the second research question was measuring the effect of using blended learning strategy on law students’ attitude in teaching ESP. The results of one-sample t-test ($t = 13.64, p = .000, p < .05$) showed that employing blended learning strategy increases law students’ attitude in learning ESP. And finally, the third research question was concerned with the effect of using blended learning strategy on law instructors’ attitude in teaching ESP. Results of one-sample t-test ($t = 9.43, p = .001, p < .05$) uncovered that using blended learning strategy enhances law Instructors’ attitude in teaching ESP.

The findings of this study are in line with some of the previous studies conducted on distance education such as Bernard, Abrami, Lou and Borokhovski (2004)
who found that distance education courses positively affected EFL learners’ language achievement. The present findings are also in line with Bernard et al.’s (2004) study which found the priority and significant effects of distance education conditions over the traditional education. In addition, our findings correlate with the findings of Kaya (2002) that investigated the effectiveness of adaptive computer use for learning vocabulary. The present study is similar to Kaya’s study where both online units contained texts, images, movie, and audio in order to facilitate the vocabulary learning process. Kaya argued that the non-significant results were due to the problems faced by the instructors such as lack of computer knowledge.

However, the results of this study do not support the findings of many studies which indicate negative effects of supplementary online units such as Chennault’s (1993) study which provided the EFL students with online support and multimedia in learning L2 vocabulary but these students did not achieve any significant growths in their L2 vocabulary. Neither can the present findings take support from Hwang and Arbaugh’s (2009) study which found that students' participation in the online courses negatively impacted their comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. Also, the present study findings indicated that CALL and hyperlinks negatively affected the students' reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. They also indicated that the created website designed to support vocabulary acquisition and contained dictionary, hypertext, and interactive self-quizzing feature, offered anxiety and language surface processing for the L2 learners. But, the findings of the present study are not parallel with Iddings, Ortmann, Pride and Pride’s (1999) findings which showed that there were not any significant growths in vocabulary development and reading comprehension of EFL learners through the use of multiple instructional strategies and computer technology in teaching L2.

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SELF-EFFICACY STUDIES AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS’ SELF-EFFICACY

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Abstract

Students learn English with different beliefs about their ability to accomplish class tasks. These beliefs predetermine their cognitive, affective, and behavioral involvement in various learning situations. It is paramount to help English language learners (ELLs) address their needs and increase their feelings of self-efficacy. Successful language learning relies on several interacting factors, and the learning paradigms need to be expanded to include constructs that have shown compelling predictive values in learner behaviors which might provide more insightful information as for how to improve ELLs’ motivation and performance. ELLs’ self-efficacy contributes to not only their learning behaviors in language but also influence their motivation of continuing language learning after completing academic requirements.

Keywords: English language learner, self-efficacy, motivation, performance

Introduction

Previous studies (i.e., Noam Chomsky’s Universal Grammar theory, the behaviorists’ approach) have examined second language acquisition from various perspectives and many theories have been proposed to explore how language is learned and which factors influence mastery of a second language. Table 1 shows the framework of study on SLA. From the 1950s and 1960s, behaviorism, which was characterized by basic stimulus-response approach, was a dominant theory of learning in American education, followed by theories of SLA based on Noam Chomsky’s Universal Grammar theory, which focused on learners’ innate capacities to acquire a second language, and this theory now still dominates the field of SLA. The behaviorists’ approach was criticized by many researchers such as John Dewey and Jean Piaget, who believed that learners are not passive receivers of knowledge and they can construct their own knowledge by building the cognitive structures (Powell & Kalina, 2009). Then, sociocultural theory was introduced, which explain SLA in terms of social environment of learners. According to Vygotsky (1978), learning involves a communicative process, and learning and cognitive development are culturally and socially based. “Learning is a social process rather than an
individual one, and occurs during interactions between individuals” (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005, p. 12). There are theories emphasizing the role of the learning environment or the social context in which the language was being learned (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). These theories did not seriously consider individual learner differences and how these differences could influence learners’ second language acquisition. Gardner’s research in 1985 moved away from the social dimension of SLA and focused on learner motivation as a primary force in enhancing or hindering learning (Dörnyei, 1999).

Table 1

**Frameworks for Study of SLA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Linguistic</th>
<th>Psychological</th>
<th>Social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950s and before</td>
<td>Structuralism</td>
<td>Behaviorism</td>
<td>Sociocultural Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960s</td>
<td>Transformational-Generative Grammar</td>
<td>Neurolinguistics</td>
<td>Ethnography of Communication Variation Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970s</td>
<td>Functionalism</td>
<td>Humanistic Models</td>
<td>Acculturation Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principles and Parameters Model</td>
<td>Connectionism</td>
<td>Accommodation Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>Minimalist Program</td>
<td>Processability</td>
<td>Social Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In the 1980s, research began to focus on individual’s characteristics and how these characteristics influence learner’s capability of language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Individual differences are strong indicators of learners’ potential success in second language acquisition (Raoofi, Tan, & Chan, 2012). Gardner, Tremblay and Masgoret (1997) defined individual differences as “possible characteristics of individuals that will influence how successful different individuals will be at learning another language” (p. 344). They identified the most frequently investigated individual differences in SLA which include language anxiety, language aptitude, attitudes and motivation, field dependence/independence, learning strategies, and self-
confidence. It is also suggested that in SLA studies individual differences include age, aptitude, culture, gender, language learning strategies, language learning styles, motivations, learner’s beliefs, self-efficacy and self-esteem (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1992; Saville-Troike, 2006). These individual difference variables are associated with the language learning success (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Gardner, 2001; Gardner et al., 1997).

Motivation Theories in Second Language Acquisition

From the previous SLA research on individual differences, it can be seen that learner beliefs and learning strategies and how they influence second language learning has been a major concern. Since the 1960s, the related research began to shift focus from methods of learning to factors that influence learning. When literature on self-efficacy and goal orientation is reviewed, motivation is inevitable to discuss first. Motivation has been identified as an influential contributor to language learning success (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Motivation drives students to make effort and to persist on various learning tasks (Clark & Estes, 2002; Gardner, 2001), which are two elements in measuring students’ level of self-efficacy. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) noted motivation as “the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (p. 4). Although Gardner (1985) separated learners’ goal orientation from motivation since he considered that it is the language learners’ attitudinal inclination that determines the final learning outcome, not goals, he recognized that L2 motivation has a quality of goal-directedness, and goals are seen as a central element in motivation studies.

The major L2 motivation work has been associated with Gardner and his colleagues who have been investigating the influences of social factors on L2 learners since 1972. Robert Gardner proposed that learning context is less important than motivational factors in determining learners’ ultimate success and he also introduced the idea of integrative versus instrumental motivations (Dörnyei, 1999). While acknowledging his contribution to the field of L2 motivation, several researchers have argued that Gardner’s model did not explain the motivational issues in the foreign language classroom. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) pointed out that this approach did not have strong predictive utility of students’ behavioral responses.

In the early 1990s, L2 motivation researchers started considering alternative motivational concepts that are more in accordance with actual teaching and learning situations (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Skehan, 1991). Dörnyei (1994) built upon the data collected in these previous studies to promote a more pragmatic, education-centered approach to further self-efficacy research. Believing that learning environment had more influence on motivation than previously thought, Dörnyei felt that there was a need to move from building theoretical frameworks to immediate classroom application of
previous results. His published work helped push research from defining motivation to practical applications of motivational techniques. Dörnyei (1994) proposed that L2 motivation researchers should develop alternative explanations for students’ motivation to learn. The new directions in research are expected to provide more insightful information about how language learners differ in their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Dörnyei, 1994), which influence their choice of action, effort, and persistence along the path of L2 learning.

According to Tremblay and Gardner (1995), motivational behaviors are the “characteristics of an individual that can be perceived by an observer” (p. 506). They explained that motivational behavior could be expressed by someone who is always volunteering to demonstrate something, participate in a project, or challenging him or herself to try something new. Whereas, motivational antecedents are “factors that cannot be readily perceived by an external observer, but still influence motivational behavior through their cognitive or affective influence” (p. 507). An essential part of motivational antecedents are the characteristics of expectancy and self-efficacy.

A dominating paradigm in motivation research is the expectancy-value theory, which proposes that learner’s motivation is influenced greatly by their expected success in tasks and the value placed on that success (Dörnyei, 1999). It is composed of three components: attribution theory, self-worth theory, and self-efficacy theory. Attribution theory examines how success or failure in past events affects future efforts and outcomes, while self-worth theory is based on the idea that an individual’s highest motivating factor is saving face. Self-efficacy theory, by contrast, focuses on learners’ judgment of their innate ability to complete a task (Bandura, 1986, 1989).

**Self-Efficacy**

In the framework of second language acquisition, self-efficacy is used to describe the way a learner feels about his or her ability to learn or improve proficiency in a second language. Bandura (1977) was first to present, research, and expand on the construct of self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as referring to self-perceptions or beliefs of capability to learn or perform tasks at designated levels. He pointed out that self-efficacy beliefs influence how people motivate themselves, think, feel, and act (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1997) believed that most human motivation is cognitively generated and that learners form beliefs about what they can do, anticipate likely outcomes, and set goals and plan activities based on their level of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy beliefs lay the groundwork for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment (Pajares, 2002). It is assumed that learners possess the ability to reflect and regulate their actions and to shape their environment rather than just react to it. Self-efficacy is not about learning how to succeed, but rather it is about how to keep trying when one does not succeed (Pajares, 2006).
According to Bandura (1977), people with high self-efficacy are different from those with low self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) stated that learners with higher efficacy beliefs would have higher performance attainments regardless of actual ability or past achievement. Those with high self-efficacy tend to view challenges as achievable tasks, be more interested in the tasks they undertake, be strongly committed to their assignments, and be able to rebound from disappointments and setbacks caused by the tasks (Bandura, 1977). Those with a low sense of self-efficacy are believed to shy away from demanding undertakings; they tend to believe that difficult tasks are not achievable, are affected by their failures in completing their mission, and lack confidence in their abilities (Bandura, 1997).

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory was first developed for use in the field of psychology to explain how different forms of motivation influence the learning of particular behaviors. The social cognitive theory was first known as the social learning theory and was proposed in 1941 by Miller and Dollard. In 1963, Bandura and Walters added in principles of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement to improve the theory (Pajares, 2002). In 1977, Bandura first discussed self-efficacy in his book *Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change* since he found that an important element of self-beliefs had not been discussed in the social learning theory. Bandura continued the self-efficacy research in education with Schunk, Pintrich, Pajares, and Zimmerman. In 1986, Bandura changed the name of the theory to social cognitive theory, which separated the theory from social learning theories, and since then he continued the research on human functioning and explored what is truly central to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). The social cognitive theory explains the role of vicarious, self-regulatory, and self-reflective processes in learner development in conjunction with human functioning and also emphasized the importance of cognition in an individual’s ability to self-regulate, perform behaviors, and understand information and complete tasks and it also offers an approach to motivation and self-regulatory development (Bandura, 1986; Zimmerman, 2006). Through self-reflection, people can understand and explore their own self-beliefs, cognition and behavior (Pajares, 2002). Bandura (1986) believed that most human motivation is cognitively generated and that learners form beliefs about what they can do, anticipate likely outcomes, and set goals and plan activities based on their level of self-efficacy.

The greater the learner’s foresight, proficiency, and means of self-influence, all of which are acquirable skills, the more successful the learner is in achieving what she seeks (Bandura, 1997). According to the theory, the outside conditions like economic, socioeconomic and educational conditions or structures do not directly affect human behavior, and instead, they influence aspirations, self-efficacy beliefs, values, emotions, and other self-regulatory
responses (Pajares, 2002).

Self-Efficacy and Achievement

Past research concluded that an individual’s self-efficacy is a strong determinant of success or failure in completing tasks and high levels of self-efficacy have been associated with high levels of achievement (Bandura, 1977). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) also supported that self-efficacy is a greater determinant of success than environment, societal pressure, or innate ability. Students with high levels of self-efficacy outperformed those with low levels of self-efficacy even if those with high levels were less prepared academically (Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent, & Larivee, 1991; Schunk, 1989). Schunk (1989) also revealed that an individual’s self-efficacy is a better predictor of intellectual accomplishment in academics than skill alone. These findings are supported by Caraway, Tucker, Reinke, and Hall (2003): “Self efficacy determines aspect of task engagement including which tasks individuals choose to take on, the amount effort, persistence, and perseverance they demonstrate with regard to the task, and their feelings related to the task” (p. 423). Efficacious students “sustain their work longer, because they anticipate that they will succeed at the end of the task” (Wiseman & Hunt, 2001, p. 40). Self-efficacious individuals view attainments as under their control. The level of perseverance devoted to a task is supported by perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). When students believe they are capable of performing well on an academic task, they are motivated to perform well, engage in the task, and work harder, for longer portions of time. These behaviors are essential for academic success. Even when failing at a task the level of self-efficacy plays a role in the learner’s cognitive processing of the outcome (Bandura, 1997). Individuals with high self-efficacy will contribute failure to lack of effort or situational impediments while those with low self-efficacy are more likely to contribute the failures to lack of ability (Bandura, 1997).

It is important to examine some terms and definitions that can be mistakenly confused with self-efficacy: motivation, self-confidence, self-concept, and self-esteem. While self-efficacy is used interchangeably with motivation in some fields, there is a significant difference in their definitions according to Bandura (1997). Motivation is a broad concept that includes external and internal influences that affect outcomes while self-efficacy is focused only on the internal beliefs of the learner. Self-confidence is sometimes used as a construct that has many of the same features as expectancy and self-efficacy. Self-confidence in language learning research tends to include anxiety, while self-efficacy does not. Self-confidence is usually measured at the time of testing, while self-efficacy is considered a perceived proficiency and is therefore tested in the future or at the end of a study (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Self-concept is defined by Bandura (1997) as a composite view of self formed by direct experience as well as evaluations from significant others. It
is an attitude toward self and a general outlook on life. While self-concept is an encompassing self-image, self-efficacy focuses only on the perception of ability related to a specific task. Self-efficacy is highly predictive of behavior while self-concept is weaker and more equivocal (Bandura, 1997). Unlike self-efficacy, self-esteem is concerned with judgments of one’s self worth. It is the concept of one’s overall place within the culture and environment and how the individual judges personal achievement compared to others. Self-esteem, as defined by Bandura, is a general concept that remains consistent across multiple tasks. Self-efficacy is particular to a given task. Bandura believed that it took more than high self-esteem to attain goals. Achievers can have a strict performance judgment and standards, thus having high self-efficacy but perhaps struggling with self-esteem. Furthermore, perceived self-efficacy predicts what goals an individual will set and performance attainment, while self-esteem has little effect on either (Bandura, 1997).

Research on Self-Efficacy of ELLs

Bandura’s work on self-efficacy was grounded in psychology but many scholars from other fields including nutrition, mass communication, and second language acquisition have conducted research and made attempts to apply the theory into different disciplines (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996).

In recent research about self-efficacy and SLA, focus has been shifted from expanding Bandura’s theories to developing empirical evidence through the creation of standardized instruments to measure learner’s self-efficacy. Studies also have focused on a variety of factors and correlations, such as the relationship between self-efficacy and language performance, and sources of learners’ self-efficacy beliefs. A few studies examined relationships between students’ self-efficacy and cognitive processing and behaviors.

Huang and Chang (1996) explored four university-aged learners’ English self-efficacy beliefs and their relationship to achievement in a mixed methods study by using questionnaires and interviews. They examined what influenced learners’ self-efficacy, how self-efficacy influenced achievement, and how achievement influenced self-efficacy. The results concluded that learners’ self-efficacy did not correlate with learning achievements; achievements did correlate with ability perception; interest in topics influenced self-efficacy; and the teacher played a large part in learners’ self-efficacy. One possible explanation for the mixed results is a lack of task criterion correspondence. Templin (1999) found that, on an English test, high efficacy students obtained significantly higher grades than low efficacy students. Wong (2005) looked at the overall language self-efficacy of ELLs in Malaysia and how self-efficacy influenced their language learning strategy use. Participants, a group of 74 students training to become English-
language teachers, were given 10 hypothetical learning contexts and asked to rate their confidence in carrying out each task correctly on a 10-point Likert scale. Participants were also given a companion language learning strategies questionnaire to identify the strategies they used in English learning. It is found that participants who had a higher level of self-efficacy also reported greater use of learning strategies. Strategies most often mentioned were cognitive (i.e., use of English listening, reading, and writing outside of classroom) and social (i.e., assistance from interlocutors). The study also found that participants with low self-efficacy used context to guess meanings they did not understand while those with high self-efficacy tried to find the meaning of misunderstood information by enlisting interlocutors or seeking print resources. The results of this study suggested that self-efficacy might be increased by teaching learning strategies to students, particularly the strategies that were most often mentioned by learners. Based on her results, Wong also suggested that the negative attitude of learners with low self-efficacy should be addressed within the classroom to improve overall performance (Wong, 2005).

Teng (2005) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy, motivation and learning activities of students in Taiwan. There were 654 students from three colleges in Taiwan who were majoring in English, business, or engineering as the participants in the study. The study also was the first research of its kind focused on Taiwanese learners of English. The results indicated that gender, academic major, English score and career goals all had significant effects on students’ self-efficacy and motivation. It was also found that students with a higher self-efficacy in English learning were more likely to become self-directed than students with lower self-efficacy.

Poyrazli and Grahame (2007) revealed that ESL students with high levels of self-confidence and self-efficacy tend to experience lower levels of stress and direct energy toward improving their attitude of cultural adjustment. The study also found these students experienced a higher level of stress in their first period of arriving to the U.S. These students experienced a number of concerns such as accommodations, communication, transportation, social interaction with native speakers and local culture, health insurance, discrimination and academic life. Leclair, Doll, Osborn, and Jones (2009) examined whether ELLs’ descriptions of classroom supports for learning were different from the descriptions of non-ELL students or not. The study also explored ELL’s perceptions of classroom and general education students’ perceptions of classroom. The Class Maps Survey was used in the study. Classroom relationships and supports for self-regulation were surveyed. It is revealed that ELLs rated themselves significantly lower in academic efficacy and rated their non-ELL classmates as having higher levels of behavioral self-control and more likely to follow class rules compared to the ratings of non-ELL students. This research also suggested teachers should effectively support ELLs’ academic engagement and
improving the academic and social experiences of ELLs in U.S. schools.

Gahungu (2007) explored the interrelationships among language learning strategy use, self-efficacy and language ability in university foreign language setting. The researcher used two surveys, a cloze test, interviews, and class observations to collect data. It was found that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between language learning strategy use and language ability, between strategy use and self-efficacy, and between self-efficacy and language ability of participants. The findings revealed that students should take a more active role in their foreign language learning rather than rely only on the instructors. Students need to be trained in the use of strategies, and they should be motivated in their learning. Magogwe and Oliver (2007) examined English language learning strategies used by Botswana students and the relationship between language strategies, age, proficiency, and self-efficacy beliefs. Data was collected from 480 students from primary schools, secondary schools, and a tertiary institution. The adapted versions of the Oxford’s Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and the Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES) were used as instruments in this study to collect data. The results were consistent with previous language learning strategy studies (e.g., O’Malley & Chamot, 1990) and found that more proficient students used more overall strategy than less proficient students. It was also indicated that Botswana students used a number of language learning strategies, but they had preferences for particular types of strategies (e.g., social strategies) since these strategies were culturally more appropriate. There was a relationship between type of strategy use and successful language learning, but it was mediated by factors such as self-efficacy beliefs. The study also indicated that a positive significant relationship between self-efficacy and overall strategy use of students across all proficiency levels, but the relationship was not strong. There was also interplay of relationship between use of language learning strategies and proficiency, level of schooling and self-efficacy beliefs. Secondary and tertiary students were more likely to choose metacognitive strategies than primary students perhaps due to their level of cognitive development. Strategies should be incorporated into curriculum and teachers should explicitly teach students how to use strategies.

Hsieh and Schallert (2008) found self-efficacy was the strongest predictor, supplemented by ability attributions, in predicting achievement. Students who attributed failure to lack of effort had higher self-efficacy than students not making effort attributions. The findings indicate that when students report a low level of self-efficacy, helping them view success and failure as an outcome that they can control may increase their expectancy for success and lead to actual successful learning. A similar study conducted by Hsieh and Kang (2010) also proposed self-efficacy as a good indicator of academic achievement and additionally attribution was an important indicator of
achievement. Successful learners attributed their success to internal, personal factors. It was suggested teachers pay attention to cognitive beliefs, not just performance. If teachers can facilitate learners in being more aware of their cognition, motivation, and behavior in language learning then, students could get more control of outcomes and achievement (Hsieh & Kang, 2010).

Tilfalioglu and Cinkara (2009) compared the self-efficacy scores of students in three proficiency levels (i.e., pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper intermediate) at an English as a foreign language (EFL) program in Turkey to explore EFL self-efficacy level in relation to their academic success in English. The English as a foreign language self-efficacy questionnaire (EFL-SEQ), which was translated into Turkish, was used in this study. The EFL-SEQ consists of 40 items scored on an 8-point Likert scale. One hundred and seventy five preparatory students participated in this study to examine whether students at higher proficiency levels would show a higher level of self-efficacy than those at lower levels. It was found that EFL students had high level of self-efficacy in language learning tasks. There was a significant positive correlation between high self-efficacy and high levels of English proficiency. It was suggested that strategy instruction could help to raise self-efficacy and indices of academic motivation need to be examined in the future and further studies could examine the relations between goal orientations and self-efficacy which could provide insights to the concept in educational setting (Tilfalioglu & Cinkara, 2009).

Rahimi and Abedini (2009) explored the relationship between self-efficacy and proficiency in listening comprehension for Iranian freshmen majoring in English literature enrolled in intermediate-level English as foreign language classrooms. A questionnaire designed by the researcher and a Listening Diagnostic Pre-Test from the Longman TOEFL were used to collect data. After comparing listening comprehension with results from other aspects of English instruction, results showed that self-efficacy had a substantial influence on success in listening comprehension. In order to promote self-efficacy of learners in the classroom setting teachers should praise what is praiseworthy, emphasize skill development, and foster optimism. Naseri and Zaferanieh (2012) identified a significant strong positive correlation between high self-efficacy scores and improvement in reading comprehension skills. There was also a relationship between high self-efficacy scores and students reading strategy use (Naseri & Zaferanieh, 2012). Four strategies were identified in this study—cognitive, metacognitive, compensatory, and testing. Cognitive strategies were most often identified, followed by testing. Results showed that students who employed a combination of the four strategies also proved to have the highest self-efficacy scores. Naseri and Zaferanieh (2012) believed that their results showed a need for learning strategies to be explicitly taught to learners. They also believed that teaching learning strategies could aid
independent study and learning of language outside the classroom.

Idrus and Sivapalan (2010) investigated students’ self-efficacy scores and success in oral English communication as well as factors that contributed to their sense of self-efficacy. One hundred and seventy first semester pre-university Malaysian students in English 1 classes participated in this study. The contributing factors included: learner ability, activity perception, and aspiration that achieving fluency in a second language would bring personal and professional success (Idrus & Sivapalan, 2010). A questionnaire adapted from Bandura and Mikulecky and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. Results of this study indicated that it is not just an overall sense of self-efficacy that benefits learning, but a particular belief in one’s language learning abilities and perception of potential for success in particular language-learning activities. Idrus and Sivapalan concluded that when a student found a learning strategy that improved performance, this realization could lead to greater overall self-efficacy. This finding makes it important for teachers to be aware of the self-efficacy level of their students and provide students with various strategies for learning so that individuals can find strategies that best work for their learning style.

Most of these studies found a positive relationship between learner self-efficacy and learner success, whether it be in a particular facet of second language learning or an overall evaluation of learner proficiency. Another similarity is that most studies were conducted in non-native English language environments with a focus on learners of a similar national origin. There are few studies focusing on English as a second language learning settings. The topic of perceived self-efficacy in the field of ESL has been rarely investigated although its study is particularly important for language learning (Huang, Lloyd & Mikulecky, 1999).

Conclusions

Learners’ self-efficacy beliefs influence their level of motivation, affective states, and actions in classrooms. Studies have focused on a variety of factors and correlations, such as the relationship between self-efficacy and language performance, and sources of learners’ self-efficacy beliefs in the field of second language learning. Previous studies also identified that gender, academic major, English fluency, learning strategies and career goals are all associated with students’ self-efficacy. Teachers are encouraged to pay attention to these contributing factors that influence self-efficacy to enhance learners’ confidence, motivation and performance in language learning.

Suggestions for Future Research

With strong but limited current research in the field of English as a second language and learner self-efficacy, it is important to conduct studies to investigate the relationship between second language learning and self-efficacy in other learning groups and environments. Many students study
English outside their native countries and in programs where students are from diverse national and language backgrounds. Because self-efficacy has an impact on ELLs learning outcomes and success, more research is needed to investigate whether previous findings would be replicated through studies of diverse populations of English as a second language students studying in a single, native English learning environment. If the impact of self-efficacy is consistent in different language and learning environments then learning strategies identified in previous studies could be applied to these populations. Conclusions not consistent with previous studies would indicate that there may be something unique about these situations that influences self-efficacy or learning outcomes and would be an avenue for additional research.

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THE SELECTION OF FORMULAIC EXPRESSIONS BY EFL STUDENTS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS: THE CASE OF LEXICAL BUNDLES

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Abstract
A large part of language consists of formulaic expressions or pre-fabricated patterns. These sequences are an integral part of the language that mastering a genre involves appropriate use of these word combinations. Lexical bundles are one group of these word combinations that serve important discourse functions. The aims of this study were to examine the extent to which EFL (English as a foreign language) students could discriminate between different bundles and choose them appropriately and to find if there were any differences between bundles in the way selected by students. By administering a reading measure of selecting lexical bundles to a group of EFL postgraduate students in applied linguistics, this study showed that in many cases, students' choices of these word combinations did not match those of experts. This suggested that such students were likely to encounter difficulties in adhering to preferred accepted writing practices of the discipline. The use of corpus tools and consciousness raising activities could be some of the means by which lexical bundles would be introduced to students.

Key words: Applied linguistics, Lexical bundles, Postgraduate students, Selection reading task

1. Introduction
There has been considerable research focusing on the acquisition and teaching of formulaic sequences in the past four decades (Cortes, 2006). In academic
writing, these expressions are extremely frequent in the production of published authors, but they are rarely used by university students. This can be of significance when one finds that recurrent word combinations constitute a large portion of discourse (Schmitt and Carter, 2004).

It is also important to stress that the use of recurring word combinations has been considered a sign of proficient language use within particular registers, including academic writing (Biber, 2006). Several functions of formulaic sequences can be closely associated with the academic writing context. Wray (2002), for instance, has pinpointed that formulaic sequences make it possible for language users to express identity with a group, such as a disciplinary community, and the use of these expressions can save reading or listening effort.

At the same time, as highlighted by Haswell (1991), the appropriate use of recurrent fixed expressions reflects a certain maturity in writing, while the lack of these expressions is a feature of novice writers. Cortes (2004) explained that the frequent use of fixed expressions seems to signal competent language use within a register such that learning conventions of register use involve learning the correct ways to use certain fixed phrases.

Based on this, this study zoomed on a particular category of formulaic sequences which serve important functions in academic discourse. More specifically, the purpose of this study was finding the extent to which a group of EFL postgraduate students could choose lexical bundles as a category of formulaic language correctly. Before elaborating on the details of this study, in the next two sub-sections, formulaicity and lexical bundles are further described.

1.1. Formulaic language

Early interest in the study of formulaic patterns dates back to more than five decades ago (Cortes, 2002). Among one of the first researchers, Firth (1964) introduced the terms "collocation" and "collocability" to refer to common co-occurrences of words. According to Wray and Perkins (2000), formulaicity is an umbrella term covering a wide variety of word strings stored and retrieved as whole chunks rather than being subject to productive and analytical processing. More specifically, Wray and Perkins (2000) define a formulaic expression as "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which is, or appears to be prefabricated, that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by language grammar" (p.2).

Despite this, it is yet far from clear what can count as formulaic and what can not. This makes it difficult, if not impossible, to decide on the extent to which language is formulaic. While there are some scholars claiming that around 80% of language is formulaic (Altenberg, 1998), some others like Erman and Warren (2000) suggest that around one-third to one-half of language is
prefabricated. This uncertainty can also be seen in a wide range of terms and labels used to describe and cover different aspects and categories of formulaicity (Cortes, 2002; Wray and Perkins, 2000).

The past four decades have witnessed a growing interest in the study of different formulaic expressions in both theoretical and practical terms in different languages (Conklin and Schmitt, 2008), as well as a more robust pedagogical focus on them, especially because the research has shown that the acquisition and use of these expressions among both natives and non-natives could be a difficult learning task (Cortes, 2011, 2006). Cortes (2002) holds that the initial studies of word combinations were done more from a rather "impressionistic", intuitive, and less quantitative evidence-based perspective. It has been since 1970s that quantitative and usually corpus-based studies of different word combinations have gained momentum.

According to Cortes (2002), studies of different word combinations could be arranged in five categories: (1) studies focusing on the acquisition of word combinations by first and second language users (e.g., Peters, 1983); (2) descriptive studies accounting for the use of word combinations in languages (e.g. Moon, 1992; Chafe, 1994); (3) studies presenting classifications of word combinations (e.g., Becker, 1975; Sinclair, 1991); (4) studies focusing on the pedagogical applications or implications of the use of word combinations among L2 learners (e.g., Pawley and Syder, 1983); and (5) corpus-based studies of lexical bundles as a particular category of word combinations (e.g., Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan, 1999; Biber, Conrad, and Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). The focus of this study is on the use of lexical bundles as a group of word combinations with a potentially formulaic status by EFL students. These word sequences are further described below.

### 1.2. Lexical Bundles

Lexical bundles were coined by Biber et al. (1999) for the first time to refer to a group of word combinations (made of three, four, five, or six words) which are identified empirically and just on the basis of their frequency. These word clusters have, for the most part, a non-idiomatic meaning, and are structurally incomplete and act as building blocks of coherent discourse in different registers. However, it is not yet evident whether these word combinations have a really formulaic nature (Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes, 2006), and there is no one single all agreed-upon cut-off frequency for the identification of a word cluster as a bundle. In most cases, a word combination like *at the same time* or *on the basis of* has to occur at least twenty times in a corpus of one million words and five different texts to count as a bundle (Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). Such word sequences have been classified structurally (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber, 2006) as well as functionally (Cortes, 2002, 2006; Biber, Conrad, and Cortes, 2003; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). These clusters can serve a wide range
of discursive functions such as organization of discourse, expression of stance, and reference to textual or external entities (Biber and Barbieri, 2007). Also, according to Hyland (2008a, 2008b), lexical bundles serve three major functions that correspond to Halliday’s (1994) tripartite functional typology of language: Research-oriented (ideational), text-oriented (textual), and participant-oriented (interpersonal). As this classification was used in this study, it has been further described in the results section.

These word combinations are used in different registers such as fiction, conversation, journalism and academic writing. As examples of typically occurring bundles in academic writing, one can name on the other hand, in the case of, as well as the and it should be noted, to name only a few (see Biber et al, 1999, and Biber, 2006, for an extensive list of bundles).

Corpus-based studies of lexical bundles across different disciplines, registers and genres have been the main focus of mainstream research for more than two decades. It has been shown that lexical bundles are discipline-specific, i.e., each discipline draws on a unique set of bundles in the development of its characteristic discourse (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). The more considerable presence of lexical bundles in certain registers like classroom teaching and management registers (Biber et al, 2004; Biber, 2006; Biber and Barbieri, 2007), and their multi-functionality (Biber et al, 1999; Biber and Conrad, 1999; Biber and Gray, 2013; Cortes, 2004; Biber et al, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b) have also been shown in the prior studies. Along with their high frequency (Biber et al, 1999; Wray and Perkins, 2000; Wray, 2000), such recurrent word combinations have been noted for the important functions they serve in spoken as well as written discourse, such as acting as processing shortcuts (Wray and Perkins, 2000; Conklin and Schmitt, 2007), expressing identity with a group (Wray, 2000), and reflecting maturity and expertise in writing (Cortes, 2004, 2006).

The use of these recurrent word combinations has also been found to be a good indicator of proficient and competent language use in different registers including academic writing (Cortes, 2006). For example, Cortes (2002, 2004) studied the use of these word clusters in native speaker college students' (undergraduate, graduate lower level, and graduate upper level) essays in two fields of history and biology. It was shown that students' use of bundles was quite rare, infrequent, and in many cases, different from that of published academic writers. In fact, a wide discrepancy was found between academic writers and novices (e.g. postgraduate students) in that the latter often failed to use lexical bundles correctly and adequately.

More attention to the use and acquisition of these word clusters can find more plausibility when one finds that simple and even frequent long exposure to lexical bundles may not guarantee students' correct and sufficient use of these clusters, whether they be native or non-native and undergraduate or graduate (Cortes, 2006). This failure has been ascribed to lack of any
systematic instructional focus on these word combinations, although there have been some major attempts to introduce formulaic expressions into L2 curricula (e.g., Willis, 2003; Nattinger and Decarrico, 1992; Lewis, 1997, 2000). In spite of all these, some studies (e.g. Cortes, 2006) have shown meager progress in students' productive use of these word combinations even after some formal instruction. So, it is yet far from clear to what extent students are able to choose the right lexical bundle in a given text.

2. The Study

This study was aimed at examining the extent to which postgraduate EFL students in applied linguistics could choose lexical bundles correctly. Accordingly, the following questions were posed to serve as a guide in this study:

1. To what extent can EFL postgraduate students in applied linguistics choose the right lexical bundle in the right context?
2. Are there any differences between different lexical bundles in the degree to which they are chosen correctly by the postgraduate students?

2.1. Method

2.1.1. Participants

13 second-year college students at master's level in applied linguistics in an EFL context took part in this study. These students had all entered the master's program through a strict nation-wide entrance exam and had a high level of language proficiency and also, a relatively good knowledge of discipline. They were studying in the third semester and preparing themselves for writing their thesis research proposals. It must be noted that students in the field of applied linguistics were chosen for two reasons. First, in comparison to other EFL postgraduate students, they were more likely to have higher language proficiency as they had been studying English for at least six years in the academy. Second, as a corpus of research articles in applied linguistics was already available for preparing the text fragments, students in this field served as the participants of this study.

Getting the consent of one of the instructors for taking a whole session of one of the courses (which took around 90 minutes), one of the researchers first explained the purpose of the study to these postgraduate students and assured them that the results would be kept confidential. Although all necessary instructions had already been given in the selection measure itself, the researcher preferred to reiterate them orally to guard against any misunderstanding at the very beginning before students started to do the task.

2.1.2. Materials
A reading measure was used in this study in order to investigate students' ability to choose the appropriate bundle in a text. This reading measure consisted of thirty short texts. Each of these texts, made of one or two paragraphs, was incomplete with a lexical bundle missing. Such tests have been widely used in the language teaching field for the teaching of collocations (Cortes, 2006). These texts were taken from a relatively large corpus of research articles in applied linguistics (see the appendix). This corpus comprised around two hundred articles from seven different journals (Applied Linguistics, English Language Teaching, English for Specific Purposes, Journal of English for Academic Purposes, Second Language Writing, Linguistics and Education and System) in the diverse field of applied linguistics.

2.1.3. Procedure

The selection of the most frequent lexical bundles in applied linguistics was based on the study carried out by Hyland (2008a). Accordingly, fifty word combinations frequently employed and used by published writers in the field were chosen (see appendix). By using Antconc 3.2.1.w concordancer (Anthony, 2007), articles which contained the thirty most frequent bundles in the top fifty list of word clusters were identified and then the contexts within which these bundles had been used were cut from the articles. Due to the high frequency of each of these word clusters in research articles, some decision had to be made about the articles within which the target bundles of interest had been used. The text fragments used in the reading task were finally taken from 23 research articles. An attempt was made to choose the texts from those journals students often referred to in their courses. By studying and examining the use of every bundle in its context of use, a decision was also made about the amount of textual context that needed to be included in the reading test to incorporate enough contextual clues to help the EFL students in their selection of bundles. Because of this consideration, all text fragments used in the study were not exactly of the same length, with some being shorter and some others even longer than a paragraph.

3. Results

Overall, the results of the study showed that in many cases, students' selection of the bundle did not match that of published writers. As table 1 shows, only in 208 cases (out of the whole 390), students' selection of the bundles corresponded to the original choices of published writers, indicating that only in 53.33% of choices made by the participants, they chose the right bundle. Almost in half of the cases, participants were either unable to choose any bundle or make the right choice. Furthermore, looking at the number of correct uses for each bundle, one could find that there were differences between bundles of interest and the contexts within which they
had been used in terms of the difficulty they posed for the students. For example, in texts 1, 12, 13, 18, 19, 25, 28, 29 and 30, the number of correct uses (out of the whole possible 13 in this study) was 10 or more, while in the case of some texts like 6, 7, 20, 21, and 26, the overall accurate use was three or less. The number of correct choices in other texts like 2, 4, 5, etc. ranged from 4 to 9.

Students were also found to have different degrees of difficulty with different bundles and texts. Some bundles like to the fact that, at the end of, one of the most posed little difficulty while some others like in relation to the, in terms of the, and in the form of were more demanding. Interestingly, there were two bundles (i.e., in relation to the, in terms of the) that were used correctly only by a single participant. It seemed that the selection of such bundles was quite a difficult task for students, even at this level of language proficiency. This could be partly due to the more abstract and cognitively complex nature of these word combinations.

There were also some other bundles that were chosen very infrequently by the participants in the study (e.g., in the form of, in the present study, at the beginning of, as a result of). Participants might have already been exposed to such bundles several times, but as they were not perceptually salient (Cortes, 2006), they would have easily gone unnoticed. On the other hand, there were some bundles that seemed to pose little if any difficulty for the participants in their selection as used in the respective texts (e.g., at the end of, one of the most, to the fact that).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>texts</th>
<th>bundles</th>
<th>number of correct choices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text1</td>
<td>at the end of</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text2</td>
<td>can be seen as</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text3</td>
<td>in relation to the</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text4</td>
<td>the nature of the</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text5</td>
<td>in the case of</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text6</td>
<td>in the form of</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Phrase</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text7</td>
<td>in the present study</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text8</td>
<td>in the sense that</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text9</td>
<td>is one of the</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text10</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text11</td>
<td>the end of the</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text12</td>
<td>one of the most</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text13</td>
<td>the fact that</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text14</td>
<td>the relationship between the</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text15</td>
<td>the ways in which</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text16</td>
<td>the role of the</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text17</td>
<td>the result of the</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text18</td>
<td>to the fact that</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text19</td>
<td>on the one hand</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text20</td>
<td>at the beginning of</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text21</td>
<td>as a result of</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text22</td>
<td>as well as the</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text23</td>
<td>in the process of</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text24</td>
<td>at the same time</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text25</td>
<td>can be found in</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text26</td>
<td>in terms of the</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text27</td>
<td>in the context of</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text28</td>
<td>it is important to</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As said in the introduction, different classifications have been developed for the functional description of lexical bundles in different registers including academic writing (e.g., Biber et al, 1999; Biber et al, 2004). In this study, in order to further explore whether there were differences between lexical bundles in the extent to which they were used by the participants, they were classified functionally using the functional taxonomy proposed by Hyland (2008a, 2008b). According to Hyland (2008a, 2008b), lexical bundles serve three major functions that correspond to Halliday’s (1994) tripartite functional typology of language: Research-oriented (ideational), text-oriented (textual), and participant-oriented (interpersonal). Research-oriented bundles serve a more ideational and information-focused function by encoding activities, experiences, time, procedures, etc. in the world. Text-oriented bundles connect different parts of texts and announce different stages in the evolving discourse. Finally, participant-oriented bundles play a more interpersonal role by expressing writer’s different attitudes and feelings toward the subject matter and the readers. Table 2 shows the functional classification of lexical bundles tested in this study based on the taxonomy developed by Hyland (2008a, 2008b). To make comparisons between different functional types easier, the frequencies

Table 2 Functional classification of lexical bundles tested in this study (based on Hyland, 2008a, 2008b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major functions</th>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
<th>Lexical bundles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25. Research-oriented: help writers to structure their activities and experiences of the real world</td>
<td>Location indicating the beginning of (3), at the same time (4), in the present study (2), at the end of (10), the end of (5)</td>
<td>Procedure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
includes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantification</th>
<th>is one of the (9), one of the most (10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>the nature of the (5), in the process of (7), in the context of (7), the result of the (6), the role of the (9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Topic** – related to the field of research

**Text-oriented** – concerned with the organisation of the text and its meaning as a message or argument includes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transition signals</th>
<th>on the other hand (9), on the one hand (11), as well as the (7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>as a result of (3), on the basis of (10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Resultative signals** – mark inferential or causative relations between elements

**Structuring signals** – text-reflexive markers which organise stretches of discourse or direct reader elsewhere in text

**Framing signals** – situate arguments by specifying limiting conditions

**Participant-oriented** – these are focused on the writer or reader of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stance features</th>
<th>the fact that the (10), to the fact that (13), it is important to (10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement features</td>
<td>can be found in (10), can be seen as (8), it should be noted (11)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Engagement features** – address readers directly
corresponding to lexical bundles have been given in parentheses.

As can be seen, there were some relatively slight differences between the functional types of lexical bundles in the extent to which they were used correctly by the participants in the study. While some bundles showing quantification (number, quantity, amount, etc.) and the relation between the writer and readers (participant-oriented bundles) were used in a correct way relatively frequently, some word combinations acting as location markers and framing signals seemed to be more difficult for participants to choose correctly in the respective texts. However, these differences could not be emphasized very much as the number of participants in the study was relatively small and judging on the differences solely on the basis of frequencies could not be very reliable. It could be argued that regardless of the function they serve in the text, different lexical bundles can pose different degrees of difficulty for the students.

4. Discussion

What is noteworthy and needs to be explained is that in many cases, participants’ choices of lexical bundles did not match those of published writers. While the effect of reading proficiency, task and topic familiarity and specific background knowledge should be acknowledged, it could also be argued that learning to understand, recognize, discriminate, and use lexical bundles could be a challenging and difficult task, even for postgraduate students who enjoy a high level of language proficiency and relatively good disciplinary knowledge. The results of the study confirmed the findings of of Cortes (2006), showing that EFL postgraduate students, like native speaker undergraduate students, had problems using lexical bundles. It is also more likely that they could even have more serious problems in sufficient and accurate use of these word clusters in their actual written production. While such sequences are not idiomatic in meaning and may be easy to understand, they do not seem to be marked and perceptually salient (Cortes, 2006). Because of this, they may easily go unnoticed by postgraduate students at the master’s level.

Probably, lexical bundles are retrieved and stored whole from memory through holistic rather than analytical processes (Conklin and Schmitt, 2008) and therefore, postgraduate students may not have difficulty in understanding, or even producing lexical bundles. While there may be a processing advantage in the use of lexical bundles as some formulaic sequences have
been shown to be easier to use (Conklin and Schmitt, 2008), it may seem that that lexical bundles can act as handy short-cuts or frames (Biber and Barbieri, 2007) through which writers can scaffold their propositional meanings with a relative ease. But, based on the results obtained, postgraduate students, unlike published writers, may need more exposure and practice in the use of these word sequences as building blocks of coherent discourse. Furthermore, automatic acquisition of lexical bundles should not be taken for granted as this study showed that there are lexical bundles in applied linguistics published writing on which students may not draw quite frequently.

Gaining acceptance and recognition in the community of expert published members is one of the main aspirations of a member of academy. One of the factors that could affect the success or failure of novice postgraduate students in getting their work published may lie in the degree to which they adhere to those word sequences as part of conventions, which, if not peculiar and exclusively favored in a given discipline, are typically used by established academics (Cortes, 2004). As one type of word combinations, lexical bundles have been found to be not only building blocks of coherent discourse, but also strong discipline, genre and register discriminators.

This study showed that there is a wide gap between EFL postgraduate writing and that of published experts which may not be easy to bridge. While part of this gap could be attributed to generic differences, writers' purposes and readers' expectations, it can also be suggested that EFL postgraduate students, even at master's level, because of their lack of enough confidence or expertise, may need to pay more attention to these expressions (Hyland, 2008b). Some implications of the study are brought below.

5. Implications

As one of the main pedagogical implications of this study, one can highlight the importance of a more focused, longer, systematic and explicit pedagogical treatment of bundles. One can refer to incorporating lexical bundles into the syllabus of different writing courses, especially for students who are at intermediate or advanced level of language proficiency, with due attention to lexical bundles students need to use in their target genres. This can also be one of the things that EAP (English for academic purposes) practitioners should address. The findings can also stress a more genre-focused EAP (English for academic purposes), especially in advanced writing courses, where students are helped to prepare themselves to join the community of research article writers (Byrd and Coxhead, 2010; Pang, 2010).

One other pedagogical technique that EAP teachers can use is asking students to reflect on different functions that these word sequences serve in academic genres. Of course, this should be preceded by explicit teaching of lexical
bundles functions through both top-down and bottom-up processes. Given that these word clusters are typically used by established published members in different disciplines and that experts commonly use and rely on them for achieving a wide variety of different meanings and functions, EAP practitioners, writing instructors and supervisors should help students, both undergraduate and graduate, to zoom specifically on the pervasive and differential presence of these word combinations in different contexts, especially as it relates to the publication of high-stakes genres like research articles.

Corpus-enhanced disciplinary writing courses (Cortes, 2006) through which lexical bundles and their distributions across different genres and registers are introduced could help students to use them in their target genres. The use of noticing (Schmidt, 1990; Cortes, 2004, 2006), conscious raising tasks (Lewis, 2000), clusters lists and concordances (Hyland, 2008a) could also be helpful, especially within a framework of use.

6. Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was finding the extent to which a group of postgraduate EFL students could select frequently-used lexical bundles correctly. For this purpose, students were asked to perform on a selection reading task in which they had to complete a set of textual fragments taken from some journal articles by choosing the bundles that had been removed. Overall, it was found that in many cases, lexical bundles chosen by students did not match those of published academics. It seems, therefore, that acquisition and appropriate use of these expressions cannot occur automatically. Given that lexical bundles are very recurrently used in published academic writing and they are for the most part discipline-bound (Cortes, Jones, and Stoller, 2002), students should be aided to find out that each discipline has different purposes and/or ways of seeing the world that are associated with its distinct communicative conventions (Cortes, 2006).

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selection


Appendix

Lexical bundles tested in this study

it should be noted, the starting point of, in relation to the, in the case of, are more likely to, the meaning of the, at the beginning of, as well as the, be seen as a, at the end of, the fact that the, in the context of, in the eyes of, the beginning of the, Should be noted that, that there is a, is one of the, on the other hand, at the same time, in terms of the, for the purpose of, on the basis of, the results of the, in terms of their, to the fact that, in the sense that, the relationship between the, the extent to which, a wide range of, of the present study, as a result of, one of the most, the end of the, can be seen as, the purpose of the, in the process of, on the one hand, can be found in, the ways in which, in other words the, the other hand the, at the level of, the role of the, in the present study, with respect to the, the nature of the, in the form of, on the part of, it is important to, the use of the.
Reading texts used in this study

Text1

The teacher and student questionnaires were distributed 1 during the semester after students had completed all their compositions and had turned in their portfolios and after the teachers had finished grading the portfolios. After final exams, students were approached and asked if they would be willing to fill out a short survey. The first author was present in order to answer any questions the students may have had about any of the questions. It was assumed that after final exams would be an ideal time for giving the survey because the students would not know their final grade or worry that rating their teachers would affect their grade in the course. Teachers were also approached during this same time and asked to fill out the survey.

Text2

Ward (2004), concentrated specifically on the use of we in constructing identities in discourse between trades union representatives and their members. Contrary to expectations, he found that we was associated with a discourse of exclusion by union representatives; we was linked with active roles for the union officials who had undertaken negotiations but the membership were excluded from this process, a fact which was underlined by the use of the exclusive we, meaning the union officials but not the workers. The significance of Ward's work lies in the way the use of pronouns 2 suggestive of the interactional relations being constructed; it is indicative of language choices that contribute to delimiting discoursal roles.

Text3

In the quantification of the lexical errors, which was simply correct or incorrect, the following classes were used. Selection errors would be cases where an inappropriate alternative word is used for the original (e.g. ‘happy’ for ‘lively’). Word class errors are cases where the word class is wrong (e.g. ‘beauty’ for ‘beautiful’) and spelling errors where an item is spelt incorrectly (e.g. ‘gypsy’ for ‘gypsy’). Finally a blank would be a case where an item is left blank, sometimes unintentionally. The assessment was very strict 3 vocabulary used during the translation, and in terms of spelling, so the following were wrong for ‘procession’: procesion, proccesion, prossecion.

Text4
There are two types of call centres, inbound and outbound. Inbound call centres are those where the customer calls in for service or information. They are usually considered to be more demanding places to work as there is no way of predicting precisely call, and often the agent is dealing with complex customer concerns. Inbound call centres account for most of the outsourced work in NNES destinations such as India and the Philippines. Outbound call centres on the other hand, are concerned mostly with telesales, surveys and selling. They tend to be of a more routine and predictable nature.

Text5

The performance frame is also constructed through spatial and temporal markers. As the first step for “getting into character,” teachers invariably placed themselves at the front of the class. Once there, they normally spent a few moments shuffling papers or arranging materials, then looked up expectantly at the professor for consent to begin. Just before beginning to speak most teachers physically took on their role by straightening their posture. Microteaching was separated, too, by timing. All lessons collected were to be completed within a specific amount of time, which is typical of performances (Schechner, 1988, p. 6). Professors often publicly noted the beginning and ending points. The math education professor used a timer to mark the end. microteaching, of course, time limits are also set in order to allow each student a turn and to simulate actual classroom conditions.

Text6

Lexicogrammatical patterns can be sensitive to register, as Halliday and Hasan (1985: 38–9) argue:

[S]ince it is a configuration of meanings, a register must also, of course, include the expressions, the lexicogrammatical and phonological features, that typically accompany or REALISE these meanings. And sometimes we find that a particular register also has indexical features, indices particular words, particular grammatical signals that have the function of indicating to the participants that this is the register in question. ‘Once upon a time’ is an indexical feature that serves to signal the fact that we are now embarking on a traditional tale.

Text7

Burrough-Boenisch (2003, p. 224) points out that Dutch-speaking scientists are neither excluded from mainstream scholarly publication nor do they suffer the material or financial disadvantages described by Canagarajah (1996) in the case of a group of Sri Lankan scholars he studied. The Mandarin-
speaking Chinese science students who are among the research participants do not suffer from the extreme difficulties reported by Canagarajah for Sri-Lanka, for example, they have access to the online literature, they have access to the internet, and they have good computer hardware and software. Neither, as we shall show, are they endowed with such benefits in terms of editorial assistance as those described by Burrough-Boenisch for the Netherlands.

Text8

In view of the above discussion, it can be suggested the M1-M2-M3 move structure commonly employed in the hard sciences is apparently predominant in second language acquisition research, as it is considered an ‘established’ area of study. It occupies a relatively discrete and clearly defined area of study within applied linguistics. Indeed, the editorial policy of SSLA, from which the corpus used in the present study was compiled, provides support for such an argument. It reads,

Studies in Second Language Acquisition is a refereed journal devoted to the problems and issues in second and foreign language acquisition of any language. Theoretically based articles reporting research studies are preferred.

Text9

From a theoretical perspective, the differences between Schon’s ideas on the one hand, and those of Dewey, on the other, need to be taken on board if a better understanding of the concept of reflection is to be achieved. It must become clear whether reflection will make teachers more professional, and hence more integrated into their discourse community, or it makes them more independent from their fellow practitioners by giving them personal authority in matters of the classroom. Having a clear vision of where teachers are going to end up priorities for language teacher training communities.

Text10

That said, we can tease out certain saliencies from the findings and provisionally attribute them to sources and origins. The longer French sentences and the greater use of passives in English can be attributed to differences in the stylistic conventions and linguistic resources. It seems reasonable to suggest that the English espousal of “I” and French preference for “nous” in single-authored abstracts has little to do with stylistics per se, but more to do with cultural expectations as to what constitutes appropriate formal academic style, particularly with regard to how an author is expected to refer to herself or himself (see Fløttum, 2003) for more detailed discussion.
Even as it points towards institutional shortcomings and interpersonal difficulties, Yung-Li's path to finding an advisor is admirable: As a new student to her field, she came across a topic that captured her interest, pursued it critically, and then contacted a faculty member whose area of expertise was relevant. What was troubling to Yung-Li, however, is that she was unable to expedite the process. The master's degree in Human Studies is a 2-year program, including time to write and defend a thesis, and Dr. Denardo explained that generally students begin working with an advisor on the thesis project at first year. Yung-Li, however, spent 2 years believing that she had to generate a workable thesis topic before approaching an advisor.

Frequency lists are so powerful that there is a temptation to focus exclusively in our teaching on the GSL and AWL. However, it is suggested here that helpful approaches a teacher can adopt when teaching reading is to pre-teach a limited number of the most frequently occurring unknown words in the target text. This, as we have seen, can have an enormous effect on capacity to comprehend the text as a whole. This is vocabulary teaching for textual understanding and exploitation in the short term, and is intended to drive students before they embark on a text as close as possible to the 95 per cent threshold that Cobb has suggested.

Foremost among the aspects established abstractors take for granted is thematic structure. Our two bilinguals mistakenly believed that they should foreground the ‘new’. Furthermore, the ‘given’ was totally absent from Renan’s abstract owing to abstract depended by and large on the following text, hence Renan’s decision to ignore background information; what was more, he wished to model his own abstract on the RA text pattern. Having read the original abstract, Renan conceded that his output was inconsistent with the genre. This disclosure was important in that it made him stick to standard edition format, but, apparently, not illuminating enough to draw his attention to abstract writing conventions (Appendix F).

This paper describes aspects of a research project which used linguistic and
intertextual analysis of student writing to investigate academic curriculum and student voice in a first year economics course at a South African university. I argue that the discourses and practices of first year university economics textbooks provide a model of literacy practices which contradict many of the literacy practices of the discipline of economics. The first year economics textbook in particular, rather than exposing students to a variety of arguments and encouraging the development of critical reading skills appropriate for academic contexts, tends to be single voiced.

Further research should include delayed posttests in order to observe how much knowledge is retained after some time has passed, which will permit to make stronger claims about how time distribution affects the acquisition of a foreign language. In future studies we will also include different levels of proficiency in the three different types of programs presented in this paper, as well as a higher number of students, and results from writing and oral tasks. We will then be able to observe more clearly intensity of instruction may be related to level of proficiency and to different language skills.

The main analytical step in content and thematic analysis is the coding of narratives according to emerging themes, trends, patterns, or conceptual categories (Strauss and Corbin 1990). For instance, Francine Schumann (1980), interested in the influence of personal variables on the acquisition of a second language, identified ten such variables in the analysis of diaries she and her husband kept in Tunisia and Iran: transition anxiety, nesting patterns, reactions to pedagogical techniques, motivation for choice of language learning materials, desire to maintain one's own language learning agenda, eavesdropping versus speaking as a language learning strategy, competition versus cooperation, expatriate community in hindering the learning process, and the disadvantages of being a woman and an English-speaker.

The debate continues between those who believe in giving corrective feedback to students to improve their written accuracy and those who do not. Indeed, many experimental studies on written corrective feedback carried out over the last 20 years have been so contradictory that second language teachers looking to support their pedagogical choice to correct, or not correct, the grammar of their students’ written production are
left in the midst of controversy.

Text18

English has always held an important position in Hong Kong. Its primary uses, however, have been limited to specific areas, namely to government, the media, employment, and education (Li 1999), although it has also had secondary uses in facilitating emigration and access to overseas study. English has had, and continues to have, a restricted function in Hong Kong society, due to over ninety-five per cent of the population of Hong Kong are Cantonese-speaking ethnic Chinese (Howlett 1997).

Text19

McDonough op. cit. reports on her research into the discrepancies between her own methodological preferences as a native-speaker teacher of EFL, on the one hand, and as a non-native-speaker learner (of Greek) on the other. While the former tended to reflect the standard professional “armoury” (e.g., “Pairwork is routine”), the latter consisted of more “traditional” concerns (e.g., “I am not satisfied with the gist, I want to understand every word.”). A broadly similar picture emerged in data elicited from colleagues who were teachers of EFL and of other foreign languages, and the researcher’s fellow learners of Greek on the other (interestingly, however, with respect to certain aspects, e.g., the value of translation, teachers of EFL and of other foreign languages had opposite views, with the former against and the latter in favour).

Text20

Interactive devices are perhaps even more significant to social presence in that “they build and sustain relationships, express a willingness to maintain and prolong contact, and tacitly indicate interpersonal support, encouragement, and acceptance of the initiator” (Rourke et al., 2001, p. 6). In both Groups 2 and 3, interactions peaked early in the semester, followed by a drop thereafter. Group 2 remained steady for the rest of the semester and Group 3 dropped significantly. These results parallel findings by Angeli et al. (1998), who concluded that while interaction levels were high the computer conferencing as students got to know one another, the need to continue this “intimate” relation decreased or leveled out over the remainder of the study.

Text21
Secondly, given that students may not understand identity labels in the same ways that researchers, administrators, and teachers do, it is difficult to anticipate how a student from a particular residency background will connect with certain labels or with an ESL composition course. In addition, L2 students themselves may have varying interpretations of labels. Chiang and Schmida (1999), for instance, note that their Asian American participants had complex and alternating views of labels such as native speaker and non-native speaker, and of their own identifications with them. Without considering students’ own nuanced understandings of labels, we are likely to oversimplify how different L2 students see themselves and if and how their self-perceptions influence their composition course choices. As Spack (1997) warns, relying too heavily on institutionally ascribed labels can lead us “to make inaccurate predictions about what students are likely to do 21…………………… their language or cultural background” (p. 765).

Text 22

As seen above, although the theory of communicative competence on which CLT is based is uniform, it is broad. As a result, what CLT looks like in classroom practices may not be uniform. These practices may vary depending on the dynamics of a certain context which constructs the actual meaning of communicative competence 22………………….. tools to develop it.

Text 23

Some attention has been given to performance in relation to the experiences of preservice teachers, in particular regarding the ways in which their identities as teachers develop. Although this research has focused almost exclusively on the experiences of student teachers as they leave the classroom and begin student teaching, McNamara, Roberts, Basit, and Brown (2002) draw on it usefully to help capture the complexity of the identity changes students go through during their education 23…………………………becoming teachers. They, too, use the work of Goffman and Schechner to construct a conceptual framework that emphasizes both the social and theatrical drama of becoming a teacher.

Text 24

It has been argued that the English required by EFL teachers is a case of ESP, although not entirely comparable to some other types of ESP (Elder, 2001), and this is too often overlooked in EFL teacher training (Johnson, 1990; Richards, 1998). 24………………………………, the target language competence of EFL teachers is reported to be insufficient in many countries (e.g. Berry, 1990; Guntermann, 1992; Murdoch, 1994; and Sadtono, 1995).
Contact with the English language, especially from the 20th century onwards, has had as a consequence an increase in the number of words that are borrowed from English into Spanish. This process is particularly noticeable in Spanish for Specific Purposes, and, more specifically, in the case of Spanish computer language. Although sociocultural and linguistic studies in the literature, there are few systematic works on this type of borrowing; thus, the purpose of this paper is to shed some light on the use of English loanwords in Spanish computer language.

In addition, if part of the competence of proficient speakers of a language is the ability to judge how frequently words are used in that language, then it may be possible to distinguish between more and less proficient speakers of a language accuracy of their judgements of the frequencies of words in the language. As speakers become more proficient, they can be argued to become more familiar with how often words are used in the language as a whole.

When comparing the attributions articulated in interviews with those emerging from the key episodes, three patterns can be reconstructed. In one pattern the teacher articulates a deficiency in the Dutch language skills of ‘foreign students’ and plans and organizes classroom activities accordingly. This could be observed vocabulary teaching (Bezemer & Kroon, 2002). Mr Ed repeatedly emphasized the importance of additional vocabulary exercises for ‘foreign’ students, and he could be observed providing such additional exercises in the classroom.

Drawing heavily on a theatrical analogy, but focusing largely on everyday performances, Erving Goffman’s contribution is particularly apt for this analysis. As part of this new conception of performance, Goffman shifted attention from the product of performances to the ways in which they were constructed. Elaborating on Bateson’s (1972 [1955]) notion of a frame, Goffman (1974) showed how frames, that is, participants’ culturally determined definitions of an interaction, help guide and shape our behavior. His question, “What is it that's going on here?” (p. 8) refers to these definitions, or frames. note that Goffman recognized the instability and multiplicity of frames and the way in which his question
inappropriately presupposed the construction of single, stable frames.

Text29

Nation (2001) points out that high-frequency vocabulary is important but that it fails to discriminate among language learners beyond ‘beginner’ and ‘low intermediate’ levels. Although any given low-frequency word is by definition relatively rare, it is important to know, or to be able to deal with, low-frequency words in order to understand text ‘easily’, ‘with minimal disturbance’, or ‘for pleasure’. Thus a useful measure of language proficiency would be not only to assess how many words a person knows, but even more importantly, how many low-frequency words they know. 29.........................., however, that a definition of low frequency is still elusive.

Text30

Training in learning strategies already forms a standard part of programmes that foster learner autonomy, but what is also needed is training in communication strategies—specifically in receptive communication strategies. Learners must become familiar with the experience of not understanding every word that they read or hear. They need to be trained to form hypotheses 30........................ the partial information that they have managed to extract from a newspaper, a street sign, or a label—or from a stream of speech. Importantly, they must then go on to test these hypotheses against the information that comes next. (For a detailed discussion of the desirability of training learners in listening strategies, see, for example, Field 2000).
THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION TYPE AND PUSHED OUTPUT TASKS ON YOUNG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC AWARENESS

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Abstract
Considering the growing importance of pragmatic knowledge for second/foreign language learners and aiming at expanding the theoretical aspects of second language acquisition (SLA) pragmatics, the present study was designed attempting to find the effect of instruction type and pushed output tasks on the pragmatic awareness of young Iranian learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). To do so, 80 intermediate female Iranian second language learners, who enjoyed high degree of homogeneity, took part in the study in four equal groups, receiving a valid and reliable version of The Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Task (MCDCT) test as the pretest. All participants received specific instructions and treatment in pure explicit, pure implicit, implicit +output, and explicit +output modes. Having followed 10 sessions of instruction, all the participants received the post-test, which was the same version of MCDCT. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to compare the mean scores of the groups and the analyses of the results revealed that: (a) explicit and implicit types of instruction in teaching pragmatics enjoy their own specific manners and techniques,(b) output instruction does not affect the pragmatic awareness of
young Iranian adults at the intermediate level, and (c) employing output technique to enrich learners’ pragmatic awareness in both explicit and implicit instructional methods can enjoy a neutral position. Implications of the study as well as its classroom applications are discussed.

Key words: Pragmatic Awareness, Pushed Output Tasks, Implicit Instruction, Explicit Instruction

1. Introduction

In order to be successful in communication, it is essential for second language (L2) learners to know not only grammar and text organization but also pragmatic aspects of the target language (Bachman, 1990). Many intercultural miscommunications occur while trying to get meanings across in a second/foreign language, which shows the need to teach pragmatic norms and functions such as speech acts so that language users would use language in a pragmatically appropriate way. L2 learners encounter many pragmatic failures when they are involved in the act of communication. Trying to get the meaning across, they may simply translate speech acts from their mother tongues to the second language (Amiri & Birjandi, 2015). Pragmatic failure, which may be attributed to multifarious sources, such as rudeness, is not receiving as much attention from teachers as it should unlike grammatical errors (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

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Research into teaching speech acts has aroused great interest in the field of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). According to Kasper & Rose (2002), there is now large and fast-growing literature on learners’ use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability, and many studies have proved that pragmatic ability is teachable (Takahashi, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001), but there still remains the question of how to teach pragmatic competence and accordingly what to include in such syllabi. Therefore, carrying out studies concerning teaching methods and contents of instruction in the field of ILP are necessary. Another matter to be investigated is the efficacy of output tasks as a means to practicing one’s language for greater fluency and also as an important factor in the acquisition process.

The relationship between the first language and the misunderstandings which may occur culturally or cross-culturally has been the home of choice for a lot of researchers, especially in the last two decades. Many researchers have focused on how non-native speakers learn and use speech acts through consciousness-raising activities, explicit instruction or other communicative practices. In order to acquire pragmatic competence, learners must develop
not only linguistic competence, but also socio-cultural awareness, attaining a useful understanding of how language functions in social and cultural contexts work (Kasper & Roever, 2005). Many recent research studies have investigated the effect of input and noticing (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Takahashi, 2005). The present study has mostly focused on the effectiveness of the two different instructional approaches – explicit vs. implicit – and whether or not the EFL learners' meta-pragmatic awareness is raised by the existence of output. The final matter under question is which instruction type is more effective when accompanied by output.

Therefore, the following research questions are posed based on the purpose of this study:

1) Is there a statistically significant difference between explicit and implicit types of instruction in teaching pragmatics?

2) Is there an effect for pushed output on the pragmatic awareness of young Iranian adults?

3) Is there a statistically significant difference between explicit and implicit instruction regarding pushed output?

2. Literature Review

Pragmatics

Recent years have witnessed an increasing interest in pragmatics as an important branch of linguistics. Due to insufficiencies of the theoretical grammatical paradigms and previous purely formalistic views, abstract approaches to the study of the language have become more evident. Therefore, this particular area of research known as pragmatics has aroused the interest of an increasing number of scholars over the last three decades (Mey, 1993).

Levinson (1983) indicated that the interest in pragmatics appeared for the two following reasons. First, as a reaction to Chomsky who uses language as an abstract construct, and second, as a necessity to bridge the gap between accounts of linguistic communication and prenominal linguistic theories of language. Leech (1983) introduced a new paradigm by contributing to the progress of a shift of direction towards performance and away from competence. The focus of attention in this fresh paradigm, that is to say pragmatics, was meaning in use rather than, as Chomsky pointed out, meaning in abstractness. Based on Alcaraz (1990), some important characteristics of pragmatics are: (1) using language as a means of communication, (2) focusing on functions rather than on forms, (3) studying the processes that take place in communication, (4) using language authentically and in an appropriate context, (5) interdisciplinary nature of pragmatics, and (6) applying linguistic theories based on the concept of
communicative competence.

Afterwards, a large number of definitions have been provided by various scholars (Stalnaker, 1972; Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983; Crystal, 1985; Mey, 1993). Stalnaker (1972) defined pragmatics as “the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed” (p.383). Compatible with this, Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch (1980) referred to pragmatics, in their introduction to *Speech Act Theory and Pragmatics*, as being concerned with the conditions according to which speakers and hearers determine the context and use-dependent utterance meanings. Wunderlich (1980) supported the importance of context dependence and posited that “pragmatics deals with the interpretation of sentences (or utterances) in a richer context” (p.304). Pragmatics was also defined as “the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate” (Levinson, 1983, p.24). Pragmatics could be defined as the study of the use and meaning of utterances to their situations in Leech’s (1983) words.

Considering pragmatics as a multidimensional concept according to the definitions provided above, learners face several problems in pragmatic acquisition. Most learners in English as a foreign language environments do not have identical exposure and possibilities to experience and practice the language use as those who are living in the English as a second language situation. On this account, it has been advocated that instruction in pragmatics is essential to developing pragmatic competence of the learners (Kasper, 1997, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Furthermore, Kasper (2001) referred to some certain factors that are necessary for the development of pragmatics, among which the role of reflection and output received great importance.

**Pushed Output**

Developed by Swain (1993, 1997, 2000), the output hypothesis highlights the importance of pushed language production in order to support the claim that input alone is not enough for language learning. This pushed output refers to the production that is characterized by accuracy, coherence, and adequacy, and opportunities to produce it are claimed to be the necessary conditions for a learner to learn a second language. According to Swain (2000), not only comprehending, but also producing the target language is what makes learners find how the language is used in asserting their intended meaning. Swain (1997) identified three functions that can be identified in this process. The first function, the noticing function, refers particularly to the fact that learners may notice a gap between what they try to say and what they actually can say. They can notice a linguistic problem from this gap and may push themselves to alter their production.

The second function is the hypothesis-testing function. According to Swain (1997), learners may use their production as a way of examining new
language forms and structures. Finally, given that production can be used as a means of reflection on language while students are mainly concerned with getting meaning across, the metalinguistic function encourages learners to reflect on the forms being produced. Research examining the noticing function of output (Pica, Holliday, Lewis & Mergenthaler, 1989; Swain & Lapkin, 1995) has represented its effect as a means of internalizing new knowledge. As far as the hypothesis-testing and metalinguistic functions are concerned, the studies of collaborative dialogue carried by Donato (1994) and Swain (1993, 1997, and 2000) discovered that when learners notice a problem in their inter-language production and they articulate it, they engage in an activity of testing different hypotheses. Trying these hypotheses, they can finally reach a correct form. This process is believed to have a positive effect on learning the target language and on creation of meaningful articulation.

Instruction Type

Current research over the last 20 years on SLA has shown that instruction makes a great difference on the efficacy of learning (Long, 1983, 1988, 1996; Doughty, 1991; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). In other words, it has been claimed that instruction affects acquisition in positive ways when it is compared with sole exposure to the target language. For instance, Doughty (2003) conducted a study to figure out which types of instruction are most facilitative for L2 acquisition. Actually, the researcher found, in general, that input enhancement techniques which amplify the prominence of target forms were as successful as providing explicit meta-linguistic explanations on the structures of relative clause although the first interventional technique was more effective than just provision of rules in comprehension of texts. This breakthrough supports the implication that focusing learners’ attention on linguistic forms in context is extremely effective.

Explicit and Implicit Instruction

Explicit learning is defined as a process in which learners are consciously aware of the new knowledge they are receiving (Schmidt, 1993, 2001; Berry, 1994; Ellis, 1999). Besides, as Ellis (1994) mentions, explicit learning also involves the hypothesis forming and testing in an inquiry for the correct structure. In contrast, implicit learning refers to a process in which learners are not aware of what is being learned, while this process is a non-conscious one, and learners only pay attention to the surface features of a complex stimulus domain (Reber, 1989). More particularly, Ellis (1994) assumes that implicit learning is the acquisition of knowledge which is about the underlying and basic structure of a complicated stimulus context by a process which happens naturally, simply and with no conscious operations.

There are also two basic kinds of instruction that are obtained from the distinction of learning with or without awareness (Schmidt, 2001). In concordance with
Doughty and Williams (1998), the teacher may select between two different pedagogical approaches so as to make the process of L2 acquisition more convenient for learners. On the one side, directing learners’ attention towards the target forms with the objective of discussing those forms is involved in explicit teaching. On the other side, an implicit pedagogical approach attempts to attract learner’s attention while preventing any type of metalinguistic explanation and downplaying the interruption of the communicative setting. Hence, the chief distinction between both instruction types refers to the provision or lack of rules. According to Doughty (2003), explicit instruction maintains all types in which rules are explained to learners, while implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules or forms. DeKeyser (2003) also provides an exact description of both instruction types so as to distinguish them from other concepts employed in the second language literature—namely deductive and inductive learning/teaching.

As DeKeyser (2003) mentions, explicit teaching often maintains dealing with the rules of the language, which could be done either deductively, i.e., through thorough explanation of rules, or inductively by teaching learners to search for the rules after examining examples from a text and figuring them out by themselves. When neither of these two situations is met, with respect to the focus on the rules of the language, the treatment can be called implicit. DeKeyser (2003) also poses that the integration of implicit and inductive process is obvious in cases where children acquire their native language, which is an unconscious process. However, he adds that the learning in both implicit and deductive ways is not so clear. He refers to the notion of parameter described in Chomsky’s Universal Grammar to claim that learners may deduce a number of characteristics from it, unconscious of what they are learning.

The significance of the explicit and implicit approaches for the development of instructional treatments has motivated numerous studies in second language acquisition research which probe this distinction. Among these studies, DeKeyser (1995) developed a computerized experiment on American students’ acquisition of Implexan, which is an artificial language. This language contains two rules that are categorical and prototypical. The researcher compared implicit and explicit treatment conditions. The implicit treatment involved exposure to thousands of pictures or sentence combinations, while the explicit one had the same amount of exposure to the combinations together with explicit explanation of the rules. Regarding the effect of grammar teaching, the performance of the explicit group in acquiring the categorical or simple morphosyntactic rules was better than the implicit group. Hence, DeKeyser confirmed the explicit instruction effects and questioned Krashen’s (1985) and Reber’s (1989) claim who asserted that complex rules were learned easier and better under implicit learning conditions.
3. Method

Participants

The participants in this study included 80 young adult Iranian female language learners of English at the intermediate level in the Iran Language Institute (ILI). These participants comprised the members of four intact groups being under treatment. Since the ILI enjoys a systematic assessment system as well as regular examinations, and the fact that all the participants were studying at the same level, it was presumed that the learners fell at the same level of English knowledge and could be considered homogeneous in this respect. Each group included 20 learners who had been taking conversation courses in English for two to three years, on average, at the ILI. They ranged in age from 11 to 14 and at the time of the study, they had enrolled at the intermediate level of English (studying English Time Series 6). The present study did not include any control group and all the four groups were subject to some kind of treatment.

Data Collection Instrument

The instrument employed as both the pre- and post-test was a version of The Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Task (MCDCT), which was developed based on a thorough review of the literature (Amiri, Birjandi, & Maftoon, 2015; Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Crane & Kauffman, 2004; Hudson, Detmer & Brown, 1995; Liu, 2007, 2010; Richards & Sandy, 1998; Richards, Hall & Proctor, 2005; Saslow & Ascher, 2006; Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008; Ymashita, 1996). MCDCT is a pragmatics instrument that requires the examinee to read a written description of a situation. Then the examinee should select what the best to say in that situation would be. It is designed to determine the extent to which participants are able to express themselves concerning the situation, via selecting the most pragmatically appropriate speech acts in response to the written situational prompts. Essentially, a MCDCT functions to create a scenario to which a participant or informant must respond (Liu, 2010).

Following the thorough review of the literature, the desired speech act situations were selected, concerning the Iranian participants’ probable requirements. Samples presented in hand-outs were situation-based and because the focus of the study was not on the effect of media on ILP development of learners, a variety of sources were used to design the test. Supplementary samples which illustrated additional dialogues of the speech acts under study were taken from: Functions (Matreyek, 1990); Passages series (Richards & Sandy, 1998); Interchange series (Richards et al., 2005); Top Notch series (Saslow & Ascher, 2005); Friends sitcom (Crane & Kauffman, 1994 to 2004); and instructional movies.

Reliability and Validity of the Instrument
The number of situations selected was 28, which was reduced to 20 after being put to the scrutiny of the experts and the practitioners who had experienced living in the native-speaking countries. The situations then were sent to the United States to be validated in terms of their accuracy and relatedness by native speakers of English. The test items were constructed based on the assumptions of Iranian students in such situations. Then the test items were checked by the experts and modified. The test was piloted in a group of 20 students at the intermediate level in the ILI, and the results represented that the mean was 13.4 and the SD was 1.50. The reliability of the test then was calculated as .74 based on Kr-21 method, which is an acceptable reliability (see Table 1 below).

Table 1

<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32. 20</td>
<td>33. 13.4</td>
<td>34. 1.50088</td>
<td>35. 2.25263</td>
<td>36. 1.46287</td>
<td>37. 2.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Administrative Procedures

The 80 students taking part in the study were randomly divided into 4 equal groups. Each group included 20 students at the intermediate level. The distribution of the students based on the groups in which they were placed is represented in Table 2.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>38. Groups</th>
<th>39. No. of students</th>
<th>40. Parameter 1</th>
<th>41. Parameter 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42. 1</td>
<td>43. 20</td>
<td>44. Explicit</td>
<td>45.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. 2</td>
<td>47. 20</td>
<td>48. Explicit</td>
<td>49. Output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. 3</td>
<td>51. 20</td>
<td>52. Implicit</td>
<td>53.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. 4</td>
<td>55. 20</td>
<td>56. Implicit</td>
<td>57. Output</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, each group was informed of what they were expected to do during the course.
They were informed that they would have a pre-test in the beginning of the course and that a period of instruction would follow in which they would be completing different tasks according to the group to which they have been assigned. The pure explicit group (Group 1) was briefed that there would be more elaboration on matters found in their conversations and that they generally needed to take notes during and after the instruction was done by the teacher. The pure implicit group (Group 3) was not given much information on the instruction part, as the ILI students are/were normally taught in such manner. The +output task groups (Groups 2 & 4) were informed that, following the teacher’s instructing the conversations, they would be completing tasks (i.e., writing another conversation of the same nature in written modality). All groups were informed that after undergoing instructional sessions, they would be administered a post-test. No control groups were included in this study, however.

Learners in all four groups were given the MCDCT and were asked to choose the appropriate answer in their opinion. The treatment was offered for ten sessions to learners with more time allocated to the explicit groups (around forty minutes) and less to the implicit groups (around half an hour). For treatment, the +output task groups received an explanatory hand-out containing two supplementary conversations including the intended speech act (i.e., advice, suggestion, direction giving, agree/disagreeing, compliments, greeting) used in different situations. The samples were taken from the sources mentioned above. The hand-outs were collected after one minute. It was assumed that in this short period (i.e., one minute) students would not be able to memorize and copy the transcript. Having returned the samples, learners worked to create the dialogue in written modality as complete and relevant as possible. These tasks were not purely communicative and were of a controlled type. The explicit group received an explanatory hand-out, too, which explicitly described the intended pattern and exposed the participants to sample uses of the pattern. Moreover, the learners were to keep the hand-outs. The implicit group, however, did not receive any additional materials. This process was repeated for every treatment session and after the instruction was carried out, the post-test MCDCT was administered to all four groups on the 8th session. The analyses of variances of both the pre- and post-test represented if there were any significant differences between learners with regard to pragmatic awareness and would be interpreted as development in the area of inter-language (IL) pragmatics.

System of Correction in the Classes

To present the students with the feedback required in the +output and +explicit groups, the pragmatic mistakes or wrong doings were explained and corrected via presenting examples of the real situation. The prominent cultural concepts also were taken into consideration. The grammatical
mistakes and errors were, however, put into scrutiny through being local or global in nature. The global errors, which probably impeded the communication, were corrected and explained, while the local errors, which did not spoil the communicated meaning, were somehow ignored. The written and oral feedbacks, which the learners received, were pursued in the following sessions to check if they were keen enough to pay more attention to the pragmatic issues or not. The learners also provided the teacher (researcher) with their own comments and feedbacks.

Scoring Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Task

On MCDCT, students are assumed to choose the best response to the situation described. The question is what counts as the correct response. In order to determine the best response, five American native speakers were asked to do so and this served as the criterion. Considering this, one point was given to each correct answer, and the maximum score was 20 (with 20 scenarios).

4. Results

Pretest among Four Groups

A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the explicit and implicit types of instructions with and without output on the pretest of MCDCT. The F-observed value for comparing the mean scores of the four groups on the pretest of MCDCT is .071 (Table 3). This amount of F-value is lower than the critical value of 2.72 at 3 and 76 degrees of freedom. Based on these results, it can be concluded that there were not any significant differences between the mean scores of the four groups on the pretest of MCDCT.

Table 3
One-Way ANOVA Pretest of MCDCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>58.</th>
<th>59. Sum Squares</th>
<th>of</th>
<th>60. df</th>
<th>61. Mean Square</th>
<th>62. F</th>
<th>63. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>64. Between Groups</td>
<td>65. 1.138</td>
<td>66. 3</td>
<td>67. .379</td>
<td>68. 071</td>
<td>69. .975</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. Within Groups</td>
<td>71. 407.750</td>
<td>72. 76</td>
<td>73. 5.365</td>
<td>74.</td>
<td>75.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76. Total</td>
<td>77. 408.888</td>
<td>78. 79</td>
<td>79.</td>
<td>80.</td>
<td>81.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 displays the mean scores of the four groups on the pretest of MCDCT. The mean scores for the explicit plus output, explicit minus output, implicit plus output and implicit minus output groups are 13.10, 13.25, 13 and 13.30.
respectively.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics Pretest of MCDCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>82.</th>
<th>83.</th>
<th>84.</th>
<th>85.</th>
<th>86.</th>
<th>87. 95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
<th>88.</th>
<th>89.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Confidence Interval for Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lo</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bound</td>
<td>Bound</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90. N</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>100.13</td>
<td>101.2</td>
<td>102.4</td>
<td>103.12</td>
<td>104.14</td>
<td>105.9</td>
<td>106.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91. Me an</td>
<td>.1000</td>
<td>.22190</td>
<td>.9683</td>
<td>.0601</td>
<td>.1399</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92. Std. Deviation</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.48235</td>
<td>.3146</td>
<td>.5562</td>
<td>.9438</td>
<td>114.10</td>
<td>115.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93. St. Error</td>
<td>.111.3</td>
<td>.112.12</td>
<td>.113.13</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>94. Lower Bound</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>95. Upper Bound</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96. Minimum</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>97. Maximum</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that the four groups enjoyed homogeneous variances on the pretest of MCDCT- an assumption that must be met for an appropriate one-way ANOVA design. As displayed in Table 3 the probability associated with the Levene’s $F$-value of $2.31$ $(p = .082 > .05)$ is higher than the significance level of $.05$, i.e. the four groups enjoyed homogenous variances on the pretest of MCDCT.

Table 5
Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>143.</th>
<th>144. Levene Statistic</th>
<th>145. df1</th>
<th>146. df2</th>
<th>147. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>148. Pretest</td>
<td>149. 2.315</td>
<td>150. 3</td>
<td>151. 76</td>
<td>152. .082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153. Posttest</td>
<td>154. 2.515</td>
<td>155. 3</td>
<td>156. 76</td>
<td>157. .065</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post-test among Four Groups

A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the explicit and implicit types of instructions with and without output on the posttest of MCDCT. The F-observed value for comparing the mean scores of the four groups on the posttest of MCDCT is 3.11 (Table 6). This amount of F-value is higher than the critical value of 2.72 at 3 and 76 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the mean scores of the four groups on the posttest of MCDCT.

Table 6

One-Way ANOVA Posttest of MCDCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>158.</th>
<th>159. Sum of Squares</th>
<th>160. df</th>
<th>161. Mean Square</th>
<th>162. F</th>
<th>163. Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>164. Between Groups</td>
<td>165. 48.900</td>
<td>166. 3</td>
<td>167. 16.300</td>
<td>168. 3.113</td>
<td>169. .031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170. Within Groups</td>
<td>171. 397.900</td>
<td>172. 76</td>
<td>173. 5.236</td>
<td>174.</td>
<td>175.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>176. Total</td>
<td>177. 446.800</td>
<td>178. 79</td>
<td>179.</td>
<td>180.</td>
<td>181.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 displays the mean scores of the four groups on the posttest of MCDCT. The mean scores for the explicit plus output, explicit minus output, implicit plus output and implicit minus output groups are 16.10, 15.45, 15.30 and 13.95 respectively.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics Posttest of MCDCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>182.</th>
<th>183.</th>
<th>184.</th>
<th>185.</th>
<th>186.</th>
<th>187. 95% Confidence Interval for 188.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Although the $F$-value of 3.11 indicates significant differences between the mean scores of the four groups on the posttest of MCDCT, the a-priori contrast tests must be run to make the comparisons needed for each research question. As displayed in Table 8:

A: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the explicit (plus and minus output) and implicit (plus and minus output) groups ($t = 2.24; p = .027 < .05$). The explicit plus and minus output groups outperformed the implicit plus and minus output groups on the posttest of MCDCT. Thus, it is evident that there is significant difference between explicit and implicit types of instruction in teaching pragmatics.

B: There is not any significant difference between the mean score of the explicit and implicit plus output groups with the mean score of the explicit and implicit minus output groups ($t = 1.95; p = .054 > .05$). Thus, it is evident that there is no effect for pushed output on the pragmatic awareness of young Iranian adults.
There is not any significant difference between the mean score of the explicit plus output and implicit minus output groups on the posttest of MCDCT ($t = .89; p = .37 > .05$). Thus, it is evident that there is not any difference between explicit and implicit instruction regarding pushed output.

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A-Priori Contrasts Posttest of MCDCT</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit plus &amp; minus vs. Implicit plus &amp; minus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit &amp; implicit plus vs. Explicit &amp; implicit minus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit plus vs. Explicit minus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be noted that the four groups enjoyed homogeneous variances on the posttest of MCDCT— an assumption that must be met for an appropriate one-way ANOVA design. As displayed in Table 9 the probability associated with the Levene’s $F$-value of 2.51 ($p = .065 > .05$) is higher than the significance level of .05; i.e. the four groups enjoyed homogenous variances on the posttest of MCDCT.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene’s Test of Homogeneity of Variances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The present research was an attempt to investigate the effect of instruction type and pushed output tasks on young Iranian EFL learners' pragmatic awareness.
In order to do so, a version of MCDCT was developed, modified, validated, and checked both statically and via the experts’ view to reach the possible desired reliability. This test was used as the pre and posttests to measure learners’ development in pragmatic awareness affected by instruction, explicit teaching and noticing or the pushed output. The results obtained via one-way ANOVA of MCDCT posttest suggest that the instruction types in different groups have proved effective. Based on these results it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the mean scores of the four groups on the posttest of MCDCT. Therefore, explicit instructional type of teaching pragmatics and implicit, hidden instruction of pragmatic concepts do differ and might lead to different results. This is in line with Schmidt’s findings and discussions concerning “noticing theory” and explicit teaching since 1990s. The findings could also be in line with those of other researchers (Alcón, 2002; Kasper, 2001; Ohta, 1994) who indicate that apart from the type of input learners may be exposed to, learners’ active participation is a powerful force for the acquisition of pragmatics in the classroom setting.

Another significant factor, which could be focused on here, is the fact that pragmatic values of a foreign language are teachable, specifically explicitly, and they can be grasped by second or foreign language learners, even at the intermediate level, specifically by the young adults. Lingli and Wannaruck (2010) present that explicit instruction is relatively more efficient than the implicit type. Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh, and Fatahi (2004) also believe that in the foreign language context, the situation in which the learners of English in Iran are involved, explicit instruction takes further steps to pave the way for the enrichment of pragmatic knowledge of the learners.

Concerning the second research question, output instructional measures, developing corresponding dialogues, writing novel conversations, and performing the contextual cultural and pragmatic elements, have not proved effective in the development of pragmatic knowledge of the young adult learners of English in the Iranian context. This is not in line with what Swain (2000, p.210) has pointed out as “not only comprehending, but also producing the target language, is what makes learners find how the language is used in order to assert their intended meaning”. Based on Ellis (2008), the linguistic output is the main source of information about how a learner acquires a second language and this is the output which could be energizing for the learner to come up with a sound understanding which s/he requires to develop the second language. Considering what Ellis has focused on, the researchers believe that the young Iranian adults slightly benefited from the output process they went through in the study. The reason might be traced to the common teaching methodology and the classroom techniques both teachers and learners experience. It seems that, though the learners are not in close contact with the native situation, they have done their best to benefit from the class discussions about cultural
factors, pragmatic concepts and the like, either explicitly or implicitly.

The +output factor, though did not prove effective for the young adults, cannot be neglected in the second language development. Therefore, the researchers believe that other factors might have afforded the learners’ performance. These factors include the close connection of almost all young Iranian SLA learners with the mass media, the Internet, the satellite movies in English, the inquisitive mind of the youngsters who are interested in the foreign cultures and specifically the English world, the cultural points mentioned in the course books available in the market, and many other probable factors.

Concerning the third research question regarding the difference between explicit and implicit instruction in terms of output, the statistics revealed that there is not any significant difference between the mean score of the explicit plus output and implicit minus output groups’ mean score on the posttest of MCDCT (t = .89; p=.37>.05). Therefore, unlike the previous research results, explicit and implicit teachings did not prove to take priority over each other on the account of young Iranian learners of English at the intermediate level. Although this does not fully contradicts the concepts of noticing theory (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1994, and 2001) and conscious-raising theory (Ellis, 2003; Rutherford & Sherwood-Smith, 1985; Sheen, 1992), the findings of the present study cannot support the concepts presented in the abovementioned studies. This might refer back to the present nature of English language classes in Iranian schools and institutes, which mostly focus on explicit teaching. Therefore, the difference between the implicit and explicit presentations and instructions are not that much sensed by the young adult learners.

Another assumption which is raised based on the findings of the study could be the impact left by +output instruction on both explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic issues. The results of the study specify that + output instruction of speech acts carrying cultural, social, contextual, and pragmatic loads can be accomplished both implicitly and explicitly. This might be attractive enough and may leave enough room to say that pragmatic concepts are absorbed by the second/foreign language learners, whether they are in line with pragmatic noticing concept (Takahashi, 2005) or not.

Though the findings of the study were not in line with the prominent findings in the literature in some cases, the study was able to shed some light on the status of pragmatic literacy of speech acts among young Iranian adult EFL learners at the intermediate level. By raising one’s understanding of the nature of pragmatics of the Persian learners of EFL concerning English speech acts, the present study contributes to the field of SLA pragmatics. Also, this research seeks not only to improve our understanding of pragmatic development in speech act realization but also to enable us to incorporate effective methods of teaching pragmatics in the EFL classrooms through putting learners in the context of target language so that learners can
develop appropriate request behaviors similar to those of native speakers, making them to acquire the socio-pragmatic knowledge necessary to perform appropriate speech acts which are contextually proper under different social power and social distance situations.

REFERENCES


THE SUPPRESSION OF MEANING IN KAZUO ISHIGURO’S THE REMAINS OF THE DAY: A NARRATOLOGICAL STUDY

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Abstract

Undertaking a narratological study of Kazuo Ishiguro’s The Remains of the Day, this article makes the attempt to focus on the way the language of the novel suppresses the meaning of the narrative. After illuminating the concept of meaning suppression and its formation, the study offers two strategies with which meaning suppression shows its manifestation in the novel: the unreliability of the narrator and the employment of the figurative language. There are many influential factors in the unreliability of the narrator that contributes to meaning suppression: first-person narrator, memory telling, discursive habits of the narrator and the contradiction between scenic presentations and commentaries. The other strategy contributing to the suppression of meaning in the novel is the figurative language. The figurative devices in this novel, metaphor, metonymy, irony and euphemism deviate the meaning from its conventional process of understanding and pave the way for the formation of meaning suppression. The presence of these two strategies provides a version of the novel which comes to contradict with the reality of the events. The reader by comprehending these techniques can have a better understanding of the novel.

Keywords: Narratology, Suppression of Meaning, Unreliable Narrator, Figurative Language, Metaphor, Metonymy
1. Introduction

The Japanese-born, English-raised Kazuo Ishiguro, one of the most popular British writers of his generation, was born in Nagasaki, Japan, on 8 November 1954. He is the author of seven critically acclaimed novels. Ishiguro’s narratives and his employment of distinct narrative techniques make his works absolutely distinguished.

Ishiguro tells of his own style of writing in this way:

The language I use tends to be the sort that actually suppresses the meaning and tries to hide away meaning rather than chase after something just beyond the reach of words. I am interested in the way words hide meaning. (qtd in Vorda and Herzinger, 2008, p. 70-71)

The study argues that any kind of deviation from the conventional process of meaning formation whether major or minor can be considered as the actualization of meaning suppression. The very formation of meaning suppression is due to the fact that in literary language the meaning is not static. The dynamicity of literary language allows the meaning to be reversed or suppressed. This fact is actualized in Michael Riffaterre’s Text Production which indicates that the literary language has one referent which is not to be found in reality or in the author’s intentions. In this case it is nonsense to speak about the truthfulness of such a text. (cf. Riffaterre, 1983, p. 88). What Riffaterre is indicating here, is the fact that there is no rigidity in the meaning of literary language and that this dynamicity gives dimension to the meaning enabling the language to reverse and suppress the meaning.

2. Review of related literature

One of the first researches that have been done on The Remains of the Day as the corpus of this article is, Understanding Kazuo Ishiguro by Brain W. Shaffer (1998). This book considers Ishiguro’s novels to be intricately crafted, psychologically absorbing, hauntingly evocative works that betray the author’s grounding not only in the literature of Japan but also in the great twentieth-century British and Irish masters as well as in Freudian psychoanalysis (cf. Shaffer 1998:21).

Burkhard Niederhoft’s “Unlived lives in Kazuo Ishiguro’s The Remains of the Day and Tom Stoppard’s The Invention of Love (2011) is another essay that has been done on the novel. The essay is about things not happened or not spoken in the novel which is the main issue of the present article’s discussion; that is Ishiguro’s interest in the way words suppress meaning. The essay also puts focus on ‘excessive repetition’ as a key point in his unreliability as a narrator (p. 172).

What helps this article in terms of its theoretical frameworks is Robyn Warhol’s
“Neonarrative; or, How to Render the Unnarratable in Realist Fiction and Contemporary Film” (2005). In this article Warhol uses unnarration which she defines as “those passages that explicitly do not tell what is supposed to have happened, foregrounding the narrator’s refusal to narrate” (221). This definition to some extent accords with the suppression of meaning but the suppression of meaning tends to be more comprehensive than unnarrated since it is any kind of deviation from the normal process of meaning formation.

3. Methods of research

The scope of this thesis revolves around Narratology and this study aims to undertake a narratological study of Ishiguro’s The Remains of the Day. The term narratology has been coined by Tzvetan Todorov who believed that narratology is the science of narrative or ‘la science du récit’. In this regard one can define narratology as “a discipline that is a system of scientific practices for research into the conditions of possibility of an object domain called narrative” (Meister, 2003, p. 57). The focus of this article is to deal with those aspects of narratology which puts light on the things not narrated in a narrative. In order to approach this realm, the thesis makes use of Gerald Prince’s ideas regarding the unnarrated which falls into the category of the unnarratable.

The present study makes use of two techniques which contribute to the way the language of the narrative suppresses the meaning: the first one is the unreliability of the narrator and the second is the use of the figurative language. The traces of the unreliability of the narrator enable the narrative to divert the reader from the reality of the novel. The first-person narrator, memory-telling, discursive habits of the narrator and the inconsistencies between scenic presentation and commentaries are factors that demonstrate the unreliability of the narrator and at the same time contribute to the suppression of meaning in the narrative.

The figurative language has the potentiality to divert the language from its normal usage, making it go through meaning deformation and end in meaning reversion and suppression; in this way the reality of the novel is narrated through a veil. At the same time that the figurative language can create meaning, it can also suppress meaning since the tropes due to their figurative aspect do not offer the intended meaning in their surface level. Robyn Warhol’s (2005) idea regarding the way the figurative devices can suppress meaning is also employed in this article. The figures this study introduces as means for the suppression of meaning in The Remains of the Day are metaphor, metonymy, irony and euphemism.

4. Discussion
Three research questions will be posed with regard to *The remains of the day* which the article tries to answer throughout its discussion.

1. How does the unreliability of the narrator contribute to the suppression of meaning?

2. How does the figurative language contribute to the suppression of meaning?

3. What results are achieved due to the suppression of meaning?

### 4.1. The Unreliability of the narrator contributes to meaning suppression

The unreliable narrator is coined by Wayne Booth in 1961. According to Booth a narrator is reliable when he speaks for or acts in accordance with the norms of the work which is the norms of the implied author and he calls a narrator unreliable when he does not. (cf. qtd in Bal, 2007, pp.144-5). This definition has raised many controversies because it has tried to define unreliability according to implied author, while the latter itself is a vague term. Nunning designs a tripartite structure for unreliability that consists of “an authorial agency, textual phenomenon (including a personalized narrator and signals of unreliability) and reader response (ibid: pp. 90-1). This indicates that “the projection of an unreliable narrator depends on both textual information and extra textual conceptual information located in the reader’s mind” (ibid: p. 98).

The unreliability of the narrator has some potentialities which enables the text to suppress the real intentions of the narrative. Many factors help the unreliability of the narrator to suppress the reality of the novel. The first one is the first-person narrators which are more liable to unreliability due to their “personal involvement” (Rimmon-kenan, 2005, p. 104) in the story. The involvement of the narrator in the story he/she is narrating, flavors the story with kind of biased judgments which serves his/her own purposes. William Riggan claims that: “First-person narration is, then, always at least potentially unreliable, in that the narrator, with these human limitations of perception and memory and assessment, may easily have missed, forgotten, or misconstrued certain incidents, words, or motives” (1981, p.19).

When this becomes the case, the first-person unreliable narrator due to its evaluation and biased judgments cannot provide the readers with honest reports and in this regard the meaning of the narrative of the novel is suppressed by the narrator. Ishiguro’s preoccupation with the first-person narrator is intriguing. Brian W. Shaffers claims that:

All of Ishiguro’s novels are shown to capture first-person narrators in the intriguing act of revealing—yet also of attempting to conceal beneath the surface of
their mundane present activities—the alarming significance and troubling consequences of their past lives. (1998, p. 45)

The choice of first-person narrator in *The Remains of the Day* is in line with the intentions of the novel since it conceals many realities from the novel. Stevens’ biased interpretations of the letter Miss Kenton has written (Ishiguro, 1993, p.9), his biased defenses toward lord Darlington (ibid, p.61) throughout the narrative are important factors which hide the realities of the novel and which would not be possible with a third-person narrator. Therefore, not only is the first-person narrator an appropriate device for heightening the unreliability of the narrator but also a useful device for the suppression of meaning.

The next factor to be discussed in the article is memory-telling. Memory is precious to man; with the help of memories one can rewrite his past. Narrating the past has a freeing and healing effect on the narrators, but it simultaneously underscores the unspeakability, as well as the absolute unrepresentability of the real event. Marc Green has done a research within which he discusses the reasons for memory unreliability. First of all he argues that memory is blurred: “Images in our mind’s eye are never as clear as an actual perception” (Green, p. 2013). But no quotation could better illustrate how memory is influential in unreliability of the narrator and meaning suppression than Ishiguro’s own:

I need to keep reminding people that the flashbacks aren’t just a clinical, technical means of conveying things that happened in the past. I like blurred edges around these events, so you’re not quite certain if they really happened and you’re not quite certain to what extent the narrator is deliberately coloring them. (qtd in Shaffer and Wong, 2008, p. 48)

To begin with Stevens’ own quote in the novel would be an appropriate starting point: “It is possible this is a case of hindsight coloring my memory […]” (Ishiguro, 1993, p. 87). The quotation reveals that Stevens himself knows that memory is liable to forgetfulness and confusion and in this case it provides a good ground for the unreliability of the narrator and the suppression of meaning. In *The Remains of the Day*, Stevens distorts his past memories and the reason for that is the fact that he aims to suppress the fact that he has wasted his life. As a consequence, with the help of these distorted memories Stevens is able to present another version of the events that have happened in the past which are not the reality of the events and in this case he aims to justify the righteousness of his own way of life to his narratees.

One of the most important factors as the indication of unreliability and meaning suppression in *The Remains of the Day* is the ‘discursive habits’ of the narrator. The study divides these habits into three categories: repetitions, self-justifications and addressing the narratee. The study will show how
neatly some minor habits or the use of some particular words by the narrator determine the unreliability of the narrator and how these habits enable the language to suppress meaning. Starting with repetitions the study indicates that Michael Billig in his *Freudian Repression* states that if one keep saying unbidden ‘I’m not in love with him you know’ then the listener would suspect something about the authenticity of his words (cf. Billig, 2004, p. 204). Repetition is what Niederhoft has also paid attention to in his “Unlived Lives in Kazuo Ishiguro’s *The Remains of the Day*” within which he regards excessive repetition as a key to unlived lives:

Since the unlived life is frequently the object of a desire that remains repressed or at least unfulfilled, the desire will continue to exist, seeking some sort of outlet or expression. Repetition here indicates an excess of desire, an overflow of feeling that has never been translated into action. (2011, p. 172)

Therefore, Stevens’ recurrent reading of Miss Kenton’s letter could be an implicit indication of his attachment toward the housekeeper. Therefore, the repetitions can be good motifs to trace the unreliability of the narrator.

Self-justification is another discursive habit which is influential in the suppression of meaning. The concept has close affinity with Freud’s self accusation: “Why should one defend oneself against an unmade accusation, unless one is seeking to prevent or counter a self- accusation? The self-accusation would be impossible without the imagination of the shameful wish” (qtd in Bilig, 2004, p. 204). The same could be applied to self-justification; if one makes the attempt to justify his behavior without being asked to do that, one is suspected to have doubt about what he is saying. Stevens’ habit for calling the former housekeeper Miss Kenton rather than her current name, Mrs. Benn (cf. Ishiguro, 1993, pp. 47-8), his recurrent claim that his journey is purely professional in tone (ibid, pp.26) and his justifications for reading a sentimental novel for improving his command of English language (ibid, pp. 167-8) are good manifestations for the narrator’s self-justifications. Michael Billig’s says: “Beware tales of self-justification, for they are also tales of self-presentation, concealing more than they reveal” (2004, p. 7). In this quote Billig considers self-justifications as concealing which illuminates the fact that the person provides the readers with justifications which suppress and conceal his real intentions since his intentions are not in line with what he aims to show to the readers. As a consequence due to these justifications, the reader is faced with another version of the events which are quite far from the reality of the events.

Addressing the narratee as the last of the discursive habits of the narrator contributes to the suppression of meaning. Throughout the novel, one will note that Stevens frequently addresses his narratees: “I think you will understand” (Ishiguro 1993: 5), “But you will no doubt agree” (Ishiguro, 1993,p. 9), “you will no doubt appreciate” (ibid, p.14), “Perhaps you might be persuaded” (ibid, p 34), “For you must understand” (ibid, p.177). The
reason for these references to the narratee is the narrator’s desire to urge the reader to follow him in the course of the novel and to share his interpretations of the events. One will note that the narrator addresses the narratee only when he knows that what he is saying may not be encouraging or reliable like the following situation:

I hope you do not think me unduly vain with regard to this last matter; it is just that one never knows when one might be obliged to give out that one is from Darlington Hall, and it is important that one be attired at such times in a manner worthy of one's position. (ibid: p.11)

This quotation shows the hesitancy of the narrator from what he is narrating. The phrase ‘I hope you do not think me unduly vain’, is reminiscent of the fact that the narrator feels that what he is saying may not encourage the reader to accompany him in what he is saying because it is not encouraging enough; that is why he addresses the narratee. As a consequence addressing the narratee is a strategy on the part of the unreliable narrator to justify the authenticity of his saying. The narrator by making the reader follow him in what he is saying tries to distort the reader from coming to the reality of the novel.

The last factor as one of the clues for the unreliability of the narrator and which contributes to the suppression of meaning in The Remains of the Day is the inconsistencies between scenic presentations and commentaries. The article proves that in the presentation of both, the narrator is unreliable in the way that in the former he suppresses his real feelings and self and in the latter he brings justifications for what he had done or said. There are also moments in the narrative of the novel when the narrator evades commentary and just provides the reader with scenic presentations. In such cases the reader falls into bewilderment because there are no commentaries to illuminate the narrator’s standing point; therefore the implied author makes other characters reveal the real emotions of the narrator.

One memory in this regard is narrated in day three of the journey when Stevens wants to offer his condolence to Miss Kenton due to the death of her aunt but as soon as he encounters Miss Kenton and comes to dialogue with her, he reminds her of some professional tasks Miss Kenton should be more careful about (cf. Ishiguro, 1993,p. 176-77). It is quite clear that during this scene, he suppresses his true self and instead presents the readers with another version of himself which puts light on his professional attitudes. Therefore one sees a difference between what the narrator said he would do and what he did, bringing no reason for this discrepancy.

When the narrator refuses to present his interpretation of the events, the implied author steps in and uses other devices like the involvement of other characters to illustrate the reality of the novel for the reader.

-Stevens, are you all right?
Yes, sir. Perfectly.

-You look as though you're crying.

I laughed and taking out a handkerchief, quickly wiped my face. I'm very sorry, sir. The strains of a hard day.

-Yes, it's been hard work. (ibid, p. 105)

The extract above illuminates something important about Steven’s personality which he himself was not willing to reveal to his narratees. These conversations show how the narrator tried to suppress his own emotions by not revealing his real feeling to the reader and how other characters helped the reader conquer the veil the narrator has created.

4.2. The figurative language contributes to meaning suppression

While the literary language is what the words mean in standard usage, figurative language is a departure from standard meaning. In this regard, the way the figurative language creates meaning is different from the way the literal language creates meaning. While the latter conveys meaning in its surface level, the former’s surface level is not its intended meaning. According to Harold Bloom, the American literary critic who has done many researches on figurative language, “figurations or tropes create meaning, which could not exist without them, and this making of meaning is largest in authentic poetry, where an excess or overflow emanates from figurative language, and brings about a condition of newness” (2004, p. 1). A comprehensive research has been done by Gernsbacher and Robertson on the role suppression plays in understanding figurative language. They claim that in order to understand figurative language one should suppress the literal meaning and focus on the figurative meaning (cf. Gernsbacher and Robertson, 1999, p. 1622). In understanding the figurative language, the reader proposes a different interpretation of meaning which starts from a kind of deviation from conventional meaning, goes through meaning deformation and ends in meaning reversion and suppression. The figurative devices to be discussed in this article to illustrate their potential in meaning suppression are metaphor, metonymy, irony and euphemism. Robyn Warhol in her article “Neonarrative; or, How to Render the Unnarratable in Realist Fiction and Contemporary Film” (2005) claims that Victorian narrative due to some limitations it has to narrate prohibited issues like sex for example “uses euphemism, allusion, metaphor, and especially metonymy to signify sexual connection between characters” (2005, p. 224). Each narrative which deems an issue not in line with its frameworks and intentions can use these figures in order to hide the prohibited issue. The aged butler of Darlington Hall, due to his care for the concept of dignity consistently suppresses the reality of the events since they are not in line with what he aimed to connote to his narratees.
Metaphor is defined as “a word or expression that in literal usage denotes one kind of thing is applied to a distinctly different kind of thing, without asserting a comparison” (Abrams, 1999, p. 97). One of the most important metaphors within the narrative of the novel is Stevens’ definition for the concept of dignity. He defines it as “not removing one’s clothing in public” (Ishiguro, 1993, p.210). The very definition is a metaphor since Stevens has compared dignity to a person who should not take off his clothes in front of other people. Dignity in Stevens’ mind is the inhibition to reveal one’s real self and in this case the relation between the two is that of similarity. But if the reader goes to the novel he/she will see that the doctor, to whom Stevens is speaking with, does not understand the metaphor Stevens uses by saying “Sorry. What does?” (ibid); this indicates his bemusement toward the definition. Therefore, the definition rather than illuminating the nature of dignity suppresses its nature.

Metaphor is a useful device for hiding the reality of what should not be narrated because it diverts the language from its normal and clear form and makes it follow its own rules which are more or less far from the surface meaning of the sentence. Jacque Lacan in his attempt to draw a distinction between metaphor and metonymy argues that metaphor functions to suppress while metonymy functions to combine and that the formula of metaphor is one word for another meaning that in metaphor one meaning is substituted for the other meaning therefore, the first meaning is suppressed in order for the second one to be accepted (cf. Lacan qtd in Grigg, 2009, p. 155).

Metonymy as one of the most important figurative devices is “a figure of language and thought in which one entity is used to refer to, or in cognitive linguistic terms ‘provide access to’, another entity to which it is somehow related” (Littlemore, 2015, p.4). Two types of metonymy could be seen more than the other types in the narrative of The Remains of the Day: the part for whole metonymy (synecdoche) and metonymy of containment. To see the best of England “within these very walls” (Ishiguro, 1993, p. 4) is a metonymic comment by the narrator. The wall as part of the house has been used metonymically to refer to the house as a whole. Evidence for the use of metonymy of containment is the following: “Now, in these quiet moments as I wait for the world about to awake, I find myself going over in my mind again passages from Miss Kenton’s letter” (ibid: p.47). To ‘wait for the world to awake’ is a metonymic comment since it is not the world which he is waiting to be awake but the people and living beings within that.

Based on what Lacan has achieved in following Jakobson’s ideas about the term, metonymy functions to combine. For Jakobson, the mode of combination, functions to join distinct meaning units together by locating them within the same context, and as such it comes with the implication of difference, discrimination, contiguity, and displacement. (cf. Jakobson. 2002, pp.25-8). These researches illuminate that metonymy state the meaning in a way that
the surface meaning is not the correct meaning rather a close association or contiguity with the surface meaning is the correct meaning of the sentence.

Henry Watson Fowler, in The King’s English, defines irony as "any definition of irony—though hundreds might be given, and very few of them would be accepted—must include this, that the surface meaning and the underlying meaning of what is said are not the same" (1906, p.140). Two kinds of ironies will be discussed in this part: irony of situation and dramatic irony. The former is defined as “a situation where the outcome is incongruous with what was expected, but it is also more generally understood as a situation that includes contradictions or sharp contrasts” (Elleström, 2002, p.51). The latter “involves a situation in a play or a narrative in which the audience or reader shares with the author knowledge of present or future circumstances of which a character is ignorant” (Abrams, 1999, p.136).

The very title of the novel could be good manifestation of situational irony in the narrative. ‘The remains of the day’ with its indication of what remains of a day makes the reader expect a narrative about the future but what the reader encounters throughout the narrative is a preoccupation with the past and the nostalgic desire for the past events. This irony of situation could be a good proof for showing what one sees in the surface of the novel is not necessarily the reality.

One of the most important manifestations of dramatic irony is the fact that the reader form the very beginning of the novel understands that Stevens’ goal in undertaking this journey is to offer the former housekeeper to come back to Darlington hall in order to fill the staff shortage (cf. ibid: p.5). The housekeeper herself is however ignorant of this fact and even to the ending of the novel does not understand that the narrator had such an aim. Had she known the reason for the meeting, she would dismiss it from the beginning since she has no desire to return to Darlington hall.

Harold Bloom in his book The Best Poems of English Language agrees with Kenneth Burke: “As Burke tells us, irony commits those who employ it to issues of presence and absence, since they are saying one thing while meaning something so different that it can be the precise opposite” (2004: p.1). Therefore all the documents illuminate this fact that irony has the potentiality to suppress meaning because the surface meaning is not the intended meaning. In this regard the surface sentence tries to suppress the intended meaning of the text.

Euphemism as the last of the figurative devices influential in the formation of meaning suppression is defined as “an inoffensive expression which is used in place of a blunt one that is felt to be disagreeable or embarrassing” (Abrams, 1999, p.83). One of the characteristics of euphemism is that it avoids expressing the explicit term, choosing instead to tell the term in milder and more pleasant but not necessarily more explicit ways.
Throughout *The Remains of the Day* one will realize that the narrator creates a framework for his manner of behavior as a butler. He believes that “dignity has to do crucially with a butler’s ability not to abandon the professional being he inhabits” (Ishiguro, 1993, p. 42). Such a framework makes some of the issues forbidden for the narrator. One of these forbidden and embarrassing issues for the narrator of this novel is his manner toward love and his affair with Miss Kenton. Whenever he talks about the reason for his trip, Miss Kenton and her return to Darlington hall, he immediately states that this trip is professional and that his desire for Miss Kenton’s return to Darlington hall is merely for professional reasons (cf. ibid: p.5). As a butler who devotes himself to his profession and who believes that a butler should not remove his professional being in front of the public, confessing the love desire for somebody else would deem to be a forbidden matter. Therefore the narrator tries to suppress the offensive matter which in this case is his love desire for the housekeeper and instead offer a matter which is more in line with his frameworks which in this case is the professional reasons he brings for his intentions.

Robyn Warhol the famous feminist believes that Victorian narratives due to their care for decorum and restraint used euphemism to avoid unpleasantness. Issues such as sex were to be indicated by euphemism: “Victorian narrative uses euphemism, allusion, metaphor, and especially metonymy to signify sexual connection between characters, but never narration - and not even unnarration of the kind premodernist novels use to represent sentimental affect” (Warhol, 2005, p.224). This information put light on the fact that euphemism like other rhetorical devices has the potentiality to suppress and hide the meaning of the narrative since it alienates the sentence from its normal process and tells it in other forms which may divert the reader from the very plain and explicit meaning. **Results**

The results of the study are as follows:

1. The first-person narrator, the unreliable memories, the discursive habits of the narrator and the inconsistencies between scenic presentations and commentaries as elements of the unreliability of the narrator all were sufficient factors for making the meaning to deviate from the normal process of meaning formation.

2. Metaphor, metonymy, irony and euphemism as figurative devices contribute to meaning suppression. This technique enables the narration to deviate the meaning from the normal process of meaning formation causing gaps between the narrated parts and the reality.

3. The reader who comes to the point that the narrative of the novel consistently deviates him/her from the reality of the events due to the author’s employment of such techniques as the unreliable narrator and the figurative language. The by-product of these deviations which the research
calls the suppression of meaning is another version for the novel; a version which comes to contradict with the surface version the unreliable narrator and the figurative language were trying to impose. The reader’s awareness of these two techniques makes him to put aside the surface meaning to grasp the reality out of it.

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THE STATUS OF E.L.DOCTOROW’S BILLY BATHGATE IN AMERICAN BILDUNGSROMAN TRADITION: A SEMIOTIC ANALYSIS

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Abstract

The present paper offers a semiotic analysis of E.L.Doctorow’s Billy Bathgate (1989). Semiotic approach is the study of signs. Greimas is the leading theoretician of the Paris School of Semiotics. This article makes use of his Actantial model to analyze Billy Bathgate. E. L. Doctorow is known for writing historiographic metafiction. The novel is a bildungsroman which means that it surveys the mental and physical growth of Billy as the protagonist. The present research also tries to show Doctorow’s importance by creating a link between his work and the classics of American bildungsroman or coming of age stories like Adventures of Huckleberry Finn (1884), This Side of Paradise (1920) and The Catcher in the Rye (1951). Finally, the paper concludes that all the four specified novels have the American bildungsroman characteristics of first person narration, American dream, deep social and historical background and the story as an odyssey. Moreover, the research refers to Doctorow’s contribution to this tradition by highlighting Billy Bathgate’s exclusive features such as internal focalizer, poetic language, postmodernity, and optimism.

Keywords: E.L.Doctorow, Billy Bathgate, American Bildungsroman Tradition, A.J.Greimas, Semiotics, Actantial model

1. Introduction

E.L.Doctorow was a lone figure of American literature. He was a leftist, Jewish, American writer of Russian descent. He wrote many novels, short story collections and essays and won notable awards. He is famous for his
Historical metafiction. His characters are among those found in history and recorded documents. He is mostly known as the writer of *Ragtime* (1975) which is a historical novel with real figures like Henry Ford, Sigmund Freud, Carl Jung and more in it. Doctorow ruthlessly changes the history and blends it with fiction. *Billy Bathgate* is his seventh published work that also won notable awards. 1920’s and 1930’s are the focus of Doctorow in this particular novel. The protagonist of the novel is the fifteen year old boy named Billy Behan who is in search of American Dream. The narrator of the novel is the adult Billy who tells the story as a flashback. It is a coming of age story in which Billy is initiated into Dutch Schultz’s Jewish gang. He gets to know the ways of the world in the cruelest and most exciting periods of American history. He falls in love with Schultz’s moll and learns about responsibility, and loyalty. At the end he finds Schultz’s fortune and achieves the dream. Along the way, there is so many, failings and hardships, doubts and triumphs. The present study to place *Billy Bathgate* along with *Huckleberry Finn*, *This Side of Paradise* and *The Catcher*.

In order to do it an actantial analysis is performed to discover the actions and characters that form the texture of a typical coming of age story. The actantial model is adaptable to all forms of narrative and is not limited to the literary form. Sender, receiver, subject, object, helper and opponent are the components of the model. They can be individuals, actions or things. There is no distinction between animate and inanimate things in this analysis.

2. Review of the related literature

Our search shows that no semiotic-based thesis have already been written on Doctorow’s *Billy Bathgate*; nevertheless, there exists a number of critical works on this particular novel which are as follows:

Christopher Morris in his article entitled “‘The Songs of Billy Bathgate’: The Writer as Orphan, Killer, Performer” discusses the possible intertexts and similarities between songs of Billy Bathgate, a Prohibition black rapper and Doctorow’s novel.

Douglas Fowler in “Billy Bathgate” brings forth a brief critical analysis of the novel. He asserts that Doctorow mostly pays attention to the marginalized groups of society. He uses materials from sub-literature and turns them into a work of art. He also refers to Doctorow’s constant involvement with the idea of truth.

Minako Baba in “The Young Gangster as Mythic? American Hero: E. L. Doctorow’s *Billy Bathgate*” tries to show the importance of intertextuality in *Billy Bathgate*. Minako claims that, Saul Bellow’s *The Adventures of Augie March* (1953) and Mark Twain’s *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* are the major intertexts of *Billy Bathgate*. Furthermore, The Genre of *Billy Bathgate* is mentioned as Bildungsroman. The role of women, Jews, Dutch Schultz and
history in this novel are the other subjects that this article has briefly covered.

Janice Stewart Heber in “The X-Factor in E. L. Doctorow's ‘Billy Bathgate': Powerless Women and History as Myth” explains the role of women specially Drew Preston in the novel. She analyzes the story with the help of feminist critics’ ideas about feminine identity in patriarchal society. Furthermore, she emphasizes the role of irony, gender, and history in Doctorow's poetics and politics.

Paul V. Banker’s article “Doctorow's Billy Bathgate and Sophocles's Oedipus Rex” is about a sort of comparison between the two novels. First, the importance of fate in the stories; second, Billy’s love affair with Drew Preston, and her mother like relationship to him which is the reminder of Oedipus’s marriage to his mother, Jocasta; and finally, Billy abandoning the father like Dutch Schultz and the gang, which is similar to Oedipus’s exile.

3. Methods of research

The field of Semiotics was founded by the Swiss philosopher Ferdinand de Saussure and his American counterpart Charles Sanders Peirce. Saussure’s version of the science is called Semiology. His book Course in General Linguistics (1916) is a compilation of notes written down by his students in his classes. Saussure himself did not publish anything in his lifetime, therefore we are indebted to his students for all we know about this great philosopher. Saussure tried to give language the utmost importance in human thinking and communication. Saussure mostly rejects the importance of historical provenance and cultural contexts and gives the priority only to language itself as an autonomous system of thought. Language is the thing that creates our subjectivity.

Charles Sanders Peirce as the cofounder of the field of semiotics was an American philosopher and pragmatist. Peirce coined the term Semiotics and it covered the whole field since then, although the European or continental semiotics gravitates more toward Saussurian semiology and ideas which he propagated. The crucial distinction between Peircian semiotics and Saussurian Semiology is Peirce’s triadic model of signs and Saussure’s dyadic one. Another difference is that Peirce considers the role of history, context and society as important as language itself. In his model language is less autonomous and more dependent upon the outside world.

The semiotician that shall have the greatest impact for this particular study is A.J. Greimas. In the following chapter of the paper a semiotic approach will be undertaken to Billy Bathgate. The main model of semiotic analysis will be that of the Lithuanian born French semiotician Algirdas Julien Greimas. Greimas himself has done an exhaustive semiotic analysis on Guy de Maupassant’s short stories in his Maupassant-The Semiotic of Text (1988). His theory of Actantial model is applied to the story at hand. Greimassian model of analyzing works of literature is very detailed and systematic. He
claims and promotes the idea that any type of narrative can be analyzed with his Structuralist models. Semiotic Square, Isotopy and Actantial model are the most well-known developments of Algirdas J. Greimas’s semiotics. Greimassian Actantial model consists of three binary oppositions: (1) subject vs. object (Propp’s hero vs. sought for person), (2) sender vs. receiver, and (3) helper vs. opponent. (Noth, 1995, p.372)

Greimas in his actantial model believes that “the forwarding of the plot-the movement from conflict to resolution, struggle to reconciliation, separation to union and so forth- involves the transfer of some entity (a quality or an object) from one actant to another (cited in Tyson 1999, p.225) .Analyzing Billy Bathgate using an actantial analysis is to know the function of each character and to discover how they influence the main character of the novel. The researcher tries to analyze the character development of the protagonist by employing the actantial model.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. American bildungsroman and its major features

There is no particular word or phrase to name the fashion of story writing of great American writers such as Mark Twain, J.D.Salinger and F.Scott Fitzgerald, and the researcher tried to coin the term, American bildungsroman tradition, for better understanding and also as the nearest possible term that can be addressed to this particular style of American literature.

The American bildungsroman tradition has the following characteristics:

1. Situating an adolescent narrator at the focal point of the narrative which is related to the American Dream (Billy along with Huck, Amory and Holden)
2. Deep social background
3. The Stories as Odysseys

It appears that the first American bildungsroman is Mark Twain’s The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn (1884). Other important American Bildungsromans are as the following in the order of publication: Henry James’ What Maisie knew (1897), Jack London’s Martin Eden (1909), F.Scott Fitzgerald’s This Side of Paradise(1920), Margaret Mitchell’s Gone with the Wind(1936), J.D.Salinger’s The Catcher in the Rye(1951), Ralph Ellison’s Invisible Man(1952), Philip Roth’s Goodbye, Columbus(1959), John Knowles’ A Separate Peace(1959), Harper Lee’s To Kill a Mockingbird(1960), and Philip Roth’s Indignation(2008).

The study tries to show the similarities between Billy Bathgate, Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, This Side of Paradise and The Catcher in the Rye. It also explores Doctorow’s contribution to the tradition to demonstrate his important status.

4.2. Billy Bathgate as a bildungsroman

Narration and Focalization in the specified novels
This chapter discusses different levels of narration that exists in *Billy Bathgate*. The narrator of the story is Billy the adult and the focalizer is the teenager Billy. In chapter one, the study has referred to this case and proposed that this double point of view endows the story with new depths. The concept of focalization was first coined by the French literary theorist Gerard Genette. He tried to introduce a more complex term for the Point of View. The following is the features that Rimmon-Kenan proposes for narration and focalization in general:

1. In principle, focalization and narration are distinct activities.
2. In so-called ‘third-person centre of consciousness’ (James’s *The Ambassadors*, Joyce’s *Portrait*), the centre of consciousness (or ‘reflector’) is the focalizer, while the user of the third person is the narrator.
3. Focalization and narration are also separate in first-person retrospective narratives.
4. As far as focalization is concerned, there is no difference between third-person centre of consciousness and first-person retrospective narration. In both, the focalizer is a character within the represented world. The only difference between the two is the identity of the narrator.

(Rimmon-Kenan 2005:75)

Gerard Genette differentiates between two types of focalizers namely external and internal focalizer. Another type is zero focalizer which is non-restricted in informing the reader. *Billy Bathgate* has an internal focalizer. Greimas refers to the narration/ focalization distinction respectively as “performative and cognitive functions of discourse” (Hansen et al., 2012, p.175). Therefore, for Greimas cognitive function of discourse is equal to Genette’s focalization. Greimas calls it enunciation. He goes on to say that: “the form resulting from the union of a signifier [signifiant] and a signified [signifie][…] at the time of the language act, for which we shall use the term enunciation, when semiosis takes place.” (Greimas and Courtes, 1976, p.433)

In *Billy Bathgate* it is the matter of difference between enunciator/author/sender/E.L.Doctorow versus enunciate/reader/receiver. The narrator of Doctorow’s novel is omniscient, knows about the past, present and the future of adolescent Billy. Certainly, a fifteen year old boy does not use such a rich and seasoned vocabulary in his language and speech. Furthermore, these words won’t exist in his stream of consciousness which is the way one thinks. Consequently, the narrator is the adult Billy and the focalizer (internal) or the camera is the eyes of the teenager Billy and this is Doctorow’s contribution to the American bildungsroman tradition.

From now on the present paper, compares the role of narrator in other specified bildungsromans. The first one is Mark Twain’s *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*. It has the first person narrator and point of view. The narrator and
protagonist of the novel is the twelve year old boy named Huck. He describes his adventures with his friends Jim and Tom Sawyer. The language is that of an adolescent and his vocabulary, grammar and worldview shows that it belongs to that exact same age.

There is some kind of metafictional hint in the beginning paragraph of the novel and in other places in the novel. The narrator has first person limited point of view. The narrator is conscious of the role of the author and also his readers. The language is in accordance with the protagonist’s age. It has internal focalization because it is restricted through the perspective of the agent.

Next novel is F.Scott Fitzgerald’s *This Side of Paradise*. This book is a bildungsroman and is about the education of an individual. The protagonist is Amory Blain a young egotist. The novel has a third person omnificent point of view narrator. It has zero focalization because it is not restricted in informing the reader.

The third novel is J.D.Salinger’s *The Catcher in the Rye*. The protagonist of the story is a 16 year old boy named Holden Caulfield. The story has first person point of view narration and also internal focalization.

In addition, Twain’s and Doctorow’s bildungsroman demonstrates the role of the so called American Dream. “Bildungsroman is ‘the story of a cultural moment’” (Bolaki, 2011, p.247). In addition, “The American dream prepares the possibility ‘in which every person’s Bildung might be fully realized’” (Buell, 2014, p.111). Moreover, the materialistic myth is concerned with the puritan work ethics and “relates to the values of effort, persistence, ‘playing the game,’ initiative, self-reliance, achievement, and success. (Winn, 1973, p. 161)

4.3. Social, Historical and Cultural Context of the Specified Novels

The social aspect is very important in *Billy Bathgate* along with *The Catcher in the Rye, This Side of Paradise* and *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*. Doctorow’s novel *Billy Bathgate*, like *Loon Lake* addresses the thirties and the Great Depression” (Jameson, 1997, p.26). Furthermore, “Prohibition thus provides a key to understanding the cultural divisions that separated Americans in the 1920s, as the United States was transformed by rapid economic growth and demographic changes” (Lerner, 2007, p.3). In addition, this feature will interest the common reader and endow it with an especial cultural status.

In the case of Mark Twain’s *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, Mississippi river and the locality of the novel, Anti-racist aspects regarding the character Jim and his relations with Huck, genre of Realism, theme of friendship and peace and finally vernacular style of Twain, are the main social features of the story. The novel is among the first originally American works of literature and in that Twain has tried his best to distance himself from earlier
European literary influences although the degree is controversial.

In F. Scott Fitzgerald’s *This Side of Paradise*, Amory Blaine is a student of English Literature in Princeton University and the overall academic environment is influential in the first part of the novel which is called ‘The Romantic Egotist’. He lives in the Prohibition and depression period in the history of America. A time of great instability. The country is bankrupt after Wall Street stock market crash and there is a lot of unemployment. The whole Europe is at war. Many immigrants come to America which is effective in the country’s rapid transformation. Black rights movement and women suffrage movement are other important events that happened during this period. In the second part of the novel which is called ‘Interlude’ he goes to war and in the final part ‘The Education of a Personage’, he falls in love with Rosalind and then she leaves him. He becomes dejected and depressed, like many in his generation.

In J.D. Salinger’s *The Catcher in the Rye*, the protagonist of the novel Holden Caulfield is a rebellious teenager. The novel occurs in the post war period. He is dissatisfied with simply everything with no apparent reason. He does not get along well with his family and friends. He is a transgressor of society’s old and rigid rules and values. The language of the novel is rather informal, intimate and friendly. Holden like Amory suffers from existential loneliness, anxiety and low self-esteem. He is not very good in social relationship and behaves cowardly in conversations. All of these show that in the novel social and cultural background is of great importance. Furthermore, Doctorow’s contribution to this bildungsroman feature is that he with the help of American dream, metaphors, irony, simile, newspaper facsimile reproductions, intertextual self-conscious discourse and openness adds poetics to the novel and manipulates the American documented history which also makes it an American postmodern historiographic metafiction. Regarding the role of poetics and its semiotic equivalent, Ronald Schleifer holds that,

One can always find the literary element within any discourse, such as the elements of “literariness” or “poeticity” that the Russian formalists and Jakobson described in the early twentieth century, or such as the “narrative grammars” that Greimas described. The noncommunicable aspect of language—its “music,” “poeticity,” or, in the language of Peirce, its “iconic” element—calls attention to its materiality. (Schleifer, 2009, p. xvii)

4.4. The Specified novels as Odysseys

A journey towards physical and mental maturation. This will also link it to the history of drama and story writing. Furthermore, the term, Odyssey, refers to the oldest masterpiece of the genre, Homer’s *Odyssey*. Graham holds that,

*The Catcher* is a member of the elite group of significant American novels that includes *Huckleberry Finn*, and is therefore a part of the American literary
tradition, Heiserman and Miller also relate The Catcher to one of the archetypal models of European literature: The Quest. This is the structural pattern most associated with the epic, in which an individual seeks an answer to a question or struggles to attain a goal, facing challenges along the way. This model is seen in Homer's Odyssey (c. 800 BC), in myths and legends from many cultures and in major works of literature. (Graham, 2010, p.83)

Finally, Billy Bathgate as an odyssey, transforms the narrative and the story itself to the life’s ultimate Truth and demonstrates that there are several meanings in life and there is a beginning, middle and end to it. Harold Bloom holds the following about odyssey, which can also be generalized about any other story written in this manner, “Passage, transition, change[…] Homer sets out in high relief, for the first time in European literature, the sense of the inexhaustible mystery of the changes of state or being, outward and inward, that constitute human life” (Bloom, 2007, p.5). Doctorow in Billy Bathgate adds optimistic attitude and hope to the story which distinguishes it from other three novels.

4.5. Applying Greimas’s model to the specified novels and the results of this application

The present chapter intends to discover a new insight about bildungsroman according to the applied semiotic approach. This is supposed to be the answer to the 3rd research question, which will clarify the status of Billy Bathgate in American Bildungsroman tradition. Here the Study shows the similarities between the function and the actants of each character in the specified stories. This illustrates the way Doctorow’s Billy Bathgate is a continuation of the previous American bildungsroman.

The research tries to apply a quinary analysis of narrative to the text. Reza Rezaei defines quinary analysis in the following words, “In the quinary model, the text is divided into five sequences: initial situation (steady state), the trigger node (change the initial situation), action (caused by the trigger node), the result (solves the situation) and the final situation (transformed).” (Rezaei, 2013, p.8) Similar to the Rezaei’s method, the study classifies the sections of the story. The five segments correspond roughly to the twenty numerical chapters in the novel. First we have a fifteen-year-old boy who is living with his weak mother who works in a laundry factory to earn for the both of them. Billy is playful and dreams of a lawless life, and because of that with his friends stealthily follows and watches the notorious gangsters of their district. He is curious to know about them, how they live, what they do and how they have become so famous, wealthy and powerful.

According to Duvall every narrative has six actants operating on three axes. Firstly, the study starts with Billy’s role as the protagonist and places him as the main focus of semiotic analysis. Afterwards, other characters will be the focus of actantial analysis in due order. Let us begin with the axis of desire.
In the first segment of the story (steady state) 1) Billy is the protagonist, focal point and the Subject(S) of the story who tries to changes the status quo of himself and his mother. Although he is jolly and playful, he has high hopes and dreams for future.

The above information can be presented in the following square:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sender</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Helper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environment, economic status</td>
<td>Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>Curiosity, firm will for change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Receiver</strong></td>
<td><strong>Object</strong></td>
<td><strong>Opponent</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>Fame and Fortune</td>
<td>Poverty, Consent to ordinary life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second segment of the story (trigger node), sudden turn of events happens when Dutch Shultz liked Billy’s juggling act and gives ten bucks to him; Billy tracks them down and finds their office and Otto “Abbadabba” Berman hires him as a janitor.

The actantial model for the second segment will be as the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sender</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Helper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fate/free will</td>
<td>Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>Juggling act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Receiver</strong></td>
<td><strong>Object</strong></td>
<td><strong>Opponent</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>Dutch Schultz</td>
<td>Consent to ordinary life, fear of gangsters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third segment of the story consists of actions that are caused by the trigger node. Billy’s actions in this segment include: 1. Chasing after Bo Weinberg and finding out about his suspicious meetings with Italian mafia; Exposing Bo to Dutch Schultz; Involving in the night at the boat; Watching Bo thrown into the bottom of the river; Promising to protect Drew Preston 2. Becoming Drew Preston’s guardian by Schultz’s order and also because he promised Bo to protect Drew 3. Conversion to Catholicism and adopting Bathgate as his surname after the street he and his mother were living in 4. Beginning an affair with Drew 5. Taking Drew to the races at Saratoga Springs and then avoiding her assassination by calling Harvey (Drew’s Husband) to collect her from there 6. Shadowing Thomas E. Dewey 7. Informing Schultz about Bo-Luciano plans to replace him. These are the events that occurred during the third segment of the novel. To formulate it in an actantial model:
In the fourth segment of the story which are the results that solve the situation, 1. Lucky Luciano’s gunmen attack Schultz’s chophouse and kill everyone in an instant. Billy escapes by the bathroom window, returns and takes Schultz to the hospital, 2. He babbles his last words which are the code to his safe and hidden fortune. 3. Lucky Luciano sends for him, arrests Billy and asks about the place of Shultz’s safe and Billy manipulates him by saying that Dixie Davis is the one who knows about it. At the end, Luciano dismisses him. It is formulated in this manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sender</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Helper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Dutch Schultz</td>
<td>1. Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>1. his watchfulness, infiltration ability,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dutch Schultz, Bo Weinberg</td>
<td>2. &quot;</td>
<td>and eaves dropping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dutch Schultz</td>
<td>3. &quot;</td>
<td>2. his obedience, his word of honor, his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Billy’s decision</td>
<td>4. &quot;</td>
<td>attraction to Drew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Dutch Schultz, Otto Berman</td>
<td>5. &quot;</td>
<td>3. his determination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. conscience, fear</td>
<td>7. &quot;</td>
<td>5. Harvey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td>6. his watchfulness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Dutch Schultz, Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>1. Bo Weinberg</td>
<td>7. courage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dutch Schultz, Bo Weinberg, Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>2. Drew Preston</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>3. initiation and conversion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. &quot;</td>
<td>4. Drew Preston</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. &quot;</td>
<td>5. Drew Preston</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Dutch Schultz</td>
<td>7. informing Dutch Schultz about Lucky Luciano-Bo Weinberg plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opponent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. danger of being exposed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fear of Dutch Schultz’s wrath and punishment, his inexperience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. hesitation, conscience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Dutch Schultz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Otto Berman’s hitmen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Police</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. fear, leaving the gang</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the fourth segment of the story which are the results that solve the situation, 1. Lucky Luciano’s gunmen attack Schultz’s chophouse and kill everyone in an instant. Billy escapes by the bathroom window, returns and takes Schultz to the hospital, 2. He babbles his last words which are the code to his safe and hidden fortune. 3. Lucky Luciano sends for him, arrests Billy and asks about the place of Shultz’s safe and Billy manipulates him by saying that Dixie Davis is the one who knows about it. At the end, Luciano dismisses him. It is formulated in this manner:
Finally, the fifth segment of the story is related to transformation. The novel was a bildungsroman from beginning to the end. Billy, the protagonist becomes initiated into one of the most notorious Jewish gangs in American history by chance and will of fate and wends his way to success and makes a reputation for himself. Drew Preston sends him their baby boy, the result of their affair and the night they shared together. Billy is now an adult and lives with his mother. He has made Abbadabba Berman’s dream come true by establishing his own corporation in which crime has become legitimate business.

The information above can be formulated in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sender</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Helper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Drew Preston</td>
<td>1. Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>1. conscience, love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Fate and Billy’s Bravery</td>
<td>2. Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>2. Courage, innovation, Schultz’s money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td>Opponent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Billy Bathgate</td>
<td>1. Billy’s son</td>
<td>1. mother sense</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From now on, the study surveys the similar actants and functions in *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, This Side of Paradise, The Catcher in the Rye* and *Billy Bathgate*. The function of each actant in *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* as a bildungsroman can be summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Actant</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Character</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>The subject is someone or something that is directed toward an object.</td>
<td>Huckleberry Finn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td>The object is someone or something that both Subject and Sender desire and search for</td>
<td>Curiosity, Adventure, Nonconformism for its own sake, Freedom, Escaping his oppressive neighborhood, Truth, Coming of Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sender</td>
<td>The sender is the person or the element requesting the establishment of the junction between subject and object, and desires to achieve the</td>
<td>Huckleberry Finn, Tom Sawyer,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Society, Tradition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>The receiver is the element for which the quest is being undertaken and finally receives the object.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Huckleberry Finn, Jim, Tom Sawyer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Helper</td>
<td>The helper assists in achieving the desired junction between the subject and object.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conscience, Loyalty, Good will, Tom Sawyer, Jim, Judge Thatcher, Aunt Polly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Opponent</td>
<td>The opponent hinders the achievement of the goal by the subject and also the junction between the subject and object.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The function of each actant in *This Side of Paradise* as a bildungsroman can be summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Actant Function</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Character</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Amory Blaine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Curiosity, Truth, Coming of Age, Love, Education, Knowledge, adulthood, self-understanding, Friendship, Socialism, Literature,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sender</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Amory Blaine, Society,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td></td>
<td>Amory Blaine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Helper</th>
<th></th>
<th>Curiosity, Rosalind Connaught, Beatrice Blaine, Monsignor Darcy, Thomas Park D'Invilliers, Dick Humbird, Burne Holiday, Alec Connaught, Jesse Ferrenby, Mr. Ferrenby, Isabelle Borges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Opponent</th>
<th></th>
<th>Egotism, Idealism, Society, Tradition, Religious dogmatism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The function of each actant in *The Catcher in the Rye* as a bildungsroman can be summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Actant Function</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Character</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Holden Caulfield</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Curiosity, Truth, Coming of Age, Love, Education, Knowledge, adulthood, self-understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sender</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Holden Caulfield, Society,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Holden Caulfield</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Helper</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Curiosity, Kindheartedness, Jane Gallagher, Phoebe Caulfield, Allie Caulfield, D. B. Caulfield, Sally Hayes, Mr. Spencer, Carl Luce, Mr. Antolini, Sunny, Maurice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opponent</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Conscience, Society, Tradition, Religious dogmatism, The</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The function of each actant in *Billy Bathgate* as a bildungsroman can be summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Actant</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Character</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Billy Bathgate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Object</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Fame, Fortune, Glory, Love, Coming of Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sender</td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Billy Bathgate, Dutch Schultz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The novels tell the story of Billy Behan as the protagonist and his characteristics and behavior which change drastically till he reaches adulthood. At the beginning of the novel, Billy is young, poor, playful, inexperienced, and naïve but during the course of the novel he becomes brave, experienced, hopeful, romantic, wise, responsible and rich. Analyzing E.L. Doctorow’s *Billy Bathgate* shows the hidden or deep structure of the text by revealing each and every character, action or thing that have had a role in the bildungsroman from the beginning to the end. By specifying the various roles of the actants in Billy’s mental and physical growth, the novel is decoded and a fresh meaning and perspective is available now. An actantial analysis on *Billy Bathgate* as a bildungsroman reveals each step in which he is grown in detail. It also shows his intentions, senders, helpers, opponent,
objects and more in every phase of his life as an adolescent. Furthermore, the study showed the similar manners in which American writers in different generation have continued this literary genre as an American literary heritage and also a lineage. As the suggestion for further research, a semiotic analysis of E.L.Doctorow’s *Ragtime* is a good candidate. The researcher hopes that this study will enrich reader’s knowledge regarding E.L.Doctorow’s oeuvre and the field of Semiotics.

References


New York: Routledge.
TRADITIONAL AND MODERN ELEMENTS OF ETHICS IN POETRY OF NIMA YUSHIJ

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Davoud Ramezani Parsa*
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* PhD student in Literature, Yasouj University. Ramezani.parsa@gmail.com

Abstract
Persian poetry in the history of a thousand years has gone through various transformations, sometimes rapidly and sometimes with pause. What is clear at this time among which is to note that the changes to the appearance of Hafez in the way has taken steps to excellence and development. After Hafez Persian poetry is a kind of vicious regress and if development of Hindi genre in the poetry comes not so deeply moving that can be considered to the evolution of Persian poetry. Constitutional reform was a fundamental change in all aspects, including Persian literature and poetry. In this way, Nima's position as the father of Persian poetry is very prominent position. Nima is reminiscent of the dramatic changes in the appearance of Persian poetry and for his scholarly thinking in theory a very wide range of content. This article attempts to discuss "Ethics in Nima's poem" the thing that is considered as one of the main themes of contemporary poetry.

Keywords: Contemporary poetry, Nima, Content, Traditional Ethics, Modern Ethics

Introduction
Ethics and its definition is one of the most complex and elusive topics of all ages leading to various descriptions and characteristics depending on philosophers' worldview. However, it can be said that ethics is rooted in ethos, the Greek word which is the knowledge of destructive and resuscitative qualities and how to be adorned with such liberating properties and be released from ruinous characteristics (Modarresi, 2009: 17). Accompanied with "ethics" discussion as a philosophical subject, there is another topic named "morals" which can be interpreted as "ethics in the public domain". In addition to ethics and moral philosophy, scholars have established another branch of knowledge whose duty is to study moral issues and events in an attainment manner as a series of social phenomena that can be examined. As a matter of fact, ethics is a branch of sociology that investigates
people's moral behaviors and manners in the society in different times and places (Ibid: 21-22). According to above mentioned, it can be concluded that what can be pursued in the literature of ethics concept is the "morals" not ethics in its philosophical sense. When reviewing ethical components of Nima's poetry, we also can see that what is displayed as moral issues in his poems can only be defined within the society and in dealing with all of its elements. Some of these ethical implications are as old as the history of human beings and some others could only be defined in the context of today's civil society and in connection with phenomena such as modernity. What is of great significance in Nima's poetry is the fact that he always highlights "individuality" and addresses the elements of lower importance such as soldier, kharkan (one who digs up prickly bushes) and night watcher as it can be referred to as one of Nima's innovations in the field of revolutionizing lyrics content. The traditional approach to the society system chain in the classic poetry is an individual and mechanical standpoint that disregards linkages between components and only considers larger and more important loops. But the new community approach to the society is of organic kind in which every component no matter how small it s affects other elements and gets affected by them (Abbasi, 2006: 172). This organic approach to the society is a topic that has turned into an evolved feature in Nima's poetry.

Discussion

To illustrate the place of ethics in the literature, we need to first understand what literature's nature is. This becomes clearer to some extent if we accept that the nature of any object is defined according to its function. Questions about functions and duties of literature has a long history and dates back to Plato time. After poets were driven from Plato's utopian society for reasons like imitation, tendency to romanticizing and ignoring reason, figures such as Aristotle, Horace and Sydney seems to have moderated this concept and described some privileges and advantages of literature that happened to have moral functions inside. Aristotle believes that what poets do is of great importance as they address issues that might happen so he defines tragedy by introducing catharsis or purification to point to its ethical use. After him, Horace defines two properties for poetry one creating pleasure and the other usefulness. Pleasure comes from creator's (poet) fair-minded endeavor and the usefulness is related to making abominable affairs look more beautiful and encouraging the reader to evolve and get better which highlights the stance of morality. Sydney introduces the poet as a teacher of ethical knowledge and believes that "a lie can also be a good thing provided that it is a virtual and symbolic way to teach moral principles" (Ditches, 2009: 99). He believes that poetry is only the most excellent means of declaration and its value lies in what it passes on. In his treatise, "A defense of Poetry" and against accusations charged by the church followers who were influenced by Plato's spiritual thoughts, Sydney demonstrates poet as the teacher of ethics and thus bridges literature and philosophy and mentions the moral function of poetry.

As Nima says, "in Kant's view, art is the apparent relationship between science and
ethics" (Nima, 1989: 8) thus influenced by such belief, he strongly emphasizes on artist's moral greatness and purity. Ladbon, Nima's brother was one of the people who had a enormous impact on his thoughts and beliefs. In a letter to Nima, Ladbon says: "burn even more and ignite up, it is my task and yours too to be burnt and faded out. My dear, always consider this point when writing that your thoughts and ideas must be in essence aimed to serve the painstaking people and to loathe the upper class" (Tahbaz, 2008: 32). For Nima, artistic function is not poetry's only quality. He is an idealist and people-oriented poet with thoughts originated from progressive ideas of his time. Aside from such poems that are purely social, Nima also brings up a philosophical or instructive and critical point in every story and allegory (Ibid: 159) which normally has a moral basis. In a letter to Rasam Arzhangi, Nima says: "if from now on it is clarified to me that my poems and literature is nothing but verbiage and has no use for people I'd leave it and join actors playing in a theatre to show off and bounce. You need to be purified and put all of your interests away to reach pure and favorable things" (Ibid: 160). And again, he says explicitly elsewhere: "I had a very uplifting moral spirit and lived with a pure heart and a free-standing soul. You have no idea how much it was adorned by morality" (Ibid: 194).

Research background

Numerous studies have been conducted on ethical issues in various fields and literature is no exception among which can be named two books one "ethics in Persian literature from the third to seventh century" by Charles-Henri de Fouchécour and the other "theoretical critiques of past Persian poetry from the perspective of Islamic ethics" by Hossein Razmjoo. The titles of two books manifests vividly they are different in content. Since we tend to study traditional and modern aspects of ethics in Nima's poetry in this paper, it'll be an absolutely novel work.

Ethics in Nima's poetry

Taking a look at events and trends happened for Persian poetry since constitutional era onwards we can figure out that one of the major elements was the need to modify the content and this could be very helpful when citing poet's work in order to realize their idea on ethics and morality. In a letter to an imaginary person named "Neighbor", Nima says: "Simply, poem is concerned with the realm of life. This is why poet must be considered and known through the way they have lived, a suffered and distraught human" (Nima, 1989: 118). In fact, Nima and his advocates see poetry as a reflection of poet's social life, in a literary language of course. Imaginative and literary part of poetry represents its pleasure side as an art while its realism aspect is reflected by its sociability. Socially, Nima has based his discourse on the fact that there is a kind of consistency between social and literary structures. In practice, Nima and his followers formed a group of poets, critics and readers who actively participate in the interpretation of the new literary system principles for all readers. This was in fact the last stage of literary-cultural movement that was rooted in the 19th century social reformers revolutionary and subversive discourse" (Karimi Hakak, 2010: 407-408).
Relationship between Nima's poetic theories and ethics

Studying Nima's poetry ideas which can be seen among his letters, we can reach a twofold division. One, his ideas on how to live and the other on how to write a poem. Considering the relationship between the two divisions and its reflection in Nima's poems, ethics can be traced in his work. However, since these subjects are solidly tied together in Nima's mind, we will discuss the two of them combined and under the title of relationship between Nima's poetic theory and ethics. What Nima has paid extensive attention to and referred to all over his poems and ideas was the necessity of a correct relationship between personal life and changes of each era. For Nima, regarding this point and establishing logical connection between these two subjects in poems leads to birth of poetry with a different form and content but tailored to the time changes. He also writes a letter to Natel Khanlari and says: "before having a pen in hand, a writer or a poet must consider today's economic and social conditions and know their time and its requirements. After taking a pen in hand, they must know that with what literary style that is proper to the current time the most they should start to write about the subject they have in mind so they could be realized as new authors otherwise it is so easy to be like Onsori (the poet) only at service of ruthless classes" (Nima. 1989: 473). As it is obvious, what Nima has done is not only confined to the form changing and "contrary to what has been said, innovation of Nima and other modernists is not limited to bringing new interpretations or elimination of the constraint on longitudinal equality of poetry lines. What matters here is the way to look at the world, society and man. In this domain, human being is not a social creature. Although, the social component is not considered as the bolts of such universality and posses individuality and authenticity and that human can see the world and society based on his freedom and choices" (Dastgheib, 2006: 75). At the present age, we face the global village phenomenon as a result of rapid exchange of information and ideas which requires its own poetic structure. Due to his mastery in French language, Nima could get informed of everyday's world news through the newspapers and magazines so he was aware of this matter perfectly and said: "in addition to literary teachings, it is certain that there are a lot of other things that having information on could be useful as they affect literature inevitably. As today's literature is international and non-free in terms of meaning and form and technique, that is, it is reliant on modern sciences. We live in the era of development and evolution not of noise and jollity like Khayyam was, or eulogizing like Onsori, or moral missionary as Saadi and not like others who follow sufism" (Ibid: 446-447).

Two things are really important to Nima: 1) to understand the essence of the era and 2) to turn the era into poetry (Shams Langeroodi, 2008: 271). Since he himself is one of the members of this community he is trying to understand the essences of, he needs to be present in his poems continuously and fruitfully. Perhaps that is why "unlike the vast majority of the past Persian poets, he is always present in his poetry and there is no distance between him and his poems" (Hoqooqi, 2012: 14). He expressly states such belief in the need to proportionality of each era changes to intellectual changes in a letter he wrote to her sister, Nakita. Nima writes to his
sister who just had a baby: "certainly, he/she will see the future when his/her feelings are so different from his/her parents' and won't tolerate such serious difference of opinions to make a living for his/her short temporary life. At that time, his/her book of ethics and life and piety lessons will be achieved through a general life. He will be inclined to practical and purely material work instead of intellectual efforts and if his/her presence could have any benefits for people of the community, then his/her intellectual efforts will be orderly and free of anxiety that has made any thoughtful scholar wear out (Nima, 1989: 461). This rule also applies to ethics domain and it needs radical changes in its basis framework. So, it is better to make such changes at earlier ages. He wrote a letter to Ahmad Zia when he was working as a teacher in Astara: "it is better to close all important secondary and high schools and only rely on the primary school for public education. What difference does it make to teach children though and ethics of the past few centuries with wrong expressions which is not consistent with their current time" (Ibid: 418). It is in such intellectual context that poetry changes its path from an objective stance in classic poem to an objective status in Nima and his followers' poetry. Thus, we are confronted with a poetry with practical, tangible and sensible moral principles not the grandiose and glorious traditional yet costumed, idealistic and unrealistic ethics. In fact Nima managed to save poets who'd gradually turned into an industry in the classical tradition where skills were acquired through experiences and practices from monotony and repetition which was an inevitable result of involving in techniques by linking the poetry with poet's mind and spirit and emotions (Poornamdarian, 2010: 32).

What was explained above was the most important intellectual foundations of Nima's ethics and an entry to analyze his poems content morally. Ethics in Nima's poetry is divided into two parts: traditional and modern.

A) Nima and traditional morality

Not only Nima should be known as a person so cognizant with a vast knowledge of classical Persian literature, but one of the most passionate advocates of classic poetry. In this regard, he says: "I consider myself as one of the most loyal advocates of ancient Persian and Arabic literature. As they are my biggest hobby" (Nima, 1989: 382). He criticizes the traditional poetry because of its artificiality, imitation and disregarding society's daily issues. He says: "The only thing I think must be added here is that the extreme frustration and perplexity of those poets was a result of their own negligence. Man will find anything he wants if he searches. Mutually, if man makes no effort to explore, it'll be impossible for him to find anything. This was how our classic poets wrote poems and wanted their poetry to be like others'. It's like it wasn't them writing poems. When someone wrote a sonnet they had no romantic interest in the subject of their own poem (Ibid: 382). The interesting thing is that Nima is a quite traditional fellow in terms of life style and speaks of the posterity with regret and sympathy. "In the future, the whole world will be withered and collapsed. Woe betide the posterity. Many of our customs, lifestyle, way of construction and outfits have been so beautiful and missing and substituted with
barren sights devoid of imagination and spirit. Woe betide the posterity. Only that
the future generations may get accustomed to such situation and don't realize what
a happy life they have lost. Life could be flawless and perfect when it keeps its
connection with the past. Woe to cutting the relations (Sheragim, 2009: 51). In one of
his letters, Nima frankly explains his view about traditional literature and life as
follows: "I love all the old things except for the old poetry style and way of thinking"

The poem "Indebtedness to Inferiors" which is absolutely an imitation piece in terms
of content and language is a piece of advice on contentment and not being in debt of
the ignoble people. Imitating the classic poets, Nima first brings a series of
cumbersome and impractical actions and expresses the essence of his own words
and ideas in the last line which is in fact the moral point he's had in mind:

"Tying hair with eyelashes
cutting red-hot iron with nails
tearing the dark veil of ignorance
of the fool old corrupt spirit
stunned with deaf ears
yet hearing the footsteps of an ant
will be much easier and pleasing for me than being indebted to inferiors" (Nima,
1989: 46)

The short masnavi "The Little Fountain" which is a reminiscent of Makhzan-olAsrar
by Nizami in terms of content and language contains humility and modesty. A quite
proud fountain that keeps bragging about itself finally realizes how tiny it is when it
joins the sea thus is forced to pipe down. In this poem, the fountain is a symbol of
self-deceived people:

people are exactly like a spring coming out of the ground
roaring with no reason
they have learned so little
yet hurt so many innocent people's feelings ..." (Ibid: 88)

The tale of "The Goat of Mulla Hasan" is the story of a man who always milks
neighbors' goats and is very pleased with the wealth he's gained this way. One day,
Mulla Hasan's goat gets missing. When he angrily finds his goat on top of a
mountain he ties it up and starts hitting the poor goat with a cane because of its
escape. That's when the poor goat starts talking and says:

"the milk you get from others' (neighbors) goats in one hundred days
won't be equal to one day of my milk in price
Either do not what people have as it is not yours to take
Or share whatever you have with others" (Ibid: 94)

"The Boy" is the story of a young man who has abandoned his mother and don not think of her livelihood. But when the judge notices that the boy is wealthy he commands:

"immediately, I commanded a slave
to tie a heavy rock to his stomach
and take him to the prison afterwards
for he must be kept in there for nine months
He won't be allowed to remove the rock off his body
until he is desperate and harassed with the rock" (Nima, 1989: 173-174)

"The Winter Asleep" is the story of a swift bird that has lost the ability to fly in winter. The bird actually refers to Nima, a committed man and winter is the symbol of the cold and suffocating atmosphere of the community at that time. Although, this poem is written with a completely new or Nimayee (Nimaian) language style but it is in fact a protest against insincere hypocrites. The bird dreams that its golden wings and feathers are closed and immobile while it has fallen behind other birds. The other birds are flying in front of its eyes, some hypocritical and opportunists who think of nothing but only their own interest on two sides ... In a winter when some agile birds like the poet have lost the ability to fly and efficient, truth-seeking, pure and honest men have no chance to show their capabilities, the hypocrites and opportunists business is boomed and they rule everywhere (Poornamdarian, 010: 373). The hypocrisy is the very vices that had occupied the mind of poets like Hafez. In this sense, Nima speaks in the tongue of the golden but broken wing bird which is in fact a manifestation of himself:

"He dreams his golden wings are closed down/ an uproar is rising because of him/ while insincere hypocrites are flying away/ in front of his eyes/ and the whole world's creatures are admiring them" (Nima, 2010: 436).

To explain the grandeur of his work "The Death Departed", Nima says: "I wrote this poem for these incapacitate dogs, the admirers of the previous king who have held a ceremony in Tehran in the hundredth death anniversary of Krylov" (Ibid: 498). The title itself clearly reflects what the poet meant to say to the readers. While people live in poverty to the extent that even the roof is about to crack and split these lifeless dead people laughing in their negligence feast just like the dead who are unaware of the living. Nima beautifully illustrates his community's actual conditions in the last line: there is no oil in the wick/ the ceiling is splitting/ with every dead one, there is the sound of rustling/ shh! lest you make any move/ drag my hand down inside the mud" (Ibid, 500).

B) Nima and modern morality

It is clear that Nima is one of the most committed contemporary poets. In his letter
to someone named Meftah, he says: "it is our duty to be conscientious in accordance with our age requirements. Why should we be afraid of executing our tasks?" (Nima, 1989: 263). In the meantime, it is essential to note that the linkage between Nima and dedicated poetry is not only confined to the reflection of political and social movements in his work. Everywhere in his poems, you can see that he refers to people who are indifferent to the pain of others with words suggesting they are some alive people in appearance but in fact dead on the inside. For example, in the poem "The Steel Soldier", he defines the people who just stood there looking at the steel soldier being oppressed and did nothing as follows:

"with such group of people looking absolutely like humans, though in silence as like any other human they have ears, eyes, feet and hands" (Nima, 1989: 191).

And in this very poem, he names these individuals as dead critters that have gathered in a filthy house of vices:

"it's a pity that this gem didn't disheveled itself this house of vices is filled with dead animals" (Ibid: 190)

For sure, for someone with such attitude, poetry commitment does not matter only as a poetic content but as a means of interpreting the prominent stance of humanity. For further evidence, see (Ibid, 672-666-498-438-187).

According to the above mentioned introduction, it can be said that the most important ethical implications of modernist Nima's poetry can be divided into six major sections including:

1. Protesting against injustice

Nima takes an intensive and explicit stance against injustice. In fact, the manifestations of injustice and him suffering from such inequality can be observed and sensed in every corner of his social poems" (Ziaoddini, 2010: 209). He also discusses this moral character of his community: "what a dream it was to love justice and bravery and truth-seeking and expecting these from others. Just a sweet tale that entertains us at any time with various titles. Whenever the truth emerges, the rabble men use it as a means of their own interest to consume it in their animal life" (Sheragim, 2009: 77). "The Prison" is a story about a man named Karam whose wife is passed away and has two daughters. He is charged with thievery. The Prison is the story of this man's trial. To justify what he's done and reveal society's class conflict, Karam says:

"there is few jobs left and few employers with low wages few problems can be resolved The owners are pleased with having dozens of workers all young though outnumbered" (Nima, 2010: 103)
Next, Nima speaks in the tongue of Karam with a realistic language and criticizes the capitalist system as follows:

"I swear to God who's raised the sky
that even he himself is not happy
that me and my child go to sleep every night so hungry
while the merchant has tones of wheat" (Ibid: 103)

When the jury all of whom are merely puppets hand down the punishment for Karam, he confabulates with God from the bottom of his heart and questions the concept of justice:

"Karam sighed with sorrow
O God Am I the guilty one here
or the man of justice
who wants to tear my ragged clothes?
I have nothing but one cow and a torn rug
Lord, is it fair if the merchant take them from me?" (Ibid: 105)

"The Soldier's Family" is the story of a woman's excruciating life whose husband has gone to war as a soldier and she lives with her two children in extreme poverty, but can that be actually called as living? The story ends with death of the man, woman and one of their children and survival of their baby daughter who asks for her dead mother's breast milk:

"Heh! mama! now she wants her mother's breast milk/ but mama is still lying down/ was it the mother's picture or her imagination?/ the child was upset with her mother for nothing/ she won't breastfeed her forever/ what must she do now?" (Ibid: 146).

Everywhere in this poem, what Nima describes is a real and detailed story filled with anxiety and poverty which represents his genuine understanding and deep vision of the society's issues. While mother attributes all disasters in her life to the fate to implicitly object to the injustice of the world, she also compares her baby with other children as an expression of class conflict which is in turn an indicative of injustice:

"the neighbor's kid wears nice clothes
and is taken out for playing, and takes healthy drinks
what is the difference between these two kids?
does not my kid have whatever that one has?
the soldier's baby is so scruffy
so why is she still alive?" (Ibid, 122)

There is only two possibility for the fact that the neighbor's kid is always dressed well. Either the father is one of the landowners and officials which refers to the feudal system or at least a father who can be with his family and work and meet his family's needs. In both cases, incompetence of the authorities is being judged. In a system where officials turn their country into the battlefield under attack of their own foes, all men must get armed and leave their home not to defend their land but to realize the colonialists goals. The poem below was written in 1925 the year Reza Shah came to power. It begins with the following words: "to my sister, Nakita, at the time of reign of Emperor Nicholas of Russia and hungry Caucasus soldiers"(Ibid, 119). Next, Nima continues his letter in the tongue of women to criticize and analyze justice in a broader arena, the whole universe. Then, he comes to this conclusion from women's viewpoint that as long as the world exists there will be class conflict thus poverty.

"I have changed myself to change my life
when will moaning bring me something?
ever, as long as the world is ruled like this
all pains and agony will only belong to the poor" (Ibid: 126)

You barely can find a poem by Nima with no reference of him to the oppressive feudalism system in his community. "All news always remains hidden in the dark night upon the community and few are aware of the crimes and evil plots of tyrannies and ruthless rulers" (Poornamdarian, 2010: 122). This is what Nima has been fully informed of and referred to from different aspects until the end of his poetic life (For further evidence, see Nima, 2010: 704-671-519-211-115).

2. Anti-exploitation

There are different aspects for exploitation. One of them which is in fact of Nima's interest is deceiving others and benefiting from their work with a nice and friendly manner and appearance. This aspect of exploitation cannot be suspicion of doubt and deception as it has an acceptable and nice appearance thus it is a deeper problem. The result is a more serious harm to the suffered people. The piece of "The Fox and the Rooster" can be his response to the behavior of the oppressed people. A chicken asks the fox who he is. He answers: "I'm a true believer, I have faith in God" (Nima, 2010: 116). The chicken asks the fox to pray for him to be safe from the foes. Then, fox asks the chicken to come down of the tree and pray with him. Chicken climbs down and gets killed. Chicken says to the deceiver fox when he is being crashed by his sharp teeth:

"O believer! what happened for all your compassion
and your promise on keeping me safe?
he said: you'll be safe in the depth of my stomach
in a moment, you will get what I promised to you
whoever trusts others who knows nothing of
asks for deprivation instead of a solution" (Ibid: 117)

As a matter of fact, the last line rises from the heart of Nima who asks the suffered people to be careful and not be deceived by the slickers with nice faces so easily and be wise.

The old vulture in "The Broken Sidewalls" is a symbol of that very exploiter discussed before who's described by Nima as "greatly patient" which is exactly tailored to the characteristics of this animal. The poem begins as follows:
"so passionately dreaming of eating him
and hoping to get a prey
he is standing on top of a rough stone
for a long time, the old vulture has been hungry
sitting there in silence
on the broken walls" (Ibid: 643)

Seeking for an opportunity, the old vulture tastes the delicious prey which is not hunted yet which expressively gives us an image of exploiters' excessive greed. The term "sharp beak" attributes a lot to insinuate the oppressing condition of the society into reader's mind:
"at this moment (before catching the prey), he (vulture) is trying to feel the taste of the prey not hunted yet in its mouth
meanwhile, it keeps opening its sharp beak
catches the prey though it hasn't hunted it yet
captures it while it hasn't seen it yet
while its small stomach is still not filled with food
it is thinking of gluttony and avarice" (Ibid: 644)

The fact that preys give up and surrender to the vulture in the end is a very bitter and painful symbol of people who know they are being used and harnessed yet have no choice but obey:
"the old vulture knows this better
the greatly patient, the turn counter
beholden to death
in soundless plains
there will be carnages
so frolicsome of the good news it hopes to hear
drowning in its dreams so much in full joy it is" (Ibid: 645)

But the most bitter and painful point is that the vulture also knows that all the preys will voluntarily surrender. "Feeding off death in soundless plains, waiting for its preys dancing so proudly, in such condition created by the "patient turn counter"

3. Fighting against oppression

Nima believes that "author must motivate anger and sense of revenge in reader instead of supplication and helplessness facing oppression. Author shouldn't base their story on tragic events and write because of their misery" (Jafari, 2009: 289). Sheragim, Nima's son narrates a story of him standing against injustice: "one day near sunset, we were returning from hunting, we saw a number of farmers in front of the public bathhouse standing who had just returned from wheat threshing. It was so difficult to see their tired and sweaty faces amidst all the straws. Seeing Nima they greeted us and complained that one of the Khans is in the bathhouse and won't let anyone in. Nima gave his bags to me and entered the bathhouse with his gun. I heard him shouting: either you go out right now or ... a moment later, Khan who was familiar with Nima's temper rushed out half-naked. Farmers embraced Nima and went inside" (Sheragim, 2009: 317).

The piece, "The Anonymous Martyr" is the story of a brave man named Asad (lion) who's of course as courageous as a lion. He stood behind a war cannon to destroy Qajar tyranny. He thought:

"can I ignore my intentions
unlike what's in my heart, in my nature?
no, he said to himself, today the tyranny
has dominated us because of our fear
if I run away, everyone will escape" (Nima, 2010: 177)

Here, Nima analyzes the difficulties of combating tyranny. He thinks the reason that people avoid it is that everyone's expecting it from somebody else and that people like Asad are rare or cannot be found in the community. Asad is immersed in his thoughts. Although there is no one around to assist him but he believes this is his duty:

"there is no one besides him in this very moment
he's struggling with his heart
did he see a women ahead of himself, a mother
or was it just a dream?
no matter who they are, the poor are in danger" (Ibid: 178)

Before he could put his intention into action, he is shot and killed by one of the
hirelings. However, Asad did what he had to. He died but he at least stood against injustice.

"The Steel Soldier" is a true story of a colonel who stands against tyranny and dies for his purpose. But, what does this soldier stand against oppression for? Nima reveals everything for reader in the beginning of the story:

"if this is a good or bad story in everyone's eye
it is a story for the one who told me that
and he is one who truly wants to hear this story
it is about a man who sacrificed himself
to stand against enemies and bring them to justice" (Ibid: 180)

As Nima interprets, "he saw our broken ship in the water" (Ibid: 181). The broken ship is a symbol of society's deplorable conditions. Here, Nima again brings up the critic point he had said in the tongue of Asad in "The Anonymous Martyr" now by the steel soldier and that's the fear we all share when confronting cruelty and then bow before it humiliatingly:

"shame on us all as we have given in
just sitting and repeating these words where is the one who can save us?
while we ourselves could be the one liberator" (Ibid: 189)

When enemy offers the steel soldier something in exchange of his freedom he declines then in a real tragedy he himself commands soldiers to fire when executing him and doesn't accept living with shame:

"he himself commanded to fire
he created a clamor in his friends' heart
and released himself from such world with no real man" (Ibid: 201)

4. Anti-poverty

In his whole life, Nima wasn't deeply attached to any particular party or group or ideology but he was strongly affected by oppression, injustice, poverty and plight of people as well as social events that had major impact on society's destiny and this was because of his emotional sensitivity to truth-seeking. He reflects these feelings in his poems through various emotions such as despair, hope, regret and nostalgia, anger and disgust (Poornamdarian, 2010: 99). However, what occupies Nima's mind the most is injustice, poverty, cruelty and concerns like these as his obsession with such issues has been manifested in his words too and turned his poetic language into a harsh but real style. That's why there are few so-called "elegant" words in his poems. Elegant, beautiful and aristocratic words have no place in Nima's poetry. He has no interest in purple wine and walking in the bracing gardens and lips ruby and golden throne. He speaks of hunger, suffer and weaknesses of the lower class. Those
fascinated with kingly words won't found Nima's poems so poetic. However, a poet who's concerned with people's life with all his heart is not afraid of such judgments (Dastgheib, 2006: 78).

The poem, "Mother and Son" that Nima names a serious declamation is about a mother and her son who live in absolute poverty.

"poverty has brought the worst things can be imagined for this family left a mother and her son alone looking for a piece of bread but there is none" (Nima, 2010: 486)

The breadwinner, the father has gone somewhere nobody knows to make some money and this indicates the depth of the economic disaster in a dysfunctional system where people have to leave their family to make a living and go to an unknown destination:

"it's been so long since he's gone he left willing to come back soon but nobody knows where he is now" (Ibid: 486)

Cleverly, Nima pictures a real and tangible scene where a mother wants to cheer her child up:

"To calm her innocent baby the mother deceives her own son here comes his father with a loaf of bread in hand for his son" (Ibid: 488)

But the truth is the father of the little boy who's only seen three autumns of his life is gone forever:

"now he's all eyes and ears hearing the word 'bread' from his mother' mouth" (Ibid: 488)

Then, Nima continues the poem with a very impressive line which reveals his critic view on traditional flowery and romantic literature. While a song of sadness and sorrow is resonating inside the humble cottage of this alone mother and son, something else is going on out there which represents the negligence of the living from the dead:

"outside far from the house there is a willow shading upon the meadow the stream is flowing in silence the moon avoids laughing"
so you could drink happily
with your hand in somebody else's hand who you love
and wear nice outfits cheerfully
listen to a sonnet
describing the beloved's speckle and lips
ignoring all the living and dead
just spend a night
like the dead who have no idea what's happening for the living" (Ibid: 490-491)
And in the last line we see that:
"looking for some bread and his father's face
again, the little boy looked away from his mother's eyes
he takes a glance at her once in a while" (Ibid: 493)
Although the little boy is waiting for nothing but therein lies a point.
The little boy is looking for a piece of bread and then his father which is a response
from someone whose whole life even his parent-child relationship has been under a
lot of pressure. The truth is the child is seeking for bread and a father who brings
him some bread and not just an empty-handed father and that's what is painful the
most.
In the poem, "O! People" Nima is pointing to those who are unaware of the people
who are struggling with the tempestuous sea (of life). These entangled people have
so many attributes one of which is poverty and the ones sitting in the beach (in peace)
are in fact the wealthy class of the society who are negligent about the poor:
"O people over there who are sitting pleasantly on the shore
bread on your tablecloths, clothes on your bodies
someone is calling you from the water" (Ibid: 446)
In the end, no one helps this the man or men struggling in the sea. "Someone is
dying alone in the water" is a symbol of the people in Nima's time who are dying in the
throes of life's turbulent sea. In a society whose pains and difficulties are
expressed by Nima, not only the rich has no mercy and generosity over the poor but
are greedy (Ziaoddini, 2010: 196). For further evidence, see (613-603-494-119-109).

5. Patriotism

Patriotism is one of the moral matters that has been recognized as a more real ethical
concept in the modern world where humans' relationships have been restricted to
the irony invisible borders. The patriotism is involved in love and sensitivity to the
fate and lifestyle of people who live in the same country which ultimately leads to ethical approaches. In fact, patriotism is closely associated with implications such as anti-oppression, fighting against poverty, anti-exploitation and justice-orientation. Studying Nima's poetry and letters, two types of country can be found: one meaning homeland which refers to Yush, Nima's hometown and the other is country in its traditional sense. In the poem, "In Memory of My Homeland", Nima addresses a mountain in Yush named "Farakesh" just like a lover who's been parted from their sweetheart:

"O! Farakesh, it's been two years
that I haven't seen your enchanting face
my heart is not with me anymore
as I am far away from you" (Ibid: 150)

Nima wrote this poem in 1926 when he lived in Tehran and that's why he is complaining about living in the city and moaning on separation from Farakesh mountain:

"I'm destined to be far from there
deprived of all the life-giving
look at my homeland left and right
see how mysterious and secretive it is" (Ibid: 152)

In the last line of this truly patriotic poem, Nima says:

"I'll always love my homeland
despite its all deprivation
I hope no devil force or urbanite could reach it
as long as the world is this vicious" (Ibid: 152)

Masnavi of "Near the hard-headed" can be considered as poet's complaint on separating from his homeland: At first, poet likens himself to a bird that has been away from its residence:

"I'm like a bird who's far away from his home
just like my life that is gone, forgotten my present life too
I've got a lot of thoughts in mind and no words coming out of my mouth
the night tells me its hidden secrets and I talk to it about mine" (Ibid: 232)

In a nostalgic atmosphere, Nima continues the poem by talking about good memories of his homeland with regret:

"when I rummage all my old sorrows
I get distraught of all the memories of my home and loves" (Ibid: 233)

The piece, "my eyes on every side but my thoughts on home" represents the depth of poet's love to his hometown as the last line turns into a yearning dream of home: "until I could come to you once again

I wish I were there in my homeland, I wish I were at home" (Ibid: 234)

Nima also has another sense of patriotism reflecting a country or territory of the people who share the same political, social, cultural, linguistic and ethnic features. In his book "Romanticism process in Iran", Jafari points to Nima's vision to the country: "he has no attachment to the concept of patriotism and nationalism of his own time" (Jafari, 2009: 211) and explicitly explains that what Nima means as home in all of his works is actually Yush. Author on the other hand thinks this opinion cannot be certainly accepted and it must be taken into consideration with a little caution as there is some evidence on Nima's attitude towards homeland in its modern sense in his poems and letters. He writes about Iran and living there in one of his letters: "I'd rather die in a dunghill of my own country Iran and serve my people in there. I's rather to eat garbage in my own country than eat fresh food in a strange country. In my opinion, my country Iran is the best place on Earth" (Sheragim, 2009: 320). In another letter and in response to promotion of traveling to the West and being accustomed to the western culture he writes: "they want to take our children out of the country to turn them into some westernized servants with no feelings to their country and ancestry and God. The oppression and cruelty Nima refers to in all his poems is beyond the sense of humanity and is a passion and honor which cannot be named with a better word than patriotism. When Asad in "anonymous martyr" stands behind the ward cannon to destroy the tyranny armor he is killed before he can do anything with a shot in his throat. Nima describes this scene this way:

"molten lead on his neck
a fruitless body in front of him
o! home! just to set you free
they accept your demand like this
and move with passion and love to the gate of death" (Nima, 2009: 178)

From every angle and every standpoint, it is hard to accept that home here means something besides country especially that Nima points to the nation in the last line. "years and years has passed yet he is still anonymous
I salute you from a far distance
my nation! have you all thought of him even for one second?" (Ibid: 179)

6. Freedom

Maybe, Nima's spirit of freedom was mainly affected by his rural lifestyle at the
beginning but then in his later intellectual stages, he defines freedom as a much deeper concept. On the one hand, freedom in his mind refers to spiritual ideas which implies the liberation of the soul and on the other hand it points to his great stance as a human. He states: "how can someone who is not free liberate another person? By freedom, he means liberation of the soul. No one can lead the liberals without virtue, piety and freedom. What have we equipped ourselves with?" (Sheragim, 2010: 160). Because of his beliefs, Nima had experienced and felt loneliness really well in his life. This loneliness is perfectly reflected in some of his poems. The part with "on which part of this dark night can I hang my old garment" in the poem "Woe Is Me" is the sound of an alone poet screaming who is being suffocated in such condition and does not dare to complain. And it is such loneliness and seclusion that has led Nima towards birds and made him desire for their freedom (Al Ahmad, 1978: 56-57). In a greater and more excellent form, such freedom will have more social-political as well as philosophical properties. Sartre explains: "we are alone, with no excuses. That is the idea I shall try to convey when I say that man is condemned to be free" (Sartre, 1982: 36). This kind of freedom can only be meaningful when it's accompanied with liberation of others. As Nima says so: "life is good with freedom and freedom with liberation of others" (Sheragim, 2009: 77). As a matter of fact, this kind of freedom is more human and thus more ethical. But how can this freedom be achieved and are all of its requirements available? Sometimes, to gain this freedom, we need to strive and even fight. In this regard, Nima believes that 'human lives. He loves his life and to live he needs to be free and to be free he needs to fight. So, brainy young people should support liberal thoughts and love their own and others freedom' (Ibid: 150).

In poem, "The Steel Soldier", when an officer suggests freedom to the steel soldier he notes with a deep answer that a free man never can feel liberated when the whole world is kept within bounds. The world after being released from prison is itself a much bigger dungeon where there is no way to be freed from but death:

"an officer told the colonel, although the door of mercy is closed now, but there is still hope for you, in a blink of an eye, all roles will be vanished. But he answered with a grin: you are right but only if the world after freedom in an free man's eyes is not just another prison but a much bigger one/ they said: that's right but if you become free/ he said: if you cannot hear people screaming asking for help/ how can a man live liberated when people are captured?" (Nima, 2010: 187).

The man in the poem of "Blacksmith" has a sledgehammer in hand and is trying to soften the iron while dreaming of a life with freedom. However, freedom to him is something beyond living free:

"how appealing and sweat life is!
how honorable it is to live with freedom for a moment
to want anything with no fear, to talk about your wishes with no fear, to be happy!" (Ibid: 754)
Freedom in the poem "Kak Ki" is not clearly mentioned. But Kak Ki which is a kind of cow of a pretty color in north of Iran is a symbol of the poet that lives in a grassland with a sturdy body in absolute health. Though, the grassland is like a prison for him. But why a prison? It's because no close friend passes through the meadow and such place is just like a bigger prison than apparent ones for a social creature like human:

"in the silent grove, there is a kak ki that's been lost and yelling for a long time hidden from everyone's eyes just like an angle
the meadow has become a prison for him
and that's why he can't be in peace
as no one familiar has passed through the meadow" (Ibid: 783)

Conclusion

Contemporary poetry has faced fundamental changes in form and content as it happened to be coincided with tremendous social and political upheavals of the modern world. This blessed event not only saved the Persian poetry from worn-out stereotypes that had been enmeshed with for centuries but opened new windows including great moral concepts such as freedom and humanity and patriotism to itself due to interacting with poetry and literature of the West. Nima as the flag bearer of such huge revolution played a unique role in rising this toddler child relying on his knowledge and ingenuity and of course his infinite perseverance. In this regard, one of the most outstanding aspects of Nima's poetry is that he always centers his poems around human and his concerns as one of his most important intellectual implications. In Nima's poetry, man is defined with an outstanding individuality in the civil society correlated system and is expressed as a notable figure. The character that has become the main subject of his poems and has been given an opportunity to unveil his pains. This special attention to human emerges as various ethical implications in Nima's poetry. Therefore, it can be concluded that ethical implications are one of the most worthwhile outcomes of Nima's poetry in terms of content.

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THEORETICAL ALTERNATIVES OF CREATION OF A TERMINOLOGY AND EXPLANATORY DICTIONARY OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

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Abstract
The current situation often forces people, especially university teachers, to compile dictionaries of the areas in which they work. This work will inevitably encounter various pitfalls and have to overcome many obstacles that arise at each stage of lexicographical work, whether within the phase of choice of lexical items, so as assigning grammatical morphological or phonetic characteristics, addressing the issue of the formal inclusion of phrases and not least the formal side and edition of dictionary. This paper deals with the creation of terminological and explanatory dictionary of school management for students of teacher training courses in the Slovak Republic. The authors focused on describing the current state of relevant issues, as well as on alternatives of creation of terminology dictionary. In the second part of the paper, the development and creation of terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management itself is determined. The final part of the paper is devoted to a proposal for its use in undergraduate teacher training and school management practice.

Keywords: lexicology, lexicography, terminology and explanatory dictionary, school management, glossary, Learning Management System MOODLE, teacher training.
Introduction

Lexicography is a discipline that deals with the theory and practice of processing vocabulary in dictionaries, therefore the creating of dictionaries. Lexicography is closely related to lexicology (theory of vocabulary). Although lexicography in Slovakia has more than a century of tradition, the nature of the author’s work of the dictionary is almost unchanged. Quality dictionaries have always been based on individual or collective efforts (Kadnár, 2011).

Currently, within the undergraduate teacher training in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, a university coursebook of school management entitled: PISONOVÁ, M. et al. 2014. The school management for teacher training courses and training of managing teaching staff. Bratislava: Comenius University and eLearning courses created in Moodle, are used with a great success. The main idea of the project initiated at the conclusion of this paper, is to supplement teaching materials on terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management for students of teacher training courses in paper and electronic form.

Current status

Based on the monitoring of the teaching of the subject school management in some university departments in the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic, we found it necessary to explain some new notions in detail, respectively to complement existing by the current interpretation in line with modern education management. This requirement was justified by the need to correct the understanding of the significance of existing and new notions in school management. Therefore, a current research project has been implemented entitled: Designing and development of terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management for teacher training courses and school management staff training followed by supplementing its functionalities in Learning Management System Moodle, with emphasis on the requirements of students of teacher training courses.

The dictionary will focus on reasoning and explaining some of the key passwords that require updates, and are based on the requirements of the current school management practice. The added value of the given dictionary is the intention to create a terminology based on the needs of teaching staff, with a view to provide adequate training for their teaching practice. The said dictionary will be also useful in the training of managing teaching staff (lifelong learning) and in itself managing work of teaching staff of schools and school facilities in Slovakia and the Czech Republic.

Results and Discussions

Requirements for the development of terminology and explanatory dictionary

Individual passwords of the dictionary will be processed by the leading experts in
the field of school management and comparative pedagogy of Slovak and Czech universities, by which we would like to extend the use of the dictionary to practice. Dictionary development is a continuous part of the creation of modern didactic means for the teaching of the subject school management for teacher training courses in the context of the teaching base.

Based on the monitoring of the teaching of the school management in some university departments in the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic, which are already using educational resources for the mentioned purpose, we found it necessary to explain some new notions in detail, respectively to complement those existing under the current interpretation in line with modern education management. This requirement was justified by the need to better understand existing and new notions in school management.

Within the creation of terminology and explanatory dictionary, we decided to also develop an electronic version, which will be created in the Learning Management System Moodle, because this medium will provide better accessibility to creators and the possibility of continuous updating and completing individual passwords for students and university teachers. The electronic version will respect all methodological and procedural requirements for creating of individual passwords.

Subject school management, respectively using its modified name, is a core part of all teacher training courses within the descriptions of study fields, as is the study field Pedagogy and branch didactics, which is focused at the 3rd level of university education. In all the descriptions of study fields listed, there are, in fact, incorporated (in particular social and humanities and pedagogical-psychological basis) the requirements for the organisation and management of education and schools, the organisational characteristics of the school system, institutional rules of the school and last but not least, the orientation in the school legislation and educational documents. In this connection, it should be noted that the knowledge of the given areas significantly affect the status respectively the status of teachers in society, which relates not only with the professional erudition, but also with its ability to orientate within issues of management of educational system and school management and or school facility on the macro, mezo and micro level (Pisoňová, 2014, Nagyová – Šebenová, 2014, Mikošiková, 2015; Birova, 2016; Birová, Ocovay & Vasbieva, 2016; Kubiatko, Usak & Masalimova, 2016).

The initial dictionary is also designed for training of managing teaching staff in lifelong learning and will supplement the battery of teaching resources along with above presented university coursebook and electronic course.

**Development and the processes of dictionary creation**

Based on the results of research investigations, the subject of creation is to complete and update of notion apartr by the editorial board, in order to eliminate counterproductive understanding of phenomena and processes occurring in school management. Further process of specification, reasoning and explaining passwords that will require updating and supplementing, will be accented.
On the creation of terminology and explanatory dictionary, the editorial board will participate, respectively educational, scientific and research staff of the Institute of Educational Sciences and studies of the Faculty of Education at Comenius University in Bratislava and the Department of Education at the Faculty of Education of Constantine the Philosopher University, along with representatives from the Faculty of Arts, Department of Education at University of Pardubice and from the Faculty of Education, and the Center of School management at Charles University in Prague. To illustrate this, table 1 presents the proposal of passwords that are currently being processed.

Table 1  A sample of creation of terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GLOSSARY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Age management (management strategy, taking into account the age of the employees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>andragogical competence of school head teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Atmosphere of school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>auto-evaluation of school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Autoregulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Barriers to access to education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Benchmarking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Bossing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Lifelong education of teaching staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Lifelong education of head teacher of school and school facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Delegation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At the stage of completion of passwords, passwords were assigned to the glossary based on the evaluation and subsequent acceptance by members of the professional and scientific opponent. Their task was to develop criteria by which the passwords were selected, which can be explained by the needs of teaching and management experience as well as descriptions of the various fields of study.

The creation of individual passwords respects the following aspects: philosophical, pedagogical, psychological, sociological, economic, legal, and in particular the requirements of modern education management. According to given fact, it continues the cooperation with colleagues from foreign universities and with other, directly managed organisation of the Ministry of education, science, research and sport of the Slovak republic. The passwords creation process will be conducted by continuous evaluation with consultants and members of the editorial board and opponent board. In this way, passwords will be categorized according to the first, second and third categories.

When choosing a specific passwords the following requirements were taken into account:

- Focus of dictionary - school management in interdisciplinary contexts.
- The target group of potential readers - future and present educators and managers of schools and school facilities.
- Descriptive research results focused on the analysis of learning needs of teachers and head teachers (3 nationwide surveys, were educators and managers of kindergartens, primary schools, secondary schools and some school facilities where the respondents).
- Trends in the process of school management and management of educational institutions in our country and abroad.
- Selection of passwords based on their applicability by teachers and head teachers of Czech and Slovak educational institutions.
- Elimination of interpretation of legal norms.

The proposals to use the dictionary in training of future teachers in educational practice and the work of school head teachers

Management of educational system, which includes school management, significantly affects the prosperity of all sectors of the national economy and social life in the Slovak Republic (Tóbolová, 2014, Tóbolová, 2015). Precisely for this reason, it is necessary to improve the process of managing of educational institutions in the Slovak Republic. Our ambition is to respond to labour market requirements by consistent linking of theory and practice, which is a particular need for school management. In this context, we emphasise that the issue solved has a praxeological character, which means that the knowledge, skills and competences gained by the
study of the subject school management should provide students with a thorough orientation in matters of school management, so that they were able to use it in their teaching practice and then in their management practice. The quality of higher education is in fact (and in practice) transformed into so-called effects and benefits of education, by which the Economics of Education - part of the content of school management - is dealing with more specifically. Quality teachers of schools and school facilities, school methodologists, and managing teaching staff are the main personalities that affect learning outcomes, and so the application of graduated students of teacher training courses on labour market. Only on the basis of their qualifying training can the unemployment rate be reduced and last but not least, increase their work efficiency. In this connection, it should be noted that the knowledge of the given areas significantly affect the status, respectively the status of teachers in society, which related not only with the professional erudition, but also with its ability to orientate within issues of management of educational system and school management and or school facility on the macro, mezo and micro level (Pisoňová, 2014, Eger, 2013).

Based on the above reasons, we indicate the specification of the given dictionary as follows:

1. Terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management for courses for teacher training and training of managing teaching staff in the printed version.

2. Terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management for teacher training courses and training of managing teaching staff in an electronic version with the extension of its functionalities.

We consider the above presented dictionary as beneficial not only in the field of training of teachers and head teachers, but also from the social, economic and commercial point of view.

Conclusion

We consider dictionaries are a primary bibliography, which is justified not only in the scientific sphere, but also in school practice. The current situation often forces people, especially university teachers, to compile dictionaries of the areas in which they work. This work will inevitably encounter various pitfalls and have to overcome many obstacles that arise at each stage of lexicographical work, whether within the phase of choice of lexical items, so as assigning grammatical morphological or phonetic characteristics, addressing the issue of the formal inclusion of phrases and not least the formal side and edition of dictionary. For this reason, we started creating the dictionary above with great responsibility, respecting basic methodological bases and research findings.

The contribution forms part of the outputs of the KEGA project n. 007UK-4/2016 Designing and development of terminology and explanatory dictionary of school management for teacher training courses and school management staff training followed by supplementing its functionalities in LMS Moodle.
References


THE EFFECT OF DYNAMIC VERSUS NON-DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT ON THE USE OF RESULTIVE CONJUNCTIONS IN CAUSE EFFECT PARAGRAPH PATTERN OF WRITING

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Abstract
The present study aimed at investigating the effect of dynamic assessment on the use of resultive conjunctions in Iranian intermediate learners’ writing. Initially, using the Oxford Placement Test (2010), 60 female participants from a language institute were chosen. They were given an OPT, the results of which were used to homogenize the participants in terms of overall language proficiency level. Following that, the participants were assigned randomly to an experimental and a control group. This was followed by conducting a writing exam in which the participants were asked to write a cause and effect paragraph to make sure that all students were homogenous with respect to the use of resultive conjunction in their writings. To rate the writings, the researcher assigned a score to each writing in terms of the appropriate usage of resultive conjunctions by assigning three points to each correct use of conjunctions and went through an independent samples t-test for the comparison of the means of the two classes. Next, in the experimental group the participants were given dynamic assessment on their writings in line with Lantolf and Poehner’s (2004) interventionist model. In the control group, students were only required to write cause and effect paragraphs and no elements of the DA procedure were implemented. Having finished the treatment, the researcher gave the participants in both groups a writing posttest the results of which were analyzed to investigate the research question. The results of parametric independent samples t-
test indicated that the dynamic assessment group outperformed the static assessment group in terms of the accurate usage of resultative conjunctions in their writings.

**Key terms:** Assessment, Dynamic Assessment, Non-dynamic Assessment, Resultative Conjunctions, Cause and Effect paragraph

1. Introduction

When it comes to educational context, assessment as a fundamental component takes on very important role (Naeini, & Duvall, 2012; Naeini, 2013). Furthermore, many researchers have examined the possible effect of dynamic assessment on various language skills and components both internationally (e.g., Antón, 2009; Davin, 2011; Kozulin & Garb, 2002) and locally in Iran (e.g., 2013; Isavi, 2012; Pishghadam, Barabadi & Kamrood, 2011). A close look at the previous studies reveals that dynamic assessment can yield positive outcomes with respect to the assessment in the context of L2 learning. This promising result can be due to the helpful features of dynamic assessment through which there is a focus on the learning process and learners’ developmental stages.

Given the essential role of dynamic assessment in education programs, researchers and educators may be obsessed with the question regarding the usefulness of such an assessment for learning various language skills, in particular, writing. It goes with saying that writing is considered as an extremely important communication tool in the modern world, appearing as either traditional paper-and-pen writing or through e-mail. Based on the studies, writing has been found to be the most difficult language skill L2 learners (both EFL and ESL) face during second language acquisition.

A multitude of factors influence the writing, with cohesion and coherence found to be the most problematic area for EFL learners (Shokrpour & Fallahzadeh, 2007). Being considered as one of the crucial factors, cohesion should be necessarily taken into account during writing since it connects the different parts of the text. In the same vein, Tangkiengsirisin (2010) maintains that cohesion is associated with linking the various ideas as well as making connection between expressions and sentences. He believes that cohesion is concerned with creating relationships between sentences and ideas in the surface structure of the text.

In the view of Meisuo (2000), as a component of language system, cohesion has the potential for enriching the texts through meaning enhancement. He asserts that cohesion allows the reader to forge relevance between the preceding contents and the content being read. As a result, cohesive devices make huge contribution to the logical development of the text and ideas. Conjunctions are one of the devices in the category of cohesive devices, playing an essential role since they indicate the logical relations in texts. This can increase the text richness (Geva, 1992; Heino, 2010). Along the same lines, researchers have put emphasis on the appropriate use of conjunction
to familiarize learners with effective writing.

In the same vein, this study is based on the assumption that dynamic assessment may improve the writing skill significantly by focusing on resultives. To do so, it draws inspiration from important theories such as ZPD and sociocultural theory of Vygotsky. The dearths of research on resultives as well as its role in creating cohesion and coherence in writing are the criteria used to choose resultives. The following section will present a detailed discussion of the purposes of this study. Therefore, this study aims to find out whether there is any statistically significant difference between the effects of dynamic and non-dynamic assessment on the use of resultive conjunctions in cause effect paragraph pattern of writing.

2. Literature Review

According to Lantolf and Pohner (2004), dynamic assessment stems mainly from Vygotsky’s works on the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This concept has been the focus of many studies in the context of psychology and education. It is believed that the main feature making dynamic assessment distinct from other approaches to assessment is its emphasis on the role of mediation provided by a more knowledgeable individual during assessment. Mediation can appear as prompt, hints, leading questions etc, playing an essential role in understanding the learner's abilities. It is also very important for improving the development during the assessment process itself. Lidz (1987) defines dynamic assessment as the interaction between examiner and a learner. Within this context, examiner assumes the role of an interviewer while the learner assumes the role of an active participant. This kind of assessment is aimed at assessing the extent of the progress the learner has made, paving the way for the improvement of cognitive functioning based on the received feedbacks.

The construct of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), initially put forth by Vygotsky involves the level of skill or knowledge a little beyond which along with its respective tasks the learner can deal with (Ellis, 2013). Accordingly, ZPD is described as a gap between the current knowledge of an individual and his/her potential knowledge. Different researchers interpret ZPD differently, using Vygotsky’s theory in different ways with different names (Ellis, 2008).

Based on the Vygotsky’s model of mediated, subject (i.e. l2 learner) and object of his/her activity (e.g. writing ) are taken care of. In the case of an appropriate mediation, the learner can mediate his/her activity. Otherwise, the learner would have to resort to an artifact (e.g. a dictionary) to be helped (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

A quantitative dynamic assessment interprets ZPD from a quantitative perspective. According to Pohner (2008), interventionist dynamic assessment involves the development of standardized administration procedures with the aim of producing easily quantifiable results. In fact, these results can be used to compare an individual's performance with that of another or to compare the performance among
the groups. They can be contrasted with other measures and be used to predict the performance on future tests. Based on this model, which is typical of test-teach-test designs, the operational definition of ZPD involves computing the difference between the learners’ scores on their performance prior to and following teacher’s intervention.

Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) elaborate on the following two categories within interventionist approach: 1- sandwich format and 2- the cake format. In the former, the learners are exposed to intervention during several sessions in the class where instruction is provided between the pretest and posttest. At the end, they take a posttest to see the possible impact of intervention on learners’ progress. As for mediation in this format, the learners can receive it either individualized or in group mode. In the case of the group, the instruction is not personalized and it is identical for all persons. The cake format is concerned with the teacher's role in helping learners during the assessment session, using some predetermined criteria (e.g. giving hints, cues, and examples).

Interaction-based dynamic assessment involves the quantitative interpretation of ZPD. This kind of dynamic assessment is considered as a tool through which information and insights gained about the kinds of psychological capacities a person will use in the next stage of development i.e. ZPD. Consequently, as Minick, (1987) notes, L2 instructors can determine the kinds of instruction or intervention needed for realization of potentials.

This kind of assessment assesses and improves the individual’s cognitive development, thanks to the contribution made by Vygotsky’s ZPD concept to learning process. This qualitative approach to dynamic assessment puts more emphasis on learning than assessment. When this type of dynamic assessment is underway, leading inquiries, hints, or prompts are not pre-planned and they unfold from mediated dialogue (Lantolf &Pohner, 2004). Engaging in the interaction, the examiner makes responses to the examinee’s demands and constantly re-adjusts his/her mediation (Ableeva, 2010 as cited in Barzegar & Azarizad, 2014). Interactionist dynamic assessment is beaded on Vygotsky’s emphasis on dialogic interaction. Based on this approach, assistance is realized in the interaction between mediator and the learners.

Concerning different studies which have been carried out on dynamic assessment, Davin (2011) examined the use of group dynamic assessment in a classroom where both fourth and fifth grade elementary Spanish students were studying interrogative use and formation. The findings showed that while some learners shifted from assisted to unassisted performance in large group dynamic assessment, other learners required peer mediation given during small group work to improve interrogative use and formation.

Poehner (2008) conducted a study in which advanced French learners were shown different parts of an English movie. Initially, the participants produced an oral narrative in the L2 following watching a short video clip. In this stage, they were
not provided with any mediation in the first task. Then, the second clip from the same story was played to them. However, the participants were provided with various techniques such as hints, leading inquiries, suggestions, and explicit feedback while they were producing their oral narratives. The aim was to improve their speaking ability. The researcher used the results of the assessment involving the performance differences between the first and second tests as the basis for giving individualized instruction. In fact, the participants were tutored in those parts in which they had been found to lack the required proficiency. Furthermore, the study also assessed the participants’ capability to decide correctly with respect to the use of the imparfait and passé in French language during their narrations of movie. Poehner (2008) asserts that mediation can be provided to meet the learners’ demands in tasks. The findings also revealed that dynamic assessment can provide insights on the causes of learners’ errors. It was concluded that the mediation leads to improved understanding of these two tenses and aspects for the learners.

Lantolf and Poehner (2011) investigated the way in which a K-5 Spanish instructor put into operation the dynamic assessment. The sample of this study included a large group of students. The studies on dynamic assessment are often conducted individually with one mediator and only one learner. They include dynamic assessment into routine lessons while instructional objectives or curricular goals are not changed by the teacher. The instruction is given while students’ ZPD is taken into account in order to enhance the development of subject/adjective agreement in Spanish. The findings of the study showed positive results in improving the group’s ZPD. A case study conducted by Xiaoxiao and Yan (2010) on dynamic assessment of L2 process writing offered a framework for English writing, using the principles of dynamic assessment. Findings regarding the application of their framework showed that instruction in a dialogic way can assist the learners in improving their writing as well as their motivation for writing.

An investigation carried out by Isavi (2012) revealed that nearly all participants in the study experienced challenges in their writing ability. They only could have a better performance through following mediator guidance. The individual challenges faced by the participants entailed the use of different kinds and amounts of mediation. In fact, the differences showed that the participants owned different ZPDs. This required the mediator to adjust his support differently to different learners. It is worth mentioning that the participants’ real independent performance level in the pretest stage did not indicate their ZPDs. This implies that learners with the same type of error on the pretest had different reactions to the mediation, with some learners being able to identify the errors with an independent revision of their own writing or following the reception of initial hints from the instructors. In contrast, others were not able to identify the error until it was explicitly said by the mediator.

Ghahremani and Azarizad (2013) conducted a study to find out the impact of dynamic assessment on organization and content of the compositions written by Iranian L2 learners. The study was carried out by providing mediation as a means...
to enhance learners' span of the ZPD which is indicated by the distance between them and their instructor or classmates in a writing task. The findings revealed that the students' writing ability has increased substantially.

Naeni and Duvall (2012) carried out an investigation to examine the dynamic assessment of reading comprehension. To this end, they used a mixed method to assess the extent to which the participants enhanced their reading comprehension performance because of adopting a dynamic assessment approach to the instruction and assessment. In this study, the mediation stage consisted of three interception sessions, with each one dealing with one of the following reading comprehension sub skills: determining the main idea, inference and determining the meaning of unknown words. The results showed significant improvement in the participants' reading comprehension performance following the mediation.

3. Method

This study followed a quasi-experimental method. The participants of this study were homogenized through an Oxford Placement Test (2010) and were treated as two intact classes.

In the present study, the list of resultive conjunctions proposed by Smalley et al. (2000) was used. They include because, since, for, as a result of, so, this led to, so that, therefore, thus, consequently, in order to, as a consequence, accordingly, hence.

A list of 50 topics (See Appendix A) appropriate for cause and effect paragraph writing were found through surfing the Internet. These topics were then given to two university professors with a PhD in TEFL to help the researcher choose the most suitable topics for the purpose of this study. To this aim, 20 such topics (See Appendix B) were chosen as suitable topics for this study.

A writing pretest was administered in which the participants were asked to write a cause an effect paragraph on a topic. To select the topics, initially, about 20 selected topics (Appendix B) chosen from among 50 initial topics were given to the participants. Then the students were provided with these 20 topics and asked to rate them according to the most interesting and least interesting ones. It should be noted that the topics were given to the participants and learners were asked to rate them on a Likert scale from 1 = I hate this topic. 2 = I do not like this topic. 3 = I like this topic. 4 = I really like this topic. 5 = I love this topic. Next, all the scores for each topic by all the participants were added up and the two most popular topics were chosen for Pre-test and Post-test purposes. The most popular topic was chosen as the topics for the purposes of pre-test. The second most popular topic was selected for the post-test purposes. The rest of the topics were the topics (10 topics) through which the treatment was carried out. Eight of the topics which were rated low on the popularity scale were removed and thus there were a total of 12 topics ten for treatment purposes and the two most popular topics were selected for the purposes of pretest and posttest.
Initially, after selecting the female participants from a language institute, they were given an OPT, the results of which were used to homogenize the participants of the study in terms of overall language proficiency level. Following that, these two classes were assigned randomly to an experimental group and the other a control group. This was followed by conducting a writing exam in which the participants were asked to write a cause and effect paragraph on a chosen topic of their interest among some topics provided. This aimed to make sure that all students are homogenous with respect to the use of resultive conjunction in their writings. To rate the writings, the researcher assigned a score to each writing in terms of accuracy of usage of resultive conjunctions. This scoring procedure was based on the use of resultives, appropriateness use of resultives and grammaticality of the use of resultives. Accordingly, a grammatical and appropriate use of a resultive was counted as three scores. The obtained scores went through an independent samples t-test for comparison of the means of the two classes. The results of t-test indicated that the two groups were not significantly different from each other in terms of use of resultives.

The experimental group students were provided with a set of topics of their interest. They were asked to write a cause and effect paragraph on their selected topic each session. Following Lantolf and Poehner’s (2004) interventionist model, DA group composed the paragraph while they were provided with preplanned mediation whereas the other group received no such mediation but were tested on the basis of their independent performance in composing their selected topics. To provide the DA group with preplanned mediation, Lantolf and Poehner’s (2011) scale was adopted, on the basis of which 8 forms of mediation are provided depending on each and every particular learner’s responsiveness. It is noteworthy that according to Lantolf and Poehner’s (2011) all these forms must be included in the treatment since the nature of DA requires mediation in a step-wise manner depending on the need of the learner for mediation. Mediation is the process through which people regulate surroundings, “others or their own social and mental activity by using culturally constructed artifacts, concepts and activities” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 79). In other words, this mediation can be achieved through the objects such as computers, or texts or another person (Kozulin, 2003; Wertsch, 2007). Therefore, the researcher focused on the resultive conjunctions used in learners’ writings. If a learner’s response towards the use of a resultive conjunction was correct, the mediator, i.e. the researcher, provided no mediation. However, if the learner’s product was not correct and/or appropriate, the mediator moved one or more steps further till the last step where s/he had to provide the learner with full explanations. In fact, the forms of mediation given were as follows: 1. Teacher pauses 2. Teacher repeats just the part of the sentence with the error 3. Teacher asks: what is wrong with that sentence/transition device? 4. Teacher points out the incorrect word 5. Teacher asks either- or questions 6. Teacher identifies the correct answer and 7. Teacher explains why. As it may have been noticed, step 1 is the most implicit while step 7 is the most explicit mediation which may be provided. This procedure in experimental group continued for 6 sessions.
In the control group, students were only required to write cause and effect paragraphs and no elements (e.g. offering feedback, giving explanations) of the DA procedure were implemented. The learners in this group had no access to preplanned mediation. This group mainly received static conventional feedback in which no step-wise mediation was administered. In other words, the learners in this group were provided with the correct answers in a traditional way and there was not any sort of step by step feedback as stipulated by Lantolf and Poehner's (2011) for DA. In the control group; however, the learners received static assessment and were provided with non-dynamic assessment. To this aim, the writings of the learners were corrected and given back to them each session. In fact, the teacher corrected the learners’ errors directly.

In the last session in both groups, a writing post-test, a cause and effect paragraph topic was assigned to both groups. The writings at this stage were rated again and the results were used to examine the effect of dynamic assessment on the use of resultive conjunctions in participants’ writings.

To analyze the collected data in the current study, the researcher used both descriptive and inferential statistics. After establishing the normality assumption of the collected data sets independent samples t-test was used to investigate the research question. The data were analyzed through using SPSS version 21.

4. Results and Discussion

After making sure of the normality, an independent samples t-test was run on the pretest scores of the two groups.

Table 1 illustrates the results of independent samples t-test on the pretest writing scores of the experimental and control group.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Table 1</th>
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<td><strong>Independent Samples t-test Results on the Writing Pretest Scores of the Experimental and Control Group</strong></td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Independent Samples Test</strong></th>
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<td>Levene's Testt-test for Equality of Means for Equality of Variances</td>
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Vol. 7, Issue 4, April 2017
As indicated in Table 1 the significant value equals 0.32, which is higher than the confidence level of 0.05 and, therefore it can be inferred that the means of the two groups for writing pretest scores were not significantly different. Thus, the two groups were homogeneous in terms of the use of resultative conjunctions prior to the administration of the treatment.

In the next stage, the researcher attempted to find any possible differences in the use of resultive conjunctions between the post-test scores of the control and experimental groups to capture the effect of treatment (dynamic assessment). To this aim, an independent samples t-test was run on the posttest writing scores of the control and experimental groups. Table 2 illustrates the results of independent samples t-test on the posttest writing scores of the experimental and control groups.

Table 2
*Independent Samples t-test Results on the Writing Posttest Scores of the Experimental and Control Group*

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Groups</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assumed</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>−.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.60</td>
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</table>

As indicated in Table 1 the significant value equals 0.32, which is higher than the confidence level of 0.05 and, therefore it can be inferred that the means of the two groups for writing pretest scores were not significantly different. Thus, the two groups were homogeneous in terms of the use of resultative conjunctions prior to the administration of the treatment.

In the next stage, the researcher attempted to find any possible differences in the use of resultive conjunctions between the post-test scores of the control and experimental groups to capture the effect of treatment (dynamic assessment). To this aim, an independent samples t-test was run on the posttest writing scores of the control and experimental groups. Table 2 illustrates the results of independent samples t-test on the posttest writing scores of the experimental and control groups.

Table 2
*Independent Samples t-test Results on the Writing Posttest Scores of the Experimental and Control Group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>Levene's Test t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>for Equality of Variances</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
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As shown in the Table 2, the significant value is 0.00 with p value of p ≤0.05. Therefore, a significant difference was found between the dynamic assessment group and control group in terms of the use of resultive conjunctions in their writings. Moreover, as observed in Table 2, the mean of the scores for the control and experimental group were 13.56 and 16.33. Therefore, it can be concluded that the dynamic assessment group had a better performance in terms of the accurate use of resultive conjunctions in their writings compared to the performance of the static assessment group.

The better performance of dynamic group compared to static group with respect to use of resultive conjunctions can be explained in terms of the solid theoretical foundation for dynamic assessment. Some propositions and theories such as sociocultural theories and ZPD introduced by Vygotsky can be considered as the validity of the contributions of dynamic assessment to the promotion of learning.

Socio-cultural theory proposed by Vygotsky's (1978) focuses on the developmental differences among the learners. Consequently, this theory can account for the learners' abilities more thoroughly. This is in keeping with the assertion that interaction plays an important role in the assessment of language assessment. Vygotsky maintains that these zones of development make important contributions to learning. Put it other way, the learners in their attempts to acquire new knowledge are backed by more knowledgeable persons who act as scaffolding for less knowledgeable individual. Nassaji and Cumming (2000) sought to offer a case-study account of characteristics of the ZPD in the instruction and learning of L2. They conducted an analysis on 95 exchanges in interactive dialogue journals composed during 6 months related to 6-year-old Farsi speaker starting to acquire English. The participant's teacher was Canadian. The study sought to show how the instructor and student created and kept on a long-term written conversation with intricate patterns of complementary, asymmetrical scaffolding. They put emphasis on the helpfulness of the analysis of L2 learning and instructions as integrally unified, interconnected phenomena. In the same vein, in the current investigation, participants in dynamic assessment group were engaged in stepwise and continuous interactions with their instructor (scaffolder) which might have resulted in more durable and deeper learning of resultive conjunctions.
Besides, sociocultural theory offers a strong background when it comes to the explanation of the higher efficacy of dynamic assessment than static assessment. In essence, sociocultural theory mainly involves the social interactions within which flows of conversation and dialogues take place. These interactions are considered as a fundamental and continuous part of dynamic assessment. For example, Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) investigated the interactions unfolding between adult ESL students and a tutor. Learners made progress in the ZPD by receiving developmentally sensitive assistance during tutoring sessions. The development of a ZPD mediated by pair-work led to the more competent performance for both students since a learner has a performance above his/her level of current level of competence in the ZPD through being provided with the help of the peer. In this context, the learner makes progress as he/she increases his/her independence.

The results of this investigation are consistent with the results of other studies carried out previously. For example, Albeeava (2008), Pishgadam et al. (2011), Sadeghi et al. (2011) etc, referred to the positive effect of dynamic assessment on L2 learning. The acquisition of L2 vocabulary can be enhanced, using process-oriented dynamic assessment. A group of scholars maintain that the use of dynamic assessment in L2 classes leads to more active participation of L2 learners while they are learning L2. It enhances L2 learners’ motivation, lowering the test-related anxiety. Advocating the positive impact of dynamic assessment on leaner's use of resultive conjunctions and writing, an investigation conducted by Barzegar and Azarizad (2014) indicated the positive impact of dynamic assessment on learners' writing skills. They say that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' performances at the outset of the experiment. However, the statistical results of the posttest indicated that at the end of the term the experimental group had a better performance than the control group because of the administration of administering dynamic assessment as the midterm exam. Moreover, Antón (2009) investigated the effect of dynamic assessment on university students' performance. She used dynamic assessment with third year Spanish majors to examine their speaking and writing performance on a diagnostic test. She came to conclusion that dynamic assessment leads to a better understanding of students’ abilities.

Clearly, changes in language instruction accompanied with assessment systems have shifted from product-oriented to process-oriented ones (Lantolf & Pöhnner, 2004). Today, dynamic assessment in L2 learning can provide new insights into assessment in the L2 classroom by disclosing invaluable secrets regarding the ability of individual learners. The justification can be the process-oriented nature of dynamic assessment.

Inspired by the facts discussed above, the study sought to compare two types of assessment with respect to their effectiveness in learning the use of resultive conjunctions. Following the administration of the experiment, it was revealed that participants who acquired through dynamic assessment had a better performance than the static assessment group. The findings advocated clearly the use of dynamic assessment in encouraging the use of resultive conjunctions in writing.
Consequently, it was concluded that second language learners can take advantage of more dynamic assessment in L2 writing courses.

References


CULTURAL CONCEPTUALIZATION OF DAST 'HAND' IN PERSIAN

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Abstract
It is the human body as a resource, playing a crucial role in conceptualizing different aspects of our experiences such as emotion, thoughts, character traits, abilities, etc. This study focuses on the case of dast 'hand' in Persian. A semantic analysis of the everyday expressions in Persian including this body part term uncovers the conceptualisations of dast in relation to personality traits, control & power, moves, person, means & skill. It is argued that our bodily experiences have a dominant role in meaning making which is reflected in the language we use. The finding of this study provides a basis for the claim that there is a close relationship between language, culture, and body. Referring to English and Chinese, the study shows that there is more commonality between Persian and English in terms of cultural conceptualization, and the differences root in Persian political and religious discourses.

Key words: Hand, semantic analysis, cultural conceptualization, metaphor, metonymy

1. Introduction
The external body part with which we deal with the external world is our hands. With bipedal and upright posture, we, as human, work, eat, and play with our hands. Significantly, to keep our body in balance, we need to swing our hands. The cognitive schemas upon which we construct concepts, complex, are catalyzed by our everyday bodily experiences. This is obviously a process of metaphoric and metonymic conceptualization and categorization which is reflected in our languages (Yu, 1998).

A usage based approach to the study of language is cognitive linguistics which sees the knowledge of linguistics as an integral part of general cognition. Within the domain of cognitive linguistics, the study of the conceptual and experiential basis of linguistics categories have integrated with the study of cultural models (see, for e.g., Geererts&Cuyckens. 2007; Lakoff,1987). Kovecses (2009, p.4) emphasizes that the relationship between culture and language can be dealt with if we assume that both
culture and language are about making meaning. Thus, meaning making should be regarded as a general concept relating to cognitive, linguistics, and social abilities.

Cognitive operations such as categorization, figure-ground alignment, metaphor and metonymy, conceptual integration, etc. are systematic ways to study meaning (see, for instance, Kovecses, 2000 for a discussion).

The meaning making pertaining to body organs and brain are ordinary to us as human beings. This means that both organs of the body and brain are responsible for the establishment of universal meaning. However, at the same time, it is conceptualization emerging within a given culture and within a given social and physical environment reflecting the notion that the socio-cultural and physical environment is an inseparable constituent of meaning making, resulting in cross cultural differences. Koveceses (2009) pointed out that it is the influence of environment playing a crucial role in metaphorical and metonymical conceptualizations. As exemplified by Ning’s Yu volume, the study of cross cultural differences in metaphorical and metonymical conceptualization of body organs is extremely attractive. Metaphoric and metonymic expressions associated with body parts have received a considerable recognition among scholars. For instance, Yu’s (1998,2008) work on body parts in Chinese and English put emphasize on the significance of culture. Yu argued that although there are similarities between Chinese and English in terms of culture, the differences rooted in Chinese culture in regarding philosophy and medicine. Similar contrastive analysis can be found in Emanation (1995), Soriano (2004). Koveceses (2005) who before prodigiously underpinned universal account of metaphor (see Kovecses 1995), now admits the importance of culture in metaphor cross cultural and within culture variation. Koveceses considers the embodiments and social-cultural experiences as separate systems (2005: 285) and maintained that the distinction between primary and complex metaphors on the basis of the role of culture. Palmer’s (1996, 2003) work on cultural linguistics reflects the idea that language is the product of imagery-based verbal symbols which are culturally constructed, and these imagery symbols could clarify all sorts of linguistics phenomena (figurative language, semantics, grammar, etc.). With regard to cases studies in Tagalong and Coeur d’Alene, he maintains that cognitive linguistics is an efficient framework to study language and culture. To investigate the relationship between language and culture, this line of research has applied to metaphor analysis. Several authors are now striving to discover how metaphorical conceptualizations originated from certain cultural traditions (see, for instance, papers in Maalej & Yu, 2011; Sharifian & Palmer, 2007; Sharifian et.al, 2008).

In this study I explore the bodily dimension in Persian from the theoretical perspective of cognitive semantic (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999, Johnson 1987; Lakoff, 1987, Langacker 1987; Sweater, 1999; Turner, 1997; Gibbs, 1994). In particular, I study cultural conceptualization of metonymic and metaphoric extension in the form of compounds and idioms, containing the lexical items denoting 'hand' in Persian. In this study, English and Chinese are taken into account
for comparison. The observations made in this study support the claim that everyday bodily experience provides a rich resource for the development of linguistics meaning. In addition, I focus on a particular body part in Persian *dast* 'hand' to represent abstract concepts via metaphor and metonymy. To illustrate the embodied nature of abstraction, let me cite a few examples. Given in (1) is a set phrase containing *dast* 'hand'. This aphorism describes an active person doing his works with his hands, and when asked for help, he borrows his hands to the person in need. This knowledge which is unconscious to some extent, calls our attention about how assistance is conceptualised as 'helping hand'. Thus, the abstraction is based firmly in our bodily experience- by looking at some cases, where, the hand is, in fact, somehow associated with assistance, it can be seen that in (1a) the act of help is conceptualized as 'give somebody a helping hand'. This conceptualization has similarity with English expression 'give/lend somebody a helping hand'.

(1)  
   a. *Ali be Zahra dast-e yari dad*  
      Ali to Zahra hand-of help gave  
      Ali helped Zahra.

   b. *Maryam gooshi-ro javab bede dast-am bande*  
      Maryam telephone-Do marker answer give hand-my busy is  
      Maryam, I'm busy, answer the phone.

In (1b), *dast* is like an activity tool. This means that when being doing an activity, hands, unfortunately, are not able to do another activity simultaneously. Here, the act of doing something is conceptualized as 'one's hands are busy'. In other words, this refers to the metonymy of 'THE HAND STAND FOR ACTIVITY'.

In the following, I will show how *dast* hand is distributed in the Persian lexicon, illustrating with compounds and sentences.

2. Hand and Character Traits

A common usage of the word hand in Persian is associated with moral characteristics of different kinds, such as being honest, being stingy, being a spendthrift and etc. Here are some examples of this usage:

(7)  
   a. *Zahra khelii dast-esh khoshk-e*  
      Zahra alot hand-her dry is  
      Zahra is very stingy.

   B. *Sara dast-o del baz-e*  
      Sara hand and heart open is  
      Sara is a prodigal person (not stingy)
In (7a), the moral trait such as stinginess is conceptualised as 'dry hand', in the sense that a mean person barely spends money. This expression is equivalent to 'close-fisted' in English. However, in the sentence (7b) unlike (7a), a prodigal person in Persian culture is conceptualised as 'open hand and heart'. This means that 'having an open hand and heart' is associated with spending money in a wasteful and extravagant way. In other words, a spendthrift person does not think about the worth of money and wastes it in an unreasonable way. English usage, however, suggests different meaning from that of Persian, in that an 'open mind' person has 'open hand'. (Ahn & Kwon, 2007). However, in Chinese, 'open hand' is culturally related 'to start something' because people cannot handle things with close hands, so it is necessary for them to open their hands first as 'they start to do something'.

(8)

a. *Madar-am zan-i dast-o del pak-ast*
   
   Mother-my women-one hand and heart clean is
   
   My mother is an honest woman.

b. *Hamotagh-im dast kaji dare*
   
   Roommate-my hand crooked has
   
   My roommate is a thief.

In (8a), the cleanness of the hand is a cultural conceptualisation. Cleanness of the hand associated with 'sincerity and truthfulness' which are characteristics of a person with 'clean hand'. English usage parallels with Persian in this domain. However, in Iran, a person with thievishness is conceptualised as 'having a crooked hand' which implies a contrary meaning to the expression of 'clean hand' in (8a).

Other expressions in which the hand is conceptualized in relation to character traits include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persian expression</th>
<th>Lexical meaning</th>
<th>Near equivalence in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. Shoor dast</td>
<td>Salty hand</td>
<td>Ominous/unblessed/unlucky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Frakh dast</td>
<td>Extend hand</td>
<td>Generous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. daste tohi</td>
<td>Hand-of empty</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In (a) above, having a 'long hand' is associated with ruthless. In other words, a person, unjust and cruel, is metaphorically conceptualized as having a 'long hand' which in Persian called 'daste draz'. However, in Chinese and English, the usage of the word 'long-hand' has a different meaning from that of Persian. In Chinese and English, greedy people have 'long hands'. In the case of (b), 'shoor dast' which
literally means 'salty hand' refers to a person who is wicked or unblessed. In (c), another character trait associated with the hand, in Persian, is generosity. A generous person helping others by giving money is described as 'frakh dast' 'extend hand'. Whereas, in the Chinese culture, 'hand-extend' associates with power and honour. When people want something, they reach out their hands to grab it. If they are anxious to get it, they may reach out 'with both hands'. This tactile-kinesthetic reasoning is metaphorically extended to the abstract concept of obtaining honour or power (Yu, 1998). In (d), 'having no financial income to afford basic needs of life' is metaphorically conceptualized as 'empty-hand'. English and Chinese have similarity with Persian expression 'empty-hand', referring to people who have no possession (Yu, 1998). The following section focuses on the expression of dast in relation to power and control.

3. Hand, Power, and Control

Hand also associated with power and control. According to Zakaei & Amnpoor (2012, pp.39-40), in Iran, religious discourses play a crucial role in cultural conceptualization. In Persian, the expressions such as 'daste khoda', 'daste sarnevesht', 'daste Mousa' which literary means 'God's hand', 'fate's hand', and 'Mousa's hand' respectively, reflect a superior power or force which completely associate with religious. For example, in (10a), the speaker says 'God's hand with you' to ensure listener that God like a guard will take care of you. In Iranian culture, this expression is frequently used as people bid farewell from each other.

10) a. Dast-e khoda be hamr-at
Hand-of God to with you
God takes care of you

b. Dast-e sarnevesht ma-ro az ham joda kard
Hand-of fate we-Do marker from each other separation did
Fate separated us from each other

In (10b), 'the hand of fate' refers to a supernatural power controlled by God or by predestination introduced by God in which people have no interference. According to some spiritual people in Iran, human destiny has been written in their mind before their birth. Thus, this supernatural power is conceptualized as 'the hand of fate'. These expressions seem to be metonymically motivated. This means that, partly, power is reflected in religious expressions.

However, power and authority, in Persian culture, is not always associated with supernatural power. In some cases, it donates 'hegemony and domination' of some people over others. The following examples show this usage more clearly:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persian expression</th>
<th>lexical meaning</th>
<th>near equivalence in English</th>
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</table>

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In the case (11a), the expression 'dast bala' is used when an official position as a politician or member of a group of people control other people in the society. In other words, they have some sort of hegemony over ordinary people. This is a metonymic conceptualization representing THE HAND STAND FOR POWER/CONTROL. In (11b), a servant working under the control of a superior is called 'under hand'. However, in Chinese, a person working under the hand of another is like an assistant, not a servant.

4. Hand and Moves

As mentioned earlier, hands are external body parts with which physical works are done. With hands, we can 'start something', 'stop something', and 'participate in something'. The following expression will explain this distribution more clearly:

12). Man va khahar-am dast be kar shod-im
      I and sister-my hand to work become-we

My sister and I started to work.

In (12), the act of starting something is conceptualized as 'getting the hand to work'. When someone plans to start doing an activity or task, in Persian culture, it is called 'dast be kar shodan', reflecting the idea that our hands give us support to embark an activity. This metonymy has commonality with Chinese expression of 'put-hand-to work'.

(13) Madar-am badaz namaz khoondan dast baravord
      Mother-my after pray saying hand raised

After saying pray, my mother started to pray.

Similarly in (13), the act of starting to pray, here, is conceptualized as 'raising hands for pray'. This means that as people intend to talk to God, they immediately raise their hand and begin to pray. In modern Persian, the expression 'dast baravord' has become limited to formal usage in the academic texts rather than in everyday people expressions.

(14) a. Baradar-am az sigar kshidan dast keshid
      Brother-my from cigarette smoking hand pull back
      My brother stopped smoking

b. Lotfan dast ngah dar-id, pdar-am ro aziat nakon-id
      Please hand keep have you, father-my Do marker annoy don't you

11). a. Dast bala Hand top An official position/seat
    b. Zir dast Under hand Servitude
Please stop irritating my father

In contrast to the examples in (12) and (13), the metonymic expressions in both (14a,b) have the meaning of stop doing something. In (14a), 'pulling back hands' is a cultural conceptualization, in the sense that the physical action of our hands metonymically and metaphorically suggests our desire to quit improper acts like smoking. In English, similarly, the idiomatic expression 'throw up one's hand' metaphorically refers to 'leave something' or 'stop doing it'. In (14b), the speaker asks the listener to stop irritating his/her father. The act of ceasing is conceptualized in terms of 'keeping hand'.

5. Hand and Person

In Persian lexicon, *dast* hand is used frequently in the form of metonymy to suggest that part stands for the whole person as represented by the conceptual metonymy of THE HAND STAND FOR PERSON. A large number of expressions associated hand emphasizes on a person's experience, expertise, ability, and competence, in general, or a person's skill, trade, and profession, in particular. The following examples will demonstrate this idea:

(2). Ali *dast-e rast-e pdar-am-e*

Ali hand-EZ right-EZ father-my is

Ali is my father's right hand.

In sentence (2a), the person is conceptualized in terms of 'right hand', in the sense that right hand stand for a 'loyal or believable' person. In other words, in this metonymy, the right sight equated with 'good and favorable' things. The metonymy of 'right hand' has things in common with other languages like English and Korean with the same meaning as in Persian.

(3) *Daneshamozan ketab ra dast be dast kard-and*

Students book Do marker hand to hand did they

Students pass the book to each other.

When we are going to pass an object from one person to another we say 'hand to hand', this is a typical metonymy of the PART FOR THE WHOLE. It is obvious that the metonymy of hand in Persian refers to the person. Similarly, in English, the act of transfer is also conceptualized as 'hand to hand', in the sense that something passes from one person to another or from one generation to another.

6. Hand, Means and Skill

The body-part *dast* is used very frequently in conceptualizations of means and skills. Consider the following examples:

4). a *Dast-e ma kootah va khorma bar nakhil(*

Hand-of we short and date on palm
We can't achieve our goals

b, Dast-esh az donya kootah ast
Hand-her/him from world short is

He/she is unable to defend himself/herself in this world.

In the case of (4a), the aphorism 'daste ma kootah va khorma bar nakhil' which literally means 'our hands are short and date is on the palm', refers to the idea that people may don't have any means to reach their goals. In reality, a palm tree is long enough that simply our hands can't reach it to pick dates. Thus, in Persian, hand as a mean associated with reaching or achieving a goal and it is metonymically conceptualized as 'short hand'. In (B), having a 'short hand' is associated with a person's absence in this world. This conceptualization appears to be metonymic, in that inability of a dead person that cannot defend himself/herself in this world is culturally conceptualised as 'short hand'. However, 'short hand' 'shou-duan' in the Chinese lexicon associates with taking the bribe. As taking bribes, people cannot act with justice as if they have 'short hand'.

(5) Pedar-am dast be ghalam khoobi dare
Father-my hand to pencil good-EZ have
My father is a an expert writer

6). Doost-am dast be zan khobi dare
Friend-my hand to hitting good has
M friend is skilful in hitting others by hand

Since hands are the external body parts with which people work, those who are good or bad at doing something are then said to have good or bad hands for carrying it out. In (5) above, 'having the pen in hand' associated with the skill. This conceptualization appears to be metronic, in that when a person is dexterous in writing, in Persian, he is called an expert writer which reflected in the Persian expression of 'dast be ghalam' 'hand to pen'. When people are doing manual works (e.g., writing), their skills or techniques of doing the job is the way (i.e., method) their hands move. Thus, writer's literary skills are represented in their literary works originally written out with a pen held in the hand. Similarly, in Chinese, the compound (Hand-pen) means writers' literary skill which is manifested in their literary works. In (6), 'the dexterity of a person in hitting' is culturally conceptualised in terms of 'one's adroit hand in hitting others', referring to a person defending himself/ herself by using their skilful hands to hit others. In the above expressions, hand associated with the skill which reflects the metonymical conceptualization of THE HAND STAND FOR SKILL.

7. Other Hand-Related Expressions
Some other meanings in Persian that turn on the use of the hand include the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persian expression</th>
<th>Lexical meaning</th>
<th>Near equivalence in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Dast be dahan</td>
<td>Hand to mouth</td>
<td>Regret, bemoan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Dast-o del larzidan</td>
<td>Hand and hear shaking</td>
<td>To fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Dast yeki shodan</td>
<td>Hand one become</td>
<td>Cooperate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Dast-et dard nakone</td>
<td>Hand-you pain don't</td>
<td>Thank you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Dast bar sine</td>
<td>Hand upon chest</td>
<td>Showing respect to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Bi dast-o pa</td>
<td>Without hand and foot</td>
<td>Maladroit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Dast pacheh</td>
<td>Hand leg</td>
<td>Hurried/nervous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Dast-am be daman-et</td>
<td>Hand-my to skirt-you</td>
<td>Help me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Dast-e aval</td>
<td>Hand of first</td>
<td>Novel/new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Dast-e dovom</td>
<td>Hand of second</td>
<td>Used/unoriginal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

in (a) above, regretting and bemoaning is conceptualized as 'taking the hand in the mouth' and thus, here associates with emotion. In (b), 'shaking hand and heart' is a frequently used expression by Persian speakers that refers to the feeling of fear. This fear maybe provoked by witnessing a dreadful event. These cultural conceptualizations refer to the metonymy of THE HAND STAND FOR EMOTION. In (c), the act of cooperation is used in different expressions in Persian culture. The meanings of unity, cooperation, and collaboration have been derived from the bodily action of joining hands. Thus, the act of cooperation is conceptualized as 'becoming one hand'. This metaphorical mapping is also conceptualized in English and Chinese. In (d), the expression 'don't pain your hand' associates with respect and politeness. This expression is usually a thanks response to someone that you are pleased about or are grateful for something that they have done for you. Another example regarding politeness and respect is shown in (e), 'hand upon chest' which refers to the courteous behavior by putting your hands on your chest to reflect some sort of respect toward another person. Thus, the act of respect is conceptualized in terms of 'hand upon chest'. In the case of (f) the expression 'bi dasto pa' which literally means 'without hand and foot' is usually used when a person is awkward in movement or unskilled in behavior or action. This is a metonymic expression associating with a person's manner and trait. In the case of (g), it is apparent that the feeling of nervous and hurried is attributed to the term 'dast-pacheh shodan' in
Persian. When being under pressure or doing different works simultaneously, the person feels nervous, reflecting the conceptualization of 'being hurried'. In Iranian culture, hand is also seen as the source of assistance which refers to the metonymy of THE HAND STAND FOR ASSISTANCE as in (h). In other words, when someone implores another to assist him/her, it is culturally conceptualized as 'taking someone's skirt for help'. In (i), the expression 'daste aval' which literary means 'first hand' suggests some sort of novelty; that is, something that is new. This expression is frequently used with the word 'News' such as 'khabare daste aval' 'the first hand news', meaning new news. 'Second hand' in (j), means used and unoriginal things such as clothes, equipment, furniture, etc. Similarly, in English 'second hand' refers to unoriginal things. However, in Chinese, this expression means 'assistance', in the sense that the person is 'second' to the 'first hand', the person in charge (Yu, 1998).

8. Concluding Remarks

In this study, I have demonstrated that it is through metonymy and metaphor grounded in human bodily experiences with hands that form Persian expression and compounds. In this sense, the close interaction of culture, body, and language have been proved by providing observations about cultural conceptualization dast 'hand' and its related concepts such as hand and person, hand and character traits, hand and move, and etc. The finding of this study unravel how speakers from different cultures such as Persian, English, Chinese, and etc., give support to different parts of their body conceptualization, containing various kinds of their faculties and experiences. The conceptualizations presented in this study are mostly culturally developed and originated from certain traditional or conventional beliefs.

Additionally, this study revealed that Iranian, Chinese, and English cultures share several conceptual metaphors and metonymies pertaining to the hand and these commonalities rooted in the common knowledge about bodily experience with hand.

More importantly, the similarities between Persian language and English language are largely more than Persian and Chinese language because both English and Persian have a common proto-language, which is Indo-European; thus, the similarities trace back to their historical roots. However, the differences are attributed to Persian religious and political discourses. Generally, the metonymy and metaphor of hand made in this study prove the function of language as 'archive' and 'memory bank' for cultural conceptualization. Hence, languages are obviously wealthy resources to support the study of cultural conceptualizations including different aspects of experiences such as skills, character traits, thought, emotion, power, activity, and, etc.(Sharifian, 2011).

References


THE EFFECTS OF KEEPING VOCABULARY NOTEBOOKS ON INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS’ VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

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Abstract
It has been believed by researchers that vocabulary notebooks improve vocabulary acquisition. According to Walters and Buzkurt (2009) keeping vocabulary notebooks has a positive effect on learning vocabulary. This study investigated the effect of keeping vocabulary notebooks on Iranian pre-intermediate English learners’ vocabulary acquisition. Thirty intermediate EFL students from Parsan language school participated in this study. The students were divided into two groups of fifteen students. One group was experimental and the other group was control. A vocabulary notebook program was implemented in one class which was the experimental group over 6 weeks. The control followed the same curriculum with the same materials but without keeping vocabulary notebooks. The posttest and pretest showed significantly greater learning of target words in experimental group. These findings lead the authors to conclude that vocabulary notebooks can be an effective learning tool in EFL classrooms.

Key words: vocabulary knowledge- learning strategies- vocabulary learning strategies

1. Introduction
Uzum (2013) asserted that a vital part of learning a foreign language has always been vocabulary of that language, and that is why many researchers have been keen on studying this important component of language learning process. Vocabulary has been an important issue that has linguists, teachers, and others who are involved in language teaching and language learning worked on different theories and strategies which can be considered as the best to teach or learn vocabulary.
Nemati and Maleki (2007) also suggested in their study that vocabulary acquisition is considered to be essential to language acquisition, and this attitude toward vocabulary is spreading. According to McCrostie (2007) it is curtail to acquire a vast and various numbers of vocabularies to communicate, and it is a central task for foreign language learners. Walters and Bozkurt (2009) revealed using vocabulary notebooks is an opportunity for learners to increase the number of vocabulary learning strategies, among all the vocabulary strategies, it is the best strategy which learners can use on their own so that their vocabulary is improved. Schmitt and Schmitt (1995) believed that keeping vocabulary notebooks by students is one method of learning vocabulary. However, it does not substitute for other method of vocabulary learning e.g. extensive learning, explicit classroom vocabulary exercises, or learning implicitly through task work. According to them, vocabulary notebooks complete the other methods of vocabulary learning through assembling a limited number of words in one place. Walters and Bozkurt (2009) put it that a vocabulary notebook is like a “personal dictionary”. In this regard, students enter the words which they encounter in their notebooks. They also add meanings of the words, and any other important information which is related to them for example: part of speech, collocations, synonyms, antonyms, and maybe an example sentence.

2. Review of the related literature

Different scholars have studied the effects of keeping vocabulary notebooks. Vela and Rushidi (2016) studied the effect of keeping vocabulary notebooks on vocabulary acquisition and learner autonomy. The participants of this study were three groups of Intermediate level students in South East European University Language Center. Over a four week period students followed the same course material and syllabus. One group acted as the treatment group and kept vocabulary notebooks and the remaining two groups were control groups and did not keep vocabulary notebooks. His findings revealed that that the treatment group results were significantly more successful than the control groups. Walters and Bozkurt (2009) conducted their study on EFL learners. They implemented vocabulary notebook program in one class over a 4-week period, with the two control groups, following the same curriculum with the same materials but without keeping vocabulary notebooks. Receptive and controlled productive vocabulary tests revealed significantly greater learning of the target words in the treatment group. In addition, students in the treatment group demonstrated a greater tendency to use the target words in free writing compositions. Fowle (2001) had his study about the same subject. He concluded that vocabulary notebooks improve “self-management strategies” as well. Moreover, students somehow plan to get some goals in vocabulary learning area. He also added when learners choose the items in order to include in their notebooks, they need to focus on their current knowledge of vocabulary so as to select appropriate words which meet their needs for recording in their notebooks. Nosratinia et al.(2013) investigated investigate effects of two different types of a vocabulary learning strategy, "vocabulary notebooks with definitions" and "vocabulary notebooks with pictures", on the vocabulary retention of extrovert and introvert EFL learners. One extrovert and one introvert classes were
going to implement the vocabulary notebooks with definitions and the other extrovert and introvert classes were going to implement vocabulary notebooks with pictures. The outcome reveals that: There is a significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary note book with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on extrovert EFL learners' vocabulary retention. The extrovert students keeping note books with pictures outperformed the extrovert students keeping note books with definitions on the post-test of vocabulary retention.

This research intended to answer the following question:

Does keeping vocabulary notebook have statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning?

According to the question of the study the following hypothesis was proposed:

H.0. keeping vocabulary notebooks does not have any effects on vocabulary acquisition.

3. Methods of Research

This study was experimental in nature, in which the effects of keeping vocabulary notebooks were investigated on EFL learners’ vocabulary learning. To do so 30 EFL learners were chosen and they were divided into two groups. A pre-test was run to find out their abilities in vocabulary. The experimental group was asked to have a vocabulary notebook, while the control group not. A posttest was run to find out the effects of vocabulary notebooks on both groups vocabulary learning acquisitions.

3.1 participants of the study

The participants of this study were two groups of 15 Iranian male and female EFL learners studying in Parsan language institute in Rasht. They were all given TOEFL placement test, so they were homogenous and at intermediate level. They were adults between the ages of 18 to 40. One group was considered as experimental group. They were asked to have vocabulary notebooks and include all the new words that they learned in their notebooks and the other group was the control group. They were taught the same set of vocabulary. However, they were not asked to keep a vocabulary notebook.

3.2 Instrument

In order to homogenize the participants and to make sure whether all of them were in the same level of proficiency, TOEFL placement test was administered (see appendix A). The reliability of this test was calculated to be 85%. The exams were graded by the teacher. After correcting the papers and scoring them, it was found that all the 30 participants were in the same level of proficiency, i.e. intermediate level. Then, the students were randomly assigned to two groups, as control and experimental groups. Each group included 15 students. Pre-test was a multiple-choice vocabulary test which was based on vocabularies that appeared in the units of American English File3 which was supposed to be covered over the 6-week
period. The test was a receptive test and it included 30 target words. The reliability of the vocabulary test was checked through a pilot study. The reliability of 30 items of the multiple-choice vocabulary test was estimated through running Cronbach's Alpha to the data collected in a pilot study on 10 EFL learners, and it was .725 (see Appendix B). Pre-test of vocabulary was given to both control group and experimental group at the beginning of the study to inspect their prior vocabulary knowledge. Then both groups were taught the words which were target words besides other non-target words in 6 weeks, but the experimental group was asked to have a vocabulary notebook. The control group was not asked to have vocabulary notebooks. The target words, selected by researcher, were taught during the course whenever they appeared in the book (Appendix C). In both groups students were given the definition of words and some examples including the words, although only experimental group were asked to write the words in their notebooks, and their notebooks were checked by the teacher regularly. Then both groups were given the same exam as the e posttest which would test them on the words which had been already taught. Then their exams were graded. The following table indicates the reliability of the test.

Table 1
The Reliability analyses of the pre and post-test of vocabulary (pilot study)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple-choice vocabulary test</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results

Having gathered the necessary data, the researcher took several steps to analyze the data, reach the goals of the study, and find the answers to the posed questions.

The independent-samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores for the control and experimental groups with respect to their vocabulary achievement both at the beginning and at the end of the study. Besides, paired samples t-test was run to investigate the possible improvement within the groups from the pretest to the posttest regarding their vocabulary learning. The main supposition of the parametric tests to wit normality was verified before directing the main statistical analyses. The general assumption common to T-Tests that is normality of the distributions was inspected through computing the Skewness and kurtosis values and obtaining the trimmed means. The following table highlighted the relationship between these distributions and established the normal distribution of these variables, too.

Table 2
Statistics for the vocabulary test scores (pre and posttests)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>5% Trimmed Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
<th>Skewnes s</th>
<th>Kurtosi s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest scores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>11.866</td>
<td>9.9384</td>
<td>13.794</td>
<td>11.8519</td>
<td>.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>11.933</td>
<td>10.188</td>
<td>13.677</td>
<td>11.9259</td>
<td>.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest scores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>12.400</td>
<td>10.728</td>
<td>14.071</td>
<td>12.3333</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>19.866</td>
<td>17.713</td>
<td>22.020</td>
<td>19.7407</td>
<td>.721</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The trimmed means for all the distributions were within the range of 95% confidence interval for the mean scores suggesting that the extreme scores did not have a large effect on the means. These results pointed out that, since the trimmed means and the main mean values were closely identical for the vocabulary test scores of both control and experimental groups, the values were not too different from the remaining distribution. The Skewness and Kurtosis values reported in Table 2, were all within the range of (+2), implying that the distributions were normal.

Before introducing the specific treatment of keeping vocabulary notebook, a pretest of vocabulary was given to all the participants in the experimental and control groups. The main goal was to inspect their initial knowledge regarding vocabulary before the treatment phase.
The independent samples t-test displayed the results of the Levene’s test for the uniformity of the variances. This examined whether the scattering of scores for the two groups was the same for the pretest scores. The outcome of this test established the correct T-value for the interpretation of scores for the vocabulary test. Since the Sig. value for Levene’s test was higher than (.05), the first row in the table, which referred to “Equal variances assumed,” was utilized for explaining the results of the pretest. In Table 4.6 above, the significance level for the Levene’s test was (α = .75). This was higher than the cut-off of (.05). This meant that the assumption of equal variances had not been violated for the pretest scores. Moreover, since the value in the Sig. (2-tailed) column (α = .95) was higher than (.05), there was not significant differences in the mean scores of the vocabulary test for the control and experimental groups. As this value was higher than the required cut-off of (.05), it could be concluded that there was not statistically significant difference in the means of vocabulary test for the two groups (p > .05). In other words, the control and experimental groups were almost at the same level of proficiency in terms of their vocabulary knowledge in the given test at the beginning of the study.

As the main objective of the present study was to determine the possible impact of keeping vocabulary notebook on EFL learners’ vocabulary learning. The hypothesis was that the stated instruction does not have any statistically significant impact on EFL learners’ vocabulary learning. After several sessions of treatment, the post-test of vocabulary was administered to both experimental and control groups.
Table 4

Independent samples t-test for the two groups’ scores in posttest of vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>-7.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-7.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest scores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the significance value was lower than (.05), it could be inferred that there was a significant difference between the two groups concerning their vocabulary learning in the post-test (t (28) = - 5.87, p =.00 < .05). This finding supported the results of descriptive analysis in which there was a difference between the two groups regarding the mean scores, i.e. the experimental group performed better than the control group. The extent of the differences in the means (mean difference = 7.46, 95% CI: -10.07 to -4.86) was large effect (r =.5516). Effect size statistics provided an indication of the extent of the differences between the two groups. In fact, Eta squared was used to compute the effect size. For the vocabulary test administered at the end of the study, the calculated Eta was shown -Eta squared =34.45/ 34.45 + (15+15-2) = (.5516)- the effect size of (.5516) is relatively large effect. Expressed as a percentage, (55.16 %) of the variance in vocabulary test scores was related to the
types of instruction. In order to inspect the participants’ progress within groups, two paired samples T-tests were run, which stressed the differences in the posttest of vocabulary merely for the experimental group. Table 5 presents the results as well.

Table 5
Paired Samples T-test for the control and experimental groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pretest scores - Posttest scores</td>
<td>-.53</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Pretest scores - Posttest scores</td>
<td>-7.93</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>-9.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results of paired samples t-tests, this improvement was statistically significant simply for the experimental group but not for the control group (P experimental group < .05, P control group ≥ .05).

The results of the statistical analyses showed that since the sig. value obtained was lower than the alpha level of (.05), the null hypothesis was rejected suggesting that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups at the end of the study. In other words, keeping vocabulary notebook had statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ vocabulary learning. In other words, the
experimental group made a considerably higher advancement as compared to the control group in posttest of vocabulary. This meant that, although the participants in the control group made better in their vocabulary learning from the pretest to the posttest, this gain was not statistically significant based on the results of the paired samples t-test.

5. Discussion

The results of the data analysis showed that there was a significant effects of keeping vocabulary notebook on intermediate EFL learners. Learners who kept notebooks outperformed the control group. This findings were consistent with findings of Komur and Özdemir (2015), Walters and Bozkurt (2009), Fowle, (2002) who concluded that keeping vocabulary notebooks had positive effects of vocabulary acquisition. McCrostie (2007) asserted that if students are provided by enough guiding and training on keeping vocabulary notebooks, it is potentially beneficial for vocabulary acquisition. The findings of the present study are consistent with the findings of this claims as learners vocabulary learning improved by keeping vocabulary notebooks. Leek and Show (2000) and Levent (2013) believed that keeping vocabulary notebooks are advantageous in different aspects, as it was shown in the present study, the process of vocabulary retention improved by this method. Nosratnia et al. (2013) revealed that, there is a significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary note book with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on extrovert EFL learners' vocabulary retention. The findings of the present study proved the same too.

References


THE EFFECT OF COLLOCATIONS ON IRANIAN MALE AND FEMALE LEARNERS' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

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Abstract

The present study tried to address the probable impact of teaching English collocations on Iranian EFL learners to increase their level of vocabulary knowledge. Based on the TOEFL test, 22 male and 23 female at the intermediate level were selected to participate in the study. The statistical analyses revealed that teaching collocation increased learners' vocabulary knowledge in both gender.

Key Words: Collocation, Vocabulary Knowledge, Gender

1. Introduction

Learning collocation is regarded as an important and crucial item and has much to do with other lexical items that are combined with it. As McCarthy (1990) argues collocation is an important organizing principle in the vocabulary of any language. Moreover, learners' failure in using collocations in speech or writing is representation of its importance. While collocational knowledge is a part of native speakers' linguistic competence and can make problems for second language learners in communication. Webb and Kagimoto (2009) are in agreement with McCarthy and they maintain that native speakers acquire language through constant contact with their language, but L2 learners are deprived of this privilege. Ellis (2001) holds that collocational knowledge is the essence of language learning.

Vocabulary plays an important role in learning a foreign language and there is a dimension to vocabulary knowledge that should be considered, which is how far a learner knows the possible combinations of words. The term collocation was first introduced by Firth (1957). 'Collocation' has been derived from the verb meaning 'to go together' and it refers to the way words occur together, i.e. 'which words may occur (Larson 1984, p.141). Learning collocation is regarded as an important and crucial item and has much to do with other lexical items that are combined with it. Ellis (2000, as cited in Nation, 2001) also takes a strong position on the importance of collocational knowledge by stating that it is the essence of language learning.

Wary (2000) states that collocations are important in striving learners to promote second language competence, also they are important for learners with less
ambitious aspirations, as they not only enhance accuracy but also fluency. Ghonsooli, Pishghadam, and Mahjoobi (2008) declared that Iranian learners may have a store of good knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary but serious problems with acquiring and using collocations. Acquiring a huge number of vocabularies does not guarantee the knowledge of collocation, because most of students know a large number of single item vocabulary, but they do not know how to combine them properly in writing or speaking. The problem is due to the effect of their mother tongue, or lack of training in this regard.

The emergence of the lexical approach to second language teaching after grammar-based approach was a kind of emphasis on developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations (Moudraia, 2001). Words are not isolated components of any given language, but are parts of many joint system. Nation (2001) classifies word knowledge into three main categories: knowledge of form, knowledge of meaning, and knowledge of use. Knowledge of form involves the spoken and written form as well as word parts. Knowing of meaning refers to concepts, referent and association. Knowledge of use includes grammatical functions, collocations, and constraints on use. Some of these aspects have been considered in pedagogy, while collocation is rarely studied (Hodene, 2009). Nowadays, L2 researchers as in Nesselhauf (2003) and Howarth (1998) have a consensus over the idea of including collocation teaching in educational curriculum.

Gender

Definitions of gender involve social, psychological, and cultural dimensions linked to males and females in different social contexts. A person's gender is often distinguished from sex, as sex is related to the biological aspects of a person such as the chromosomal, anatomical, reproductive, hormonal, and other physiological characteristics that differentiate males and females (Sunderland, 2000). Gender differences have been found in many areas of human social and cognitive development. Studies indicated that females show more interest in social activities than males, females are less competitive and more cooperative than males (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974, as cited in Sunderland, 2000).

Gender-based differences were found to be factors that may affect students' academic achievements and their performance as well. Of the major topics in sociolinguistics is to find out how men and women use language in different ways.

From around the 1970s there has been an increasing interest, in several countries, in gender, context and language use in educational settings. The idea that women and men use language differently has a long history within 'folk linguistics', a term used by some researchers to refer to sets of popular beliefs about language which most of them have been refuted, for example there is a belief that women are like chatterboxes speaking more than men, but some studies have shown that in mixed-sex context men speak twice women (Pica et al., 1989; Shehade, 1999). However, traditionally females and males are assumed to have different abilities regarding language, language learning and different analytical and mathematical skills, but
recent research studies have begun to refute this kind of thinking.

In the study of females' and males' attitudes toward second language learning, Gardner and Lambert (1972) observed that not only females had more positive attitudes toward the speakers of a second language but also they were more motivated toward learning a second language than males were. In relation to girls' and boys' self-conceptualization, Marsh, Byrne and Shavelson (1988) demonstrated that girls had a high self-concept of verbal skills and high achievement in terms of verbal skills, while boys had only a high self-concept of mathematical skills but low achievement. Green and Oxford (1995) investigated the effects of gender and proficiency level on strategy use of EFL students. They found that learner strategies were used more by women than men, and more among successful language learners.

Brantmeier (2003) investigated gender differences by text topic with native Spanish speakers studying intermediate level English as a Foreign Language (EFL). She utilized the same reading passages and comprehension assessment tasks as Brantmeier (2003). Results showed no significant relationship between gender and topic familiarity; however, females scored higher on recall than males for the “female” passage on a housewife. That is, there was a significant relationship between gender and passage topic on the recall assessment task (Brantmeier, ibid).

In language learning strategy research, many studies across different cultures show more frequent strategy use by females than males, especially the social-based strategies (Oxford, 1995, as cited in Zeynali, 2012). Bacon (1992) investigated strategies that learners used when listening to authentic second language texts of two levels of difficulty. She reported that women used a significantly higher proportion of metacognitive strategies than men. They were more likely to plan for the listening, monitor their comprehension and evaluate their strategy use than men. On the other hand, men reported to use more bottom-up strategies than women. Men also reported a significantly greater use of translation strategies than women. They appeared to be in more favor of cognitive strategies than metacognitive strategies. Similarly, Zare (2010) tried to examine the probable differences among Iranian male and female language learners in terms of using language learning strategies. The findings of this study showed that the use of language learning strategies is different among male and female EFL learners in terms of gender since it was found that females EFL learners performed far better compared to males in terms of using learning strategies.

Due to different social norms and educational system in Iran, children are brought up in segregated schools. It is assumed that gender discrimination issues influence their learning process. Therefore, gender was the other category examined in this study.

The present study aimed to examine the effect of collocational knowledge on Iranian male and female vocabulary knowledge. For this purpose, the following research questions were posed:
Q1. Does collocational knowledge have any effect on Iranian male EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge?

Q2. Does collocational knowledge have any effect on Iranian female EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge?

2. Method

Participants

The study was conducted with 55 EFL learners selected from two English language institutes in Ardabil. They took part in the TOEFL test of language proficiency. The students those who scored one standard deviation (SD) above and below the mean (M = 28.98 and SD = 4.62) were selected as the participants of this study. Based on their performance in this test, 22 male with the age range of 16 to 19 and 23 females with the age ranged from 15 to 20 were selected. The participants in this range of scores recognized as intermediate learners.

Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study. The first instrument was TOEFL PBT test with 40 items which was run to measure students’ general ability in English. The reliability of the test was estimated to be .90 using Kuder-Richardson 21 formula. The second instrument was vocabulary test which included 20 gap-filling items. This test was administered to the participants as the pre- and posttest. This test measured three types of collocations; verb-noun, adjective-noun, and verb-preposition. The reliability of this test had alpha coefficients of .76.

Procedure

At the beginning of the study, the reliability of instruments was estimated in a pilot study with 15 students with the same characteristics from another institute. Then TOEFL PBT test was run to 55 students to measure students' ability in English. Based on the students’ performance, 22 male and 23 females were selected as the main participants of the study. After that, the vocabulary pretest was administered to both groups in order to examine their vocabulary knowledge before the treatment. The result of this test indicated no significant difference between the two groups.

Then both groups received the collocational training for about fifteen minutes during ten sessions. To teach verb-noun collocations, some collocations of this type were explained and matched with their partners; then, 8 of them were written on the right shown by numbers (1-8) and their partners written on the left shown by (a, b, c…h) in a mixed pattern. Participants were supposed to match them together in a way that the collocations can be used in a sentence. In the next type of collocations, i.e. adjective-noun, students were asked to match collocations with their easiest definitions taken from dictionaries. In order to teach verb-preposition collocations, the concerned prepositions were given in a box at the top, in mixed patterns, and...
students were asked to fill in the gaps in the given sentences by the collocations from the box. Finally, the post-test was administrated to both groups to observe the effect of the treatment.

4. Design

The study was a quasi-experimental research. It contained pre-test, treatment, and posttest with two experimental groups. The study examined the effect of one dependent variable (collocational training) on one independent variable (vocabulary knowledge).

5. Results

To answer the research questions, two Paired-samples T-tests were run. Table 5.1 presents the mean and standard deviation of the participants in the pre- and posttest stages for males.

Table 5.1
Descriptive Statistics for Vocabulary in the Male Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre vocabulary test</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13.5598</td>
<td>1.66387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post vocabulary test</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>15.2957</td>
<td>1.55856</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 presents the mean and standard deviation of the participants in the pre- and posttest stages for females.

Table 5.2
Descriptive Statistics for Vocabulary in the Female Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre vocabulary test</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14.3205</td>
<td>1.58449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post vocabulary test</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.9474</td>
<td>1.66019</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The obtained results show that there was a slight difference between the means of two groups before treatment. But as it is clear, females outperformed their male counterparts on the posttest stage. Table 5.3 shows the result of Paired-samples T-test for males.
As it is presented in Table 5.3, the collocational training had a positive effect on male EFL learners' lexical knowledge \((\text{Sig}= .000, p < 0.05)\). Table 5.4 indicates the result of Paired-samples T-test for females.

The Paired-samples T-test revealed that the difference between the mean scores of females in pretest and posttest was significant too \((\text{Sig}= .000, p < 0.05)\).

6. Discussion and Conclusion
The study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of teaching English collocations on developing students' vocabulary knowledge. Paired samples results indicated that there was a significant difference between the means of participants before and after the treatment for both male and female participants.

The findings of this study are in line with Hsu's (2010) research finding. He found that direct collocation instruction developed the learners' vocabulary knowledge and enhanced retention.

The findings confirm the research of Naveh, Kafipour and Soltani (2011) who found that gender was a charismatic variable in the fields of vocabulary learning and final achievement of EFL learners. Furthermore, they asserted that female outperformed males in terms of general proficiency and vocabulary size.

In general, the obtained results approved the previous researches on collocation such as Hsu (2010) whose findings center on the positive effect of teaching collocations on foreign language learning in many features. In addition, concerning the participants' gender, the results of descriptive statistics showed that females performed better than males in learning collocations.

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LISTENING STRATEGIES USED BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF TOEFL ACADEMIC LECTURES: FOCUS ON GENDER

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Abstract
The purpose of the present study was to find out listening strategies used by male and female Iranian EFL learners during academic lectures. It investigated whether male and female learners use cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies. The study consisted of 80 advanced male and female learners from one of the private language institutes in Tabriz. Before starting the main study, the TPO test was carried out to check the homogeneity of the participants. This study consisted of two groups. The first group was pilot group and the other was target group. After administrating the listening strategies questionnaire to pilot group in order to examine procedure of this study, one session for taking the listening test from target group was done in this study. To answer the research questions an Independent Samples t-test was used to analyze the quantitative data collected. The results showed that male learners use the most cognitive strategies. However, female learners use the most socioaffective strategies while listening to TOEFL academic lectures. The results of this study can help language educators and administrators to decide about the most effective strategies instruction program to improve second language listening comprehension. As well as, our findings are useful for textbook designers.

Key Words: Listening strategies; male learners; female learners; Academic lectures

1. Introduction
The literature of the language skills is very dense, and as a result, an intense number
of sources dealing with the importance of speaking, writing and reading exists. L2 researchers considered Listening as an ability that could be developed without assistance, and a deep investigation into the history of language learning reveals this lack of attention to the skill of listening (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Morley, 1984; Moyer, 2006; Mendelsohn, 1998; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). The neglect of the listening skill was accompanied with an ongoing debate about which of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) is the most crucial for the learning and acquisition of a second language. However, past research has thus far revealed that a large proportion of the L2 research findings indicate that listening is the most important skill for language learning because it is the most widely used language skill in normal daily life (Morley 2001; Rost 2001), and it develops faster than the three other language skills, which in turn suggests that it can facilitate the emergence of the other language skills (Oxford, 1990).

Listening was no longer taken for granted in second language learning after the emergence of communicative and proficiency-oriented approaches to language teaching, which has emphasized listening in all levels of language learning. Several EFL teaching methods stressed the importance of listening back in 1960s. Much of L2 literature gives support to the importance of listening and how comprehensible input facilitates the learning of a second language. Krashen and Terrell (1984) argue that the priority of listening in second language learning is the same as the priority of the listening-only stage a child needs to acquire his/her first language. Dunkel (1986) also indicates that developing proficiency in listening is the key to achieving proficiency in speaking.

Neisser (1976) views listening comprehension as a temporally constant process in which the listener anticipates what will come next. Goss (1982) defines listening comprehension as a mental process in which the listeners attempt to construct a meaning out of the information received from the speakers. Wipf (1984) defines listening as a complex mental process that entails receiving, interpreting and reacting to sounds being received from a sender, and finally retaining what was gathered and relating it to the immediate as well as the broader sociocultural context of the utterance.

Shepard, James(1983) investigated a good set of lecture notes are one of the most important assets in getting ready for an examination. If you have the facts in readable form, you are well equipped to do the necessary reviewing. Many students take notes in a very haphazard style claiming that they will copy them later. This is a poor policy for two reasons: (1) usually the notes don’t get copied and the originals are not much use after a few days or weeks have gone by, and (2) if the notes are copied, it is a waste of time because they can just as well be done correctly in the first place.

According to Cohen, Taghuchi (2002), based on the findings of previous L2 listening in academic lectures, Three important findings are 1. Notetaking helps you listen; it does not interfere with listening and comprehension, 2. Students who study their notes using the recitation method remember one and a half times more after six
weeks than students who do not review and 3. Students who take no notes or do not study their notes forget approximately 80% of the lectures by the end of two weeks. The current study investigated and identified the strategies that male and female listeners use in the academic setting. The present study will seek to find whether or not the use of these types of strategies affect listening comprehension in academic lectures, and whether or not they are worth being taught to EFL/ESL learners. Previous research in the field of second language acquisition has investigated all the listening strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio affective. However, to the best of my knowledge, none of the studies conducted in this paradigm have explored all of those strategies together.

Listening has been described in different ways to explain the process of what happens during listening and how one comprehends different types of academic lectures. However, a large amount of accepted explanation of listening is not found in the literature (Dubin, Eskey & Grabe, 1986). Mitchell (as cited in Dubin et al., 1986), for instance, defines listening as the ability to get meaning from spoken texts. Smith (as cited in Dubin et al., 1986, p. 28), on the other hand, considers listening as "an anticipatory, selective, purposeful, and comprehending process" where the listener comprehends the lectures based on the questions provided about the spoken text. Widdowson (as cited in Dubin et al., 1986) sees listening as an interaction between the speaker and the listener. He also views listening as a process of linking information presented in a spoken text to the listener’s prior knowledge about the topic. A large number of research has been conducted on the strategies used in second and foreign language listening to enhance comprehension (Block, 1986; Davis & Bistodeau; Kern, Li, & Munby; Menzoda de Hopkins, & Mackay, 1998). The conducted studies were based on those strategies that are most valuable for teaching (Dole, Duffy, Johnson, McGoldrick & Kurita, Pressley, Roehler & Pearson, Symons as cited in Duffy, 1993), and the listening strategies and their links to successful and unsuccessful second language listening (Block, Devine, Hauptman, Hosenfeld, Knight, Padron & Waxman, Sarig as cited in Carell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989). However, as far as the researcher knows, no research has been done to compare strategies used by female and male Iranian EFL listeners in comprehending narrative texts.

Researcher recognized that most listeners have problem in comprehending and retaining information when listening to different types of academic lectures. It is worth noting that in TOEFL exam listening section includes three academic lectures. Since, nowadays TOEFL exam is the most important proficiency test to enter universities across the world, the researcher decided to do the present study. One of the major problems of listeners in learning a foreign language especially English, is their little comprehension in understanding lectures, especially academic lectures (Heydari & Ghazali, 2009). It is important that in academic setting, listening process has essential role, so every one specially students at the English language universities in order to get more successful should be profesional listeners. Due to the fact that TOEFL exam focuses on academic setting, the students who wants to be successful in this exam, have to be good listener.
Then, the purpose of this study is to seek to find whether or not the use of types of strategies affect listening comprehension in academic lectures through TOEFL exam. As well as the present study will compare the strategies used by male and female Iranian EFL learners in comprehending academic lectures through TOEFL exam. In addition, the research has tried to answer the following questions:

RQ1: What is the frequency of listening strategies (cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective) used by male Iranian EFL learners in listening comprehension of academic lectures?

RQ2: What is the frequency of listening strategies (cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective) used by female Iranian EFL learners in listening comprehension of academic lectures?

RQ3: What are the differences between male and female Iranian EFL learners in terms of the frequencies of listening strategies (cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective) used in comprehending academic lectures?

The present study hypothesis are:

a) Both male and female listeners use cognitive, metacognitive, and socio affective strategies.

b) Female learners use less cognitive, metacognitive, and socio affective strategies than successful learners.

c) Male learners use more cognitive, metacognitive, and socio affective strategies than unsuccessful learners.

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Participants of the current study were 80 male and female Iranian EFL learners. Participants’ age range were 22-30 and their first language was Azeri Turkish. Their level of English language was advanced at Hamfekran Institute. For minimizing the effects of different level of proficiency on the results of the study, the researcher administered a standard language proficiency test, TPO test, which is suggested for the advanced level learners. Based on the results obtained from TPO test, with one standard deviation above and below the mean, all participants were selected to be included in the study.

2.2. Instruments and Materials

To check the homogeneity of participants within the group, TOEFL Practice Online (TPO) test, which is suggested for advanced English learners, was administered to them. So, TPO test was an instrument in the process of carrying out this research. However, it should be mentioned that just reading and writing part of this test was administered to the participants. The pilot study have done in order to check the
reliability of the questionnaire. So, pilot study and listening strategies questionnaire were another instruments of this study. Then, in order to test the participants listening comprehension ability, the researcher used TOEFL academic lectures as a listening test.

2.3. Procedure

First of all, to select the participants of the target group and pilot group, the researcher administered TPO test to 80 learners, from whom all learners were selected to participate in the study as the initial group. It is notable that 80 participants were in two groups which include 40 females and 40 males. In order to select the participants, the group’s mean score and standard deviation was calculated and then the participants whose scores were within the range of mean plus and minus standard deviation were selected as the initial group for this study. In addition, to check the reliability of the scores obtained from the writing section of TPO test, this part was corrected by two raters. Then ten of initial group were selected randomly to participate in pilot study. The experiment was conducted in one session. One group included 40 males and another group included 40 females in two different classes at the same time receiving experiment. In order to get the learners familiar with types of listening strategies, at the beginning of the session, the researcher gave a handout about strategies’ definition. Then the researcher asked them to read the notes and become familiar with strategies which they use within the test. It is worth mentioning that the mentioned step took 15 minutes. Next, academic lectures were played on a CD player, and two sets of questions related to the lectures were administered. Contemporary art class lecture, a 5 minutes long lecture, was played first, and then, the other lecture, geology class lecture, 4 minutes long, was played afterwards. After the listening, they answered to six comprehension questions about the lecture. Totally, they answered 12 questions. In the first listening, participants were asked to take notes which they were later allowed to use to answer the questions. Upon finishing the first listening part, students were administered the comprehension questions related to the first lecture, and they were allocated three minutes to go over the questions and answer them using the collected notes. The same procedure was followed with the second lecture. Finally, the participants were be administered the Listening Comprehension Strategies Questionnaire and it took twenty minutes. It is worth noting that the reliability of the questionnaire was measured by three of the professors at Islamic Azad University, Tabriz branch. The validity is supported based on Cronach alfa by SPSS software, as well.

2.4. Design

The data of study was collected based on a field study and analyzed by a descriptive method of research. There were a pilot and a target group in this study. The study required a TOEFL test and TPO test, as well as Listening strategies questionnaire. In this study, the researcher investigated the listening strategies used by male and female Iranian EFL learners. The data was analyzed by SPSS software version 20. In present research, independent variables are
listening strategies and dependent variables are male and female learners.

2.5. Data Analysis

To analyze the obtained data, SPSS software for windows (version 20) was employed. In order to analyze and compare the male and female groups scores within, Paired Sample T-Test method was used. In addition, in order to show the frequency of strategies used by two groups Chi-Square test was carried out.

3. Results

Our first and second hypothesis were that both male and female listeners use cognitive, metacognitive, and socio affective strategies that the male group would significantly outperform. Table 1 and 2 show the frequency and valid percent of listening strategies used by male and female learners.

Table 1. The frequency of listening strategies used by male learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Cognitive</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metacognitive</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio affective</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. The frequency used of listening strategies used by female learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid cognitive</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metacognitive</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>socioaffective</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To sum up, the results related to our first and second hypothesis demonstrated that both male and female learners use three types of listening comprehension strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective, suggesting that our first hypothesis has been confirmed. As shown earlier, each type of strategies was represented by a number of items in the Listening Comprehension Strategies as follows:

There were 6 items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) indexing the first type of Listening Comprehension Strategies, the cognitive. All items made reference to the cognitive strategies that EFL learners use, and whether EFL learners rely on their personal knowledge when they listen to a new text. Six items (7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12) reflected the second type of listening comprehension questionnaire, metacognitive strategies, and whether EFL male and female listeners plan and monitor their listening comprehension.

Finally, four items (13, 14, 15,16, 17 and 18) comprised the third listening comprehension questionnaire component, socioaffective strategies, which were related to feelings about L2 listening.

Our third hypothesis in this research is male learners use more cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective strategies than female learners. The results of the analysis showed that both male and female listeners used three types of listening comprehension strategies including cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective strategies, suggestion that our first hypothesis has been confirmed.

In sum, the results of the analyses related to our two first hypothesis demonstrate that the male listeners use more cognitive strategies than females.

*Table 3. listening * group Cross tabulation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid cognitive</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metacognitive</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>socioaffective</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listening cog</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within listening</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meta</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within listening</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within listening</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Chi-Square Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>6.343a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In sum, the results of the analyses related to our third hypothesis demonstrate that the female listeners use more cognitive strategies followed by metacognitive strategies and then they used socioaffective strategies. However, female learners used socioaffective strategies followed by metacognitive and then they used cognitive strategies.

The responses to the 8 Likert-scaled items by the male and female listeners were compared using a two-tailed independent-samples t-test for two independent samples. First, an examination of Levene’s test of equality of error variance showed that the data collected from the responses to the Likert-scaled items of both groups had homogeneity of variance. As shown in Tables 4, Chi-Square is 6.34 and the Chi-Square results showed that significantly male listeners used more cognitive strategies than female listeners with a significant mean difference of with p-value 0.042 and there is significant differences between listening strategies used by male and female Iranian EFL learners.

4. Discussion

The finding of this study seeks to compare and identify the listening comprehension strategies used by male and female Iranian EFL learners, the two participant groups completed a listening comprehension test and a listening comprehension strategy use questionnaire. In order to determine the relationship between the listening achievement of the female and male groups and the three types of listening comprehension strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective), the data was run through several statistical procedures. The present study findings show that there is a significant difference in strategies used between high proficient and low proficient learners while listening to TOEFL academic lectures.

The first research question was related to the frequency use of listening strategies by male EFL listeners while listening to academic lectures. These results supported answer to this question. The findings were congruent with previous findings that suggest EFL listeners use listening strategies related to these three broad categories and male learners use first, cognitive strategies, second, metacognitive and then socio affective strategies (e.g., O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper, 1989; Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1996). The results also revealed that male listeners while listening academic lectures use more cognitive strategies than metacognitive strategies. These findings concur with the findings of other studies that investigated listening comprehension strategy use (e.g., Bacon, 1992a; 1992b). The results of this study also showed that female EFL listeners use a great deal of socioaffective strategies. However, this finding does not concur with studies such as Vandergrift’s.
1996. In order to explain the relationship between the listening achievement of the male and female listeners and the listening strategy use, some analysis was applied. The three factors (metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective strategies) were set as the independent variables, whereas the listening achievement of the male and female groups (listening test scores) was set as the independent variable.

The second research question was related to the frequency use of listening strategies by female EFL listeners while listening to academic lectures. In order to answer this question, the responses of the female listeners to the Likert-scaled questionnaire were analysed. The results showed that as far as the overall use of metacognitive strategies was concerned, there were distinct differences found between male and female learners. Female learners answers to listening questions were affected firstly, by socioaffective strategies, secondly, metacognitive strategies and then their listening comprehension were affected by cognitive strategies. In other word, their strategies used is not in line with male learners. Therefore, our hypothesis was not supported by the findings of this study. These findings give support to previous studies (e.g., DeFilippis, 1980). These findings were, however, inconsistent with previous findings that suggest that male listeners use more metacognitive strategies than female listeners (e.g., Murphy, 1985; Henner Stanchina, 1987; O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper, 1989).

The last question of this research was concerned with the use of cognitive strategies by these two groups of EFL learners. Cognitive strategies are problem-solving techniques that learners use to handle the learning tasks and facilitate the acquisition of knowledge or skill. This handling of learning tasks and acquisition of knowledge, manifested in behaviors such guessing the overall meaning of the text using the main idea or elaborating on new information using one’s personal knowledge and experience appears to lead to greater success in listening comprehension as suggested by the results in this study. As a result, 20 items were clustered into three factors, while listening to texts in English academic setting, the L2 learners in this study appeared to use an extensive array of listening strategies, and there are some differences in the listening strategy use between male and female listeners. The data analyses presented demonstrate that male and female listeners use a variety of listening comprehension strategies including cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective strategies. These results supported our first hypothesis and were congruent with previous findings that suggest male and female EFL listeners use listening strategies related to these three broad categories (e.g., O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper, 1989; Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1996). The results also revealed that male listeners use more cognitive strategies than metacognitive strategies. These findings concur with the findings of other studies that investigated listening comprehension strategy use (e.g., Bacon, 1992a; 1992b). According to Brown and Palinscar, 1982; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990 Cognitive strategies are more directly related to a learning task and involve direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials and so male learners use more cognitive strategies like top down and bottom up. In line with our findings, Clark, 1980; Conrad, 1985; Tsui & Fulfilove, 1998; O’Malley, Chamot, & Kupper,
1989 revealed male learners trying to comprehend without translating is used when the listener attempts to understand the L2 input without translating to the L1. This strategy is useful because often times, many words do not have equivalents in one of the languages. This strategy, therefore, directs the listener’s attention to the meaning and structure of the target language. The results of this study also showed that male EFL listeners use a great deal of socioaffective strategies. However, this finding does not concur with studies such as Vandergrift’s 1996. In order to explain the relationship between the listening achievement of the male listeners and the listening strategy use, a multiple-regression analysis was applied. The three factors (metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective strategies) were set as the independent variables, whereas the listening achievement of the male group was set as the independent variable. The scores showed that 54% of the listening achievement was accounted for by the three independent variables. The results also showed that cognitive strategies were the factor that contributed the most to listening comprehension, followed by socioaffective strategies, whereas metacognitive strategies contributed the least to listening comprehension.

4. Conclusion

This study investigated listening strategies which used by male and female Iranian EFL learners in academic lectures. The objective of this study was to find out the frequency of listening strategies used by EFL listeners during listening academic lectures including cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies. According to finding of this study, male learners use more strategies during listening to academic lectures. The findings can be of use for English as second/foreign language teachers in that they can interpret and use the results of current study in their own contexts.

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STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE USE OF REGULATED LEARNING AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN DIALOGIC INTERACTIONS IN EFL CLASSES

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Abstract
Sociocultural theory has a number of interrelated key constructs like mediated learning through regulation and corrective feedback. According to SCT, Learners progress from object and other regulated activities to self-regulation through interactions. Corrective feedback (CF), as another regulated mediation plays a significant role in continuing participation in dialogic interactions. Regarding the importance of these interlocking concepts, the researcher is to explore the attitudes of EFL students towards regulated activities as well as corrective feedback in classrooms. The article is also to investigate techniques preferred by the subjects in other-regulated activities. A survey with five open-ended questions was held with 40 students of Salami high school in Kazeroun. All participants preferred self-regulated activities to increase their focus on forms and functions without the assistance of others. They also confirmed that self-regulation can increase autonomy and self-confidence. Regarding other-regulation, they emphasized the value of experts’ assistance with higher level knowledge of the specific subject. Some preferred peer-peer interactions to minimize stress and frustration while others considered teachers as the most valid source of scaffolding. Regarding corrective feedback, all participants wanted optimal waiting time to correct themselves whether the corrector was their teacher or peer.

Keywords: Self-regulation, Other-regulation, Object-regulation, Peer correction, Dialogic interaction, Corrective feedback

Introduction
Since 1962, Vygotsky’s views on child development have been accepted, studied and promoted by many educational researchers. They have discussed how social factors in social contexts can influence language learning and language interactive use. Regarding these social factors and contexts, sociolinguistic theory covers a set
of terms referring to the social aspect of language learning. Neo-vygotskyans illustrated key ideas like mediated learning, regulation, scaffolding, corrective feedback and the Zone of Proximal Development.

Theoretical background

Regulation

A form of mediation is regulation. Learners progress from object and other regulated activities to self-regulation through dialogic interactions. Unskilled learners carry out their learning tasks by the assistance of more skilled experts through other-regulated mediated language until they take over necessary knowledge or skills on their own. In this stage, they are ready to do autonomous functioning or self-regulation by using the structure independently without any support of others (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Sometimes, learners use an artefact like a dictionary or technological device as the source of assistance. This kind of assistance which is based on situational function is called tool-mediated or object-regulated action (Ellis, 2008). These artifacts mediate between people and the material world around them. They can help them to do the difficult process of language learning. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), there are three stages of development in regulation. The first one is object-regulation like parents using candies to help their children count. The second stage is other-regulation in which learning is assisted by others. The last stage is through internalization of information without external support.

Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback (CF), as another regulated mediation, is the teacher and/or peer responses to learners’ erroneous second language (L2) structures. It has a remarkable place in most theories of language learning and teaching due to its supportive role in raising motivation in order to continue participation in dialogic interactions. A lot of research has been done to see who, when, and how to provide corrective feedback in dialogic interactions in classroom; some theorists state that providing negative evidence about what is incorrect or unacceptable in the target language is a vital step while others considered exposure to positive evidence about what is correct sufficient in L2 development (Li, 2016). Experimental studies have demonstrated the facilitating role of corrective feedback but they focused on some constraining factors like contextual factors and individual learner differences (Lyster and Saito 2010). According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), six types of corrective strategies used to respond to the erroneous utterances produced by learners are as follows:

- reformulating (recasting):
- making the learner aware of the error and providing the correct target language form (explicit correction)
- asking for clarification (clarification request)
• making a metalinguistic comment about the nature of the error with some grammatical explanation
• eliciting the correct form (elicitation):
• repeating the wrong sentence (repetition)

As Ellis (2008) stated, corrective feedbacks can be simple using just one strategy at a time or complex with a mixture of the above mentioned strategies as the corrective moves.

Ohta (2001) provided some evidence of assisting interlocutors that cannot produce the linguistic structures they struggle for. The methods used are waiting, prompting, co-construction and explaining. He stated that waiting is giving time to complete task without any assistance. He also defined prompting as repeating the word or syllable uttered as the last part in order to help the learners to continue the dialogue. Co-construction is providing an item like a phrase or a word to help the learners in order to complete the utterance. Explaining as the last method is explicit explanation in English. Some additional methods were also proposed by Ohta when the learners make errors. They are initiating repair by the partner, providing repair by the partner and asking the teacher.

Various views have been developed related to the specific errors that should be corrected. Burt (1975) stated that global errors affecting general sentence organization rather than the local ones should be corrected but Krashen (1982) mentioned that corrective feedback should be limited to simple and portable features. Considering many errors happening in second language learning, selection seems vital because correctors cannot focus on different types of errors for correction simultaneously. Focusing attention on specific errors is more effective.

Peer Correction

Other remarkable fields of SCT research are peer-peer interaction and peer correction as the interaction between different learners or interlocutors. In such dialogues, according to Swain, Brooks and Beller (2003) learners can work as experts and novices at the same time through social and cognitive behaviors. They take part in dialogues in which peers engage as they work together on writing, speaking, listening and reading activities that can mediate language learning. They can support learning through questioning, repeating, disagreeing and proposing direct solutions.

Dialogic Interaction

According to Liang (2013), a great deal of acquisition takes place by dialogic interaction because interlocutors modify their speech to convey their message. Ideally, the best way is to learn it in the original cultural context by social interacting with native speakers.

Experimental Background

There is clear evidence supporting the significant role of corrective feedback in
language acquisition but regarding different types of corrective feedback and their effects on language acquisition, some contradictory results are reported. Some researchers pointed to the advantage for explicit corrective feedback in different forms. Kim and Mathes (2001) did not find any significant difference in the application of explicit or implicit feedback. Lyster (2004) compared the application of recasts and prompts in French acquisition and reported an advantage for prompts. He also focused on output-prompting strategies like asking for clarification due to their effect on producing linguistic forms. Seedhouse (2004) reviewing a lot of descriptive research indicated that teachers prefer to use indirect corrective strategies such as recast to avoid embarrassing learners.

Aljaafreh and Lantof (1994) examined the interaction between three learners and the tutor providing corrective feedback on essays. They showed how the degree of teacher’s direct scaffolding and regulating diminished over time by learners’ self-regulation over their L2. This happens because learners can control their utterance more and need less scaffolding and assistance of others.

The Significance of the Study

In comparison with most SLA theories, SCT is a new comer with a lot of challenging claims needing more empirical research. Due to the importance of corrective feedback and its different types as well as the contradictory evidence related to their effects on language acquisition, students’ attitudes towards the use of various corrective feedback actions by teachers or peers are investigated.

In spite of the fact that there are a lot of research confirming the significant role of peer-peer dialogue, some other researchers like Platt and Troudi (1997) argued that expert feedback was needed to correct learners’ incorrect linguistic utterances. They did not consider peer’s role as vital as teacher’s role. Due to the importance of peer-peer interaction in SCT as well as the contradictory evidence related to its effects on mediated learning, students’ attitudes towards the choice of corrector is also investigated.

Methods

Participants

The participants were 40 selected students of Salami high school in kazeroun. They were in different grades from the first one to the fourth one to fulfill maximum variation sampling. To do quota sampling, one-third of all students in each group were considered as the equal proportion. So, 10 from 30 students in each grade were selected.

Instruments

A researcher-made survey in Persian with five open-ended questions was used. The attitudinal questions were constructed on the basis of research objectives and related challenging theories. Constructing the third question, the researcher mixed the corrective strategies proposed by Lyster & Ranta and Ohta in order to provide the research participants with a comprehensive model having different options to
choose from. They were waiting, recasting, explicit correction, metalinguistic explanation, repetition, paralinguistic signal, and asking for clarification. The corrective feedback strategies of peer-correction in the third question were repeated in the fifth question on purpose. The aim was to see whether the corrective feedback strategies ranked by learners in order are the same for teachers and peers as correctors. The researcher used a qualitative research rather than a quantitative one.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedures were done through a Persian researcher-made survey with five open-ended questions. In order to elicit enough useful information, the purpose of the research and its significance were distinctively explained in each class. Similar explanations about the technical terms in the questionnaire were provided for all of the participants. The participants were asked to answer the questions in detail in order to have access to more various and richer possible responses not just the correct ones. Their answers to each question were classified into two or more groups and were analyzed in detail.

Results and Discussion

The participants answered all questions in detail. The answers are summarized and analyzed as follows:

First Research Question

While taking part in classroom dialogic interaction, if you struggle for assistance, who do you prefer to help you? You or others? Why?

Regarding the choice of corrector, teachers are often advised to encourage learners to self-correct and then to invite their peers to give correction if the learner fails (Hedge, 2000). In order to examine whether this two-stage correction is preferred, this self-report question was presented.

Confirming Different theoretical and practical grounds for encouraging self-regulation, most participants stated that self-regulated activities are preferable but they mentioned different reasons for the preference. Most of them believed that they themselves can increase their focus on forms and functions without the assistance of others. They also confirmed that self-regulation can increase autonomy and self-confidence. The next group explained that struggling for the correct utterance can help them to keep these structures in their mind longer and better.

A group of students explained that waiting time should mainly be considered; they prefer to be corrected by experts if they do not have enough time to solve their problem.

A small group of participants considered teacher’s correction and assistance as the basic factor of debilitative anxiety. They considered it as their last resort when there is no other option.

A few participants preferred others to be their correctors. They mentioned that most of the time teachers should correct them because they do not have the necessary
knowledge to deal with the linguistic problem.

Second Research Question

While taking part in classroom dialogic interaction, if you are to be assisted by others rather than you, who should support you? Why?

Regarding other-regulation, participants focused on the linguistic gap between their friends and teachers with higher level knowledge and experience of the specific subject. They considered teachers as the most valid source of comprehensive help. This group stated that they are more certain and less in doubt if their linguistic problems are solved by teachers. They also believed that if their peers are to correct them, it is the teacher’s duty to select these classmates. The next group of participants talked about the competitive atmosphere in English classes. They added that they do not like to be corrected by peers in this atmosphere.

Others preferred peer-peer interactions for different reasons. The first group wanted to minimize stress and frustration by peer correction. Some others were worried about their grades while being assisted by teachers. The next participants regarded their classmates’ correction simpler and more understandable without complicated utterances. Some of them preferred peer correction due to the cooperative and friendly atmosphere made by peer-peer interaction.

In terms of selecting the teacher or peer correction, some students answered that it depends on the level of the utterance they are trying to produce as well as the proficiency level of their peers. Some times their friends are competent enough to provide the needed utterance but in other cases they do not have requisite competence to cope with the problem.

Two of the participants answered that regardless of being their teachers or peers, interlocutors should be knowledgeable enough to solve the problem.

Third Research Question

While taking part in classroom dialogic interaction, if your peer is to provide you with corrective feedback, which techniques do you prefer? Waiting, recasting, explicit correction, metalinguistic explanation, paralinguistic signal, asking for clarification and ignoring? Put them in order.

All participants stated that optimal waiting time should be considered by peers because most learners have sufficient knowledge to correct themselves but they do not have enough time. All of them also confirmed that ignoring cannot work well because it helps learners to internalize the errors in their L2grammar. They also argued that ignoring errors can stop learning and internalizing difficult linguistic structures that they could not learn by themselves.

In terms of ordering different kinds of corrective feedback, except for waiting time as the first one, there is no agreement among the participants. Some students prefer to be asked for clarification by some structures like What? or Sorry? because it allows them to search for the correct utterance.
Another group considered recasting as an effective way of substituting the incorrect utterance with the correct one. This group thinks that recasting without extra explanation lets learners continue their dialogic interaction easily.

The next group preferred to be given explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. The latter group thinks that peers should identify errors and provide the correction with comments and explanations about the utterance.

The last factor considered the least important by some subjects and unimportant by others who did not rank it in their preference was giving paralinguistic signals. The smallest group wanted their peers to use some gestures to indicate that some errors happened in the dialogue.

**Fourth Research Question**

While taking part in classroom dialogic interaction, which order to you prefer to control language use? Self-regulation, other-regulation, object-regulation? Why? Put them in order.

Most of the participants ranked self-regulation as the most effective regulator but their reasons were different. Some of them stated that self-regulation is a kind of self-assessment which can help them to monitor themselves independently. Others regarded self-regulation as an internal instrument of enhancing their accuracy. Some others focused on affective factors like increasing self-confidence and motivation.

In terms of ranking other-regulation and object-regulation, there is no agreement among the participants. Some preferred other-regulation while others liked tool-mediated or object-regulation. A group of participants focused on the inaccessibility of objects in English classes in Iran as a kind of restrictive factor for tool usage. Participants showed contradictory views related to the significance of other-regulation and object regulation. Some considered teachers as the most valid source of linguistic data whereas others stated that objects like dictionaries and technical devices are more reliable with less errors and mistakes. The next group mentioned a mixture of these two factors more effective than the discrete ones. They wanted object regulation under the guidance of teachers as other-regulators.

**Fifth Research Question**

While taking part in classroom dialogic interaction, if you are to be corrected by your teacher, which techniques do you prefer? Waiting, recasting, explicit correction, metalinguistic explanation, paralinguistic signal, asking for clarification and ignoring? Put them in order.

The variation occurring in the correction strategies of teachers chosen by the participants is really great. What all participants asked for was optimal waiting time. So, regardless of who the corrector was, all participants wanted waiting time to correct themselves first.

A group of participants wanted their teachers first to allow and encourage self-
correction. They also believed that in the second stage, if they could not solve the problem, teachers should provide the correction directly. Their idea confirms what Ellis (2009) proposed as one solution to the conundrum teachers face - to push learners to self-correct or to provide them with it?

A small group of them wanted their teachers not to correct them most of the time. They stated that paying attention to grammatical details can impede their conversion to continue. In their opinion, teacher correction in the middle of dialogue can increase their debilitating stress. They also complained about teacher correction focusing on pronunciation errors.

Some participants wanted their teachers not to interrupt them while they are taking part in dialogues. They asked their teachers to record their errors and explain them at the end of the dialogic interaction. Surprisingly, the next group wanted their teachers just as supervisors when they ask for their help. They did not want their teachers to be a regular corrector. They told that they would ask for help when they are in urgent need.

The next strategy of teacher correction preferred by participants was correction by giving similar examples in other sentences and asking the learner to correct them. This strategy was not written in the list but they were added. Some of them asked for implicit correction with some paralinguistic signals.

Two of them, preferred a mixed strategy instead of a discrete one. They wanted teachers to ask for clarification while supporting them with object regulation devices like dictionaries, main books and other pertinent materials.

Conclusions

The theoretical basis underlying this research was in sociocultural view focusing on the dialogic interaction, corrective feedback and regulation. Most participants stated that self-regulated activities are really efficient. They preferred self-regulated activities to increase their focus on forms and functions. They also confirmed that self-regulation can play an important role in increasing autonomy and self-confidence. Regarding other-regulation, they emphasized the importance of experts’ assistance with higher level knowledge of the specific subject. All participants agreed that this kind of assistance can scaffold learners to internalize structures which can be used later. All participants also stated that optimal waiting time should be considered by peers while giving corrective feedback. There is no agreement among the participants regarding the role of other-regulation and object-regulation. While some participants considered other-regulation more important, others preferred tool-mediated or object-regulation. The participants did not agree about the effective correction strategies for teachers in classroom. In spite of this, all participants wanted optimal waiting time to correct themselves whether their teachers or peers were correctors. They also argued that ignoring errors can stop internalizing some more complex linguistic structures that they encounter while taking part in dialogic interactions.
Some teacher correction strategies were not written in the list but they were added by the participants like exemplification, recording errors by teachers and explaining at the end of dialogue as well as a mixed strategy including asking for clarification with object regulation.

The traditional teacher-directed interaction is dominant in Iran. More effective programs of language teaching can be devised if we address the real needs and preferences of our students. Doing action research addressing the real context of the classroom can enhance our professional development. The findings of this paper can have significant implications for EFL teachers interested in promoting teaching and learning English in Iran because a lot of professional development can be arranged and monitored by knowledgeable teachers. The knowledge of these key constructs in SCT can help them to discover and create ways to set up classroom tasks and activities that can facilitate language teaching and learning in instructional settings. Ascertaining students’ attitude towards regulation and corrective feedback, they can understand how to support and assist their students when they struggle to continue their talk or when they need corrective feedback. The results can also help teachers to select the appropriate corrective feedback strategies that should be implemented in classes because the study can provide some guidelines for them to determine their corrective strategies in accordance with cognitive and affective needs and preferences of learners instead of following some predetermined and fixed corrective procedures.

This self-report research can also be useful in making a theoretical basis of students’ attitudes towards SCT challenging constructs like corrective feedback strategies and other-regulation and peer correction. This theoretical basis can help us to constitute an ideal orientation about when, how and who to correct errors and provide assistance. Other researchers can also replicate this research by investigating learners’ attitudes towards the relative effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback in different cultures to understand whether this is a culturally based feature.

References


EFFECT OF PHONETIC PROGRAMMING ON NORMAL VARIABILITY IN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

There are two suggested levels for phonetic programming in speech variability in children. The sequential level (SEQ) is that at which children show normal variability because of bottom-up phonetic programming. The internal level (INT) is that at which children produce words more consistently because of top-down phonetic programming. Observation of the effect of the dominant errors of length and substitution in the speech of children support the overall theory. The present study examined the levels of phonetic programming in speech production by studying variability in non-word repetition in children 3 to 6 years of age. Participants exhibiting normal development of speech and language were divided into two groups (SEQ: 3-5 years of age; INT: 5-6 years of age) and were asked to repeat 25 non-words three times. In both groups of participants, an effect of length was observed, but substitution was the dominant error type. There was a significant relationship between variability in non-word repetition and chronological age (r = 0.77; p < 0.001). Participants in the SEQ group showed a higher level of variability than children in the INT group. This suggests that variability in speech production probably does not occur at the level of phonetic programming.

Keywords: Phonetic programming; Normal variability; Persian; Speech production; Speech development

1. Introduction

Speech variability is observed during language development from two to five years of age in normally-developing children (Vihman, 1993). The same word is produced with variable pronunciations including correct and incorrect forms of speech

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production. The rate of variability is decreased by age and older children have less variable forms of words compared to children who are beginners of language and speech of children is highly consistent at about five years of age (Holm, Crosbi, & Dodd, 2007). Speech variability is in interest of linguistic opinions in morphology about constructing orders of phonetic segment to shape a word (Aubergé, 2002; Miguel, Lleida, Rose, Buera, Saz, & Ortega, 2008; Minematsu, Asakawa, Suzuki, & Qiao, 2010). The most accepted suggestion for underlying cause of speech variability considers the development of phonetic programming during first words to experienced speech. The present study examines the effect of phonetic programming on speech variability in language development.

2. Review of literature

Klapp (1995; 2003) proposed the internal level (INT) and sequential level (SEQ) model to study phonetic programming of speech production. The model includes two developmental processes. SEQ is the sequence of speech sounds. At this level, articulatory parameters are selected separately from the allophone store for each speech sound and are sequenced to create the target word. Children two to five years of age who are beginning speakers of a language exhibit this level of development. INT is the internal programming of speech and is exhibited at about five years of age. At this level, phonetic plans prepared with organized articulatory parameters are stored in a buffer. A child at this level has more experience with spoken language and does not need to sequence speech sounds for each word.

It has been suggested that coarticulatory error and variability in production in normally-developing children occurs because of immaturity in phonetic programming at the SEQ level. At this level, articulatory parameters of speech sounds are programmed independently of one another. Because the speaker has limited space in the phonological working memory, placing separated units of speech in the correct order is difficult (De Smedt, Janssen, Bouwens, Verschaffel, Boets, & Ghesquière, 2009; Wolfe & Bell, 2007). The process may result in variability of production and speech error. At the INT level, the child has more experience in the production of words, so speech production is more consistent.

Two findings support this suggestion. The first is the effect of word length on speech. At the SEQ level, longer words require more space in the phonological working memory; thus, the length of the word affects speech (Gallagher & Shriner, 1975; Williams & Chiat, 1993). The same effect has not been observed at the INT level because the number of sounds does not influence the whole plan because it works as a single unit. The second finding concerns the type of error produced by children at the SEQ level. Substitution error occurs when a child cannot properly integrate speech sounds into a word and it is the dominant type of speech error in children at SEQ level which is decreased in older children (Eilers & Oller, 1976; Gallagher, 1977; Gathercole, Service, Adams, & Martin, 1999; Locke, 1988).

One constraint of SEQ/INT model (Klapp, 1995; 2003) is how this proposed model
for development of phonological templates contradicts the suggested developmental trend for phonetic abilities in typically-developing children. Vihman (2010) indicated that templates are present from the early words in beginning learners of language. Phonological awareness is not advanced in two-three years of age children and they are unable to discriminate and sequence the speech sounds of a word. The young children learn words of language by the whole shape of ordered phonetic segments (Ingram & Ingram, 2001; McGregor & Johnson, 1997; Velleman & Vihman, 2002). It means that phonological templates will be discriminated in separated speech sounds in older children by increasing ability in phonological awareness. Thus, if the early words are constructed by templates, sequencing the speech sounds cannot be a prerequisite ability for creating templates with more experience in language as proposed by SEQ/INT model.

The aim of the present study was to evaluate the SEQ/INT model to examine whether variability in speech is resulted from the absence of templates in younger children. Templates for the words are constructed at phonetic programming which is being influenced by lexical effect and familiarity of real-words. Thus, repetition of non-words is an ideal task that allows examination of the performance of phonetic programming (Heilman, Voeller, & Alexander, 1996). Non-words are made-up and meaningless phonetic segments that are familiar to neither child at SEQ level nor at INT level. Children at the INT level might have phonetic templates for real words, but not for non-words. The situation of repetition the phonetic segments would be similar to both proposed levels for phonetic programming by using non-words. Thus, all of participants repeated the non-words without benefit of more experience and if variability in speech is resulted from the absence of templates for phonetic segments, the rate of variability at the INT level will appear to be similar to that at the SEQ level for non-word repetition.

3. Methods of research

Participants

The participants were 107 normally-developing children three to six years of age (55 males and 52 females). The mean age was four years and 11 months (SD = 1.7). They were recruited from kindergartens by simple sampling. All participants were monolingual native speakers of Persian with no oral-motor difficulty who had passed hearing tests for pure tones at 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, and 8.0 kHz presented at 20 dB HL in each ear separately.

All participants were examined using the Persian Phonological Test to diagnose possible non-developmental speech errors (Zarifian, Modarresi, Gholami, Dastjerdi, & Salavati., 2013). To assess language development, the mean length of utterance of speech samples in a picture description task was calculated and compared with norms for Persian-speaking children (Zanjani, Ghorbani, & Keykha, 2006). The participants showed no history of language impairment and also non-developmental speech errors. They were divided into two groups according chronological age. The SEQ group comprised children three to four years of age and
the INT group comprised children five to six years of age.

**Materials**

The Persian non-word repetition test was used in this study (Sayyahi, Soleymani, Bakhtiar & Jalaie, 2011). It is composed of 25 non-words of 1 to 4 syllables. The non-words were constructed based on core vocabulary for pre-school children. The basic words were included possible phonetic structures of Persian and changed into meaningless phonetic segments of non-words by substitution of speech sounds that were not a part of the word. Thus, the phonetic structure of non-words was reserved as the same in the original word to prevent deficits in phonological legality of heard stimuli. The only difference for non-words and words was removing lexical effect and familiarity of the basic words for experimental stimuli. For example, the word of "taksi" meaning taxi was changed into the non-word of "tabli" which is meaningless.

The experimental non-words were spoken by an adult female native speaker of Persian using a Shure microphone (model SM10A) in a sound-proofed room and were stored on a computer. The stimuli were presented to participants using a SoundBlaster sound card and TDH-39 headphones.

**Procedure**

Parental consent was obtained for all participants prior to their participation in the study. The participants were told that they would hear a made-up word and be asked to repeat it back immediately. The participants then listened to the non-words one-by-one. After each, they were given 2 seconds to repeat the non-word. Three extra non-words were used as training items before actual testing. If the subject did not repeat the heard non-word within 2 seconds, it was repeated after a 1 minute delay.

The list of non-words was repeated three times and all responses were recorded digitally and transcribed phonetically. The index of inconsistency was used to calculate variability (Dodd, Zhu, Crosbie, Holm, & Ozanne, 2002). A non-word which was produced in three different forms was considered to be a variable item. It means considering a non-word as a variable response for a participant required to be produced in non-similar forms of production in three times of repetition the same non-word. For example, if a participant produced the non-word of "tabli" in forms of "takli, tabli, and takli", this non-word for this participant would be considered as consistent. Another participant produced the non-word of "takli" in forms of "tabli, tabli, and bakli", and this non-word for this participant considered as variable.

The percentage of variability of non-words was calculated for each subject. Each speech sound was scored as being correct [1] or incorrect [0] to allow statistical analysis of error type. The incorrect errors were scored as substitution, omission, addition, or migration according the specific position in the target word. Pearson's correlation test was used to verify association between variability of repetition with
chronological age and non-word length. Independent t-test and non-linear regression was employed to determine the difference between SEQ /INT groups and also growth of variability in non-word repetition during speech development.

4. Results

Raw scores for variability and error type were converted into percentages for the purpose of comparison across participants. The range of variability in non-word repetition was 56% to 92% (mean: 68.8%; SD: 8.87%) and Pearson's correlation was significant for chronological age \( (r = -0.77; p < 0.001) \).

![Figure 1: scatter plot of variability in non-word repetition for participants](image)

There was no significant difference in variability of non-word repetition in male and female groups of participants \( (t= 1.37; p = 0.17) \), but the difference of variability in non-word repetition between SEQ and INT groups were significant \( (t= -3.47; p < 0.001) \). Table 1 shows that participants in the SEQ group showed higher mean variability with extended standard deviation and participants in the INT group showed lower mean variability with limited standard deviation. Regression analysis showed that the trend of variability in non-word repetition was constant for chronological age of participants \( (R^2= 0.94; \text{std.error} = 2.18) \) and it was presented in figure 1.

Table 1: The association between mean score of variability in non-word repetition between SEQ and INT groups

| Age(year) | Group      | Mean score for variability | Standard deviation | Pearson's coefficient |
|-----------|------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
|           | SEQ group  |                             |                    |                       |                      |
|           | INT group  |                             |                    |                       |                      |
The error frequency in non-word repetition was calculated for type of error. Table 2 shows the frequency of error types. The number of errors for all types was higher for the SEQ group than the INT group.

Table 2: Count and proportions of error types in variability in non-word repetition of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Substitution</th>
<th>Omission</th>
<th>Addition</th>
<th>Migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SEQ</td>
<td>412 (67.54%)</td>
<td>83 (13.6%)</td>
<td>42 (6.88%)</td>
<td>73 (11.96%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT</td>
<td>312 (83.64%)</td>
<td>33 (8.84%)</td>
<td>7 (1.87%)</td>
<td>21 (5.63%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Substitution errors were the dominant error type. It was noted that consistency decreased as sequence length increased ($r = 0.76, p < 0.01$). The 3- and 4-syllable non-words were repeated with more variability than the 1- and 2-syllable non-words.

5. Discussion

The INT/SEQ model of speech processing (Klapp, 1995; 2003) was used to investigate the role of the level of phonetic programming by examining variability in speech production. It has been suggested that children at the SEQ level must segment speech sounds, which can result in speech variability. Children at the INT level use prepared phonetic plans developed from experience and their speech shows less variability than does that of children at the SEQ level.

Children at the INT level may have phonetic plans for real words, but they do not have phonetic plans for non-words. This means that, if speech variability occurs at a phonetic programming level, children at both levels should perform similarly. The present study investigated variability of non-word repetition in participants falling into the SEQ and INT levels. The results showed that
participants in the INT group repeat non-words with significantly lower variability than the participants in the SEQ group. The two groups did not perform similarly for non-word repetition and this challenges the supposition that phonetic programming is responsible for speech variability.

The differences recorded in the present study on non-word repetition of SEQ and INT participants agrees with findings from developmental studies of real word repetition (Burt, Holm, & Dodd 1999; Holm et al., 2007; Williams & Stackhouse, 2000). Such studies suggest that variability in production of speech decreases as age increases. Older children produce less variability in repetition of words than younger children. The results of the present study confirm this developmental trend for variability in non-word repetition. Figure 1 demonstrates that the SEQ group experienced a decreasing trend from variability to consistency. This trend shows improvement with repetition of non-words during the early development of speech. It reaches a plateau at the INT level, where participants showed a relatively consistent rate of repetition of non-words. Holm et al. (2007) reported similar developmental findings for real-word variability in children aged 3-7 years. The findings of the present study and those from Holm et al. indicate that there is a general developmental trend for variability in production of phonetic segments including real-words and non-words. If speech variability had occurred at a specific level of phonetic programming, this similarity in developmental trend for non-words and real-words would not have been observed.

Two findings support the role of phonetic programming in speech variability; the effect of word length and substitution errors. It has been suggested that limited space in the working memory is an obstacle for programming separate speech sounds into a word form. For this reason, children at the SEQ level show more variability in longer words that include substitution of speech sounds as the dominant error in speech production (Gallagher & Shriner, 1975; Williams & Chiat, 1993). Pre-programmed forms of words at the INT level perform as one single unit and the length of the word does not affect the space in the working memory. Although the effect of word length on variability of non-word repetition was observed in the present study and substitution was the dominant speech error in both groups of participants, the results could be explained using a different perspective on phonetic programming of speech sounds. Because children cannot have prepared plans for non-words, the INT participants might have used pre-programmed plans for word fragments such as syllables.

Greenberg (1999) stated that constructing syllables of speech plays a central role in controlling the variability of word pronunciation. The syllables of experimental non-words used the same parts used to construct real-words. Language experience in older children results in better integration of pre-programmed syllables in constructing words (Sundara, Polka, & Genesee, 2006). Pre-programmed syllables can save space in the working memory during speech production and result in fewer substitution errors at the speech sound level; thus, children at the INT level were able to repeat longer non-words with more consistency than participants at the
SEQ level.

The integration of pre-programmed syllables is not completely dependent on phonetic programming of speech. The prerequisite level to phonetic programming results in structuring syllables as phonetic representation, which is the recognition of the speech sound through articulatory transition of speech (Kuhl, Conboy, Padden, Nelson, & Pruitt, 2005). The child must perceive a phonetic segment consistently despite variations in the speech environment before constructing phonetic segments consistently into the target word; otherwise, substitution error should be expected as a consequence of immaturity in precise recognition of speech sounds (Best, Tyler, Gooding, Orlando, & Quann, 2009; Sundara, Polka, & Molnar, 2008). Phonetic representation has been reported as having an influence on the performance of working memory (Colin et al., 2002) and may explain the effect of word length on variability during repetition of phonetic segments.

One constraint of this study was that it was limited to the phonetic programming level of speech processing. Other levels of speech processing, including phonetic representation, were not considered. A future subject of study would be examination of the effects of levels of phonetic programming, such as phonetic representation and allophone store. This would increase understanding of speech variability during speech processing by children.

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STUDENTS’ MOTIVATION IN LEARNING ENGLISH USING ONLINE GAMES

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Abstract-
This study is aimed at identifying students’ motivation in learning English using online games. Data were collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods, i.e. survey and interview. Some 50 respondents answered a questionnaire and 6 respondents were interviewed in this study. The results indicated that most students had positive perceptions towards the use of online games in learning English. Consistently, the interview also reported that the online games had successfully constructed students’ motivation and three themes emerged during the students’ interview discussion, namely: students’ motivation in obtaining new ideas, students’ motivation in independent learning and students’ motivation in active participation. The findings of this study are helpful for teachers to design effective learning environment involving online educational games in their lessons. Future research is proposed to investigate the relationship between students’ motivation in relation to academic performance, students’ effective learning and involve a bigger sample size.

Keywords: online games, students’ motivation, self-determination theory

1. Introduction
Malaysia targets to be a developed nation by 2020 and also has taken the initiative to widen information, communication and technology (ICT) usage in society in order to bridge the digital divide and in efforts to expand the knowledge based economy. The National Vision 2020 envisages a society based on information and knowledge. In efforts to achieve Vision 2020, the Malaysian government has carried out several programs and prepared the requisite infrastructure. In Malaysia, English as a second language (ESL) is compulsory to be taught in school beginning from primary 1 to form 5 (Malaysian Ministry of Education, 2015). According to Darus and Ching (2009), Malaysian school students from various backgrounds in life have different levels of knowledge and proficiency in English Language. They often face difficulties in learning English and it is considered to be challenging for them as
most of the other subjects are being taught in their first language. They also tend to have difficulty using English language in either speaking or writing because of a lack of knowledge in social language use. This also may lead to present the low motivation for them to learn English lessons.

As Malaysia is moving towards globalization, teaching and learning (T&L) process can be made more interactive and effective with the use of technology. Baepler et al., (2014) stated that the positive impact of technology expansion has contributed the development of instructional technology in education. Prensky (2001) defined educational online games as a technology that is developed to support both education and pleasure purposes. Usually, it requires connectivity over the Internet or any specific devices such as computer networks, video game console, computer or laptop. There are two types of educational online games; (1) serious game and (2) casual game. According to Sorenson and Mayer (2008), serious game is a digital game that can be categorized according to their purpose of designing the game such as edutainment, game based learning, simulation game and training game. Cheng (2011) mentioned that casual game is developed for the mass consumer who is not regarded as a gamer and able to play the game anytime and anywhere. Examples of casual games are minigame, indigame, social network game, browsergame and so forth.

A research done by Amal (2015) found out that most of the teachers do not favor the idea of using online games as a teaching and learning technique. However, David et al., (2010) and Wang and Wang (2008) reported that using online games in education has influenced the students’ learning and perceptions for more favorable entertainment learning activities on the Internet. Lee (2010) also found that the use of online games able to enhance positive impact in teaching and learning process. Further, Yolageldili and Arikan (2011) mentioned that the use of online games in teaching language has motivated learners to learn a new language and encourage students to be independent toward their learning. Besides, Lawrende and Larence (2013), Kririkkaya et al., (2010) and Din and Calao (2001) also reported some of the advantages on using online games are students become active learners, motivating students to learn more easily and also enhancing more interaction between students with their classmates.

**Students’ motivation in learning English**

Nguyen (2011) reported in the traditional classroom, the English language was taught by using flashcards, textbooks and focused on a teacher-centred process of learning. Thus, this traditional method produced low levels of students’ motivation which affects students’ attention to the subject and student lean towards passivity in learning activities. Using technology in the classroom provides students’ an
opportunity to learn and use technology, helps students to have more access to lecturers, and also supports more personalized learning experience (Yang & Chen, 2007). The integration on using ICT has gained a great importance in education. Along with the technology advancements, the Malaysian education system needs to be transformed from a traditional to technology-based environment. Past studies have reported that the use of technology tools in teaching English language has enhanced students’ motivation (Golonka et al., 2014; Liu & Chu, 2010; Yang & Chen, 2007). According to Sharma (2008), the use of technology tools provides several benefits for students and teachers in learning English language. In the 21st century, it is important to increase students’ motivation to learn and attention in class (Sahrir & Yusri, 2012). Unfortunately, in learning language, many students have low motivation to learn and pay poor attention in class (Darus & Ching, 2009). The use of games is able to enhance students’ motivation and interest to learn English language. It is in coherence with the statement of Kupeckova (2010) that in learning English, the game is the combination of speaking, reading and listening to grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. Thus, it is the best way for students to learn English language (Azar, 2012).

2. Theoretical Framework

Deci and Ryan (2002) reported that in the educational field, there were many theories have been established in students’ motivation. Self-determination theory (SDT) by Abeysekera & Dawson, (2014) is used in this study because this theory distinguished motivation into two categorized; (1) intrinsic and (2) extrinsic motivation. According to Deci and Ryan (2002) and Giesbers et al. (2013), intrinsic motivation defines as students’ willingness to learn and do activities that are fun, interesting, attractive, and enjoyable. They will learn autonomously because they enjoy activities that will intrinsically motivate them. Extrinsic motivation refers to the desire to achieve reward, avoid being criticized or punished and they want to get good grades.

According to SDT, there are three basic psychological needs in motivation, namely; competence, autonomy, and relatedness. In terms of competence, students would be able to master the knowledge, skills and attitude in their learning activities. In this stage, students are requiring a sense of competence or willingness to learn something new. Relatedness means the learners would be able to interact and communicate to solve problem and establish critical thinking. Autonomy is students’ ability to manage the study on their own paces and needs. In relation with SDT in this study, we argue that the use of online games might improve student motivation if it able to build a sense of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. In Malaysia, Osman and Bakar (2012) reported that the use of educational online games is relatively new intervention in the educational field and games have been regarded as an entertainment mode rather than for learning purposes. Thus, it seeks
to answer the following research question: What are students’ motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) in learning English language using online games?

3. Research Methodology

This section briefly explained the procedure on how the instructor integrates the use of online games in teaching and learning English. This study was conducted to study the case of students in using online games in the University of Malaya. The researcher held a workshop of three hour durations which focused on learning English language for secondary levels. The English language subject was chosen because Darus and Ching (2009) reported that in Malaysia, school students from various backgrounds in life have different knowledge and proficiency in English Language. English is also not their main language at home and they often face difficulties in learning English. The case in our study had a number of 50 students. Using the convenient sampling method, respondents were selected from the secondary students, but from different schools in Selangor state. They were selected as the subjects of research because they have different levels of knowledge and proficiency in English Language. The respondents were invited to attend a workshop and they volunteered to participate in this study.

This study focused on using online games in learning English language. In the classroom, the researcher asked students to play the online games from website http://learnenglishteen.britishcouncil.org/study-break/games. Students were free to explore any of the games on the website because all games were related in learning English language. The duration of playing all games in class were not more than three hours. There were many online games for English language, such as GameZone, PowerWords, Lord of The files, Grammar Ninja and so forth. However, the English online game from the British Council website was selected in this study because the content of learning English language is easily understood and enjoyed. The games which it is categorized as serious game also found to be useful, especially to secondary school level. To ensure that the learning process goes smoothly, participants must be actively involved in using online games in the classroom.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed to collect data from multiple sources in order to obtain in-depth information about integration in using online games. Questionnaire survey and individual interview were used to collect the data in this study. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire had been adapted from previous research by Zam (2015). Based on of the original questionnaire, the questionnaire consists of 10 items (5 items for intrinsic and 5 items for extrinsic), and used a five-point Likert scale. In this study, the reliability of the instrument is measured using Cronbach’s Alpha for each construct. All constructs had an internal consistency reliability, higher than 0.7 which indicates that the items used to measure that construct are adequate and reliable (Field, 2009). The survey was distributed to the respondents after they were introduced to an online games workshop. Each data and information collected was analyzed by the
researcher using statistical analysis, such as descriptive analysis (mean and percentage). The data were then analyzed using statistical analysis of SPSS software version 17.0.

Furthermore, in order to collect in-depth information about students’ views and feedbacks in using online games, an individual interview was conducted to collect the data ranged in length from 20 to 30 min. It would provide students with the occasion to describe their experience in their own words. Some six students were interviewed and they were named S1, S2, S3, S4, S5 and S6. They consisted of three males and three females, which they all at the same English knowledge and proficiency, as well as they volunteered to be interviewed by the researcher. According to Patton (2002), there are around six to ten people usually involved in a small group interview and the aim of this interview is to improve participants’ confidence in explaining their ideas. In this study, the process of individual interview was also audio-recorded and transcribed. Therefore, the researcher could produce the accuracy of students’ responses and statements. Henceforth, all participants’ quotes were transcribed verbatim and may contain many errors in grammar and punctuation because English is not the first language of the participants. Again, some students also mixed their language with English and Malay Language.

4. Findings and Discussion
The process of the findings in this study began with the analysis of survey responses, continued with the individual interview. According to the response rate analysis, 50 students completed the survey and 6 students were involved in the interview.

4.1 Quantitative Results
248. In the analysis of questionnaire survey, descriptive analysis in the form of percentage, mean and standard deviation was used in collecting the percentage of agreement in student opinion of the questions forwarded. Each feedback has been summarized in general terms in Table 1. The researcher shows the percentage, mean and standard deviation as a reflection of the agreement recorded regarding the use of online games in learning English. Discussion was carried out based on the percentages, overall mean for the item listed for the T&L process. Based on Table 1, the students’ agreement have recorded percentages exceeding 60% and mean values more than 2.50 showing that the respondents hold positive views regarding the use of online games in learning English. Items 1 to 5 attempted students’ intrinsic motivation meanwhile, items 6 to 10 attempted to identify students’ extrinsic motivation in using online games. This means that using online games for students is capable of attracting deep interest in learning English language. Item 1 reported
that more than 60%, \((M = 2.80, SD = 0.84)\) of students responded that using online games made them excited to learn English. This showed that students’ agreement on this item was high. Likewise, item 2 also reported a positive response, with 90% \((M = 2.90, SD = 0.93)\) of students responding that they were able to manage their own learning in using online games. In other words, this item reported that students could learn independently at their own paces. Item 3 also reported that 80% \((M = 2.85, SD = 0.87)\) of students liked playing online games as it was more interesting. In item 4, 84% \((M = 2.88, SD = 0.90)\) of students strongly responded that using online games enabled them to understand better in the subject. Additionally, item 5 reported that all students \((100\%, M = 2.96, SD = 0.95)\) were intrinsically motivated to attend the class because they wanted to explore new ideas especially in using online games.

Item 6 reported that 44% of students disagreed that they learned English because of a required course, while 21% neither agreed nor disagreed and only 35% of students acknowledged that they learned English because it was a required course. Although this item showed a mixed response, the majority of students were not extrinsically motivated to attend the class because it was a required course. In addition, item 7 reported that some 84% were extremely unmotivated to learn English in order to show their abilities to their lecturer, family and friends in using online games. Item 8 reported that 34% students agreed that they learned English in order to find a good job, while 21% neither agreed nor disagreed and only 31% students disagreed for the item. This indicated a mixed response that some students were learning English because they were extrinsically motivated to find a good job. Item 9 also received mixed responses. 39% of students disagreed that the most satisfying thing in learning English language using online games would be to get a good grade. In contrast, 40% of students agreed that obtaining a good grade was very important in English class. Additionally, most students (32%) responded neutrally for this item. Item 10 of students’ extrinsic motivation reported that 55% of the students either disagreed or strongly disagreed that they learned English to avoid lecturer’s punishment. It showed that students were not extrinsically motivated by lecturer’s punishment in using online games. The following Table 2 summarizes the finding of students’ extrinsic motivation in using online games with percentage, mean and standard deviation (SD).

252. Table 1.

253. The Percentage, Mean And Standard Deviation (SD) Of Students’ Motivation In Learning English Using Online Games (N = 50).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ intrinsic motivation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. I felt excited while learning English in using online games 0 0 0 19 81 2.80 (0.84)

2. I was able to manage my own learning in using online games 0 0 0 10 90 2.90 (0.93)

3. I liked playing online games because it was more interesting 0 0 0 20 80 2.85 (0.87)

4. Using online games enabled me to better understand the subject 0 0 0 16 84 2.88 (0.90)

5. I attended class because I wanted to explore new ideas, especially in using online games 0 0 0 0 100 2.95 (0.95)

**Students’ extrinsic motivation**

6. I learned English because it was a required course 10 34 21 25 10 2.60 (0.79)

7. I wanted to do well in this class because it was important to show my ability to my lecturer, family, friends or others 39 45 10 6 0 2.70 (0.84)

8. I learned English in order to find a good job in future 0 31 35 21 13 2.63 (0.73)

9. The most satisfying thing to me would be to get a good grade in English class 9 30 22 29 10 2.59 (0.70)

10. I learned English because I would be punished by my teacher if I didn’t 0 50 45 5 0 2.67 (0.81)

From items 1-10, the findings showed that most students were intrinsically motivated in learning English language using online games. The findings proved that using online games in learning English made students feel excited, able to manage their own learning, capable to understand the subject and increased their motivation to obtain new ideas while attending the class. Although most students had a strong intrinsic motivation in learning English in using online games, extrinsic
motivation such as finding a good job and a grade could not be separated from students’ learning motivation. Consequently, extrinsic motivation in using online games were neither agreed nor disagreed by students in learning English language. Overall, according to the comparison of the percentage, mean and standard deviation between the students’ intrinsic and extrinsic motivation items in this study, the survey results show that using game based learning environment had successfully constructed students’ intrinsic motivation. In other words, it had produced a greater of students’ intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic motivation.

4.2 Qualitative Results

A qualitative approach aimed at more in-depth investigating of students’ perceptions in term of their motivation in learning English using online games. This analysis was also to support the findings of the quantitative result of the questionnaire survey. Six students participated in the interview. At the beginning of the discussion, the students were requested to depict their motivation in learning English using online games. This interview supported the findings of the quantitative result of the questionnaire survey and answers the research question of the study in more detail. The interview data revealed that almost all students declared that they were motivated in learning English using online games with several reasons and statements. Three themes emerged during the students’ interview: (1) Students’ motivation in obtaining new idea (2) Students’ motivation in independent learning, and (3) Students’ motivation in learning English.

**Students’ motivation in obtaining new idea**

In this section, when the researcher began asking students about their intrinsic motivation in using online games, all of them responded that learning English using online games provided more opportunities to practice English with peers. Students agreed that they show a positive change in exploring new ideas and become more confident to take part in learning English process using online games. This means that the use of online games is capable of attracting deep interest to explore new ideas in learning English language. Student (S1) mentioned: “I love online games. I am able to play games in class and explore more in learning English. I learnt something from this class….”. Student (S2) agreed and stated: “I can play and stop the game anytime I want and I enjoy it so much. The games helped me to explore new ideas.” Student (S4) and student (S5) noted that they enjoyed using online games and student (S4) also mentioned: “I enjoy playing games in English lessons”. Student (S5) also mentioned: “I am able to explore new words and ideas about English lesson….”. Student (S6) reported that she could gain more knowledge in learning English using online games.

**Students’ motivation in independent learning**

Respondents were asked to describe their learning experience regarding the online
games in learning English language. Almost all respondents mentioned that they were able to be independent and play the games without any guidance by the teacher. In other words, the interview data revealed that almost all students declared that using online games in learning English improved their independent learning. Student (S6) mentioned: “I independent in learning using online games.”. Student (S2) agreed and stated: “I can learn independently and I like using online games”. Student (S1), (S3) and student (S5) noted that they enjoyed learning and able to play online games at their own pace. Student (S4) also acknowledged that learning English using online games had taught her to be an independent student in obtaining knowledge.

Students’ motivation in active participation

Majority of the students mentioned that they were motivated to participate more in class and gained more knowledge using online games compared to traditional approach. Student (S1), (S4) and student (S5) reported that they were able to be active in class and showed eagerness to use online games in learning English. (S6) mentioned: “I am actively using online games and I have not noticed the class runs for three hours.”. Student (S2) and student (S3) noted that they were actively involved in using online games compared to traditional class.

Overall, the finding of this study in both qualitative and quantitative analysis found that students were intrinsically motivated compared to extrinsically motivate. The first theme in interview analysis, which it is students’ motivation in obtaining new ideas was consistently supported with the previous positive survey result in Table 1. This means all students were intrinsically motivated to attend the class because they wanted to explore new ideas especially in using online games. It can be concluded that learning English using online games helps students to be independent learning and active participants. Almost all participants in this study recognized the differences between their experiences of learning English in using online games and traditional. It could be acknowledged that applying online games was more effective as compared to the traditional classroom.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

Today, some technology tools have been used in the T&L activity as two way communication between the students and teachers (Adam & Nel, 2009). Face to face or traditional learning can be altered by using ICT in T&L environment. Technology can be used as a valuable tool to promote and strengthen the teaching and learning process. The role of ICT in education must be seen as something that accelerates the learning process. One of the most significant phenomena of the 21st century is the rapid increase in the use of technology. ICT has an important role to play in developing learning opportunities and enable new ways of accessing learning resources. Jusoh and Jusoff (2009) mentioned that students’ motivation to learn with the use of technology is one of the important aspects especially in the 21st century. In this study, students were intrinsically motivated compared to extrinsically motivate. This means, external factors such as incentives, rewards and punishments
do not motivate and influence them in learning English using online games. Based on interview analysis, majority of the students also agreed the use of online games able to link their prior knowledge or experience together with new knowledge. This increased students’ interest and motivation, enriching the learning content and improved time efficiency. This is coherence with Coon and Mitterer (2012) that reported students attending a class because of the enjoyment and expect no reward.

This study also showed students have successfully constructed three basic psychological needs of self-determination theory, namely: autonomy, relatedness and competence. In terms of students’ autonomy, the use of online games used in learning English has been shown to increase students’ sense of autonomy. This study has successfully integrated an independent learning as students were responsible in learning English using online games. Most students agreed that learning English using online games had trained them to be independent and learn at their own pace. They were also able to explore their own knowledge independently without any guidance from teacher. In terms of relatedness, students believed that they could learn something new in learning English using online games. This finding showed students were able to explore new ideas, especially in using online games. All of them responded that learning English using online games provided more opportunities to practice English with peers. Lastly, for competence, the use of online games in learning English increased through active learning participation in class. They were able to be active in class and showed eagerness to use online games in learning English. In relation between SDT theory with this study, when students have a sense of autonomy, relatedness and competence, they would easily be motivated in learning English language using online games.

Vagh et al. (2009) reported that English learning has made students feel fear of failure, and low self-esteem when participating in the English classroom, but this study showed that students were positive about their learning in using online games. Each of the topics in learning English using online games facilitates the learning process and enables them to better understand English language. This means that use of online games is capable of attracting deep interest of students in the learning English. The findings of the present study have implications for English teacher to consider using online educational games in their classrooms. Teachers could practice on using online educational games with their students not only in or during class but, they could use the online games at anytime and anywhere to strengthen students’ knowledge in learning English. Wallace et al., (2014) also agreed that technology media has helped to enhance levels of student involvement in class activities and self-paced learning.

Further, this study only focused on students’ motivation in learning English using online games. Other studies can be done using different Web 2.0 tools such as Teamweaver, Blog, Wiggio and so forth so that the effectiveness of using these tools can be investigated. According to Tappscott (2003), students today are very interested in using technology and want the T&L process to be more challenging
and interesting. Related to that, students need to make full use of the capabilities of technology so that T&L becomes more effective and produces students who excel in their chosen field. Future research should also venture rigorously into the long-term effects which the use of online games has on teaching and learning process. Students’ background and their experience in using technologies is another aspect that needs to further discussed in using online games. This is because Osman and Baker (2012) reported that to teach English language, it is important to consider the students’ level of education before using online games in the class. It will be helpful if the teacher aware of their students’ background and experience to select the appropriate level of stage in online games as not to lead them to feel frustrated.

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BOOK REVIEW: INPUT, INTERACTION, AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN L2 LEARNING

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Abstract

Input, Interaction, and Corrective Feedback in L2 Learning is a book written by Alison Mackey for second language learning researchers. The book mainly discusses how interaction can influence second language development by providing several research studies in this regard. This book has eight chapters. The first and the second chapters discuss theoretical underpinnings and methodological approaches to interaction research. Chapters three and four focus on the external factors affecting the relationship between interaction and learning. Chapters five and six deal with the internal factors which influence the relationship between interaction and second language learning. Chapters seven and eight emphasize the underlying concepts of interaction.

Keywords: input, interaction, corrective feedback, second language learning

This book explores how interaction, along with input and corrective feedback, plays a role in second language learning. It reviews a large amount of research done over the last two decades as well as very recent work. The book comprises four parts and eight chapters. The contents of the book are written thematically.

In the first chapter, entitled ‘Introduction to the roles of input, interaction, and feedback in L2 learning’, the writer provides a brief overview of the interaction approach and its relevant constructs such as input, feedback, and output. The author highlights the significance of interaction in second language learning. Mackey also points out the important tenets of language learning such as negotiation, input, and feedback. The author talks about input hypothesis and output hypothesis and the way learners negotiate meaning through interaction. Moreover, the author provides the historical development of interaction research.
Chapter 2, is entitled ‘Methodology in interaction research’, and highlights the key issues which are taken into account in interaction research. This chapter begins with an introduction to several interactive tasks which are used as elicitation procedures. The task are categorized based on their features. For instance, one-way tasks, two-way tasks, open tasks, closed tasks, optional exchange tasks, etc. This chapter also talks about how introspective methods such as stimulated recall, think aloud protocols, and uptake are considered as the useful ways of helping participants to remember their thinking. Having talked about this, the author also mentions priming techniques as evidence of processing interactional feedback. Then, the writer talks about the significant role sociocultural and contextual issues play in second language acquisition.

Chapter 3, is entitled ‘Classrooms, laboratories, and interlocutors’, and investigates how context plays a role in interaction. It draws a distinction between classroom and laboratory contexts by providing several views based on studies carried out in laboratory settings and in classrooms. In other words, this chapter provides a critical view on how interaction occurs and which factors influence interaction in laboratory settings and in classroom contexts. The author then talks about Hawthorne Effect and Observer’s Paradox as two significant factors which influence the results of research in second language acquisition. The next issue discussed in this chapter is Focus on Form (FOF) which can be achieved through feedback. Subsequently, the author differentiates between face-to-face interaction and Computer Mediated Communication and maintains that Computer Mediated Communication helps the learners to self-correct.

Chapter 4, entitled ‘Tasks and the provision of learning opportunities in interaction’ is concerned with task-based instruction and focus-on-form instruction (FFF) and how they can enhance second language learning through interaction. For this purpose, the chapter focuses on tasks and interaction and their development in particular settings. This chapter also mentions different kinds of tasks which may impact interaction such as task familiarity and planning time. Therefore, the author discusses an approach to second language acquisition which includes three elements namely, complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF).

Chapter 5, entitled ‘Learner characteristics: age and interaction-driven L2 learning’, explores the impact of age and interaction on second language learning. The author elaborates on the concepts of “Critical Period”, “Sensitive Period”, and “Fossilization/Stabilization Procedures. The author suggests that Task Guidance and Task Familiarity must be taken into account when designing tasks for young learners.

Chapter 6, entitled ‘Cognitive processes: the role of working memory in interaction-driven learning’, talks about the role of working memory (WM) in interactive
activities in second language classrooms. To assess working memory some task are supposed to be used namely, operation span, counting span, and reading/sentence span measures. The author mentions different models of Working Memory such as Baddeley’s four-part model. Mackey maintains that learners with higher working memory capacities produce more modified output compared with those with lower working memory capacities. Some other issues are discussed in this chapter such as verbal working memory and phonological short-term memory and their relationship with language proficiency. This chapter also talks about the relationship between working memory and immediate second language development in older adults.

Chapter 7, entitled ‘Negotiation, corrective feedback, and recasts in SLA’ focuses on how conversational moves such as “confirmation check, modified output, comprehension check, clarification request, and interactional feedback” influence second language learning. The author mentions that interaction can be enhanced through implicit and explicit feedback, interactional modifications, error correction, recasts, and how learners can organize their interlanguage systems. This chapter also talks about some concepts such as error correction, negative evidence, positive evidence, and feedback. Mackey also mentions the usefulness of incomprehensible input and maintains that second language learner modified output or metalinguistic explanations which lead to their linguistic development. At the end of this chapter the author uses language related episodes as a construct to examine the impact of interaction on second language learning.

Chapter 8, ‘Driving interaction research forward’, investigates cognitive, social, and pedagogical directions for future interaction research. Mackey maintains that questions about interaction research should be adjusted to how interaction can affect second language learning, rather than whether it influences learning or not. The author also highlights some important aspects in interaction such as gesture, speech style of interlocutors, context, and frequency of input. Finally, Mackey suggests that teachers should incorporate more Task-Based Language Teaching and Form-Focused Instruction into their classrooms to help them perform better in interactions.

EVALUATION

This book successfully dealt with significant issues of interaction approach in second language learning. The author provided suggestions for further research at the end of each chapter. The author discussed how input, interaction, and corrective feedback were closely tied together for the learners’ second language development. This book can be an indispensable reference for students as well as researchers who are interested in the study of second language learning. However, in order for the
readers to understand the book better, they need to have a rudimentary knowledge of the concepts discussed in this book. Therefore, a glossary of technical terms seems necessary in this regard. Readers can also refer to “The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition”, written by Mackey, Abbuhl, and Gass (2012) to understand the theoretical foundations of the concepts discussed in this book. For more information on the effects of age and feedback on interaction, communication, and learners’ attainment in language classes, readers are advised to read these two books: “Age effects in second language acquisition” by DeKeyser and “The role of feedback” by Loewen. Interested readers are also strongly advised to refer to these works as well as others like these on different issues such as how to provide feedback to learners, different perspectives on interaction, and how corrective and is perceived by both learners and teachers: Bookhart (2008), Mackey and Polio (2009), Yoshida (2010), and Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013).

This book is well-organized and it offers independent chapters that can be studied based on your needs and a comprehensive review of the studies that will surely interest many in the second language acquisition world. The book provides a coherent discussion related to interaction, which begin from the theoretical foundations to meet the needs of those interested in understanding the roles of input, interaction, and feedback in second language learning to more complicated issues such as cognitive differences which influence the interaction-learning relationships, cognitive processes, and the role of working memory in interaction-driven learning.

The book has several strong points. One of the merits of this book is its organization. It provides an overview of key studies on interaction approach. Moreover, the author provides suggestions for further research at the end of each chapter that present researchers several challenges and issues for research. The author emphasizes that more studies must be done in laboratory and classroom contexts with regard to the role of interaction in adults’ second language learning.

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THE IMPACT OF DIALOGUE COMPLETION TASK (DCT) ON VOCABULARY LEARNING AMONG IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract
The purposes of this study are to investigate the impact of dialogue completion task (DCT) on vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The subjects were 60 students who were selected and randomly assigned into two groups. One experimental group and the other control group. The experimental group was taught through dialogue completion task (DCT) while control group was taught through dialogue memorization task or (DMT). Engaging in the process of learning, guessing, and problem-solving are some advantages of dialogue completion task, while dialogue memorization task only focuses on translation. This study used a Quasi-Experimental research design for data collection and analysis. The results indicated that dialogue completion task had a significant positive effect on the English vocabulary learning of learners. The calculated p = .74. A small p-value such as this indicates rejection of the null hypothesis and leads to the conclusion that the average difference in means across the paired observation is not zero, i.e., there is evidence of a significant (at the 0.05 level) differences in how the control and Experimental groups performed in the post-test. Therefore, HO is rejected in favor of HI. That is, students in the Experimental group using dialogue completion task performed better than the students in the control group implementing dialogue memorization task. On the whole, the participants had a positive attitude towards (DCT). They acknowledged the beneficial impact of DCT on their English vocabulary learning.

Key Words: Dialogue Completion Task (DCT), Vocabulary Learning, EFL Learners, Dialogue Memorization Task (DMT).

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary is central to language and is of great significant to language learners. Words are the building blocks of a language without which people can’t convey the intended meaning. The prominent role of vocabulary in a second or foreign language has been recently recognized by theorists and researchers in the field. Accordingly, numerous types of approaches, techniques, exercises and practice have been introduced into the field to teach vocabulary (Hatch and Brown, 1995). It has been suggested that teaching vocabulary shouldn’t only consist of teaching words but also aim at equipping learners with strategies necessary to expand their vocabulary knowledge (Hulstijn, 1993; Cited in Monin & Goebel, 2001).

Language teacher should focus on vocabulary learning because vocabulary knowledge is one of the best indicators of verbal ability (Sternberg, 1987, Terman, 1916) and it contributes to learners to phonological awareness (Goswami, 2001; Nagy, 2005).

Vocabulary instruction is also most effective where learners are given contextual information and they experience multiple encounters of that word and also learners comprehend the text. (the vocabulary book- learning and instruction) In the discussion of the factors influencing vocabulary learning, we come to the question that is of great significant in the framework of formal instruction namely that of vocabulary teaching strategy. A look in the past suggests that the status of formal vocabulary teaching has been influenced by current trends linguistic and psycholinguistic.

Furthermore, Ellis again relying on (Tarone, 1981) finds the distinction between skill learning strategies and language learning strategies useful. Skill learning strategies refer to the efforts a learner invests in the development of listening, reading, and writing, so dialogue completion task is a skill learning strategy in the process of learning. Elis, (1995) believes that vocabulary learning is the area where strategic instruction would be particularly beneficial for learners.

The importance of deeply processing new vocabulary has been attested by many researchers. Craik and Lockhart, (1972); Nation, (1999) proposed that it is “depth of processing” which is crucial to the retention of information. They proposed that the richness of discussion about new material is important to retention. Although there is much debate about what constitutes “deep processing”, cognitive psychologists tend to agree that “memory performance is determined far more by the nature of the processing activities engaged in by the learner than by the intention to learn per se.” (Eysenck, 1982 ; Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001 ). Researchers agree that processing new lexical information more elaborately, (e.g., paying careful attention to the word’s pronunciation, meaning and semantic relations to other words) will lead to higher retention than by processing new lexical information less elaborately (e.g., paying attention to only one or two of these dimensions).

Paribakht and Wesche, (1997) and Laufer & Hulstjn, 2001) found that words that were practiced in a series of exercises were better retained than words inferred from context. Other studies reported in Laufer & Hulstijn reached similar results.
Another study examined the effect of writing on the retention of new vocabulary (Hulstijn and Trompetter; 1998, in Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). English learners as well as native English speakers—need to engage frequently in authentic discussions give and take conversations in which they get the opportunity to thoughtfully discuss topics (Alvermann, 2000).

The learning opportunities

In talking about the management of learning we need a term that refers specifically to learning rather than communication. ‘Learning Opportunity is a useful notion for this purpose (Crabbe, 2003). A Learning opportunity refers simply to a specific cognitive or metacognitive Activity that a learner can engage in that is likely to lead to learning. Thus, to process comprehensible input is a learning opportunity, as is to engage in interaction, or rehearse specific aspects of communication for greater automaticity. At a metacognitive level, to reflect on goals and The efficacy of strategies to achieve those goals is a further learning Opportunity. Second language acquisition research has provided us with a wealth of information on what counts as good language learning opportunities. Below is a set of categories of learning opportunities derived from current second language acquisition research (Crabbe, 2003). We could see these opportunities as a current set of claims about language learning processes—claims that have good empirical evidence to back them up. The opportunity to process extensive spoken or written input, for example, (Wellis, 1997). Similarly, there is good evidence that output (speaking and writing) practice leads to proficiency gains (Swain 1995). Opportunity category is a Learning activity covered by the concept Input: Listening to and reading monologue or dialogue that can be understood with limited difficulty. Output: producing meaningful utterances in written or spoken form, either as a monologue or in the context of interaction. Interaction: means Speaking and writing with one or more interlocutors in real or simulated communicative situations. Feedback: Receiving information relating to one’s own performance as a second language user. This may include indirect feedback (for example, that one has not been understood) or direct feedback (for example, that one has made a specific error). Rehearsal: Deliberately repeating specific aspects of performance, including experimentation with Pronunciation, memorization of words or word Patterns, and repeated role-play of a piece of communication.

Language: Consciously attending to facts of language usage or use in order to be able to explain, describe, or gloss an aspect of grammar or sociolinguistic conventions. Learning: understanding consciously, attending to the process of one’s own language learning in order to establish better metacognitive control over that learning. This would include a detailed representation of the overall task of language learning, an analysis of the specific difficulties encountered in performance and an awareness of strategies to overcome the difficulties. We might say that learning a language requires the effective take-up of connected chains of these learning opportunities. When a class is organized around tasks, then the teacher is providing learners with learning opportunities within a task framework.
A task might contain, for example, the opportunity to decode written input, to rehearse and present a short summary (output), and to develop language understanding through explicit analysis. Tasks and learning opportunities are therefore important companion concepts that need to be well understood by teachers and learners alike in order for language learning to be transparent and well managed.

Adding learning value to tasks

Much of the full potential of tasks must lie not in the programmed activity but in what the learners do for themselves. In this view, tasks are a public communicative starting point for private learning opportunity. We need a systematic way of characterizing this added private learning value by identifying a range of learning opportunities that might arise from any particular task. This illustrates the potential role of the learners in adding value to tasks, and of the teacher in helping learners to see such opportunities and to act on them. The opportunities are ones that are usually not prescribed by the task and are therefore left to the teacher to draw out for the learners, with the aim that they will learn to do so for themselves and include them in their personal repertoire of learning activity. It will be clear from individual learning opportunities that, while some of them are provided by the structure of the task, many of the added value ones need to be, or can be managed by the learner. Whereas motivated and successful language learners might well do some of these things, the reality is that most will not.

In the two claims listed earlier, it was suggested that learners need to be actively engaged in identifying and managing learning opportunities in order for tasks to be fully exploited and that this engagement is more likely to lead to their managing opportunities outside the classroom. These claims need to be investigated in specific contexts in order to understand the variables that might be operating in that context.

Tasks, as explained by Skehan, depend essentially on ‘negotiation of meaning’ (Long and Robinson, 1998). Skehan argues that tasks can be designed to induce greater complexity, fluency, and accuracy, on the one hand, and to stimulate assimilation through negotiation of meaning/form, on the other. The assumption is that if students are encouraged to express what they want to say (i.e. ‘to mean’) in peer communication, they will be forced to negotiate meaning:

1. This pushes learners to precision in meaning;
2. So that to understand, they might need to request clarification, etc.;
3. And to be understood, they might need to check and modify their language
4. Which ‘enables learners to go beyond their individual competences’

Thus, according to Skehan, (1) stimulates (2) and (3), ‘negotiation of meaning’, which result in (4). However, in our view, learners can only go beyond their individual competences if the checking, clarifying, and feedback (CCF) they receive
from their peers has a minimum level of acceptable quality (Ange, 2004). Completing a task is an important and challenging aspect of the teaching and learning process in this research we describe how we involve or engage students in providing feedback to modify their own thinking or behavior to improve learning (formative feedback involving students in assessment to enhance learning, Jarene Fluckiger, Yvonne Tixier, 2010). Attempts to improve students’ abilities to think and learn represent an old man well-established tradition. In this approach two strategies are used: 1- comprehension strategy 2- support strategy which is used to maintain suitable state of mind for learning (eg, concentration strategy). In fact a general approach to identifying strategies in which to offer instruction has been strongly influenced by the fact that effective learning requires that the student or learners actively engage in a complex system of activities.

Attempts to improve students’ abilities to think and learn represent an old man well-established tradition. The common assumption is that reflection generates dialogue, when in fact it is dialogue that generates reflection very often when people engage in dialogue completion task, they are compelled to think or reflect, to concentrate to give careful attention to meaning and to perform a vast number of mental activities that they might not have engaged before. This principle which involve reflection on ways of knowing, on language, and on the embodied experience of meaning, turns out to have exceedingly practical applications for cultivating learning if people can be brought into a setting where they, at their choice can become conscious of the very process by which they form assumptions and beliefs, and be rewarded by each other for doing so, then they develop a common strength and capability for working together and at the same time they can reinforce learning. This flow of meaning allows new possibilities to emerge. Dialogue seeks to have people learn how to think together not just in the sense of analyzing a shared problem but in the sense of surfacing fundamental assumptions and gaining insight into why they arise. Dialogue can thus produce an environment for learning. Second language acquisition researches both seek to elicit samples of L use form learners. Such samples it is believed provide, evidence of learners ability to use their L2 language in real time communication. Teachers recognize that unless learners are given the opportunities to experience such samples they may not succeed in the kind of L2 proficiency needed to communicate fluently and effectively. Task then hold a central place in language teaching. This is evident in a large number of recent publications relating to task-based learning and teaching(for example. Wills 1996, Skehan 1998, Lee 2000, 2000; Bygat et al).

In dialogue completion task, the dialogue should be suitable for a task if want to support the user and also the dialogue should be conformed to the learners experience. Another important factor is that the dialogue should be suitable for learning (user interface design, 2012).

The role of vocabulary in language teaching:

Vocabulary is central to language and is of great significant to language learners. Words are the building blocks of a language without which people can’t convey the
intended meaning. The prominent role of vocabulary in a second or foreign language has been recently recognized by theorists and researchers in the field. Accordingly, numerous types of approaches, techniques, exercises and practice have been introduced into the field to teach vocabulary (Hatch and Brown, 1995). It has been suggested that teaching vocabulary shouldn’t only consist of teaching words but also aim at equipping learners with strategies necessary to expand their vocabulary knowledge (Hulstijn, 1993. Cited in Monin & Goebel, 2001).

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Krashen, (1985) proposed that a necessary condition for L2 acquisition is “comprehensible input” that is, input (exposure to language) that the learner can understand or, ideally, that is just a little beyond the comprehension of the learner (comprehensible input + 1). Swain (1986) proposed that comprehensible output is also vital to SLA – output is the language produced by the learner. It can be comprehensible or incomprehensible to an interlocutor. Swain proposed that when learners have to make efforts to ensure that their output is comprehensible, acquisition is fostered. These researchers proposed that an L2 could be acquired without explicit teaching and learning. However, for our purposes, it is necessary to make a distinction between SLA in instructional and natural settings (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Within instructional settings, the discussion has focussed around the nature of implicit and explicit knowledge of an L2.

Active processing:

Research review on vocabulary learning by Masynski (1983) Identified active processing as an important factor associated with effective vocabulary. When students learn by doing something, this makes the process of learning active. This approach seems to provide opportunities for being involved actively with new words through language related activities such as (dialogue completion task).

Vocabulary development is arguably central to language acquisition and use (Zimmerman, 1997). So educator need to use an effective approach in promoting language vocabulary development searching for the prospect to vocabulary learning a deeper knowledge about how people learn words needs to be sought. Quantum thinking sees each separate unit as a part of whole. This kind of thinking recognizes the importance of context. No decision is apolitical, No action is nonpartisan. No thought is untouched by our experience and particular view of the world. Quntum thinking uses dialogue as its basic tool not only for communication, but also for understanding. Other principles and practices guided adult educators (training through dialogue 1996) and learning through task (2000).(the power of dialogue in Educating Adults( Jane vella,2004).

The importance of dialogue in task completion

Jane Vella is also the founder of Global learning partners a company whose goal is to enable adults’ educators around the word to design and use dialogue in their educational program. Vella name fifty principle and practices that work to make
dialogue education effective (Jane vella, 1995). She lives her life consonant with the values of dialogue education: engagement, friendship, and respect (Jane vella, 1995). She emphasized that The dialogue education approach reminded me to walk the talk and to constantly involve students and not to rub them of learning opportunities by teaching at them instead of involving them to think and participant (Jane Vella, 2004).

One of the merits or advantages of completion task is to elicit language use such as those of Richards, Platt and Weber (1985), and Nunan (1987) defines task as an activity that necessarily involves language. Given that the overall goal of tasks, in both research and teaching, is to elicit language use therefore, we will be concerned only with tasks whose successful completion involves language.

Dialogue education shifts the focus of education from what the teacher says to learners does, from learner passivity to learners as active participant in the dialogue that leads to learning (Global learning partners, 2006). A dialogue approach to education views learners as subject in their own learning and honors central principles such as mutual respect and open communication (vella, 2002). Learners are invited to actively engage with the content being leaned rather than being dependent on the educator for learning. Ideas are presented to learners as open questions to reflect on and integrated into the learners own context (vella, 2004). Dialogue completion task is more meaningful learning in the dialogue education approach (dialogue education, 2006). I feel a new urgency to address both the need for dialogue in teaching and learning and the potential of dialogue education as it has emerged since Freives classic work (Jane Vella). The basic assumption underlying dialogue completion task is that teaching is for learning. Learning to use dialogue education in one particular situation involves the experience of a new way of teaching. (Vella 2004)

**Task-based learning and vocabulary acquisition**

Task-based learning (Candlin, 1987; R. Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1996) has been a more recent methodology which incorporates both incidental and intentional acquisition / learning theories. Task-based learning proposes that learners learn the TL naturally (rather than artificially) by becoming involved in completing a task in the TL. In this approach, the focus is on task completion, in which meaning is primary, there is some communication problem to solve, there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities, task completion has some priority and the assessment of the task is in terms of its outcome. New vocabulary is learned incidentally through the completion of the task which involves using the new vocabulary. Willis’s, (1996) completed a framework for task-based teaching practices, where an explicit teaching focus is completed at the end of the task completion.

Dialogue education is a popular approach to adult education first described by Jane Vella in the 1980. This approach to education draws on various adult learning theories, including those of Paulo Frerie, Kurtlewin, Malcolmknowle and Benjamin.
Bloom, (global) learning partners, (2006), vella, (2004). It is a synthesis of these abstract theories into principle that can be applied in a concrete to learning design and facilitation. Dialogue education is a form of constructivism and can be a means for transformational learning (vella, 2004). Vella began using dialogue education approach or practices in her teaching 1970 and these were further developed in an approach, named popular approach after Freore model (partners, 2006; vella, 2004; Dialogue education,2006). Learning is most effective when teachers involve their students in learning process (vella, 2004).

Research Design and Methodology

This study investigated the effects of dialogue completion task (DCT) on the vocabulary learning at the intermediate level in Shahroud city. The research methodology used in this study consisted of a task completion as a method approach for collecting data. It was design to examine the effects of dialogue completion task (DCT) on vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate learners in Shahroud. The qualitative aspect of this study analyzed the data collected from completion task. This chapter then describes the research design, the subjects, and the setting of study and its variables. It also describes the instruments used for collecting and the procedures for the collection of the data including the dialogue completion task.

The research design is based on Quasi-Experimental design. The ultimate goal of this investigation is to conduct research that will allow us to show the relationship between the variables we have selected. The subjects of this study consisted of 60 students learning English as a foreign English in Shahroud schools who were selected from 90 students through administrating (NELSON) test and then randomly assigned into two groups: one control group and the other experimental group.

A model of dialogue education for vocabulary instruction was constructed to investigate its effects on the subjects, vocabulary learning. Before the actual implementation of this dialogue education model, TOFEL vocabulary pre-test was used and implemented to the subjects of both groups to examine their English vocabulary proficiency. The students’ performance in the control group and the experimental group in pre-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the two group, i.e., they were homogeneous. Following this, the experimental group was read through dialogue completion task while the control method was taught through traditional method, i.e., dialogue memorization task. Researcher instructed the students of both groups for 5 weeks.

At the end of the experiment, TOFEL vocabulary post-test was administered to both groups to investigate whether the subjects had improved their vocabulary learning. All the data obtained from the above mentioned research instruments were analyzed in the research questions.

Reliability Statistics (ya dar ch.3 Instrumentation)
The three tests were piloted before administering to the participants. The PET was administered to 30 students and its reliability was calculated and reached .90 via KR-21 formula. The Pre-test consisting of 100 items was performed on 22 learners reaching .86 by Cronbach's Alpha method. Also another 25 learners answered the post-test comprising 40 items. Its reliability was .85 through Cronbach's Alpha method. This information is displayed in the following table.

Table(1)  Reliability Statistics of NL, PRT, and POT in Piloting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Nelson</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliability Method</td>
<td>KR-21</td>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha</td>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of participants</td>
<td>30 (Piloting)</td>
<td>22 (Piloting)</td>
<td>25 (Piloting)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A pre-test and post-test was used to test the vocabulary knowledge of subjects. The Pre-test and post-test vocabulary knowledge test consisted of respectively 100 and 40 vocabulary test. The post-test was administered to the subjects after the treatment. 75 items in pre-test with higher level of difficulty were chosen to teach in the class, and the post-test was administered with forty items.

“Materials should achieve impact.” This is an important principle for developing successful materials. This can be done with unusual and appealing content, attractive presentations, and variety. The teaching materials consisted of 10 dialogues which were adopted to meet the purpose of the study. Teacher used different ways to present vocabulary including pictures, and group discussion. Similarly, practice activities should vary and engaged students at different levels. Related to the point above, materials provided opportunities for students to use the vocabulary meaningfully, to write and complete dialogues. Students were encouraged to add vocabulary they want to learn, too. And the experience of learning was also enjoyable.

The researcher instructed both the experimental and the control group for two periods (90 minutes) per week, over a 5-week period, using 10 dialogue for class tasks. In order to prevent any threats to internal validity of the research, the researcher used the same teaching materials, the same activities, the same length of teaching time, the same classroom environment, and the same examination. However, the two groups were instructed through different teaching techniques. The experimental group was instructed through dialogue completion task, whereas the control group was taught through traditional dialogue memorization task.
The Comparison of Dialogue Education Method in the Past and Present

In the past we had implemented dialogic teaching by facilitating classroom discussions and using small group activities, designed to involve students actively. We found that this worked well with smaller groups, even though some students indicated that they would have preferred a more structured approach as they sometimes “got lost” in the discussions and activities. The challenge we faced was how to implement dialogic teaching in a more structured way without losing its dialogic essence and while teaching large class groups. We have attempted to address this challenge via the utilization of learning tasks (Vella, 1994, 2000). We use learning tasks as the organizing principle for designing and implementing dialogic teaching. In other words, our planning of class meetings is done via learning tasks.

A learning task is based on an open question and accompanied by the resources students need to respond to the open question (Gravett & Vella, 1999). These resources are the learning content, which can be presented to students in a variety of ways. The difference between presenting content as it is done traditionally and how it is done via learning tasks is that learning tasks call upon students to interrogate the content immediately. An input task could require that students listen to a short dialogue and then in small learning teams identify and summarize the main ideas in the dialogue—with a time limit for completion.

The time allowed to work on the task could be anything from Ten minutes to much longer, depending on the type of task and the Level of complexity of dialogue. We then allow students to work on the task, either individually or more often in small learning teams, making ourselves available to assist individuals and groups when needed. Eliciting responses from some of the teams, which can lead to large group sharing, follows this. We then summarize the task by, for example, discussing similarities and differences between the responses of different teams or synthesizing different responses. Further elaboration or explanation follows if necessary. By utilizing learning tasks in this way we ensure that the dialogue is not dominated by the teacher, as each task is based on an activity which requires an original response of students. Yet the dialogue is structured, as the tasks encapsulate the core ideas of the course and students have a record of each learning task that they engaged with. We believe that an additional benefit of using learning tasks is that they contribute toward the improvement of students’ reading and writing. We use learning tasks to direct their vocabulary learning, and the tasks also require that students do something in writing with the dialogue, for example, completing the dialogue.

As suggested before, it is our belief that this teaching approach is successful in promoting deep learning and embracing diversity as it requires deep engagement with learning content and allows the variety of student voices to be heard. This approach is, however, not without problems. We find it very challenging to design meaningful, interesting, and varied learning tasks. The design of learning tasks demands that a
teacher adopt a questioning attitude towards the learning content. The design of learning tasks indeed frequently requires that one looks at familiar content with new eyes, so as to design interesting and provocative tasks that will enable students to engage deeply with the content in order to learn it. Despite this drawback we have found that the majority of such students eventually become convinced that they indeed benefit from this approach and are willing to adopt a more active stance in the classroom and engage more readily with learning tasks. The tasks helped students to work systematically and progressively through the learning content.

The underlying psycholinguists research which, to some extent is supportive, and there is a range of specifically task-based second language research which is helpful in evaluating this type of instruct. There is psycholinguistic evidence which argues for a clear role for explicitness and consciousness, for the manipulation of attentional focus. It is clear that there are advantages to using such an approach, it is difficult to know how strongly to argue this position, and how exactly to implement such instruction.

**Analysis of NELSON Test**

Homogeneity of the Subjects through NL To ensure the homogeneity of the three groups in terms of vocabulary knowledge, the PET was administered among 90 subjects. Those students whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean of 44.32 were chosen. Raw scores are written in (appendix). Table 2 shows the descriptive analysis of research such as range, mean, standard error of mean, mode, median, standard deviation and variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table(2)Descriptive Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nelson Placement Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid (listwise)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Diagram (1)

In order to figure out whether the data is normally distributed, we used Kolmogrov-Smirnoff non-parametric test. The sig showed 0.95 based on the data which we may consider that the scores are normally distributed. The assumption of normal distribution is not violated since $p > 0.05$. Table 3 manifests the results of this normality test.

Table (3) One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Non-parametric Test of Participants’ Scores on Nelson Placement Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nelson Placement Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean = 27.13
Std. Dev. = 10.236
N = 90
Normal Parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>27.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>10.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Test distribution is Normal.

Table(4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group at Pretest</td>
<td>.966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group at Pretest</td>
<td>.960</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table(5) Group Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pretest</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (5) Group Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pretest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>.145</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (6) Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pretest</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.936</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of data analysis are as follows:

Ho. Using dialogue completion task has no significant effect on vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. (rejected)

Qo. Does using dialogue completion task have significant effect on vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

Ho1. There is no significant difference in performance between the control group and the experimental group in pretest. (supported)

The Independent t-tests was used since I had two separate groups at pretest and their scores were compared with each other.

The distribution of the scores of the two groups at pretest was normal since P-value for control and experimental groups were .43 and .31 respectively and they are
higher than .05. Therefore, the results of the performance of the participants on the
two tests were compared by using the parametric independent t-test to see whether
the first null-hypothesis of this research should be rejected or not.

Conclusion

The results indicated that task completion teaching had a significantly positive effect
on the English vocabulary learning of high school students. A comparison was
made between the control group and the experimental group in post-test and the
gained results indicated that there was a significant improvement in the
performance of the experimental group after implementing the treatment, i.e.,
teaching through dialogue was more effective than traditional teaching (dialogue
memorization) in improving students vocabulary learning. There was a significant
improvement in the vocabulary knowledge of high school learners in Shahroud
after being exposed to dialogue completion task. The limitations to this study were
a small group size, time constraints, and instructional effectiveness. The implications
of this study were theoretical implicational, methodological implication, and
pedagogical implication.

Recommendation for further educational practice were that the amount of (DCT)
should be increased, a bigger sample size should be used for future studies of
(DCT), and different genre should be used for enhancing vocabulary knowledge.
Others method also should be compared with (DCT) and training should be given
to English teachers to use this strategy in educations.

SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Based on the findings of this study, some suggestions for future research in the areas
of dialogue completion task are offered as follows:

1- It seems to be beneficial for Iranian students who are used to traditional approach
(dialogue memorization task) and not familiar with (DCT) to be exposed to a longer
DCT training. That is, the amount of DCT should be increased. In the present
study, the amount of time for DCT training was only 5 weeks (20 hours) which was
not enough for Iranian students to get used to dialogue completion task.

The vocabulary knowledge of the subjects would improve more if the frequency of
DCT was increased and the training was extended to one semester.

2- The findings of the study point to the positive effect of dialogue completion task
on the subjects’ vocabulary knowledge. To further validate the effectiveness of this
instruction, it is suggested that both homogenous and mixed-ability groups with a
larger sample size with a different sample size should be included in future studies.

3- Further research is needed to add to our understanding of the extent to which
DCT enhances EFL vocabulary knowledge when exposed to different learning
strategies.

4- This study compared the effects of dialogue completion task and dialogue
memorization task on vocabulary learning. DCT should be compared to other
teaching methods so as to consider which one provides more advantages for the improvement of the English vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian students.

5-This study focused on learning vocabulary. It would be worth exploring if dialogue completion task could be successfully applied to the other language component including grammar.

6- Training for teachers who conduct DCT in their classroom is crucial in order that the correct procedure are adhered to. It is hoped that this study will be of interest to other English teachers who can actually try out this vocabulary learning approach in their classroom to determine the effectiveness of it to all language teachers when they teach vocabulary through dialogue.

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METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE PREPARATION OF THE TOUR GUIDES

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Abstract
This article reflects the results of the study of scientific approaches and practices of foreign language teaching in the preparation of the tour guides, which were based on the utilization of expert evaluation method, pedagogical experiment and others. The authors of the article describe peculiarities of formation of students’ groups and schooling of foreign language for specific purposes. Methodological aspects of foreign language teaching in the preparation of the tour guides, which are grounded in the research, are rapidly being implemented on the programs of professional retraining of the tour guides in the Immanuel Kant Baltic Federal University. On the basis of this study there was formulated a set of recommendations on the use of specially designed training content, and social web applications, taking into account the formation of students’ groups on the “tour guides” programme, depending on two parameters: the level of foreign language proficiency and professional experience as a tour guide. Implementation of the proposed recommendations will improve the quality of foreign language teaching in the preparation of the professional tour guides, and consequently there will be the improvement of tourists’ service in the future professional activity of students.

Key words: foreign language, interactive teaching methods, training of tour guides, communicative competence, digital technology, social networking.

Introduction
Relevance of a problem of language training of tour guides is determined by the growth of
tourist flows, both in the world, and in Russia. According to UNWTO, in 2016 there were 1,235 million international tourists that for 3.6%, exceeds the indicators of 2015 (UNWTO, 2017). The position of the leader in number of arrivals among distant foreign countries was surely taken by China, which is the main donor of outbound tourism flow and the most perspective direction for the increase in the international tourist exchange.

Tourism development in Russia corresponds to an environment of the world tourist market, in 2016 the expressed positive dynamics of incoming tourism over the key countries remains. At the same time, the tourism industry is experiencing a shortage of qualified personnel who knows several foreign languages, which gives the rise to the practice of hiring unqualified staff.

For example, for the high-quality servicing of tour guests from the People’s Republic of China it is required more and more qualified specialists speaking Chinese as this category of tourists doesn’t know any foreign languages. As it was noted above, the Chinese market is one of the most perspective and attractive from the point of incoming tourism. Therefore, the task of the accepting companies and other parties interested in acceptance of the Chinese tourists consists in providing high standards of servicing, safety and trainings up to the standards. According to experts’ estimates, in 2016 82 accredited guide worked in Moscow, while the need for specialists with knowledge of the Chinese language in the season amounted to about 250 people. Because of staff deficit, there were difficulties in servicing groups, and against the background of promptly growing tourist flow from China they will only increase.

Herewith, in the last time numerous cases of illegal tour guides working with Chinese groups were recorded in Russia. Consequently, suffer both the quality of reception and the situation on the labour market of domestic tour guides and attendants who are forced to compete with illegal cheap labor.

Relevance of research of methodological aspects of foreign language teaching in the preparation of the tour guides, is also caused by the planned changes in the sphere of legal regulation of the services of tour guides and guide-translators. Now the federal law draft "About Modification of Separate Legal Acts of the Russian Federation for Enhancement of Legal Regulation of Activities of tour Guides (Guides), guide-translators and Instructor-conductors" is discussed. In accordance with the provisions of the draft, in Russia only citizens of the Russian Federation, who are certified in accordance with the requirements of the legislation (the Ministry of culture of the Russian Federation, 2017) will work as tour guides and guide-translators. In the draft of this law it is offered that for passing the certification of the guide or the guide-translators rendering services on tourist routes, the job seeker shall have: secondary professional or higher education; additional professional education according to the standard additional professional program for tour guides or guide-translators approved by an authorized federal executive body in coordination with the federal executive body performing functions on development and implementation of state policy and standard legal regulation in education or length of service as the guide or the guide-translator at least five years.

Thus, the analysis of the situation in the tourist market of the Russian Federation, allows making a conclusion about the presence of significant demand for the training of the tour guides with knowledge of foreign languages.

Many scientific works are devoted to the study of the tour guides’ preparation (Bogdanova, 2010; Mak et al., 2011; Min, 2012; Ong, Ryan & McIntosh, 2014; Wang, 2012; Halkier et al., 2016). At the same time, pedagogical ideas, approaches to the preparation of tour guides, not fully ensure a rapid response to the turbulence of the external environment, characterized
by changes in the geography of tourist arrivals, consumer preferences, government regulation of tourist activities and do not take into account the condition of a limited amount of time for the tour guides’ preparation.

Therefore, it is necessary to consider the problem as a permanent process to improve the methodological aspects of foreign language teaching in the training of tour guides.

Research Methodology

During the research, the following methods were used: the study and the generalization of experience of tour guides’ training, teaching foreign languages for special purposes in educational theory and practice, method of expert estimations, analysis of the results of activities of students in training programs, diagnostic methods, and pedagogical experiment.

Testing of the proposed methodical aspects of teaching a foreign language in the preparation of the tour guides was based on the programs of the professional retraining and advanced training of tour guides with knowledge of foreign language in Immanuel Kant Baltic Federal University in 2015-2016.

At a preparatory investigation phase, the analysis of the current state of the studied problem in the pedagogical theory and practice was carried out: the program of a research was made. The main phase included studying of the factors influencing the quality of teaching a foreign language in programs of professional retraining and professional development, and also the development and approbation of methodical aspects of teaching a foreign language when training tour guides according to the programs of retraining for different groups of students.

In the final test phase of the ongoing study, the aim was to identify the results of implementation of methodical aspects of teaching a foreign language in the training of tour guides.

An important area of the research was the identification of factors affecting the results of foreign language teaching in the preparation of professional tour guides. As a result, two significant factors influencing the quality of foreign language teaching in the framework of the program of professional training of tour guides were revealed: the level of foreign language proficiency and professional experience as a guide.

A study of the results of learning a foreign language in the programs of professional retraining and improvement of tour guides implemented in Immanuel Kant Baltic Federal University showed the following results (table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The level of foreign language before starting learning on programs of professional retraining and advanced training</th>
<th>Upper intermediate</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Pre intermediate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totally 120 students</td>
<td>14 people</td>
<td>70 people</td>
<td>36 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience as a guide</td>
<td>More than 2 year</td>
<td>Less than 2 years</td>
<td>No experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally 129 students</td>
<td>21 people</td>
<td>65 people</td>
<td>34 people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be mentioned that the training of tour guides in the Kaliningrad region has its own characteristics. On the one hand, tourism in the region is one of the priority directions of the strategy of economic development of the region, but about 50% of tourists come to the
region with the purpose of leisure and recreation, Spa treatment and, consequently, excursion services among them are of little demand. On the other hand, the reorientation of the Russian tourists to the travel within the country, increase the flow of tourists from China and other factors which contribute to the growth of demand in the medium term perspective for the services of tour guides. Therefore, despite the fact that the number of potential trainees is limited by the existing demand, the Government of the Kaliningrad region decided to arrange financing at the expense of the regional budget programs of professional retraining of the existing tour guides in Kaliningrad region, as well as those who would like to professionally engaged in this activity. One of the conditions of learning in this program was that the experience of the guide should not be more than 3 years. This was due to the desire to attract new employees, who have not passed the professional burnout yet.

As it can be seen from table 1, in the structure of students, 34 people or 28.3% of the total number of students consisted of those who had no experience as a guide, and the proportion of those who had experience more than two years – 17.5% due to the above mentioned condition of the participation in programs – work experience should not be more than 3 years. The majority of students – 70 people or 58.3% had an average level of proficiency in a foreign language.

However, a closer study of the structure of students revealed heterogeneity of the structure at the level of foreign language proficiency, depending on the experience (table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Upper intermediate</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Pre intermediate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No work experience as a guide, totally 34 people</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience as a guide less than 2 years, totally 65 people.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience as a guide more than 2 year, totally 21 people.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the clarity, these data should be presented in a diagram (Fig.1)
Fig. 1. Structure of students on the programs of professional retraining and advanced training of tour guides in Immanuel Kant Baltic Federal University, depending on experience

Thus, in the group of students without work experience as a guide the largest proportion of those, who have pre intermediate level of foreign language. Therefore, in the process of foreign language teaching this group of students had to solve two tasks – to increase the level of foreign language and to acquaint with the peculiarities of practical activities of the guide. Based on the results of the study recommendations on the use of social web applications for foreign language teaching in the preparation of tour guides within the classwork and independent work, taking into account the peculiarities of groups of students depending on the level of foreign language and the work experience as a guide were developed.

Results

Modern approaches to the study of a foreign language for specific purposes in educational theory and practice

Today we are witnessing dramatic changes in teaching foreign languages as a result of the introduction of new digital technologies. The modern era, also called globalization, has helped to develop new curricula, materials and teaching methods. Compared to the period prior to digital, the student has many free and varied materials for the study of foreign language and present the results (Osipov, Prasikova & Volinsky, 2015). The study of E. Jaleniauskiene (2016) showed that problem-based learning is a unique approach that allows achieving significant results, and therefore it should be implemented in the field of foreign language teaching. Summarizing an over quarter of a century’s experience of using the problem-based learning (PBL) approach in training tourism industry staff, A. Rösner, H. Halkier & M. Mair (2016) state that the essence of this methodology lies in motivating students to take responsibility for their learning outcomes, to learn from solving real up-to-date problems and challenges emerging in the tourism industry within their home region.

According to C. Cakir (2016) while printed educational materials are still the basis of the educational process, the student has the freedom of choice of materials in a foreign language through open source access. These sources include videos from YouTube; Facebook; Twitter; DVDs; Internet-Newspapers, magazines, etc (Al-Qallaf & Al-Mutairi, 2016; Buga et al., 2014; Bicen, Sadikoglu & Sadiko 2015).

As A. J. Moeller & T. Catalano (2015) notes, ease of information exchange of students is
another point, which is a significant advantage of the use of digital technologies (Öz, 2015; Vinogradova et al., 2016; Zabrodina et al., 2015).

Many researchers (Okty, 2015; Klimova & Kacet, 2015) indicate that the modern model of foreign language learning is the interdisciplinary status based on synergetic principles, where the language environment and linguistic identity are extremely complicated and open self-developing system with great emphasis on the personal efforts of the student.

The dynamic of the development of modern language education imposes the new requirements to the teachers (Lebedeva & Pechishcheva, 2016). The teacher needs not only to master some innovative technologies of teaching his subject, but also to understand the essence of the regularities that underlie them, see their origins and prospects.

Thus, the analysis of modern approaches to the study of a foreign language for specific purposes in educational theory and practice have shown that learning a foreign language necessarily involves the use of digital technologies like specially designed training content, and social web applications.

Implementation of an integrative approach to foreign language teaching in the preparation of the tour guide

As the world and domestic experience of preparing the guide shows, that it is not enough just to possess the lexical material and grammatical basis of the language, but it is needed to have knowledge in literature, history, traditions and culture of the people. It is impossible just to translate into a foreign language tours, which are designed for the domestic tourist. The material must be adapted for foreign tourists, because there is a feature of perception, the difference in cultures.

As it is noted in research of L. G. Zolotyx, M. L. Lapteva, M. S. & Chunosova (2012) if during the training of specialists of other directions linguistic competences (language proficiency) belong to common cultural competences, then when training tour guides this competence is also professional.

Activity of the guide working with foreign tourists assumes not only free foreign language skills, but also the ability to work with the people belonging to different ethnic groups (Bogdanova, 2010). As it is shown in work of N. M. Huuskonen (2003), he has to "be able to carry out different approaches to judgment and interpretation of local history material: historical, ethnographic, geographical, art criticism, linguistic, psychological, culturological approaches".

Besides learning foreign language, teaching the discipline "Study of local lore" on the program of retraining and professional development of tour guides was carried out in a foreign language that allowed realizing the intersubjective communications between the maintenance of a training material on a foreign language and the maintenance of a basic course according to the program of retraining. In the course of training specialized media audiences were used that allowed each listener "to experience" the recreated cultural environment, to play various roles in dialogues. Thus, listeners not only practice foreign languages, but also expand the professional knowledge and skills in the cultural historic area.

The result of realization of the offered integrative approach of teaching a foreign language when training the guide became the integration, interpenetration, connection of linguistic and professional competences.

The use of social web applications for foreign language teaching in the preparation of tour guides within the classroom and independent work
Teaching of foreign language in the preparation of the tour guides takes place in a limited amount of time, therefore great importance is given to independent work of students, for which it is proposed to make better use of social web applications. Although they can be used in the process of classroom work.

Users of social web applications are millions of people. Students in the experimental group used it as a communication tool mainly for communication with friends. In the experiment, it was suggested to use Facebook in the process of learning a foreign language. A group account was created for students on Facebook, which contained the digital setting. This experiment showed that Facebook really has a big potential in teaching a foreign language, as learners are moving toward the conditions of genuine communication.

Basis of the guide performance is to implement information and communication functions. That implies, above all, the development of oral speech in a foreign language. Oral communication of the guide occurs in Dialogic and monologue form, and in their complex interplay, while Dialogic occupies the primary place. The methodological component of tour guides’ training includes the preparation of a new tour in a foreign language. Social web applications are an inexhaustible source of inspiration and searching for unique ideas and this is a good opportunity to share ideas, developments and projects. In the experimental group was requested not only to develop new trips, but also its filming and posting video on YouTube.

The basis of this approach is the problem-based learning, which allows simulating a real practical situation, the author, answering questions and feedback from subscribers, improves foreign language communicative competence (linguistic, socio-cultural, educational and cognitive component). Moreover, it develops communication and cognitive skills to make the search and selection, to produce generalization, classification, analysis and synthesis of the information received; communication skills to present and discuss the results. The listener does not understand the pre-prepared case, and he becomes its author and acquires a real experience of the design of various types of speech situations.

Thus, social web applications fulfill the role of public pedagogy, assess the adequacy of knowledge of a foreign language directly in the practice of foreign language communication, the exchange of written information, and are an additional way to promote intercultural competence and language learning in foreign language teaching in the training of tour guides.

*Experimental verification of the effectiveness of the proposed methodological aspects of foreign language teaching in the training of tour guides*

In the result of the experimental verification of the proposed recommendations, the following results were obtained (table 3).

| Table 3 Percent of improvement of results of understanding the separate sections of a course in comparison with traditional methods of training in a foreign language, % |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Students for independent work used a group account on Facebook | Upper intermediate | Intermediate | Pre intermediate |
| Preparation and placement of the video about a new excursion to YouTube | 9 | 17 | 18 |

As the results of the study showed, the most effective for groups of students with a low level
of foreign language was the use of a group account on Facebook. However, the preparation and placement of video on the new tour on YouTube proved more effective for all three groups of students.

The overall results of diagnostic before and after learning a foreign language on the program of retraining of the tour guides is shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Diagnostic results before and after learning a foreign language in the programs of professional retraining and advanced training of tour guides, people

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The level of foreign language before the start of training on the programs of professional retraining and advanced training</th>
<th>Upper intermediate</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Pre intermediate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before training</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After training</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the clarity, these data should be presented in a diagram (Fig. 2)

![Diagram showing the structure of students by level of foreign language before and after training](image)

Fig. 2. Structure of students by level of foreign language before and after training on the programs of professional retraining and advanced training

The obtained data showed that by the end of the programme students made fewer spelling and grammatical errors, were more motivated and independent, showed more positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language. In addition, it should be noted that there was an enthusiasm of teachers in using web technologies in their teaching practice. However, there are a number of issues, such as the digital competences of literacy, the technology of
behavior utilization and the lack of access to digital content. The data are based on the results of implementation of the developed methodological aspects of teaching foreign language in the preparation of the tour guides indicate a reliable increase of level of mastering a foreign language.

Discussions

The authors previously wrote that the training of personnel for tourism including tour guides are in need of significant modernization (Zaitseva et al. 2015; Zaitseva et al. 2016; Vinogradova, Kulyamina, Larionova et al., 2016). It is necessary to actively use the project interactive teaching methods that apply the project approach, for example, as in the above experiment with the design and placement of the video about the new tour on YouTube, which is largely similar to the position of S. L. al-Qallaf & A. R. S. al-Mutairi (2016), R. Buga et al. (2014), H. Bicen, S. Sadikoglu & G. Sadiko (2015), M. Lebedeva & L. Pechishcheva (2016), M. Kubiatko, M. Usak & A.R. Masalimova (2016), A.R. Masalimova, M. Usak & A.R. Shaidullina (2016).

However, developing the ideas of A. Oktay (2015), E. Jaleniauskiene (2016) it should be noted that the improvement of the approach to teaching foreign language for specific purposes must consider a number of specific factors that take into account the specific characteristics of certain programs of professional retraining and advanced training, as well as the composition of the groups of trainees.

According to the authors of this study, and this is confirmed by the above results (table 3 and 4), forming groups depending on the experience of students on the profile of professional activity and the level of foreign language will take into account the characteristics of each group in the process of foreign language teaching in the preparation of the tour guides, the preparation of the teaching material and the utilization of teaching methods tailored to the particularities of each specific group of trainees.

Conclusion

The conducted research and the dynamics of the obtained results allow making conclusions about the effectiveness of the suggested methodological aspects of teaching foreign language in the training of tour guides.

On the basis of this study there was formulated a set of recommendations on the use of specially designed training content, and social web applications. Taking into account the formation of students’ groups on the “tour tour” programme, depending on two parameters: the level of foreign language proficiency and professional experience as a tour guide.

The results of the study may be of interest for practicing foreign language teachers, developers of programs of retraining and advanced training of tourism professionals, students of teacher training institutions and for those who are interested in the methodology of teaching foreign language for tour guides.

Taking into account the obtained results of this study a number of research challenges and promising directions that require further consideration may be highlighted: deepening and extension of certain provisions contained in the article that are related to the development of scientific and methodological support of foreign language teaching in the training of guides.
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CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION OF PROFILING ELEMENTS OF PROSODY IN SPEECH_COMMUNICATION: VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN PERSIAN

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Abstract

Background: There is no assessment tool to evaluate receptive and expressive prosodic skills in children in Persian. This paper aimed to cross-culturally adapt of Persian Profiling Elements of Prosody in Speech_Communication (PPEPS_C) and study its validity and reliability.

Study design. A cross-sectional and prospective cohort design was used to psychometrically evaluate the PPEPS_C.

Methods. The materials of the PPEPS_C consisting of words, pictures and sounds were prepared based on English version of the PEPS_C. The panel of experts including speech and language pathologists and linguists evaluated the proposed materials and chose the final suitable items. Then the computerized version of the
PPEPS_C was complied. To study the face validity and discriminative validity, a total of 100 (50 girls, 50 boys) Persian typically developing children aged 5-10 completed the computerized version of the PPEPS_C. The participants were classified into three age groups (5-6; 7-8, and 9-10 age groups). Furthermore, the reliability was determined by internal consistency, intra-rater, and test-retest method.

**Results.** The results indicated that the PPEPS_C has good content and face validity. There was a significant difference between the age groups in all Input tasks except for the Affect (p=0.55). In the Output tasks, there was a significant difference in the Turn end, Long item imitation, and Focus (p<0.05). No significant difference was observed between girls and boys (p≥0.05). Internal consistency of the PPEPS_C showed a high Cronbach’s alpha (0.91). Intra-rater reliability indicated that the Cronbach’s alpha was at mean 0.92 (p<.001). There was no significant difference between test and retest scores by an interval of 14 days (p≥0.05).

**Conclusion.** The PPEPS_C is a valid and reliable tool to assess the expressive and receptive prosodic skills in Persian children aged 5-10 years old.

**Key Words:** Prosody, PEPS-C, Input, Output, Validity, Reliability, Persian, Children.

**Introduction**

Ability to express and perceive prosodic features plays an important role in the communication(1). Prosody can be described as the paralinguistic aspects of speech which manipulate the meaning of message or provide additional information to the message(2, 3). Prosodic cues can be extracted from the variations in pitch, loudness, duration, pause, and speech rate(4). According to the literature, there are several functions for the prosody including affective, grammatical, and pragmatic(2, 5).

Because of significant role of the prosody in social interactions, multiple studies have been designed by language researchers and clinicians to evaluate expressive and perceptive prosody in normal healthy speakers and pathological populations. In this regard, there are several tests that assess prosody such as Profiling Elements of Prosodic Systems-Children”, known as PEPS-C (Peppe´ and McCann, 2003). It is a recent one suitable for assessing prosodic ability in English (6). The PEPS-C investigates expressive and receptive prosody skills in parallel tasks; it shows strengths and weakness of individual receptive and expressive skills in a profile, and it needs no transcription. These advantages made the PEPS-C as a more practical prosody assessment for clinical use (3). The PEPS-C assesses prosodic abilities at both form/function and input/output levels through 12 tasks based on the psycholinguistic framework (table 1). The form level compromises auditory discrimination and production of prosodic effects by imitation. The function tasks consisting Turn end, Affect, Chunking, and Focus require cognitive processing to evaluate affective, grammatical, and pragmatic prosodic functions. The PEPS-C battery consists of six input and output tasks; the Input and output tasks assess the ability of understand and express prosody, respectively (5, 7, 8).
Until recently, there has been a lack of prosody assessment tools accessible to speech and language pathologists and linguistics to evaluate receptive and expressive prosodic skills in normal population or communication disorders in Persian. The aims of the current paper are to adapt the Persian version of the PEPS_C (PPEPS-C) underlying the English version and study its validity and reliability.

**Method**

**Cross-cultural adaptation process**

At first, permission was obtained from one of the English PEPS-C developers, Dr. Sue Peppe. We discussed with Dr. Peppe to extract prosodic features of the English PEPS-C subtests. Based on the prosodic features in English and Persian, we concluded that all subtests can be conveyed to Persian. We need a list of words, pictures and sounds according to the English version. Three speech and language pathologists (SLPs) proposed some words including some food items to use in different subtests of the Persian version of the PEPS_C. According to the English version, these words should be simple that means not to be up to three syllables, and also without any clusters of consonants. Furthermore, the words need to be familiar to Iranian children without any geographic region, economic or social class dependence. Then a panel of experts including 7 SLPs and 3 linguists evaluated the proposed list of words and chose the final suitable words (69 words including 47 simple words and 22 compound words). Double number of real pictures prepared by the research team for the final food items, then 10 SLPs selected well-known and obvious pictures. To confirm that the selected pictures are suitable for the target group as well, they were presented to thirty 5-10 years old typically children (15 girls, 15 boys). All children named the pictures correctly without any problems.

In the next step, a female young native Persian speaker from Tehran, capital of Iran, was recorded producing the stimuli for the PPEPS-C. Every subtest was expressed by specific prosodic feature according to the standard Persian (spoken in Tehran Province). In the turn-end and affect tasks, the speaker indicated variations in intonation as well as loudness and pitch range. Similar to English, the falling intonation is used for the statement and the rising intonation is used for the question in Persian. Also, positive affect is produced with wide contours while negative affect is used with narrow contours. In chunking and focus tasks, she indicated prosodic combinations including intonation, place of pause and prominence. In Persian, chunking is determined by pausing between words and also syllables lengthening; focus is conveyed by emphatic stress to highlight target word in a phrase. These prosodic features were evaluated by a panel of experts (including 7 linguists and 3 SLPs); the best recordings were chosen according to the tasks and Tehrani accent. Finally, the computerized version of the Persian PEPS_C and a special keypad for recording tester’s judgment in output tasks were complied in Sina institute of behavioral sciences.

**Participants**
A total of 100 children aged 5-10 completed the computerized version of the PPEPS_C. Thirty children participated to study the face validity and 70 children included to evaluate the discriminative validity. All participants were recruited from a mainstream pre-schools and primary schools in Tehran, Iran. All met the following criteria: 1) they had no history of hearing, speech or language impairments; 2) they had no major structural abnormality according to the oral assessment; and 3) Farsi was their first and the main language at home. These criteria were evaluated thorough parents or teachers report and also informal assessment by a SLP. Participants were selected by age to form three groups as demonstrated in table 2.

The study protocol was approved by the institutional review board, School of Rehabilitation, and the Ethics Committee of Tehran University of Medical Sciences.

Table 2 about here

Procedure

The computerized version of the PPEPS-C was administered. Participants were assessed individually in a quiet room within their pre-school or primary school. Each child seated in the front of a laptop computer. At first, picture naming was carried out to ensure familiarity with the same/different concept and also the pictures’ name. Then, examiner explained about the tasks and administered two examples and two practice items for every task. The practice items can be delivered up to two times; the child success in completing the practice items was necessary to administrate each task. Administration of the computerized version of the PPEPS-C tasks took about 45 minutes.

Scoring

Each task includes 2 examples, 2 practices, and 16 test items. Only the test items count towards the participant’s total score (High score is 16 in each task). Scoring is automated. In input tasks, the child judgment made by clicking on the half side of the screen to choose the correct response. So, the judgments were binary; 1 for a correct response and 0 for an incorrect response. To rate the child response in output tasks, the examiner used a special keypad in which score 1 means good; score 0.5 means fair, and score 0 means weak. Similar to the original version of the PEPS-C, score 12 (75%) was deemed to represent competence level in each task to obtain a reasonable number of non-chance scores.

Statistical analysis

Descriptive data were reported by means. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to evaluate the normal distribution of prosodic functions in the PPEPS-C. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to study the discriminative validity of the PPEPS-C between three age groups. Also, the discriminative validity of the PPEPS-C between genders was evaluated by the Mann-Whitney test. In the current study, the reliability was determined by internal consistency, intra-rater, and test-retest method. The Cronbach’s α coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency.
reliability. The Cronbach α between 0.7 and 0.95 is interpreted high (9). To ensure the intra-rater reliability, the examiner re-scored 10% of the expressive responses after six months. Intra-rater reliability was calculated by using Cronbach’s alpha. The strength agreement of Cronbach’s alpha ranged from 0.81 to 1 is assessed to be perfect (9). To measure the test-retest reliability, a group of 35 children (half of the children in each age group) was selected randomly to do all tasks after an interval of two weeks. The test-retest reliability was measured by using Spearman’s correlation coefficient, which revealed the Spearman’s correlation coefficient value r≥0.70 indicating high correlation (9). Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS 16.0 statistical software (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL).

Results

Face validity

The computerized version of the PPEPS_C was presented by a group of four SLPs to thirteen 5-10 aged typically children (15 girls & 15 boys) to find out how much they understand each item correctly. According to the SLPs views; the understandability of each item showed the computerized version of the PPEPS_C has a good face validity.

Prosodic performance in PPEPS-C

Descriptive statistics for the PPEPS_C scores by each age group are presented in figure 1 & 2. All participants performed at and above chance level or near ceiling scores in all tasks except for the long item discrimination (group 1) and the Focus Output (group 1 & 2). Moreover, the scores continue to rise with age in the most tasks.

Discriminate validity

Age-related prosodic performance

Nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis One-Way analysis of variance was used to study the discriminative validity of the PPEPS_C between three age groups (Table 3). The results show that there was a significant difference between the age groups in all of the Input tasks except for the Affect tasks (p=0.55). In Output tasks, there was a significant difference in three of six tasks (Turn end, Long item imitation, and Focus; p<0.05). There were no significant difference on the Short item imitation (p=0.18), the Affect (p=0.15), and the Chunking (p=0.14) Output tasks.

Table 3 about here

To investigate age-related differences between the age groups, post hoc Mann Whitney with adjusted by Bonferroni tests were carried out. The results indicated that there are significant differences between the 5–6 and 7–8 age groups on the Short item discrimination, Turn end Input, and Long Item discrimination tasks (p≥0.001). Also, significant differences was observed between the 5-6 and 9-10 age groups in the Short item discrimination, Turn end Input and Output, Long item
discrimination, and Imitation tasks \( p=0.00 \). No significant difference was not seen between the 7–8 and 9–10 age groups in all tasks \( p \geq 0.001 \).

**Sex-related prosodic performance**

To study the discriminative validity of the PPEPS-C between girls and boys, Mann-Whitney test was done. There were no significant differences between girls and boys \( p \geq 0.05 \).

**Reliability**

**Internal Consistency**

The measurement of the internal consistency reliability showed a high Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for the computerized version of the PPEPS-C \( 0.91 \).

**Intra-rater reliability**

Intra-rater reliability was calculated by using Cronbach’s alpha which revealed that the Cronbach’s alpha was at mean 0.92 \( p < .001 \).

**Test-Retest Reliability**

Moderate to excellent test-retest reliability was found for all Input tasks \( r=0.54-0.84; p < .001 \) except for the Affect \( r=0.22; p=0.18 \). Also, Moderate to excellent test-retest reliability was obtained for all Output tasks \( r=0.53-0.88; p < .001 \) except for the Affect and Chunking \( r=0.28 \) and \( r=0.31; p=0.09 \) and \( p=0.06 \), respectively.

**Discussion**

The aims of the present study were to adapt the PPEPS-C and investigate its validity and reliability. The PPEPS_C showed good content and face validity. Our results confirmed the PPEPS-C is highly reliable to evaluate prosodic performance in Persian typically children aged 5-10. It differentiated between target age groups but it was not able to differentiate between girls and boys.

**Validity**

In relation to the first aim, a panel of experts including SLPs and linguists approved that all PPEPS-C materials are suitable; this result supports the Peppé et al (2006) findings that confirm ecological validity of the PEPS-C for use as a clinical assessment tool \( 10 \). The understandability of the PPEPS_C was confirmed by 5-10 years old typically children. As far as we know, the face validity has not been studied in other versions of the PEPS-C.

Prosodic performance in PPEPS-C revealed that 5-10 years old typically children performed above competence level in all tasks except for the Long item discrimination and Focus Output; children aged 7-8 years old performed above competence level in all tasks except for the Focus Output. However, 9-10 year-old age group, performed above the competence level in all tasks. We can conclude that ability to perceive and express of prosody develops noticeably by the age of 8;11 years in while ability to express contrastive stress continues to develop by the age of
11 years or older in Persian. These findings are congruent with the reports of Peppe et al. (2006) and Foley et al. (2011) that found all prosodic skills except for the Chunking Output acquired by the ages of 8 and 9 years, respectively in Scottish and Irish (11, 12). Similar results have been observed in the functional tasks by Wells et al. (2004) (13). The authors indicated that although UK children aged 5 could acquire many functional prosodic skills, they performed below competence level in the Turn-end Input/Output and also Affect Output. They suggested these skills continue to develop between 5 and 8 years old (13). Moreover, the study by Martinez-Castilla et al. (2008) revealed that approximately all prosodic skills acquired from the age of 7;6 years in both Spanish and UK children, but participants younger than 13;6 years unable to use contrastive stress appropriately (14).

It seems there are some similarities and also differences between Persian and other languages in the development of prosodic skills. The majority of prosodic skills improve up to a certain age in different languages, but the age to acquire these skills is slightly different between them. The remaining prosodic skills require more time to develop (Table 4). More investigations are necessary to explore developmental differences between languages in future.

Similar to other speech and language skills, prosodic abilities can change and improve across the lifespan (15); the results of current study indicated that the PPEPS-C can show age-related difference between target age groups. We found no significant difference in prosodic performance between the 7–8 and 9–10 age groups; however the most difference was seen between 5-6 and 9-10 age groups. These findings are in agreement with results from all other versions of the PEPS-C. Wells et al. (2004), Peppe et al. (2006), and Foley et al. (2011) concluded English version of the PEPS-C is a suitable tool to indicate prosody progress in children (11-13). Martinez-Castilla et al. (2008) obtained same findings in both English and Spanish version of the PEPS-C (14). No difference was observed between Persian girls and boys in prosodic abilities. In the other hands, expressive and receptive prosodic skills are very similar to each other in Persian girls and boys. This result is in line with the result of the previous investigation in English; wells et al. (2004) found there were no significant effect of gender on prosodic performance from five to thirteen years in English (13).

Table 4 about here

Reliability

The PPEPS-C obtained satisfactory internal consistency with Cronbach alpha >0.9. The acceptable high internal consistency for the PPEPS-C reveal the homogeneity of all tasks means that they measure the same construct. In the previous studies, there were no data about internal consistency of all versions of the PEPS-C (11-14). Indeed, Intra-rater reliability findings revealed a very good level of agreement between the first and second scoring of the same rater by interval of six months (9). This result was agreement with the findings reported by sue et al. (2003) for the original version of the PEPS-C (6). The value for the test-retest reliability confirmed the strong
agreement between two measurements over time using the PPEPS-C. This is the first study to investigate test-retest reliability of the PEPS-C; no data are available on the test-retest reliability for the original PEPS-C and also other versions(11-14). Wells et al (2004) believed the test-retest is invalid technique to assess reliability of this test because children language skills may develop over time(13). However, in the current study, we have evaluated children within two weeks; it seems that remarkable development in the prosodic skills can not occur during two weeks between 5-10 years old.

Conclusion

Results of the current study show that the Persian version of the PEPS_C (PPEPS_C) is a valid and reliable tool for the assessment of expressive and receptive of prosodic skills in 5-10 years old typically developing children in standard Persian. It can provide a profile of expressive and receptive prosodic skills based on the psycholinguistic approach. This test can reveal the development of prosodic performance in typically developing children in Persian, particularly between 5-6 and 9-10 age groups. Furthermore, the PPEPS_C can use to evaluate prosodic skills in Persian children with different pathological conditions who have abnormalities in expression and/or reception of prosody.

References:

8. CATTERALL C, HOWARD S, STOJANOVIK V, SZCZERBINSKI M, WELLS


Table 1- Prosodic tasks in the Profiling Elements of Prosodic Systems-Children (PEPS-C)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function level</th>
<th>Form level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Receptive</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>tasks</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Input)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turn-end</td>
<td>Short-item Discrimination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chunking</td>
<td>Long-item Discrimination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expressive</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>tasks</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Output)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turn-end</td>
<td>Short-item imitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chunking</td>
<td>Long-item imitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2- Characteristics of three age groups of participants (n= 100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Age (Years; months)</th>
<th>Study Aim</th>
<th>Number (Male, Female)</th>
<th>Mean age (Years; months)</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range (Years; months)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>5-6; 11</td>
<td>Face validity</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5;5</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>5;9–6;11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Preschool &amp; grade 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Discriminative validity</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5;7</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>5;0–6;8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>7-8; 11</td>
<td>Face validity</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7;2</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>7;1–8;11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Grade 2 &amp; grade 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Discriminative validity</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8;0</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>7;1–8;11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3</td>
<td>9-10; 11</td>
<td>Face validity</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10;1</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>9;1–10;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Grade 4 &amp; grade 5)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Discriminative validity</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9;9</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>9;0–10;8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3- Statistically significant differences between age groups on prosodic tasks (n=70)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input tasks</th>
<th>Output tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>Short item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6; 11 years old (n=30)</td>
<td>21.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8; 11 years old (n=20)</td>
<td>43.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-10; 11 years old (n=20)</td>
<td>48.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square

| Df | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  |

| P  | .00 | .00 | 0/  | .00 | 0/  | .00 | .00 | 0/  | .00 | 0/  | 0/  | 0/  | 0/  |

| df: Degree of freedom; P: P value of kruskal-wallis one way analysis of variance (≥0.05) |
Figure 1- Mean scores of the Persian version of Profiling Elements of Prosodic Systems-Children (PPEPS-C) by the age groups for the Input prosodic tasks (n=70)

Figure 2- Mean scores of the Persian version of Profiling Elements of Prosodic Systems-Children (PPEPS-C) by the age groups for the Output prosodic tasks (n=70)